



NMUN • NY

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMISSION FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

BACKGROUND GUIDE 2011

WRITTEN BY: Yvonne Jeffery, Felipe Ante, Frank-Alexander Raabe and Rachel Shindelar



NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS
nmun.org

CONTACT THE NMUN

Please consult the FAQ section of nmun.org for answers to your questions. If you do not find a satisfactory answer you may also contact the individuals below for personal assistance. They may answer your question(s) or refer you to the best source for an answer.

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NMUN Secretary-General
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NMUN•NY 2011 Important Dates

IMPORTANT NOTICE: To make hotel reservations, you must use the forms at nmun.org and include a \$1,000 deposit. Discount rates are available until the room block is full or one month before the conference – whichever comes first. **PLEASE BOOK EARLY!**

31 January 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confirm Attendance & Delegate Count. (Count may be changed up to 1 March) • Make Transportation Arrangements - DON'T FORGET! <p>(We recommend confirming hotel accommodations prior to booking flights.)</p>
15 February 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Committee Updates Posted to www.nmun.org
1 March 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotel Registration with FULL PRE-PAYMENT Due to Hotel - Register Early! <p>Group Rates on hotel rooms are available on a first come, first served basis until sold out. Group rates, if still available, may not be honored after that date. See hotel reservation form for date final payment is due.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any Changes to Delegate Numbers Must be Confirmed to: outreach@nmun.org • Preferred deadline for submission of Chair / Rapp applications to Committee Chairs • All Conference Fees Due to NMUN for confirmed delegates. <p>(\$125 per delegate if paid by 1 March; \$150 per delegate if received after 1 March. Fee is not refundable after this deadline.</p>
15 March 2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two Copies of Each Position Paper Due via E-mail <p>(See Delegate Preparation Guide for instructions).</p>
NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS	<p>The 2011 National Model UN Conference</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 17 - 21 April – Sheraton New York • 19 - 23 April – New York Marriott Marquis <p>The 2012 National Model UN Conference</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 - 5 April – Sheraton New York • 3 - 7 April – New York Marriott Marquis • 30 March - 3 April – New York Marriott Marquis

POSITION PAPER INSTRUCTIONS

Two copies of each position paper should be sent via e-mail by 15 MARCH 2011

1. TO COMMITTEE STAFF

A file of the position paper (.doc or .pdf) for each assigned committee should be sent to the committee e-mail address listed below. Mail papers by 15 March to the e-mail address listed for your particular venue. These e-mail addresses will be active when background guides are available. Delegates should carbon copy (cc:) themselves as confirmation of receipt. Please put committee and assignment in the subject line (Example: GAPLEN_Greece).

2. TO DIRECTOR-GENERAL

- Each delegation should send one set of all position papers for each assignment to the e-mail designated for their venue: positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org or positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org.

This set (held by each Director-General) will serve as a back-up copy in case individual committee directors cannot open attachments.

Note: This e-mail should only be used as a repository for position papers.

- The head delegate or faculty member sending this message should cc: him/herself as confirmation of receipt. (Free programs like Adobe Acrobat or WinZip may need to be used to compress files if they are not plain text.)

- Because of the potential volume of e-mail, only one e-mail from the Head Delegate or Faculty Advisor containing all attached position papers will be accepted.

Please put committee, assignment and delegation name in the subject line (Example: Cuba_U_of_ABC). If you have any questions, please contact the Director-General at dirgen@nmun.org.

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for more information

COMMITTEE

EMAIL - SHERATON

General Assembly First Committee	ga1st.sheraton@nmun.org
General Assembly Second Committee	ga2nd.sheraton@nmun.org
General Assembly Third Committee.....	ga3rd.sheraton@nmun.org
Human Rights Council.....	hrc.sheraton@nmun.org
ECOSOC Plenary	ecosoc.sheraton@nmun.org
Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice	ccpcj.sheraton@nmun.org
Commission on the Status of Women	csw.sheraton@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific	escap.sheraton@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia	escwa.sheraton@nmun.org
United Nations Environment Programme	unep.sheraton@nmun.org
United Nations Population Fund	unfpa.sheraton@nmun.org
United Nations Children's Fund.....	unicef.sheraton@nmun.org
World Intellectual Property Organization	wipo.sheraton@nmun.org
African Development Bank	afdb.sheraton@nmun.org
Group of 20.....	g20.sheraton@nmun.org
Organization of American States	oas.sheraton@nmun.org
Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe.....	osce.sheraton@nmun.org
Security Council.....	sc.sheraton@nmun.org
Security Council 2.....	sc2.sheraton@nmun.org
International Court of Justice.....	icj.sheraton@nmun.org
Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference	npt.sheraton@nmun.org

COMMITTEE

EMAIL - MARRIOTT

General Assembly First Committee	ga1st.marriott@nmun.org
General Assembly Second Committee	ga2nd.marriott@nmun.org
General Assembly Third Committee.....	ga3rd.marriott@nmun.org
Human Rights Council.....	hrc.marriott@nmun.org
ECOSOC Plenary	ecosoc.marriott@nmun.org
Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice	ccpcj.marriott@nmun.org
Commission on the Status of Women	csw.marriott@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific	escap.marriott@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia	escwa.marriott@nmun.org
United Nations Environment Programme	unep.marriott@nmun.org
United Nations Population Fund	unfpa.marriott@nmun.org
United Nations Children's Fund.....	unicef.marriott@nmun.org
World Intellectual Property Organization	wipo.marriott@nmun.org
African Development Bank	afdb.marriott@nmun.org
Group of 20.....	g20.marriott@nmun.org
Organization of American States	oas.marriott@nmun.org
Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe.....	osce.marriott@nmun.org
Security Council.....	sc.marriott@nmun.org
Security Council 2.....	sc2.marriott@nmun.org
International Court of Justice.....	icj.marriott@nmun.org
Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference	npt.marriott@nmun.org

OTHER USEFUL CONTACTS

Entire Set of Delegation Position Papers	positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org
(send only to e-mail for your assigned venue).....	positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org
Secretary-General	secgen@nmun.org
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Dear Delegates,

We are pleased to welcome you to the 2011 National Model United Nations (NMUN). Staff for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific this year is: Directors Felipe Ante and Yvonne Jeffery, and Assistant Directors Rachel Schindelar and Frank-Alexander Raabe. Felipe is currently in his fourth year of a BA in International Relations with Political Science and History at the Universidad San Francisco de Quito, Ecuador. He is focusing on gaining a Masters in Conflict Resolution in order to work for specialized non-governmental organizations in that area. Yvonne is currently working on her Master's thesis as part of the MSc in International Public Policy at University College London. She is specializing in policies to alleviate gender inequality, and will be pursuing a Ph.D. in this area when she graduates. This is both Felipe and Yvonne's fourth NMUN overall, and their second conference on staff. Rachel was born and raised in Minnesota and is currently finishing an M.A. in Political Science, Economics and Sociology at the Ludwig-Maximilian University Munich. This spring Rachel will submit her thesis on Aid-Effectiveness and the Paris Declaration; in addition she plans to pursue a professional career in foreign aid and development. Frank-Alexander has just graduated from WHU School of Management in Germany and is currently working for the European Union's diplomatic mission in Malaysia. His aim is to complete a Masters in International Affairs, and forge a career in this area.

The topics under discussion for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific are:

- 1) Promoting gender equality as a means to combat HIV incidence in the Asia and Pacific region
- 2) Strengthening development policies for social inclusion
- 3) Achieving energy security through energy diversity

The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) is the largest United Nations body in service in the region, reflecting the fact that it encompasses sixty-two Member States with a combined population that accounts for sixty percent of the world's total. As such, ESCAP is particularly important in facilitating solutions on issues, which require regional cooperation, and this is an essential factor to keep in mind whilst you research your topics and write your position papers.

This background guide will serve as a brief introduction to the three topics listed. Accordingly, it is not meant to be used as an all inclusive analysis but as the groundwork for your own analysis and research. To conduct your research, please consult scholarly materials, including journals, international news, and the United Nations website, amongst others. You will need to familiarize yourself with the work and current operations of ESCAP.

Each delegation must submit a position paper. NMUN will accept position papers via e-mail March 15, 2011 Eastern Standard Time (GMT-5). Please refer to the message from your Directors-General for an explanation of the NMUN position paper requirements and restrictions.

Delegates' adherence to these guidelines is crucial. NMUN can be one of the most rewarding academic experiences of your college career. We hope that this year's conference will not only intrigue you to participate again, but also that you find it as beneficial as we have. If you have any questions regarding preparation, please feel free to contact any of the ESCAP substantive staff or the Under-Secretaries General for the Department of the Economic and Social Council, Vera Todorova and Kristina Mader.

Good luck in your preparation for the conference. We look forward to seeing you in April!

Sheraton Venue

Yvonne Jeffery, Director

Frank-Alexander Raabe, Assistant-Director

escap.sheraton@nmun.org

Marriott Venue

Felipe Ante, Director

Rachel Schindelar, Assistant-Director

escap.marriott@nmun.org

Message from the Directors-General Regarding Position Papers for the 2011 NMUN Conference

At the 2011 NMUN New York Conference, each delegation submits one position paper for each committee it is assigned to. Delegates should be aware that their role in each committee impacts the way a position paper should be written. While most delegates will serve as representatives of Member States, some may also serve as observers, NGOs or judicial experts. To understand these fine differences, please refer to the Delegate Preparation Guide.

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

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

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

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

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

1. **A file of the position paper** (.doc or .pdf) **for each assigned committee** should be sent to the committee email address listed in the Background Guide. These e-mail addresses will be active after November 15, 2010. Delegates should carbon copy (cc:) themselves as confirmation of receipt.
2. Each delegation should also send **one set of all position papers** to the e-mail designated for their venue: positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org or positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org. This set will serve as a back-up copy in case individual committee directors cannot open attachments. These copies will also be made available in Home Government during the week of the NMUN Conference.

Each of the above listed tasks needs to be completed no later than **March 15, 2010 (GMT-5) for delegations attending the NMUN conference at either the Sheraton or the Marriott venue.**

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

A matrix of received papers will be posted online for delegations to check prior to the Conference. If you need to make other arrangements for submission, please contact Holger Baer, Director-General, Sheraton venue, or Brianna Johnston-Hanks, Director-General, Marriott venue at dirgen@nmun.org. There is an option for delegations to submit physical copies via regular mail if needed.

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

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

Each delegation can submit a copy of their position paper to the permanent mission of the country being represented, along with an explanation of the Conference. Those delegations representing NGOs do not have to send their position paper to their NGO headquarters, although it is encouraged. This will assist them in preparation for the mission briefing in New York.

Finally, please consider that over 2,000 papers will be handled and read by the Secretariat for the Conference. Your patience and cooperation in strictly adhering to the above guidelines will make this process more efficient and is greatly appreciated. Should you have any questions please feel free to contact the Conference staff, though as we do not operate out of a central office or location your consideration for time zone differences is appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Sheraton Venue
Holger Baer
Director-General
holger@nmun.org

Marriott Venue
Brianna Johnston-Hanks
Director-General
briannaj@nmun.org

Sample Position Paper

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

Delegation from
Canada

Represented by
(Name of College)

Position Paper for General Assembly Plenary

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

I. Breaking the link between Diamonds and Armed Conflict

Canada endorses the Kimberly Process in promoting accountability, transparency, and effective governmental regulation of trade in rough diamonds. We believe the Kimberly Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is an essential international regulatory mechanism and encourage all Member States to contribute to market accountability by seeking membership, participation, and compliance with its mandate. Canada urges Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2007 Kimberley Process Communiqué to strengthen government oversight of rough diamond trading and manufacturing by developing domestic legal frameworks similar to the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative. We call upon participating States to act in accordance with the KPCS's comprehensive and credible systems of peer review to monitor the continued implementation of the Kimberley Process and ensure full transparency and self-examination of domestic diamond industries. We draw attention to our domestic programs for diamond regulation including Implementing the Export and Import of Rough Diamonds Act and urge Member States to consider these programs in developing the type of domestic regulatory frameworks called for in A/RES/55/56. Canada recognizes the crucial role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the review of rough diamond control measures developed through the Kimberly Process and encourages States to include NGOs, such as Global Witness and Partnership Africa Canada, in the review processes called for in A/RES/58/290. We urge Member States to act in accordance with A/RES/60/182 to optimize the beneficial development impact of artisanal and alluvial diamond miners by establishing a coordinating mechanism for financial and technical assistance through the Working Group of the Kimberly Process of Artisanal Alluvial Producers. Canada calls upon States and NGOs to provide basic educational material regarding diamond valuation and market prices for artisanal diggers, as recommended by the Diamond Development Initiative. Canada will continue to adhere to the 2007 Brussels Declaration on Internal Controls of Participants and is dedicated to ensuring accountability, transparency, and effective regulation of the rough diamond trade through the utilization of voluntary peer review systems and the promotion of increased measures of internal control within all diamond producing States.

II. The Promotion of Alternative Sources of Energy

Canada is dedicated to integrating alternative energy sources into climate change frameworks by diversifying the energy market while improving competitiveness in a sustainable economy, as exemplified through our Turning Corners Report and Project Green climate strategies. We view the international commitment to the promotion of alternative sources of energy called for in the Kyoto Protocol and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Control (UNFCCC) as a catalyst to sustainable development and emission reduction. Canada fulfills its obligations to Article 4 of the UNFCCC by continuing to provide development assistance through the Climate Change Development Fund and calls upon Member States to commit substantial financial and technical investment toward the transfer of sustainable energy technologies and clean energy mechanisms to developing States. We emphasize the need for Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2005 Beijing International Renewable Energy Conference to strengthen domestic policy frameworks to promote clean energy technologies. Canada views

dissemination of technology information called for in the 2007 Group of Eight Growth and Responsibility in the World Economy Declaration as a vital step in energy diversification from conventional energy generation. We call upon Member States to integrate clean electricity from renewable sources into their domestic energy sector by employing investment campaigns similar to our \$1.48 billion initiative ecoENERGY for Renewable Power. Canada encourages States to develop domestic policies of energy efficiency, utilizing regulatory and financing frameworks to accelerate the deployment of clean low-emitting technologies. We call upon Member States to provide knowledge-based advisory services for expanding access to energy in order to fulfill their commitments to Goal 1 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Canada urges States to address the concerns of the 2007 Human Development Report by promoting tax incentives, similar to the Capital Cost Allowances and Canadian Renewable and Conservation Expenses, to encourage private sector development of energy conservation and renewable energy projects. As a member of the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership, Canada is committed to accelerating the development of renewable energy projects, information sharing mechanisms, and energy efficient systems through the voluntary carbon offset system. We are dedicated to leading international efforts toward the development and sharing of best practices on clean energy technologies and highlight our release of the Renewable Energy Technologies Screen software for public and private stakeholders developing projects in energy efficiency, cogeneration, and renewable energy. Canada believes the integration of clean energy into State specific strategies called for in A/62/419/Add.9 will strengthen energy diversification, promote the use of cogeneration, and achieve a synergy between promoting alternative energy while allowing for competitiveness in a sustainable economy.

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

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

History of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

Introduction

To promote development and advance reconstruction in the aftermath of World War II (WWII), the United Nations (UN) established two working groups, one for Europe and one for Asia and the Far East. Their work laid the path for the establishment of the UN permanent regional development organs.¹ The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) is the regional body created in this process responsible for the Asian and Pacific region in the UN system. ESCAP was originally founded in Shanghai in 1947 under the name Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE).² The original membership—The Republic of China, the Philippines, Thailand, India, The French Republic, The Netherlands, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States of America—clearly reflected the political power structure of the region at that time, due to the fact that much of the region was still under colonial rule, occupied as a result of WWII or dependent on Western foreign aid for reconstruction.³ Since then, the Asian and Pacific region, as well as ECAFE, have undergone major transitions. In the next two decades the decolonization process saw the birth of multiple new countries in the region such as Indonesia and Cambodia, which would eventually come to join ECAFE.⁴ In 1974 ECAFE became ESCAP to appropriately reflect this transformation.⁵ Currently located in Bangkok, Thailand ESCAP now has 53 Member States and 9 Associate Members.⁶ Of these members 58 are located in the region spanning from New Zealand in the south over Russia in the north to Turkey in the west.⁷ Associate Member status is granted to those territories in the region that do not possess full sovereignty or those not currently members of the United Nations (UN).⁸

Goals and Principles

The original Terms of Reference assigned to ECAFE by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) encompassed facilitating reconstruction, conducting studies concerning economic development and compiling statistics for the Asian and Pacific region.⁹ After deciding to indefinitely renew ECAFE's mandate in 1952, ECOSOC also requested that this organ provide "advisory services" to its Member States regarding inter alia economic development.¹⁰ With the adoption of the General Assembly (GA) resolution 32/197 (1977) on "Restructuring the Economic and Social Structures of the United Nations System" the mandate of ESCAP, along with the four other regional commissions, was further expanded.¹¹ This resolution led to the additional institutionalization of the regional commissions, officially installing them as the "main economic and development centers in the United Nations system for their respective regions"¹² and solidifying their participation in the decision-making and implementation process of ECOSOC and the UN General Assembly (GA). Inside this official framework ESCAP has committed itself to achieving the following goals in its region: reduce poverty, address the consequences of globalization, advance environmental sustainability and tackle emerging social issues through regional cooperation.¹³ To achieve these goals ESCAP promotes projects regarding macroeconomic policy and development, environment, transportation, trade and investment, information and communication, social

¹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.18

² Schaaf, 1953, *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East* p.464

³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.19

⁴ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *ESCAP Members and Associate Members*.

⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.19

⁶ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *ESCAP Members and Associate Members*.

⁷ For a full list of ESCAP Member States, see unescap.org/about/member.asp

⁸ Schaaf, 1953, *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East* p.464

⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*.

¹⁰ Schaaf, 1953, *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far*, p.463

¹¹ United Nations General Assembly, 1977, *GA/RES/32/197: Restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system*, Annex paragraphs 19-27

¹² United Nations General Assembly, 1977, *GA/RES/32/197: Restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system*, Annex paragraphs 19-27

¹³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Because People Matter*

development, statistics and the implementation of the millennium development goals.¹⁴ ESCAP's focus is thus on addressing issues that affect all or a group of countries in the region, which are best addressed by a multilateral approach, that previously lacked the necessary regional attention and that are "transboundary by nature".¹⁵ To realize the above-mentioned mandate and goals ESCAP can use its resolutions to make recommendations directly to the governments of its Member States or to ECOSOC.¹⁶ However, these recommendations are limited to the areas of economic and social development highlighted above and any decisions "that would have important effects on the economy of the world as a whole" must be approved by ECOSOC prior to implementation. Furthermore, upon concluding its annual meeting, ESCAP is required to submit a report to ECOSOC and may be subject to review by the Council at any point in time.¹⁷ Finally, as a sub-organ of ECOSOC, ESCAP is required to assist the Council in "its functions within the region."¹⁸

Organizational Framework

Clearly, in its evolution ESCAP has gone far beyond a simple commission to become a rather complex organization. The highest authority in ESCAP is the ESCAP Commission (the Commission).¹⁹ Consisting of representatives from all Member States at ministerial level, the Commission convenes annually to review the work of the organization and make necessary final decisions.²⁰ In this sense, the Commission is the main legislative organ, approving the work of its sub-organs or assigning these bodies future mandates.²¹ To improve the effectiveness of its work the Commission established the eight following committees in 2008: the Committee on Macroeconomic Policy, Poverty Reduction and Inclusive Development; the Committee on Trade and Investment; the Committee on Transport; the Committee on Environment and Development; the Committee on Information and Communications Technology; the Committee on Disaster Risk Reduction; the Committee on Social Development; the Committee on Statistics.²² The work of these committees focuses on promoting regional cooperation and dialogue to produce common positions as well as identify common regional trends and priorities. Additionally, the committees produce suggestions for future resolutions of the Commission and monitor the implementation of previous resolutions.²³

The executive and administrative branch of ESCAP is the ESCAP Secretariat. This organ consists of the Office of the Executive Secretary, seven substantive divisions, the Administrative Services Division (ASD), and the Program Management Division (PMD).²⁴ As ESCAP's highest administrative officer the Executive Secretary acts on behalf of the UN Secretary-General and manages the entire staff necessary for ESCAP's work, makes arrangements for the meetings of the Commission and proposes the annual budget.²⁵ The substantive divisions, one for each of the committees of the Commission, are responsible for providing these with substantive and administrative assistance. The ASD in turn, provides the substantive divisions with administrative assistance and the PMD focuses mainly on budgeting, planning, and facilitating cooperation among the bodies of the secretariat and ESCAP.²⁶

¹⁴ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Because People Matter*

¹⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *About Us – General Description*.

¹⁶ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, paragraph 8

¹⁷ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Paragraphs 1 and 8; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure for the Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific*. Chapter XIV, rule 60

¹⁸ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, paragraph 1e

¹⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure for the Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific*.

²⁰ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – Commission*

²¹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, paragraph 1

²² United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Resolution 64/1: Restructuring the conference structure of the Commission*, Annex I, Section II paragraphs 6 -11

²³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *About Us – Commission*

²⁴ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *About Us – General Description*

²⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Chapter V; rule 18-21

²⁶ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *General Description –Administrative Services; About the Programme and Management Division*.

The Advisory Committee of Permanent Representatives and Other Representatives Designated by Members of the Commission (ACPR) helps facilitate communication and coordination between the Executive Secretariat and the Commission.²⁷ Constituting representatives from all Member States and Associate Members the ACPR meets on a regular basis to review and discuss the work of the Commission with the Secretariat.²⁸ Additionally, ESCAP has five sub-regional offices and operates five regional institutions: the Asian and Pacific Training Centre for Information and Communication Technology for Development (APCICT), the Centre for Alleviation of Poverty through Secondary Crops' Development in Asia and the Pacific (CAPSA), the Asian and Pacific Centre for Agricultural Engineering and Machinery (APCAEM), the Asian and Pacific Centre for Transfer of Technology (APCTT), and the Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP).²⁹

Achievements

ESCAP's greatest achievements stem from its work in the areas of regional statistics, conference administration and policy assistance. Originally created to conduct statistical analysis of the region, ESCAP has excelled at this work.³⁰ Especially revolutionary has been its work on poverty and population analysis.³¹ Furthermore, ESCAP's organization and execution of conferences has led to great achievements such as the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.³² Finally, ESCAP has been very successful in advising its members on policy formulation, resulting for example in the effective promotion of population control in the 1970s.³³ In over 60 years of existence ESCAP has become an irreplaceable body for both effective action and assistance concerning economic and social development in the region.

I. Promoting gender equality as a means to combat HIV incidence in the Asia and Pacific region

“Let us resolve to empower women and girls by our commitment to gender equality. And let us remember that every society that wishes to overcome poverty, hunger, armed conflict and disease must draw fully on the talents and contribution of all of its members.”³⁴

Introduction

In 2002, the then Secretary-General of the United Nations (UN) Kofi Annan declared that “AIDS has a woman's face.”³⁵ The link between gender and a higher incidence of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) infection has become a significant factor in the pandemic, and consequently a deep concern in the search for a global solution.³⁶ Concern has not yet been adequately translated into effective action, however. Gender inequality inhibits not only the efforts to reduce the incidence of HIV/AIDS, but the progress of development on the whole; the 1985 Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategy stated bluntly that “without the advancement of women, development itself will be difficult to achieve.”³⁷ Attaining gender equality is therefore an imperative for the international community in its quest to achieve the sixth Millennium Development Goal (MDG):

²⁷ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – Advisory Body (ACPR)*.

²⁸ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – General Description*.

²⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – Subregional Activities for Development*

³⁰ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*, p.75

³¹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*, p.93

³² United Nations. Commission on the Status of Women, 1995, *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women: Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*;

³³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.75

³⁴ Annan, *World Population Day Message*, 2005.

³⁵ Annan, *In Africa, AIDS has a woman's face*, 2002.

³⁶ UNAIDS, *Fast facts about HIV*, 2008, p. 1.

³⁷ Weiss, *What's Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 98.

combating HIV/AIDS.³⁸ Of the global population infected with HIV/AIDS, around half are female, and one in every five new incidences of HIV globally occurs in the Asia and Pacific region.³⁹ The term ‘gender’ is rather nebulous, and in accordance with the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) definition, it is understood here as referring to the “widely held beliefs, expectations, customs and practices within a society that define ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ attributes, behaviours and roles and responsibilities.”⁴⁰ The gender inequalities which arise from these societal factors are often deeply-rooted and therefore resistant to change. They manifest themselves in a number of forms: illiteracy and poverty, sexual violence (such as rape by intimate partners or strangers, mob rape or terrorism and counter-terrorism; in the transnational arena as refugees, labour migrant or trafficked prostitutes; in times of peace or armed conflict), lack of sexual autonomy, multiple sexual partners, genital mutilation and other harmful practices, prostitution and child marriage.⁴¹ The following sections will examine the history of the promotion of gender equality and its use in combating HIV/AIDS, particularly within the context of two case studies: Thailand and Fiji.

The United Nations and the Promotion of Gender Equality

In 1946, the newly created UN established the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) and the Branch for the Advancement of Women, whose purpose was to monitor the position of women and to promote women’s rights.⁴² In subsequent years, a host of declarations and conventions were created and adopted to supplement these primary foundations and support the quest for gender equality, most significantly the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948, the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1953) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979 (an Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women was adopted in 1999). Until very recently, ever since the incipient stages of the quest for gender equality by the UN, responsibility for gender issues has been dispersed amongst a number of bodies in addition to the CSW: the UN Population Fund (UNFPA), the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), the Office of the Special Advisor to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women (OSAGI), the UN Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), and the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).⁴³ A particular, and substantial, obstacle in efforts to secure effective action has been this very multiplicity of organizations and conventions, and the resulting “lack of coordination and overlapping jurisdiction.”⁴⁴ Weiss comments especially that “multiple UN agencies (in this area) have also hindered the UN’s effectiveness at promoting women’s empowerment, which has considerable ramifications for women.”⁴⁵ However, on the 2 July 2010, the UN General Assembly voted unanimously to create the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, or UN Women, in an attempt to rectify and strengthen their stance, policies and action in this area.⁴⁶ Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon enthused of the new body that “UN Women will significantly boost UN efforts to promote gender equality, expand opportunity, and tackle discrimination around the globe.”⁴⁷

In global terms, specific initiatives commenced in 1975 with the first of the World Conferences on Women in Mexico City (the World Conference of the International Women’s Year), which recommended the UN Decade for Women 1976-1985.⁴⁸ The second took place in 1980, with the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women in Copenhagen, and the third transpired at the culmination of the Decade for Women in Nairobi in 1985, entitled the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women.⁴⁹ In 1995, Beijing hosted the Fourth World Conference on Women which revolved primarily around the issue of the feminization of poverty, and resulted in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.⁵⁰ Three five-year reviews

³⁸ United Nations, *Goal 6: combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases*, 2010.

³⁹ UNESCAP, *Women and HIV/AIDS*, 2004, p. 1.

⁴⁰ UNAIDS, *Gender*, 2010.

⁴¹ ECOSOC, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women*, 2003, p. 15-16.

⁴² OHCHR, *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, 1979.

⁴³ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 98.

⁴⁴ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 97.

⁴⁵ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 97.

⁴⁶ UN Women, *UN Creates New Structure for Empowerment of Women*, 2010.

⁴⁷ UN Women, *UN Creates New Structure for Empowerment of Women*, 2010.

⁴⁸ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 99.

⁴⁹ DAW, *Beijing and its Follow-up*, 2010.

⁵⁰ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 99;

of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action have taken place in New York, the Beijing + 5 in 2000, Beijing + 10 in 2005, and most recently the Beijing + 15 in 2010.⁵¹

ESCAP has played an active role in these proceedings, but there are a number of issues which need to be examined in regional terms in order to truly evaluate past efforts and to gauge the current situation in terms of the promotion of gender equality, and thus how it can be utilised to combat HIV/AIDS incidence in the area. For, as ESCAP recognised at the High-Level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and its Regional and Global outcomes:

“There has been an alarming rise in new HIV infection among women... (and) discriminatory practices, violations of women’s and girl’s rights and impunity – especially with regard to violence – persist... (We commit) to undertake full and effective action for the implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration, recognizing that gender equality is a goal in its own right and central to all other goals... (and) to review and as appropriate, revise national health policies, programmes and legislation to ensure high-quality, affordable and accessible health care and services for all women... to reduce the risk of HIV/AIDS.”⁵²

ESCAP approaches the issue of gender inequality from a holistic point of view, linking the MDGs with human rights, CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action.⁵³ However, there are a number of prominent obstacles currently hampering this strategy. As recently as 2008, Asia was the only continent not to have its own regional human rights mechanism.⁵⁴ On October 23, 2009, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights (AICHR) was launched in the Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration at the 15th ASEAN Summit in Thailand.⁵⁵ However, the Commission is still in its infancy, making the enforcement of documents which enshrine the principle of non-discrimination, such as the UDHR, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and thus the promotion of gender equality, problematic.⁵⁶ In terms of the CEDAW, there are still a number of Member States which are not yet a party to the Convention.⁵⁷ This remains a particular problem, and ESCAP has noted that as a matter of priority, Members should consider acceding to the Convention and its Optional Protocol, in addition to limiting the extent of any reservations and withdrawing any doubts that are contrary to or incompatible with the purpose of the Convention.⁵⁸ Until these issues are addressed, the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and strategies for the MDGs and the promotion of gender equality overall as well as to specifically target HIV/AIDS incidence will be difficult to achieve.

Gender Equality as a Means to Combat HIV/AIDS

In 2009, ESCAP stated that the feminization of HIV/AIDS is “a disturbing trend.”⁵⁹ A particular causal factor is the high level to which women are economically dependent.⁶⁰ Coupled with the low social status that many women experience both as a cause and consequence of the economic poverty in which they are entrapped or from engrained cultural practice, economic poverty is a cycle without means of escape, and results in a higher vulnerability to infection.⁶¹ The DAW has found that the feminization of poverty worldwide translates into women earning only

DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

⁵¹ DAW, *Beijing and its Follow-up*, 2010.

⁵² ECOSOC, *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years*, 2009, p. 3-4.

⁵³ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 6.

⁵⁴ OHCHR, *South East Asia Regional Office (2008-2009) Human rights context*, 2008.

⁵⁵ ASEAN, *Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration on the Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights*, 2009, p. 1.

⁵⁶ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 6.

⁵⁷ ECOSOC, *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years*, 2009, p. 3.

⁵⁸ ECOSOC, *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years*, 2009, p. 5.

⁵⁹ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 4.

⁶⁰ DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

⁶¹ DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

marginally more than 50% of what men earn.⁶² Although Asia-Pacific has evolved into an “economic powerhouse”, it is not immune to the phenomenon of the feminization of poverty, and ESCAP recognizes that women are overrepresented in the region’s poor.⁶³ The ramifications of this trend are startling due to their self-perpetuating nature, causing ESCAP to acknowledge that the outlook for women and girls is “rather bleak.”⁶⁴ The physical reality of the feminization of poverty for daughters is that cultural preferences in favour of sons means reduced access to education and food, fewer income generation opportunities and greater risks of suffering from malnutrition as females are expected to eat “last and least”.⁶⁵ As they grow older, girls within Asia-Pacific are also highly likely to be married at an early age.⁶⁶ This practice in itself increases the risk of HIV infection, and once infected, the social stigmas associated with being HIV/AIDS-positive means that opportunities for education and economic independence for women diminish even further.⁶⁷

In response to these various forms of gender discrimination, ESCAP has been implementing the Beijing Platform for Action, agitating governments to undertake a stronger political will and sense of urgency on these issues. Four key objectives based upon rights and gender equality issues were outlined in the regional preparation for the Beijing + 15 conference: “(a) providing access to knowledge on HIV and AIDS, (b) improving knowledge of women’s reproduction and sexuality among both women and men, (c) supporting primary caregivers for people with AIDS and children orphaned by AIDS, and (d) eliminating discrimination and stigma against women living with HIV.”⁶⁸ ESCAP follows the line that a purely biomedical approach to combating HIV is insufficient, and that “there is a strong need to focus on the social determinants of disease and health.”⁶⁹ It is clear from the statistics on the feminization of HIV/AIDS that in addition to the medical approach to combat HIV/AIDS, a social approach is equally important in terms of achieving gender equality and preventing the spread of the disease. A reconciliation of both approaches is often held to be the most successful method in tackling HIV/AIDS incidence, and an initiative widely deemed to have made a successful connection between the medical and social strategy divide is the STD/HIV Intervention Project or SHIP initiative instigated in Sonagachi, a red light area in Kolkata, India.⁷⁰

SHIP succeeded in ensuring that HIV/AIDS prevalence levels plateaued at 5 percent within the district of Sonagachi, whereas other red light districts across India were recording prevalence levels of 55 percent.⁷¹ Initially an experiment in public health intervention which included setting up an STD clinic for sex workers in Sonagachi to promote disease control and condom distribution (in accordance with the favoured medical approach at the time, targeting specific groups who stood a high risk of contracting HIV), the focus of the project evolved beyond the constraints of a purely medical approach to address the social structures of gender, class and sexuality.⁷² The result of the sex workers’ flourishing knowledge was that they were able to build their own capacity to “question the cultural stereotypes of their society, and build awareness of power and who possesses it.”⁷³ This twin achievement, of decreasing gender inequality and combating the rate of HIV/AIDS incidence was attained through means that were “democratic and challenging (to the culturally engrained discriminatory practices), yet non-confrontational.”⁷⁴

The SHIP initiative challenged a fundamental dynamic in the relationships between sex worker and client. A deeply-rooted social convention in this region is that of *pati parmeswar*, where “the husband is God” and women are

⁶² DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

⁶³ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 3.

⁶⁴ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

⁶⁵ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

⁶⁶ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

⁶⁷ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15; ECOSOC, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women*, 2003, p. 16.

⁶⁸ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 4.

⁶⁹ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 18.

⁷⁰ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 100-108.

⁷¹ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 107.

