Guide to the United Nations

Revised and updated edition

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Foreword

"Let us no longer be English or French or German. Let us be Europeans. And let us no longer be Europeans, but human beings. Let us be humanity."

Victor Hugo

"To jaw jaw is always better than to war war"

Winston Churchill

On the third Tuesday in September every year, the United Nations General Assembly opens for the largest diplomatic get-together on Earth.

However, the complex operations of what is known as the United Nations system are poorly understood, except for a few key moments and emblematic images such as the adoption of resolutions in the Chamber of the Security Council, the Blue Berets receiving the Noble Peace Prize in 1988, UNICEF greeting cards, and the convoys of white World Food Programme (WFP) lorries at times of conflict or humanitarian crisis. This handy guide is intended to present in simple terms the UN's institutions, working structure and current reforms.

The United Nations Organisation celebrated its sixtieth anniversary in 2005 and embodies an international legitimacy with universal reach. The UN is an essential element in the foreign policy of France and the European Union. This principle is enshrined in France's white papers on foreign and defence policy and in the European Union's security strategy as updated during the French Presidency of the EU.

The United Nations has changed considerably over the years and is constantly adapting and reforming itself, despite the somewhat bureaucratic impression it may give. On the occasion of the UN's sixtieth anniversary in 2005, the Heads of State and Government decided to launch reforms in three areas, with special emphasis on the interactions between them: peace and security, human rights and humanitarian issues, and development.

But the United Nations had already changed before that date. In the field of peace and security, its peacekeeping operations have helped save many lives and restored stability in countries round the world. The deployment of hundreds of thousands of blue-beret troops over a sixty-year period has been a creative and pragmatic response to situations of war and crisis, despite the fact that it was not explicitly provided for by the drafters of the United Nations Charter. These increasingly complex operations, deployed in situations closer to civil war than international conflict, cover all aspects of a crisis. They now extend to issues of human rights, gender, reform of security sectors, training for police and magistrates, and even to the protection of natural resources. The traditional distinction between Chapters VI and VII of the Charter concerning the conditions for the use of force has also changed over time. To meet these growing challenges, France and the United Kingdom launched a joint initiative in January 2009 to improve the professionalisation of the UN's operations and enhance its military expertise. The various sanctions regimes are also being tightened up. The United Nations contributes to the development of new international rules and takes action against new transversal threats (terrorism, organised crime, drugs, piracy, environmental security, etc.). The Commission for the Consolidation of Peace, a new organ created by the General Assembly and the Security Council, works to ensure continuity in the actions of the international community during post-crisis phases. These are topics on which France has often taken the initiative.

The UN is also the source and guardian of human rights. It lays down standards in the form of major conventions which

are binding on the States that ratify them. These international instruments can be invoked before domestic courts and may also provide defenders of human rights with a legal basis for action, be it to enhance the respect of those rights or to oppose the most flagrant breaches. The UN is an irreplaceable forum for discussion, particularly its Human Rights Council, although the debates are more controversial than before New topics of disagreement have appeared and some deem that respecting religions implies restricting freedom of expression. The progress that has been made over the last twenty years may well be jeopardized by the relativism of those who contest the universality of human rights in the name of regional culture, specific traditions or religious belief. An innovative procedure of peer review (Universal Periodic Review) requires States to make commitments which defenders of human rights may use to change those States' laws and practice.

Coordination of humanitarian action for the international community as a whole is provided by the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), set up in 1991. The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has extended its activities from refugees to internally displaced persons as internal conflicts now prevail, and started examining the new issue of "climate refugees and displaced persons".

The fight against impunity has come to the fore with the development of criminal courts which ultimately led to the creation of the International Criminal Court. Further demands have emerged with the responsibility to protect, endorsed by the 2005 Summit, whose implementation now needs to be specified in detail.

The UN's contribution in the third area, development, is undeniable. It has changed our thinking by introducing the concept of human development and defining the Millennium Development Goals. Actual practice is divided among agencies, funds and programmes that are financed and managed differ-

ently. Some fragmentation recently occurred, such as in the field of health, with the creation of new agencies and "vertical funds". In the field of the environment too, convention secretariats are increasing in number. UN structures are likely to be rationalised as governance issues are examined with a view to achieving better synergy between operational activities. The Global Compact is designed to persuade companies to subscribe to the values advocated by the United Nations.

France is deeply involved in this ongoing reform process because of its special responsibilities as a permanent member of the Security Council. The Council is the linchpin of the system established in 1945. This is why it must remain representative of the state of the world. Its membership structure has not been modified since 1965. In order to adapt to the changes that have occurred in the world since then, France supports the reform proposed by the "G4" (i.e. the extension of permanent membership to Brazil, Germany, India and Japan, and better representation of Africa). Together with the United Kingdom, France therefore suggested moving beyond the current stalemate by adopting an interim solution.

Cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union, a new player on the world scene, has greatly increased in recent years. On crisis management and security, the European Union offers its expertise to the United Nations and acts to support United Nations forces (in Democratic Republic of the Congo), to prepare their way (Chad/Central African Republic) or, via its Member States, to provide the bulk of their troops (Lebanon). The European Union also gives vigorous support to the United Nations' activities in the fields of human rights and development. The entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon causes the EU to re-examine the way it acts and expresses its views within the United Nations system.

At a time when the international system is undergoing rapid upheavals and reforms are underway in global governance, particularly in the economic and financial spheres (G14, G20, etc.), the United Nations remains more than ever the central player in providing a multilateral approach to these changes, enabling dialogue between all States, structuring their discussions and working towards a shared definition of the challenges they have to face.

