NMUN • NY

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION EXECUTIVE BOARD
BACKGROUND GUIDE 2012

Written By: Kristina Getty, Meg Martin, Katrena Porter, Rafael Corral

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NATIONAL COLLEGIATE CONFERENCE association™

1 - 5 April 2012 - Sheraton
3 - 7 April 2012 - Marriott

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•NY 2012 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 2012	• Confirm Attendance & Delegate Count. (Count may be changed up to 1 March) • Make Transportation Arrangements - DON'T FORGET! (We recommend confirming hotel accommodations prior to booking flights.)
15 February 2012	• Committee Updates Posted to www.nmun.org
1 March 2012	• Hotel Registration with FULL PRE-PAYMENT Due to Hotel - Register Early! 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. • 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. ($125 per delegate if paid by 1 March; $150 per delegate if receved after 1 March. Fee is not refundable after this deadline. • Two Copies of Each Position Paper Due via E-mail (See Delegate Preparation Guide for instructions).
NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS 2012	1 - 5 April – Sheraton New York 3 - 7 April - New York Marriott Marquis The 2013 National Model UN Conference 17 - 21 March & 24 - 28 March (both at Sheraton; Sun-Thurs)

Two copies of each position paper should be sent via e-mail by 1 MARCH 2012

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 1 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

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Commission on Narcotic Drugs	cnd.sheraton@nmun.org
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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
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THE 2012 NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

SPONSORED BY THE NATIONAL COLLEGIATE CONFERENCE ASSOCIATION
1 – 5 April (Sheraton) & 3 – 7 April (Marriott)   •   www.nmun.org

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Dear Delegates,

We are pleased to welcome you to the 2012 National Model United Nations (NMUN) and the United Nations Educational, Social, and Cultural Organization Executive Board (UNESCO EB). This year the UNESCO EB is staffed by Directors Meg Martin and Kristina Getty and Assistant Directors Rafael Corral and Katrena Porter. Meg Martin, Director at the Marriott venue, completed an Honors Degree in Political Science and English Literature at the University of Calgary. This is her sixth year on staff. She currently works in student affairs at the University of Calgary. Rafael Corral, Assistant Director at the Marriott venue, is pursuing a Bachelor of Arts degree in International Relations, with minors in Human Rights and Political Science at Universidad San Francisco de Quito. This is his first year on staff, and he currently teaches Model United Nations at a private high school. Kristina Getty, Director at the Sheraton venue, is currently completing a Master of Arts degree in International Studies at the University of Denver and works as a Program Associate for a local nonprofit. This is her third year on staff. Katrena Porter is a senior Anthropology undergraduate student at the University of New Orleans. This is her first year on staff. She intends to go to graduate school to study food policy in the fall. On staff we will be your first point of contact before the conference for any questions or concerns you may have. At the conference, we will facilitate all committee proceedings and it is our hope that you will find your time in New York to be a challenging and enriching educational experience.

UNESCO is a unique, highly-specialized body with the United Nation's system. The body is fundamentally academic in nature. Its mandate tasks the committee with promoting and creating consensus on important social and cultural pressing concerns on diverse issues ranging from cultural heritage to scientific developments. The Executive Board has the responsibility of focusing the workings of the UNESCO General Committee. As such, it is made up of only a limited subset of all Member States participating in UNESCO. The topics under discussing for the UNESCO Executive Board are as follows:

1. Bioethics and the Human Genome
2. World Heritage Sites: Balancing Tourism and Ensuring Preservation
3. Empowering Citizens through Universal Access to Information

The background guide serves only as a brief introduction to the three topics listed. It is not meant to replace individual and further in-depth research on not only the topics, but also your country's position on each topic. As such, we encourage you to thoroughly read the background guide and use it as a tool to focus and develop your own knowledge.

Each delegation, in order to fully participate in the conference is required to submit a position paper. Position papers are due via e-mail by March 1, 2012. Please refer to the Delegate Preparation Guide for details as to how to write and submit your position paper properly. Because these position papers form the basis of your substantive work in the committee, we have very high expectations for their quality and content. It is our belief that the more prepared you are in advance of the conference, the more rewarding and enjoyable your experience will be.

In an effort to keep our committee sustainable, we would encourage you to bring a USB drive as all working paper drafts will be submitted and edited electronically. If you have any questions regarding preparation, please feel free to contact any of the UNESCO EB substantive staff through our official nmun.org email address or the Under-Secretary General for the Department of Specialized Agencies, Cyril Philip (Sheraton) or Daniel Leyva (Marriott).

Sincerely,

Sheraton Venue	Marriott Venue
Kristina Getty	Meg Martin
Director	Director
Katrena Porter	Rafael Corral
Assistant Director	Assistant Director
unesco.sheraton@nmun.org	unesco.marriott@nmun.org

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

At the 2012 NMUN New York Conference, each delegation submits one position paper for each committee to which it is assigned. Delegates should be aware that their role in each committee affects 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 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 should establish precise policies and recommendations about 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 entirely original material. ***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 it 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 one 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 format <u>required</u>) **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, 2011. 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 1, 2012 (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 Amanda D'Amico, Director-General, Sheraton venue, or Nicholas Warino, 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 it 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	*Marriott Venue*
Amanda D'Amico	Nicholas Warino
Director-General	Director-General
damico@nmun.org	nick@nmun.org

Position Paper for the General Assembly Plenary

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

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

The principles of equal sovereignty of states and non-interference, as laid down in the Charter of the United Nations, have always been cornerstones of Mexican foreign policy. The legitimate right to interfere by the use of coercive measures, such as economic sanctions, is laid down in Article 41 of the UN-charter and reserves the right to the Security Council.
Concerning the violation of this principle by the application of unilateral measures outside the framework of the United Nations, H.E. Ambassador to the United Nations Enrique Berruga Filloy underlined in 2005 that the Mexico strongly rejects "the application of unilateral laws and measures of economic blockade against any State, as well as the implementation of coercive measures without the authorization enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations." That is the reason, why the United Mexican States supported – for the 14th consecutive time – Resolution (A/RES/60/12) of 2006 regarding the *Necessity of ending the economic, commercial and financial embargo imposed by the United States of America against Cuba*.
In the 1990s, comprehensive economic sanctions found several applications with very mixed results, which made a critical reassessment indispensable. The United Mexican States fully supported and actively participated in the "Stockholm Process" that focused on increasing the effectiveness in the implementation of targeted sanctions. As sanctions and especially economic sanctions, pose a tool for action "between words and war" they must be regarded as a mean of last resort before war and fulfill highest requirements for their legitimate use. The United Mexican States and their partners of the "Group of Friends of the U.N. Reform" have already addressed and formulated recommendations for that take former criticism into account. Regarding the design of economic sanctions it is indispensable for the success to have the constant support by all member states and public opinion, which is to a large degree dependent the humanitarian effects of economic sanctions. Sanctions must be tailor-made, designed to effectively target the government, while sparing to the largest degree possible the civil population. Sanction regimes must be constantly monitored and evaluated to enable the world-community to adjust their actions to the needs of the unforeseeably changing situation. Additionally, the United Mexican States propose to increase communication between the existing sanction committees and thus their effectiveness by convening regular meetings of the chairs of the sanction committees on questions of common interest. An example is the case of negative spill-over effects of economic sanctions on neighboring countries, in which affected countries additionally need to be enabled to voice their problems more effectively, as addressed in the resolution *Implementation of the provisions of the Charter of the United Nations related to assistance to third States affected by the application of sanctions* (A/RES/54/107). Non-state actors have in the last years tremendously grown in their political importance, especially with regard to the international fight against terrorism. Their position and the possibilities of the application of economic sanction on non-state actors is another topic that urgently needs to be considered.

II. Democracy and Human Rights in Post-Conflict Regions

As a founding member of the United Nations, Mexico is highly engaged in the Promotion of Democracy and Human Rights all over the world, as laid down in the *Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR)* in 1948. Especially since the democratic transition of Mexico in 2000 it is one of the most urgent topics to stand for Democratization and Human Rights, and Mexico implements this vision on many different fronts.
In the Convoking Group of the intergovernmental Community of Democracies (GC), the United Mexican States uphold an approach that fosters international cooperation to promote democratic values and institution-building at the national and international level. To emphasize the strong interrelation between human rights and the building of democracy and to fortify democratic developments are further challenges Mexico deals with in this committee. A key-factor for the sustainable development of a post-conflict-region is to hold free and fair election and thus creating a democratic system. Being aware of the need of post-conflict countries for support in the preparation of democratic elections, the United Mexican States contribute since 2001 to the work of the International Institute for Democracy

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Committee History

Introduction

The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) whose purpose, according to its founding constitution, "is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science, and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations."[1] The UNESCO Executive Board plays a vital role in directing the agency's work by reviewing its programing and budget estimates in order to achieve the body's goals.[2] The major themes of UNESCO are education, natural sciences, social and human sciences, culture, and communication information.[3] Membership in the UN grants automatic membership to UNESCO, which constitutes participation in its biennial General Conference, while Executive Board members rotate and serve four-year terms.[4] As such, the General Conference debates and defines the policies and focuses of the organization through acceptance, revision, and inspection of the biennial program and budget, which the Executive Board assists the Director General in developing.[5]

Among its goals, two of UNESCO's current primary concerns are working towards gender equality and supporting the economic and social development of Africa.[6] UNESCO is also renowned for its foundation of World Heritage Sites, of which there are now 936.[7] More broadly, one of UNESCO's overarching objectives is to use its specialties in education, science, and culture to work towards achieving the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).[8] These goals reflect the overall focus of the UN and also directly align with many of UNESCO's programs such as to achieve universal education, promote gender equality, work towards environmental sustainability, and seek global partnership on development.[9] Ultimately, working together, the UNESCO Executive Board, General Conference, and Director General are able to develop policies and programs that contribute to achieving these goals, and they must continue to direct their current efforts towards countless contested educational, scientific, and cultural issues. Specifically, the Executive Board must take the lead in determining exactly what ought to be debated and how UNESCO's limited funding should best be spent.

History and Defining Documents

UNESCO is one of the main subsidiaries of the United Nations, and it was preceded by the International Committee of Intellectual Co-Operation (CICI), its agency the International Institute of Intellectual Co-Operation (IICI), and the International Bureau of Education (IBE); the latter was incorporated into UNESCO in 1968.[10] In November of 1945, a proposal was made by the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education (CAME) to found a UN organization which would focus on education and culture.[11] When CAME ended, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization had been established and founded by 37 countries.[12] On November 16, 1945, the Constitution of UNESCO was written and signed in London; however, it was not officially ratified until almost a year later on November 4, 1946, when twenty countries adopted it.[13] The first General Conference of UNESCO was held from November 19 to December 10, 1946, after twenty countries endorsed the Constitution.[14]
Several defining documents have shaped UNESCO, and in turn, those documents fundamentally aided in transforming the United Nations. For example, on November 27, 1978, UNESCO adopted the Declaration on Race

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[1] UNESCO, *UNESCO Constitution*, 1945, Article 1: Section 1.
[2] UNESCO, *Executive Board*, 2011.
[3] UNESCO, *Major Programmes*, 2011, Paragraph 1.
[4] UNESCO, *UNESCO Constitution*, 1945, Article 2: Section 1.
[5] UNESCO, *General Conference*, 2011, Paragraph 3.
[6] UNESCO, *UNESCO at a Glance*, 2010, p. 4.
[7] UNESCO, *World Heritage List*, 2011, Paragraph 1.
[8] UNESCO, *Introducing UNESCO*, 2011, Paragraph 2.
[9] United Nations, *Millennium Development Goals*, 2011.
[10] UNESCO, *History*, 2011, Paragraph 7.
[11] UNESCO, *History*, 2011, Paragraph 2.
[12] UNESCO, *History*, 2011, Paragraph 3.
[13] UNESCO, *Milestones over 60 years*, 2011, Heading: 16 November 1945.
[14] UNESCO, *History*, 2011, Paragraph 3.

and Racial Prejudice.[15] This document was adopted because it reiterates the fact that human rights are sacred, which aligns with UNESCO's own Constitution.[16] In 1998, another defining document, the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights, was adopted by UNESCO, stating that "Recognizing that research on the human genome […] should fully respect human dignity, freedom and human rights, as well as the prohibition of all forms of discrimination based on genetic characteristics[...]"[17] This declaration helped lead to the United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning, which declares that cloning stands in contradiction to preserving human rights.[18] Most recently, in 2001, UNESCO adopted the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity, affirming that the General Conference is "Committed to the full implementation of the human rights and fundamental freedoms proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights[…]"[19] This document also reaffirmed that all individuals have equal human dignity and human rights as stated in the Constitution.[20] From human rights to cultural diversity, UNESCO's range of adopted documents all echo the beliefs expressed by the founders of the Constitution.[21]

Committee Structure

Internally, UNESCO is composed of several governing bodies and a secretariat that oversee its programs.[22] As stated, the Executive Board prepares the agenda of the General Conference, while making sure that it also runs smoothly.[23] It also calls for non-government conferences on education, the sciences, and humanities as long as they are in accordance with regulations adopted by the General Conference.[24] Other responsibilities include making recommendations for new Member States to be included and implementing the program that is adopted by the General Conference.[25] The Executive Board consists of 58 elected Member States who carry out four-year terms. Serving a term entails attending biannual meetings except for the General Conference year when there is an additional meeting post-conference.[26] Three months prior to any General Conference, the Director-General contacts each Member State to see if it intends to be a member of the Executive Board.[27] Candidates must notify the Secretariat of the General Conference at least 48 hours in advance of the election.[28] The election is then carried out on a secret ballot.[29] Each member of the Executive Board is allowed one vote, and most decisions can pass with a majority vote, unless specifically noted in the Rules of Procedure of the Executive Board.[30]