⁷² Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷³ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷⁴ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

submissive not assertive in sexual relationships with men.⁷⁵ Nath explains that Sonagachi is “a community where constant negotiations are going on, and it was perhaps this aspect of life that inspired work to control HIV through addressing sexuality and gender power relations.”⁷⁶ Through training as peer educators, clinic assistants and clinic attendants in the project’s STD clinics, and in managerial positions for the project, sex workers were empowered and were able to conduct relationships on a much more equal basis and on the operating principles of the SHIP project: “respect, recognition and reliance.”⁷⁷ The equalized balance of power in relationships made exploitation much harder, reduced police brutality against sex workers and prevented the incidence of HIV/AIDS from rising above 5 percent – an excellent example of how gender equality is a fundamental platform from which to combat HIV/AIDS.⁷⁸

Case Studies: Papua New Guinea and Thailand

Papua New Guinea and Thailand are the worst affected countries in the Asia-Pacific region, with the highest rates of HIV infection, at 1.5% and 1.4% respectively.⁷⁹ These figures refer to the estimated adult HIV prevalence in 2007, where adult is classed as people between the ages 15-49, and which is calculated by dividing the estimated number of infected people by the total population.⁸⁰ Both of these case studies demonstrate particular problems in the promotion of gender equality as a means to combat HIV/AIDS incidence: Papua New Guinea as it has extremely high rates of violence against women, sexually-transmitted infections (STIs) and rape, and is simultaneously the hardest-hit by the HIV epidemic amongst the Pacific Island nations; Thailand because it once appeared to be keeping pace with the epidemic and succeeding at containing it, which seems now not to be the case.⁸¹

Papua New Guinea

In Oceania overall, HIV/AIDS is affecting women in a strongly disproportionate manner, with 1.2% of women and 0.4% of men living with the disease.⁸² A joint survey by UNAIDS and the World Health Organization (WHO) has found that Papua New Guinea is the most severely affected by the HIV epidemic in the Pacific, with the rate of new infections growing at a rate of 33% per year (UNAIDS/WHO).⁸³ Two issues form a particular barrier to firstly stemming the rate of HIV incidence, and secondly to assisting those affected by HIV/AIDS.⁸⁴ These are the high level of gender discrimination, and an acute lack of medical support, which demonstrates that both a social and medical approach combined is required to combat the incidence of HIV/AIDS.⁸⁵ The WHO has confirmed that violence against women is linked to higher incidences of HIV and is a significant factor in fuelling the epidemic in this State: rape and sexual assault, coupled with high rates of STIs have aggravated the number of incidences.⁸⁶ To compound this, a social stigma has developed around people seeking medical help to get tested for HIV/AIDS.⁸⁷

Additionally, the lack of funding for general public health, let alone measures to prevent or care for those affected by HIV, is a major concern.⁸⁸ Whilst it is clear that attaining gender equity is crucial for progress in preventing further incidences of HIV/AIDS, medical information and care is equally important in assisting not only those infected but those at risk of infection.⁸⁹ A major scaling-up of treatment and resources is required, but the lack of financial and human resources hampers this.⁹⁰ Staunching the rise of HIV incidences in Papua New Guinea will

⁷⁵ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 101.

⁷⁶ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷⁷ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷⁸ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 107.

⁷⁹ UNAIDS, *A global view of HIV infection*, 2007.

⁸⁰ UNAIDS, *A global view of HIV infection*, 2007.

⁸¹ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8.;

WHO, *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*, 1999.

⁸² UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸³ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8.

⁸⁴ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005.

⁸⁵ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸⁶ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005, p. 2;

UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8-9.

⁸⁷ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸⁸ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸⁹ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005, p. 2;

UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8-9.

⁹⁰ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005.

require a vast amount of work, which the Association for Women's Rights in Development put succinctly in their analysis of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action over the past fifteen years: economic, political, sexual and reproductive autonomy along with freedom from all forms of violence in the public and private spheres.⁹¹ The issues present in this State reflect the basic barriers preventing the holistic view (linking the MDGs with human rights, CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action) with which ESCAP tries to resolve gender inequality and to combat HIV/AIDS from succeeding.⁹²

Thailand

Thailand once appeared to be succeeding at keeping pace with the evolution of the HIV/AIDS epidemic.⁹³ Between the years of 1991 and 2004 the Thai Government managed to reduce the number of HIV infections by an estimated 88%, appearing to forestall an imminent crisis.⁹⁴ UNAIDS attributed this to a number of social initiatives such as educational campaigns coupled with practical measures, originating from public, private and civil society agents which were well-funded, well-resourced and had a high degree of political support.⁹⁵ During the ascent of Thailand's apparent success in 1999, the WHO documented and praised the success of the campaigns.⁹⁶ Education appears to have been the keystone of this success, and Thailand also achieved ESCAP's gender parity target for tertiary education in 2005.⁹⁷ These operations have ebbed in recent years, however, and UNAIDS has found that the rate of HIV infection is growing at a faster rate amongst women than men in the Greater Mekong sub-region.⁹⁸ It is a particular problem amongst young adults/teenagers and there are now more female than male teens with HIV.⁹⁹

The effect of the educational campaigns in empowering people through knowledge appears to have died down, and research by the Thai Association for the Promotion of the Status of Women claims that 66% of female teens living in Bangkok have now reported that they do not use condoms or negotiate for safe sex.¹⁰⁰ Clearly, the successes that Thailand achieved will be lost unless past efforts are rekindled and consolidated into effective action.¹⁰¹ The new sources of infection, especially in view of the "risky" sexual behaviour amongst the younger generations in parallel with a rise in STIs, must be addressed if a resurgence in the epidemic is to be avoided.¹⁰² In June 2006, the UNAIDS country coordinator for Thailand at the time Patrick Brenny stated that: "public information, which was once ubiquitous, has dropped off the radar screen... Thailand must revive its flagging HIV/AIDS awareness programmes to reach out to a new generation of young people, who currently see the virus as a problem largely affecting their elders. They are clearly vulnerable to infection with HIV."¹⁰³

Conclusion

In order to truly initiate widespread change in attitudes to gender equality across nations and the Asia-Pacific region as whole, rather than just isolated areas like Sonagachi, the macro issues must be addressed: the economic dependence of women, the feminization of poverty, violence against women and the implementation of women's rights.¹⁰⁴ Without the resolution of these problems, ESCAP recognises that women living under such circumstances are often denied access to health care, education, credit, land and inheritance, with their labour unrewarded and unrecognized in public and in the privacy of their homes; their voices undermined by social constraints and the cycle of poverty.¹⁰⁵ Accumulatively, the gender role women have to play in these circumstances leaves them vulnerable

⁹¹ Durán, *The implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 2010.

⁹² ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 6.

⁹³ WHO, *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*, 1999.

⁹⁴ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

⁹⁵ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

⁹⁶ WHO, *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*, 1999.

⁹⁷ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 4.

⁹⁸ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 5.

⁹⁹ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

¹⁰⁰ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

¹⁰¹ Avert, *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*, 2010.

¹⁰² Avert, *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*, 2010.

¹⁰³ Avert, *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*, 2010.

¹⁰⁴ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009.

¹⁰⁵ DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

to HIV infection as they are unable to protect themselves.¹⁰⁶ The Beijing Platform for Action was designed to counteract this, but efforts have been piecemeal in some areas and the fact that the Asia-Pacific houses three-quarters of the world's stunted, underweight children with a disproportionate number of them female attests to this.¹⁰⁷ This is not simply a battle against disease, but a fight for fundamental social change, reaching into almost every corner of day-to-day existence, for it is "a change in the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society and in the family (that) is needed to achieve full equality between men and women" and thus help combat the incidence of HIV/AIDS.¹⁰⁸

Questions for Consideration

According to the WHO, the AIDS virus is now the leading cause of death and disease among women between the ages of 15 and 44.¹⁰⁹ The Economic and Social Council declared in 2004 that:

"Women and girls are particularly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS owing not only to their biological conditions, but also to economic and social inequalities and culturally accepted gender roles which place them in a subordinate position vis-à-vis men regarding decisions related to sexual relations. Relations of dominations are multiple and they intersect, creating for women layers of inequalities and subjection to different forms of violence"¹¹⁰

Hence, factors to consider whilst conducting your research and untangling these layers of issues include poverty, social change and disease-prevention strategies, especially within the context of gender inequality. Strategies to break the cycle of the feminization of poverty and the economic dependence of women must also include a workable and efficient method of implementation. In addition to ESCAP and other UN bodies, there is a multiplicity of national bodies dedicated to combating the spread of HIV/AIDS as well as a host of non-governmental organizations working towards the same goals. Are these bodies being used to their full potential? Will the formation of UN Women be a catalyst for change across the board? Could ESCAP facilitate a strategy through which information and practices could be shared between these organizations to improve the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW and the MDGs? What is failing the implementation of women's rights in Papua New Guinea? What are the root causes of the social stigmas, and what could be done to alleviate them? Given the gender discrimination engrained in Papua New Guinea and so many other societies, solutions to bring about social change and eliminate gender inequality that are challenging yet non-confrontational, such as in the SHIP initiative, should be examined.¹¹¹ Prevention is always seen as better than cure, but how can the previous success of Thailand's educational campaigns be rekindled? In what ways can the message be updated to reach a younger generation? Would it be possible to translate this method of prevention for use in Papua New Guinea and the Asia-Pacific? Ultimately, one of the most significant factors in achieving all of these goals will be the realization of gender equality, as former Secretary-General Kofi Annan stated: "When it comes to fighting AIDS, as with so much else, I believe in girl power."¹¹²

¹⁰⁶ UNIFEM, *Turning the Tide: CEDAW and the Gender Dimensions of the HIV/AIDS Pandemic*, 2001, [p. 4](#).

¹⁰⁷ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

¹⁰⁸ OHCHR, *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, 1979.

¹⁰⁹ Durán, *The implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 2010.

¹¹⁰ ECOSOC, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women (E/CN.4/2004/66)*, 2003, p. 16.

¹¹¹ Nath, *Women's health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers' project in Calcutta*, 2000, p.102.

¹¹² UNESCAP, *Women and HIV/AIDS*, 2004, p.1.

II. Strengthening Development Policies for Social Inclusion

“Social integration is ... a prerequisite for fostering stable, safe, harmonious, peaceful and just societies to create an optimal basis for dynamic development and progress. Integration policies promote and protect human rights and fundamental freedoms. Social integration and the cohesion of societies can only be achieved if development is just and sustainable economically, socially and environmentally.”¹¹³

Social Exclusion in Asia and the Pacific - a Challenge for Development

During the last twenty years, exceptionally rapid economic growth in the Asia-Pacific region, including many Asian countries reaching gross domestic product (GDP) growth rates of over 6% annually, contributed to a reduction of the poverty incidence from 32% in the year 1990 to 22% in 2000.¹¹⁴ However social progress has been very limited and inequalities increased drastically in the same period.¹¹⁵ The reason is that the benefits of this “Asian miracle” did not trickle down bringing economic growth for all parts of the population because of rigid patterns of social exclusion. Thus, large parts of the population in Asia-Pacific remained excluded from the overall progress.¹¹⁶ This phenomenon is reinforced by the current financial and economic crisis.¹¹⁷ Since social exclusion is threatening the social cohesion of the societies in the Asia-Pacific region hampering sustainable development and even agitating conflicts such as recently revealed in Thailand, this challenge needs to be addressed urgently.

The following paragraphs provide firstly an introduction to the term “social exclusion” and highlight generally the importance of addressing this challenge as well as how this can be realized. Moreover, the past action taken by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) will be presented to depict the emerging problems when trying to measure the progress. Secondly, the detrimental effects of social exclusion to the Member States’ development will be emphasized. Finally, the examples of Nepal and Fiji point out specific consequences of social exclusion endangering these countries’ achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The last paragraph concludes by stressing the need for action and suggesting some further guiding questions to be considered in the research process.

Understanding Social Exclusion

Social exclusion is defined as a voluntary or involuntary “exclusion of individuals and groups from society’s political, economic and societal processes.”¹¹⁸ This means that certain marginalized groups or individuals such as ethnic or religious minorities, indigenous people, migrants, persons with disabilities, people living with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), older persons, the youth or women particularly cannot partially or fully participate in all aspects of the society they are living in.¹¹⁹ Being excluded from participation in society ultimately also implies an exclusion from decent work, assets such as land, political representation, access to public services providing a safety net against poverty and opportunities in general.¹²⁰ Often these individuals and groups are characterized by a lack of voice, recognition and capacity for active participation.¹²¹ It is important to recognize that the marginalized groups do not necessarily represent minorities. For instance, in countries where Hinduism prevails, people from the lower castes, which are often discriminated against, actually form the majority of the population. The reasons for social exclusion are manifold. Groups can be discriminated against economically in their access to livelihoods, to social services and to political and community participation.¹²² This social exclusion is primarily based on age, gender, caste, ethnicity, religious affiliation, language group, disability and spatial distribution.¹²³ However, whether one of these specific characteristics leads to exclusion

¹¹³ United Nations, Commission for Social Development, *47th Session: Chairperson’s Summary*, 2009, p. 1.

¹¹⁴ Kabeer, *Social Exclusion and the MDGs: The Challenge of Durable Inequalities’ in the Asian Context*, 2006, p. 1.

¹¹⁵ Köhler, *Policies Toward Social Inclusion: A South Asian Perspective*, 2009, p. 25.

¹¹⁶ World Bank, *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*, 1993.

¹¹⁷ Rola, *Promoting Social Integration*, 2009, p. 2.

¹¹⁸ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 5.

¹¹⁹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹²⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹²¹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹²² Lotse, *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*, 2006, p. 3.

¹²³ Lotse, *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*, 2006, p. 3.

depends on the society's values and culture.¹²⁴ In addition, social exclusion is a dynamic phenomenon due to changing boundaries over time and space.¹²⁵ The continuing processes of these various forms of systemic social exclusion directly impede the achievement of the MDGs.¹²⁶

It is important to note that the act of discrimination itself is a violation of international human rights.¹²⁷ These human rights guarantee that every single human being can exercise his or her rights without distinction concerning the aforementioned aspects.¹²⁸ Human rights are founded on respect for the inherent dignity and worth of each person, and are applied equally and without discrimination to all people.¹²⁹ Therefore they can help to actively promote social inclusion.¹³⁰ In this context the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) represents the lighthouse among human rights treaties. More specialized treaties concerning specific vulnerable groups are the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities and the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief.¹³¹ Besides, other treaties to be mentioned are the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).¹³²

Addressing the Challenge

The key to addressing the observed exclusions are development policies that actively incorporate social integration and protection. These policies are aimed at either decreasing economic, social and cultural boundaries or raising the permeability of such boundaries.¹³³ Thus social inclusion represents the summary of efforts ensuring "equal opportunities for all regardless of their background."¹³⁴ The conditions created by the process of social inclusion shall enable people to achieve their full potential in life.¹³⁵ This means that they are entitled to participate actively in civic, social and economic activities and have the means to participate in decision making.¹³⁶ The latter is considered to be very important since an enhanced participation in the political process of decision making increases the ownership of the decisions taken, which affect people's daily lives.¹³⁷

In a recent keynote speech Noeleen Heyzer, the Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations and Executive Secretary of ESCAP, advised that the current development discourse should focus on "the potential contribution of social protection as an investment in reducing risks and vulnerability ... thereby facilitating the path to MDG achievement."¹³⁸ Such integration is considered to be a multidimensional process that promotes values, relations and institutions.¹³⁹ Thus, on the basis of equity and dignity, these aspects enable people to participate in social, economic and political life aiming at the creation of a "society for all."¹⁴⁰ Therefore, in order to construct this "society for all", a development process respecting the diversity and individual rights is crucial.¹⁴¹ Development programs focusing on social inclusion are also referred to as inclusive development. Thereby, an inclusive development process does not mean to establish the uniformity of people, because not all groups prefer to be

¹²⁴ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 22.

¹²⁵ UN-DESA, *Expert Group Meeting on Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*, 2007.

¹²⁶ Lotse, *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*, 2006, p. 4.

¹²⁷ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹²⁸ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹²⁹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³¹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³² UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³³ UN-DESA, *Expert Group Meeting on Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*, 2007, p. 5.

¹³⁴ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹³⁵ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹³⁶ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹³⁷ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹³⁸ Heyzer, *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific*, 2010.

¹³⁹ Wiman, *Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy*, 2009, p. 33.

¹⁴⁰ Wiman, *Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy*, 2009, p. 33.

¹⁴¹ Wiman, *Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy*, 2009, p. 33.

mainstreamed into a larger society.¹⁴² Instead of this forced assimilation, social inclusion means to include all groups by encouraging societal engagement and participation on the basis of respect for diversity and cultural identity.¹⁴³ It is important to guarantee that the recognition of dignity and equality of each person is anchored not only as an ethical norm but in legal principles as for instance specified by the respective constitution.¹⁴⁴

Actions Taken by ESCAP Member States

The need to consider the approach of social inclusion was formulated for the first time in the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and the Program of Action of the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) high-level conference in 1995.¹⁴⁵ At this summit Member States of the ESCAP committed themselves to supporting social integration, to protecting human rights and fostering non-discrimination, respect for diversity, equality of opportunity, solidarity, and security.¹⁴⁶ In particular, the inclusion of vulnerable groups and persons was emphasized.¹⁴⁷ This people-centered approach also corresponds to the United Nations Development Program's (UNDP) development concept understanding human development as the enlargement of people's choices.¹⁴⁸ But the process of inclusion is only guaranteed if people do not only have access to endowments, but in particular entitlements to relevant items such as health care and education favoring a long and decent life they have reasons to value.¹⁴⁹ Excluded groups suffer mostly from the lack of these entitlements.

In 1994 the Member States of the ESCAP prepared the WSSD by the Fourth Asian and Pacific Ministerial Conference on Social Development, defining their strategy for the ESCAP region.¹⁵⁰ This strategic vision was reinforced at the Asian and Pacific Ministerial Conference in Preparation for the WSSD and is captured by the last relevant resolution the Member States of ESCAP adopted.¹⁵¹ The latter is Resolution 51-4 (1995) on the "Agenda for Action on Social Development in the ESCAP Region." ESCAP Member States took the lead in the global debate about creating a regional Agenda for Action on Social Development. However, the implementation process turned out to be very slow in their region due to rapid globalization and the impact of the Asian Crisis causing governments to tighten their budgets for social development.¹⁵² The Asian Financial Crisis itself, which emerged in the summer of 1997, caused severe economic turbulences in Southeast Asia as well as in the rest of the world due to unsustainable policies and speculation.¹⁵³ Therefore, in 1997, the countries agreed at the Fifth Asian and Pacific Ministerial Conference on Social Development on an Accelerated Implementation of the Agenda for Action on Social Development in the ESCAP region.¹⁵⁴ Facing the recent (and still persisting) economic crisis, the topic of social inclusion regained importance as the vulnerable groups were severely affected. Therefore, ESCAP launched the "Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion" in order to strengthen the capacity of Member States to promote policies aimed at social inclusion and empowering disadvantaged groups.¹⁵⁵ The topic's current relevance is also shown on a more global level by Resolution 64/135 (2010) on "Implementation of the outcome of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly." This resolution was adopted in 2010 and is reviewing the progress in social development.

Measuring the Impact

In order to create policies based on the progress of social integration, the process needs to be measurable. Only the measurement itself enables countries to know the extent of social exclusion, to determine its level over time, and to

¹⁴² Zelenev, *Social Integration in a Contemporary World*, 2009, p. 33.

¹⁴³ United Nations, Commission for Social Development, *47th Session: Chairperson's Summary*, 2009, p. 3-4.

¹⁴⁴ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 3.

¹⁴⁵ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. xiii.

¹⁴⁶ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. xiii.

¹⁴⁷ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. xiii.

¹⁴⁸ Anand and Sen, *Human Development and Economic Sustainability*, 2000.

¹⁴⁹ Anand and Sen, *Human Development and Economic Sustainability*, 2000.

¹⁵⁰ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵¹ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵² ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵³ Karunatileka, *The Asian Economic Crisis*, 1999.

¹⁵⁴ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵⁵ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

evaluate the influence of measures undertaken to promote social inclusion.¹⁵⁶ On the international level, national measurements allow access to global progression levels and comparisons of country performances.¹⁵⁷ However, the choice of variables influences the results.¹⁵⁸ In particular it has to be recognized that social exclusion is a much wider concept than just inequalities. The former is interrelated with social mobility, access to space, sense of ownership, trust among people and institutions, alienation and wellbeing of individuals.¹⁵⁹ Therefore it is highly important to capture these interrelating issues. Policy makers face a serious challenge in the process of measurement itself. The challenge is that the marginalized social groups are not visible in the conventional government's statistics, when working in the informal sector or living in unofficial settlements.¹⁶⁰

Social Exclusion as an Obstacle for Development

According to Noeleen Heyzer, the achievement of the MDGs in the Asia-Pacific region is challenging due to the very frequent social exclusion in the region.¹⁶¹ The reason is that social exclusion is closely intertwined with poverty and living conditions known for multiple deprivations which make livelihoods precarious. These factors consist of a downward spiral of interrelating and self-reinforcing deprivations such as lack of education, work, access to financial resources, food, shelter, and lacking political representation. Thereby the relationship between social exclusion and poverty is ambiguous since one can represent each cause as the consequence of the other.¹⁶² Marginalized groups usually lack adequate opportunities for employment in the formal economy, which comprises work for registered businesses or in government services. This not only denies them a stable income but is also a barrier to their access of public health services. The latter is usually available when being officially registered as a citizen with the state's authorities.¹⁶³ Due to the various forms of discriminations described above, people are even not given a chance to acquire the skills necessary to make a living and lead a self-determined life.¹⁶⁴ But without any access to education and productive employment people can neither find a way out of poverty in order to benefit from the fruits of economic growth nor can they advance their empowerment in order to be better integrated in society.¹⁶⁵ This deteriorates people's material deprivation, as they are less able to afford shelter and food.¹⁶⁶ These are examples of the vicious circle of deprivations excluded groups have to face.

Due to these perpetuating conditions, it becomes even more difficult to break the social exclusion-poverty cycle, leading to an intergenerational transmission of vulnerability.¹⁶⁷ When being excluded from the greater society in such a systematic way people also feel psychologically disempowered.¹⁶⁸ The latter is reducing people's own capacity to act.¹⁶⁹ These are the reasons why policies meeting people's basic needs, strengthening their empowerment on the basis of human rights and all kinds of poverty reduction measures are required. This call for urgency is reinforced by the fact that any failure to achieve social integration in the Asia-Pacific region spurs social tensions and fragmentation within societies and undermines social cohesion.¹⁷⁰ This in turn promotes violent conflict and political instability in the region.¹⁷¹ Therefore, addressing social inclusion is a vital interest in the Asia-Pacific region, as the future social and economic development as well as political stability within Member States depends on a realistic solution for this issue.

¹⁵⁶ UN-DESA, *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context*, 2010, p. 7-23.

¹⁵⁷ UN-DESA, *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context*, 2010, p. 7-23.

¹⁵⁸ UN-DESA, *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context*, 2010, p. 7-23.

¹⁵⁹ UN-DESA, *Expert Group Meeting on Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*, 2007.

¹⁶⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 46.

¹⁶¹ Heyzer, *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific*, 2010.

¹⁶² Commission for Social Development, *47th Session, Chairperson's Summary*, 2009, p. 3-4.

¹⁶³ United Nations, *Report of the Secretary-General: Follow-up to the implementation of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly (A/64/157)*, 2009, p. 6-7.

¹⁶⁴ United Nations, *Report of the Secretary-General: Follow-up to the implementation of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly (A/64/157)*, 2009, p. 6-7.

¹⁶⁵ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁶ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁷ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁸ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁹ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁷⁰ Sadeque, *Inclusive Planning for Social Integration: A Short Note*, 2009, p. 1.

¹⁷¹ Sadeque, *Inclusive Planning for Social Integration: A Short Note*, 2009, p. 1.

Case Studies: Inequalities in Nepal and Fiji

Nepal

The case of the Nepalese society serves as a very good example since multiple forms of exclusion with a long historical tradition lead to extreme discrimination of certain groups. Despite the country's enormous diversity, comprising 101 ethnicities speaking 91 languages, a large part of the population does not take part in many aspects of socio-economic processes and decision-making.¹⁷²

The exclusion in Nepal mainly originates from social, cultural and economic stratification. This feudal society includes the dominance of a central social elite, comprising landlords, civil administrators and traders.¹⁷³ These privileged groups dominate the country's social, economic and political spheres even in the rural areas by handpicking government appointees.¹⁷⁴ The centrally imposed regulations and tax regimes create restrictions and barriers for the oppressed social strata in the access of local resources such as land, forest and water.¹⁷⁵ This in turn provokes a serious degradation of these people's livelihoods.¹⁷⁶

In addition to this political power structure the rigid society's hierarchy also is manifested in the Hindu caste-system.¹⁷⁷ This religious order of the society segregates the latter in four groups, while a fifth group named the "untouchables" or Dalits stands hierarchically beneath the others and are therefore marginalized from the State's economic and social services.¹⁷⁸ While the elite having political influence in this feudal society comprises the first two groups called Brahmin (priests) and Kshyatriya (soldiers), the Dalits suffer not only from missing social recognition, but in particular lack access to formal work and education.¹⁷⁹ The latter is due to the first Civil Code of 1853 which denies Dalits their rights to citizenship, land, education, health care, livelihood, security and bodily integrity.¹⁸⁰ The living conditions of Dalits are far below the national average.¹⁸¹ For instance, the poverty index for Dalits corresponds to 47% compared to the national average of 31%.¹⁸² The established social rules causing exclusion also continue after the abolishment of the monarchy in 2006, since the non-privileged groups are virtually absent in the country's parliament.¹⁸³ Therefore none of the political parties accords priority to social inclusion.¹⁸⁴

In addition, a cultural exclusion takes place as well, as Nepali was declared the official language in public schools and institutions.¹⁸⁵ This opposes the cultural diversity of the indigenous people.¹⁸⁶ Among other more recent events affecting the marginalized groups was the civil war starting in 1996. Undoubtedly, the most marginalized social groups such as the Dalits became the worst victims of the conflict, as they were neither self-sufficient nor could they move to safer places.¹⁸⁷ To sum up, without recognizing the Dalits as a part of the population, there are strong doubts about the possibility to achieve the MDGs in Nepal.

Fiji

This example not only represents the challenge of exclusion in a country of the Pacific Small Island States but also reflects the social problems emerging as a consequence of the colonial history. British colonialism and its accompanying economic policies focused on primary commodity production, which lead to an ethnically divided society.¹⁸⁸ Thus European and Chinese Fijians dominated the economic life while Indo-Fijians and finally the

¹⁷² Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 1.

¹⁷³ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁴ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁵ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁶ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁷ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁷⁸ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁷⁹ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁸⁰ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 13.

¹⁸¹ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁸² Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁸³ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁸⁴ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁸⁵ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁸⁶ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁸⁷ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 3.

¹⁸⁸ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

indigenous Fijians followed.¹⁸⁹ Political power mirrored the economic power structure, so the elite consisted of the Europeans, even though they were a minority. Hierarchically, the indigenous and Indo-Fijians were the least powerful.¹⁹⁰ Thereby, the discrimination based upon skin color played an important role.¹⁹¹

The British system of indirect rule allowed the indigenous Fijians to maintain their own community, however this also means that they were kept in separate villages from people of other ethnicities and that their life was altogether very regulated, while the British occupied the most fertile land formerly possessed by the indigenous people.¹⁹² For instance, the indigenous Fijians were not allowed to move around freely and were forbidden to engage in commercial activities without permission of their Fijian chiefs cooperating with the colonial administrators; this situation continued until the 1960s.¹⁹³

Due to the colonial system all economic activities are located around the capital and other centers of administration even today.¹⁹⁴ In particular, government offices, better public hospitals and tertiary educational institutions are only on the main island of Viti Levu.¹⁹⁵ As a result the rural areas, where the indigenous people mainly live, are less developed and lack public services such as safe water, health services and schools as well as employment opportunities outside of the agricultural sector, so the poverty incidence is high.¹⁹⁶ This rural-urban divide pushes the indigenous Fijians to the larger cities, as they are the most affected by the limited infrastructure in the rural areas.¹⁹⁷ Having arrived in the greater urban areas, the indigenous migrants live in poor squatter settlements, since the government failed to provide additional housing.¹⁹⁸ Often these settlements are located on low-lying, marshy land.¹⁹⁹ The wet physical conditions contribute to the spread of diseases among the indigenous Fijians.²⁰⁰

Today, however, the discrimination appears to have been reversed as a result of the 1987 coup.²⁰¹ As a consequence, the indigenous people hold more than 90% of the senior positions in society and represent up to 70% of the civil servants.²⁰² Even the army is consists mostly of indigenous Fijians.²⁰³ Moreover, a separate “Fijian administration” provides administrative services only for the indigenous.²⁰⁴ This Fijian ethno-nationalism was reinforced by the 2000 coup, so that indigenous Fijians are promoted over citizens of other ethnicities in almost all areas of community life.²⁰⁵ For instance, the political party in power is perceived as responding only to the needs of the indigenous Fijians.²⁰⁶ The exclusion of all other ethnicities other than the indigenous Fijians means an inequality of ownership and control of assets, natural resources as well as opportunities such as the access to credit facilities, education, employment, safe water, transport, communication, and health.²⁰⁷ The enormous social exclusion of large parts of the islands’ population - formally the exclusion of the indigenous Fijians, now of all others - hampers future development. In fact, due to these exclusionary processes the living standard measured by the human development index (HDI) decreased dramatically over the last 10 years.²⁰⁸

Approaches Recognizing the Essential Role of Social Inclusion for Development

As outlined above, social inclusion is considered to be a decisive element of development in the Asia-Pacific region.

¹⁸⁹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁹⁰ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁹¹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁹² Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

¹⁹³ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

¹⁹⁴ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 6.

¹⁹⁵ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁹⁶ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁹⁷ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁹⁸ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 8.

¹⁹⁹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 8.

²⁰⁰ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 8.

²⁰¹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰² Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰³ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰⁴ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰⁵ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 11.

²⁰⁶ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 11.

²⁰⁷ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 25.

²⁰⁸ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

Some development policies addressed by ESCAP allowing the realization of better social inclusion are the following:

Strengthening the capacity of the local government institutions

The capacity of local governments to promote the inclusion of people is considered crucial, since it is most effective in improving the access to basic services and resources, as well as to facilitate the partnerships between members of the society, i.e. to build social capital.²⁰⁹ In contrast to the central government, the local government is more suitable for the design of participatory planning models since the interaction with the marginalized groups is higher on the local level.²¹⁰ Similarly, an increased participation contributes to higher standards of accountability and transparency of the governmental institutions leading to better policies when addressing social exclusion.²¹¹ However, the capacities of the local government bodies are often weak due to lacking human and financial resources, coordination with the central government and understanding of the role in the governance process.²¹² Therefore, fostering the capacity of these local agents is a deceive instrument in order to tackle the challenges imposed by exclusion and poverty.²¹³

Participatory dialogue for empowerment

An important tool for the promotion of social inclusion and thus a more cohesive society is participatory dialogue, since a successful inclusion not only depends on the integration of the excluded but also on the willingness and ability of the latter to participate.²¹⁴ It is practiced on the local level and is therefore very flexible as well as responsive to local needs.²¹⁵ This is why participatory dialogue is considered to be a bottom-up approach.²¹⁶ The aim is to enable people to execute their rights to participate actively in the decision-making processes that affect their lives.²¹⁷ This is seen as a foundation of meaningful engagement of all citizens in building their common future.²¹⁸ In particular, the advantage of this approach is to raise the awareness among the excluded so that they can articulate their own perceptions. In addition, the creation of working relationships across ethnic and religious groups helps to overcome prejudices as everyone is treated equally.²¹⁹ Moreover participation grants a sense of ownership which in turn favors more sustainable inclusion.²²⁰ The result of this dialogue is not necessarily a consensus.²²¹ But dialogue can enhance the degree of mutual understanding by unveiling the opposing interests as root-causes.²²² An even more valuable result is that this method will achieve the empowerment of the formerly excluded through the confidence built by the reached agreements.²²³

ESCAP Development Account project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion

As mentioned previously, ESCAP recently launched the “Development Account project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion” in response to the increasing disparities between social stakeholders. The project is conducted in order to incorporate these three interrelated key areas in national development plans, so that the empowerment of excluded groups becomes an integral feature of the national development plans.²²⁴ While gender inequality can be interpreted as a special case of social exclusion, the provision of health services is crucial in allowing the marginalized groups to participate in the overall nations’ development.²²⁵ The project is so far unique as it identifies the structural barriers for the disadvantaged groups aiming at capacity building in order to design and implement appropriate policies as well as to measure their progress.²²⁶ Regarding the latter, process indicators have

²⁰⁹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹¹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹² UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹³ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹⁴ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 13.

²¹⁵ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 63.

²¹⁶ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 63.

²¹⁷ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 13.

²¹⁸ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 14.

²¹⁹ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 61.

²²⁰ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 14.

²²¹ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 62.

²²² UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 62.

²²³ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 63.

²²⁴ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

²²⁵ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

²²⁶ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

been developed in addition to the previously existing outcome indicators.²²⁷

Finally, Noeleen Heyzer underlines the importance of interregional cooperation as a key to convert the collective strengths of all Member States into the achievement of an inclusive and sustainable society in Asia-Pacific - beyond a mere recovery from the current financial and economic crisis.²²⁸ In this sense, the interregional cooperation and commitment can strengthen the Member States' efforts to fulfill the promises made to reach the MDGs.

Conclusion

The nexus of social exclusion and sustainable development can no longer be ignored. By finally recognizing that large groups of the population are excluded due to systematic discrimination in various forms, policies can be formulated to include these groups in the participation, development and improvement of their living conditions and thus ease social tensions and reinforce basic principles of equality.

Thus some of the questions for consideration are the following: Which processes lead to discrimination and finally to social exclusion? What kind of monitoring system should be utilized and how should the data be measured? Are there already specific policies spurring social inclusion in the Member States? Should policies be targeted, i.e. specific for certain social groups, or be formulated for the population as a whole? How can ESCAP concretely help to strengthen the efforts of individual states? Which additional development policies might enhance social inclusion? Which of these could be applied in all Member States?

III. Achieving Energy Security through Energy Diversity

*"Energy security and sustainable development have to be pursued primarily through national efforts, but there is also much to be gained from transboundary cooperation"*²²⁹

Introduction

In modern times, energy security has become a fundamental concern on the global agenda. Achieving energy security through energy diversity is a major goal of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP).²³⁰ There are two main reasons for this relatively new approach: the first one is the radical effect of high and volatile energy prices; and the second reason is related to the need for achieving environmental sustainability and avoiding climate change effects.²³¹ Studies made by the ESCAP Environment and Development division have proven that the region suffers from immense quantities of pollution, making this an even more important addition to the ESCAP agenda.²³²

The Asia Pacific Energy Research Centre defines energy security as "the ability of an economy to guarantee the availability of energy resource supply in a sustainable and timely manner, with the energy price being at a level that will not adversely affect the economic performance of the economy."²³³ Countries are tasked with the challenge of accomplishing greater energy security by harmonizing energy supply and demand, ensuring reasonably priced, sustainable and available energy sources.²³⁴ Some of the measures to complete these goals include: "conserving and raising energy efficiency; rationalizing pricing and taxation systems; improving energy sector governance; and diversifying energy supplies, in particular making greater use of alternative and renewable resources."²³⁵ A new

²²⁷ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

²²⁸ Heyzer, *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific*, 2010.

²²⁹ Environment and Development Division. (2008). *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

²³⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xvi

²³¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xvi

²³² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p. xvi

²³³ Eng, *Energy Security Initiative*, 2003, p.4

²³⁴ Eng, *Energy Security Initiative*, 2003, p.4

²³⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p. xvi

approach to energy consumption, one that is energy efficient, and utilizes more renewable energy is fundamental to attaining energy security in the region.²³⁶

Importance of Energy Security in Asia and the Pacific

The volatility of energy prices, supply interruptions caused by political instability, and demand increase coupled with the surprisingly fast industrialization of some countries inside the area are just some of the causes for worry around energy security.²³⁷ In Asia and the Pacific region, 1.7 billion people use traditional biomass fuel and 1 billion do not have access to electric power.²³⁸ One example of this is the average electrification rate of 52% and 73% in “developing Asia.”²³⁹ Generally, in the region, 762 million rural dwellers and 167 million urban dwellers lack electric power.²⁴⁰ In the biennium of 2004 and 2005, the energy consumption of Asia and the Pacific increase rate is 2% higher than the increase in world consumption.²⁴¹ Additionally, it is important to note that the lack of energy resources is a more complex problem due to the gap between the economies of countries in the region. Iran, Russian Federation, Brunei Darussalam and Australia have large reserves of fossil fuel and uranium while other least developed countries in the region have to import fuel and in some cases are immeasurably vulnerable to price increases because they do not have the capability to stockpile energy resources.²⁴² Between 2002 and 2005, poor households in four developing countries paid 120% more for transportation, 171% more for cooking fuels and 67% more for electricity, further highlighting the importance of this topic.²⁴³

Current situation in Asia and the Pacific

Energy Needs

According to the ESCAP Executive Secretary the total consumption of energy in the ESCAP region increased 70% in a matter of 13 years, even though the per capita consumption is still low.²⁴⁴ The energy resources access gap is so wide that countries such as Myanmar and Afghanistan have ratings of 7% and 11% respectively in energy accessibility while Japan holds an energy consumption rate of 100%.²⁴⁵ One of the causes for such differences is that 66% of energy production in Asia and the Pacific comes from China, Japan and Russian Federation according to 2002 statistics, which means these countries have more access to energy.