Sylvie Bermann

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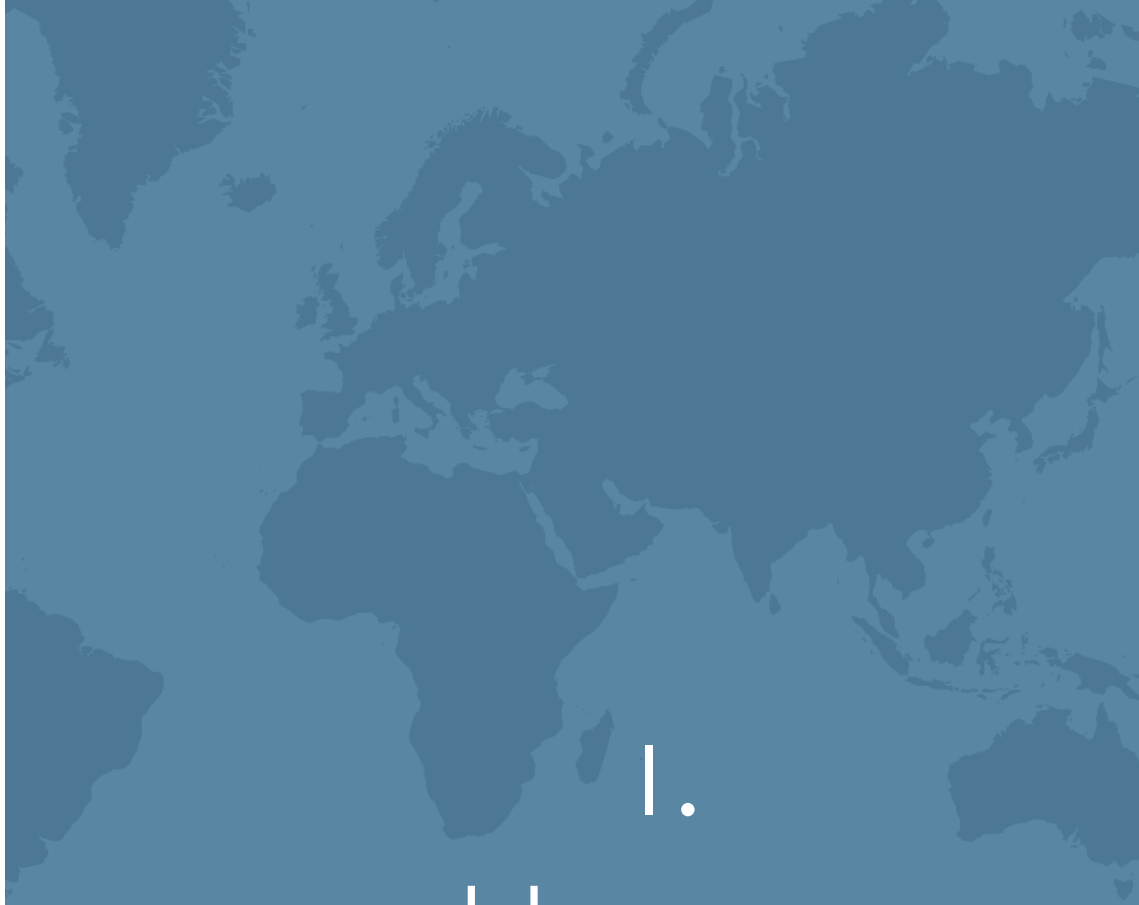


1.

History

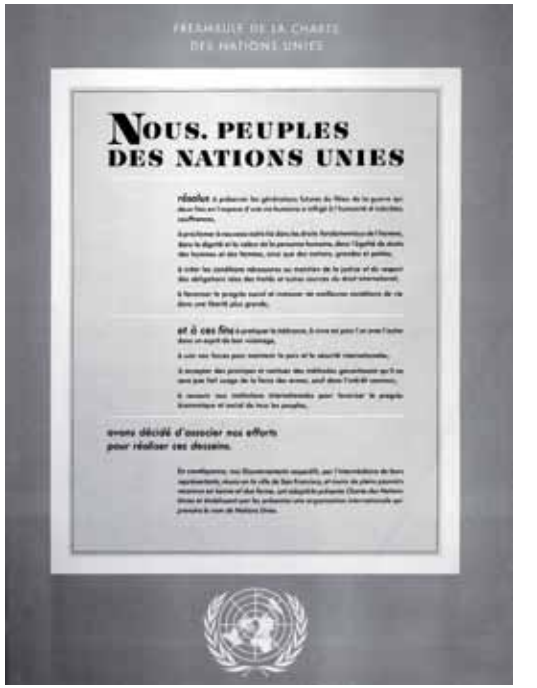
In the 20th century, international organisations greatly gained in importance as a result of economic globalisation, which increased the interdependence of States, and because of the limitations of traditional diplomacy, which had been unable to prevent two devastating world wars. In the immediate post-war years, it was felt to be essential to reaffirm legal and moral principles common to all humanity.

The legacy of the League of Nations

The United Nations Organisation was not the first permanent multilateral forum. The International Telegraph (now Telecommunication) Union was established in 1865 and the Permanent Court of Arbitration in 1899. But the immediate reason for creating the United Nations was the failure of the first similar experiment, the League of Nations (LoN).

The atrocities of the First World War led to an ambitious project for a multilateralism that could counterbalance the ravages of nationalism. President Woodrow Wilson's "Fourteen Points" speech in January 1918 introduced the idea of a League of Nations intended to ensure peace by collective security and disarmament. For the first time, the head of state of a major country sought to base international relations not on power and force as before, but on law and morality.