The General Conference and Executive Board work in collaboration with one another in order to establish and revise the policies of UNESCO.[31] The General Conference meets biennially and is attended by representatives of Member States, Associate Members, observers, intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) according to its bylaws.[32] UNESCO has 193 Member States and seven associate members who are allowed to vote in the General Conference.[33] Each Member State of the General Conference receives one vote in session, and most decisions also pass with a majority vote unless stipulated by the Rules of Procedure of the General Conference.[34] The General Conference elects a new Director-General every four years who does not hold a vote in the Conference but governs the Secretariat.[35]

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[15] UNESCO, *Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice*, 1978, Preamble, Paragraph 2.
[16] UNESCO, *UNESCO Constitution*, 1945, Article 1: Section 1.
[17] UNESCO, *The Universal Declaration of the Human Genome and Human Rights*, 1998, p. 2, Paragraph 5.
[18] United Nations, *General Assembly Adopts United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning by Vote of 84-34-37*, 2005, Paragraph 1.
[19] UNESCO, *The Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity*, 2001, p. 12, Paragraph 1.
[20] UNESCO, *UNESCO Constitution*, 1945, Article 1: Section 1.
[21] UNESCO, *Milestones over 60 years*, 2011.
[22] UNESCO, *UNESCO's Governing Bodies*, 2011.
[23] UNESCO, *UNESCO Constitution*, 1945, Article 5: Functions.
[24] UNESCO, *What are the Functions of the Executive Board?* 2011, Bullet 6.
[25] UNESCO, *What are the Functions of the Executive Board?* 2011, Bullets 2 and 4.
[26] UNESCO, *The Executive Board in Brief*, 2011, Bullets 4 and 5.
[27] UNESCO, *Executive Board*, 2011, Paragraph 6: Line 2.
[28] UNESCO, *Executive Board*, 2011, Paragraph 6: Line 3.
[29] UNESCO, *Executive Board*, 2011, Paragraph 6: Line 4.
[30] UNESCO, *Rules of Procedure of the Executive Board*, 2010, p. 19.
[31] UNESCO, *UNESCO Constitution*, 1945, Article 4: Functions.
[32] UNESCO, *General Conference*, 2011, Paragraphs 1 and 2.
[33] UNESCO, *Member States*, 2011, Paragraph 1.
[34] UNESCO, *Rules of Procedure of the General Conference*, 2010, pp. 55-59.
[35] UNESCO, *Rules of Procedure of the General Conference*, 2010, p. 39.

Current Endeavors

UNESCO's current priorities include Africa, gender equality, Education for All, sustainable development, ethics, cultural diversity, intellectual dialogue, and knowledge societies.[36] Of these, a few of the most popular topics are protecting world heritage, researching water resources, safe guarding intangible heritage, promoting press freedom, eliminating HIV/AIDs, addressing climate change, responding to post-conflict and post-crisis situations, protecting languages and fostering multilingualism, and empowering youth.[37] These topics all align with UNESCO's mission as well as the eight MDGs.[38]

UNESCO has been very active for the past sixty years and will continue to be so as all its goals will take time and dedication to be met. There are currently 21 national field offices as well as 27 cluster field offices across the world.[39] The responsibilities of these offices are to help ensure positive interaction between Member States, with other UN agencies and Secretariat units, and between sectors and disciplines.[40] Through these field offices, UNESCO is able to develop "strategies, programmes and activities" that can assist in meeting the missions stated in the organization's constitution.[41] Professor David Souter states it best: "UNESCO was established in 1945 as a United Nations specialized agency charged with building peace in the minds of man by promoting international collaboration through education, science and culture."[42]

Annotated Bibliography

Committee History

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. (1978). *Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice*. Retrieved on August 29, 2011, from http://www.unesco.org/education/information/nfsune.sco/pdf/RACE_E.PDF
> *Adopted by UNESCO, the Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice aligns with UNESCO's values stated in the organization's Constitution. The Constitution emphasizes the sacredness of human rights, which racism and prejudice directly contradict. In order to stand firm in the organization's ideals, it would make sense for it to adopt the declaration as one of its own. The Declaration represents international agreement on this issue.*

United Nations. (2005). *General Assembly Adopts United Nations Declaration on Human Cloning By Vote of 84-34-37*. Retrieved on September 19, 2011, from http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2005/ga10333.doc.htm
> *This press release, which states that the General Assembly (GA) adopted the UN Declaration on Human Cloning, illustrates cooperation between subsidiaries of the UN and the UN itself. This document also demonstrates how the members of the GA often interact and on what grounds they disagreed to passing the Declaration on Human Cloning. Additionally, the press release details the drafting process and alludes to voting procedures that allowed the Declaration to by adopted by a simple majority.*

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2010). *Rules of Procedure of the Executive Board*. Retrieved on August 29, 2011, from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001874/187481e.pdf
> *The Rules of Procedure of the Executive Board are essential to understanding UNESCO's workings. Procedures in the document lay out how the Executive Board is supposed to function in every possible way. These procedures include details such as: how meetings are set, how voting is done, how the agenda is set, and how business is to be conducted. Reflecting the Board's desire to improve its operations, these rules have been amended several times at various sessions.*

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[36] UNESCO, *UNESCO at a Glance*, 2010, p. 4.
[37] UNESCO, *Building Peace in the Minds of Men and Women*, 2011, Footer.
[38] UNESCO, *Introducing UNESCO*, 2011, Paragraph 2.
[39] UNESCO, *Field Offices*, 2011, p. 1-2.
[40] UNESCO, *Cluster Offices*, 2011, Bullets 1, 2, 5, 6.
[41] UNESCO, *Worldwide*, 2011, Paragraph 2.
[42] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes,* 2010, p. 38.

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2010). *Rules of Procedure of the General Conference*. Retrieved on August 29, 2011, from
http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/GBS/36GC/pdfs/RulesOfProcedures_36gc.pdf

> *Delegates may better understand the inner-workings of the General Conference by consulting the Rules of Procedure of the General Conference. These rules go into detail about voting rights, elections, appointments, resolutions, and other issues regarding formalities of the General Conference sessions. At each General Conference there are minor changes as new resolutions have amended the Rules at every Conference since the 4th Conference.*

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. (1945). *UNESCO Constitution*. Retrieved on August 29, 2011, from http://www.unesco.org/education/information/nfsunesco/pdf/UNESCO_E.PDF

> *The mandate and workings of UNESCO are codified in its constitution and UNESCO is constrained to act according to the principles set forth in the constitution. UNESCO's Constitution states the purposes and functions of the subsidiary organizations, rules for membership, budget, relations of the organization, legal status of the organization, amendments, interpretation, and entry into force. The Constitution is very specific and attempts to cover all of these areas in depth, and only a few of these have been amended.*

I. Bioethics and the Human Genome

"The human genome underlies the fundamental unity of all members of the human family, as well as the recognition of their inherent dignity and diversity. In a symbolic sense, it is the heritage of humanity"[43]

Bioethics and UNESCO

With the development of scientific research, especially in the life sciences, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) began examining the question of bioethics in the 1970s by encouraging Member States to promote humane, socially, and ecologically responsible methods in scientific research and a highly responsible attitude in researchers.[44] UNESCO's work in bioethics follows the vision of Julian Huxley, its first Director-General, who in 1946 stated that the newly created organization should strive for the clarification of values for the benefit of humankind in general.[45] Consequently, the preamble to UNESCO's constitution highlights that "peace must be founded upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind."[46] A definition for bioethics, adopted during the preparatory work for the Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights (UDBHR) was not included in the final version of the UDBHR, but shows the foundation of UNESCO's work in bioethics. Bioethics is "the systematic, pluralistic, and interdisciplinary study and resolution of the ethical issues raised by medicine and the life and social sciences as applied to human beings and their relationship with the biosphere, including issues relating to the availability and accessibility of scientific and technological developments and their applications."[47] Accordingly, the concept of "bioethical issues" was portrayed as those theoretical and practical issues that are raised thereto.[48]

UNESCO's Division of Ethics in Science addresses concerns that broader social dialogues sometimes do not match scientific development, and that unrestrained progress in science will not always be ethically acceptable.[49] It seeks to build links between stakeholders, including scientists and policy makers, in order to assist Member States in adopting "sound and reasoned policies on ethical issues in science and technology," and acts as the secretariat of the two UNESCO permanent bodies on bioethics: The International Bioethics Committee (IBC) and the Intergovernmental Bioethics Committee (IGBC).[50]

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[43] UNESCO, *Implementation of the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights,* 1999, Art. 1.

[44] UNESCO, *Recommendation on the Status of Scientific Researchers, 1974.*

[45] Huxley, *UNESCO: Its Purpose and Its Philosophy, 2004, P.12.*

[46] UNESCO, *Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization,* 1945.

[47] UNESCO, *First Intergovernmental Meeting of Experts Aimed at Finalizing a Draft Declaration on Universal Norms on Bioethics (*SHS/EST/05/CONF.203/4), 2005.

[48] UNESCO, *Elaboration of the Declaration on Universal Norms on Bioethics: Fourth Outline of a Text (SHS/EST/04/CIB-GRed-2/4 Rev. 3), 2004,* Art. 2.

[49] UNESCO, *Ethics of Science and Technology at UNESCO*, 2008, P. 2.

[50] UNESCO, *Ethics of Science and Technology at UNESCO*, 2008, P. 2.

The IBC was created in 1993 and is composed of 36 independent experts appointed by the Organization's Director-General. The IBC's mandate is focused on promoting awareness on the topic of bioethics and providing an international forum for addressing the ethical issues arising from the evolution of technology.[51] The IGBC is composed of 36 Member States, selected by the UNESCO General Conference, and meets at least once every two years. Its mandate is to examine the work of the IBC and submit its opinions, advice, and recommendations to the IBC and the Director-General for transmission to Member States, the Executive Board and the General Conference.[52]

The Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights

The 32nd session of the UNESCO General Conference decided to set universal standards in the field of bioethics in a Declaration.[53] Hearings were held in which different organizations, institutions, and religious leaders were able to convey their views to the IBC drafting group, and contribute to what would become the UDBHR. These hearings served to understand that "although there are differing moral views, common values can be identified."[54] Since the Drafting Group had to balance between universality and cultural diversity, the Declaration was the result of compromise between different cultures, religious traditions, and political views.[55] Furthermore, the treatment of bioethics in the UDBHR is based on a principled approach rather than on concrete rules because principles are more flexible in accommodating changes and new advancements in the biomedical sciences.[56] Thus, far from concluding debates on bioethics, the Declaration could "promote reflection and the search for a common general position."[57] The UDBHR was adopted by UNESCO's General Conference in 2005.

Capacity Building Programs

UNESCO's capacity building programs aid countries in implementing the different declarations. First, the Assisting Bioethics Committees (ABC) initiative provides technical assistance for the establishment of national bioethics committees as platforms from which to stage debate and counseling on policymaking and implement international standards on bioethics.[58] Second, UNESCO's Ethics Education Programme (EEP) promotes awareness and training in bioethics with the purpose of increasing national capacity in ethics education and in all dimensions of scientific research.[59] The program also promotes dialogue and informed public debate, bioethics education, training, and information.[60] UNESCO Chairs in Bioethics, located in seven countries of various regions, implement the EEP, while regional information and documentation centers provide learning materials that address particular regional and cultural issues.[61] Finally, in order to assist Member States in the implementation of information programs on bioethics, UNESCO has created Global Ethics Observatories (GEObs) which contain six freely accessible databases on ethics activities around the world.[62]

The Human Genome & the Human Genome Project

The set of information contained in the form of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) within the nuclei of cells is called the genome.[63] The genome, in turn, is made up of thousands of subunits of information called genes, which are "stretches of sequence in a specific position on a DNA strand that carry the instructions for making a particular protein."[64] Proteins provide the different structures and functions of cells.[65] Human diversity is given by mutations

[51] UNESCO, *International Bioethics Committee (IBC)*.

[52] UNESCO, *Statutes of the International Bioethics Committee of UNESCO (IBC) (SHS-2005/WS/4 REV), 1998, Art. 11*.

[53] Ten Have and Jean, *The UNESCO Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, Background, Principles and Application, 2009*, P. 31.

[54] Ten Have and Jean, *The UNESCO Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, Background, Principles and Application, 2009*, P. 31.

[55] Ten Have and Jean M., *The UNESCO Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, Background, Principles and Application, 2009*, P. 39.

[56] UNESCO, *First Intergovernmental Meeting of Experts Aimed at Finalizing a Draft Declaration on Universal Norms on Bioethics (*SHS/EST/05/CONF.203/4), 2005, Par. 35.

[57] Ten Have and Jean M., *The UNESCO Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, Background, Principles and Application, 2009*, P. 31.

[58] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights,* 2005, Art. 19.

[59] UNESCO, *Ethics of Science and Technology at UNESCO*, 2008, P. 11.

[60] UNESCO, *Ethics Education Programme*, 2007, P. 4.