Asia and the Pacific have large reserves of renewable sources such as biomass, geothermal or solar energy; nonetheless these reserves are not being utilized.²⁴⁶ This type of energy represents only 2% of the total energy production because it lacks investment as it is perceived as risky by investors; and the projects usually are small and too expensive.²⁴⁷ The ESCAP region produces just enough energy to cover the demand but this does not mean that every area in the region is satisfied.²⁴⁸ Energy self sufficiency, achieved when a country produces enough energy to meet its needs, tends to decrease in developing countries while developed countries such as Japan are growing more self-sufficient. In this regard, the research by the Environment and Development Division predict that energy demand will increase up to 47% until 2030, 2.75 % per year, using 50% of the total energy around the world.²⁴⁹ The demand in India, Iran, Malaysia and the Philippines is expected to increase by 300%, and China 200%.²⁵⁰ Primary energy needs—not processed energy sources—grow at an average rate of 3.2% in China and 3.6% in India annually

²³⁶ Heyzer, *Asia and the Pacific to rethink Energy Security*, 2008, p.2.

²³⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.3

²³⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.6.

²³⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.6

²⁴⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.6

²⁴¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.7

²⁴² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.8

²⁴³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.9

²⁴⁴ Heyzer, *Asia and the Pacific to rethink Energy Security*, 2008, p. 1.

²⁴⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.11

²⁴⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii.

²⁴⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii.

²⁴⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii.

²⁴⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.79

²⁵⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.32

which represent 45% of the increase in world energy demand by 2030.²⁵¹ As for Australia and Japan they will decrease demand due to the expected industry saturation by 2030.²⁵²

Energy Production

Asia and the Pacific produce energy from very diverse sources, some of which are renewable energy sources. In 2005, the hemisphere produced 46% of the total global primary energy production.²⁵³ Between 1992 and 2005, production increased 3% annually and was 1% higher than the world production growth.²⁵⁴ In relation to secondary energy production such as solid fuels, gaseous fuels, thermal electricity or secondary liquid fuels; the region accounted for around 40% of the world's production in 2005.²⁵⁵

The ESCAP region also produces a considerable quantity of traditional energy sources. In 2000, the ESCAP region produced 30% of crude oil, 40% of natural gas, and 70% of coal from the world's total production, demonstrating the importance of energy production for the region.²⁵⁶ The region also produces 28% of the world's nuclear energy.²⁵⁷ In addition, the region has 50% of worldwide coal reserves, 25% of world oil reserves and 60% of world uranium reserves.²⁵⁸ Renewable energy represented 9% of the region's primary energy production including biomass, biogas, wastes, hydropower, geothermal, solar and wind energy in 2005.²⁵⁹ New sources of energy do not currently account for any substantial portion of general energy production area for the region and this is a clear limitation in the current energy security situation.

Energy Diversity

ESCAP region has low levels of renewable energy production; however, the potential to produce more is considerable, especially hydropower, biomass, solar and wind energy, all of which have been growing rapidly.²⁶⁰ Countries in the region have adopted different strategies for involving new forms of energy generation. Developing countries such as Bangladesh, Fiji and Indonesia have developed solar home systems, small scale hydro systems, and wind power systems.²⁶¹ These new sources have helped these countries increase energy supplies without the negative effects of traditional energy sources. Renewable energy accounts for 45% of domestic energy production in India, Bangladesh and Pakistan.²⁶² Regarding potential, the region has 40% of the world's total hydroelectric technical potential, 35% of solar and high temperature geothermal energy potential, 5 to 6% of world's biomass technical potential, and 12-18% of wind energy potential.²⁶³ Regarding wind power, India is fifth in the world in this type of power generation as well as in total installed wind power capacity.²⁶⁴ In South East Asia, biodiesel production has expanded and Malaysia plans to have 10% of global biodiesel market.²⁶⁵ The first wood-to-ethanol plant began operations in 2007 in Japan.²⁶⁶ The share of renewable energy in the total energy production was of 5% in 2005 and there's an expectation to grow for 2030 up to 17%.²⁶⁷ The main reason why renewable energy lacks production is the perception of risk and high costs in this kind of projects by investors which by the influence of new inputs may vary.²⁶⁸

²⁵¹ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007, p.117

²⁵² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.87

²⁵³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.37

²⁵⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.37

²⁵⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.39

²⁵⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.41-43

²⁵⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.47

²⁵⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii

²⁵⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.48

²⁶⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.49

²⁶¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.18

²⁶² Sáez, L. *U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications*, 2007, p. 668

²⁶³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.27

²⁶⁴ Sáez, L. *U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications*, 2007, p.668

²⁶⁵ REN 21. *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century, 2007 p.15

²⁶⁶ REN 21. *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century, 2007, p.19

²⁶⁷ Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.1

²⁶⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.18

Energy Efficiency

“Energy efficiency can be defined as the effectiveness with which energy resources are converted into usable work.”²⁶⁹ This concept has acquired importance in recent years for several reasons. “Energy efficiency is the most cost-effective means of meeting energy demand and is complementary to renewable energy for achieving a secure and clean energy future and addressing global climate change.”²⁷⁰ There is an estimate of 25% energy savings until 2020 and over 40% until 2050 if energy efficiency is achieved.²⁷¹ A good portion of these cutbacks are going to take place in the region, particularly in industries like paper, chemicals, cement, petroleum refining, iron and steel which symbolize a large proportion of energy consumption industry wise.²⁷² With energy efficiency, countries in the region will also benefit economically by saving over \$560 billion while also experiencing a reduction in investment needs according to the International Energy Agency (IEA).²⁷³ It is important to point out that efficiency is useful for both demand and supply.²⁷⁴ In relation to supply generation efficiency, system losses and station use are the main measures proposed to encourage energy efficiency.²⁷⁵ In this way, efficiency creates solutions in every area of the energy scope and increases the possibility of an energy secure region.

Energy Trade

As of 2005, the region’s energy trade was underdeveloped, the region accounted for 12% of the annual electricity trade worldwide and the region is a net energy importer.²⁷⁶ The energy import dependency in the region rose from 28% to 31% in the period between 1992 and 2005, which shows the deficiency of the region in achieving self sufficiency.²⁷⁷ In 2005, the ESCAP imported 36% of the world’s total rate of energy importation.²⁷⁸ The sub-regions that have the highest growth rates in imports are South-East Asia and South-West Asia, and generally the developing ESCAP economies import grew 5.5% while imports to developed economies grew just 1.4%.²⁷⁹ Also, the region is one of the world’s highest oil importers and China, Taiwan Province of China together represent 14 % of world’s oil importers.²⁸⁰

Regarding energy exports, in 2005 the region exported 35% of the world’s total, with energy sources coming principally from North and Central Asia while developing economies contributed 87% of this share.²⁸¹ The region is an important exporter of natural gas, as it has 55% of the world’s reserves and represents 44% of the total natural gas exports adding to its importance on coal exporting around the globe.²⁸² An essential element to improve trade is the establishment of necessary infrastructure which the region lacks and would enhance better possibilities in the market level.²⁸³ To accomplish this, countries must cooperate to create complementary energy policies, particularly by utilizing ties of trade and investment.²⁸⁴

Investment and Financing

A determining factor in enhancing energy security through energy diversification is investment in projects of this nature. The projected cost of expanding and modernizing the region’s energy system is \$9 trillion until 2030, but if sustainable energy is achieved, it can cost \$8.3 trillion, which shows tangible benefits to developing diverse

²⁶⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.10

²⁷⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.66

²⁷¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.10

²⁷² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.16

²⁷³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.16

²⁷⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.72

²⁷⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.72

²⁷⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii

²⁷⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.55

²⁷⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.56

²⁷⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.56

²⁸⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.59

²⁸¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.57

²⁸² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.59

²⁸³ Heyzer, *Asia and the Pacific to rethink Energy Security*, 2008, p.3

²⁸⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.155

energy.²⁸⁵ This kind of investment cannot just come from traditional sources of funding, as the current amount given for alternative energy projects is \$5.4 billion per year, which is only a small contribution to what is needed.²⁸⁶ To do this, China and India must invest \$5 trillion until 2030 and China accounts for 17% of projected world energy investment and India 6%.²⁸⁷ China, for instance, has already invested \$12 billion in solar hot water, small hydropower and wind power.²⁸⁸ Yet this initial project by China is far from what is needed on a broader scale across the region. Investment is needed, especially for small projects, in order to reduce the gap between domestic supply and demand, resolve cash flow issues, diminish the impact of policy reforms, address the foreign exchange components of investment, and clean contaminated zones.²⁸⁹ Regarding the rate of investment needed, renewable energy sources will require at least 33% in order to promote these initiatives.²⁹⁰ A reduction in demand for traditional energy sources will require less investment for power generation because initial investments for renewable energy and nuclear power are substantially larger than those for traditional sources.²⁹¹ The different renewable energy sources will not acquire a share in the energy mix if there are no incentives, or in markets where energy prices accompany environmental and social costs.²⁹² The needs for investment varies between different sub-regions, as needs differ between developed and developing countries. For example, industrialized countries will need greater investment in sustainable energy sources while in developing regions introducing improved end-use efficiency is more economical.²⁹³ In certain areas, there is progress due to the fact that investment increased in 2006 with more than 50% to renewable sources projects.²⁹⁴ The needs are still great, but the methods of financing are many, to counteract deficiencies in investment.

As investors identify the growth in demand for renewable energy, governments have encouraged them with incentive legislation and support methods.²⁹⁵ Privately owned systems have been identified as one of the best options to endorse energy production, and countries like Australia and India have opened their markets so that a competitive atmosphere is promoted.²⁹⁶ The World Bank suggests that in order to attract private capital, the energy sector would have to be reformed in a way that strength, stability and clarity are endorsed to guarantee the investment.²⁹⁷ Other options suggest that local financial institutions finance projects through leasing and term loans, which is now an infrequently used option because of lack of resources and information on potential projects.²⁹⁸ One important finance source is the funding of international institutions such as the World Bank or the Asian Development Bank, (even though these institutions ask for structural adjustment policies), while multilateral agencies such as the United States Export Credit Agency provide another financing option, one which has given loans for renewable energy projects.²⁹⁹ After exploring these measures, countries can take the next step resumed in commercializing the products, minimizing the roles of governments and multilateral institutions, leaving partnerships between governments and private sector to lead a broader stage of privatization as a suitable way to finance new projects.³⁰⁰ Beyond this, there are other ways of financing renewable energy projects in the international scope such as the Global Environmental Facility, Least Developed Countries Fund for Climate Change, the Special Climate Change Fund, and Clean Energy for Development Investment Framework, among others.³⁰¹

Actions taken and future measures

²⁸⁵ Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p. 2

²⁸⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xix.

²⁸⁷ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007. p. 129.

²⁸⁸ REN 21. *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century, 2007, p.16

²⁸⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.110f.

²⁹⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.96

²⁹¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.99

²⁹² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.99

²⁹³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.99

²⁹⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.100

²⁹⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.102

²⁹⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.104

²⁹⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.105

²⁹⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.108

²⁹⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.108f.

³⁰⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.109

³⁰¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.118

Lately, policies have been enacted at national, regional, sub-regional and international levels. Countries in the region have taken measures to achieve energy security involving different areas. For instance, India developed the National Common Minimum Program with the objective of applying policies to accomplish energy security.³⁰² Some of the policies include energy intensity targets in the internal political division; support to renewable sources such as hydropower, bio-fuels, solar, wind and nuclear power; research, development and deployment of clean coal-to-liquids and bio-fuel technologies; policies to increase the use of renewable sources of energy for power generation and the promotion of bio-fuels including mandatory use of these bio-fuels for public vehicles.³⁰³ Iran, Pakistan and India promoted “solar water heating systems and solar air heating/steam generating systems for community cooking.”³⁰⁴ China developed a long-term renewable development plan in 2007 with a goal of tripling its renewable energy production for 2020, and India and Indonesia have also established national targets regarding renewable sources.³⁰⁵ China has developed the 10th Five Year Plan for National Economic and Social Development, involving diversification of the energy mix, development of renewable energies and new sources of energy along with the Energy Conservation and Comprehensive Resource Utilization.³⁰⁶

Regionally, there have been several attempts to address this topic, which are vital to understand before developing new approaches. A good example is how the East and North-East Asia sub region have developed 12 international initiatives including ASEAN +3, APEC and ECNEA.³⁰⁷ Another initiative is the Asian Energy Security Project, which consists of collaborative research among some ESCAP member states to determine national and regional approaches towards energy security, mainly nuclear power.³⁰⁸ An essential document that demonstrates the efforts that the commission has been doing in the previous years is Resolution 63/6 which proclaims the “implementation of inter country energy cooperation to enhance energy security for sustainable development with a view to widening access to energy services in least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.”³⁰⁹ The expert body within the Commission also promotes establishing four main priorities: shift in paradigm regarding energy production towards environmentally sustainable energy development; increase the use of renewable energy for sustainable development; transboundary energy cooperation; and facilitate sustainable energy policies for countries with special needs.³¹⁰ An important approach achieved on the regional level is the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation, adopted in 2002, where countries committed to achieve the MDGs using three converging stakes: sustainable development; social and economic development; and environmental protection. A cornerstone agreement in the region regarding energy security is the Seoul Initiative, adopted in 2005 with three main mandates, including the Ministerial Declaration on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific; the Regional Implementation Plan for Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific; and the Seoul Initiative on Environmentally Sustainable Economic Growth.³¹¹

Based on these previous approaches, the question of what step to take next remains. Some of these measures are: cooperating to develop renewable energy technologies; participating actively in already existing initiatives; including developing countries in the different uses of renewable energy; promoting dissemination of existing and new renewable energy technologies; involve researchers and technologists from developing countries; facilitating transfer of technologies to developing countries; making a paradigm shift from “quantity growth” to “quality growth”; implementing sustainable energy infrastructure; promoting investment and financing to develop competitiveness; modernizing energy services; creating safeguards to prevent volatility, among others.³¹² These are plausible actions, and combined with the already existing policies, Asia and the Pacific region can achieve energy security through energy diversification.

³⁰² Sáez, L. *U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications*, 2007, p.662-663

³⁰³ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007, p.176

³⁰⁴ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007, p.176

³⁰⁵ Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development. *OECD Environmental Performance Reviews: China*, 2007, p.22.

³⁰⁶ Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development. *OECD Environmental Performance Reviews: China*, 2007, p.60.

³⁰⁷ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Cooperation in North-East Asia*, 2010

³⁰⁸ Asian Energy Security. *Nautilus Institute for Security and Sustainability*, 2010

³⁰⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Resolution 63/6*, 2009

³¹⁰ *Energy Security Section. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, 2010

³¹¹ Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Report of the Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific, 2005*. 2005. p.18

³¹² Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2008). *Annual Report*. New York: Economic and Social Council. p.47; Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific, 2008*, p.2

Conclusion

Nowadays, the issue of achieving energy security is a puzzling topic for every country, as energy is essential for growth and development. However, achieving energy security may affect other areas, such as the environment, making the diversification of sources fundamental to accomplishing the objective in an efficient and sustainable way. The Asian and the Pacific region have renewable energy potential, but its targets are currently far from being reached. This is why several questions will arise to be discussed in the committee: How can the region develop new sustainable sources of energy? Why haven't countries applied their resources to enhance energy security and exploit their potential? What can countries do to promote investment, financing and infrastructure creation or maintenance? How does the region achieve energy efficiency integrally? What already existing policies create opportunities for new and more effective policies? How can the region satisfy its need for energy security in a way that creates a more competitive economy while also achieving energy security? In which way can trade be pivotal to achieving the region's objectives? It is essential to understand that energy security is a determining factor for the future of the region's development and the work of the commission is the most powerful tool to do so.

Annotated Bibliography

Committee History of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

Schaaf, C. Hart. (1953) *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East*. in: "International Organization" Vol. 7, No. 4 (Nov., 1953), pp. 463-481

This article was written by the then Executive Secretary of ECAFE (now ESCAP) and published merely 5 years after the establishment of the commission. It offers a more detailed summary of the goals, structure and procedures of ESCAP in its beginning phase. Furthermore, this article attempts to analyze achievements and potentialities in its early years.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in an Era of Uncertainty: Asia-Pacific Regional Report 2009/10*. Bangkok.

As the UN body responsible for economic development in the Asian-Pacific region, the Millennium Development Goals have become a central item on the ESCAP agenda. This is the most recent report on the current implementation process as well as achievements regarding the MDGs in the region. After highlighting regional trends and statistics, this report especially concentrates on the effect of the economic crisis on the implementation of the MDGs.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Annual Report I May 2008 – 28 April 2009*. Bangkok.

The ESCAP Annual Report is released annually at the end of its official session and is an important source of insight into the topics and issues currently most relevant to ESCAP. This report was released after the 65th session of ESCAP and encompasses a complete summary of the work conducted by ESCAP in the following year as well as the goals set for the coming year. The 65th session had the challenge of dealing with an economic crisis, food/fuel price volatility and climate change.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2007). *The First Parliament of Asia: Sixty Years of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (1947-2007)*. Bangkok.

This book was published in 2007 to commemorate the 60th anniversary of ESCAP. It offers a wide-ranging summary of the founding of ESCAP, its evolution over the years and recent developments. The book focuses especially on developments concerning economic growth, poverty and green growth in the Asian-Pacific region and is the most comprehensive historical analysis of ESCAP available.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok.

The Rules of Procedure for ESCAP were drafted at its first session and thereafter amended accordingly. In this document ESCAP defined its self-envisioned structure and modus operandi

for executing its mandate as defined by ECOSOC in the Terms of Reference. It defines the organizational composition, agenda and procedural methods of ESCAP.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.* Bangkok.

Adopted by the Economic and Social Council at its fourth session the Terms of Reference is the official mandate of ESCAP as dictated by ECOSOC. These terms were hitherto revised as deemed necessary and are the most central document for ESCAP's work. It not only dictates the guiding goals, competences and functions of ESCAP, but it also outlines the relationship of ESCAP to ECOSOC and localizes it in the UN System.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (N.D.) *United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.* Retrieved on October 10, 2010 from www.unescap.org

The website of ESCAP is a portal to all important aspects of the organ, both past and future. It provides important information about structure and activities both of ESCAP and its Member States. The website not only offers a plethora of information, especially the most recent and accurate but it also offers links to all sub-commissions and other important regional organizations.

United Nations General Assembly. (1977). *Restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system.* New York.

This groundbreaking Resolution changed the structure of the UN System and enabled the institutionalization of ESCAP. Here, the GA decided to make the regional commissions permanent organs in the UN System to assist ECOSOC in furthering economic and social development. Furthermore, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific was adopted as the permanent title of the commission to truly reflect its composition.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (1997). Resolution 64/1. *Restructuring the conference structure of the Commission.* New York.

This Resolution creates the acutely needed sub-commissions of ESCAP. With the goal of improving the working structure of ESCAP, the establishment of the sub-commissions was seen as a mechanism to enable more efficient and effective procedures. This important resolution dictates the different areas and functions of these irreplaceable new bodies.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (N.D.) *Because People Matter.* Bangkok. UN ESCAP Information Services

This is an information brochure published by ESCAP summarizing important and useful information. It not only offers useful statistics and facts about the Commission, but highlights some of ESCAP's important past achievements. It is a great introductory document to inspire further, more specific, research into ESCAP's work.

I. Promoting gender equality as a means to combat HIV incidence in the Asia and Pacific region

Annan, K. (2002). *In Africa, AIDS has a woman's face.* New York Times International Herald Tribune, Saturday 29 December. Retrieved on August 8, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/News/press/docs/2002/sg29dec2002.htm>

This source is an emphatic article highlighting the link between gender equality and HIV/AIDS. Annan delineates the primary role which women play in society, the fact that there is often a higher number of women than men infected with HIV and the fundamental fact that no solution will be complete if it fails to address these points.

Annan, K. (2005). *World Population Day Message.* United Nations Population Fund. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from: <http://www.unfpa.org/public/news/pid/2567>

For the 2005 World Population Day, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan gave a message inspired by gender equality and its role as a prerequisite for development. This message is important because it highlights the fact that gender equality is a tool which ultimately empowers all people,

and that this is the base from which a host of problems, including the HIV/AIDS epidemic, must be tackled for true results.

Association of South East Asian Nations. (2009). *Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration on the Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights*. Retrieved online September 10, 2010 from:

<http://www.aseansec.org/documents/Declaration-AICHR.pdf>

The Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration encompasses the launch of the AICHR, the first regional human rights body in Asia. It is a very short document, and does not contain any in-depth information about how the AICHR is to be organized or run, but it is useful as a reference point for further research.

AVERT. (2010). *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*. Retrieved on October 2, 2010 from <http://www.avert.org/thailand-aids-hiv.htm>

This Web site provides a large amount of up-to-date data on the HIV/AIDS epidemic, and this page is specifically useful for learning the history of the epidemic in Thailand, and why the Thai government was so successful in stemming the rate of HIV incidence for so long. It also highlights the fact that if past efforts are not resurrected, the sources of new infections may cause a resurgence in the epidemic.

Collier, P. (2008). *The Bottom Billion*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Paul Collier is a former director of Development Research at the World Bank, and in this book he examines the conditions, which 'trap' the world's poorest billion people in poverty. Although gender inequality and HIV/AIDS are not the main focus, this book can help to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the conditions, which feed and are fed by gender inequality and epidemics of disease.

De Silva, L. (2004). *From ECAFE to ESCAP: Pioneering a Regional Perspective* in Berthelot, Y. (Ed.) *Unity and Diversity in Development Ideas: Perspectives from the UN Regional Commissions*. United Nations Intellectual History Project Series. Indiana: Indiana University Press.

Here Leelananda de Silva provides an in-depth analytical history of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. It is a useful resource for gaining a fuller understanding of the Commission's purpose, and how it has evolved as an organization.

Durán, L. A. (2010). *The implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly and its contribution to shaping a gender perspective towards the full realization of the MDGs*. Retrieved on October 2, 2010 from: <http://www.awid.org/eng/Issues-and-Analysis/Issues-and-Analysis/The-implementation-of-the-Beijing-Declaration-and-Platform-for-Action-the-outcomes-of-the-twenty-third-special-session-of-the-General-Assembly-and-its-contribution-to-shaping-a-gender-perspective-towards-the-full-realization-of-the-MDGs>

Writing for the Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID), Durán gives an analysis of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action from the perspective of women's rights-oriented NGOs. The evaluation is detailed and specific, and includes a long section on current trends and challenges. This will be particularly useful in assessing the utility of possible solutions as this document provides sharp comment on areas, which are weak and must be strengthened.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2006). *A global view of HIV infection*. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

http://data.unaids.org/pub/GlobalReport/2008/GR08_2007_HIVPrevWallMap_GR08_en.jpg

This document maps the incidences of HIV infection from 1990 to 2007 by region, and gives a breakdown of the 2007 figures by country. As well as providing an excellent reference point for facts and figures on the epidemic, it is striking to see how the epidemic has evolved and it shows just how urgent the need to reduce the incidence has become.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2008). *Fast facts about HIV*. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from: http://data.unaids.org/pub/FactSheet/2008/20080519_fastfacts_hiv_en.pdf

This UNAIDS fact sheet provides a strong starting point for research on HIV/AIDS itself. It introduces the basic terminology which will be required for understanding more complex documents. Whilst providing a rudimentary overview of what HIV/AIDS infection means, it also presents links to more advanced documents that will need to be understood if a meaningful resolution is to be devised.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2010). *Gender*. Retrieved on August 5, 2010 from: <http://www.unaids.org/en/PolicyAndPractice/Gender/default.asp>

Here, UNAIDS provides a definition of gender for use in policy and practice. This is a must-read page even for Delegates familiar with the terminology of gender equality, as an effective solution cannot be reached without a consensus on the meaning of the concepts involved with this topic.

Kim, J. C. and Watts, C. H. (2005). Gaining a foothold: tackling poverty, gender inequality and HIV in Africa. *British Medical Journal*, 331:769-772. Retrieved on August 6, 2010 from: <http://www.bmj.com/cgi/content/full/331/7519/769>

This article, whilst not relating to the ESCAP region directly, provides a perspective on the gender equality/HIV-incidence issue by examining the social structures, which prevent women in Africa from protecting themselves from infection. Understanding the wider context of both the HIV epidemic and gender equality itself will serve to supply a richer base of material and understanding with which to devise solutions.

Kristof, N. D. and WuDunn, S. (2010). *Half the Sky: How to Change the World*. London: Virago Press.

This is an outstanding book for research on the extent of gender discrimination and its consequences worldwide. It is highly readable, and provides a thorough overview of the hundreds of interconnected problems that are all linked through a common issue: gender inequality. It is a must-read for those without any prior knowledge of gender discrimination, and is valuable even to Delegates familiar with these issues.

Nath, M. B. (2000). Women's health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers' project in Calcutta. *Gender and Development*, Vol. 8, No. 1: 100-108.

Nath presents an astute account of HIV/AIDS in Asia, and a successful case study from the Sonagachi red-light area in Calcutta. She provides in-depth analysis of the relationship between gender inequality and HIV/AIDS, and handles the intricacies which cultural and societal traditions present in terms of gender inequality clearly and carefully. The Sonagachi project can provide a proven model for similar areas struggling with HIV/AIDS.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. (1979). *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010 from:

<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cedaw.htm>

This page provides a copy of the full CEDAW document, accompanied by a review of the establishment, purpose and work of CEDAW. The supplementary history and analysis is particularly useful for understanding how the Convention functions, and the Convention itself is an essential support in the pursuit of gender equality.

United Nations. (2010). *Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases*. Retrieved on August 15, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/aids.shtml>

The UN web site for the Millennium Development Goals does much to put the HIV/AIDS pandemic into global context. This page gives an overview of what the problem is and a breakdown of the targets it is striving to achieve. It is also an extremely useful site as it cross-references the MDG program with other UN bodies, including the regional commissions, which makes the process of tracking the progress of the MDGs in Asia and the Pacific much easier.

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women. (2010). *Beijing and its Follow-up*. Retrieved September 7, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/>

This page gives access to full details on all four of the World Conferences on Women and the three follow-ups evaluating the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. It links official

documents, resolutions, statements, high-level events and non-governmental participation, and is therefore a rich background resource for almost every gender equality issue.

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women. (2000). *The Feminization of Poverty*. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/session/presskit/fs1.htm>

During the Beijing+5 follow-up Conference, the feminization of poverty, and the huge number of undesirable conditions that feed it and are fed by it, became a central issue. This page introduces the subject, and a good knowledge of these issues will greatly aid discussion on how to reduce gender inequality in order to help combat HIV/AIDS.

United Nations Development Fund for Women. (2001). *Turning the Tide: CEDAW and the Gender Dimensions of the HIV/AIDS Pandemic*. Retrieved on August 18, 2010 from:

<http://www.genderandaids.org/downloads/topics/TurningTheTide.pdf>

UNIFEM here provides a succinct document on the main issues regarding gender and the incidence of HIV/AIDS.

It is a must-read for this topic, as it provides not only the details of the issues at the heart of the problem, but also the legal foundations which support the methods to counteract gender inequality and hence use equality as a means to combat HIV/AIDS.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Asian Development Bank, United Nations Development Programme. (2009). *Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in an era of uncertainty: Asia-Pacific Regional Report 2009/10*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010 from:

http://www.mdgasiapacific.org/files/shared_folder/documents/Regional_MDG_Report_2009-10.pdf

Evaluating the progress of the MDGs in the Asia-Pacific region thus far, this report takes stock of the current situation and identifies the key challenges that need to be addressed. Subsequently, possible policy solutions that address both the economic and social challenges are discussed. This source is particularly useful for gaining an understanding of the current difficulties the Commission is facing and the efforts it is making in response to them.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Gender and HIV/AIDS*.

Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/Gad/Issues/HIV/index.asp>

This page provides a portal to gender and HIV/AIDS related documents, as well as a brief overview of the main problems that gender inequality presents in Asia and the Pacific. It is an excellent page from which to begin research, as it supplies links to a number of relevant and important resources.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2005). *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*. Gender and Development Discussion Series, No.18. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

<http://www.unescap.org/esid/gad/Publication/DiscussionPapers/18/DiscussionPaper18.pdf>

This discussion paper gives an excellent overview of gender and the incidence of HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific, and is a must-read in order to gain a thorough understanding of the basic issues connected with it. It covers a wide range of cases studies, analyses past efforts and delineates areas which could become priorities for action.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*.

Retrieved on October 1, 2010 from http://www.unescap.org/esid/GAD/Events/HLM-2009/download/BPA09_2E.pdf

Compiled at the High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and Its Regional and Global Outcomes on the 16-18 November 2009 in Bangkok, this report provides a detailed review of ESCAP's action so far in terms of gender equality. It is a must-read for an up-to-date opinion on the progress of the Platform so far, and it is extremely useful because it can be used to identify weak areas for policy targets.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2004). *Women and HIV/AIDS*.

Retrieved on August 14, 2010 from

<http://www.unescap.org/esid/gad/Events/WomensDay2004/IWD%20FACT%20SHEET%20HIV%20AIDS.pdf>

A factsheet compiled by UNESCAP for International Women's Day 2004, this resource is a good point of reference for supporting facts and figures. It also includes a briefing on why the number of cases of women with HIV is increasing, and what makes women vulnerable to infection.

United Nations Economic and Social Council – Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals* (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4). Retrieved on September 8, 2010 from: http://www.unescap.org/esid/GAD/Events/HLM-2009/download/BPA09_4E.pdf

A highly useful resource, this document explores the problems of implementing strategies to alleviate gender inequalities in depth in the Asia-Pacific region. In addition to this, the last section includes a number of practical examples of the implementation of the promotion of gender equality through ESCAP's holistic approach in terms of linking the MDGs, CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action and human rights.

United Nations Economic and Social Council – Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years, and its Regional and Global Outcomes* (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/CRP.1). Retrieved on September 7, 2010 from:

http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing15/docs/BPA09_CRP1E.pdf

This document comprises the declaration reached in preparation for the Beijing + 15 review. It is the most recent evaluation of gender equality issues within the region, and provides an up-to-date breakdown of the primary problems and the targets that ESCAP have agreed to commit to in order to eliminate gender discrimination.

United Nations Economic and Social Council. (2003). *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women* (E/CN.4/2004/66). Retrieved on August 12, 2010 from: [http://www.unhcr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/3cb562e561714a66c1256e66003d213c/\\$FILE/G0410202.pdf](http://www.unhcr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/3cb562e561714a66c1256e66003d213c/$FILE/G0410202.pdf)

This report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women is a brilliant resource for background knowledge on the subject in general, but the section entitled "HIV/AIDS: crossroads of multiple forms of violence against women" is particularly useful as it provides a succinct explanation of the connection between HIV/AIDS incidence and gender.

United Nations General Assembly. (2001). Special Session on HIV/AIDS (2001). *Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS* (A/RES/S-26/2). Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/ga/aids/coverage/FinalDeclarationHIVAIDS.html>

In the twenty-sixth Special Session of the General Assembly, between the 25th and 27th June 2001, global support for the prevention and care, support and treatment of those with or affected by HIV was pledged. Of particular importance to this topic is the section on 'Reducing vulnerability', of which the empowerment of women is an essential step. This is a document of crucial importance to the global movement against HIV/AIDS, and it is necessary to evaluate it before further resolutions can be made.

United Nations General Assembly. (2006). *Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS* (A/RES/60/262). Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from: http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2006/20060615_hlm_politicaldeclaration_ares60262_en.pdf

In the sixtieth session, the General Assembly reviewed progress, or the lack thereof, since the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS was made in 2001. The body rededicated itself to its original goals, and to further reviews to evaluate progress, of which the next is due in 2011. When considering which course of action to take, it is extremely important to be fully aware of past efforts, as it will allow weak areas to be identified and strengthened, and strong areas to be maintained.

United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women. (2010). *UN Creates New Structure for Empowerment of Women*. Retrieved on August 30, 2010 from: <http://www.unwomen.org/2010/07/un-creates-new-structure-for-empowerment-of-women/>

The creation of UN Women, which amalgamated a number of UN bodies in order to consolidate and strengthen the UN's position and efforts to combat gender discrimination, was announced in

this UN press release. The new web site also provides links to answer questions on how the new body will run in all respects, from its presence in countries to what it will mean for the UN system.

United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. (2008). *OHCHR – South East Asia Regional Office (2008-2009) Human rights context*. Retrieved on September 7, 2010 from <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Countries/AsiaRegion/Pages/SouthEastAsiaSummary0809.aspx>

Assessing the protection of human rights in the South East Asian region, the OHCHR provides an overview of the situation in preparation for the 2008-2009 biennium. It analyses the achievements and progress made in 2006-2007, and sets out the priorities for action for the coming years, noting that responses to human rights issues must be tailored to the needs of the State in question.

Weiss, T. G. (2010). *What's Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*. Cambridge: Polity Press. *This seminal work on the improvement of the United Nations includes an excellent section on gender inequality and institutions for women within the chapter 'The Feudal System'. Weiss emphasizes the 1985 Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategy, stressing the need for the advancement of women for the achievement of development itself. This source offers an insightful understanding of gender inequality throughout the international system, an issue central to this topic and therefore a necessity in Conference preparation.*

World Health Organisation. (2005). *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*. Retrieved on August 10, 2010 from: http://www.who.int/hiv/HIVCP_PNG.pdf

This document summarizes the case of HIV/AIDS in Papua New Guinea. It serves as an excellent reference point for initial research by providing a précis of all the main issues connected with the epidemic in this country. In doing so, it can form the basis for deeper research.

World Health Organisation. (1999). *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*. Retrieved on August 19, 2010 from: <http://www.who.int/inf-new/aids1.htm>

Thailand once appeared to be keeping pace with the evolution of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. More recently, however, this seems not to be the case, particularly amongst women. This page, produced during the ascent of apparent success in stemming the incidences of HIV/AIDS, details how it was being achieved, and includes a couple of useful graphs.

World Health Organisation. (1999). *Health – A Key to Prosperity*. Retrieved on August 29, 2010 from: <http://www.who.int/inf-new/pdf.htm>

In this document the WHO details a number of success stories in the fight against HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, childhood disease, maternal and perinatal conditions. Analysing the sources of success can be educative in trying to formulate new courses of action, and three case studies are provided here: Thailand, Uganda and Senegal.