The League was formed in 1919, supported by a massive popular demand for peace. Its Covenant was incorporated in the major post-war treaties. It was the first international organisation with a general purpose and a permanent structure. But the League was doomed to failure. The enthusiasm that had



French preamble to the United Nations Charter.
UN Photo/X

given birth to it, the "spirit of Geneva", evaporated because of a major weakness: the League of Nations had no international armed force to enforce its decisions. Only a mechanism of economic sanctions had been provided for, which was only used once (against Italy after the invasion of Ethiopia in October 1935) and was a complete failure. Moreover, the rejection of the Treaty of Versailles and the League Covenant by the United States Congress reduced the League's legitimacy and condemned it to impotence. Not least, successive withdrawals (first Latin American countries, then the future Axis powers) turned it into an empty talking-shop. The League of Nations slipped into a coma in 1940 and was officially declared dead six years later.

For all its failings, the League's crucial achievement was the principles it enshrined: sovereign equality of States; permanent, institutionalised, multilateral dialogue among them; the principle of collective security replacing the traditional power games; subordination of national interests to an abstract, long-term general interest; peaceful settlement under international law of disputes between nations; recognition of the rights of minorities. These made the League of Nations the forerunner of the organisation that was to succeed it.

Early steps towards the United Nations

At a time when the Axis powers appeared to be winning the war on all fronts, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met off Newfoundland and on 14 August 1941 published a joint declaration known as the Atlantic Charter. They hoped "to see established a peace which [would] afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries", based on a few major principles: disarmament, self-government of peoples, abandonment of the use of force. The Charter, which did not have treaty status, was intended primarily as a joint profession of faith and a message of hope for the enemy-occupied countries.

Not until two years later, at the Third Moscow Conference in October 1943, did the United States of America, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union, and China recognise "the necessity of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organisation, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states". The principles behind the future world organisation were now laid down. Its operating mechanisms were defined on 7 October 1944 in the Dumbarton Oaks mansion in Washington, D.C., in the presence of representatives of the four powers. It was decided that the new body would have four main organs: a Security Council, a General Assembly, a Secretariat and an Economic and Social Council.

San Francisco Conference: signature of the United Nations Charter (26 June 1945).
UN Photo/Yutaka Nagata

The founding event: the San Francisco Conference

Within a few months, the San Francisco Conference met from 25 April to 26 June 1945 with delegates from 50 countries representing some 80% of the world's population. On 25 June 1945, they met in plenary session at the San Francisco War Memorial Opera House and unanimously adopted the United Nations Charter.

The Charter entered into force, as stipulated, once China, France, the Soviet Union, United Kingdom and United States and the majority of the other signatory States had ratified it. The legal and practical existence of the United Nations Organisation dates therefore from 24 November 1945.

The United Nations and the Cold War

The new institution made a promising start. The opening of the first General Assembly in January 1946, the adoption of the first resolution on the peaceful use of atomic energy and the elimination of weapons of mass destruction, and the election of the first Secretary-General, Trygve Lie, appeared to announce the emergence of a more peaceful world under the aegis of the United Nations.

In 1947, the Cold War put paid to this initial period of hope. The UN's institutions were virtually paralysed by the US-Soviet confrontation. Hopes for global cooperation between equal partners were replaced by a bipolarisation that made multilateral forums impotent.

The United Nations became the target of recurring criticism for its overstaffed, inefficient bureaucracy cut off from reality. In his annual report in 1982, the Secretary-General, Javier Pérez de Cuéllar, denounced the "crisis in the multilateral approach in international affairs and the concomitant erosion of the authority and status of world and regional intergovernmental organisations", which seemed to him to come "perilously near to a new international anarchy".

Return of multilateralism?

After this long period of marginalisation, the UN regained some room for manoeuvre with the ending of the Cold War. The end of a bipolar world, success in settling a number of crises (Afghanistan, Iran-Iraq, Central America, Namibia) and, not least, the response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait seemed

to herald a new international order guaranteed by American power operating in the name of the UN and principles recognised by all.

However, these hopes for a "new world order" rapidly faded in the face of new crises that the UN was unable to settle, as in Somalia, Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia. The bipolar world, which provided some sort of equilibrium, had been replaced by a multipolar world, fluid and uncertain.

The sidestepping of the Security Council in 2003 at the start of the US intervention in Iraq and the bombing that caused the death of Sérgio Vieira de Mello in Baghdad were traumatic events for the United Nations. Similarly, the scandals in the "Oil for Food" programme were bad for its image.

Despite these reverses, the United Nations' activities and scope for intervention have continued to develop significantly. Peacekeeping operations (PKOs) mandated by the Security Council have expanded unprecedentedly since the early 1990s. Their mandate has also become more ambitious, with PKOs in countries suffering from civil war.

The United Nations has also seen its jurisdictional function extended by the establishment of international criminal tribunals (first for the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda, and then Cambodia and Sierra Leone). The creation by the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, which is not part of the UN system but cooperates with it, has complemented this international system of jurisdiction. ■

II.

United Nations institutions and structure

The UN Charter provides for six main organs: General Assembly, Security Council, Economic and Social Council, Trusteeship Council, International Court of Justice and Secretariat. The Human Rights Council, set up in 2006, extends the United Nations system into the field of human rights. The system also comprises specialised agencies and funds. These institutions are funded in various ways.

Organs provided for in the Charter

United Nations General Assembly: chief deliberative organ

The General Assembly is the chief deliberative organ. Its powers and functions under Chapter IV of the Charter are extensive. It makes proposals to States to develop international cooperation in a wide range of fields (politics, development of international law, in the economic and social fields, culture, education, public health, human rights, etc.). The General Assembly may intervene to maintain international peace and security, except where the Security Council is competent. Its role is also to elect the United Nations Secretary-General (on the recommendation of the Security Council), the non-permanent members of the UNSC and the members of the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice (ICJ) and the Human Rights Council. It considers and approves the United Nations budget. It comprises one representative from each Member State, who has a single vote (on the principle of "one State, one vote") in order to put all 192 Member States on an equal footing.