[61] UNESCO, *Ethics of Science and Technology at UNESCO*, 2008, P. 11-14.

[62] UNESCO, *Ethics of Science and Technology at UNESCO*, 2008, P. 16.

[63] Dennis and Gallagher, *The Human Genome, 2001,* P. 18.

[64] Dennis and Gallagher, *The Human Genome, 2001,* P. 18.

that occur in genes, and every human being has a particular copy of the "human genome" inherited from the random combination of his or her parents' respective genomes.[66] The human genome sequence comprises 3 billion pieces of data in DNA form, and provides the "blueprint" for the machine that is the human body.[67]

While the sequencing of the human genome started in the 1970s, it was not until after two decades that a unique research program was established.[68] The International Human Genome Project started in 1990 as a 15-year-long mammoth project aimed at discovering all 20,000-25,000 human genes and making them widely accessible for study.[69] Parallel to sequencing the human genome, it included the development of new technology and analytical approaches, and, most importantly, the "establishment of a set of projects on the ethical, legal, and social issues (known as ELSI) surrounding the use of the information being generated."[70]

The applications of human genetic data are potentially broad, and include the field of molecular medicine. Using genetic data: diseases may be more accurately diagnosed and predisposition to disease detected earlier; new classes of drugs may be designed through pharmacogenomics; gene therapy may be developed; and DNA may be used in forensics to identify potential criminals and crime victims, to establish paternity and family relationships, and to match organ donors with recipients.[71]

UNESCO and the Human Genome

By *resolution 27 C /5.15,* the UNESCO General Conference asked the IBC to explore the possibility of drawing up an international instrument regarding protection of the Human Genome.[72] During the preparatory work for such a declaration, the IBC focused on reaching agreement while using a multidisciplinary approach, considering cultural diversity and striving for universality.[73] UNESCO adopted the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights (UDHGHR) by acclamation in 1997. The UDHGHR appeals to the notion of human dignity in medical treatment and scientific research relating to the human genome.[74] In that sense, it makes clear that "dignity makes it imperative not to reduce individuals to their genetic characteristics and to respect their uniqueness and diversity."[75] The Declaration also encourages states to cooperate in the dissemination of knowledge regarding the human genome, human diversity, and genetic research.[76] In 1999, UNESCO's General Conference adopted the Guidelines for the Implementation of the UDHGHR to guide states, inter-governmental organizations, and other stakeholders towards its effective implementation.[77] As a follow-up to the UDHGHR, and amid fears that certain uses of genetic data could affect human rights and freedom, the International Declaration on Human Genetic Data (IDHGD) was adopted in 2003.[78] This document set standards on all stages of the handling of human genetic data and proteomic information, including the biological samples used to obtain it. It also provides guiding principles for states on the formulation of legislation and policy.[79]

Applications Through Genomics: Pharmacogenomics and DNA Testing

Pharmacogenomics concerns the application of genomics technology in pharmaceuticals and "it studies not only genetic variants, but patterns of gene expression and how drugs affect gene function."[80] According to the World Health Organization (WHO), research has shown that individual genetic characteristics affect individual responses to drugs, which increases the likelihood of inaccurate dosage that might cause adverse effects or no effect at all.[81] The information gathered by the Human Genome Project is important, since data can be "useful in predicting disease

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[65] Dennis and Gallagher, *The Human Genome, 2001,* P. 18.

[66] Richards and Hawley, *The Human Genome: A User's Guide*, 2005, P. 9.

[67] Dennis and Gallagher, *The Human Genome, 2001,* P. 9.

[68] Dennis and Gallagher, *The Human Genome, 2001,* P. 9.

[69] United States Department of Energy Office of Science, *History of the Human Genome Project.*

[70] Richards and Hawley, *The Human Genome: A User's Guide,* 2005, P. 284.

[71] Dennis and Gallagher, *The Human Genome, 2001,* P. 10.

[72] UNESCO, *Records of the General Conference, Twenty-Seventh Session Volume I,* 1993, Par. 5.1.

[73] Ten Have and Jean, *The UNESCO Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, Background, Principles and Application, 2009,* P. 24.

[74] Andorno, *Human Dignity and Human Rights as a Common Ground for a Global Bioethics, 2009,* P. 5.

[75] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights, 1997,* Art. 2.

[76] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights, 1997,* Art. 18.

[77] UNESCO, *Implementation of the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights,* 1999, Art. 4.

[78] UNESCO, *Human Genetic Data.*

[79] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data, 2003.*

[80] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 2.

[81] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 3.

susceptibility, screening for drug response, and/or predisposition to adverse drug reactions."[82] Possible uses of pharmacogenomics include increased efficiency in the diagnosis of genetic conditions, the development and prescription of drugs that could more effectively treat disease, and avoiding the use of drugs and dosages with adverse or no effects.[83]

Genetic tests are defined by the WHO as laboratory tests which analyze a particular configuration of genetic material, be it through the direct analysis at gene or chromosome level, or by analyzing RNA, proteins or enzymes.[84] The main purposes of genetic tests include diagnosing a genetic disease; predicting future development of a disease; estimating the probability a patient has of developing a disease in the future -such as cancer or heart disease-; determining if the individual is a carrier of a recessive mutation; and identifying the risk of congenital abnormality in embryos and fetuses.[85]

Current Debates in Bioethics and the Human Genome

Autonomy, privacy and confidentiality

According to the principle of autonomy in healthcare, competent individuals are in the best position to decide over potential medical interventions because each person has different beliefs and values.[86] The paternalistic notion that personal choices can be overridden when it is believed that different ones will benefit or avoid harm to the person runs contrary to the principle of autonomy.[87] The concept of privacy relates to protecting personal space and self-determination, including "bodily integrity, mental space, personal relationships, and personal information."[88]

One aspect of privacy lies in consent. The UDHGHR states that no research, treatment or diagnosis that uses an individual's genome can take place without prior, free and informed consent by the person concerned, or in the manner established by law if the person is unable to grant consent. [89] The best interest and the health of the person should be the only ethically acceptable reasons for genetic screening and testing in cases where the individual is not able to consent.[90] Everyone also has the right to withdraw his or her consent at any time.[91] Finally, each individual has the right "to decide whether or not to be informed of the results of genetic examination and the resulting consequences."[92] A debate on the degree to which people should have the right to privacy and confidentiality over their genetic information has ensued because of the cultural differences affecting this issue.[93] While some cultures value individuality and support wide privacy and confidentiality rights, others see the benefit of the community as more important.[94]

Another issue relating to privacy is how much access employers, insurance companies, and other institutions should have to a person's genetic information. One approach is protecting privacy by completely restricting access to a person's information, even with that person's consent, and making it illegal for different institutions to require presymptomatic or susceptibility tests.[95] Another is allowing access to information but preventing it from being used for discriminatory purposes by enacting legislation inclusive of people with genetic anomalies or predisposition to disease.[96] Article 7 of the UDHGHR provides that genetic data which can be associated with an identifiable person must be held confidential according to law.[97] Likewise, the IDHGD states, "where appropriate, the right not to be informed should be extended to identified relatives who may be affected by the results."[98] Moreover, the IDHGD stresses that human genetic and proteomic data and biological samples should not be accessible to third parties, "in particular, employers, insurance companies, educational institutions and the family, except for an important public

[82] WHO, T*he Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 3.
[83] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 2.
[84] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of genetic testing and screening*, 2007, P. 15.
[85] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 15.
[86] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 58.
[87] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 58.
[88] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 56.
[89] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights, 1997,* Art. 5(b).
[90] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data, 2003,* Art. 8(d).
[91] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data, 2003,* Art. 9(a).
[92] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights*, 1997, Art. 5(c).
[93] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 56.
[94] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 56.
[95] WHO, *Review of Ethical Issues in Medical Genetics (WHO/HGN/ETH/00.4), 2003,* P. 56.
[96] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 55.
[97] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights, 1997,* Art. 7.
[98] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data*, 2003, Art. 10.

interest reason" and in accordance with international human rights law.[99] Likewise, when collected for scientific research, human genetic and proteomic data "should not normally be linked to an identifiable person," nor should it be kept for longer than necessary for the purposes it was collected.[100]

Discrimination and Stigmatization
According to article 6 of the UDHGHR, "no one shall be subjected to discrimination based on genetic characteristics that is intended to infringe or has the effect of infringing human rights, fundamental freedoms, and human dignity."[101] Likewise, Article 3 of the IDHGD states, "a person's identity should not be reduced to genetic characteristics, since it involves complex educational, environmental, and personal factors and emotional, social, spiritual, and cultural bonds with others and implies a dimension of freedom."[102]A WHO report equates issues surrounding HIV testing to those that might arise from genetic testing. [103] In both cases, fear of discrimination based on the results, and the shame associated with them, might appear in society.[104] In pharmacogenomics research, for instance, since a key goal is "to discern differences in drug response between people, stratification of populations is probable."[105] Therefore, differences along the lines of race and ethnicity might "pose risks of discrimination and stigmatization to some populations."[106]
A global issue is employment and insurance discrimination, where certain institutions with access to genetic information about individuals might treat people differently according to their individual genome.[107] In developing countries, there is the added concern about discrimination related to marriage, which in turn, places the burden mostly on women.[108] Where arranged marriages and introductions are common, genetic testing might open choices such as to change reproductive partner, not to have children or adopt, to request pre-implantation diagnosis, or to prepare for the management of a disorder in an affected fetus or end pregnancy.[109] While this can be a potential benefit, premarital screening might contribute to the stigmatization of female carriers of genetic disease and make it difficult for them to find a husband. Education and support services for individuals and families with genetic conditions can help in preventing discrimination and stigmatization by conveying that genetic disorders are not related to the personality or behavior of a person or family, and how these are passed on, treated or prevented.[110] A WHO report recommends all premarital screening to be "voluntary, with the cooperation of the community, and preceded by full education."[111]

The Right to Health
The Human Genome has the potential to aid in the goal of providing inexpensive healthcare to fulfill the human right to health. With pharmacogenomics, for instance, developing countries would be able to use scarce resources "to prevent or manage disease instead of treating adverse side effects."[112] Likewise, genetic services can aid in reducing the number of affected individuals and freeing resources for the treatment of those that are already ill.[113] Yet, many cost effective options for controlling congenital and genetic disorders are currently underutilized in developing countries, where access to genetic services is limited to the wealthy.[114] Thus, genetic services are sometimes shunned because of an erroneous belief in their complexity and high cost.[115] In any case, developing countries should weigh genetic approaches to health services against other pressing health needs.

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[99] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data,* 2003, Art. 14(b).

[100] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data,* 2003, Art. 14(d), (e).

[101] UNESCO, *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights,* 1997, Art. 6.

[102] UNESCO, *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data,* 2003, Art. 3.

[103] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 56.

[104] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 56.

[105] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 48.

[106] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007* P. 2.

[107] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 5.

[108] WHO, *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries, 2007,* P. 5.

[109] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 53.

[110] WHO, *Review of Ethical Issues in Medical Genetics (WHO/HGN/ETH/00.4), 2003,* P. 16.

[111] WHO, *Review of Ethical Issues in Medical Genetics (WHO/HGN/ETH/00.4), 2003,* P. 16.

[112] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 2.

[113] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 21.

[114] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 78.

[115] WHO, *Medical Genetic Services in Developing Countries*, 2007, P. 32.

Case Study: India and Quality Control in Genetic Services

While the Indian healthcare system is made up of both private and public institutions, private spending on health services accounts for more than 80% of all spending.[116] In the public sphere, the constitution grants authority to states over most aspects of healthcare.[117] Nevertheless, despite the fact that 80% of public spending comes from the states, the government formulates public health policies through its Ministry of Health and Family Welfare.[118] Genetic diseases are increasingly becoming a health burden in India, and adequate provision of genetic services is needed. In this sense, UNESCO has stressed the importance of quality control in laboratories because of the importance of decisions commonly based on genetic data.[119] Indeed, one of the challenges India faces is the lack of quality control in laboratories. Since the private healthcare system in India is largely unregulated by legislation, most laboratories in the country lack accreditation at international standards.[120] Access to quality assurance is also limited to a fraction of the territory, which means that most people do not have access to laboratories with quality assurance schemes.[121]

The Indian Government, however, has recognized the problem and despite encountering opposition when trying to enact legislation, is working alongside international organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations and private institutions to increase accreditation and quality assurance for the country's laboratories.[122] The National Accreditation Board for Testing and Calibration Laboratories (NABL) is the sole office authorized to provide accreditation to laboratories.[123] While accreditation is not mandatory, the law requires registration, which demands certain quality assurance requirements "that cover qualifications of employees, equipment, facilities, testing procedures, and maintenance and preservation of records."[124] In fact, only 10% of 20,000 clinical laboratories nationally had external quality assurance programs in 2005. [125]

In 2002, India's National Bioethics Committee issued *Ethical Policies on the Human Genome, Genetic Research, and Services*. These guidelines largely adhere to the international standards on privacy, confidentiality, the right of patients to receive genetic counseling, the right to choose whether to be informed of their results and the prohibition of discrimination based on genetic characteristics.[126] The document also calls for education measures aimed at removing prejudice.[127] Likewise, in 2000 the Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) issued non-binding guidelines for research on human subjects, which address privacy and confidentiality concerns, and the need for providing genetic counseling.[128] There is also the Quality Council of India, which is an umbrella organization structure for quality assurance bodies.[129] In a series of conferences and workshops in 2003 and 2004, the ICMR trained healthcare providers in genetic counseling, prenatal diagnosis and therapy, and current trends in human genetics, health and society.[130] This same institution is "funding a program of advanced research and training in human molecular cytogenetic and a mission project on community control of thalassaemia syndromes –awareness, screening, genetic counseling, and prevention."[131]

Conclusion

UNESCO is actively engaged in promoting genetic technology and ethics in its application. Genomics has the potential of improving the lives of people worldwide, yet, it is not devoid of practical challenges and ethical implications. Further discussions of the topic should focus on the feasibility of using genetic technology to enhance healthcare and quality-of-life worldwide. In this sense, are the existing international documents on bioethics and the human genome a sufficiently strong ethical base for further development in the application of human genome information? How, then, can UNESCO contribute in advancing the distribution of genetic-related biotechnologies

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[116] Price Waterhouse Coopers, *Healthcare in India: Emerging Market Report,* 2007, P. 1.