World Health Organisation, Western Pacific – South-east Asia. (2003). *HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific Region*. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

http://www.searo.who.int/LinkFiles/HIV-AIDS_in_Asia_and_the_Pacific_Region_2003_HIV-AIDS_Asia-2003.pdf

The World Health Organisation has produced a comprehensive analysis of HIV/AIDS in a country-by-country breakdown in this document. It is extremely useful for achieving a deeper knowledge of the factors and issues involved in individual cases, and an excellent reference point for statistics and graphs to demonstrate them.

II. Strengthening development policies for social inclusion

Anand, S. and Sen, A. (2000). Human Development and Economic Sustainability. *World Development*, 28 (12), 2029-2049.

The research paper reflects the modern definition of human development; the expansion of people's choices and capabilities as developed by the Indian welfare economist Amartya Sen. Since social inclusion aims at improving the living conditions of excluded groups meaning an expansion of entitlements and access to essentials such as education and adequate nutrition, it is

important to understand the full meaning of human development as presented in this paper. This source is particularly relevant in order to differentiate between development as an average macroeconomic advancement of a country and a holistic real life impact on people's daily living conditions. Social inclusion aims at addressing the latter.

Heyzer, N. (2010). *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific: Regional Conference on Enhancing Social Protection Strategy in Asia and the Pacific*. Retrieved October 17, 2010 from:

<http://www.unescap.org/oes/statements/2010/ST20100421-social-protection-agenda.html>

On the occasion of the regional conference on enhancing social protection strategy in Asia and the Pacific, held in Manila on April 21 and 22 of 2010, the Executive Secretary of ESCAP Noeleen Heyzer explains her vision of a social protection agenda in particular as an answer to the recent economic and financial crisis. According to her four elements shall be considered, poverty and risk reduction, social inclusion for inclusive growth and political stability, human security as a basic right, and contribution to the achievement of the MDGs. This speech is a valuable source as it provides an insight how the leaders of ESCAP shape social protection strategies and prepare a suitable environment for these in the near future.

Hujo, K. (2009). *Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Lessons learned from: existing policies and practices*. Background paper for Expert Group Meeting. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Retrieved August 10, 2010 from: www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/Hujo.pdf

This paper finds that social inclusion is, even after the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen (1995), still not well understood. Thus, it presents different approaches in social policy and discusses these normatively. An excellent review of a broad sample of policies and practices follows. These are aimed at social protection, distributional issues, participatory civil society and strategies addressing poverty. Furthermore, the strengths and weaknesses of each are outlined.

Kabeer, N. (2006). *Social Exclusion and the MDGs: The Challenge of Durable Inequalities' in the Asian Context*. Asia 2015 Conference. Session 3: Realising the Potential for Poverty Reduction. Parallel Group 3A: Topic Paper 4. Institute of Development Studies and Overseas Development Institute. London. Retrieved August 12, 2010 from: www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0708/DOC21178.pdf

After firstly emphasizing the durable character of social exclusion this paper originally prepared for the Asia 2015 Conference themed "Promoting Growth, Ending Poverty" the author explains the meaning of social exclusion for the progress in the MDGs according to the dimensions income, health and education. Having conducted this static analysis the paper concentrates on the process of exclusion itself and the resulting political marginalisation. Finally, the policy implications are explored. This paper follows a practical approach displaying the situations in various Asian countries instead of discussing social exclusion on a theoretical level.

Karunatileka, E. (1999). *The Asian Economic Crisis*, Research Paper 99/14. The House of Commons Library. Retrieved August 21, 2010 from: <http://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons/lib/research/rp99/rp99-014.pdf>

This research paper gives an excellent insight into how the Asian Financial Crisis emerged, beginning in the financial markets of South Asia in 1997. The crisis is a main trigger, why governments in the Asia-Pacific region reduced their spending on social integration. The resource will prove useful for delegates as an overview of the policy measures taken by international financial institutions and the International Monetary Fund took to address the crisis, providing insight and information that can be applied to the situation today.

Köhler, G. (2009). *Policies Toward Social Inclusion: A South Asian Perspective*. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 24-29. *Primarily this paper elucidates the four domains in which dominant social groups deny access to the vulnerable groups. In the following different inclusion policies such as employment schemes and the access to public services are discussed. Country examples are provided as well. The author then stresses the advantage of complementary inclusion policies compared to sector specific strategies addressing particular aspects of social exclusion.*

Lotse, C. (2006). *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*. High-Level Panel

Session on National Strategies and Approaches in Reaching the MDGs. South Asia MDG Forum. Kathmandu. Retrieved August 14, 2010 from:

http://www.mdgasiapacific.org/files/shared_folder/documents/presentation_unicefrosa.pdf

This statement prepared for a High-Level Panel Session by a regional director of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund assesses the performance of the Asia-Pacific region on the MDG ladder. Moreover the statement puts forward reasons for the slow progress, asks for serious attention to this matter, and identifies social exclusion as a major brake for the progress in development. Furthermore the statement identifies the region as a laboratory of policy answers and delivers an insight into measures already taken as well as concrete aspects, which should be considered in future.

Naidu, V. (2009). *Draft Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from:

http://www.unescap.org/ESID/hds/development_account/mtg/EGM_Bg_doc/Fiji%20Islands%20Country%20Profile%20on%20Excluded%20Groups2.pdf

The study is the most detailed analysis currently available investigating the history-based exclusionary processes in Fiji. Due to the geographical position as islands in the Pacific, the social exclusion is probably more extreme than without this geographical feature. However, it is an excellent study case showing the dynamic of social exclusion.

Rola, B. (2009). *Promoting Social Integration*. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 13-16. Retrieved August 14, 2010 from:

www.un.org/esa/socdev/social/meetings/egm6_social_integration/documents/Rola_input.pdf

This paper outlines the beneficial implications of an accelerated social integration for different social groups being vulnerable. The analysis represents an appraisal of the steps so far taken by governments in the Asia-Pacific region but also stresses the need for innovative policies. For the latter the author lists some very useful recommendations. Besides an orientation in the jungle of current policies adapted in the Asia-Pacific region, this paper offers a basis for the Delegates' suggestions to improve existing policies or to add new approaches.

Sadeque, S. Z. (2009). *Inclusive Planning for Social Integration: A Short Note*. Retrieved July 26, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/inclusive-planning.pdf>

The author not only reiterates the importance to implement what has been agreed on at the World Summit for Social Development in 1995, but also analysis, why the progress of implementation has been slow so far. Extremely valuable during the process of creating specific policy recommendations are the nine "Guidelines on Step by Step Approach to Encourage Inclusive Planning."

Thapa, N. (2009). *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*. Kathmandu. Retrieved August 23, 2010 from:

http://www.unescap.org/ESID/hds/development_account/mtg/EGM_Bg_doc/Nepal%20020909.pdf

This paper contains the most recent most complete and most detailed analysis on social-group specific inequalities and discrimination on a disaggregated level. Therefore, this country profile could very well function as a guide how to access the roots of social exclusion in other Member States and at the same time demonstrates the complexity.

United Nations Commission for Social Development. (2009). *Commission for Social Development, 47th session: Chairperson's Summary*. Retrieved August 16, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/csd/2009/documents/chairsummary.pdf>

As the title implies, this paper is only a very short summary of the 47th session. The summary This is the reason why it indicates many threats for social integration under the umbrella term of social exclusion. In particular, the relationship between social exclusion and poverty is helpful for the development of an interdisciplinary understanding of the topic.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2010). *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context (ST/ESA/325)*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from: www.un.org/esa/socdev/publications/measuring-social-inclusion.pdf

This study elaborates in detail definitions of relevant terms, and in particular discusses the measurement of social inclusion. Moreover, the study demonstrates the relevance of indicator

choice for the design of policies. It also opens up the debate for the relevance in policy creation by pointing out the key issues. Finally the study suggests possible answers.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2009). *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*. Retrieved August 14, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/inclusive-society.pdf>

This paper consists of two chapters. Besides a general repetition of the criteria for an inclusive society and the identification of possible excluded groups, the first chapter is noteworthy for the formulation of policies as different approaches to promoting social inclusion are presented. Thereby the paper concentrates on the barriers to be removed and the establishment of an inclusive policy framework. In addition, it presents a cost-benefit analysis. The second chapter is even more interesting for further research concerning the role of local governance processes.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2007). *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*. New York: Author. Retrieved October 2, 2010 from:

[http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/publications/prtcprtry_dlg\(full_version\).pdf](http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/publications/prtcprtry_dlg(full_version).pdf)

This comprehensive study focuses especially on the instrument of participatory dialogue to promote social inclusion. Participatory dialogue is considered as a key catalytic mechanism to create engagement by different stakeholders in order to create collective visions of development. The specific roles of stakeholders on the national and sub-national level are identified, as well as international case studies that highlight global trends.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2007). *Final Report of the Expert Group Meeting on: Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*. Retrieved August 17, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/sib/egm'07/documents/reportfinal.pdf>

The document summarizes the outcome of the Expert Meeting in Creating an Inclusive Society and contains concrete policy recommendations on various dimensions of social inclusion. The paper includes general recommendations, specific policy recommendations at national and sub-national levels, specific recommendations on measuring social inclusion and recommendations for fragile or post-conflict societies. Additionally, the most challenging obstacles for social inclusion are presented as well as the most productive mechanisms to overcome these. The report focuses on measurement issues as well.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2008). *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from:

http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/social/meetings/egm6_social_integration/documents/egm6.report.pdf

This report of the expert group meeting is very suitable for getting a detailed overview of the topic social inclusion. The report contains in depth and extensive policy recommendations including definitions, current trends and approaches for monitoring the progress of social inclusion. Moreover, through this source Delegates may gain a valuable insight into the leading experts' view on the topic, which might serve as a guideline in order to achieve similarly professional results at the conference.

United Nations Development Programme. (2006). *Poverty, Unemployment and Social Exclusion*. 2006. Zagreb: Author. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from:

<http://www.undp.hr/upload/file/104/52080/FILENAME/Poverty,%20Unemployment%20and%20Social%20Exclusion.pdf>

Besides a very good introduction to several concepts of social inclusion, this regional study is helpful in understanding the relevance of social inclusion for development. The study is motivated by Croatia's accession to the EU and thus demonstrates the experience in this country including causes and policies. In particular, the links between unemployment, education and poverty are analysed in-depth. The study concludes with recommendations for systematic monitoring of social exclusion and raises awareness for social discrimination.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*. Retrieved August 24, 2010 from: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/hds/development%5Faccount/>

This Web site presents a new project launched by ESCAP in order to provide policy support to Member States enhancing the investment in social inclusion. The project itself is described in the introduction to the topic. The links provided on the upper right of this Web site are helpful as a learning experience to get an idea how much preparatory work is invested within ESCAP to establish such a project.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific: Sustaining Recovery and Dynamism for Inclusive Development*. Bangkok: Author. Retrieved on August 15, from: <http://www.unescap.org/pdd/publications/survey2010/download/index.asp>

This survey is highly relevant for delegates. It is the most current compilation of analyses of the impact of the recent global financial crisis on the most vulnerable in Asia-Pacific. The survey encompasses the sub-regional level policies and how to cope with the impact of the financial crisis in order to prevent further social exclusion. It also provides a framework for cooperative action within the region. Therefore, it is very useful for research in order to identify major problems and develop future strategies for social inclusion.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2001). *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region: Social Policy Paper No. 3*. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/psis/publications/spps/03/2169.pdf>

Since the approaches to social integration in the context of the Copenhagen Declaration and of the Agenda for Action on Social Development changed over time such as the role of government and civil society as well as the consideration of a wider range of factors like conflicts and the spread of HIV, the paper analysis the changing issues and indicates current trends. Based on this analysis reflecting the implications for specific social groups, the policy options given pivot around an enabling environment, good governance, capacity-building, partnerships, and regional support.

United Nations General Assembly. (2009). *Report of the Secretary-General: Follow-up to the implementation of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly (A/64/157)*. Retrieved July 28, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=A/64/157>

In addition to the Chairperson's Summary, this report provides a substantive overview of the discussions during the 47th session of the Commission for Social Development. It has been produced according to the General Assembly resolution 63/152 on "the implementation of the outcome of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly. Particularly, it examines the effects of the current global crisis on the cohesion of societies and presents strategies to promote social integration in the sense of policy making. It also establishes the relations between social inclusion and poverty eradication as well as employment. The understanding of the latter is crucial for suggesting policy recommendations in the committee.

Wiman, R. (2009). Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 33-35.

Recognizing an increased level of risks and vulnerabilities to developing societies favouring social disintegration Wiman campaigns for effective strategies aimed at social inclusion as well as a human-centred approach defining people rather than abstract economies as the agents of action. The paper is a short but good summary of the current debate about social inclusion.

World Bank. (1993). *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*. Retrieved October 17, 2010 from: http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/main?pagePK=64193027&piPK=64187937&theSitePK=523679&menuPK=64187510&searchMenuPK=64187283&theSitePK=523679&entityID=000009265_3970716142516&searchMenuPK=64187283&theSitePK=523679.

This World Bank report presents the "Asian Miracle", meaning the spectacular economic performance of Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, Singapore,

Taiwan, and Thailand since the 1970s. The report underlines an improvement in human welfare due to the economic success. While the “Asian Miracle” often is interpreted as the successful outcome of the International Financial Institutions’ neoliberal policy recommendations, today the concept is challenged and claimed to be a myth by the economists such as Paul Krugman.

Zelenev, S. (2009). Social Integration in a Contemporary World. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 6-9. Zelenev presents a theoretical view of social inclusion and elucidates the results of the World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen (1995). Furthermore the author concentrates on the process towards an inclusive society and names challenges for policy makers. The paper is suitable for more detailed considerations at an advanced point in time in the research and preparation process for NMUN 2011.

III. Achieving Energy Security through Energy Security

Environment and Development Division. (2008). *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

This book provides a deep detailed analysis about the situation regarding energy in Asia and the Pacific. The Environment and Development Division of the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific developed a profound study about the possibilities of achieving energy security in the region analyzing the capability of investment, infrastructure and its benefits that this region has. It also suggests measures and policies to be taken in the future regarding these issues examining the potential of energy diversity in Asia and the Pacific. In addition it provides tables; examples and regimes that help understand the framework around the topic and its promises towards the region.

Sáez, L. (2007). U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications. *Asian Survey*, Vol. XLVII, No. 4.

The author portrays an interesting perspective from the United States towards South Asia regarding energy security. This chapter shows the different implications that energy security may have in this important part of the region evaluating the potential of this zone to achieve the goal, achievements until now and the future challenges. Furthermore, it analyzes the different energy sources that this sub-region contains and offers its prospect for the future of energy security, particularly new types of energy.

Heyzer, N. (2008). *Asia and the Pacific need to rethink Energy Security*. Editorial Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

Dr. Noeleen Heyzer is the Executive Secretary for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific as well as a United Nations Under Secretary-General, and in this editorial she presents her perception about the Energy issue in the region as well as the changes that she suggest should occur in the future. The editorial pinpoints the areas of effective action according to the author where solutions can take place. Finally, the article provides fundamental facts to consider prior to taking action on this topic in the future.

Energy Security Section. (2010) *United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Retrieved on July 29, 2010 from <http://www.unescap.org/esd/energy/>

This web page deals with all the information concerning the Energy Security Framework inside the UNESCAP. It contains mandates such as the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation or the Seoul Initiative. In addition, it has different official documents from the Commission that have been developed as regional policies and measures towards a secure energy structure. Finally, it touches different sub-topics inside energy security such as energy efficiency, energy trade and cooperation, and most important energy diversity.

Asian Energy Security. (2010). *Nautilus Institute for Security and Sustainability*. Retrieved on July 28, 2010 from <http://www.nautilus.org/projects/asian-energy-security/asian-energy-security/>

The Asian Energy Security is a project that promotes collaborative research between several countries in the region. This research is directed towards the creation of national and regional approaches to achieve energy security. This web page includes information on the advances that this project has accomplished and the annual plans that it has developed throughout the years. This site scrutinizes the different measures and projects inside various countries that have made relevant progress in terms of energy security and energy diversity.

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2008). *Annual Report*. New York: Economic and Social Council.

The 2008 Annual Report contains important information regarding energy security. Fundamental mandates in relation to this topic, such as Resolution 64/3, is published in this report, portraying the exact resolution passed in the 64th ESCAP session in which this topic was a treated. Suggestions for addressing this topic are included in this report, which will be useful information for anyone discussing energy security.

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2005). *Report of the Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific, 2005*. Seoul: United Nations Economic and Social Council.

The ESCAP released this report on environment and development issues, with energy security as a cornerstone in addressing these issues. The Seoul Initiative, as it is known, presents relevant decisions and mandates taken by the commission to address the subject. This initiative is one of the most important documents to read in order to understand the ESCAP actions regarding this topic.

World Summit on Sustainable Development. (2003). *Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development*. Johannesburg.

This document is better known as the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation. This plan contains new perspectives on ways to achieve energy security and suggestions for countries to gain sustainable development through several measures; one of them is energy security and energy diversity. This document argues for global action regarding development, giving priority to energy and scheming a global action plan to achieve sustainability.

REN 21. (2007). *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century. Paris: Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH.

The Renewable Energy Policy Network makes an annual report on its activities, including perspectives on the future, backed by studies and professional support. The most relevant section for the topic is the policies that could be applied in countries to advance renewable energy, and as a result, achieve energy diversity. It projects a global perspective of markets, industries and policies among others.

International Energy Agency. (2007). *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*. International Energy Agency.

China and India are the growing super powers in the ESCAP region, and energy is necessary for their long-term development. This document provides an overview on how these countries utilize energy with a profound analysis of their resources, policies and statistics. It points out successful policies made by these two countries which can give a guide for other countries to implement measures in order to achieve energy security as well as diversity.

Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development. (2007) *OECD Environmental Performance Reviews: China*. OECD Publishing.

As important as China is for the new world economic order, the environment has come to be an essential matter in this country, and energy the path to save to success. In this regard, the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development makes an exhaustive analysis of China's situation with their needs and policies taken. It also provides facts on the energy potential of the country and possible use of this energy to meet the region's needs.

Rules of Procedure Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

Introduction

1. These rules shall be the only rules which apply to the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (hereinafter referred to as “the Commission”) and shall be considered adopted by the Commission prior to its first meeting.
2. For purposes of these rules, the Plenary Director, the Assistant Director(s), the Under-Secretaries-General, and the Assistant Secretaries-General, are designates and agents of the Secretary-General and Director-General, and are collectively referred to as the “Secretariat.”
3. Interpretation of the rules shall be reserved exclusively to the Director-General or her or his designate. Such interpretation shall be in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the National Model United Nations and in furtherance of the educational mission of that organization.
4. For the purposes of these rules, “President” shall refer to the chairperson or acting chairperson of the commission.

I. SESSIONS

Rule 1 - *Dates of convening and adjournment*

The commission shall meet every year in regular session, commencing and closing on the dates designated by the Secretary-General.

Rule 2 - *Place of sessions*

The Commission shall meet at a location designated by the Secretary-General.

II. AGENDA

Rule 3 - *Provisional agenda*

The provisional agenda shall be drawn up by the Secretary-General and communicated to the Members of the Commission at least sixty days before the opening of the session.

Rule 4 - *Adoption of the agenda*

The agenda provided by the Secretary-General shall be considered adopted as of the beginning of the session. The order of the agenda items shall be determined by a majority vote of those present and voting. Items on the agenda may be amended or deleted by the Commission by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting.

The vote described in this rule is a procedural vote and, as such, observers are permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, —those present and voting¹ means those delegates, including observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to a vote.

Rule 5 - *Revision of the agenda*

During a session, the Commission may revise the agenda by adding, deleting, deferring or amending items. Only important and urgent items shall be added to the agenda during a session. Permission to speak on a motion to revise the agenda shall be accorded only to three representatives in favor of, and three opposed to, the revision. Additional items of an important and urgent character, proposed for inclusion in the agenda less than thirty days before the opening of a session, may be placed on the agenda if the Commission so decides by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. No additional item may, unless the Commission decides otherwise by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting, be considered until a committee has reported on the question concerned.

For purposes of this rule, the determination of an item of an —important and urgent character¹ is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final. If an item is determined to be of such a character, then it requires a two-thirds vote of the Commission to be placed on the agenda. It will, however, not be considered by the Commission until a committee has reported on the question. The votes described in this rule are substantive vote, and, as such, observers are not permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, —the members present and

voting — means members (not including observers) in attendance at the session during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 6 - Explanatory memorandum

Any item proposed for inclusion in the agenda shall be accompanied by an explanatory memorandum and, if possible, by basic documents.

III. SECRETARIAT

Rule 7 - Duties of the Secretary-General

1. The Secretary-General or her/his designate shall act in this capacity in all meetings of the Commission.
2. The Secretary-General shall provide and direct the staff required by the Commission and be responsible for all the arrangements that may be necessary for its meetings.

Rule 8 - Duties of the Secretariat

The Secretariat shall receive, print, and distribute documents, reports, and resolutions of the Commission, and shall distribute documents of the Commission to the Members, and generally perform all other work which the Commission may require.

Rule 9 - Statements by the Secretariat

The Secretary-General, or her/his representative, may make oral as well as written statements to the Commission concerning any question under consideration.

Rule 10 - Selection of the President The Secretary-General or her/his designate shall appoint, from applications received by the Secretariat, a President who shall hold office and, *inter alia*, chair the Commission for the duration of the session, unless otherwise decided by the Secretary-General.

Rule 11 - Replacement of the President If the President is unable to perform her/his functions, a new President shall be appointed for the unexpired term at the discretion of the Secretary-General.

IV. LANGUAGE

Rule 12 - Official and working language

English shall be the official and working language of the Commission.

Rule 13 - Interpretation (oral) or translation (written)

Any representative wishing to address any body or submit a document in a language other than English shall provide interpretation or translation into English.

This rule does not affect the total speaking time allotted to those representatives wishing to address the body in a language other than English. As such, both the speech and the interpretation must be within the set time limit.

V. CONDUCT OF BUSINESS

Rule 14 – Quorum

The President may declare a meeting open and permit debate to proceed when representatives of at least one third of the members of the Commission are present. The presence of representatives of a majority of the members of the Commission shall be required for any decision to be taken.

For purposes of this rule, —members of the Commission means the total number of members (not including observers) in attendance at the first night's meeting.

Rule 15 - General powers of the President

In addition to exercising the powers conferred upon him or her elsewhere by these rules, the President shall declare the opening and closing of each meeting of the Commission, direct the discussions, ensure observance of these rules, accord the right to speak, put questions to the vote and announce decisions. The President, subject to these rules, shall have complete control of the proceedings of the Commission and over the maintenance of order at its meetings. He or she shall rule on points of order. He or she may propose to the Commission the closure of the list of speakers, a limitation on the time to be allowed to speakers and on the number of times the representative of each member may speak on an item, the adjournment or closure of the debate, and the suspension or adjournment of a meeting.

Included in these enumerated powers is the President's power to assign speaking times for all speeches incidental to motions and amendment. Further, the President is to use her/his discretion, upon the advice and at the consent of the Secretariat, to determine whether to entertain a particular motion based on the philosophy and principles of the NMUN. Such discretion should be used on a limited basis and only under circumstances where it is necessary to advance the educational mission of the Conference. For purposes of this rule, the President's power to —propose to the Commission entails her/his power to —entertain motions, and not to move the body on his or her own motion.

Rule 16

The President, in the exercise of her or his functions, remains under the authority of the Commission.

Rule 17 - Points of order

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may rise to a point of order, which shall be decided immediately by the President. Any appeal of the decision of the President shall be immediately put to a vote, and the ruling of the President shall stand unless overruled by a majority of the members present and voting.

Such points of order should not under any circumstances interrupt the speech of a fellow representative. Any questions on order arising during a speech made by a representative should be raised at the conclusion of the speech, or can be addressed by the President, sua sponte, during the speech. For purposes of this rule, —the members present and voting mean those members (not including observers) in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 18

A representative may not, in rising to a point of order, speak on the substance of the matter under discussion.

Rule 19 - Speeches

1. No one may address the Commission without having previously obtained the permission of the President. The President shall call upon speakers in the order in which they signify their desire to speak.
2. Debate shall be confined to the question before the Commission, and the President may call a speaker to order if her/his remarks are not relevant to the subject under discussion.
3. The Commission may limit the time allowed to speakers and all representatives may speak on any question. Permission to speak on a motion to set such limits shall be accorded only to two representatives favoring and two opposing such limits, after which the motion shall be put to the vote immediately. When debate is limited and a speaker exceeds the allotted time, the President shall call her or him to order without delay.

In line with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN, in furtherance of its educational mission, and for the purpose of facilitating debate, if the President determines that the Commission in large part does not want to deviate from the limits to the speaker's time as it is then set, and that any additional motions will not be well received by the body, the President, in her/his discretion, and on the advice and consent of the Secretariat, may rule as dilatory any additional motions to change the limits of the speaker's time.

Rule 20 - Closing of list of speakers

Members may only be on the list of speakers once but may be added again after having spoken. During the course of a debate the President may announce the list of speakers and, with the consent of the Commission, declare the list closed. When there are no more speakers, the President shall declare the debate closed. Such closure shall have the same effect as closure by decision of the Commission.

The decision to announce the list of speakers is within the discretion of the President and should not be the subject of a motion by the Commission. A motion to close the speakers list is within the purview of the Commission and the President should not act on her/his own motion.

Rule 21 - Right of reply

If a remark impugns the integrity of a representative's State, the President may permit that representative to exercise her/his right of reply following the conclusion of the controversial speech, and shall determine an appropriate time limit for the reply. No ruling on this question shall be subject to appeal.

For purposes of this rule, a remark that —impugns the integrity of a representative's State is one directed at the governing authority of that State and/or one that puts into question that State's sovereignty or a portion thereof. All interventions in the exercise of the right of reply shall be addressed in writing to the Secretariat and shall not be raised as a point of order or motion. The reply shall be read to the Commission by the representative only upon approval of the Secretariat, and in no case after voting has concluded on all matters relating to the agenda topic, during the discussion of which, the right arose.

Rule 22 - Suspension of the meeting

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move the suspension of the meeting, specifying a time for reconvening. Such motions shall not be debated but shall be put to a vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass.

Rule 23 - Adjournment of the meeting

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move the adjournment of the meeting. Such motions shall not be debated but shall be put to the vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. After adjournment, the Commission shall reconvene at its next regularly scheduled meeting time.

As this motion, if successful, would end the meeting until the Commission's next regularly scheduled session the following year, and in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN and in furtherance of its educational mission, the President will not entertain such a motion until the end of the last meeting of the Commission.

Rule 24 - Adjournment of debate

A representative may at any time move the adjournment of debate on the topic under discussion. Permission to speak on the motion shall be accorded to two representatives favoring and two opposing adjournment, after which the motion shall be put to a vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. If a motion for adjournment passes, the topic is considered dismissed and no action will be taken on it.

Rule 25 - Closure of debate

A representative may at any time move the closure of debate on the item under discussion, whether or not any other representative has signified her/his wish to speak. Permission to speak on the motion shall be accorded only to two representatives opposing the closure, after which the motion shall be put to the vote immediately. Closure of debate shall require a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. If the Commission favors the closure of debate, the Commission shall immediately move to vote on all proposals introduced under that agenda item.

Rule 26 - Order of motions Subject to rule 23, the motions indicated below shall have precedence in the following order over all proposals or other motions before the meeting:

- a) To suspend the meeting;
- b) To adjourn the meeting;
- c) To adjourn the debate on the item under discussion;
- d) To close the debate on the item under discussion.

Rule 27 - Proposals and amendments

Proposals and substantive amendments shall normally be submitted in writing to the Secretariat, with the names of twenty percent of the members of the Commission who would like the Commission to consider the proposal or amendment. The Secretariat may, at its discretion, approve the proposal or amendment for circulation among the

delegations. As a general rule, no proposal shall be put to the vote at any meeting of the Commission unless copies of it have been circulated to all delegations. The President may, however, permit the discussion and consideration of amendments or of motions as to procedure, even though such amendments and motions have not been circulated. If the sponsors agree to the adoption of a proposed amendment, the proposal shall be modified accordingly and no vote shall be taken on the proposed amendment. A document modified in this manner shall be considered as the proposal pending before the Commission for all purposes, including subsequent amendments.

For purposes of this rule, all —proposals shall be in the form of working papers prior to their approval by the Secretariat. Working papers will not be copied, or in any other way distributed, to the Commission by the Secretariat. The distribution of such working papers is solely the responsibility of the sponsors of the working papers. Along these lines, and in furtherance of the philosophy and principles of the NMUN and for the purpose of advancing its educational mission, representatives should not directly refer to the substance of a working paper that has not yet been accepted as a draft resolution. After approval of a working paper, the proposal becomes a draft resolution and will be copied by the Secretariat for distribution to the Commission. These draft resolutions are the collective property of the Commission and, as such, the names of the original sponsors will be removed. The copying and distribution of amendments is at the discretion of the Secretariat, but the substance of all such amendments will be made available to all representatives in some form.

Rule 28 - Withdrawal of motions

A proposal or a motion may be withdrawn by its sponsor at any time before voting has commenced, provided that it has not been amended. A motion thus withdrawn may be reintroduced by any representative.

Rule 29 - Reconsideration of a topic

When a topic has been adjourned, it may not be reconsidered at the same session unless the Commission, by a two-thirds majority of those present and voting, so decides. Reconsideration can only be moved by a representative who voted on the prevailing side of the original motion to adjourn. Permission to speak on a motion to reconsider shall be accorded only to two speakers opposing the motion, after which it shall be put to the vote immediately.

For purposes of this rule, —those present and voting means those representatives, including observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion is voted upon by the body.

VI. VOTING

Rule 30 - Voting rights

Each member of the Commission shall have one vote.

This rule applies to substantive voting on amendments, draft resolutions, and portions of draft resolutions divided out by motion. As such, all references to —member(s) do not include observers, who are not permitted to cast votes on substantive matters.

Rule 31 - Request for a vote

A proposal or motion before the Commission for decision shall be voted upon if any member so requests. Where no member requests a vote, the Commission may adopt proposals or motions without a vote.

For purposes of this rule, —proposal means any draft resolution, an amendment thereto, or a portion of a draft resolution divided out by motion. Just prior to a vote on a particular proposal or motion, the President may ask if there are any objections to passing the proposal or motion by acclamation, or a member may move to accept the proposal or motion by acclamation. If there are no objections to the proposal or motion, then it is adopted without a vote.

Rule 32 - Majority required

1. Unless specified otherwise in these rules, decisions of the Assembly shall be made by a majority of the members present and voting.
2. For the purpose of tabulation, the phrase “members present and voting” means members casting an affirmative or negative vote. Members which abstain from voting are considered as not voting.

All members declaring their representative States as “present and voting” during the attendance roll call for the meeting during which the substantive voting occurs, must cast an affirmative or negative vote, and cannot abstain.

Rule 33 - Method of voting

1. The Commission shall normally vote by a show of placards, except that a representative may request a roll call, which shall be taken in the English alphabetical order of the names of the members, beginning with the member whose name is randomly selected by the President. The name of each present member shall be called in any roll call, and one of its representatives shall reply “yes,” “no,” “abstention,” or “pass.”

Only those members who designate themselves as —present‖ or —present and voting‖ during the attendance roll call, or in some other manner communicate their attendance to the President and/or Secretariat, are permitted to vote and, as such, no others will be called during a roll-call vote. Any representatives replying —pass,‖ must, on the second time through, respond with either —yes‖ or —no.‖ A —pass‖ cannot be followed by a second —pass‖ for the same proposal or amendment, nor can it be followed by an abstention on that same proposal or amendment.

2. When the Commission votes by mechanical means, a non-recorded vote shall replace a vote by show of placards and a recorded vote shall replace a roll-call vote. A representative may request a recorded vote. In the case of a recorded vote, the Commission shall dispense with the procedure of calling out the names of the members.
3. The vote of each member participating in a roll call or a recorded vote shall be inserted in the record.

Rule 34 - Explanations of vote

Representatives may make brief statements consisting solely of explanation of their votes after the voting has been completed. The representatives of a member sponsoring a proposal or motion shall not speak in explanation of vote thereon, except if it has been amended, and the member has voted against the proposal or motion.

All explanations of vote must be submitted to the President in writing before debate on the topic is closed, except where the representative is of a member sponsoring the proposal, as described in the second clause, in which case the explanation of vote must be submitted to the President in writing immediately after voting on the topic ends.

Rule 35 - Conduct during voting

After the President has announced the commencement of voting, no representatives shall interrupt the voting except on a point of order in connection with the actual process of voting.

Rule 36 - Division of proposals and amendments

Immediately before a proposal or amendment comes to a vote, a representative may move that parts of a proposal or of an amendment should be voted on separately. If there are calls for multiple divisions, those shall be voted upon in an order to be set by the President where the most radical division will be voted upon first. If objection is made to the motion for division, the request for division shall be voted upon, requiring the support of a majority of those present and voting to pass. Permission to speak on the motion for division shall be given only to two speakers in favor and two speakers against. If the motion for division is carried, those parts of the proposal or of the amendment which are involved shall then be put to a vote. If all operative parts of the proposal or of the amendment have been rejected, the proposal or the amendment shall be considered to have been rejected as a whole.

For purposes of this rule, —most radical division‖ means the division that will remove the greatest substance from the draft resolution, but not necessarily the one that will remove the most words or clauses. The determination of which division is —most radical‖ is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final.

Rule 37 - Amendments

An amendment is a proposal that does no more than add to, delete from, or revise part of another proposal.

An amendment can add, amend, or delete operative clauses, but cannot in any manner add, amend, delete, or otherwise affect perambulatory clauses.

Rule 38 - Order of voting on amendments

When an amendment is moved to a proposal, the amendment shall be voted on first. When two or more amendments are moved to a proposal, the amendment furthest removed in substance from the original proposal shall be voted on first and then the amendment next furthest removed there from, and so on until all the amendments have been put to the vote. Where, however, the adoption of one amendment necessarily implies the rejection of another amendment, the latter shall not be put to the vote. If one or more amendments are adopted, the amended proposal shall then be voted on.

For purposes of this rule, —furthest removed in substance means the amendment that will have the most significant impact on the draft resolution. The determination of which amendment is —furthest removed in substance is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final.

Rule 39 - Order of voting on proposals

If two or more proposals, other than amendments, relate to the same question, they shall, unless the Commission decides otherwise, be voted on in the order in which they were submitted.

Rule 40 - The President shall not vote

The President shall not vote but may designate another member of her/his delegation to vote in her/his place.

VII. CREDENTIALS

Rule 41 - Credentials

The credentials of representatives and the names of members of a delegation shall be submitted to the Secretary-General prior to the opening of a session.

Rule 42

The Commission shall be bound by the actions of the General Assembly in all credentials matters and shall take no action regarding the credentials of any member.

VII. PARTICIPATION OF NON-MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION

Rule 43 - Participation of non-Member States

1. The Commission shall invite any Member of the United Nations that is not a member of the Commission and any other State, to participate in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that State.
2. A committee or sessional body of the Commission shall invite any State that is not one of its own members to participate in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that State.
3. A State thus invited shall not have the right to vote, but may submit proposals which may be put to the vote on request of any member of the body concerned.