Nicolas Sarkozy, President of France, addresses the general debate of the sixty-fourth session of the General Assembly (23 September 2009).
UN Photo/Marco Castro

>> Working procedures

Each year, the General Assembly meets in ordinary session from September to December. With the close of the general debate, the Assembly begins consideration of the substantive items on its agenda. Because of the great number of questions it is called upon to consider, the Assembly allocates items relevant to its work among its six Main Committees. The Committees discuss the items, seeking where possible to harmonise the various approaches of States, and present their recommendations, usually in the form of draft resolutions and decisions, to a plenary meeting of the Assembly for its consideration.

Competences of the Main Committees:

– **First Committee:** disarmament and related international security questions
– **Second Committee:** economic and financial
– **Third Committee:** social, humanitarian and cultural issues (dealing largely in practice with questions of human rights)
– **Fourth Committee:** special political questions and decolonisation
– **Fifth Committee:** administrative and budgetary questions
– **Sixth Committee:** international legal matters.

>> Millennium and Millennium +5 Summits

The Millennium Summit was held at the United Nations headquarters in New York on 6-8 September 2000. This was a historic occasion for Member States to address the "role of the United Nations in the 21st century". Discussion of the challenges to be faced addressed poverty, peace and the environment. The then Secretary-General, Kofi Annan, asked leaders to commit themselves to achieving a number of objectives by 2015. He formulated these objectives as part of an action plan to make globalisation of benefit to all. The objectives included the "Millennium Development Goals". The Summit also saw the signature of international agreements, particularly concerning the International Criminal Court, land mines, women and children's rights, as well as climate change.

Five years later a second Summit was held in New York in September 2005, before the 60th session of the UNGA, to make an initial review one-third of the way towards the target date. Despite the progress made, the UN Secretary-General reminded

countries of the need to meet their commitments, especially for the MDGs.

At the 2005 Summit, a Millennium +5 Declaration was adopted, laying down the major outlines of UN reform, particularly for peace and security (creation of a Peacebuilding Commission, stronger action against terrorism), development (importance of finding innovative sources of financing for development aid, possible creation of a United Nations Environment Organisation-UNEO), human rights (recognition of the principle of the responsibility to protect civil populations against genocide, ethnic cleansing, war crimes and crimes against humanity, creation of a Human Rights Council) and the administration of the UN.

A Summit on the monitoring of the Millenium Development Goals will be held in New York from September 20th to 22nd, 2010.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

– Eradicate extreme poverty & hunger
– Achieve universal primary education
– Promote gender equality and empower women
– Reduce child mortality
– Improve maternal health
– Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
– Ensure environmental sustainability
– Develop a global partnership for development

The Goals are built around "targets" and indicators for tracking progress in each field, monitored by the entire United Nations system and, in particular, each of its agencies.

United Nations Security Council

The Security Council is the keystone of the security system implemented by the United Nations Charter, which devotes its Chapter V to the Council.

In order to break away from the period of wars that marked the first half of the 20th century, the Charter entrusts the Security Council with responsibility for measures to maintain international peace and security. These measures may vary considerably and are envisaged by the Charter either as the pacific settlement of disputes (Chapter VI) or as coercive measures (Chapter VII), which may include the use of armed force.

>> Mandate

Under Article 24 of the Charter, the United Nations Security Council has primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. If a dispute is brought to its attention, the Security Council may request an inquiry or make recommendations for a pacific settlement, under the clauses in Chapter VI. The Council is competent to determine the existence of any threat to international peace and security, and may decide what coercive measures shall be taken under Chapter VII.

These measures are of three types:
– provisional measures (Article 40)
– measures not involving the use of armed force (Article 41)
– authorisation of the use of armed force (Article 42).

The Security Council must act in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations. However, its decisions are not subject to monitoring for compliance. They are mandatory for all Member States, under Article 25 of the Charter, in all their provisions, whether coercive or not.

In addition, the Council may recommend to the General Assembly the admission of new members (Article 4) and the nomination of the Secretary-General (Article 97). Under Article 4 of the Statute of the International Court of Justice, it elects, together with the General Assembly, the members of the Court.

Security Council as it discusses the situation in Kosovo and the work of the United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) 22 January 2010, United Nations, New York.
UN Photo/Paulo Filgueiras

>> Membership

When the United Nations was set up in 1945, the Security Council had 11 members: 5 permanent members (United States, Republic of China, France, United Kingdom, USSR) each with a right of veto, and 6 non-permanent members elected for two years and not immediately re-eligible. Among the permanent members, Russia succeeded the USSR after the latter's dissolution in 1991. China's seat has been occupied since 1971 by the government of the People's Republic of China, replacing that of the Republic of China (Taiwan).

During the decolonisation period, several dozen States joined the UN in the late 1950s and early 1960s. In order to take account of this major increase in members and involve the new members in maintaining international peace and security, it was thought necessary to enlarge the Security Council. Resolution 1991 (XVIII) of the General Assembly dated 17 December 1963 (entry into force in 1965) created 4 new seats for non-permanent members. The Security Council has thus had 15 members since 1965.

The 10 non-permanent members are elected 5 per year by the General Assembly in a secret ballot, according to their contribution to peacekeeping and a fair geographical distribution. To meet the geographical criterion, Member States are divided into geographical groups with one or two seats on the Security Council:

– Africa group (3 seats),
– Latin America and Caribbean group (2 seats),
– Asia group (2 seats),
– Eastern Europe group (1 seat),
– Western Europe and Others group (2 seats).

>> Working procedures

Each member of the Security Council has one vote. Security Council decisions are taken as follows:

– by affirmative vote of at least 9 of the 15 members for procedural matters

– by affirmative vote of at least 9 of the 15 members and no veto from a permanent member for substantive matters.

The Presidency rotates monthly in alphabetical order of the members' names in English. The Security Council is so organised as to be able to discharge its functions at all times. The President has the power to convene the Security Council. It may do so at the request of any Council member or when a situation or dispute is brought to its attention. The General Assembly and the Secretary-General may refer questions to the Security Council.