[117] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[118] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[119] International Bioethics Committee, *Report on Genetic Screening and Testing (SHS-94/CONF.011/7), 1994, Par. 30.*

[120] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[121] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[122] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[123] Kanagasabapathy and Pragna, *Laboratory Accreditation-Procedural Guidelines, 2005,* P. 186.

[124] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[125] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[126] Indian Council of Medical Research, *Ethical Guidelines for Biomedical Research on Human Participants, 2006. P. 3.*

[127] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[128] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[129] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[130] WHO, *Case study: India.*

[131] WHO, *Case study: India.*

and the implementation of ethical standards in their application? Furthermore, how can Member States increase the quality and availability of genetic services, and how can developing countries use genetic services to address existing disease burdens in an equitable and cost-effective manner? In views to achieving this, what are the roles of public and private institutions in establishing accredited facilities that carry out genetic testing? Finally, what bioethical concerns may arise in establishing a global initiative in expanding the application of the human genome?

Annotated Bibliography

I. Bioethics and the Humane Genome

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International Bioethics Committee (1994). *Report on Genetic Screening and Testing (SHS-94/CONF.011/7).* Retrieved September 10, 2011 from:
http://portal.unesco.org/shs/es/files/2305/10596388721GenetictestingCIB2_en.pdf/GenetictestingCIB2_en.pdf
> *This document by the IBC is commonly quoted by UNESCO and in scientific journals dealing with genetic testing and screening. It presents the IBC's view regarding ethical problems within genetic screening and testing. The report addresses the ethical limits to genetic screening and testing; public policy in genetic screening; genetic information and privacy; education and civic freedom; and accuracy and quality control.*

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> *A very interesting document concerning the final stages in the drafting of the UDBHR. It is an article-by-article revision of the declaration draft submitted by the Drafting Group and contains the main discussions that preceded the adoption of the UDBHR. It is particularly interesting to see the evolution of the discussion on a definition of bioethics that was ultimately left out of the Declaration.*

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (1999). *Implementation of the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights.* Retrieved September 10, 2011, from: http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/SHS/pdf/Guidelines-Genome_EN.pdf
> *Using the headings "what to do?", "how," and "for whom are these guidelines intended" this document seeks to identify the various stakeholders that should be involved in implementing the declaration at the national level, the tasks they must perform, and the manner in which to do it. The document adequately conveys UNESCO's point of view as to what the approach should be in implementing the Declaration.*

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (2005). *Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights.* Retrieved September 3, 2011 from: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001461/146180e.pdf
> *The UDBHR is the culmination of years of preparation incorporating the work of a Drafting Group designated by the IBC, and containing the input of many different experts and government representatives. The document follows a principled approach to bioethics and its relation to human rights. It outlines the obligations and responsibilities human beings have with themselves, other human beings, human communities, humankind as a whole, and all living beings and their environment. A definition for bioethics was left out at the final stage of drafting by the Second Session of the Intergovernmental Meeting of Experts Aimed at Finalizing a Draft Declaration on Universal Norms on Bioethics, which produced the draft that was adopted by the General Conference in 2005.*

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (11 November 1997). *Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights.* Retrieved September 3, 2011 from: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001229/122990eo.pdf

> *This document responds to the scientific advancements on the field of genetics and seeks to outline the relationship between the human genome and human rights. It is focused on the protection of human dignity and seeks to guide states in the settlement of bioethical concerns arising from the application of genetic technology. It outlines international standards on rights of persons concerned, research on the human genome, the exercise of scientific activity, and international cooperation.*

United Nations Educational. Scientific and Cultural Organization (16 October 2003). *International Declaration on Human Genetic Data.* Retrieved September 5, 2011 from: http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=17720&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

> *This document is supportive of the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights and addresses more specific applications made possible by the human genome. It also expands on some concerns not fully addressed by the Universal Declaration that include inter-state transfer of genetic data, informed consent of access to genetic data, privacy and confidentiality, and the roles of the International Bioethics Committee (IBC) and Intergovernmental Bioethics Committee (IBC). Both of these committees were created under UNESCO's Ethics of Science and Technology Programme.*

World Health Organization (2003). *Review of Ethical Issues in Medical Genetics (WHO/HGN/ETH/00.4).* Retrieved September 10, 2011 from: http://www.who.int/genomics/publications/en/ethical_issuesin_medgenetics%20report.pdf

> *This report by consultants to the WHO is lengthy and comprehensive in its approach. It presents a global view of the ethical issues in medical genetics as related to specific medical services including, but not limited to, genetic counseling, screening and testing, testing in children and adolescents, adoption, prenatal diagnosis, pre-implantation diagnosis, research issues, gene therapy, and the uses of banked DNA.*

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> *This report by the WHO presents all sides of the issue of genetic testing and screening in developing countries. It first surveys the advantages and limitations of genetic screening and testing and then goes on to discuss the social, ethical and legal questions regarding topics such as justice, the social context, discrimination and stigmatization, privacy and confidentiality, patient decision-making, education, and patient well-being. It then provides recommendations to public officials in developing countries. There are case studies all throughout.*

World Health Organization (2007). *The Ethical, Legal and Social Implications of Pharmacogenomics in Developing Countries.* Retrieved September 9, 2011 from: http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2007/9789241595469_eng.pdf

> *This report addresses the debate around pharmacogenomics and their implementation in developing countries. As a major example of the technologies made available by human genomic data, pharmacogenomics has a large impact on the spread of genetic-related technologies. The report provides an in depth discussion on the ethical, legal, and social implications of pharmacogenomics as well as the financial responsibilities for such a technology.*

World Health Organization (N.D.). *Case study: India.* Retrieved September 10, 2011 from: http://www.who.int/genomics/policy/india/en/index.html.

> *This case study reported on by the World Health Organization outlines the current health issues in India, the challenges associated, possible solutions, actions taken, and the results. Under the WHO Genomic Resource Centre, this case study gives great insight on successful methods used to implement and establish a greater base for human genetic-related biotechnologies, especially regarding regulation and quality control in genetics laboratories.*

II. World Heritage Sites: Balancing Tourism and Ensuring Preservation

"The fundamental strength of the World Heritage, and, indeed, its power to help shape human affairs, lie in its concept of shared human values, of a common heritage for all peoples. In a world that seems increasingly torn by divisiveness, those are values to cherish and promote."[132]

Introduction

World heritage Sites (WHS) are natural or cultural areas designated through UNESCO for protection and preservation for future generations because of their global significance or importance.[133] There are currently 963 WHS in 153 of 187 States Parties to The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (World Heritage Convention).[134] UNESCO emphasizes the concept of collective ownership over WHS, irrespective of their locations within the boundaries of any given state.[135] The rationale for this concept, which came to prominence after the devastation of World War I, is that cultural heritage is of global value and significance, and therefore must be protected by and available to the global community.[136] The World Heritage Convention of 1972 established the concept of WHS. The World Heritage Convention outlines duties and responsibilities on the part of Member States, criteria for addition to the list of WHS, and regulations for the usage of the World Heritage Fund.[137]

The World Heritage Fund makes international financial support available to Member States needing assistance to preserve WHS and to provide emergency funding in the event of man-made or natural threats to Sites.[138] Documents passed since the inception of the Convention, such as the Budapest Declaration on World Heritage, have served to commemorate the successes of the World Heritage Convention and to redefine its focuses and set goals for its future directions.[139] In keeping with this, sustainable tourism and further expansion of States Parties are two goals that were identified on the 30th anniversary of the World Heritage Convention.[140] WHS have dual goals- preservation of natural and cultural heritage- established in the World Heritage Convention.[141] Aside from these goals, States Parties to the World Heritage Convention often have additional goals in mind when establishing WHS within their borders that may include "the desire for recognition, publicity, protection and economic benefits."[142]

Goals of World Heritage Sites: Preservation

There are two primary goals for World Heritage Sites: preservationist goals and economic goals. Preservationist goals for world heritage can be classified as environmental/natural and social/cultural; some sites, however, embody both goals.[143] Environmental preservation falls under criteria viii, ix, vii and x of the World Heritage List's Operational Guidelines' selection criteria for designation as a WHS as revised in 2005.[144] These criteria include sites that show human coexistence with the natural environment, are bio-diverse or are important habitats for conservation; the element of threat is also prominent in several of the criteria for inscription.[145] Prominent WHSs classified as natural include Iguaçu Park in Argentina/Brazil, the Great Barrier Reef in Australia, and the Mount Kenya Natural Park/Natural Forest in Kenya.[146] Social/cultural preservation fall under criteria i, ii, iii, iv, v and vi.[147] These criteria include sites that display human ingenuity or cultural exchange, are representative of an important part of human history or commemorate a civilization that no longer exists.[148] Well known cultural WHSs include the Ancient City of Damascus in Syria, the Kremlin and Red Square in Russia, and the Ibiza in Spain (a mixed site for

[132] Train, *World Heritage Newsletter No. 1,* 1993, section 4.

[133] UNESCO, *About World Heritage: The World Heritage Convention*,

[134] UNESCO, *World Heritage List,*

[135] UNESCO, *Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972), article 6.*

[136] UNESCO, *About World Heritage: World Heritage*

[137] UNESCO, *About World Heritage: The World Heritage Convention*

[138] UNESCO, *About World Heritage: The World Heritage Convention*

[139] World Heritage Committee, *Decision-26COM 90 Budapest Declaration on World Heritage,* 2002.

[140] World Heritage Committee, *Decision-26COM 90 Budapest Declaration on World Heritage,* 2002.

[141] UNESCO, *Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage,* 1972, preamble.

[142] Williams, *The Meanings and Effectiveness of World Heritage Designation in the USA,* 2005, p. 134.

[143] UNESCO, *The List: Criteria for Selection*

[144] UNESCO, *The List: Criteria for Selection*

[145] UNESCO, *The List: Criteria for Selection,*

[146] UNESCO, *World Heritage List,*

[147] UNESCO, *The List: Criteria for Selection,*

[148] UNESCO, *The List: Criteria for Selection,*

biodiversity and culture).[149] Currently, 936 WHSs exist, and of these, 725 are cultural, 183 natural and 28 mixed (natural and cultural).[150]

In the case of a threat to a WHS, UNESCO has the ability to designate sites on the List of World Heritage if that site is in danger of destruction and take action towards the preservation of the site. There are three primary ways that UNESCO and the World Heritage List community achieve preservationist goals for a WHS: work with existing or potential States Parties when a WHS is under threat to facilitate solutions to potential threats, collaborate with States Parties to restore a WHS, and launch comprehensive and far-reaching international safeguarding campaigns.[151] Angkor, a capital of the former Khmer empire in Cambodia is an excellent example of the positive effects of UNESCO's efforts to safeguard and restore a WHS in the face of threats posed by human activity in particular.[152]

The integrity of Angkor, an important archaeological and cultural site from the Khmer Empire, was threatened due to illicit excavation, pillaging, and the placement of landmines.[153] In order to restore and protect this site, UNESCO inscribed it on the List of World Heritage in Danger and launched a campaign in 1993 to develop and safeguard the site. By 2004, the threats to the site had been reduced sufficiently to warrant removal from the List. The World Heritage Committee, citing the "remarkable improvement of the physical state of conservation of the property, as well as the results accomplished in the management and monitoring of the property" and the success of multilateral donations and cooperation toward conservation efforts resolved to remove Angkor.[154] This removal was made in conjunction with the recommendation that Cambodia continue to report on the status of Angkor and formulate a plan to "address conservation issues, development control and tourism management in order to ensure the future preservation of the property."[155] These actions by UNESCO and the international community have ensured that the site is enjoyed by future generations, and that the lasting legacy and historical value of the sight is conserved.