If the Commission considers that the presence of a Member invited according to this rule is no longer necessary, it may withdraw the invitation again. Delegates invited to the Commission according to this rule should also keep in mind their role and obligations in the committee that they were originally assigned to. For educational purposes of the NMUN Conference, the Secretariat may thus ask a delegate to return to his or her committee when his or her presence in the Commission is no longer required.

Rule 45 - Participation of national liberation movements

The Commission may invite any national liberation movement recognized by the General Assembly to participate, without the right to vote, in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that movement.

Rule 46 - Participation of and consultation with specialized agencies

In accordance with the agreements concluded between the United Nations and the specialized agencies, the specialized agencies shall be entitled: a) To be represented at meetings of the Commission and its subsidiary organs; b) To participate, without the right to vote, through their representatives, in deliberations with respect to items of concern to them and to submit proposals regarding such items, which may be put to the vote at the request of any member of the Commission or of the subsidiary organ concerned.

Rule 47 - Participation of non-governmental organization and intergovernmental organizations

Representatives of non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations accorded consultative observer status by the General Assembly and other non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations designated on an ad hoc or a continuing basis by the Commission on the recommendation of the Bureau, may participate, with the procedural right to vote, but not the substantive right to vote, in the deliberations of the Commission on questions within the scope of the activities of the organizations.

Ronny Heintze
Secretary-General

Amanda Williams
Senior Director-General

Holger Baer &
Brianna Johnston-Hanks
Directors-General

Brianna Noler &
Miriam Mueller
Chiefs of Staff

Deena M. Kuko
Assistant Secretary-General
For External Affairs

Sameer Kanal &
Thera Watson
Under-Secretaries-General
General Assembly

Kristina Mader &
Vera Todorova
Under-Secretaries-General
Economic and Social Council

Katharina Weinert &
Daniel Lemay
Under Secretaries-General
Specialized Agencies

Lucas Carreras &
Nick Warino
Under-Secretaries-General
Inter-Governmental
Organizations

Amanda D'Amico &
Alistair Goddard
Under-Secretaries-General
Peace and Security

Eddie Cheung &
Laura O'Connor
Under-Secretaries-General
Conference Services

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Michael J. Eaton

Executive Director

Prof. Shelton Williams

Dear Delegates,

We are pleased to welcome you to the 2011 National Model United Nations (NMUN). Staff for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific this year is: Directors Felipe Ante and Yvonne Jeffery, and Assistant Directors Rachel Schindelar and Frank-Alexander Raabe. Felipe is currently in his fourth year of a BA in International Relations with Political Science and History at the Universidad San Francisco de Quito, Ecuador. He is focusing on gaining a Masters in Conflict Resolution in order to work for specialized non-governmental organizations in that area. Yvonne is currently working on her Master's thesis as part of the MSc in International Public Policy at University College London. She is specializing in policies to alleviate gender inequality, and will be pursuing a Ph.D. in this area when she graduates. This is both Felipe and Yvonne's fourth NMUN overall, and their second conference on staff. Rachel was born and raised in Minnesota and is currently finishing an M.A. in Political Science, Economics and Sociology at the Ludwig-Maximilian University Munich. This spring Rachel will submit her thesis on Aid-Effectiveness and the Paris Declaration; in addition she plans to pursue a professional career in foreign aid and development. Frank-Alexander has just graduated from WHU School of Management in Germany and is currently working for the European Union's diplomatic mission in Malaysia. His aim is to complete a Masters in International Affairs, and forge a career in this area.

The topics under discussion for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific are:

- 1) Promoting gender equality as a means to combat HIV incidence in the Asia and Pacific region
- 2) Strengthening development policies for social inclusion
- 3) Achieving energy security through energy diversity

The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) is the largest United Nations body in service in the region, reflecting the fact that it encompasses sixty-two Member States with a combined population that accounts for sixty percent of the world's total. As such, ESCAP is particularly important in facilitating solutions on issues, which require regional cooperation, and this is an essential factor to keep in mind whilst you research your topics and write your position papers.

This background guide will serve as a brief introduction to the three topics listed. Accordingly, it is not meant to be used as an all inclusive analysis but as the groundwork for your own analysis and research. To conduct your research, please consult scholarly materials, including journals, international news, and the United Nations website, amongst others. You will need to familiarize yourself with the work and current operations of ESCAP.

Each delegation must submit a position paper. NMUN will accept position papers via e-mail March 15, 2011 Eastern Standard Time (GMT-5). Please refer to the message from your Directors-General for an explanation of the NMUN position paper requirements and restrictions.

Delegates' adherence to these guidelines is crucial. NMUN can be one of the most rewarding academic experiences of your college career. We hope that this year's conference will not only intrigue you to participate again, but also that you find it as beneficial as we have. If you have any questions regarding preparation, please feel free to contact any of the ESCAP substantive staff or the Under-Secretaries General for the Department of the Economic and Social Council, Vera Todorova and Kristina Mader.

Good luck in your preparation for the conference. We look forward to seeing you in April!

Sheraton Venue

Yvonne Jeffery, Director

Frank-Alexander Raabe, Assistant-Director

escap.sheraton@nmun.org

Marriott Venue

Felipe Ante, Director

Rachel Schindelar, Assistant-Director

escap.marriott@nmun.org

Message from the Directors-General Regarding Position Papers for the 2011 NMUN Conference

At the 2011 NMUN New York Conference, each delegation submits one position paper for each committee it is assigned to. Delegates should be aware that their role in each committee impacts the way a position paper should be written. While most delegates will serve as representatives of Member States, some may also serve as observers, NGOs or judicial experts. To understand these fine differences, please refer to the Delegate Preparation Guide.

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

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

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

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

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

1. **A file of the position paper** (.doc or .pdf) **for each assigned committee** should be sent to the committee email address listed in the Background Guide. These e-mail addresses will be active after November 15, 2010. Delegates should carbon copy (cc:) themselves as confirmation of receipt.
2. Each delegation should also send **one set of all position papers** to the e-mail designated for their venue: positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org or positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org. This set will serve as a back-up copy in case individual committee directors cannot open attachments. These copies will also be made available in Home Government during the week of the NMUN Conference.

Each of the above listed tasks needs to be completed no later than **March 15, 2010 (GMT-5) for delegations attending the NMUN conference at either the Sheraton or the Marriott venue.**

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

A matrix of received papers will be posted online for delegations to check prior to the Conference. If you need to make other arrangements for submission, please contact Holger Baer, Director-General, Sheraton venue, or Brianna Johnston-Hanks, Director-General, Marriott venue at dirgen@nmun.org. There is an option for delegations to submit physical copies via regular mail if needed.

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

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

Each delegation can submit a copy of their position paper to the permanent mission of the country being represented, along with an explanation of the Conference. Those delegations representing NGOs do not have to send their position paper to their NGO headquarters, although it is encouraged. This will assist them in preparation for the mission briefing in New York.

Finally, please consider that over 2,000 papers will be handled and read by the Secretariat for the Conference. Your patience and cooperation in strictly adhering to the above guidelines will make this process more efficient and is greatly appreciated. Should you have any questions please feel free to contact the Conference staff, though as we do not operate out of a central office or location your consideration for time zone differences is appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Sheraton Venue
Holger Baer
Director-General
holger@nmun.org

Marriott Venue
Brianna Johnston-Hanks
Director-General
briannaj@nmun.org

Sample Position Paper

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

Delegation from
Canada

Represented by
(Name of College)

Position Paper for General Assembly Plenary

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

I. Breaking the link between Diamonds and Armed Conflict

Canada endorses the Kimberly Process in promoting accountability, transparency, and effective governmental regulation of trade in rough diamonds. We believe the Kimberly Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is an essential international regulatory mechanism and encourage all Member States to contribute to market accountability by seeking membership, participation, and compliance with its mandate. Canada urges Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2007 Kimberley Process Communiqué to strengthen government oversight of rough diamond trading and manufacturing by developing domestic legal frameworks similar to the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative. We call upon participating States to act in accordance with the KPCS's comprehensive and credible systems of peer review to monitor the continued implementation of the Kimberley Process and ensure full transparency and self-examination of domestic diamond industries. We draw attention to our domestic programs for diamond regulation including Implementing the Export and Import of Rough Diamonds Act and urge Member States to consider these programs in developing the type of domestic regulatory frameworks called for in A/RES/55/56. Canada recognizes the crucial role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the review of rough diamond control measures developed through the Kimberly Process and encourages States to include NGOs, such as Global Witness and Partnership Africa Canada, in the review processes called for in A/RES/58/290. We urge Member States to act in accordance with A/RES/60/182 to optimize the beneficial development impact of artisanal and alluvial diamond miners by establishing a coordinating mechanism for financial and technical assistance through the Working Group of the Kimberly Process of Artisanal Alluvial Producers. Canada calls upon States and NGOs to provide basic educational material regarding diamond valuation and market prices for artisanal diggers, as recommended by the Diamond Development Initiative. Canada will continue to adhere to the 2007 Brussels Declaration on Internal Controls of Participants and is dedicated to ensuring accountability, transparency, and effective regulation of the rough diamond trade through the utilization of voluntary peer review systems and the promotion of increased measures of internal control within all diamond producing States.

II. The Promotion of Alternative Sources of Energy

Canada is dedicated to integrating alternative energy sources into climate change frameworks by diversifying the energy market while improving competitiveness in a sustainable economy, as exemplified through our Turning Corners Report and Project Green climate strategies. We view the international commitment to the promotion of alternative sources of energy called for in the Kyoto Protocol and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Control (UNFCCC) as a catalyst to sustainable development and emission reduction. Canada fulfills its obligations to Article 4 of the UNFCCC by continuing to provide development assistance through the Climate Change Development Fund and calls upon Member States to commit substantial financial and technical investment toward the transfer of sustainable energy technologies and clean energy mechanisms to developing States. We emphasize the need for Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2005 Beijing International Renewable Energy Conference to strengthen domestic policy frameworks to promote clean energy technologies. Canada views

dissemination of technology information called for in the 2007 Group of Eight Growth and Responsibility in the World Economy Declaration as a vital step in energy diversification from conventional energy generation. We call upon Member States to integrate clean electricity from renewable sources into their domestic energy sector by employing investment campaigns similar to our \$1.48 billion initiative ecoENERGY for Renewable Power. Canada encourages States to develop domestic policies of energy efficiency, utilizing regulatory and financing frameworks to accelerate the deployment of clean low-emitting technologies. We call upon Member States to provide knowledge-based advisory services for expanding access to energy in order to fulfill their commitments to Goal 1 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Canada urges States to address the concerns of the 2007 Human Development Report by promoting tax incentives, similar to the Capital Cost Allowances and Canadian Renewable and Conservation Expenses, to encourage private sector development of energy conservation and renewable energy projects. As a member of the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership, Canada is committed to accelerating the development of renewable energy projects, information sharing mechanisms, and energy efficient systems through the voluntary carbon offset system. We are dedicated to leading international efforts toward the development and sharing of best practices on clean energy technologies and highlight our release of the Renewable Energy Technologies Screen software for public and private stakeholders developing projects in energy efficiency, cogeneration, and renewable energy. Canada believes the integration of clean energy into State specific strategies called for in A/62/419/Add.9 will strengthen energy diversification, promote the use of cogeneration, and achieve a synergy between promoting alternative energy while allowing for competitiveness in a sustainable economy.

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

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

History of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

Introduction

To promote development and advance reconstruction in the aftermath of World War II (WWII), the United Nations (UN) established two working groups, one for Europe and one for Asia and the Far East. Their work laid the path for the establishment of the UN permanent regional development organs.¹ The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) is the regional body created in this process responsible for the Asian and Pacific region in the UN system. ESCAP was originally founded in Shanghai in 1947 under the name Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE).² The original membership—The Republic of China, the Philippines, Thailand, India, The French Republic, The Netherlands, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States of America—clearly reflected the political power structure of the region at that time, due to the fact that much of the region was still under colonial rule, occupied as a result of WWII or dependent on Western foreign aid for reconstruction.³ Since then, the Asian and Pacific region, as well as ECAFE, have undergone major transitions. In the next two decades the decolonization process saw the birth of multiple new countries in the region such as Indonesia and Cambodia, which would eventually come to join ECAFE.⁴ In 1974 ECAFE became ESCAP to appropriately reflect this transformation.⁵ Currently located in Bangkok, Thailand ESCAP now has 53 Member States and 9 Associate Members.⁶ Of these members 58 are located in the region spanning from New Zealand in the south over Russia in the north to Turkey in the west.⁷ Associate Member status is granted to those territories in the region that do not possess full sovereignty or those not currently members of the United Nations (UN).⁸

Goals and Principles

The original Terms of Reference assigned to ECAFE by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) encompassed facilitating reconstruction, conducting studies concerning economic development and compiling statistics for the Asian and Pacific region.⁹ After deciding to indefinitely renew ECAFE's mandate in 1952, ECOSOC also requested that this organ provide "advisory services" to its Member States regarding inter alia economic development.¹⁰ With the adoption of the General Assembly (GA) resolution 32/197 (1977) on "Restructuring the Economic and Social Structures of the United Nations System" the mandate of ESCAP, along with the four other regional commissions, was further expanded.¹¹ This resolution led to the additional institutionalization of the regional commissions, officially installing them as the "main economic and development centers in the United Nations system for their respective regions"¹² and solidifying their participation in the decision-making and implementation process of ECOSOC and the UN General Assembly (GA). Inside this official framework ESCAP has committed itself to achieving the following goals in its region: reduce poverty, address the consequences of globalization, advance environmental sustainability and tackle emerging social issues through regional cooperation.¹³ To achieve these goals ESCAP promotes projects regarding macroeconomic policy and development, environment, transportation, trade and investment, information and communication, social

¹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.18

² Schaaf, 1953, *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East* p.464

³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.19

⁴ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *ESCAP Members and Associate Members*.

⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.19

⁶ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *ESCAP Members and Associate Members*.

⁷ For a full list of ESCAP Member States, see unescap.org/about/member.asp

⁸ Schaaf, 1953, *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East* p.464

⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*.

¹⁰ Schaaf, 1953, *The United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and the Far*, p.463

¹¹ United Nations General Assembly, 1977, *GA/RES/32/197: Restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system*, Annex paragraphs 19-27

¹² United Nations General Assembly, 1977, *GA/RES/32/197: Restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system*, Annex paragraphs 19-27

¹³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Because People Matter*

development, statistics and the implementation of the millennium development goals.¹⁴ ESCAP's focus is thus on addressing issues that affect all or a group of countries in the region, which are best addressed by a multilateral approach, that previously lacked the necessary regional attention and that are "transboundary by nature".¹⁵ To realize the above-mentioned mandate and goals ESCAP can use its resolutions to make recommendations directly to the governments of its Member States or to ECOSOC.¹⁶ However, these recommendations are limited to the areas of economic and social development highlighted above and any decisions "that would have important effects on the economy of the world as a whole" must be approved by ECOSOC prior to implementation. Furthermore, upon concluding its annual meeting, ESCAP is required to submit a report to ECOSOC and may be subject to review by the Council at any point in time.¹⁷ Finally, as a sub-organ of ECOSOC, ESCAP is required to assist the Council in "its functions within the region."¹⁸

Organizational Framework

Clearly, in its evolution ESCAP has gone far beyond a simple commission to become a rather complex organization. The highest authority in ESCAP is the ESCAP Commission (the Commission).¹⁹ Consisting of representatives from all Member States at ministerial level, the Commission convenes annually to review the work of the organization and make necessary final decisions.²⁰ In this sense, the Commission is the main legislative organ, approving the work of its sub-organs or assigning these bodies future mandates.²¹ To improve the effectiveness of its work the Commission established the eight following committees in 2008: the Committee on Macroeconomic Policy, Poverty Reduction and Inclusive Development; the Committee on Trade and Investment; the Committee on Transport; the Committee on Environment and Development; the Committee on Information and Communications Technology; the Committee on Disaster Risk Reduction; the Committee on Social Development; the Committee on Statistics.²² The work of these committees focuses on promoting regional cooperation and dialogue to produce common positions as well as identify common regional trends and priorities. Additionally, the committees produce suggestions for future resolutions of the Commission and monitor the implementation of previous resolutions.²³

The executive and administrative branch of ESCAP is the ESCAP Secretariat. This organ consists of the Office of the Executive Secretary, seven substantive divisions, the Administrative Services Division (ASD), and the Program Management Division (PMD).²⁴ As ESCAP's highest administrative officer the Executive Secretary acts on behalf of the UN Secretary-General and manages the entire staff necessary for ESCAP's work, makes arrangements for the meetings of the Commission and proposes the annual budget.²⁵ The substantive divisions, one for each of the committees of the Commission, are responsible for providing these with substantive and administrative assistance. The ASD in turn, provides the substantive divisions with administrative assistance and the PMD focuses mainly on budgeting, planning, and facilitating cooperation among the bodies of the secretariat and ESCAP.²⁶

¹⁴ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Because People Matter*

¹⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *About Us – General Description*.

¹⁶ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, paragraph 8

¹⁷ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Paragraphs 1 and 8; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure for the Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific*. Chapter XIV, rule 60

¹⁸ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, paragraph 1e

¹⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure for the Economic and Social Commission of Asia and the Pacific*.

²⁰ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – Commission*

²¹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, paragraph 1

²² United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Resolution 64/1: Restructuring the conference structure of the Commission*, Annex I, Section II paragraphs 6 -11

²³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *About Us – Commission*

²⁴ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *About Us – General Description*

²⁵ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Chapter V; rule 18-21

²⁶ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *General Description –Administrative Services; About the Programme and Management Division*.

The Advisory Committee of Permanent Representatives and Other Representatives Designated by Members of the Commission (ACPR) helps facilitate communication and coordination between the Executive Secretariat and the Commission.²⁷ Constituting representatives from all Member States and Associate Members the ACPR meets on a regular basis to review and discuss the work of the Commission with the Secretariat.²⁸ Additionally, ESCAP has five sub-regional offices and operates five regional institutions: the Asian and Pacific Training Centre for Information and Communication Technology for Development (APCICT), the Centre for Alleviation of Poverty through Secondary Crops' Development in Asia and the Pacific (CAPSA), the Asian and Pacific Centre for Agricultural Engineering and Machinery (APCAEM), the Asian and Pacific Centre for Transfer of Technology (APCTT), and the Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific (SIAP).²⁹

Achievements

ESCAP's greatest achievements stem from its work in the areas of regional statistics, conference administration and policy assistance. Originally created to conduct statistical analysis of the region, ESCAP has excelled at this work.³⁰ Especially revolutionary has been its work on poverty and population analysis.³¹ Furthermore, ESCAP's organization and execution of conferences has led to great achievements such as the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.³² Finally, ESCAP has been very successful in advising its members on policy formulation, resulting for example in the effective promotion of population control in the 1970s.³³ In over 60 years of existence ESCAP has become an irreplaceable body for both effective action and assistance concerning economic and social development in the region.

I. Promoting gender equality as a means to combat HIV incidence in the Asia and Pacific region

“Let us resolve to empower women and girls by our commitment to gender equality. And let us remember that every society that wishes to overcome poverty, hunger, armed conflict and disease must draw fully on the talents and contribution of all of its members.”³⁴

Introduction

In 2002, the then Secretary-General of the United Nations (UN) Kofi Annan declared that “AIDS has a woman's face.”³⁵ The link between gender and a higher incidence of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) infection has become a significant factor in the pandemic, and consequently a deep concern in the search for a global solution.³⁶ Concern has not yet been adequately translated into effective action, however. Gender inequality inhibits not only the efforts to reduce the incidence of HIV/AIDS, but the progress of development on the whole; the 1985 Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategy stated bluntly that “without the advancement of women, development itself will be difficult to achieve.”³⁷ Attaining gender equality is therefore an imperative for the international community in its quest to achieve the sixth Millennium Development Goal (MDG):

²⁷ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – Advisory Body (ACPR)*.

²⁸ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – General Description*.

²⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *About Us – Subregional Activities for Development*

³⁰ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*, p.75

³¹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*, p.93

³² United Nations. Commission on the Status of Women, 1995, *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women: Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*;

³³ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007, *The First Parliament of Asia (1947-2007)*. p.75

³⁴ Annan, *World Population Day Message*, 2005.

³⁵ Annan, *In Africa, AIDS has a woman's face*, 2002.

³⁶ UNAIDS, *Fast facts about HIV*, 2008, p. 1.

³⁷ Weiss, *What's Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 98.

combating HIV/AIDS.³⁸ Of the global population infected with HIV/AIDS, around half are female, and one in every five new incidences of HIV globally occurs in the Asia and Pacific region.³⁹ The term ‘gender’ is rather nebulous, and in accordance with the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) definition, it is understood here as referring to the “widely held beliefs, expectations, customs and practices within a society that define ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ attributes, behaviours and roles and responsibilities.”⁴⁰ The gender inequalities which arise from these societal factors are often deeply-rooted and therefore resistant to change. They manifest themselves in a number of forms: illiteracy and poverty, sexual violence (such as rape by intimate partners or strangers, mob rape or terrorism and counter-terrorism; in the transnational arena as refugees, labour migrant or trafficked prostitutes; in times of peace or armed conflict), lack of sexual autonomy, multiple sexual partners, genital mutilation and other harmful practices, prostitution and child marriage.⁴¹ The following sections will examine the history of the promotion of gender equality and its use in combating HIV/AIDS, particularly within the context of two case studies: Thailand and Fiji.

The United Nations and the Promotion of Gender Equality

In 1946, the newly created UN established the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) and the Branch for the Advancement of Women, whose purpose was to monitor the position of women and to promote women’s rights.⁴² In subsequent years, a host of declarations and conventions were created and adopted to supplement these primary foundations and support the quest for gender equality, most significantly the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948, the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1953) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979 (an Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women was adopted in 1999). Until very recently, ever since the incipient stages of the quest for gender equality by the UN, responsibility for gender issues has been dispersed amongst a number of bodies in addition to the CSW: the UN Population Fund (UNFPA), the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), the Office of the Special Advisor to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women (OSAGI), the UN Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), and the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).⁴³ A particular, and substantial, obstacle in efforts to secure effective action has been this very multiplicity of organizations and conventions, and the resulting “lack of coordination and overlapping jurisdiction.”⁴⁴ Weiss comments especially that “multiple UN agencies (in this area) have also hindered the UN’s effectiveness at promoting women’s empowerment, which has considerable ramifications for women.”⁴⁵ However, on the 2 July 2010, the UN General Assembly voted unanimously to create the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, or UN Women, in an attempt to rectify and strengthen their stance, policies and action in this area.⁴⁶ Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon enthused of the new body that “UN Women will significantly boost UN efforts to promote gender equality, expand opportunity, and tackle discrimination around the globe.”⁴⁷

In global terms, specific initiatives commenced in 1975 with the first of the World Conferences on Women in Mexico City (the World Conference of the International Women’s Year), which recommended the UN Decade for Women 1976-1985.⁴⁸ The second took place in 1980, with the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women in Copenhagen, and the third transpired at the culmination of the Decade for Women in Nairobi in 1985, entitled the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women.⁴⁹ In 1995, Beijing hosted the Fourth World Conference on Women which revolved primarily around the issue of the feminization of poverty, and resulted in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.⁵⁰ Three five-year reviews

³⁸ United Nations, *Goal 6: combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases*, 2010.

³⁹ UNESCAP, *Women and HIV/AIDS*, 2004, p. 1.

⁴⁰ UNAIDS, *Gender*, 2010.

⁴¹ ECOSOC, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women*, 2003, p. 15-16.

⁴² OHCHR, *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, 1979.

⁴³ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 98.

⁴⁴ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 97.

⁴⁵ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 97.

⁴⁶ UN Women, *UN Creates New Structure for Empowerment of Women*, 2010.

⁴⁷ UN Women, *UN Creates New Structure for Empowerment of Women*, 2010.

⁴⁸ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 99.

⁴⁹ DAW, *Beijing and its Follow-up*, 2010.

⁵⁰ Weiss, *What’s Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*, 2010, p. 99;

of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action have taken place in New York, the Beijing + 5 in 2000, Beijing + 10 in 2005, and most recently the Beijing + 15 in 2010.⁵¹

ESCAP has played an active role in these proceedings, but there are a number of issues which need to be examined in regional terms in order to truly evaluate past efforts and to gauge the current situation in terms of the promotion of gender equality, and thus how it can be utilised to combat HIV/AIDS incidence in the area. For, as ESCAP recognised at the High-Level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and its Regional and Global outcomes:

“There has been an alarming rise in new HIV infection among women... (and) discriminatory practices, violations of women’s and girl’s rights and impunity – especially with regard to violence – persist... (We commit) to undertake full and effective action for the implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration, recognizing that gender equality is a goal in its own right and central to all other goals... (and) to review and as appropriate, revise national health policies, programmes and legislation to ensure high-quality, affordable and accessible health care and services for all women... to reduce the risk of HIV/AIDS.”⁵²

ESCAP approaches the issue of gender inequality from a holistic point of view, linking the MDGs with human rights, CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action.⁵³ However, there are a number of prominent obstacles currently hampering this strategy. As recently as 2008, Asia was the only continent not to have its own regional human rights mechanism.⁵⁴ On October 23, 2009, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights (AICHR) was launched in the Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration at the 15th ASEAN Summit in Thailand.⁵⁵ However, the Commission is still in its infancy, making the enforcement of documents which enshrine the principle of non-discrimination, such as the UDHR, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and thus the promotion of gender equality, problematic.⁵⁶ In terms of the CEDAW, there are still a number of Member States which are not yet a party to the Convention.⁵⁷ This remains a particular problem, and ESCAP has noted that as a matter of priority, Members should consider acceding to the Convention and its Optional Protocol, in addition to limiting the extent of any reservations and withdrawing any doubts that are contrary to or incompatible with the purpose of the Convention.⁵⁸ Until these issues are addressed, the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and strategies for the MDGs and the promotion of gender equality overall as well as to specifically target HIV/AIDS incidence will be difficult to achieve.

Gender Equality as a Means to Combat HIV/AIDS

In 2009, ESCAP stated that the feminization of HIV/AIDS is “a disturbing trend.”⁵⁹ A particular causal factor is the high level to which women are economically dependent.⁶⁰ Coupled with the low social status that many women experience both as a cause and consequence of the economic poverty in which they are entrapped or from engrained cultural practice, economic poverty is a cycle without means of escape, and results in a higher vulnerability to infection.⁶¹ The DAW has found that the feminization of poverty worldwide translates into women earning only

DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

⁵¹ DAW, *Beijing and its Follow-up*, 2010.

⁵² ECOSOC, *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years*, 2009, p. 3-4.

⁵³ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 6.

⁵⁴ OHCHR, *South East Asia Regional Office (2008-2009) Human rights context*, 2008.

⁵⁵ ASEAN, *Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration on the Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights*, 2009, p. 1.

⁵⁶ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 6.

⁵⁷ ECOSOC, *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years*, 2009, p. 3.

⁵⁸ ECOSOC, *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years*, 2009, p. 5.

⁵⁹ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 4.

⁶⁰ DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

⁶¹ DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

marginally more than 50% of what men earn.⁶² Although Asia-Pacific has evolved into an “economic powerhouse”, it is not immune to the phenomenon of the feminization of poverty, and ESCAP recognizes that women are overrepresented in the region’s poor.⁶³ The ramifications of this trend are startling due to their self-perpetuating nature, causing ESCAP to acknowledge that the outlook for women and girls is “rather bleak.”⁶⁴ The physical reality of the feminization of poverty for daughters is that cultural preferences in favour of sons means reduced access to education and food, fewer income generation opportunities and greater risks of suffering from malnutrition as females are expected to eat “last and least”.⁶⁵ As they grow older, girls within Asia-Pacific are also highly likely to be married at an early age.⁶⁶ This practice in itself increases the risk of HIV infection, and once infected, the social stigmas associated with being HIV/AIDS-positive means that opportunities for education and economic independence for women diminish even further.⁶⁷

In response to these various forms of gender discrimination, ESCAP has been implementing the Beijing Platform for Action, agitating governments to undertake a stronger political will and sense of urgency on these issues. Four key objectives based upon rights and gender equality issues were outlined in the regional preparation for the Beijing + 15 conference: “(a) providing access to knowledge on HIV and AIDS, (b) improving knowledge of women’s reproduction and sexuality among both women and men, (c) supporting primary caregivers for people with AIDS and children orphaned by AIDS, and (d) eliminating discrimination and stigma against women living with HIV.”⁶⁸ ESCAP follows the line that a purely biomedical approach to combating HIV is insufficient, and that “there is a strong need to focus on the social determinants of disease and health.”⁶⁹ It is clear from the statistics on the feminization of HIV/AIDS that in addition to the medical approach to combat HIV/AIDS, a social approach is equally important in terms of achieving gender equality and preventing the spread of the disease. A reconciliation of both approaches is often held to be the most successful method in tackling HIV/AIDS incidence, and an initiative widely deemed to have made a successful connection between the medical and social strategy divide is the STD/HIV Intervention Project or SHIP initiative instigated in Sonagachi, a red light area in Kolkata, India.⁷⁰

SHIP succeeded in ensuring that HIV/AIDS prevalence levels plateaued at 5 percent within the district of Sonagachi, whereas other red light districts across India were recording prevalence levels of 55 percent.⁷¹ Initially an experiment in public health intervention which included setting up an STD clinic for sex workers in Sonagachi to promote disease control and condom distribution (in accordance with the favoured medical approach at the time, targeting specific groups who stood a high risk of contracting HIV), the focus of the project evolved beyond the constraints of a purely medical approach to address the social structures of gender, class and sexuality.⁷² The result of the sex workers’ flourishing knowledge was that they were able to build their own capacity to “question the cultural stereotypes of their society, and build awareness of power and who possesses it.”⁷³ This twin achievement, of decreasing gender inequality and combating the rate of HIV/AIDS incidence was attained through means that were “democratic and challenging (to the culturally engrained discriminatory practices), yet non-confrontational.”⁷⁴

The SHIP initiative challenged a fundamental dynamic in the relationships between sex worker and client. A deeply-rooted social convention in this region is that of *pati parmeswar*, where “the husband is God” and women are

⁶² DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

⁶³ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 3.

⁶⁴ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

⁶⁵ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

⁶⁶ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

⁶⁷ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15; ECOSOC, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women*, 2003, p. 16.

⁶⁸ ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 4.

⁶⁹ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 18.

⁷⁰ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 100-108.

⁷¹ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 107.

⁷² Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷³ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷⁴ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

submissive not assertive in sexual relationships with men.⁷⁵ Nath explains that Sonagachi is “a community where constant negotiations are going on, and it was perhaps this aspect of life that inspired work to control HIV through addressing sexuality and gender power relations.”⁷⁶ Through training as peer educators, clinic assistants and clinic attendants in the project’s STD clinics, and in managerial positions for the project, sex workers were empowered and were able to conduct relationships on a much more equal basis and on the operating principles of the SHIP project: “respect, recognition and reliance.”⁷⁷ The equalized balance of power in relationships made exploitation much harder, reduced police brutality against sex workers and prevented the incidence of HIV/AIDS from rising above 5 percent – an excellent example of how gender equality is a fundamental platform from which to combat HIV/AIDS.⁷⁸

Case Studies: Papua New Guinea and Thailand

Papua New Guinea and Thailand are the worst affected countries in the Asia-Pacific region, with the highest rates of HIV infection, at 1.5% and 1.4% respectively.⁷⁹ These figures refer to the estimated adult HIV prevalence in 2007, where adult is classed as people between the ages 15-49, and which is calculated by dividing the estimated number of infected people by the total population.⁸⁰ Both of these case studies demonstrate particular problems in the promotion of gender equality as a means to combat HIV/AIDS incidence: Papua New Guinea as it has extremely high rates of violence against women, sexually-transmitted infections (STIs) and rape, and is simultaneously the hardest-hit by the HIV epidemic amongst the Pacific Island nations; Thailand because it once appeared to be keeping pace with the epidemic and succeeding at containing it, which seems now not to be the case.⁸¹

Papua New Guinea

In Oceania overall, HIV/AIDS is affecting women in a strongly disproportionate manner, with 1.2% of women and 0.4% of men living with the disease.⁸² A joint survey by UNAIDS and the World Health Organization (WHO) has found that Papua New Guinea is the most severely affected by the HIV epidemic in the Pacific, with the rate of new infections growing at a rate of 33% per year (UNAIDS/WHO).⁸³ Two issues form a particular barrier to firstly stemming the rate of HIV incidence, and secondly to assisting those affected by HIV/AIDS.⁸⁴ These are the high level of gender discrimination, and an acute lack of medical support, which demonstrates that both a social and medical approach combined is required to combat the incidence of HIV/AIDS.⁸⁵ The WHO has confirmed that violence against women is linked to higher incidences of HIV and is a significant factor in fuelling the epidemic in this State: rape and sexual assault, coupled with high rates of STIs have aggravated the number of incidences.⁸⁶ To compound this, a social stigma has developed around people seeking medical help to get tested for HIV/AIDS.⁸⁷

Additionally, the lack of funding for general public health, let alone measures to prevent or care for those affected by HIV, is a major concern.⁸⁸ Whilst it is clear that attaining gender equity is crucial for progress in preventing further incidences of HIV/AIDS, medical information and care is equally important in assisting not only those infected but those at risk of infection.⁸⁹ A major scaling-up of treatment and resources is required, but the lack of financial and human resources hampers this.⁹⁰ Staunching the rise of HIV incidences in Papua New Guinea will

⁷⁵ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 101.

⁷⁶ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷⁷ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 102.

⁷⁸ Nath, *Women’s health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers’ project in Calcutta*, 2000, p. 107.

⁷⁹ UNAIDS, *A global view of HIV infection*, 2007.

⁸⁰ UNAIDS, *A global view of HIV infection*, 2007.

⁸¹ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8.; WHO, *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*, 1999.

⁸² UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸³ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8.

⁸⁴ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005.

⁸⁵ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸⁶ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005, p. 2; UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8-9.

⁸⁷ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸⁸ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 7.

⁸⁹ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005, p. 2; UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 8-9.