Nicolas Sarkozy, President of France, addresses the Security Council Summit on nuclear non-proliferation and disarmament (24 September 2009.
N Photo/Erin Siegal

The Council's meetings are generally held in private, although there has been an increase in the number of public meetings in recent years. The Council may invite any UN Member State to take part, with no right to vote, if its interests are specially affected (Article 31). The Security Council may also invite members of the Secretariat or any qualified person to examine a topic on the agenda.

The Security Council has adopted the practice introduced by the Venezuelan ambassador Diego Arria during his monthly presidency in 1992 of consulting political personalities, representatives of civil society and parties unable to attend Council meetings (such as liberation movements) during informal meetings held outside the Council Chamber ("Arria Formula").

>> Acts

The Security Council may adopt three types of act:

– Security Council resolutions with mandatory force under Article 25 of the UN Charter. To be adopted, the resolution must have a 9-vote majority with no veto

– Presidential declarations with less force than resolutions, since they are not binding. They may however have a significant political importance. They must be adopted unanimously by Council members

– Press declarations are also approved unanimously.

Only resolutions and Presidential declarations are formal acts.

>> Prospects for reform

The absence of any radical reform of the Security Council since 1945 (except for enlargement in 1965) is due to the need to amend the United Nations Charter in order to do so (as stipulated in Article 108). This would require the adoption and ratification of the draft reform by two-thirds of UN members (out of a current total of 192, over 128 States), including the 5 permanent members of the Security Council.

The topic of reforming the Security Council was raised again by the United Nations General Assembly in 1994, and an *ad hoc* working group was set up to examine enlarging the Council in order to achieve more equitable representation of Member States.

At the September 2005 World Summit on the reform of the United Nations, a number of proposals were presented but none gained full approval:

▶ The G4 (Brazil, Germany, India and Japan) proposed in July 2005 the creation of six new permanent seats (G4 plus 2 African States to be decided) with no right of veto, and four new non-permanent seats (one each for Asia, Eastern Europe, Latin America and Caribbean, and Africa). The G4 proposal also included the possibility, fifteen years after the reform, of granting veto rights to the new permanent members

Bernard Kouchner, Minister of Foreign and European Affairs and President of the Security Council for January, addresses a Security Council meeting on the situation in the Middle East, including the Palestinian question (08 January 2009).
UN Photo/Mark Garten

▶ The "Uniting for Consensus" group, comprising such countries as Argentina, Canada, Italy, Mexico, Pakistan and South Korea, proposed enlarging the Security Council by 10 new non-permanent members.

The African countries presented an alternative proposal, known as the "Ezulwini Consensus", revised at the African Union Summit in Syrte (6 July 2005), with the creation of 2 permanent seats with veto rights and 2 further non-permanent seats for African countries.

After the stalemate in 2005, the General Assembly's work was relaunched by its President in February 2007 with the appointment of "facilitators", who suggested in two successive reports that

an interim reform would break the deadlock. This might involve a transitional period of, say 10-15 years, when non-permanent members would be elected for a longer renewable term with a view to becoming permanent at the end of the transition period.

The principle of an interim reform was raised again in the joint French-UK declaration of 27 March 2008, adopted by President Nicolas Sarkozy and Gordon Brown, the British Prime Minister, and is gaining support. It has the advantage of enabling the parameters of a Security Council reform to be tested.

An important formal stage in reforming the Security Council was reached on 19 February 2009, with the decision by the General Assembly to begin intergovernmental negotiations. However, Member States' positions still diverge widely on major aspects of the reform (number of new members, veto rights, regional representation, etc.).

United Nations Secretary-General and Secretariat: an independent authority and an active administration

>> United Nations Secretary-General

Although Chapter XV of the UN Charter concerning the United Nations Secretariat and Secretary-General (UNSG) only comprises five short articles, the role of these players has taken on considerable importance since the birth of the UN. Under the Charter, the UNSG is the United Nations' chief administrative officer. In addition to directing the many activities of the United Nations Secretariat, the Charter requires him or her to perform such other functions as are entrusted to them by the Security Council, the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council and the Trusteeship Council. In particular, the Secretary-General may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his or her opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security.

Press conference by UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon.
UN Photo/Mark Garten

United Nations Secretaries-General

Trygve Lie	(Norway)	1946-1952
Dag Hammarskjöld	(Sweden)	1953-1961
U Thant	(Myanmar)	1961-1971
Kurt Waldheim	(Austria)	1972-1981
Javier de Perez de Cuellar	(Peru)	1982-1991
Boutros Boutros-Ghali	(Egypt)	1992-1996
Kofi Annan	(Ghana)	1997-2006
Ban Ki-moon	(South Korea)	depuis 2007

Because of this independence, the UNSG plays a major role in avoiding the emergence, aggravation or extension of all conflicts, by acting as a mediator or appointing personal representatives or special envoys as he or she sees fit.

The UNSG is appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The Secretary-General produces an annual report of his or her activities.

>> Secretariat

In addition to its administrative role (arranging meetings, translations, coordination the work of the agencies, etc.), the Secretariat engages in the production of studies to set standards and circulate information in various fields according to

United Nations headquarters in New York.
MAEE/Frédéric de La Mure

the priorities laid down by the Member States in the decision-making organs, and also produces and publishes statistics. It cooperates with non-governmental organisations and acts in consultation with civil society.

The Secretariat provides humanitarian relief in coordination with the relevant United Nations agencies, particularly for refugees and displaced persons. It promotes international cooperation for economic and social development, human rights and international law.