Goals of World Heritage Sites: Economic Goals

UNESCO has identified tourism revenues, which generate approximately 12% of the world's Gross National Product, as being an important factor in WHS designation.[156] The increased mobility and interest in cross-cultural dialogue and discovery resulting from globalization has the potential to increase tourism and traffic at sites of global importance.[157] WHS status brings with it the potential benefits of revenue from admissions, charitable contributions, support from the hotel and tourism industry, and sales of local wares that also serve to promote local culture.[158] However, the economic benefits of a natural or cultural heritage site can be difficult to measure; the Global Heritage Fund has acknowledged the wide potential for over or underestimation of tourism revenues resulting from designation of heritage sites.[159] Startup and operational costs, as well as the costs involved in gaining World Heritage status, may also affect profitability and sustainability of profit. However, for lesser-developed countries especially, the potential to leverage the appeal of cultural or natural heritage is appealing. UNESCO Director-General Irina Bokova has identified heritage "as an economic driver: a creator of jobs and revenues; a means of making poverty eradication strategies more relevant and more effective at the local level."[160] In light of this perspective, models such as the Great Wall of China, which has been estimated earned $2,888,000,000 in 2010, provide enticing examples of highly profitable and successful WHS to states considering inscription.[161]

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[149] UNESCO, *World Heritage List*
[150] UNESCO, *World Heritage List*
[151] UNESCO, *Success Stories*
[152] UNESCO, *Success Stories*
[153] UNESCO, *Success Stories*
[154] World Heritage Committee, *Decision- 28COM 15A.23, 2004, p.* 66.
[155] World Heritage Committee, *Decision- 28COM 15A.23, 2004, p.* 67.
[156] Pedersen, *Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites: a Practical Manual for World Heritage Site Managers, p.* 11.
[157] Albert, *The MUMA-Project – An Integrated Approach to Heritage Management,* , 2007, p. 26.
[158] Pedersen, *Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites: a Practical Manual for World Heritage Site Managers, p.* 11.
[159] Global Heritage Fund, *Vanishing Value of Heritage Database*, 2010, 4.
[160] Bokova, *Culture a Driver for Development and the Achievement of the eight Millennium Development Goals Says UNESCO Director-General*, 2010.
[161] Global Heritage Fund, *Vanishing Value of Heritage Database*, 2010, 1.

Impacts of World Heritage Sites: Economic, Environmental and Social

There is a cost to attaining WHS status to be incurred by states, and for some sites, the promise of economic gain may outweigh other important considerations.[162] Francesco Bandarin, Director of the UNESCO World Heritage Centre has drawn attention to the need to fully consider the costs and benefits of tourism and WHS, stating that "problems arise…with relatively new World Heritage Sites, particularly those in lesser developed economies that are anxious to acquire the developmental benefits of tourism. For such countries, the fact that tourism can be an environmental or cultural threat is far outweighed by its perceived advantages."[163] A need for government regulation and participation in the development of cultural tourism has been identified as an important factor in ensuring that positive economic effects are achieved in concert with a balancing of social or environmental harms. The United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asian and the Pacific (UN ESCAP) has articulated the need for a strategic approach to cultural tourism development on the part of governments, because "tourism can offer major opportunities for local economic development, which can enhance the positive effects of tourism on local socio-economic development and poverty reduction.[164] ESCAP has stated that "It is possible for domestic tourism to support a spatial redistribution of income and employment", citing examples from Japan and India. However, it is important that tourism is recognized as an enterprise which can result in economic leakages (payments or financial flows made outside the economy of the destination country) or linkages (connections between the tourism industry and local suppliers of goods and services through both the formal and informal economy).[165] Examples of linkages beneficial to the economic health of local communities at tourist sites include the production and purchasing of local furnishings, décor, and products (including food items) for hotels and restaurants, guiding at sites conducted by locals and the promotion of local attractions to tourists.[166]

Environmentally, criticisms of UNESCO's willingness to withstand pressures by states wishing to contravene or alter environmental protection measures initiated by the Organization have surfaced, and give doubt to the strength and effectiveness of UNESCO's mandate to ensure environmental protection within WHS.[167] One such example is that, despite recommendations by some environmental organizations, UNESCO decided to remove the Galapagos Islands from the List of World Heritage Sites in Danger after Ecuador made improvements aimed towards environmental preservation.[168] Many environmental NGOs maintained that the removal UNESCO's special status was premature, given the continued sensitivity of the delicate biosphere of the area and the dangers to its integrity as a natural wonder posed by tourism, invasive species and excessive fishing.[169] In the aftermath of the decision, UNESCO's ability to withstand lobbying by Member States and its credibility as an impartial and independent organization has been questioned.[170]

Case studies from States Parties such as Nepal demonstrate that tourism at heritage sites "and location of tourists facilities on the cultural heritage sites have often resulted not only in altering of the original features but also in all kind of pollution damaging or even destroying the fabric of the monuments and works of art [and]…collecting mementoes, has also led to vandalism of many sites."[171] Tourist interest in trekking and mountain expeditions in Nepal has lead to pollution of the mountains with garbage left by tourists, increased consumption of wood for fuel and environmental degradation.[172] Although Nepal is highly reliant on tourism for economic reasons, it pays a high price for this reliance in terms of environmental stability.[173] Tensions between local populations and travelers or government have been reported where locals feel that environmental degradation due to an excess of tourism in ecologically sensitive WHSs is being ignored because of revenues from tourism.[174] Calls for better management of tourism volumes have emerged from the public in notable locations such as Easter Island, the city of Venice,

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[162] Bandarin, *The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation*, 2004,

[163] Bandarin, *The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation*, 2004, .

[164] United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Study on the Role of Tourism in Socio-Economic Development,* 2007, 83-84.

[165] UN ESCAP, *Study on the Role of Tourism in Socio-Economic Development,* 2007, 54.

[166] UN ESCAP, *Study on the Role of Tourism in Socio-Economic Development,* 2007, 49.

[167] The Economist, *A Danger List in Danger, 2010.*

[168] International Union for Conservation of Nature, *Galapagos off Danger List but Still at Risk,* 2010.

[169] International Union for Conservation of Nature, *Galapagos off Danger List but Still at Risk,* 2010; The Economist, *A Danger List in Danger, 2010.*

[170] The Economist, *A Danger List in Danger, 2010.*

[171] UNESCO, *Case Study on the Effects of Tourism on Culture and the Environment*, 1995, i.

[172] UNESCO, *Case Study on the Effects of Tourism on Culture and the Environment*, 1995, 37.

[173] UNESCO, *Case Study on the Effects of Tourism on Culture and the Environment*, 1995, 37.

[174] McVeigh, *Tourist Hordes Told to Stay Away from World Heritage Sites by the Locals*, 2009.

Stonehenge and Kilimanjaro National Park because of perceived threats to the environment by high tourist traffic.[175] Increased energy usage necessitated by travel is an additional environmental concern related to the rise in interest in WHSs and world travel.[176]

The impacts of a WHS can be addressed at the national level because of inadequate consultation processes can negatively affect relations between local populations and government.[177] This concern has been identified by academic Natasha Affolder who states, "Failure of national governments to adequately consult stakeholders including sub federal units in federal states, community interests, mining interests and affected indigenous peoples in nominating sites significantly undermines the Convention. These democratic shortcomings can be identified in Australia, the United States and Canada."[178] If conducted properly, it is argued, adequate local population in tourist development can increase economic and political stability for local communities and promote strong democratic processes by encouraging locals to interact with and hold the state accountable for outcomes of development at the local level.[179]

On a local level, a criticism of WHS has emerged in regards to planning. The critique is that local values and contributions to heritage may be excluded during large-scale planning and implementation of WHS in favor of non-local "experts" on cultural heritage. Academics such as Heather Black and Geoffrey Wall have identified this as problematic, because "values that local people attach to a heritage are different from, though no less important than, the values ascribed to it by art historians, archaeologists and government officials. These values… have the potential to enhance the interpretation of the monuments and in fact make them more meaningful to domestic and international visitors alike."[180] The process of planning and governance at the community level can be seen as a redistribution of decision-making power to local populations who, if properly engaged in tourism development at WHSs, may have agency to determine the developmental directions of their own communities and ensure their own benefit from development.[181] However, it has been suggested that "although community participation in the TDP (Tourism Development Process) is highly desirable, there seems to be formidable operational, structural and cultural limitations to this tourism development approach in many developing countries."[182]

The question of authenticity is also one of importance when considering WHSs at the local level. The issue of performativity in relation to the relationships of communities to visitors who are "other" has been discussed by academics who maintain that, to varying extents, heritage is a performance for the other rather than a demonstration of the "real." Examples such as eco-villages and tourist destinations in Brittany, France, which featured locals living according to tradition in historical towns during tourist season but resuming modern life once tourists have departed, characterize the debate around heritage tourism as a form of tokenism or performance.[183] Because judgments about authenticity are by their nature, highly subjective, rigorous debate on this topic has emerged. Academics such as David Harrison take the perspective that authenticity is related to the process of ascribing meaning to heritage, which, he characterizes as "the result of a complex and continuous process of socialization, symbolic interaction and negotiation" rather than any objective sense of authenticity.[184]

Another concern for local populations may be what some perceive to be the tension between UNESCO's mandate to preserve, and therefore, in a sense, halt progress at a WHS, and the desire of local communities to develop and advance.[185] At issue here is the perception of cultural heritage as something belonging primarily to the past as opposed to a process of evolution and change on the part of a community. Harrison juxtaposes the aims of tourist and local populations where sites of heritage are concerned, citing examples from Canada, Australia, The United Kingdom and South Pacific Islands:

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[175] McVeigh, *Tourist Hordes Told to Stay Away from World Heritage Sites by the Locals*, 2009.
[176] McVeigh, *Tourist Hordes Told to Stay Away from World Heritage Sites by the Locals*, 2009.
[177] Affolder, *Demonising or Democratising the World Heritage Convention?,* 2007, *p. 348.*
[178] Affolder, *Demonising or Democratising the World Heritage Convention?,* 2007, *p. 348.*
[179] Tosun, *Limits to Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries,* 1999, 616.
[180] Black and Wall, *Global-Local Inter-relationships in UNESCO World Heritage Sites*, 2001, p. 122.
[181] Tosun, *Limits to Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries,* 1999, 615.
[182] Tosun, *Limits to Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries,* 1999, 614.
[183] Harrison, *Introduction: Contested Narratives in the Doman of World Heritage*, 2004, p. 283.
[184] Harrison, *Introduction: Contested Narratives in the Doman of World Heritage* in Current Themes in Tourism: The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation, 2004, 282.
[185] Black and Wall, *Global-Local Inter-relationships in UNESCO World Heritage Sites*, 2001, 134.

What is frequently found is that the residents of such areas want to build houses, develop their businesses, harvest the forest or the wildlife, and generally put their surroundings to work. By contrast, town dwellers or tourism promoters, who may exert considerable influence with the politicians, prefer the wilderness untouched, to be visited on vacations…to enable outsiders to commune with nature.[186]

Life for residents of heritage sites can be complicated by the conflict between the desire to continue development as a community by keeping pace with the "outside" world, and the goals of preserving the cultural and/or natural legacy of the past. However, according the Harrison, these struggles and perceptions of the relative values of preservation and development are not immutable; this is an important light through which UNESCO's work should be examined, and the question of what impact WHS designation has on these perspectives is an important one.[187]

On a global level, two benefits of World Heritage Site status, aside from the obvious benefits of ensuring that significant sites are maintained for future generation, are attention and protection.[188] Media attention promotes the benefits of conservation and spreads information to the public.[189] Building grassroots support and awareness can motivate local authorities to value and take action to protect a WHS.[190] Financially, the WHS designation may result in increased tourist traffic and revenue, financial support through the tourism industry, or donations by the public or private spheres to support the WHS.[191] The benefit of protection is offered through technical assistance or expertise that States Party to the Convention gain access to through the World Heritage Commission.[192] Successful preservation via WHS designation allows future generations to learn about and appreciate the past, and the globalized economy allows for increased access to world heritage via tourism, which may promote intercultural dialogue and communication when locals encounter visitors.

Bridging the Gaps: Balancing Economic and Preservationist Goals

It is clear that the planning, implementation and goals for a WHS will affect its success, and careful planning can assist in success.[193] This is where UNESCO has much to contribute by way of providing and collecting best practices and case studies from around the world and facilitation information sharing to improve WHS globally. As a conduit for action by States Party to the World Heritage Convention and a central organizer, UNESCO is tremendously useful. Limited capacity prevents the organization, and especially the World Heritage Centre, from providing extensive capacity building or technical expertise**.[194]** The approach of the Centre has been to act as a medium for the development of best practices in preservation and economic development, as "UNESCO itself lacks the resources to undertake its own research, but is able to act as a broker and a forum for the exchange of ideas."[195] This limitation in capacity has been cited by non-profit organizations and academics that have echoed the sentiment that the operating budget of the World Heritage Center "is not enough to adequately oversee the protection and conservation of the 911 natural and cultural heritage properties as per the World Heritage Convention regulations."[196]

UNESCO and the United Kingdom National Commission for UNESCO, are hosting a conference in Edinburgh, Scotland from 23-24 November 2011. In an attempt to address the issue of balancing conservation of heritage and exposure to WHS by members of the global community acting as tourists, the conference will explore technological options for fulfilling conservation mandates while meeting tourist demand and maximizing site exposure.[197] A new partnership between the Global Heritage Fund, Google Earth and DigitalGlobe is using cutting-edge technology

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[186] Harrison, *Introduction: Contested Narratives in the Doman of World Heritage* in Current Themes in Tourism: The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation, 2004, 283-84.
[187] Harrison, *Introduction: Contested Narratives in the Doman of World Heritage* in Current Themes in Tourism: The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation, 2004, 282.
[188] Frey and Steiner, *World Heritage List: Does it make Sense?*, 2011, 5.
[189] Frey and Steiner, *World Heritage List: Does it make Sense?*, 2011, 5.
[190] Frey and Steiner, *World Heritage List: Does it make Sense?*, 2011, 5.
[191] Frey and Steiner, *World Heritage List: Does it make Sense?*, 2011, 5.
[192] Frey and Steiner, *World Heritage List: Does it make Sense?*, 2011, 5.
[193] Rebanks Consulting Ltd. & Trends Business Research Ltd., *The Economic Gain: Research and Analysis of the Socio Economic Impact Potential of UNESCO World Heritage Site Status,* 2009, 2.
[194] Bandarin, *The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation*, 2004, vi.
[195] Bandarin, *The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation*, 2004, vi.
[196] Global Heritage Fund, 2010, *Saving our Vanishing Heritage: Safeguarding Endangered Cultural Heritage Sites in the Developing World,* 8.
[197] UNESCO, *"I Know Where I'm Going"-Remote Access to World Heritage Sites from St. Kilda to Uluru Conference,* 2011.

including satellites and mapping technology to monitor World Heritage Sites- especially those at risk.[198] Innovations such as these may make it possible for WHS to better balance preservationist goals with economic ones. In addition to utilizing technological developments to aid in conservation and protection effort, what has UNESCO done to advance its efforts to achieve balance between tourism and preservation at WHSs, and what should it pursue in the future? What should UNESCO's role be going forward?