⁹⁰ WHO, *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*, 2005.

require a vast amount of work, which the Association for Women's Rights in Development put succinctly in their analysis of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action over the past fifteen years: economic, political, sexual and reproductive autonomy along with freedom from all forms of violence in the public and private spheres.⁹¹ The issues present in this State reflect the basic barriers preventing the holistic view (linking the MDGs with human rights, CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action) with which ESCAP tries to resolve gender inequality and to combat HIV/AIDS from succeeding.⁹²

Thailand

Thailand once appeared to be succeeding at keeping pace with the evolution of the HIV/AIDS epidemic.⁹³ Between the years of 1991 and 2004 the Thai Government managed to reduce the number of HIV infections by an estimated 88%, appearing to forestall an imminent crisis.⁹⁴ UNAIDS attributed this to a number of social initiatives such as educational campaigns coupled with practical measures, originating from public, private and civil society agents which were well-funded, well-resourced and had a high degree of political support.⁹⁵ During the ascent of Thailand's apparent success in 1999, the WHO documented and praised the success of the campaigns.⁹⁶ Education appears to have been the keystone of this success, and Thailand also achieved ESCAP's gender parity target for tertiary education in 2005.⁹⁷ These operations have ebbed in recent years, however, and UNAIDS has found that the rate of HIV infection is growing at a faster rate amongst women than men in the Greater Mekong sub-region.⁹⁸ It is a particular problem amongst young adults/teenagers and there are now more female than male teens with HIV.⁹⁹

The effect of the educational campaigns in empowering people through knowledge appears to have died down, and research by the Thai Association for the Promotion of the Status of Women claims that 66% of female teens living in Bangkok have now reported that they do not use condoms or negotiate for safe sex.¹⁰⁰ Clearly, the successes that Thailand achieved will be lost unless past efforts are rekindled and consolidated into effective action.¹⁰¹ The new sources of infection, especially in view of the "risky" sexual behaviour amongst the younger generations in parallel with a rise in STIs, must be addressed if a resurgence in the epidemic is to be avoided.¹⁰² In June 2006, the UNAIDS country coordinator for Thailand at the time Patrick Brenny stated that: "public information, which was once ubiquitous, has dropped off the radar screen... Thailand must revive its flagging HIV/AIDS awareness programmes to reach out to a new generation of young people, who currently see the virus as a problem largely affecting their elders. They are clearly vulnerable to infection with HIV."¹⁰³

Conclusion

In order to truly initiate widespread change in attitudes to gender equality across nations and the Asia-Pacific region as whole, rather than just isolated areas like Sonagachi, the macro issues must be addressed: the economic dependence of women, the feminization of poverty, violence against women and the implementation of women's rights.¹⁰⁴ Without the resolution of these problems, ESCAP recognises that women living under such circumstances are often denied access to health care, education, credit, land and inheritance, with their labour unrewarded and unrecognized in public and in the privacy of their homes; their voices undermined by social constraints and the cycle of poverty.¹⁰⁵ Accumulatively, the gender role women have to play in these circumstances leaves them vulnerable

⁹¹ Durán, *The implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 2010.

⁹² ECOSOC, *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4)*, 2009, p. 6.

⁹³ WHO, *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*, 1999.

⁹⁴ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

⁹⁵ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

⁹⁶ WHO, *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*, 1999.

⁹⁷ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 4.

⁹⁸ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 5.

⁹⁹ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

¹⁰⁰ UNESCAP, *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*, 2005, p. 6.

¹⁰¹ Avert, *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*, 2010.

¹⁰² Avert, *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*, 2010.

¹⁰³ Avert, *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*, 2010.

¹⁰⁴ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009.

¹⁰⁵ DAW, *The Feminization of Poverty*, 2000.

to HIV infection as they are unable to protect themselves.¹⁰⁶ The Beijing Platform for Action was designed to counteract this, but efforts have been piecemeal in some areas and the fact that the Asia-Pacific houses three-quarters of the world's stunted, underweight children with a disproportionate number of them female attests to this.¹⁰⁷ This is not simply a battle against disease, but a fight for fundamental social change, reaching into almost every corner of day-to-day existence, for it is "a change in the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society and in the family (that) is needed to achieve full equality between men and women" and thus help combat the incidence of HIV/AIDS.¹⁰⁸

Questions for Consideration

According to the WHO, the AIDS virus is now the leading cause of death and disease among women between the ages of 15 and 44.¹⁰⁹ The Economic and Social Council declared in 2004 that:

"Women and girls are particularly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS owing not only to their biological conditions, but also to economic and social inequalities and culturally accepted gender roles which place them in a subordinate position vis-à-vis men regarding decisions related to sexual relations. Relations of dominations are multiple and they intersect, creating for women layers of inequalities and subjection to different forms of violence"¹¹⁰

Hence, factors to consider whilst conducting your research and untangling these layers of issues include poverty, social change and disease-prevention strategies, especially within the context of gender inequality. Strategies to break the cycle of the feminization of poverty and the economic dependence of women must also include a workable and efficient method of implementation. In addition to ESCAP and other UN bodies, there is a multiplicity of national bodies dedicated to combating the spread of HIV/AIDS as well as a host of non-governmental organizations working towards the same goals. Are these bodies being used to their full potential? Will the formation of UN Women be a catalyst for change across the board? Could ESCAP facilitate a strategy through which information and practices could be shared between these organizations to improve the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW and the MDGs? What is failing the implementation of women's rights in Papua New Guinea? What are the root causes of the social stigmas, and what could be done to alleviate them? Given the gender discrimination engrained in Papua New Guinea and so many other societies, solutions to bring about social change and eliminate gender inequality that are challenging yet non-confrontational, such as in the SHIP initiative, should be examined.¹¹¹ Prevention is always seen as better than cure, but how can the previous success of Thailand's educational campaigns be rekindled? In what ways can the message be updated to reach a younger generation? Would it be possible to translate this method of prevention for use in Papua New Guinea and the Asia-Pacific? Ultimately, one of the most significant factors in achieving all of these goals will be the realization of gender equality, as former Secretary-General Kofi Annan stated: "When it comes to fighting AIDS, as with so much else, I believe in girl power."¹¹²

¹⁰⁶ UNIFEM, *Turning the Tide: CEDAW and the Gender Dimensions of the HIV/AIDS Pandemic*, 2001, [p. 4](#).

¹⁰⁷ UNESCAP, *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*, 2009, p. 15.

¹⁰⁸ OHCHR, *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, 1979.

¹⁰⁹ Durán, *The implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 2010.

¹¹⁰ ECOSOC, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women (E/CN.4/2004/66)*, 2003, p. 16.

¹¹¹ Nath, *Women's health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers' project in Calcutta*, 2000, p.102.

¹¹² UNESCAP, *Women and HIV/AIDS*, 2004, p.1.

II. Strengthening Development Policies for Social Inclusion

“Social integration is ... a prerequisite for fostering stable, safe, harmonious, peaceful and just societies to create an optimal basis for dynamic development and progress. Integration policies promote and protect human rights and fundamental freedoms. Social integration and the cohesion of societies can only be achieved if development is just and sustainable economically, socially and environmentally.”¹¹³

Social Exclusion in Asia and the Pacific - a Challenge for Development

During the last twenty years, exceptionally rapid economic growth in the Asia-Pacific region, including many Asian countries reaching gross domestic product (GDP) growth rates of over 6% annually, contributed to a reduction of the poverty incidence from 32% in the year 1990 to 22% in 2000.¹¹⁴ However social progress has been very limited and inequalities increased drastically in the same period.¹¹⁵ The reason is that the benefits of this “Asian miracle” did not trickle down bringing economic growth for all parts of the population because of rigid patterns of social exclusion. Thus, large parts of the population in Asia-Pacific remained excluded from the overall progress.¹¹⁶ This phenomenon is reinforced by the current financial and economic crisis.¹¹⁷ Since social exclusion is threatening the social cohesion of the societies in the Asia-Pacific region hampering sustainable development and even agitating conflicts such as recently revealed in Thailand, this challenge needs to be addressed urgently.

The following paragraphs provide firstly an introduction to the term “social exclusion” and highlight generally the importance of addressing this challenge as well as how this can be realized. Moreover, the past action taken by the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) will be presented to depict the emerging problems when trying to measure the progress. Secondly, the detrimental effects of social exclusion to the Member States’ development will be emphasized. Finally, the examples of Nepal and Fiji point out specific consequences of social exclusion endangering these countries’ achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The last paragraph concludes by stressing the need for action and suggesting some further guiding questions to be considered in the research process.

Understanding Social Exclusion

Social exclusion is defined as a voluntary or involuntary “exclusion of individuals and groups from society’s political, economic and societal processes.”¹¹⁸ This means that certain marginalized groups or individuals such as ethnic or religious minorities, indigenous people, migrants, persons with disabilities, people living with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), older persons, the youth or women particularly cannot partially or fully participate in all aspects of the society they are living in.¹¹⁹ Being excluded from participation in society ultimately also implies an exclusion from decent work, assets such as land, political representation, access to public services providing a safety net against poverty and opportunities in general.¹²⁰ Often these individuals and groups are characterized by a lack of voice, recognition and capacity for active participation.¹²¹ It is important to recognize that the marginalized groups do not necessarily represent minorities. For instance, in countries where Hinduism prevails, people from the lower castes, which are often discriminated against, actually form the majority of the population. The reasons for social exclusion are manifold. Groups can be discriminated against economically in their access to livelihoods, to social services and to political and community participation.¹²² This social exclusion is primarily based on age, gender, caste, ethnicity, religious affiliation, language group, disability and spatial distribution.¹²³ However, whether one of these specific characteristics leads to exclusion

¹¹³ United Nations, Commission for Social Development, *47th Session: Chairperson’s Summary*, 2009, p. 1.

¹¹⁴ Kabeer, *Social Exclusion and the MDGs: The Challenge of Durable Inequalities’ in the Asian Context*, 2006, p. 1.

¹¹⁵ Köhler, *Policies Toward Social Inclusion: A South Asian Perspective*, 2009, p. 25.

¹¹⁶ World Bank, *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*, 1993.

¹¹⁷ Rola, *Promoting Social Integration*, 2009, p. 2.

¹¹⁸ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 5.

¹¹⁹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹²⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹²¹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹²² Lotse, *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*, 2006, p. 3.

¹²³ Lotse, *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*, 2006, p. 3.

depends on the society's values and culture.¹²⁴ In addition, social exclusion is a dynamic phenomenon due to changing boundaries over time and space.¹²⁵ The continuing processes of these various forms of systemic social exclusion directly impede the achievement of the MDGs.¹²⁶

It is important to note that the act of discrimination itself is a violation of international human rights.¹²⁷ These human rights guarantee that every single human being can exercise his or her rights without distinction concerning the aforementioned aspects.¹²⁸ Human rights are founded on respect for the inherent dignity and worth of each person, and are applied equally and without discrimination to all people.¹²⁹ Therefore they can help to actively promote social inclusion.¹³⁰ In this context the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) represents the lighthouse among human rights treaties. More specialized treaties concerning specific vulnerable groups are the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities and the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief.¹³¹ Besides, other treaties to be mentioned are the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).¹³²

Addressing the Challenge

The key to addressing the observed exclusions are development policies that actively incorporate social integration and protection. These policies are aimed at either decreasing economic, social and cultural boundaries or raising the permeability of such boundaries.¹³³ Thus social inclusion represents the summary of efforts ensuring “equal opportunities for all regardless of their background.”¹³⁴ The conditions created by the process of social inclusion shall enable people to achieve their full potential in life.¹³⁵ This means that they are entitled to participate actively in civic, social and economic activities and have the means to participate in decision making.¹³⁶ The latter is considered to be very important since an enhanced participation in the political process of decision making increases the ownership of the decisions taken, which affect people's daily lives.¹³⁷

In a recent keynote speech Noeleen Heyzer, the Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations and Executive Secretary of ESCAP, advised that the current development discourse should focus on “the potential contribution of social protection as an investment in reducing risks and vulnerability ... thereby facilitating the path to MDG achievement.”¹³⁸ Such integration is considered to be a multidimensional process that promotes values, relations and institutions.¹³⁹ Thus, on the basis of equity and dignity, these aspects enable people to participate in social, economic and political life aiming at the creation of a “society for all.”¹⁴⁰ Therefore, in order to construct this “society for all”, a development process respecting the diversity and individual rights is crucial.¹⁴¹ Development programs focusing on social inclusion are also referred to as inclusive development. Thereby, an inclusive development process does not mean to establish the uniformity of people, because not all groups prefer to be

¹²⁴ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 22.

¹²⁵ UN-DESA, *Expert Group Meeting on Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*, 2007.

¹²⁶ Lotse, *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*, 2006, p. 4.

¹²⁷ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹²⁸ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹²⁹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³¹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³² UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 30.

¹³³ UN-DESA, *Expert Group Meeting on Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*, 2007, p. 5.

¹³⁴ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹³⁵ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹³⁶ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 3.

¹³⁷ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹³⁸ Heyzer, *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific*, 2010.

¹³⁹ Wiman, *Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy*, 2009, p. 33.

¹⁴⁰ Wiman, *Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy*, 2009, p. 33.

¹⁴¹ Wiman, *Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy*, 2009, p. 33.

mainstreamed into a larger society.¹⁴² Instead of this forced assimilation, social inclusion means to include all groups by encouraging societal engagement and participation on the basis of respect for diversity and cultural identity.¹⁴³ It is important to guarantee that the recognition of dignity and equality of each person is anchored not only as an ethical norm but in legal principles as for instance specified by the respective constitution.¹⁴⁴

Actions Taken by ESCAP Member States

The need to consider the approach of social inclusion was formulated for the first time in the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and the Program of Action of the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) high-level conference in 1995.¹⁴⁵ At this summit Member States of the ESCAP committed themselves to supporting social integration, to protecting human rights and fostering non-discrimination, respect for diversity, equality of opportunity, solidarity, and security.¹⁴⁶ In particular, the inclusion of vulnerable groups and persons was emphasized.¹⁴⁷ This people-centered approach also corresponds to the United Nations Development Program's (UNDP) development concept understanding human development as the enlargement of people's choices.¹⁴⁸ But the process of inclusion is only guaranteed if people do not only have access to endowments, but in particular entitlements to relevant items such as health care and education favoring a long and decent life they have reasons to value.¹⁴⁹ Excluded groups suffer mostly from the lack of these entitlements.

In 1994 the Member States of the ESCAP prepared the WSSD by the Fourth Asian and Pacific Ministerial Conference on Social Development, defining their strategy for the ESCAP region.¹⁵⁰ This strategic vision was reinforced at the Asian and Pacific Ministerial Conference in Preparation for the WSSD and is captured by the last relevant resolution the Member States of ESCAP adopted.¹⁵¹ The latter is Resolution 51-4 (1995) on the "Agenda for Action on Social Development in the ESCAP Region." ESCAP Member States took the lead in the global debate about creating a regional Agenda for Action on Social Development. However, the implementation process turned out to be very slow in their region due to rapid globalization and the impact of the Asian Crisis causing governments to tighten their budgets for social development.¹⁵² The Asian Financial Crisis itself, which emerged in the summer of 1997, caused severe economic turbulences in Southeast Asia as well as in the rest of the world due to unsustainable policies and speculation.¹⁵³ Therefore, in 1997, the countries agreed at the Fifth Asian and Pacific Ministerial Conference on Social Development on an Accelerated Implementation of the Agenda for Action on Social Development in the ESCAP region.¹⁵⁴ Facing the recent (and still persisting) economic crisis, the topic of social inclusion regained importance as the vulnerable groups were severely affected. Therefore, ESCAP launched the "Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion" in order to strengthen the capacity of Member States to promote policies aimed at social inclusion and empowering disadvantaged groups.¹⁵⁵ The topic's current relevance is also shown on a more global level by Resolution 64/135 (2010) on "Implementation of the outcome of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly." This resolution was adopted in 2010 and is reviewing the progress in social development.

Measuring the Impact

In order to create policies based on the progress of social integration, the process needs to be measurable. Only the measurement itself enables countries to know the extent of social exclusion, to determine its level over time, and to

¹⁴² Zelenev, *Social Integration in a Contemporary World*, 2009, p. 33.

¹⁴³ United Nations, Commission for Social Development, *47th Session: Chairperson's Summary*, 2009, p. 3-4.

¹⁴⁴ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 3.

¹⁴⁵ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. xiii.

¹⁴⁶ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. xiii.

¹⁴⁷ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. xiii.

¹⁴⁸ Anand and Sen, *Human Development and Economic Sustainability*, 2000.

¹⁴⁹ Anand and Sen, *Human Development and Economic Sustainability*, 2000.

¹⁵⁰ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵¹ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵² ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵³ Karunatileka, *The Asian Economic Crisis*, 1999.

¹⁵⁴ ESCAP, *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region*, 2001, p. 17.

¹⁵⁵ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

evaluate the influence of measures undertaken to promote social inclusion.¹⁵⁶ On the international level, national measurements allow access to global progression levels and comparisons of country performances.¹⁵⁷ However, the choice of variables influences the results.¹⁵⁸ In particular it has to be recognized that social exclusion is a much wider concept than just inequalities. The former is interrelated with social mobility, access to space, sense of ownership, trust among people and institutions, alienation and wellbeing of individuals.¹⁵⁹ Therefore it is highly important to capture these interrelating issues. Policy makers face a serious challenge in the process of measurement itself. The challenge is that the marginalized social groups are not visible in the conventional government's statistics, when working in the informal sector or living in unofficial settlements.¹⁶⁰

Social Exclusion as an Obstacle for Development

According to Noeleen Heyzer, the achievement of the MDGs in the Asia-Pacific region is challenging due to the very frequent social exclusion in the region.¹⁶¹ The reason is that social exclusion is closely intertwined with poverty and living conditions known for multiple deprivations which make livelihoods precarious. These factors consist of a downward spiral of interrelating and self-reinforcing deprivations such as lack of education, work, access to financial resources, food, shelter, and lacking political representation. Thereby the relationship between social exclusion and poverty is ambiguous since one can represent each cause as the consequence of the other.¹⁶² Marginalized groups usually lack adequate opportunities for employment in the formal economy, which comprises work for registered businesses or in government services. This not only denies them a stable income but is also a barrier to their access of public health services. The latter is usually available when being officially registered as a citizen with the state's authorities.¹⁶³ Due to the various forms of discriminations described above, people are even not given a chance to acquire the skills necessary to make a living and lead a self-determined life.¹⁶⁴ But without any access to education and productive employment people can neither find a way out of poverty in order to benefit from the fruits of economic growth nor can they advance their empowerment in order to be better integrated in society.¹⁶⁵ This deteriorates people's material deprivation, as they are less able to afford shelter and food.¹⁶⁶ These are examples of the vicious circle of deprivations excluded groups have to face.

Due to these perpetuating conditions, it becomes even more difficult to break the social exclusion-poverty cycle, leading to an intergenerational transmission of vulnerability.¹⁶⁷ When being excluded from the greater society in such a systematic way people also feel psychologically disempowered.¹⁶⁸ The latter is reducing people's own capacity to act.¹⁶⁹ These are the reasons why policies meeting people's basic needs, strengthening their empowerment on the basis of human rights and all kinds of poverty reduction measures are required. This call for urgency is reinforced by the fact that any failure to achieve social integration in the Asia-Pacific region spurs social tensions and fragmentation within societies and undermines social cohesion.¹⁷⁰ This in turn promotes violent conflict and political instability in the region.¹⁷¹ Therefore, addressing social inclusion is a vital interest in the Asia-Pacific region, as the future social and economic development as well as political stability within Member States depends on a realistic solution for this issue.

¹⁵⁶ UN-DESA, *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context*, 2010, p. 7-23.

¹⁵⁷ UN-DESA, *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context*, 2010, p. 7-23.

¹⁵⁸ UN-DESA, *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context*, 2010, p. 7-23.

¹⁵⁹ UN-DESA, *Expert Group Meeting on Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*, 2007.

¹⁶⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 46.

¹⁶¹ Heyzer, *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific*, 2010.

¹⁶² Commission for Social Development, *47th Session, Chairperson's Summary*, 2009, p. 3-4.

¹⁶³ United Nations, *Report of the Secretary-General: Follow-up to the implementation of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly (A/64/157)*, 2009, p. 6-7.

¹⁶⁴ United Nations, *Report of the Secretary-General: Follow-up to the implementation of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly (A/64/157)*, 2009, p. 6-7.

¹⁶⁵ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁶ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁷ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁸ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁶⁹ UN-DESA, *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*, 2008, p. 5.

¹⁷⁰ Sadeque, *Inclusive Planning for Social Integration: A Short Note*, 2009, p. 1.

¹⁷¹ Sadeque, *Inclusive Planning for Social Integration: A Short Note*, 2009, p. 1.

Case Studies: Inequalities in Nepal and Fiji

Nepal

The case of the Nepalese society serves as a very good example since multiple forms of exclusion with a long historical tradition lead to extreme discrimination of certain groups. Despite the country's enormous diversity, comprising 101 ethnicities speaking 91 languages, a large part of the population does not take part in many aspects of socio-economic processes and decision-making.¹⁷²

The exclusion in Nepal mainly originates from social, cultural and economic stratification. This feudal society includes the dominance of a central social elite, comprising landlords, civil administrators and traders.¹⁷³ These privileged groups dominate the country's social, economic and political spheres even in the rural areas by handpicking government appointees.¹⁷⁴ The centrally imposed regulations and tax regimes create restrictions and barriers for the oppressed social strata in the access of local resources such as land, forest and water.¹⁷⁵ This in turn provokes a serious degradation of these people's livelihoods.¹⁷⁶

In addition to this political power structure the rigid society's hierarchy also is manifested in the Hindu caste-system.¹⁷⁷ This religious order of the society segregates the latter in four groups, while a fifth group named the "untouchables" or Dalits stands hierarchically beneath the others and are therefore marginalized from the State's economic and social services.¹⁷⁸ While the elite having political influence in this feudal society comprises the first two groups called Brahmin (priests) and Kshyatriya (soldiers), the Dalits suffer not only from missing social recognition, but in particular lack access to formal work and education.¹⁷⁹ The latter is due to the first Civil Code of 1853 which denies Dalits their rights to citizenship, land, education, health care, livelihood, security and bodily integrity.¹⁸⁰ The living conditions of Dalits are far below the national average.¹⁸¹ For instance, the poverty index for Dalits corresponds to 47% compared to the national average of 31%.¹⁸² The established social rules causing exclusion also continue after the abolishment of the monarchy in 2006, since the non-privileged groups are virtually absent in the country's parliament.¹⁸³ Therefore none of the political parties accords priority to social inclusion.¹⁸⁴

In addition, a cultural exclusion takes place as well, as Nepali was declared the official language in public schools and institutions.¹⁸⁵ This opposes the cultural diversity of the indigenous people.¹⁸⁶ Among other more recent events affecting the marginalized groups was the civil war starting in 1996. Undoubtedly, the most marginalized social groups such as the Dalits became the worst victims of the conflict, as they were neither self-sufficient nor could they move to safer places.¹⁸⁷ To sum up, without recognizing the Dalits as a part of the population, there are strong doubts about the possibility to achieve the MDGs in Nepal.

Fiji

This example not only represents the challenge of exclusion in a country of the Pacific Small Island States but also reflects the social problems emerging as a consequence of the colonial history. British colonialism and its accompanying economic policies focused on primary commodity production, which lead to an ethnically divided society.¹⁸⁸ Thus European and Chinese Fijians dominated the economic life while Indo-Fijians and finally the

¹⁷² Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 1.

¹⁷³ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁴ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁵ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁶ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 4.

¹⁷⁷ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁷⁸ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁷⁹ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁸⁰ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 13.

¹⁸¹ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁸² Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 14.

¹⁸³ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁸⁴ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁸⁵ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁸⁶ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁸⁷ Thapa, *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*, 2009, p. 3.

¹⁸⁸ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

indigenous Fijians followed.¹⁸⁹ Political power mirrored the economic power structure, so the elite consisted of the Europeans, even though they were a minority. Hierarchically, the indigenous and Indo-Fijians were the least powerful.¹⁹⁰ Thereby, the discrimination based upon skin color played an important role.¹⁹¹

The British system of indirect rule allowed the indigenous Fijians to maintain their own community, however this also means that they were kept in separate villages from people of other ethnicities and that their life was altogether very regulated, while the British occupied the most fertile land formerly possessed by the indigenous people.¹⁹² For instance, the indigenous Fijians were not allowed to move around freely and were forbidden to engage in commercial activities without permission of their Fijian chiefs cooperating with the colonial administrators; this situation continued until the 1960s.¹⁹³

Due to the colonial system all economic activities are located around the capital and other centers of administration even today.¹⁹⁴ In particular, government offices, better public hospitals and tertiary educational institutions are only on the main island of Viti Levu.¹⁹⁵ As a result the rural areas, where the indigenous people mainly live, are less developed and lack public services such as safe water, health services and schools as well as employment opportunities outside of the agricultural sector, so the poverty incidence is high.¹⁹⁶ This rural-urban divide pushes the indigenous Fijians to the larger cities, as they are the most affected by the limited infrastructure in the rural areas.¹⁹⁷ Having arrived in the greater urban areas, the indigenous migrants live in poor squatter settlements, since the government failed to provide additional housing.¹⁹⁸ Often these settlements are located on low-lying, marshy land.¹⁹⁹ The wet physical conditions contribute to the spread of diseases among the indigenous Fijians.²⁰⁰

Today, however, the discrimination appears to have been reversed as a result of the 1987 coup.²⁰¹ As a consequence, the indigenous people hold more than 90% of the senior positions in society and represent up to 70% of the civil servants.²⁰² Even the army is consists mostly of indigenous Fijians.²⁰³ Moreover, a separate “Fijian administration” provides administrative services only for the indigenous.²⁰⁴ This Fijian ethno-nationalism was reinforced by the 2000 coup, so that indigenous Fijians are promoted over citizens of other ethnicities in almost all areas of community life.²⁰⁵ For instance, the political party in power is perceived as responding only to the needs of the indigenous Fijians.²⁰⁶ The exclusion of all other ethnicities other than the indigenous Fijians means an inequality of ownership and control of assets, natural resources as well as opportunities such as the access to credit facilities, education, employment, safe water, transport, communication, and health.²⁰⁷ The enormous social exclusion of large parts of the islands’ population - formally the exclusion of the indigenous Fijians, now of all others - hampers future development. In fact, due to these exclusionary processes the living standard measured by the human development index (HDI) decreased dramatically over the last 10 years.²⁰⁸

Approaches Recognizing the Essential Role of Social Inclusion for Development

As outlined above, social inclusion is considered to be a decisive element of development in the Asia-Pacific region.

¹⁸⁹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁹⁰ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁹¹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

¹⁹² Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

¹⁹³ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

¹⁹⁴ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 6.

¹⁹⁵ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁹⁶ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁹⁷ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 7.

¹⁹⁸ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 8.

¹⁹⁹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 8.

²⁰⁰ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 8.

²⁰¹ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰² Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰³ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰⁴ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 10.

²⁰⁵ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 11.

²⁰⁶ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 11.

²⁰⁷ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 25.

²⁰⁸ Naidu, *Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*, 2009, p. 5.

Some development policies addressed by ESCAP allowing the realization of better social inclusion are the following:

Strengthening the capacity of the local government institutions

The capacity of local governments to promote the inclusion of people is considered crucial, since it is most effective in improving the access to basic services and resources, as well as to facilitate the partnerships between members of the society, i.e. to build social capital.²⁰⁹ In contrast to the central government, the local government is more suitable for the design of participatory planning models since the interaction with the marginalized groups is higher on the local level.²¹⁰ Similarly, an increased participation contributes to higher standards of accountability and transparency of the governmental institutions leading to better policies when addressing social exclusion.²¹¹ However, the capacities of the local government bodies are often weak due to lacking human and financial resources, coordination with the central government and understanding of the role in the governance process.²¹² Therefore, fostering the capacity of these local agents is a deceive instrument in order to tackle the challenges imposed by exclusion and poverty.²¹³

Participatory dialogue for empowerment

An important tool for the promotion of social inclusion and thus a more cohesive society is participatory dialogue, since a successful inclusion not only depends on the integration of the excluded but also on the willingness and ability of the latter to participate.²¹⁴ It is practiced on the local level and is therefore very flexible as well as responsive to local needs.²¹⁵ This is why participatory dialogue is considered to be a bottom-up approach.²¹⁶ The aim is to enable people to execute their rights to participate actively in the decision-making processes that affect their lives.²¹⁷ This is seen as a foundation of meaningful engagement of all citizens in building their common future.²¹⁸ In particular, the advantage of this approach is to raise the awareness among the excluded so that they can articulate their own perceptions. In addition, the creation of working relationships across ethnic and religious groups helps to overcome prejudices as everyone is treated equally.²¹⁹ Moreover participation grants a sense of ownership which in turn favors more sustainable inclusion.²²⁰ The result of this dialogue is not necessarily a consensus.²²¹ But dialogue can enhance the degree of mutual understanding by unveiling the opposing interests as root-causes.²²² An even more valuable result is that this method will achieve the empowerment of the formerly excluded through the confidence built by the reached agreements.²²³

ESCAP Development Account project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion

As mentioned previously, ESCAP recently launched the “Development Account project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion” in response to the increasing disparities between social stakeholders. The project is conducted in order to incorporate these three interrelated key areas in national development plans, so that the empowerment of excluded groups becomes an integral feature of the national development plans.²²⁴ While gender inequality can be interpreted as a special case of social exclusion, the provision of health services is crucial in allowing the marginalized groups to participate in the overall nations’ development.²²⁵ The project is so far unique as it identifies the structural barriers for the disadvantaged groups aiming at capacity building in order to design and implement appropriate policies as well as to measure their progress.²²⁶ Regarding the latter, process indicators have

²⁰⁹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹⁰ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹¹ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹² UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹³ UN-DESA, *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*, 2009, p. 42-51.

²¹⁴ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 13.

²¹⁵ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 63.

²¹⁶ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 63.

²¹⁷ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 13.

²¹⁸ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 14.

²¹⁹ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 61.

²²⁰ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 14.

²²¹ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 62.

²²² UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 62.

²²³ UN-DESA, *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*, 2007, p. 63.

²²⁴ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

²²⁵ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

²²⁶ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

been developed in addition to the previously existing outcome indicators.²²⁷

Finally, Noeleen Heyzer underlines the importance of interregional cooperation as a key to convert the collective strengths of all Member States into the achievement of an inclusive and sustainable society in Asia-Pacific - beyond a mere recovery from the current financial and economic crisis.²²⁸ In this sense, the interregional cooperation and commitment can strengthen the Member States' efforts to fulfill the promises made to reach the MDGs.

Conclusion

The nexus of social exclusion and sustainable development can no longer be ignored. By finally recognizing that large groups of the population are excluded due to systematic discrimination in various forms, policies can be formulated to include these groups in the participation, development and improvement of their living conditions and thus ease social tensions and reinforce basic principles of equality.

Thus some of the questions for consideration are the following: Which processes lead to discrimination and finally to social exclusion? What kind of monitoring system should be utilized and how should the data be measured? Are there already specific policies spurring social inclusion in the Member States? Should policies be targeted, i.e. specific for certain social groups, or be formulated for the population as a whole? How can ESCAP concretely help to strengthen the efforts of individual states? Which additional development policies might enhance social inclusion? Which of these could be applied in all Member States?

III. Achieving Energy Security through Energy Diversity

*"Energy security and sustainable development have to be pursued primarily through national efforts, but there is also much to be gained from transboundary cooperation"*²²⁹

Introduction

In modern times, energy security has become a fundamental concern on the global agenda. Achieving energy security through energy diversity is a major goal of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP).²³⁰ There are two main reasons for this relatively new approach: the first one is the radical effect of high and volatile energy prices; and the second reason is related to the need for achieving environmental sustainability and avoiding climate change effects.²³¹ Studies made by the ESCAP Environment and Development division have proven that the region suffers from immense quantities of pollution, making this an even more important addition to the ESCAP agenda.²³²

The Asia Pacific Energy Research Centre defines energy security as "the ability of an economy to guarantee the availability of energy resource supply in a sustainable and timely manner, with the energy price being at a level that will not adversely affect the economic performance of the economy."²³³ Countries are tasked with the challenge of accomplishing greater energy security by harmonizing energy supply and demand, ensuring reasonably priced, sustainable and available energy sources.²³⁴ Some of the measures to complete these goals include: "conserving and raising energy efficiency; rationalizing pricing and taxation systems; improving energy sector governance; and diversifying energy supplies, in particular making greater use of alternative and renewable resources."²³⁵ A new

²²⁷ ESCAP, *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*, 2010.

²²⁸ Heyzer, *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific*, 2010.

²²⁹ Environment and Development Division. (2008). *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

²³⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xvi

²³¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xvi

²³² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p. xvi

²³³ Eng, *Energy Security Initiative*, 2003, p.4

²³⁴ Eng, *Energy Security Initiative*, 2003, p.4

²³⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p. xvi

approach to energy consumption, one that is energy efficient, and utilizes more renewable energy is fundamental to attaining energy security in the region.²³⁶

Importance of Energy Security in Asia and the Pacific

The volatility of energy prices, supply interruptions caused by political instability, and demand increase coupled with the surprisingly fast industrialization of some countries inside the area are just some of the causes for worry around energy security.²³⁷ In Asia and the Pacific region, 1.7 billion people use traditional biomass fuel and 1 billion do not have access to electric power.²³⁸ One example of this is the average electrification rate of 52% and 73% in “developing Asia.”²³⁹ Generally, in the region, 762 million rural dwellers and 167 million urban dwellers lack electric power.²⁴⁰ In the biennium of 2004 and 2005, the energy consumption of Asia and the Pacific increase rate is 2% higher than the increase in world consumption.²⁴¹ Additionally, it is important to note that the lack of energy resources is a more complex problem due to the gap between the economies of countries in the region. Iran, Russian Federation, Brunei Darussalam and Australia have large reserves of fossil fuel and uranium while other least developed countries in the region have to import fuel and in some cases are immeasurably vulnerable to price increases because they do not have the capability to stockpile energy resources.²⁴² Between 2002 and 2005, poor households in four developing countries paid 120% more for transportation, 171% more for cooking fuels and 67% more for electricity, further highlighting the importance of this topic.²⁴³

Current situation in Asia and the Pacific

Energy Needs

According to the ESCAP Executive Secretary the total consumption of energy in the ESCAP region increased 70% in a matter of 13 years, even though the per capita consumption is still low.²⁴⁴ The energy resources access gap is so wide that countries such as Myanmar and Afghanistan have ratings of 7% and 11% respectively in energy accessibility while Japan holds an energy consumption rate of 100%.²⁴⁵ One of the causes for such differences is that 66% of energy production in Asia and the Pacific comes from China, Japan and Russian Federation according to 2002 statistics, which means these countries have more access to energy.

Asia and the Pacific have large reserves of renewable sources such as biomass, geothermal or solar energy; nonetheless these reserves are not being utilized.²⁴⁶ This type of energy represents only 2% of the total energy production because it lacks investment as it is perceived as risky by investors; and the projects usually are small and too expensive.²⁴⁷ The ESCAP region produces just enough energy to cover the demand but this does not mean that every area in the region is satisfied.²⁴⁸ Energy self sufficiency, achieved when a country produces enough energy to meet its needs, tends to decrease in developing countries while developed countries such as Japan are growing more self-sufficient. In this regard, the research by the Environment and Development Division predict that energy demand will increase up to 47% until 2030, 2.75 % per year, using 50% of the total energy around the world.²⁴⁹ The demand in India, Iran, Malaysia and the Philippines is expected to increase by 300%, and China 200%.²⁵⁰ Primary energy needs—not processed energy sources—grow at an average rate of 3.2% in China and 3.6% in India annually

²³⁶ Heyzer, *Asia and the Pacific to rethink Energy Security*, 2008, p.2.

²³⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.3

²³⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.6.

²³⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.6

²⁴⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.6

²⁴¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.7

²⁴² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.8

²⁴³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.9

²⁴⁴ Heyzer, *Asia and the Pacific to rethink Energy Security*, 2008, p. 1.

²⁴⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.11

²⁴⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii.

²⁴⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii.

²⁴⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii.