The Secretariat's main administration units are the following:
– Department of Public Information
– Department of Political Affairs
– Department of Peacekeeping Operations
– Department of Field Support
– Peacebuilding Support Office
– Office for Disarmament Affairs
– Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
– Department of Economic and Social Affairs
– Office of Legal Affairs
– Office of Internal Oversight Services
– Department for General Assembly and Conference Management
– Department of Safety and Security
– Department of Management

Three major departments of the United Nations Secretariat

Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) This Department's mission is to plan, prepare, manage and direct peacekeeping operations mandated by the Security Council. It was first headed by a British national, Sir Marrack Goulding, followed by Kofi Anan (Ghana), and then by French nationals Bernard Miyet, Jean-Marie Guéhenno and, since 2008, Alain Le Roy.

The DPKO provides political and executive direction to UN peacekeeping operations, and maintains contact with the Security Council, troop and financial contributors, and parties to the conflict in the implementation of Security Council mandates.

The DPKO solicits support from troop – and finance – contributing countries to enable the assembly of a force appropriate to the mission. Once the force is deployed, the DPKO is the link between the Secretary-General's Special Representative and the force commander so that they can implement the mandate of the Security Council. Since 2007, the DPKO has received logistical support for operations from the Department of Field Support (DFS).

At present the DPKO is managing fifteen peacekeeping operations and two political and peace-building missions.

Department of Political Affairs (DPA)

This Department advises the UNSG on matters concerning international peace and security. It comprises geographical divisions (Africa 1 and 2, Americas and Europe, Asia and the Pacific) and thematic ones (electoral assistance, Security Council affairs).

The DPA is the major source of political analysis and advice for the Secretary-General and the Security Council. It coordinates the Secretariat's preventive diplomacy and "good offices" (dispatch of mediators).

The DPA manages special political field missions.

Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA)

This Department provides the link between policy guidelines decided internationally in the economic, social and environmental fields and the policies implemented at national level.

DESA analyses a wide range of economic, social and environmental data for States.

It facilitates negotiations in a large number of intergovernmental organisations to help Member States adopt a collective strategy.

It advises governments how to transpose into national practice the guidelines adopted at UN summits and conferences.

Economic and Social Council: coordinating economic and social activities

>> Mandate

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) was established under UN Charter Chapter X as the principal organ to coordinate economic, social, and related work of the UN's specialised institutions.

ECOSOC serves as the central forum for discussing international economic and social issues, and for formulating policy recommendations intended for Member States as well as the United Nations system as a whole (specialized agencies, funds and programmes). It consults relevant NGOs to that end. It encourages universal compliance with fundamental freedoms. It convenes international conferences on topics within its remit and prepares draft agreements for submission to the General Assembly. It coordinates social and economic activities of specialised institutions and defines their relations with the UN.

>> Working procedures

ECOSOC holds a substantive session each year, comprising a high-level debate that examines major economic and social questions, and a number of shorter successive sessions. Throughout the year, its work continues in the subsidiary organs that report to it. During annual "spring reunions", the Council enters into dialogue with international financial institutions (IMF and World Bank), the World Trade Organisation and the UNCTAD.

>> Current reforms

During the preparations for the 2005 Summit, the UNSG pointed out the marginalisation of ECOSOC in economic and social governance at a time when changes in the environment require the full use of its coordination and consultation functions.

In the light of this observation, ECOSOC's role was reasserted and reinforced as the principal organ for coordinating and formulating policy to achieve the development goals. A biennial Development Cooperation Forum and an Annual Ministerial Review, primarily in charge of monitoring the commitments made during the main conferences and summits of the United Nations, have been instituted to that end, within the framework of the high-level debate.

Trusteeship Council

The Trusteeship Council, provided for in Chapter XIII of the UN Charter suspended operations in 1994, with the independence of Palau, the last remaining United Nations trust territory.

International Court of Justice (ICJ)

The International Court of Justice, the successor to the Permanent Court of International Justice instituted by the Charter of the League of Nations, is the main judicial organ of the United Nations Organisation. It is governed by Chapter XIV of the UN Charter and its appended statute. Its fifteen judges sit in The Hague. The ICJ is competent to settle disputes submitted to it by States. It may issue consultative opinions on points of international law referred to it by the Security Council or the UN General Assembly.

The Human Rights Council and the bodies and mechanisms in charge of the protection and promotion of human rights

From the very beginnings of the United Nations at the end of the Second World War, the promotion and protection of human rights were seen as one of the necessary bulwarks preventing a return to barbarism and as an essential feature for ensuring

peace. In 1946, the Commission on Human Rights was set up with the leadership of René Cassin. He would later be, together with Eleanor Roosevelt (United States), John Peters Humphrey (Canada), P.C. Chang (China) and Charles Habib Malik (Lebanon), behind the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948 by the 3rd UN General Assembly at the Palais de Chaillot in Paris.

The rights recognised in the Universal Declaration were developed over the decades and made legally binding in two international covenants[1] (which constitute the International Bill of Human Rights together with the UDHR), as well as in international agreements[2] and their optional protocols. The universal relevance of human rights and of these texts was forcefully reasserted at the World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna in 1993.

Human Rights Council

Long criticised for its ineffectiveness and the political nature of its discussions, the Commission on Human Rights was replaced in March 2006 by the Human Rights Council (HRC). The purpose of this reform was to raise the profile of human rights within the United Nations system by making the HRC a subsidiary organ of the UNGA (and no longer of the ECOSOC) and to be able to rely on a more effective, reactive, permanent and cooperative body. The HRC provides for virtually continuous monitoring of human rights in the world and can meet in extraordinary session if a crisis requires it.

1. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

2. International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, Convention on the Rights of the Child, International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Special meeting of the Human Rights Council on Gaza (9 January 2009).
UN Photo/Jean-Marc Ferre

The HRC is due to report on its work and functioning in 2011 and the General Assembly will review its status that same year.