Conclusion

The positive impacts of WHS status are rarely accidental or unintended – they are overwhelmingly the result of coordinated and well thought through efforts to achieve targeted change at the national and international level. Given this, what is the role of the state and international communities *vis a vis* WHS? In short, sites that have achieved significant impacts have had a clear logic chain from the identification of the issues and problems they wished to address, a clear understanding of how WHS status could be used to catalyze change, following through to investing in the resources, activities and processes to deliver the impacts desired.[199] UNESCO has also recognized that there is no single approach to managing WHS that will ensure the proper balance between economic benefit and environmental and social preservation; an acknowledgement of the unique circumstances surrounding each new WHS and management plans tailored to these circumstances laid the foundation for success.[200]

Francesco Bandarin, the Director of the World Heritage Centre outlined a vision for the future of UNESCO in the area of world heritage at the Linking Universal and Local Values: Managing a Sustainable Future for World Heritage conference organized by and hosted in the Netherlands in 2003:

> *Among the challenges facing UNESCO and the international community is to make the national authorities, the private sector, and civil society as a whole recognize that World Heritage conservation is not only an instrument for peace and reconciliation, for enhancing cultural and biological diversity, but also a factor of regional sustainable development. New approaches to integrated management of World Heritage have proved successful and promoted economic growth and benefits to local communities. We need to help support the capacity of countries in crisis to protect their heritage, respond to emergency situations and maintain our day-to-day efforts for heritage conservation all around the world. Neither the States Parties to the Convention nor UNESCO and its World Heritage Centre can do this alone. New partnerships will be essential.[201]*

Considering the aforementioned quote, what has been done by UNESCO to achieve this vision so far? Given the fact that "recent growth has catapulted the tourism industry into the position of becoming arguably the biggest industry in the world, with a 12% share of global GDP"[202], it is important that organizations like UNESCO find and promote strategies for coping with and optimizing the effects of tourism on cultural and environmental heritage. What is UNESCO doing to mitigate the negatives outlined above and promote the benefits of WHS? Furthermore, should preservation of traditional cultures and ways of life be balanced with cultural advancement and growth? What is the relationship between these two goals? In their preparation for the conference, delegates should consider these and other questions. This will be helpful in order to discern their positions on the appropriate relationship between tourism and preservation, so that the "moral duty for our generation to protect the heritage that it has enjoyed and to maintain it so that it can be left to future generations to find in their cultural roots" can be fulfilled.[203]

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[198] National Geographic, S*py Satellites, Google Earth Now Guarding World's Great Ancient Sites*, 2011.
[199] Rebanks Consulting Ltd. & Trends Business Research Ltd., *The Economic Gain: Research and Analysis of the Socio Economic Impact Potential of UNESCO World Heritage Site Status,* 2009, 2.
[200] Bandarin, *The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation*, 2004, vi.
[201] Bandarin in, *Linking Universal and Local Values: Managing a Sustainable Future for World Heritage,* 2003, 3.
[202] Nordic World Heritage Foundation, *Sustainable Tourism and Cultural Heritage: A review of Development Assistance and Its Potential to Promote Sustainability,* 1999, i.
[203] Périer-D'Ieteren, *Tourism and Conservation: Striking a Balance,*1998, 13.

Annotated Bibliography

II. World Heritage Sites: Balancing Tourism and Ensuring Preservation

Affolder, Natasha. (2007). *Democratising or Demonising the World Heritage Convention?, * 38 (2): 341-362. http://www.victoria.ac.nz/law/research/vuwlr/prev-issues/pdf/vol-38-2007/issue-2/democratising-affolder.pdf
> *Affolder's article puts criticisms of the World Heritage Convention and UNESCO's processes surrounding WHS status a nomination into context using regional case studies. The controversy surrounding mining projects near World Heritage Sites in Australia, Canada and the United States is examined and used as a frame for analyzing criticism of the WHS regime. Several perceived or real failings of the Convention regime are explored.*

Global Heritage Fund. (2010). *Saving Our Vanishing Heritage: Safeguarding Endangered Cultural Heritage Sites in the Developing World.* Palo Alto, California: Global Heritage Fund. Retrieved, September 24, 2011 from: http://globalheritagefund.org/images/uploads/docs/GHFSavingOurVanishingHeritagev1.0singlepageview2b.pdf
> *This report, assembled by the non-profit organization the Global Heritage Fund, discusses heritage sites, including WHSs under threat. The report provides valuable examples of sites from a large geographical area, along with success stories of states that have succeeded in safeguarding sites at risk. This report is useful for its perspective; as an advocacy organization separate from UNESCO, it has perspectives which are critical of the organization, and which may be useful to delegates seeking outside perspectives on UNESCO's work and world heritage.*

Harrison, David & Hitchcock, Michael. (2004). *Current Themes in Tourism: The Politics of World Heritage: Negotiating Tourism and Conservation.* North York, Ontario/Canada: Channel View Publications.
> *This book is highly recommended as a delegate resource. It contains a variety of case studies and perspectives from academics on the relationship between the tourist industry and conservation at WHS. The articles in this book are valuable for their regional perspectives as well as their varied foci on issues such as authenticity and heritage, the relationship of indigenous communities to tourism and WHS and colonialism and heritage.*

Rebanks Consulting Ltd. & Trends Business Research Ltd. (2009). *The Economic Gain: Research and Analysis of the Socio Economic Impact Potential of UNESCO World Heritage Site Status*. Retrieved September 1, 2011 from: http://www.nps.gov/oia/topics/worldheritage/WHS_Report.pdf
> *This report commissioned by the Lake District World Heritage Project in the United Kingdom outlines possible benefits and drawbacks to World Heritage Status. Case studies from a diverse sampling of areas globally including France, Canada and Scotland amongst others provide concise examples of the effects of WHS including private sector responses. These and the literature review on research conducted around the socio-economic impacts of WHS may be useful to delegates in their preparations.*

UNESCO. (1972). *Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972).* Retrieved August 11, 2011 from: http://whc.unesco.org/en/conventiontext/
> *This convention is the basis for all of UNESCO's work on World Heritage Sites. It established the definition of cultural and natural heritage, outlined the duties of States Parties to the Convention, and established working groups and bodies for world heritage work, international financial assistance with world heritage site and, educational programs.*

UNESCO. (N.d). *Decisions Database*. Retrieved August 25, 2011 from: http://whc.unesco.org/en/decisions/
> *This Web site provides a history of all decisions made by the World Heritage Committee and Bureau during regular and extraordinary sessions, and should be helpful to delegates as a source for further research. Background documents provide information as to the impetus for each decision and the participation of states party to the Convention in formulating decisions. Decisions are sorted thematically and by session, and delegates are recommended to explore decisions listed under the thematic groupings of conservation, community and reports especially for this topic.*

UNESCO World Heritage Centre. (N.d.). *Success Stories*. Retrieved September 1, 2011 from http://whc.unesco.org/en/107

This document provides an excellent overview of some of the WHS that UNESCO considers its greatest successes in terms of conservation and preservation of heritage. Successful restorations of WHS are also emphasized. This document will give delegates an idea of some of the actions that the World Heritage Committee has taken to protect or restore heritage in danger, or the ability of the international community to mobilize to spread awareness of heritage in danger and promote action for protection.

World Heritage Centre and International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property. (2002). *Monitoring World Heritage.* Retrieved September 20, 2011 from: http://whc.unesco.org/documents/publi_wh_papers_13_en.pdf

This report follows a congress hosted in Venice, Italy to commemorate the 30th anniversary of the World Heritage Convention. It provides perspectives from experts on issues such as the monitoring of world heritage, the potential for innovative partnerships to promote world heritage and legal mechanisms for conserving world heritage. This document provides an excellent sense of the academic debate surrounding areas of world heritage, the future of world heritage sites and UNESCO's work in this area and gives a sense of the complicated arena, which UNESCO must navigate in ensuring a balance between preservation and the sharing of world heritage.

World Heritage Centre. (2003). *Linking Universal and Local Values: Managing a Sustainable Future for World Heritage.* Retrieved September 23, 2011 from: http://whc.unesco.org/documents/publi_wh_papers_13_en.pdf

This report follows a conference hosted in the Netherlands, and contains several background documents, regional case studies, and an account of the conference's conclusions and recommendations for action. The report is written to appeal to a general audience and to provide a board understanding of current issues in world heritage, but in particular, the need to include local populations in world heritage projects. Conclusions outlined in the document encompass the need for comprehensive partnerships for conservation, sustainability in financing, the importance of information sharing at all levels, and to consider the complexity of heritage and development.

World Heritage Committee. (2004). *Decision- 28COM 15A.23.* Retrieved September 24, 2011 from: http://whc.unesco.org/archive/2004/whc04-28com-26e.pdf

This document contains the resolution by the World Heritage Committee deciding to remove the Angkor WHS from the List of World Heritage in Danger. It gives a sense of the criteria and threshold for successful restoration or conservation of a WHS by UNESCO. Additionally, it reviews the status of conservation at several other WHSs designated as being at risk; this will be of use to delegates wishing to examine further UNESCO's process for identifying and evaluating risk to WHSs on an ongoing basis, as well as several sites in different geographic areas that are threatened.

III. Empowering Citizens through Universal Access to Information

Introduction

The conviction that lasting, meaningful peace must be based on the recognized human dignity and human rights of all individuals regardless of nationality, religion, sex or gender is at the heart of the United Nations' (UN) work to promote stability, create peace, and further justice.[204] Among its many initiatives, the UN, as demonstrated by the work of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), is committed to advancing the free flow of all types of information, thereby making information and knowledge available to all.[205] Access to information is crucial to the recognition of human dignity and the spread of human rights because information and knowledge underscore human development and realizing human potential; information and knowledge can be passed down for human survival, ensure sustainable development, and improve quality of life.[206]

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[204] United Nations General Assembly, *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, 1948.
[205] Das, *Open Access to Knowledge and Information: Scholarly Literature and Digital Library Initiatives - The South Asian Scenario*, 2008, Forward.
[206] Moeller, Ammu, Lau, and Carbo, *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators*, 2011, p. 7. Berger, *Freedom of Expression, Access to Information, and Empowerment of People*, 2009, p. 88.

The international community, through the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (UDHR) and other avenues, acknowledges that, "one of the ultimate goals of any society striving for human development is the empowerment of all its citizens through access to and use of information and knowledge."[207]

Despite broad international agreement on its importance, universal access to information is still contentious in UNESCO General Assembly debates because knowledge and information is largely controlled and produced by the developed world.[208] Even with the proliferation of the Internet and mobile communication technologies, universal access to information is still severely lacking in areas of both developed and developing countries due to political repression, lack of technological access, and poor governance.[209] Moreover, due to globalization and the digitalization of information, even with access, many individuals lack the skills to process, understand, and utilize the increasing amounts and of information available.[210] Therefore, the UN and UNESCO must work towards the achievement of universal access to information by improving education and building global partnerships.

The Role of UNESCO

UNESCO promotes universal access to information and builds on existing international consensus.[211] Specifically, Article 19 of the UDHR states that access to information and sharing information are part of freedom of opinion and expression, while Article 27 stresses that sharing information is linked to participation in cultural life and the sharing in scientific advancement.[212] These derive from similar statements in the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (ICCPR), which forms the basis of the UN's work.[213] Access to information is also central to current goals of the UN because it is underscores the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Declaration on the Right to Development.[214] Additionally, as of 2006, at least 65 different access to information statutes exist in the world and numerous constitutions and courts have also upheld the right to information and the freedom of information in a multitude of ways.[215] Based on this framework, UNESCO collaborates with a wide variety of public and private organizations in unique multi-stakeholder partnerships to create a global movement for change and action.[216]

Knowledge Societies

In order to focus on the human dimensions of information and communication, UNESCO has developed the concept of a "knowledge society" and made building inclusive knowledge societies one of the body's five overarching goals.[217] A knowledge society is a society that is "inclusive, pluralistic, equitable, and participatory."[218] Knowledge societies are based on universal access to information as well as "equal access to quality education for all, cultural and linguistic diversity, and freedom of expression."[219] A knowledge society goes beyond a traditional society and cannot be geographically; *YouTube*, for example, is a knowledge society.[220] The knowledge society concept is based on the realization that new information and communication developments, especially from new media and the Internet, would affect societal structures and values systems.[221] UNESCO has led a paradigm shift on the vital role of information, knowledge, and communication on achieving not just economic development, but human development.[222] At the 2005 World Summit on the Information Society, "the concept of knowledge societies was

[207] Uhlir, *Policy Guidelines for the Development and Promotion of Government Public Domain Information*, 2004, p. 1.