²⁴⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.79

²⁵⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.32

which represent 45% of the increase in world energy demand by 2030.²⁵¹ As for Australia and Japan they will decrease demand due to the expected industry saturation by 2030.²⁵²

Energy Production

Asia and the Pacific produce energy from very diverse sources, some of which are renewable energy sources. In 2005, the hemisphere produced 46% of the total global primary energy production.²⁵³ Between 1992 and 2005, production increased 3% annually and was 1% higher than the world production growth.²⁵⁴ In relation to secondary energy production such as solid fuels, gaseous fuels, thermal electricity or secondary liquid fuels; the region accounted for around 40% of the world's production in 2005.²⁵⁵

The ESCAP region also produces a considerable quantity of traditional energy sources. In 2000, the ESCAP region produced 30% of crude oil, 40% of natural gas, and 70% of coal from the world's total production, demonstrating the importance of energy production for the region.²⁵⁶ The region also produces 28% of the world's nuclear energy.²⁵⁷ In addition, the region has 50% of worldwide coal reserves, 25% of world oil reserves and 60% of world uranium reserves.²⁵⁸ Renewable energy represented 9% of the region's primary energy production including biomass, biogas, wastes, hydropower, geothermal, solar and wind energy in 2005.²⁵⁹ New sources of energy do not currently account for any substantial portion of general energy production area for the region and this is a clear limitation in the current energy security situation.

Energy Diversity

ESCAP region has low levels of renewable energy production; however, the potential to produce more is considerable, especially hydropower, biomass, solar and wind energy, all of which have been growing rapidly.²⁶⁰ Countries in the region have adopted different strategies for involving new forms of energy generation. Developing countries such as Bangladesh, Fiji and Indonesia have developed solar home systems, small scale hydro systems, and wind power systems.²⁶¹ These new sources have helped these countries increase energy supplies without the negative effects of traditional energy sources. Renewable energy accounts for 45% of domestic energy production in India, Bangladesh and Pakistan.²⁶² Regarding potential, the region has 40% of the world's total hydroelectric technical potential, 35% of solar and high temperature geothermal energy potential, 5 to 6% of world's biomass technical potential, and 12-18% of wind energy potential.²⁶³ Regarding wind power, India is fifth in the world in this type of power generation as well as in total installed wind power capacity.²⁶⁴ In South East Asia, biodiesel production has expanded and Malaysia plans to have 10% of global biodiesel market.²⁶⁵ The first wood-to-ethanol plant began operations in 2007 in Japan.²⁶⁶ The share of renewable energy in the total energy production was of 5% in 2005 and there's an expectation to grow for 2030 up to 17%.²⁶⁷ The main reason why renewable energy lacks production is the perception of risk and high costs in this kind of projects by investors which by the influence of new inputs may vary.²⁶⁸

²⁵¹ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007, p.117

²⁵² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.87

²⁵³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.37

²⁵⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.37

²⁵⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.39

²⁵⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.41-43

²⁵⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.47

²⁵⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii

²⁵⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.48

²⁶⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.49

²⁶¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.18

²⁶² Sáez, L. *U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications*, 2007, p. 668

²⁶³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.27

²⁶⁴ Sáez, L. *U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications*, 2007, p.668

²⁶⁵ REN 21. *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century, 2007 p.15

²⁶⁶ REN 21. *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century, 2007, p.19

²⁶⁷ Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.1

²⁶⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.18

Energy Efficiency

“Energy efficiency can be defined as the effectiveness with which energy resources are converted into usable work.”²⁶⁹ This concept has acquired importance in recent years for several reasons. “Energy efficiency is the most cost-effective means of meeting energy demand and is complementary to renewable energy for achieving a secure and clean energy future and addressing global climate change.”²⁷⁰ There is an estimate of 25% energy savings until 2020 and over 40% until 2050 if energy efficiency is achieved.²⁷¹ A good portion of these cutbacks are going to take place in the region, particularly in industries like paper, chemicals, cement, petroleum refining, iron and steel which symbolize a large proportion of energy consumption industry wise.²⁷² With energy efficiency, countries in the region will also benefit economically by saving over \$560 billion while also experiencing a reduction in investment needs according to the International Energy Agency (IEA).²⁷³ It is important to point out that efficiency is useful for both demand and supply.²⁷⁴ In relation to supply generation efficiency, system losses and station use are the main measures proposed to encourage energy efficiency.²⁷⁵ In this way, efficiency creates solutions in every area of the energy scope and increases the possibility of an energy secure region.

Energy Trade

As of 2005, the region’s energy trade was underdeveloped, the region accounted for 12% of the annual electricity trade worldwide and the region is a net energy importer.²⁷⁶ The energy import dependency in the region rose from 28% to 31% in the period between 1992 and 2005, which shows the deficiency of the region in achieving self sufficiency.²⁷⁷ In 2005, the ESCAP imported 36% of the world’s total rate of energy importation.²⁷⁸ The sub-regions that have the highest growth rates in imports are South-East Asia and South-West Asia, and generally the developing ESCAP economies import grew 5.5% while imports to developed economies grew just 1.4%.²⁷⁹ Also, the region is one of the world’s highest oil importers and China, Taiwan Province of China together represent 14 % of world’s oil importers.²⁸⁰

Regarding energy exports, in 2005 the region exported 35% of the world’s total, with energy sources coming principally from North and Central Asia while developing economies contributed 87% of this share.²⁸¹ The region is an important exporter of natural gas, as it has 55% of the world’s reserves and represents 44% of the total natural gas exports adding to its importance on coal exporting around the globe.²⁸² An essential element to improve trade is the establishment of necessary infrastructure which the region lacks and would enhance better possibilities in the market level.²⁸³ To accomplish this, countries must cooperate to create complementary energy policies, particularly by utilizing ties of trade and investment.²⁸⁴

Investment and Financing

A determining factor in enhancing energy security through energy diversification is investment in projects of this nature. The projected cost of expanding and modernizing the region’s energy system is \$9 trillion until 2030, but if sustainable energy is achieved, it can cost \$8.3 trillion, which shows tangible benefits to developing diverse

²⁶⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.10

²⁷⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.66

²⁷¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.10

²⁷² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.16

²⁷³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.16

²⁷⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.72

²⁷⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.72

²⁷⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xviii

²⁷⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.55

²⁷⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.56

²⁷⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.56

²⁸⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.59

²⁸¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.57

²⁸² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.59

²⁸³ Heyzer, *Asia and the Pacific to rethink Energy Security*, 2008, p.3

²⁸⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.155

energy.²⁸⁵ This kind of investment cannot just come from traditional sources of funding, as the current amount given for alternative energy projects is \$5.4 billion per year, which is only a small contribution to what is needed.²⁸⁶ To do this, China and India must invest \$5 trillion until 2030 and China accounts for 17% of projected world energy investment and India 6%.²⁸⁷ China, for instance, has already invested \$12 billion in solar hot water, small hydropower and wind power.²⁸⁸ Yet this initial project by China is far from what is needed on a broader scale across the region. Investment is needed, especially for small projects, in order to reduce the gap between domestic supply and demand, resolve cash flow issues, diminish the impact of policy reforms, address the foreign exchange components of investment, and clean contaminated zones.²⁸⁹ Regarding the rate of investment needed, renewable energy sources will require at least 33% in order to promote these initiatives.²⁹⁰ A reduction in demand for traditional energy sources will require less investment for power generation because initial investments for renewable energy and nuclear power are substantially larger than those for traditional sources.²⁹¹ The different renewable energy sources will not acquire a share in the energy mix if there are no incentives, or in markets where energy prices accompany environmental and social costs.²⁹² The needs for investment varies between different sub-regions, as needs differ between developed and developing countries. For example, industrialized countries will need greater investment in sustainable energy sources while in developing regions introducing improved end-use efficiency is more economical.²⁹³ In certain areas, there is progress due to the fact that investment increased in 2006 with more than 50% to renewable sources projects.²⁹⁴ The needs are still great, but the methods of financing are many, to counteract deficiencies in investment.

As investors identify the growth in demand for renewable energy, governments have encouraged them with incentive legislation and support methods.²⁹⁵ Privately owned systems have been identified as one of the best options to endorse energy production, and countries like Australia and India have opened their markets so that a competitive atmosphere is promoted.²⁹⁶ The World Bank suggests that in order to attract private capital, the energy sector would have to be reformed in a way that strength, stability and clarity are endorsed to guarantee the investment.²⁹⁷ Other options suggest that local financial institutions finance projects through leasing and term loans, which is now an infrequently used option because of lack of resources and information on potential projects.²⁹⁸ One important finance source is the funding of international institutions such as the World Bank or the Asian Development Bank, (even though these institutions ask for structural adjustment policies), while multilateral agencies such as the United States Export Credit Agency provide another financing option, one which has given loans for renewable energy projects.²⁹⁹ After exploring these measures, countries can take the next step resumed in commercializing the products, minimizing the roles of governments and multilateral institutions, leaving partnerships between governments and private sector to lead a broader stage of privatization as a suitable way to finance new projects.³⁰⁰ Beyond this, there are other ways of financing renewable energy projects in the international scope such as the Global Environmental Facility, Least Developed Countries Fund for Climate Change, the Special Climate Change Fund, and Clean Energy for Development Investment Framework, among others.³⁰¹

Actions taken and future measures

²⁸⁵ Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p. 2

²⁸⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.xix.

²⁸⁷ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007. p. 129.

²⁸⁸ REN 21. *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century, 2007, p.16

²⁸⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.110f.

²⁹⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.96

²⁹¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.99

²⁹² Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.99

²⁹³ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.99

²⁹⁴ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.100

²⁹⁵ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.102

²⁹⁶ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.104

²⁹⁷ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.105

²⁹⁸ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.108

²⁹⁹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.108f.

³⁰⁰ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.109

³⁰¹ Environment and Development Division, *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 2008, p.118

Lately, policies have been enacted at national, regional, sub-regional and international levels. Countries in the region have taken measures to achieve energy security involving different areas. For instance, India developed the National Common Minimum Program with the objective of applying policies to accomplish energy security.³⁰² Some of the policies include energy intensity targets in the internal political division; support to renewable sources such as hydropower, bio-fuels, solar, wind and nuclear power; research, development and deployment of clean coal-to-liquids and bio-fuel technologies; policies to increase the use of renewable sources of energy for power generation and the promotion of bio-fuels including mandatory use of these bio-fuels for public vehicles.³⁰³ Iran, Pakistan and India promoted “solar water heating systems and solar air heating/steam generating systems for community cooking.”³⁰⁴ China developed a long-term renewable development plan in 2007 with a goal of tripling its renewable energy production for 2020, and India and Indonesia have also established national targets regarding renewable sources.³⁰⁵ China has developed the 10th Five Year Plan for National Economic and Social Development, involving diversification of the energy mix, development of renewable energies and new sources of energy along with the Energy Conservation and Comprehensive Resource Utilization.³⁰⁶

Regionally, there have been several attempts to address this topic, which are vital to understand before developing new approaches. A good example is how the East and North-East Asia sub region have developed 12 international initiatives including ASEAN +3, APEC and ECNEA.³⁰⁷ Another initiative is the Asian Energy Security Project, which consists of collaborative research among some ESCAP member states to determine national and regional approaches towards energy security, mainly nuclear power.³⁰⁸ An essential document that demonstrates the efforts that the commission has been doing in the previous years is Resolution 63/6 which proclaims the “implementation of inter country energy cooperation to enhance energy security for sustainable development with a view to widening access to energy services in least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.”³⁰⁹ The expert body within the Commission also promotes establishing four main priorities: shift in paradigm regarding energy production towards environmentally sustainable energy development; increase the use of renewable energy for sustainable development; transboundary energy cooperation; and facilitate sustainable energy policies for countries with special needs.³¹⁰ An important approach achieved on the regional level is the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation, adopted in 2002, where countries committed to achieve the MDGs using three converging stakes: sustainable development; social and economic development; and environmental protection. A cornerstone agreement in the region regarding energy security is the Seoul Initiative, adopted in 2005 with three main mandates, including the Ministerial Declaration on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific; the Regional Implementation Plan for Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific; and the Seoul Initiative on Environmentally Sustainable Economic Growth.³¹¹

Based on these previous approaches, the question of what step to take next remains. Some of these measures are: cooperating to develop renewable energy technologies; participating actively in already existing initiatives; including developing countries in the different uses of renewable energy; promoting dissemination of existing and new renewable energy technologies; involve researchers and technologists from developing countries; facilitating transfer of technologies to developing countries; making a paradigm shift from “quantity growth” to “quality growth”; implementing sustainable energy infrastructure; promoting investment and financing to develop competitiveness; modernizing energy services; creating safeguards to prevent volatility, among others.³¹² These are plausible actions, and combined with the already existing policies, Asia and the Pacific region can achieve energy security through energy diversification.

³⁰² Sáez, L. *U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications*, 2007, p.662-663

³⁰³ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007, p.176

³⁰⁴ International Energy Agency. *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*, 2007, p.176

³⁰⁵ Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development. *OECD Environmental Performance Reviews: China*, 2007, p.22.

³⁰⁶ Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development. *OECD Environmental Performance Reviews: China*, 2007, p.60.

³⁰⁷ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Cooperation in North-East Asia*, 2010

³⁰⁸ Asian Energy Security. *Nautilus Institute for Security and Sustainability*, 2010

³⁰⁹ United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Resolution 63/6*, 2009

³¹⁰ *Energy Security Section. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, 2010

³¹¹ Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Report of the Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific, 2005*. 2005. p.18

³¹² Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2008). *Annual Report*. New York: Economic and Social Council. p.47; Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific, 2008*, p.2

Conclusion

Nowadays, the issue of achieving energy security is a puzzling topic for every country, as energy is essential for growth and development. However, achieving energy security may affect other areas, such as the environment, making the diversification of sources fundamental to accomplishing the objective in an efficient and sustainable way. The Asian and the Pacific region have renewable energy potential, but its targets are currently far from being reached. This is why several questions will arise to be discussed in the committee: How can the region develop new sustainable sources of energy? Why haven't countries applied their resources to enhance energy security and exploit their potential? What can countries do to promote investment, financing and infrastructure creation or maintenance? How does the region achieve energy efficiency integrally? What already existing policies create opportunities for new and more effective policies? How can the region satisfy its need for energy security in a way that creates a more competitive economy while also achieving energy security? In which way can trade be pivotal to achieving the region's objectives? It is essential to understand that energy security is a determining factor for the future of the region's development and the work of the commission is the most powerful tool to do so.

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This article was written by the then Executive Secretary of ECAFE (now ESCAP) and published merely 5 years after the establishment of the commission. It offers a more detailed summary of the goals, structure and procedures of ESCAP in its beginning phase. Furthermore, this article attempts to analyze achievements and potentialities in its early years.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in an Era of Uncertainty: Asia-Pacific Regional Report 2009/10*. Bangkok.

As the UN body responsible for economic development in the Asian-Pacific region, the Millennium Development Goals have become a central item on the ESCAP agenda. This is the most recent report on the current implementation process as well as achievements regarding the MDGs in the region. After highlighting regional trends and statistics, this report especially concentrates on the effect of the economic crisis on the implementation of the MDGs.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Annual Report I May 2008 – 28 April 2009*. Bangkok.

The ESCAP Annual Report is released annually at the end of its official session and is an important source of insight into the topics and issues currently most relevant to ESCAP. This report was released after the 65th session of ESCAP and encompasses a complete summary of the work conducted by ESCAP in the following year as well as the goals set for the coming year. The 65th session had the challenge of dealing with an economic crisis, food/fuel price volatility and climate change.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2007). *The First Parliament of Asia: Sixty Years of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (1947-2007)*. Bangkok.

This book was published in 2007 to commemorate the 60th anniversary of ESCAP. It offers a wide-ranging summary of the founding of ESCAP, its evolution over the years and recent developments. The book focuses especially on developments concerning economic growth, poverty and green growth in the Asian-Pacific region and is the most comprehensive historical analysis of ESCAP available.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Rules of Procedure of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok.

The Rules of Procedure for ESCAP were drafted at its first session and thereafter amended accordingly. In this document ESCAP defined its self-envisioned structure and modus operandi

for executing its mandate as defined by ECOSOC in the Terms of Reference. It defines the organizational composition, agenda and procedural methods of ESCAP.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. *Terms of Reference for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.* Bangkok.

Adopted by the Economic and Social Council at its fourth session the Terms of Reference is the official mandate of ESCAP as dictated by ECOSOC. These terms were hitherto revised as deemed necessary and are the most central document for ESCAP's work. It not only dictates the guiding goals, competences and functions of ESCAP, but it also outlines the relationship of ESCAP to ECOSOC and localizes it in the UN System.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (N.D.) *United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.* Retrieved on October 10, 2010 from www.unescap.org

The website of ESCAP is a portal to all important aspects of the organ, both past and future. It provides important information about structure and activities both of ESCAP and its Member States. The website not only offers a plethora of information, especially the most recent and accurate but it also offers links to all sub-commissions and other important regional organizations.

United Nations General Assembly. (1977). *Restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system.* New York.

This groundbreaking Resolution changed the structure of the UN System and enabled the institutionalization of ESCAP. Here, the GA decided to make the regional commissions permanent organs in the UN System to assist ECOSOC in furthering economic and social development. Furthermore, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific was adopted as the permanent title of the commission to truly reflect its composition.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (1997). Resolution 64/1. *Restructuring the conference structure of the Commission.* New York.

This Resolution creates the acutely needed sub-commissions of ESCAP. With the goal of improving the working structure of ESCAP, the establishment of the sub-commissions was seen as a mechanism to enable more efficient and effective procedures. This important resolution dictates the different areas and functions of these irreplaceable new bodies.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (N.D.) *Because People Matter.* Bangkok. UN ESCAP Information Services

This is an information brochure published by ESCAP summarizing important and useful information. It not only offers useful statistics and facts about the Commission, but highlights some of ESCAP's important past achievements. It is a great introductory document to inspire further, more specific, research into ESCAP's work.

I. Promoting gender equality as a means to combat HIV incidence in the Asia and Pacific region

Annan, K. (2002). *In Africa, AIDS has a woman's face.* New York Times International Herald Tribune, Saturday 29 December. Retrieved on August 8, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/News/press/docs/2002/sg29dec2002.htm>

This source is an emphatic article highlighting the link between gender equality and HIV/AIDS. Annan delineates the primary role which women play in society, the fact that there is often a higher number of women than men infected with HIV and the fundamental fact that no solution will be complete if it fails to address these points.

Annan, K. (2005). *World Population Day Message.* United Nations Population Fund. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from: <http://www.unfpa.org/public/news/pid/2567>

For the 2005 World Population Day, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan gave a message inspired by gender equality and its role as a prerequisite for development. This message is important because it highlights the fact that gender equality is a tool which ultimately empowers all people,

and that this is the base from which a host of problems, including the HIV/AIDS epidemic, must be tackled for true results.

Association of South East Asian Nations. (2009). *Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration on the Intergovernmental Commission on Human Rights*. Retrieved online September 10, 2010 from:

<http://www.aseansec.org/documents/Declaration-AICHR.pdf>

The Cha-Am Hua Hin Declaration encompasses the launch of the AICHR, the first regional human rights body in Asia. It is a very short document, and does not contain any in-depth information about how the AICHR is to be organized or run, but it is useful as a reference point for further research.

AVERT. (2010). *HIV & AIDS in Thailand*. Retrieved on October 2, 2010 from <http://www.avert.org/thailand-aids-hiv.htm>

This Web site provides a large amount of up-to-date data on the HIV/AIDS epidemic, and this page is specifically useful for learning the history of the epidemic in Thailand, and why the Thai government was so successful in stemming the rate of HIV incidence for so long. It also highlights the fact that if past efforts are not resurrected, the sources of new infections may cause a resurgence in the epidemic.

Collier, P. (2008). *The Bottom Billion*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Paul Collier is a former director of Development Research at the World Bank, and in this book he examines the conditions, which 'trap' the world's poorest billion people in poverty. Although gender inequality and HIV/AIDS are not the main focus, this book can help to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the conditions, which feed and are fed by gender inequality and epidemics of disease.

De Silva, L. (2004). *From ECAFE to ESCAP: Pioneering a Regional Perspective* in Berthelot, Y. (Ed.) *Unity and Diversity in Development Ideas: Perspectives from the UN Regional Commissions*. United Nations Intellectual History Project Series. Indiana: Indiana University Press.

Here Leelananda de Silva provides an in-depth analytical history of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. It is a useful resource for gaining a fuller understanding of the Commission's purpose, and how it has evolved as an organization.

Durán, L. A. (2010). *The implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly and its contribution to shaping a gender perspective towards the full realization of the MDGs*. Retrieved on October 2, 2010 from: <http://www.awid.org/eng/Issues-and-Analysis/Issues-and-Analysis/The-implementation-of-the-Beijing-Declaration-and-Platform-for-Action-the-outcomes-of-the-twenty-third-special-session-of-the-General-Assembly-and-its-contribution-to-shaping-a-gender-perspective-towards-the-full-realization-of-the-MDGs>

Writing for the Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID), Durán gives an analysis of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action from the perspective of women's rights-oriented NGOs. The evaluation is detailed and specific, and includes a long section on current trends and challenges. This will be particularly useful in assessing the utility of possible solutions as this document provides sharp comment on areas, which are weak and must be strengthened.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2006). *A global view of HIV infection*. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

http://data.unaids.org/pub/GlobalReport/2008/GR08_2007_HIVPrevWallMap_GR08_en.jpg

This document maps the incidences of HIV infection from 1990 to 2007 by region, and gives a breakdown of the 2007 figures by country. As well as providing an excellent reference point for facts and figures on the epidemic, it is striking to see how the epidemic has evolved and it shows just how urgent the need to reduce the incidence has become.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2008). *Fast facts about HIV*. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from: http://data.unaids.org/pub/FactSheet/2008/20080519_fastfacts_hiv_en.pdf

This UNAIDS fact sheet provides a strong starting point for research on HIV/AIDS itself. It introduces the basic terminology which will be required for understanding more complex documents. Whilst providing a rudimentary overview of what HIV/AIDS infection means, it also presents links to more advanced documents that will need to be understood if a meaningful resolution is to be devised.

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. (2010). *Gender*. Retrieved on August 5, 2010 from: <http://www.unaids.org/en/PolicyAndPractice/Gender/default.asp>

Here, UNAIDS provides a definition of gender for use in policy and practice. This is a must-read page even for Delegates familiar with the terminology of gender equality, as an effective solution cannot be reached without a consensus on the meaning of the concepts involved with this topic.

Kim, J. C. and Watts, C. H. (2005). Gaining a foothold: tackling poverty, gender inequality and HIV in Africa. *British Medical Journal*, 331:769-772. Retrieved on August 6, 2010 from: <http://www.bmj.com/cgi/content/full/331/7519/769>

This article, whilst not relating to the ESCAP region directly, provides a perspective on the gender equality/HIV-incidence issue by examining the social structures, which prevent women in Africa from protecting themselves from infection. Understanding the wider context of both the HIV epidemic and gender equality itself will serve to supply a richer base of material and understanding with which to devise solutions.

Kristof, N. D. and WuDunn, S. (2010). *Half the Sky: How to Change the World*. London: Virago Press.

This is an outstanding book for research on the extent of gender discrimination and its consequences worldwide. It is highly readable, and provides a thorough overview of the hundreds of interconnected problems that are all linked through a common issue: gender inequality. It is a must-read for those without any prior knowledge of gender discrimination, and is valuable even to Delegates familiar with these issues.

Nath, M. B. (2000). Women's health and HIV: Experience from a sex workers' project in Calcutta. *Gender and Development*, Vol. 8, No. 1: 100-108.

Nath presents an astute account of HIV/AIDS in Asia, and a successful case study from the Sonagachi red-light area in Calcutta. She provides in-depth analysis of the relationship between gender inequality and HIV/AIDS, and handles the intricacies which cultural and societal traditions present in terms of gender inequality clearly and carefully. The Sonagachi project can provide a proven model for similar areas struggling with HIV/AIDS.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. (1979). *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010 from:

<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cedaw.htm>

This page provides a copy of the full CEDAW document, accompanied by a review of the establishment, purpose and work of CEDAW. The supplementary history and analysis is particularly useful for understanding how the Convention functions, and the Convention itself is an essential support in the pursuit of gender equality.

United Nations. (2010). *Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases*. Retrieved on August 15, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/aids.shtml>

The UN web site for the Millennium Development Goals does much to put the HIV/AIDS pandemic into global context. This page gives an overview of what the problem is and a breakdown of the targets it is striving to achieve. It is also an extremely useful site as it cross-references the MDG program with other UN bodies, including the regional commissions, which makes the process of tracking the progress of the MDGs in Asia and the Pacific much easier.

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women. (2010). *Beijing and its Follow-up*. Retrieved September 7, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/>

This page gives access to full details on all four of the World Conferences on Women and the three follow-ups evaluating the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. It links official

documents, resolutions, statements, high-level events and non-governmental participation, and is therefore a rich background resource for almost every gender equality issue.

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women. (2000). *The Feminization of Poverty*. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/session/presskit/fs1.htm>

During the Beijing+5 follow-up Conference, the feminization of poverty, and the huge number of undesirable conditions that feed it and are fed by it, became a central issue. This page introduces the subject, and a good knowledge of these issues will greatly aid discussion on how to reduce gender inequality in order to help combat HIV/AIDS.

United Nations Development Fund for Women. (2001). *Turning the Tide: CEDAW and the Gender Dimensions of the HIV/AIDS Pandemic*. Retrieved on August 18, 2010 from:

<http://www.genderandaids.org/downloads/topics/TurningTheTide.pdf>

UNIFEM here provides a succinct document on the main issues regarding gender and the incidence of HIV/AIDS.

It is a must-read for this topic, as it provides not only the details of the issues at the heart of the problem, but also the legal foundations which support the methods to counteract gender inequality and hence use equality as a means to combat HIV/AIDS.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Asian Development Bank, United Nations Development Programme. (2009). *Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in an era of uncertainty: Asia-Pacific Regional Report 2009/10*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010 from:

http://www.mdgasiapacific.org/files/shared_folder/documents/Regional_MDG_Report_2009-10.pdf

Evaluating the progress of the MDGs in the Asia-Pacific region thus far, this report takes stock of the current situation and identifies the key challenges that need to be addressed. Subsequently, possible policy solutions that address both the economic and social challenges are discussed. This source is particularly useful for gaining an understanding of the current difficulties the Commission is facing and the efforts it is making in response to them.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Gender and HIV/AIDS*. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/Gad/Issues/HIV/index.asp>

This page provides a portal to gender and HIV/AIDS related documents, as well as a brief overview of the main problems that gender inequality presents in Asia and the Pacific. It is an excellent page from which to begin research, as it supplies links to a number of relevant and important resources.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2005). *Gender and HIV/AIDS in the Asia and Pacific Region*. Gender and Development Discussion Series, No.18. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

<http://www.unescap.org/esid/gad/Publication/DiscussionPapers/18/DiscussionPaper18.pdf>

This discussion paper gives an excellent overview of gender and the incidence of HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific, and is a must-read in order to gain a thorough understanding of the basic issues connected with it. It covers a wide range of cases studies, analyses past efforts and delineates areas which could become priorities for action.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Highlights of Progress and Challenges in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action: Good Practices, Obstacles and New Challenges*.

Retrieved on October 1, 2010 from http://www.unescap.org/esid/GAD/Events/HLM-2009/download/BPA09_2E.pdf

Compiled at the High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and Its Regional and Global Outcomes on the 16-18 November 2009 in Bangkok, this report provides a detailed review of ESCAP's action so far in terms of gender equality. It is a must-read for an up-to-date opinion on the progress of the Platform so far, and it is extremely useful because it can be used to identify weak areas for policy targets.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2004). *Women and HIV/AIDS*. Retrieved on August 14, 2010 from

<http://www.unescap.org/esid/gad/Events/WomensDay2004/IWD%20FACT%20SHEET%20HIV%20AIDS.pdf>

A factsheet compiled by UNESCAP for International Women's Day 2004, this resource is a good point of reference for supporting facts and figures. It also includes a briefing on why the number of cases of women with HIV is increasing, and what makes women vulnerable to infection.

United Nations Economic and Social Council – Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Closing Gender Gaps in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals* (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/4). Retrieved on September 8, 2010 from: http://www.unescap.org/esid/GAD/Events/HLM-2009/download/BPA09_4E.pdf

A highly useful resource, this document explores the problems of implementing strategies to alleviate gender inequalities in depth in the Asia-Pacific region. In addition to this, the last section includes a number of practical examples of the implementation of the promotion of gender equality through ESCAP's holistic approach in terms of linking the MDGs, CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action and human rights.

United Nations Economic and Social Council – Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2009). *Outcome Document of the Asia-Pacific High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action at Fifteen Years, and its Regional and Global Outcomes* (E/ESCAP/BPA/2009/CRP.1). Retrieved on September 7, 2010 from:

http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing15/docs/BPA09_CRP1E.pdf

This document comprises the declaration reached in preparation for the Beijing + 15 review. It is the most recent evaluation of gender equality issues within the region, and provides an up-to-date breakdown of the primary problems and the targets that ESCAP have agreed to commit to in order to eliminate gender discrimination.

United Nations Economic and Social Council. (2003). *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women* (E/CN.4/2004/66). Retrieved on August 12, 2010 from: [http://www.unhcr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/3cb562e561714a66c1256e66003d213c/\\$FILE/G0410202.pdf](http://www.unhcr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/3cb562e561714a66c1256e66003d213c/$FILE/G0410202.pdf)

This report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women is a brilliant resource for background knowledge on the subject in general, but the section entitled "HIV/AIDS: crossroads of multiple forms of violence against women" is particularly useful as it provides a succinct explanation of the connection between HIV/AIDS incidence and gender.

United Nations General Assembly. (2001). Special Session on HIV/AIDS (2001). *Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS* (A/RES/S-26/2). Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/ga/aids/coverage/FinalDeclarationHIVAIDS.html>

In the twenty-sixth Special Session of the General Assembly, between the 25th and 27th June 2001, global support for the prevention and care, support and treatment of those with or affected by HIV was pledged. Of particular importance to this topic is the section on 'Reducing vulnerability', of which the empowerment of women is an essential step. This is a document of crucial importance to the global movement against HIV/AIDS, and it is necessary to evaluate it before further resolutions can be made.

United Nations General Assembly. (2006). *Political Declaration on HIV/AIDS* (A/RES/60/262). Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from: http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2006/20060615_hlm_politicaldeclaration_ares60262_en.pdf

In the sixtieth session, the General Assembly reviewed progress, or the lack thereof, since the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS was made in 2001. The body rededicated itself to its original goals, and to further reviews to evaluate progress, of which the next is due in 2011. When considering which course of action to take, it is extremely important to be fully aware of past efforts, as it will allow weak areas to be identified and strengthened, and strong areas to be maintained.

United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women. (2010). *UN Creates New Structure for Empowerment of Women*. Retrieved on August 30, 2010 from: <http://www.unwomen.org/2010/07/un-creates-new-structure-for-empowerment-of-women/>

The creation of UN Women, which amalgamated a number of UN bodies in order to consolidate and strengthen the UN's position and efforts to combat gender discrimination, was announced in

this UN press release. The new web site also provides links to answer questions on how the new body will run in all respects, from its presence in countries to what it will mean for the UN system.

United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. (2008). *OHCHR – South East Asia Regional Office (2008-2009) Human rights context*. Retrieved on September 7, 2010 from <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Countries/AsiaRegion/Pages/SouthEastAsiaSummary0809.aspx>

Assessing the protection of human rights in the South East Asian region, the OHCHR provides an overview of the situation in preparation for the 2008-2009 biennium. It analyses the achievements and progress made in 2006-2007, and sets out the priorities for action for the coming years, noting that responses to human rights issues must be tailored to the needs of the State in question.

Weiss, T. G. (2010). *What's Wrong With the United Nations and How to Fix It*. Cambridge: Polity Press. *This seminal work on the improvement of the United Nations includes an excellent section on gender inequality and institutions for women within the chapter 'The Feudal System'. Weiss emphasizes the 1985 Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategy, stressing the need for the advancement of women for the achievement of development itself. This source offers an insightful understanding of gender inequality throughout the international system, an issue central to this topic and therefore a necessity in Conference preparation.*

World Health Organisation. (2005). *Summary country profile for HIV/AIDS treatment scale-up*. Retrieved on August 10, 2010 from: http://www.who.int/hiv/HIVCP_PNG.pdf

This document summarizes the case of HIV/AIDS in Papua New Guinea. It serves as an excellent reference point for initial research by providing a précis of all the main issues connected with the epidemic in this country. In doing so, it can form the basis for deeper research.

World Health Organisation. (1999). *Thailand – HIV/AIDS*. Retrieved on August 19, 2010 from: <http://www.who.int/inf-new/aids1.htm>

Thailand once appeared to be keeping pace with the evolution of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. More recently, however, this seems not to be the case, particularly amongst women. This page, produced during the ascent of apparent success in stemming the incidences of HIV/AIDS, details how it was being achieved, and includes a couple of useful graphs.

World Health Organisation. (1999). *Health – A Key to Prosperity*. Retrieved on August 29, 2010 from: <http://www.who.int/inf-new/pdf.htm>

In this document the WHO details a number of success stories in the fight against HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, childhood disease, maternal and perinatal conditions. Analysing the sources of success can be educative in trying to formulate new courses of action, and three case studies are provided here: Thailand, Uganda and Senegal.

World Health Organisation, Western Pacific – South-east Asia. (2003). *HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific Region*. Retrieved on August 4, 2010 from:

http://www.searo.who.int/LinkFiles/HIV-AIDS_in_Asia_and_the_Pacific_Region_2003_HIV-AIDS_Asia-2003.pdf

The World Health Organisation has produced a comprehensive analysis of HIV/AIDS in a country-by-country breakdown in this document. It is extremely useful for achieving a deeper knowledge of the factors and issues involved in individual cases, and an excellent reference point for statistics and graphs to demonstrate them.

II. Strengthening development policies for social inclusion

Anand, S. and Sen, A. (2000). Human Development and Economic Sustainability. *World Development*, 28 (12), 2029-2049.

The research paper reflects the modern definition of human development; the expansion of people's choices and capabilities as developed by the Indian welfare economist Amartya Sen. Since social inclusion aims at improving the living conditions of excluded groups meaning an expansion of entitlements and access to essentials such as education and adequate nutrition, it is

important to understand the full meaning of human development as presented in this paper. This source is particularly relevant in order to differentiate between development as an average macroeconomic advancement of a country and a holistic real life impact on people's daily living conditions. Social inclusion aims at addressing the latter.

Heyzer, N. (2010). *Keynote Address: A Social Protection Agenda for Asia Pacific: Regional Conference on Enhancing Social Protection Strategy in Asia and the Pacific*. Retrieved October 17, 2010 from:

<http://www.unescap.org/oes/statements/2010/ST20100421-social-protection-agenda.html>

On the occasion of the regional conference on enhancing social protection strategy in Asia and the Pacific, held in Manila on April 21 and 22 of 2010, the Executive Secretary of ESCAP Noeleen Heyzer explains her vision of a social protection agenda in particular as an answer to the recent economic and financial crisis. According to her four elements shall be considered, poverty and risk reduction, social inclusion for inclusive growth and political stability, human security as a basic right, and contribution to the achievement of the MDGs. This speech is a valuable source as it provides an insight how the leaders of ESCAP shape social protection strategies and prepare a suitable environment for these in the near future.

Hujo, K. (2009). *Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Lessons learned from: existing policies and practices*. Background paper for Expert Group Meeting. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Retrieved August 10, 2010 from: www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/Hujo.pdf

This paper finds that social inclusion is, even after the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen (1995), still not well understood. Thus, it presents different approaches in social policy and discusses these normatively. An excellent review of a broad sample of policies and practices follows. These are aimed at social protection, distributional issues, participatory civil society and strategies addressing poverty. Furthermore, the strengths and weaknesses of each are outlined.