>> Mandate

The HRC's mandate is to "promot[e] universal respect for the protection of all human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, […] address situations of violations of human rights, including gross and systematic violations, and make recommendations thereon." It has also be granted a preventive role and a crucial normative function, with the elaboration of legally binding human rights instruments. To that end the HRC makes "recommendations to the General Assembly for the further development of international law in the field of human rights". The HRC also has the task of promoting human rights education and technical assistance. Finally, it courages States to fully comply with the obligations they have endorsed.

>> Membership

The HRC comprises 47 members elected for three years with an equitable geographical distribution. No State may serve more than two consecutive mandates. The election procedure for the HRC has been revised to strengthen the selection of members according to their human rights record. Any State wishing to become a member must make public and voluntary pledges and commitments to promote and protect human rights. It must also receive at least 97 supportive votes to be elected, that is an absolute majority of the General Assembly.

The great majority of HRC sessions are open to all UN Member States, but only Council members have voting rights. Representatives of accredited NGOs also attend most meetings as observers and are sometimes invited to take an active part in the work of the Council.

>> Working procedures

The HRC holds three ordinary sessions per year, for a total period of at least 10 weeks (compared with a single six-week session for the former Commission on Human Rights). It may convene an extraordinary session at the request of one-third of its members. The HRC met twelve times in extraordinary session between 2006 and June 2010, to address geographical issues (such as Lebanon, Myanmar, DR Congo, Sudan, Guinea and Gaza) and thematic issues (food crisis, economic and financial crisis).

>> Universal Periodic Review (UPR)

This innovative procedure allows for an automatic peer review of the human rights situation in all UN Member States every four years. Each State review is carried out with three States drawn by lot and acting as rapporteurs forming the "troikas" and on the basis of information provided by the State, civil society and experts (NGOs, national human rights institutions) and UN expert mechanisms such as treaty bodies. The HRC members, meeting in a working group, assess whether the State under review complies with its international obligations and implements the recommendations of UN bodies. Upon completion of the review, the HRC may formulate recommendations and decide on actions of technical assistance, in coordination with the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. France was among the first countries examined under the UPR, in May 2008.

>> Special procedures

The Commission on Human Rights had set up a number of non-treaty based procedures and mechanisms ("special procedures") which were entrusted to working composed of individual experts or to independent persons known as "special rapporteurs" or "independent experts". The selection of these experts is based on criteria of competence, experience, independence, impartiality, integrity and objectivity. Principles of gender equality, equitable geographical distribution and representation of various legal systems are also taken into account.

Country mandates involve experts monitoring the human rights situation in a given country, while thematic mandates mobilise experts addressing a crosscutting human rights issue. There are currently about ten country mandates and about thirty thematic mandates, covering matters such as freedom of expression, freedom of religion or conviction, enforced or involuntary disappearances, extrajudicial, summary or arbitrary executions, torture and other cruel, inhumane or degrading punishment or treatment, children in armed conflicts, promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms in anti-terrorism action and the right to food.

The independent experts issue recommendations to the States they review. They present their reports to the HRC. This presentation is followed by an interactive dialogue between the rapporteur and the HRC Member States, notably those directly concerned by the report.

>> Normative role: resolutions

The HRC is the forum for the elaboration and monitoring of the implantation of international human rights law. Resolutions are adopted during HRC sessions with the aim of promoting human rights throughout the world and advancing international human rights law. For example, France recently facilitated the adoption of a resolution calling on all States to ratify the International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance so that it could enter into force as soon as possible, and another concerning human rights and extreme poverty.

Third Committee of the UN General Assembly

Under Article 13 of the United Nations Charter, the General Assembly is competent to initiate studies and make recommendations notably for the purpose of promoting international cooperation in the social, cultural, educational, and health fields, and to facilitate the enjoyment of realisation of human rights and fundamental freedoms by every individual without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion. In practice these tasks are the responsibility of the Third Committee, in charge of social, humanitarian and cultural affairs, and which meets during the main part of the General Assembly's ordinary session (September to December).

The Third Committee thus plays an essential role in the promotion of human rights. In addition to the adoption of specific resolutions, thematic or addressing the human rights situation in a given State, and the monitoring of major conferences in this field, it submits to the General Assembly, convened in plenary session, drafts of international conventions in the field of human rights. The General Assembly decides, if necessary, to open these to signing. The Human Rights Council may also submit the texts it has adopted to the General Assembly.

It can be noted that the wide membership of this UNGA committee sometimes allows for less controversial debate than within the HRC. Provided that its work is properly articulated with that of the HRC, it is important to maintain the Third Committee, notwithstanding occasional calls by certain states for its suppression.

Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights

The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) was created in 1993 following the Vienna World Conference on Human Rights and has its headquarters in Geneva. Its mission is to promote and protect human rights throughout the world. It ensures that international instruments for the protection of human rights are enforced and facilitate their ratification. The OHCHR cooperates with other UN bodies to ensure that human rights standards are mainstreamed into all UN actions. Through a consultative role, it also works with governments to facilitate their involvement in human rights issues. The OHCHR has strengthened its field presence and has now offices in about twenty countries where it provides monitoring and advice for the promotion and respect of human rights. It notably contributes to strengthening cooperation between national institutions and civil society. The OHCHR may also send out human rights advisors to support UN teams in peacekeeping operations.

Since 2006, the OHCHR has been entitled to send or support missions or commissions of inquiry examining allegations of serious human rights violations. Finally, the OHCHR also acts as the secretariat of the Human Rights Council and assists it in preparing UPRs.

Treaty bodies

In addition to ones laid down in its Charter, the United Nations system includes bodies created under international treaties on the

protection of human rights. In charge of monitoring the implementation of human rights covenants and, they meet three times a year in New York or Geneva. Upon an examination of the reports provided by governments, each of these committees issues recommendations to the State considered regarding the domestic implementation of the Convention it covers. Most of these committees may also examine individual communications (complaints) from persons who believe that their rights have been violated.