[208] Rahim, *Democratization of Information in Malaysia: A Response to Globalization*, 2011, p. 3-4.

[209] Souter, Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes, 2010.

[210] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008.

[211] Access Info Europe, *Access to Information: A Fundamental Right, A Universal Standard*, 2006.

[212] United Nations General Assembly, *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, 1948, Article 19.
United Nations General Assembly, *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, 1948, Article 27.

[213] United Nations General Assembly, *Covenant on Civil and Political Rights*, 1966, Article 19.
Access Info Europe, *Access to Information: A Fundamental Right, A Universal Standard*, 2006, p. 1.

[214] United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals*.
Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, *Human Rights Council Holds Panel Discussion on the Realization of the Right to Development*, 2011.

[215] Access Info Europe, *Access to Information: A Fundamental Right, A Universal Standard*, 2006, p. 1-2.

[216] UNESCO, *Highlights of UNESCO's Involvement in the WSIS Follow-up Process (2007)*, 2008.

[217] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes*, 2010, p. 12.

[218] Moeller, Ammu, Lau, and Carbo, *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators*, 2011, p. 8.

[219] Moeller, Ammu, Lau, and Carbo, *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators*, 2011, p. 8.

[220] Babb, *Democracy and the Knowledge-based Society*, 2009, p. 4.

[221] Kuhlen, *Ethical Foundations of Knowledge as a Commons*, 2010.

[222] Berger, *Freedom of Expression, Access to Information, and Empowerment of People*, 2009, p. 87.

emphasized as all-embracing and more conducive to empowerment than the concepts of technology and connectivity."[223] For this empowerment to occur, UNESCO builds knowledge societies through the creation of enabling environments able to facilitate universal access to information and knowledge.[224] This work includes: "setting standards, raising awareness and monitoring progress to achieve universal access to information and knowledge."[225] While building roads would be considered "infrastructure," UNESCO considers these efforts as creating "infostructures" or the structures that would allow individuals and governments to share and receive information.[226] UNESCO and the Information for All Program has created a "National Information Society Policy: A Template" which outlines how these societies can be built.[227]

Partnerships and Global Framework
UNESCO is a key-player in the UN backed World Summit on the Information Society (WSIS) and acts as a lead coordinator and facilitator along with the International Telecommunication Union, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, and the United Nations Development Programme in order to achieve the goals of the WSIS.[228] The WSIS has met twice and adopted the *Geneva Declaration of Principles* and *Plan of Action* (2003) and the *Tunis Commitment* and *Tunis Agenda* (2005).[229] The *Geneva Declaration* articulated world leaders' desire and commitment to build a "people-centered, inclusive and development-oriented Information Society, where everyone can create, access, utilize and share information and knowledge, enabling individuals, communities and peoples to achieve their full potential in promoting their sustainable development and improving their quality of life […]."[230] These WSIS documents, in turn, helped to shape UNESCO's *Mid-Term Strategy (C/4)* for 2008 to 2013 as well as many goals and programs.[231]

Information for All Programme
In 2001, UNESCO developed the Information for All Programme (IFAP), the first and only intergovernmental program focused on achieving universal access to information.[232] The IFAP focuses on information literacy, information preservation, and information ethics to achieve knowledge societies.[233] UNESCO has reaffirmed its support for information literacy by endorsing the *Alexandria Proclamation* of 2005, which claims that information literacy is a basic human right in the digital world because people need to use and create information for attainment of personal, social, job-related, and educational goals.[234] Concerning its second focus, UNESCO's commitment to information preservation parallels its efforts to protect cultural heritage demonstrated through protection of World Heritage sites and is reflected in particular in its Memory of the World Programme.[235] In addition, IFAP can aptly debate and highlight the fact that access to information is not simply about providing telephone lines and government liaison offices, but it is fundamentally a moral and ethical question about what people deserve, who has access, and the revolutionary nature of modern information.[236]

Access to Information as a Tool for Empowerment

As explained above, the concept of a knowledge society is an effective way to think about the relationship between access to information and empowerment because an "inclusive, pluralistic, equitable, and participatory" society would be created if all citizens were empowered. Empowerment is frequently an unclear concept, but it is most broadly defined as "a process whereby individuals and groups of people become stronger and more confident in

[223] Babb, *Democracy and the Knowledge-based Society*, 2009, p. 8.

[224] UNESCO, *Access to Information: Building Knowledge Societies*.

[225] UNESCO, *Access to Information: Building Knowledge Societies*.

[226] UNESCO, *Access to Information: Building Knowledge Societies*.

[227] Information for All Programme, *National Information Society Policy: A Template*, 2009.

[228] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes*, 2010.

[229] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes*, 2010, p. 13.

[230] Kuhlen, *Ethical Foundations of Knowledge as a Commons*, 2010, p. 6-7.

[231] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes*, 2010, p. 13.

[232] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes*, 2010, p. 41.

[233] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 5.

[234] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 5.

[235] UNESCO, *Highlights of UNESCO's Involvement in the WSIS Follow-up Process* (2007), 2008.

[236] Kuhlen, *Ethical Foundations of Knowledge as a Commons*, 2010, p. 3.

controlling or exerting influence over the issues affecting their lives."[237] A process of realization, empowerment is a constructed concept consisting of personal, organizational or group, and community empowerment.[238] As such, the basis of access to information as a tool for empowerment occurs because of the intrinsic value of information. This occurs, as the *2010 Human Development Report* stresses, because gaining information and knowledge through sharing and education promotes creativity and imagination, making people feel more valued.[239] Feeling valued leads individuals to feel empowered and as though they have the authority and right to exercise power. [240]

Applying Access to Information: Economic, Social, and Cultural Change

Though access to information forms the basis of empowerment, further empowerment occurs as citizens exercise power to create economic, social, and cultural changes. Specifically, access to information can lead to empowerment and then help improve economic standing, overcome knowledge-gaps, and improve health and environment policies. For example, universal access to information helps in "bridging the knowledge gaps between privileged and under-privileged communities."[241] Individuals of marginalized groups may therefore benefit from greater social inclusion.[242] Society as a whole also often benefits when individuals can access information about their profession, gain vocational skills, or learn the true value of their goods.[243] Access to information also allows people to gain a heightened level of awareness about their health and their environment.[244] This promotes general social welfare and public health and safety, as "citizens become better able to make informed decisions about their daily life, their environment, and their future."[245] As a result, individuals and communities become empowered as they realize they can control their development and resources.[246]

UNESCO programs, including community centers, library programs, radio programs, and outreach campaigns, seek to overcome the "digital divide" whereby developing countries may lack the structural and technological resources that make access possible.[247] For example, the Open Access Movement in India seeks to make information available in digital libraries that serve as knowledge banks for citizens, indigenous people, communities, and institutions.[248] This program places government and research publications as well as folklore and cultural information online in databases.[249] Citizens may then consult such databases in community centers to learn more about new techniques in their field, projected crop prices, their unique cultural heritage, and much more with the intent that, armed with such knowledge, citizens will feel empowered to make changes and improve their quality of life.[250]

These programs may do a lot to bridge the gap between developed and developing countries, but they still face numerous efficacy and implementation challenges. Firstly, societies may lack not just technological and physical infrastructure, but they may also lack teachers, librarians, archivists, and other professionals that support access to information by teaching or uploading documents.[251] Creating this human capacity, is a long-term project that is not easily achieved.[252] Secondly, though literacy rates are increasing, until universal literacy is achieved, citizens may

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[237] Tsey, *Community Development and Empowerment,* 2009*,* Abstract.

[238] Tsey, *Community Development and Empowerment,* 2009*,* Abstract.

[239] UNDP, *Human Development Report 2010: The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development*, 2010, p. 36.

[240] UNDP, *Human Development Report 2010: The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development*, 2010, p. 36.

[241] Das, *Open Access to Knowledge and Information: Scholarly Literature and Digital Library Initiatives - The South Asian Scenario*, 2008, p. 1.

[242] Das, *Open Access to Knowledge and Information: Scholarly Literature and Digital Library Initiatives - The South Asian Scenario*, 2008, p. 1.

[243] Moeller, Ammu, Lau, and Carbo, *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators*, 2011, p. 7.
UNDP, *Human Development Report 2010: The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development*, 2010, p. 36.

[244] Uhlir, *Policy Guidelines for the Development and Promotion of Government Public Domain Information*, 2004, p. vi.

[245] Uhlir, *Policy Guidelines for the Development and Promotion of Government Public Domain Information*, 2004, p. vi.

[246] Tsey, *Community Development and Empowerment,* 2009*,* p. 215-231.

[247] UNESCO, *Access to Information: Building Knowledge Societies.*
Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008.

[248] Das, *Open Access to Knowledge and Information: Scholarly Literature and Digital Library Initiatives - The South Asian Scenario*, 2008, Forward.

[249] Das, *Open Access to Knowledge and Information: Scholarly Literature and Digital Library Initiatives - The South Asian Scenario*, 2008.

[250] Das, *Open Access to Knowledge and Information: Scholarly Literature and Digital Library Initiatives - The South Asian Scenario*, 2008, Forward.

[251] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 6.

[252] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 6.

lack the basic reading and writing skills needed to access information.[253] Finally, even if citizens are literate, the majority of information may not be in their native language, which is why UNESCO has strongly supported multilingualism and, in particular, multilingualism online.[254]

Considering 80% of the globe now lives in areas covered by mobile networks, these structural factors are decreasingly problematic because of the proliferation of mobile communication technologies.[255] However, this coverage creates a new problem; the public sphere is now flooded with information, leaving individuals confused about how to sort, analyze, and evaluate what they hear and read.[256] People now also need to be information literate, meaning they must "recognise their information needs; locate and evaluate the quality of information; store and retrieve information; make effective and ethical use of information; and apply information to create and communicate knowledge."[257] In this way, the digital divide is now more about the differences between urban and rural areas as individuals in urban areas are more likely to gain these skills.[258]

In an effort to combat these problems, information literacy has been proclaimed by the IFAP as a basic human right. Scholars also draw attention to the fact that information literacy allows citizens to meaningful contribute to society and is important in the creation of strong civil societies, control over communities, and empowerment.[259] They also stress that access to information underpins many of the MDGs such as combating disease and enhancing employment opportunities.[260] Other innovative solutions have been developed, such as speech recognition programs.[261]

These solutions, however, do not address many greater concerns. For example, some experts argue that the building of new cyber-cafes or libraries may not effectively lead to clear socioeconomic changes or impacts.[262] This is because reports have shown no clear link between public access and downstream impacts.[263] Similar concerns exist for mobile technology.[264] Moreover, many societies, Sub-Saharan Africa in particular, have education systems that conflict with, and do not support, the ideals of a knowledge society.[265] Furthermore, while it may be easy to measure literacy, measuring information literacy is more difficult, and there are only emerging indicators and ways to quantify and evaluate achieving high levels of information literacy.[266]

Applying Access to Information: Political Change

In addition to creating economic, social, and cultural changes, access to information may empower citizens to seek broader political change. Open flow of information can lead to greater governmental transparency, making it harder to hide corruption and misrule and making it easier for citizens to assert their interests, resist exploitation, and overcome human rights abuses.[267] Because of this, political change occurs because information and communication form the basis for engaging in democratic systems by building communities and strengthening of civil society.[268]

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[253] UNDP, *Human Development Report 2010: The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development*, 2010.

[254] UNESCO, *Recommendation Concerning the Promotion and Use of Multilingualism and Universal Access to Cyberspace*, 2003.

[255] Souter, *Towards Inclusive Knowledge Societies: A Review of UNESCO's Action in Implementing the WSIS Outcomes*, 2010, p. 50.

[256] Moeller, Ammu, Lau, and Carbo, *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators*, 2011, p. 8.

[257] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 7.

[258] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 5.

[259] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 10.

[260] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 7.

[261] Plauché, Nallasamy, Pal, Wooters, and Ramachandran, *Speech Recognition for Illiterate Access to Information and Technology*, 2006.

[262] Sey, *Literature Review on the Impact of Public Access to Information and Communication Technologies*, 2009, p. 15.

[263] Sey, *Literature Review on the Impact of Public Access to Information and Communication Technologies*, 2009, p. 15.

[264] Sey, *Literature Review on the Impact of Public Access to Information and Communication Technologies*, 2009.

[265] Gaible, *Thematic study: Education Change, Leadership and the Knowledge Society*, 2010, p. 3.

[266] Catts and Lau, *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*, 2008, p. 7.

[267] United Nations Development Programme, *Human Development Report 2010: The Real Wealth of Nations: Pathways to Human Development*, 2010, p. 36.

Uhlir, *Policy Guidelines for the Development and Promotion of Government Public Domain Information*, 2004, p. v-vi.

[268] Moeller, Ammu, Lau, and Carbo, *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators*, 2011, p. 7.