Kabeer, N. (2006). *Social Exclusion and the MDGs: The Challenge of Durable Inequalities' in the Asian Context*. Asia 2015 Conference. Session 3: Realising the Potential for Poverty Reduction. Parallel Group 3A: Topic Paper 4. Institute of Development Studies and Overseas Development Institute. London. Retrieved August 12, 2010 from: www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/1/document/0708/DOC21178.pdf

After firstly emphasizing the durable character of social exclusion this paper originally prepared for the Asia 2015 Conference themed "Promoting Growth, Ending Poverty" the author explains the meaning of social exclusion for the progress in the MDGs according to the dimensions income, health and education. Having conducted this static analysis the paper concentrates on the process of exclusion itself and the resulting political marginalisation. Finally, the policy implications are explored. This paper follows a practical approach displaying the situations in various Asian countries instead of discussing social exclusion on a theoretical level.

Karunatileka, E. (1999). *The Asian Economic Crisis*, Research Paper 99/14. The House of Commons Library. Retrieved August 21, 2010 from: <http://www.parliament.uk/documents/commons/lib/research/rp99/rp99-014.pdf>

This research paper gives an excellent insight into how the Asian Financial Crisis emerged, beginning in the financial markets of South Asia in 1997. The crisis is a main trigger, why governments in the Asia-Pacific region reduced their spending on social integration. The resource will prove useful for delegates as an overview of the policy measures taken by international financial institutions and the International Monetary Fund took to address the crisis, providing insight and information that can be applied to the situation today.

Köhler, G. (2009). *Policies Toward Social Inclusion: A South Asian Perspective*. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 24-29. *Primarily this paper elucidates the four domains in which dominant social groups deny access to the vulnerable groups. In the following different inclusion policies such as employment schemes and the access to public services are discussed. Country examples are provided as well. The author then stresses the advantage of complementary inclusion policies compared to sector specific strategies addressing particular aspects of social exclusion.*

Lotse, C. (2006). *MDGs and Transformative Social Policy: The Urgent Agenda for South Asia*. High-Level Panel

Session on National Strategies and Approaches in Reaching the MDGs. South Asia MDG Forum. Kathmandu. Retrieved August 14, 2010 from:

http://www.mdgasiapacific.org/files/shared_folder/documents/presentation_unicefrosa.pdf

This statement prepared for a High-Level Panel Session by a regional director of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund assesses the performance of the Asia-Pacific region on the MDG ladder. Moreover the statement puts forward reasons for the slow progress, asks for serious attention to this matter, and identifies social exclusion as a major brake for the progress in development. Furthermore the statement identifies the region as a laboratory of policy answers and delivers an insight into measures already taken as well as concrete aspects, which should be considered in future.

Naidu, V. (2009). *Draft Report Fiji Islands Country Profile on Excluded Groups*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from:

http://www.unescap.org/ESID/hds/development_account/mtg/EGM_Bg_doc/Fiji%20Islands%20Country%20Profile%20on%20Excluded%20Groups2.pdf

The study is the most detailed analysis currently available investigating the history-based exclusionary processes in Fiji. Due to the geographical position as islands in the Pacific, the social exclusion is probably more extreme than without this geographical feature. However, it is an excellent study case showing the dynamic of social exclusion.

Rola, B. (2009). *Promoting Social Integration*. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 13-16. Retrieved August 14, 2010 from:

www.un.org/esa/socdev/social/meetings/egm6_social_integration/documents/Rola_input.pdf

This paper outlines the beneficial implications of an accelerated social integration for different social groups being vulnerable. The analysis represents an appraisal of the steps so far taken by governments in the Asia-Pacific region but also stresses the need for innovative policies. For the latter the author lists some very useful recommendations. Besides an orientation in the jungle of current policies adapted in the Asia-Pacific region, this paper offers a basis for the Delegates' suggestions to improve existing policies or to add new approaches.

Sadeque, S. Z. (2009). *Inclusive Planning for Social Integration: A Short Note*. Retrieved July 26, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/inclusive-planning.pdf>

The author not only reiterates the importance to implement what has been agreed on at the World Summit for Social Development in 1995, but also analysis, why the progress of implementation has been slow so far. Extremely valuable during the process of creating specific policy recommendations are the nine "Guidelines on Step by Step Approach to Encourage Inclusive Planning."

Thapa, N. (2009). *Country Profile of Excluded Groups in Nepal*. Kathmandu. Retrieved August 23, 2010 from:

http://www.unescap.org/ESID/hds/development_account/mtg/EGM_Bg_doc/Nepal%20020909.pdf

This paper contains the most recent most complete and most detailed analysis on social-group specific inequalities and discrimination on a disaggregated level. Therefore, this country profile could very well function as a guide how to access the roots of social exclusion in other Member States and at the same time demonstrates the complexity.

United Nations Commission for Social Development. (2009). *Commission for Social Development, 47th session: Chairperson's Summary*. Retrieved August 16, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/csd/2009/documents/chairsummary.pdf>

As the title implies, this paper is only a very short summary of the 47th session. The summary This is the reason why it indicates many threats for social integration under the umbrella term of social exclusion. In particular, the relationship between social exclusion and poverty is helpful for the development of an interdisciplinary understanding of the topic.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2010). *Analysing and Measuring Social Inclusion in a Global Context (ST/ESA/325)*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from: www.un.org/esa/socdev/publications/measuring-social-inclusion.pdf

This study elaborates in detail definitions of relevant terms, and in particular discusses the measurement of social inclusion. Moreover, the study demonstrates the relevance of indicator

choice for the design of policies. It also opens up the debate for the relevance in policy creation by pointing out the key issues. Finally the study suggests possible answers.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2009). *Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration*. Retrieved August 14, 2010 from:

<http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/egms/docs/2009/Ghana/inclusive-society.pdf>

This paper consists of two chapters. Besides a general repetition of the criteria for an inclusive society and the identification of possible excluded groups, the first chapter is noteworthy for the formulation of policies as different approaches to promoting social inclusion are presented. Thereby the paper concentrates on the barriers to be removed and the establishment of an inclusive policy framework. In addition, it presents a cost-benefit analysis. The second chapter is even more interesting for further research concerning the role of local governance processes.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2007). *Participatory Dialogue: Towards a Stable, Safe and Just Society for All*. New York: Author. Retrieved October 2, 2010 from:

[http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/publications/prtcprtry_dlg\(full_version\).pdf](http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/publications/prtcprtry_dlg(full_version).pdf)

This comprehensive study focuses especially on the instrument of participatory dialogue to promote social inclusion. Participatory dialogue is considered as a key catalytic mechanism to create engagement by different stakeholders in order to create collective visions of development. The specific roles of stakeholders on the national and sub-national level are identified, as well as international case studies that highlight global trends.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2007). *Final Report of the Expert Group Meeting on: Creating an Inclusive Society: Practical Strategies to Promote Social Integration: Recommendations*. Retrieved August 17, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/sib/egm'07/documents/reportfinal.pdf>

The document summarizes the outcome of the Expert Meeting in Creating an Inclusive Society and contains concrete policy recommendations on various dimensions of social inclusion. The paper includes general recommendations, specific policy recommendations at national and sub-national levels, specific recommendations on measuring social inclusion and recommendations for fragile or post-conflict societies. Additionally, the most challenging obstacles for social inclusion are presented as well as the most productive mechanisms to overcome these. The report focuses on measurement issues as well.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2008). *Report of the Expert Group Meeting: Promoting Social Integration*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from:

http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/social/meetings/egm6_social_integration/documents/egm6.report.pdf

This report of the expert group meeting is very suitable for getting a detailed overview of the topic social inclusion. The report contains in depth and extensive policy recommendations including definitions, current trends and approaches for monitoring the progress of social inclusion. Moreover, through this source Delegates may gain a valuable insight into the leading experts' view on the topic, which might serve as a guideline in order to achieve similarly professional results at the conference.

United Nations Development Programme. (2006). *Poverty, Unemployment and Social Exclusion*. 2006. Zagreb: Author. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from:

<http://www.undp.hr/upload/file/104/52080/FILENAME/Poverty,%20Unemployment%20and%20Social%20Exclusion.pdf>

Besides a very good introduction to several concepts of social inclusion, this regional study is helpful in understanding the relevance of social inclusion for development. The study is motivated by Croatia's accession to the EU and thus demonstrates the experience in this country including causes and policies. In particular, the links between unemployment, education and poverty are analysed in-depth. The study concludes with recommendations for systematic monitoring of social exclusion and raises awareness for social discrimination.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Development Account Project on Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion*. Retrieved August 24, 2010 from: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/hds/development%5Faccount/>

This Web site presents a new project launched by ESCAP in order to provide policy support to Member States enhancing the investment in social inclusion. The project itself is described in the introduction to the topic. The links provided on the upper right of this Web site are helpful as a learning experience to get an idea how much preparatory work is invested within ESCAP to establish such a project.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2010). *Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific: Sustaining Recovery and Dynamism for Inclusive Development*. Bangkok: Author. Retrieved on August 15, from: <http://www.unescap.org/pdd/publications/survey2010/download/index.asp>

This survey is highly relevant for delegates. It is the most current compilation of analyses of the impact of the recent global financial crisis on the most vulnerable in Asia-Pacific. The survey encompasses the sub-regional level policies and how to cope with the impact of the financial crisis in order to prevent further social exclusion. It also provides a framework for cooperative action within the region. Therefore, it is very useful for research in order to identify major problems and develop future strategies for social inclusion.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2001). *Working Towards Social Integration in the ESCAP Region: Social Policy Paper No. 3*. Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: <http://www.unescap.org/esid/psis/publications/spps/03/2169.pdf>

Since the approaches to social integration in the context of the Copenhagen Declaration and of the Agenda for Action on Social Development changed over time such as the role of government and civil society as well as the consideration of a wider range of factors like conflicts and the spread of HIV, the paper analysis the changing issues and indicates current trends. Based on this analysis reflecting the implications for specific social groups, the policy options given pivot around an enabling environment, good governance, capacity-building, partnerships, and regional support.

United Nations General Assembly. (2009). *Report of the Secretary-General: Follow-up to the implementation of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly (A/64/157)*. Retrieved July 28, 2010 from: <http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=A/64/157>

In addition to the Chairperson's Summary, this report provides a substantive overview of the discussions during the 47th session of the Commission for Social Development. It has been produced according to the General Assembly resolution 63/152 on "the implementation of the outcome of the World Summit for Social Development and of the twenty-fourth special session of the General Assembly. Particularly, it examines the effects of the current global crisis on the cohesion of societies and presents strategies to promote social integration in the sense of policy making. It also establishes the relations between social inclusion and poverty eradication as well as employment. The understanding of the latter is crucial for suggesting policy recommendations in the committee.

Wiman, R. (2009). Social Integration: The Role of Social Policy. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 33-35.

Recognizing an increased level of risks and vulnerabilities to developing societies favouring social disintegration Wiman campaigns for effective strategies aimed at social inclusion as well as a human-centred approach defining people rather than abstract economies as the agents of action. The paper is a short but good summary of the current debate about social inclusion.

World Bank. (1993). *The East Asian Miracle: Economic Growth and Public Policy*. Retrieved October 17, 2010 from: http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/main?pagePK=64193027&piPK=64187937&theSitePK=523679&menuPK=64187510&searchMenuPK=64187283&theSitePK=523679&entityID=000009265_3970716142516&searchMenuPK=64187283&theSitePK=523679.

This World Bank report presents the "Asian Miracle", meaning the spectacular economic performance of Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, Singapore,

Taiwan, and Thailand since the 1970s. The report underlines an improvement in human welfare due to the economic success. While the “Asian Miracle” often is interpreted as the successful outcome of the International Financial Institutions’ neoliberal policy recommendations, today the concept is challenged and claimed to be a myth by the economists such as Paul Krugman.

Zelenev, S. (2009). Social Integration in a Contemporary World. *Global Social Policy*, 9 (1), 6-9. *Zelenev presents a theoretical view of social inclusion and elucidates the results of the World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen (1995). Furthermore the author concentrates on the process towards an inclusive society and names challenges for policy makers. The paper is suitable for more detailed considerations at an advanced point in time in the research and preparation process for NMUN 2011.*

III. Achieving Energy Security through Energy Security

Environment and Development Division. (2008). *Energy Security and Sustainable Development in Asia and the Pacific*. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

This book provides a deep detailed analysis about the situation regarding energy in Asia and the Pacific. The Environment and Development Division of the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific developed a profound study about the possibilities of achieving energy security in the region analyzing the capability of investment, infrastructure and its benefits that this region has. It also suggests measures and policies to be taken in the future regarding these issues examining the potential of energy diversity in Asia and the Pacific. In addition it provides tables; examples and regimes that help understand the framework around the topic and its promises towards the region.

Sáez, L. (2007). U.S. Policy and Energy Security in South Asia: Economic Prospects and Implications. *Asian Survey*, Vol. XLVII, No. 4.

The author portrays an interesting perspective from the United States towards South Asia regarding energy security. This chapter shows the different implications that energy security may have in this important part of the region evaluating the potential of this zone to achieve the goal, achievements until now and the future challenges. Furthermore, it analyzes the different energy sources that this sub-region contains and offers its prospect for the future of energy security, particularly new types of energy.

Heyzer, N. (2008). *Asia and the Pacific need to rethink Energy Security*. Editorial Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.

Dr. Noeleen Heyzer is the Executive Secretary for the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific as well as a United Nations Under Secretary-General, and in this editorial she presents her perception about the Energy issue in the region as well as the changes that she suggest should occur in the future. The editorial pinpoints the areas of effective action according to the author where solutions can take place. Finally, the article provides fundamental facts to consider prior to taking action on this topic in the future.

Energy Security Section. (2010) *United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*. Retrieved on July 29, 2010 from <http://www.unescap.org/esd/energy/>

This web page deals with all the information concerning the Energy Security Framework inside the UNESCAP. It contains mandates such as the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation or the Seoul Initiative. In addition, it has different official documents from the Commission that have been developed as regional policies and measures towards a secure energy structure. Finally, it touches different sub-topics inside energy security such as energy efficiency, energy trade and cooperation, and most important energy diversity.

Asian Energy Security. (2010). *Nautilus Institute for Security and Sustainability*. Retrieved on July 28, 2010 from <http://www.nautilus.org/projects/asian-energy-security/asian-energy-security/>

The Asian Energy Security is a project that promotes collaborative research between several countries in the region. This research is directed towards the creation of national and regional approaches to achieve energy security. This web page includes information on the advances that this project has accomplished and the annual plans that it has developed throughout the years. This site scrutinizes the different measures and projects inside various countries that have made relevant progress in terms of energy security and energy diversity.

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2008). *Annual Report*. New York: Economic and Social Council.

The 2008 Annual Report contains important information regarding energy security. Fundamental mandates in relation to this topic, such as Resolution 64/3, is published in this report, portraying the exact resolution passed in the 64th ESCAP session in which this topic was a treated. Suggestions for addressing this topic are included in this report, which will be useful information for anyone discussing energy security.

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2005). *Report of the Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific, 2005*. Seoul: United Nations Economic and Social Council.

The ESCAP released this report on environment and development issues, with energy security as a cornerstone in addressing these issues. The Seoul Initiative, as it is known, presents relevant decisions and mandates taken by the commission to address the subject. This initiative is one of the most important documents to read in order to understand the ESCAP actions regarding this topic.

World Summit on Sustainable Development. (2003). *Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development*. Johannesburg.

This document is better known as the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation. This plan contains new perspectives on ways to achieve energy security and suggestions for countries to gain sustainable development through several measures; one of them is energy security and energy diversity. This document argues for global action regarding development, giving priority to energy and scheming a global action plan to achieve sustainability.

REN 21. (2007). *Renewables 2007: Global Status Report*. Renewable Energy Policy Network for the 21st Century. Paris: Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH.

The Renewable Energy Policy Network makes an annual report on its activities, including perspectives on the future, backed by studies and professional support. The most relevant section for the topic is the policies that could be applied in countries to advance renewable energy, and as a result, achieve energy diversity. It projects a global perspective of markets, industries and policies among others.

International Energy Agency. (2007). *World Energy Outlook 2007: China and India Insights*. International Energy Agency.

China and India are the growing super powers in the ESCAP region, and energy is necessary for their long-term development. This document provides an overview on how these countries utilize energy with a profound analysis of their resources, policies and statistics. It points out successful policies made by these two countries which can give a guide for other countries to implement measures in order to achieve energy security as well as diversity.

Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development. (2007) *OECD Environmental Performance Reviews: China*. OECD Publishing.

As important as China is for the new world economic order, the environment has come to be an essential matter in this country, and energy the path to save to success. In this regard, the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development makes an exhaustive analysis of China's situation with their needs and policies taken. It also provides facts on the energy potential of the country and possible use of this energy to meet the region's needs.

Rules of Procedure Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

Introduction

1. These rules shall be the only rules which apply to the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (hereinafter referred to as “the Commission”) and shall be considered adopted by the Commission prior to its first meeting.
2. For purposes of these rules, the Plenary Director, the Assistant Director(s), the Under-Secretaries-General, and the Assistant Secretaries-General, are designates and agents of the Secretary-General and Director-General, and are collectively referred to as the “Secretariat.”
3. Interpretation of the rules shall be reserved exclusively to the Director-General or her or his designate. Such interpretation shall be in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the National Model United Nations and in furtherance of the educational mission of that organization.
4. For the purposes of these rules, “President” shall refer to the chairperson or acting chairperson of the commission.

I. SESSIONS

Rule 1 - *Dates of convening and adjournment*

The commission shall meet every year in regular session, commencing and closing on the dates designated by the Secretary-General.

Rule 2 - *Place of sessions*

The Commission shall meet at a location designated by the Secretary-General.

II. AGENDA

Rule 3 - *Provisional agenda*

The provisional agenda shall be drawn up by the Secretary-General and communicated to the Members of the Commission at least sixty days before the opening of the session.

Rule 4 - *Adoption of the agenda*

The agenda provided by the Secretary-General shall be considered adopted as of the beginning of the session. The order of the agenda items shall be determined by a majority vote of those present and voting. Items on the agenda may be amended or deleted by the Commission by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting.

The vote described in this rule is a procedural vote and, as such, observers are permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, —those present and voting¹ means those delegates, including observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to a vote.

Rule 5 - *Revision of the agenda*

During a session, the Commission may revise the agenda by adding, deleting, deferring or amending items. Only important and urgent items shall be added to the agenda during a session. Permission to speak on a motion to revise the agenda shall be accorded only to three representatives in favor of, and three opposed to, the revision. Additional items of an important and urgent character, proposed for inclusion in the agenda less than thirty days before the opening of a session, may be placed on the agenda if the Commission so decides by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. No additional item may, unless the Commission decides otherwise by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting, be considered until a committee has reported on the question concerned.

For purposes of this rule, the determination of an item of an —important and urgent character¹ is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final. If an item is determined to be of such a character, then it requires a two-thirds vote of the Commission to be placed on the agenda. It will, however, not be considered by the Commission until a committee has reported on the question. The votes described in this rule are substantive vote, and, as such, observers are not permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, —the members present and

voting — means members (not including observers) in attendance at the session during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 6 - Explanatory memorandum

Any item proposed for inclusion in the agenda shall be accompanied by an explanatory memorandum and, if possible, by basic documents.

III. SECRETARIAT

Rule 7 - Duties of the Secretary-General

1. The Secretary-General or her/his designate shall act in this capacity in all meetings of the Commission.
2. The Secretary-General shall provide and direct the staff required by the Commission and be responsible for all the arrangements that may be necessary for its meetings.

Rule 8 - Duties of the Secretariat

The Secretariat shall receive, print, and distribute documents, reports, and resolutions of the Commission, and shall distribute documents of the Commission to the Members, and generally perform all other work which the Commission may require.

Rule 9 - Statements by the Secretariat

The Secretary-General, or her/his representative, may make oral as well as written statements to the Commission concerning any question under consideration.

Rule 10 - Selection of the President The Secretary-General or her/his designate shall appoint, from applications received by the Secretariat, a President who shall hold office and, *inter alia*, chair the Commission for the duration of the session, unless otherwise decided by the Secretary-General.

Rule 11 - Replacement of the President If the President is unable to perform her/his functions, a new President shall be appointed for the unexpired term at the discretion of the Secretary-General.

IV. LANGUAGE

Rule 12 - Official and working language

English shall be the official and working language of the Commission.

Rule 13 - Interpretation (oral) or translation (written)

Any representative wishing to address any body or submit a document in a language other than English shall provide interpretation or translation into English.

This rule does not affect the total speaking time allotted to those representatives wishing to address the body in a language other than English. As such, both the speech and the interpretation must be within the set time limit.

V. CONDUCT OF BUSINESS

Rule 14 – Quorum

The President may declare a meeting open and permit debate to proceed when representatives of at least one third of the members of the Commission are present. The presence of representatives of a majority of the members of the Commission shall be required for any decision to be taken.

For purposes of this rule, —members of the Commission means the total number of members (not including observers) in attendance at the first night's meeting.

Rule 15 - General powers of the President

In addition to exercising the powers conferred upon him or her elsewhere by these rules, the President shall declare the opening and closing of each meeting of the Commission, direct the discussions, ensure observance of these rules, accord the right to speak, put questions to the vote and announce decisions. The President, subject to these rules, shall have complete control of the proceedings of the Commission and over the maintenance of order at its meetings. He or she shall rule on points of order. He or she may propose to the Commission the closure of the list of speakers, a limitation on the time to be allowed to speakers and on the number of times the representative of each member may speak on an item, the adjournment or closure of the debate, and the suspension or adjournment of a meeting.

Included in these enumerated powers is the President's power to assign speaking times for all speeches incidental to motions and amendment. Further, the President is to use her/his discretion, upon the advice and at the consent of the Secretariat, to determine whether to entertain a particular motion based on the philosophy and principles of the NMUN. Such discretion should be used on a limited basis and only under circumstances where it is necessary to advance the educational mission of the Conference. For purposes of this rule, the President's power to —propose to the Commission entails her/his power to —entertain motions, and not to move the body on his or her own motion.

Rule 16

The President, in the exercise of her or his functions, remains under the authority of the Commission.

Rule 17 - Points of order

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may rise to a point of order, which shall be decided immediately by the President. Any appeal of the decision of the President shall be immediately put to a vote, and the ruling of the President shall stand unless overruled by a majority of the members present and voting.

Such points of order should not under any circumstances interrupt the speech of a fellow representative. Any questions on order arising during a speech made by a representative should be raised at the conclusion of the speech, or can be addressed by the President, sua sponte, during the speech. For purposes of this rule, —the members present and voting mean those members (not including observers) in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 18

A representative may not, in rising to a point of order, speak on the substance of the matter under discussion.

Rule 19 - Speeches

1. No one may address the Commission without having previously obtained the permission of the President. The President shall call upon speakers in the order in which they signify their desire to speak.
2. Debate shall be confined to the question before the Commission, and the President may call a speaker to order if her/his remarks are not relevant to the subject under discussion.
3. The Commission may limit the time allowed to speakers and all representatives may speak on any question. Permission to speak on a motion to set such limits shall be accorded only to two representatives favoring and two opposing such limits, after which the motion shall be put to the vote immediately. When debate is limited and a speaker exceeds the allotted time, the President shall call her or him to order without delay.

In line with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN, in furtherance of its educational mission, and for the purpose of facilitating debate, if the President determines that the Commission in large part does not want to deviate from the limits to the speaker's time as it is then set, and that any additional motions will not be well received by the body, the President, in her/his discretion, and on the advice and consent of the Secretariat, may rule as dilatory any additional motions to change the limits of the speaker's time.

Rule 20 - Closing of list of speakers

Members may only be on the list of speakers once but may be added again after having spoken. During the course of a debate the President may announce the list of speakers and, with the consent of the Commission, declare the list closed. When there are no more speakers, the President shall declare the debate closed. Such closure shall have the same effect as closure by decision of the Commission.

The decision to announce the list of speakers is within the discretion of the President and should not be the subject of a motion by the Commission. A motion to close the speakers list is within the purview of the Commission and the President should not act on her/his own motion.

Rule 21 - Right of reply

If a remark impugns the integrity of a representative's State, the President may permit that representative to exercise her/his right of reply following the conclusion of the controversial speech, and shall determine an appropriate time limit for the reply. No ruling on this question shall be subject to appeal.

For purposes of this rule, a remark that —impugns the integrity of a representative's State is one directed at the governing authority of that State and/or one that puts into question that State's sovereignty or a portion thereof. All interventions in the exercise of the right of reply shall be addressed in writing to the Secretariat and shall not be raised as a point of order or motion. The reply shall be read to the Commission by the representative only upon approval of the Secretariat, and in no case after voting has concluded on all matters relating to the agenda topic, during the discussion of which, the right arose.

Rule 22 - Suspension of the meeting

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move the suspension of the meeting, specifying a time for reconvening. Such motions shall not be debated but shall be put to a vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass.

Rule 23 - Adjournment of the meeting

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move the adjournment of the meeting. Such motions shall not be debated but shall be put to the vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. After adjournment, the Commission shall reconvene at its next regularly scheduled meeting time.

As this motion, if successful, would end the meeting until the Commission's next regularly scheduled session the following year, and in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN and in furtherance of its educational mission, the President will not entertain such a motion until the end of the last meeting of the Commission.

Rule 24 - Adjournment of debate

A representative may at any time move the adjournment of debate on the topic under discussion. Permission to speak on the motion shall be accorded to two representatives favoring and two opposing adjournment, after which the motion shall be put to a vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. If a motion for adjournment passes, the topic is considered dismissed and no action will be taken on it.

Rule 25 - Closure of debate

A representative may at any time move the closure of debate on the item under discussion, whether or not any other representative has signified her/his wish to speak. Permission to speak on the motion shall be accorded only to two representatives opposing the closure, after which the motion shall be put to the vote immediately. Closure of debate shall require a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. If the Commission favors the closure of debate, the Commission shall immediately move to vote on all proposals introduced under that agenda item.

Rule 26 - Order of motions Subject to rule 23, the motions indicated below shall have precedence in the following order over all proposals or other motions before the meeting:

- a) To suspend the meeting;
- b) To adjourn the meeting;
- c) To adjourn the debate on the item under discussion;
- d) To close the debate on the item under discussion.

Rule 27 - Proposals and amendments

Proposals and substantive amendments shall normally be submitted in writing to the Secretariat, with the names of twenty percent of the members of the Commission who would like the Commission to consider the proposal or amendment. The Secretariat may, at its discretion, approve the proposal or amendment for circulation among the

delegations. As a general rule, no proposal shall be put to the vote at any meeting of the Commission unless copies of it have been circulated to all delegations. The President may, however, permit the discussion and consideration of amendments or of motions as to procedure, even though such amendments and motions have not been circulated. If the sponsors agree to the adoption of a proposed amendment, the proposal shall be modified accordingly and no vote shall be taken on the proposed amendment. A document modified in this manner shall be considered as the proposal pending before the Commission for all purposes, including subsequent amendments.

For purposes of this rule, all —proposals shall be in the form of working papers prior to their approval by the Secretariat. Working papers will not be copied, or in any other way distributed, to the Commission by the Secretariat. The distribution of such working papers is solely the responsibility of the sponsors of the working papers. Along these lines, and in furtherance of the philosophy and principles of the NMUN and for the purpose of advancing its educational mission, representatives should not directly refer to the substance of a working paper that has not yet been accepted as a draft resolution. After approval of a working paper, the proposal becomes a draft resolution and will be copied by the Secretariat for distribution to the Commission. These draft resolutions are the collective property of the Commission and, as such, the names of the original sponsors will be removed. The copying and distribution of amendments is at the discretion of the Secretariat, but the substance of all such amendments will be made available to all representatives in some form.

Rule 28 - Withdrawal of motions

A proposal or a motion may be withdrawn by its sponsor at any time before voting has commenced, provided that it has not been amended. A motion thus withdrawn may be reintroduced by any representative.

Rule 29 - Reconsideration of a topic

When a topic has been adjourned, it may not be reconsidered at the same session unless the Commission, by a two-thirds majority of those present and voting, so decides. Reconsideration can only be moved by a representative who voted on the prevailing side of the original motion to adjourn. Permission to speak on a motion to reconsider shall be accorded only to two speakers opposing the motion, after which it shall be put to the vote immediately.

For purposes of this rule, —those present and voting means those representatives, including observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion is voted upon by the body.

VI. VOTING

Rule 30 - Voting rights

Each member of the Commission shall have one vote.

This rule applies to substantive voting on amendments, draft resolutions, and portions of draft resolutions divided out by motion. As such, all references to —member(s) do not include observers, who are not permitted to cast votes on substantive matters.

Rule 31 - Request for a vote

A proposal or motion before the Commission for decision shall be voted upon if any member so requests. Where no member requests a vote, the Commission may adopt proposals or motions without a vote.

For purposes of this rule, —proposal means any draft resolution, an amendment thereto, or a portion of a draft resolution divided out by motion. Just prior to a vote on a particular proposal or motion, the President may ask if there are any objections to passing the proposal or motion by acclamation, or a member may move to accept the proposal or motion by acclamation. If there are no objections to the proposal or motion, then it is adopted without a vote.

Rule 32 - Majority required

1. Unless specified otherwise in these rules, decisions of the Assembly shall be made by a majority of the members present and voting.
2. For the purpose of tabulation, the phrase “members present and voting” means members casting an affirmative or negative vote. Members which abstain from voting are considered as not voting.

All members declaring their representative States as “present and voting” during the attendance roll call for the meeting during which the substantive voting occurs, must cast an affirmative or negative vote, and cannot abstain.

Rule 33 - Method of voting

1. The Commission shall normally vote by a show of placards, except that a representative may request a roll call, which shall be taken in the English alphabetical order of the names of the members, beginning with the member whose name is randomly selected by the President. The name of each present member shall be called in any roll call, and one of its representatives shall reply “yes,” “no,” “abstention,” or “pass.”

Only those members who designate themselves as —present‖ or —present and voting‖ during the attendance roll call, or in some other manner communicate their attendance to the President and/or Secretariat, are permitted to vote and, as such, no others will be called during a roll-call vote. Any representatives replying —pass,‖ must, on the second time through, respond with either —yes‖ or —no.‖ A —pass‖ cannot be followed by a second —pass‖ for the same proposal or amendment, nor can it be followed by an abstention on that same proposal or amendment.

2. When the Commission votes by mechanical means, a non-recorded vote shall replace a vote by show of placards and a recorded vote shall replace a roll-call vote. A representative may request a recorded vote. In the case of a recorded vote, the Commission shall dispense with the procedure of calling out the names of the members.
3. The vote of each member participating in a roll call or a recorded vote shall be inserted in the record.

Rule 34 - Explanations of vote

Representatives may make brief statements consisting solely of explanation of their votes after the voting has been completed. The representatives of a member sponsoring a proposal or motion shall not speak in explanation of vote thereon, except if it has been amended, and the member has voted against the proposal or motion.

All explanations of vote must be submitted to the President in writing before debate on the topic is closed, except where the representative is of a member sponsoring the proposal, as described in the second clause, in which case the explanation of vote must be submitted to the President in writing immediately after voting on the topic ends.

Rule 35 - Conduct during voting

After the President has announced the commencement of voting, no representatives shall interrupt the voting except on a point of order in connection with the actual process of voting.

Rule 36 - Division of proposals and amendments

Immediately before a proposal or amendment comes to a vote, a representative may move that parts of a proposal or of an amendment should be voted on separately. If there are calls for multiple divisions, those shall be voted upon in an order to be set by the President where the most radical division will be voted upon first. If objection is made to the motion for division, the request for division shall be voted upon, requiring the support of a majority of those present and voting to pass. Permission to speak on the motion for division shall be given only to two speakers in favor and two speakers against. If the motion for division is carried, those parts of the proposal or of the amendment which are involved shall then be put to a vote. If all operative parts of the proposal or of the amendment have been rejected, the proposal or the amendment shall be considered to have been rejected as a whole.

For purposes of this rule, —most radical division‖ means the division that will remove the greatest substance from the draft resolution, but not necessarily the one that will remove the most words or clauses. The determination of which division is —most radical‖ is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final.

Rule 37 - Amendments

An amendment is a proposal that does no more than add to, delete from, or revise part of another proposal.

An amendment can add, amend, or delete operative clauses, but cannot in any manner add, amend, delete, or otherwise affect perambulatory clauses.

Rule 38 - Order of voting on amendments

When an amendment is moved to a proposal, the amendment shall be voted on first. When two or more amendments are moved to a proposal, the amendment furthest removed in substance from the original proposal shall be voted on first and then the amendment next furthest removed there from, and so on until all the amendments have been put to the vote. Where, however, the adoption of one amendment necessarily implies the rejection of another amendment, the latter shall not be put to the vote. If one or more amendments are adopted, the amended proposal shall then be voted on.

For purposes of this rule, —furthest removed in substance means the amendment that will have the most significant impact on the draft resolution. The determination of which amendment is —furthest removed in substance is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final.

Rule 39 - Order of voting on proposals

If two or more proposals, other than amendments, relate to the same question, they shall, unless the Commission decides otherwise, be voted on in the order in which they were submitted.

Rule 40 - The President shall not vote

The President shall not vote but may designate another member of her/his delegation to vote in her/his place.

VII. CREDENTIALS

Rule 41 - Credentials

The credentials of representatives and the names of members of a delegation shall be submitted to the Secretary-General prior to the opening of a session.

Rule 42

The Commission shall be bound by the actions of the General Assembly in all credentials matters and shall take no action regarding the credentials of any member.

VII. PARTICIPATION OF NON-MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION

Rule 43 - Participation of non-Member States

1. The Commission shall invite any Member of the United Nations that is not a member of the Commission and any other State, to participate in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that State.
2. A committee or sessional body of the Commission shall invite any State that is not one of its own members to participate in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that State.
3. A State thus invited shall not have the right to vote, but may submit proposals which may be put to the vote on request of any member of the body concerned.

If the Commission considers that the presence of a Member invited according to this rule is no longer necessary, it may withdraw the invitation again. Delegates invited to the Commission according to this rule should also keep in mind their role and obligations in the committee that they were originally assigned to. For educational purposes of the NMUN Conference, the Secretariat may thus ask a delegate to return to his or her committee when his or her presence in the Commission is no longer required.

Rule 45 - Participation of national liberation movements

The Commission may invite any national liberation movement recognized by the General Assembly to participate, without the right to vote, in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that movement.

Rule 46 - Participation of and consultation with specialized agencies

In accordance with the agreements concluded between the United Nations and the specialized agencies, the specialized agencies shall be entitled: a) To be represented at meetings of the Commission and its subsidiary organs; b) To participate, without the right to vote, through their representatives, in deliberations with respect to items of concern to them and to submit proposals regarding such items, which may be put to the vote at the request of any member of the Commission or of the subsidiary organ concerned.

Rule 47 - Participation of non-governmental organization and intergovernmental organizations

Representatives of non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations accorded consultative observer status by the General Assembly and other non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations designated on an ad hoc or a continuing basis by the Commission on the recommendation of the Bureau, may participate, with the procedural right to vote, but not the substantive right to vote, in the deliberations of the Commission on questions within the scope of the activities of the organizations.