This is how access to information forms the basis of democracy and democratic transitions and why nearly all democracies recognize the right of access to information.[269]

Support of e-government is one way in which many actors hope access to information will lead to democratization and governmental reform through less corruption, increased transparency, convenience, revenue growth, and cost reductions.[270] E-government attempts to transform the nature of politics and relations between government and citizens by providing access to information and improving governmental delivery of services, business and industry interactions, and government management.[271] There exist numerous case studies on implementing e-government, which frequently include computerization and uploading governmental documents online, creating government websites, and even increasingly politicians blogging online.[272] This approach is often highly praised in developed and developing countries, but, because programs frequently replicate models of e-government that work in the developed world without considering infrastructure limitations and high telecommunications costs, the efficacy of such programs is questioned.[273] The issue may be, though, simply that there is a gap between the approach and the system, but not the overall idea.[274]

Developing e-government systems, however, does not address the reasons why many citizens do not have access to information in the first place. Namely, individuals must also have the opportunity to access information through diverse media outlets; in addition, political will and a framework for open and pluralistic media and sharing of information must exist.[275] Instead of this occurring, many governments refuse to consider the benefits of making public information universally available.[276] For example, governments are committed to limiting the information available to individuals through Internet censorship.[277] Even in democracies, leaders frequently intervene in online networks at more frequency to authoritarian regimes, though authoritarian regimes are more likely to use Internet shut down as a tool for governance.[278] The Iranian "Twitter Revolution" demonstrated how governments are fearful of the potential for access to information.[279] More egregiously, restrictive political systems may discriminate against certain ethnic groups or marginalized communities economically or culturally.[280] Refusing to acknowledge or publish documents in unofficial, indigenous, or minority languages has significant detrimental effects on minority and marginal group access to information and empowerment, as demonstrated by the lack of information in Spanish available to many immigrant communities in the United States.[281] Certain cultures also may discriminate against women; some societal norms limit female access to information and specifically access to information and communication technologies.[282] Many citizens are turning to new mobile communication and social networking technologies when they do not have access to information easily; these platforms, such as Twitter and Facebook, allow independent sharing of information and can lead in governmental change.[283] However, use of these technologies may be limited by the many factors explained in the previous section.

[269] Access Info Europe, *Access to Information: A Fundamental Right, A Universal Standard*, 2006, p 1.

[270] Dada, *The Failure of E-Government in Developing Countries: A Literature Review*, 2006, p. 1.

[271] Dada, *The Failure of E-Government in Developing Countries: A Literature Review*, 2006, p. 1.

[272] Al Nagi and Hamdan, Computerization and e-Government Implementation in Jordan: Challenges, Obstacles and Successes, 2009.
Rahim, *Democratization of Information in Malaysia: A Response to Globalization*, 2011.

[273] Dada, *The Failure of E-Government in Developing Countries: A Literature Review*, 2006.

[274] Dada, *The Failure of E-Government in Developing Countries: A Literature Review*, 2006.

[275] Berger, *Freedom of Expression, Access to Information, and Empowerment of People*, 2009, p. 8.

[276] Uhlir, *Policy Guidelines for the Development and Promotion of Government Public Domain Information*, 2004, 10.

[277] Rahim, *Democratization of Information in Malaysia: A Response to Globalization*, 2011, p. 6.
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Conclusion and Further Questions

Information forms the basis of human existence and has the ability to rapidly empower individuals and societies. Failing to work towards universal access to information risks entrenching a new class of individuals who are information poor because they are disadvantaged from limited freedom, information practices, and lacking information assets to empower themselves.[284] As the work of UNESCO and the IFAP in particular stress, work to address this must acknowledge that access to information is a human right, that societies have an obligation to promote empowerment through universal access to information, and that this is fundamentally an ethical question. Additionally, achieving citizen empowerment must prioritize programs and determine the best ways to address current implementation and efficacy concerns. More broadly, as demonstrated by debates concerning the role of the digital divide and development world in controlling information, adequately addressing the universal access of information must recognize the ongoing contradiction between the right of universal access to knowledge and information for everyone and the commercial interest of privatization and scarcity of resources that define globalization.[285] As such, delegates ought to consider how to overcome current barriers towards universal access, balance the public domain of knowledge and intellectual property, prioritize funding concerns towards achieving this goal, and engage all Member States as well as the private sector.

Finally, the international community must realize that while universal access to information has the ability to empower citizens, information access will not solve anything and can have negative impacts. In the first place, the international community must realize that universal access is necessary for development, but is not sufficient in and of itself: access to information will not "bring instantaneous literacy, cure diseases, feed the hungry, or eliminate poverty."[286]

How can UNESCO and the Member States of the United Nations address these problems in conjunction with increasing access to information? What steps can be taken to ensure that infrastructural problems do not exacerbate the information wealth gap? How can the problem of information literacy be addressed?

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> *This short overview document focus on whether the Council of Europe should adopt a declaration on the right of access to information, but it is useful because it briefly traces the emergence of the right of access to information and addresses the issue across many different states. In particular, the document focuses on the prevalence of the right of access to information in many democracies and the emergence of the right in this context. Additionally, the organization also explains the scope of access to information as a universal standard.*

Al Nagi, E. and M. Hamdan. (2009). Computerization and e-Government Implementation in Jordan: Challenges, Obstacles and Successes. *Government Information Quarterly, 26:* 577–583.
> *This article focuses on Jordan's efforts to computerize and create an e-government system, analyzing the advantages, and problems of implementation. While many of these advantages and problems likely exist in other countries implementing similar programs, this piece is especially valuable for its breakdown of how to build information societies, including the challenges and obstacles to creating information societies, and what e-government is, including specific sectors of e-government and stages of development. Additionally, this article situates Jordan as a government attempting reform in the Middle East and, as such, the authors also explain the context of e-government reform in the region. When considering how to create information societies as well as*

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[284] Yu, *How Poor Informationally are the Information Poor? Evidence from an Empirical Study of Daily and Regular Information Practices of Individuals*, 2010.

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evaluate achievement on the creation of e-government systems, this article will serve as a useful initial resource.

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http://cpdcngo.org/cpdc/index.php?option=com_docman&Itemid=27&task=doc_download&gid=18
> *This document is intended to help students learn more about the relationship between democracy and knowledge based societies and provides not only easily understood examples, but also thought activities to develop a better understanding of the concept. As a teaching document, the author focuses on covering a wide-range of topics such as related freedoms, the spread of technology and democratization, and specific forms of new technologies. Finally, this document highlights the role that access to information may play in development and, especially, the potential, but limitations of the access to information.*

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> *As part of the recognition for World Press Day 2008, this report was published by UNESCO to report on various speeches and seminars around the day covering the topics of press freedom contributes to empowerment; the role of community media, journalists and the public; access to information; freedom of information and sustainable development; and the impact of the right to information on development. While all parts are highly relevant, Part 5: Impact of Right to Information on Development, which focuses on the case of India, is particularly important as it stresses how the right to information can be implemented, and that the sharing of knowledge and communication strategies to share information is one of the three most important forces that has caused a paradigm shift in how development is approached. The article also provides condensed summaries and recommendations and stresses that empowerment is possible through media and information, but is contingent upon access to diverse media outlets, political will, and analytical media consumption and related skills.*

Catts, R. and J. Lau. (2008). *Towards Information Literacy Indicators*. Retrieved August 12, 2011, from the UNESCO Web site: http://www.uis.unesco.org/Library/Documents/wp08_InfoLit_en.pdf
> *This article excels at providing first and foremost an explanation of what information literacy is and why it is important, both as a basic human right, and as an important tool to overcoming economic and cultural barriers. The authors clearly focus on both the Information for All Programme as well as the Alexandria Proclamation to explain both of these facets of information literacy. This work is also highly valuable because after explaining what information literacy is, they specifically look at barriers to achieving equality in terms information literacy and focus on how difficult it is to even measure literacy indicators.*

Capurro, R., and J. Britz. (2010). In Search of a Code of Global Information Ethics: The Road Travelled and New Horizons. *Ethical Space: The International Journal of Communication Ethic*, 7 (2/3): 28-36.
> *This article explains what is meant by "global information ethics" as well as why UNESCO's mandate includes a discussion of the issue. Specifically the authors focus on global information ethics in relation to achieving development and promoting and protecting human rights. In addition to outlining UNESCO's mandate and providing an overview of global information ethics, the authors also seek to explain why a discussion on global information ethics ought to be preferred to a code for global information ethics, especially considering regional differences in cultural and political settings. More concretely, the authors also outline the fundamental values of human freedom that a global information society must uphold, which includes not only respect of human rights, but avoiding abusing modern ICTs.*

Howard, P., S. Agarwal, and M. Hussain. (2011). The Dictators' Digital Dilemma: When Do States Disconnect Their Digital Networks? Executive Summary. *Issues in Technology Innovation* (The Brookings Institute). Retrieved October 6, 2011, from http://www.brookings.edu/papers/2011/10_dictators_digital_network.aspx
> *This report is a must read for those wishing to understand more about the relationship between new technologies and social revolution. The article is written in light of the 2009 Twitter Revolution in Iran and the 2011 Arab Sprig in order to understand how governments have dealt*

with the political use of social media. In doing so, the authors provide a simplified history of events of the Arab Spring, government actions, and how activists and civil society leaders sought to creatively use social media. In particular, the authors highlight that pro-democracy efforts have existed before new technologies, but with new technologies, activists are able to build strong networks that were capable of creating longer-lasting instances of social disobedience. These technologies make it harder to intervene and, because the state is often dependent on the same technologies, unwise to shutdown or limit. The authors also look historically at trends in government intervention and conclude that overall democracies intervene more in networks than authoritarian regimes.

Huyer, S. and T. Sikoska. (2003). O*vercoming the Gender Digital Divide: Understanding ICTs and their Potential for the Empowerment of Women*. INSTRAW Research Paper Series No. 1. Retrieved September 21, from http://www.un-instraw.org/pdf/oth-Synthesis_Paper.pdf

> *Though this document deals with women and information and communication technology, this report will help those interested in understanding the ways in which women are discriminated against and marginalized in technology and development. Additionally, it is relevant because the authors provide a brief summary of what empowerment means and then use the document to explain how it can be achieved. In particular, within this context of empowerment, the authors focus on empowerment as a personal process, but also stress that access is a power resource and that often state officials handle information as if it were their own.*

Moeller, S., J. Ammu, J. Lau, and T. Carbo. (2011). *Towards Media and Information Literacy Indicators (Background Document of the Expert Meeting)*. Retrieved August 12, 2011, from http://www.ifla.org/files/information-literacy/publications/UNESCO_MIL%20Indicators_Background_Document_2011_final.pdf

> *Though the authors of this background document focus on the role of media as relates to information literacy, as an emerging subfield and an area in which concrete action is possible to achieve citizen empowerment, this article is highly relevant. The authors also excel at explaining the changing role of information, communication, and media, stressing the difference between active and passive communication, and that media can shape personal opinions, but also that open discourse space can help individuals drive at better decisions. As the authors' ultimate goal is to propose literacy indicators, the authors also provide a very detailed description of different types of literacy and how UNESCO conceives of literacy, theoretically and in its programmatic work.*

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> *Written as a follow-up to a report "Towards Knowledge Societies," this is the most recent review of UNESCO's work to achieve implementation of the goals of the WSIS, in which the author stresses that UNESCO's greatest contribution to the goals of WSIS will be implementing its programs to build inclusive knowledge societies. In analyzing the progress of UNESCO, the author provides a line-by-line analysis of the goals assigned to UNESCO. This is also useful because such specifics are situated in the broader categories of coordination, facilitation, and implementation. Finally, this report is also important as the author provides an overall understanding of global trends affecting the creation of knowledge societies.*

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Rules of Procedure
Executive Board of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Introduction
1. These rules shall be the only rules which apply to the Executive Board of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (hereinafter referred to as "the Board") and shall be considered adopted by the Board 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 Board.

I. SESSIONS

Rule 1 - *Dates of convening and adjournment*
The board shall meet every year in regular session, commencing and closing on the dates designated by the Secretary-General.

Rule 2 - *Place of sessions*
The Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 voting 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 Board 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 Board so decides by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. No additional item may, unless the Board 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 character 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 Board to be placed on the agenda. It will, however, not be considered by the Board 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 Board.

2. The Secretary-General shall provide and direct the staff required by the Board 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 Board, and shall distribute documents of the Board to the Members, and generally perform all other work which the Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board.

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 Board are present. The presence of representatives of a majority of the members of the Board shall be required for any decision to be taken.

For purposes of this rule, members of the Board 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 Board, 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board.

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 Board 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 Board, and the President may call a speaker to order if her/his remarks are not relevant to the subject under discussion.
3. The Board 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 Board 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 Board, 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 Board.

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 Board. A motion to close the speakers' list is within the purview of the Board 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 Board 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 Board shall reconvene at its next regularly scheduled meeting time.

As this motion, if successful, would end the meeting until the Board'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 Board.

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 Board favors the closure of debate, the Board 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 Board would like the Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board. These draft resolutions are the collective property of the Board 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 Board, 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 Board 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 Board for decision shall be voted upon if any member so requests. Where no member requests a vote, the Board 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 role 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 BOARD

Rule 43 - Participation of non-Member States
1. The Board shall invite any Member of the United Nations that is not a member of the Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board is no longer required.

Rule 45 - Participation of national liberation movements
The Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board 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 Board on questions within the scope of the activities of the organizations.