The bodies are the Human Rights Committee (CCPR)[3], the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD), the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Committee Against Torture (CAT), the Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the Committee on Migrant Workers (CMW), and the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). Each treaty body may also issue general comments interpreting and clarifying the provisions of its particular treaty.

Other specialised institutions, agencies, funds and programmes

The United Nations system has gradually grown into a structure that is more of a network than a hierarchical pyramid. A number of organisations, such as the International Telegraph Union, the oldest of them all, or the International Labour Organisation, were in existence before the United Nations was set up.

The United Nations system comprises mainly:

▶ **funds** and **programmes** (e.g., UNICEF and UNDP) set up by the UNGA to carry out operational actions in a particular field and funded mainly by voluntary contributions. The directors of these funds and programmes are appointed by the UN Secretary-General. However, their action is guided and monitored by intergovernmental executive boards which are usually elected by ECOSOC, with their own specific members.

▶ **specialised institutions** (e.g., WHO, UNESCO, FAO), fifteen in number, that are autonomous intergovernmental

3. Tasked with monitoring the implementation of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

United Nations system-wide coherence: reform of operational activities

In November 2006, a high-level panel presented the Secretary-General with recommendations to enhance the coherence and efficiency of UN agencies, following the Millenium +5 Declaration. The panel's recommendations were based on three pillars (environment, development and humanitarian assistance) and used a double approach (institutional architecture and funding). They came with a specific timetable which constitutes a coherent framework for reforming operational activities (funds, programmes, specialised institutions). Following this report, an intergovernmental discussion process began in the UNGA to examine in depth the panel's recommendations. In September 2008, the UNGA asked the Secretariat to present a draft for creating a new organisation in the field of gender equality and decided to continue discussing governance issues (changes in the role of ECOSOC, links with UN agencies) as well as the funding of operational activities. A series of proposals in these areas are currently being debated in this forum. At the same time, the panel's recommendations for better coordination of UN assistance on the ground, are being tried out in eight pilot schemes started in 2007 (Albania, Cape Verde, Mozambique, Pakistan, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uruguay and Vietnam). Initial results proved satisfactory. The purpose of this coordination is to prompt specialized agencies, funds and programmes to coordinate their action on the ground in compliance with a single country-specific programme.

organisations, created by international agreements and mostly funded by compulsory contributions, working with ECOSOC or the UNGA. They have their own budgets and intergovernmental governing bodies, which lay down their standards and principles.

This diversity, which stems from Member States' wishes, is both a guarantee of responsiveness and a source of administrative complexity or even competition between the various bodies. Coordinating structures have been set up to remedy this. They are overseen by the Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB), which meets twice a year under the chairmanship of the United Nations Secretary General and comprises the chief executives of the UN specialised institutions, funds and programmes, including international financial institutions, the WTO and IAEA.

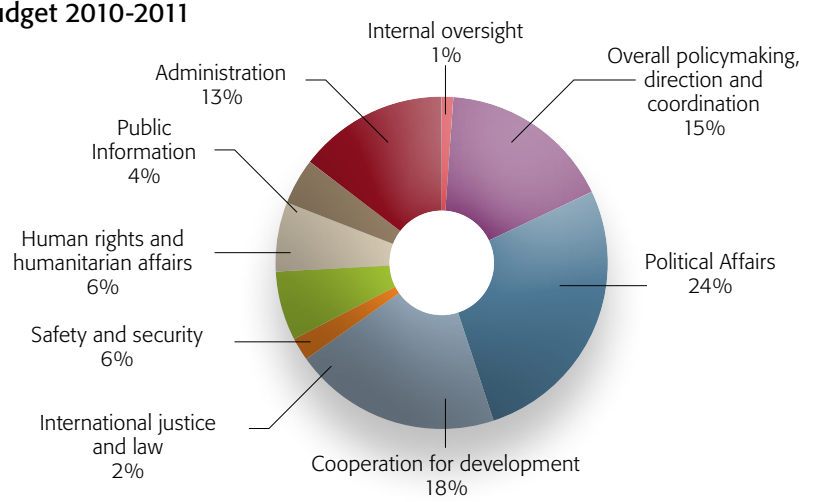
Funding

Major budgets

>> UN regular budget

The UN regular budget comprises all the expenditure made by the Secretariat-General at headquarters and in the field to implement the UN's action programmes (except for peace-keeping operations and international criminal courts). The budget is denominated in US dollars and adopted for a period of two years. However, it may be amended during this time to take account of the financial effects of General Assembly decisions. The UN budget has expanded considerably in recent years, as the number of special political missions and human rights activities increased along with this of reforms (management and control structures being enhanced, information systems strengthened, and agents better trained and indemnified). The two-year budget for 2010-2011 is $ 5,2 billion.

UN budget 2010-2011



The budget is funded by contributions from Member States. A scale of apportionment was adopted by the General Assembly (Article 17 of the UN Charter) and provides that each member state contributes "approximately according to the ability to pay". This scale is revised every three years or so

In the scale in force for the period 2010-2012, the method of calculating each State's ability to pay is based on its share of global gross national products (in US dollars) over a reference period of four years and a half (average of the last three and six past years). Developing countries then benefit from adjustments (linked to low per capital income or external debt), floor rates (0.001%) and ceiling rates (0.01% for the least developed countries and 22% for maximum contribution) which lower their actual contribution.

Main contributors to the UN regular budget
(% quota)

United States	22.0%	Chine	3,19%
Japan	12,53%	Mexico	2.36%
Germany	8.02%	South Korea	2.26%
United Kingdom	6.6%	Netherlands	1.85%
France	6.12%	Australia	1.93%
Italy	4,99%	Switzerland	1.13%
Canada	3.2%	Russia	1.6%
Spain	3.18%		

After these adjustments, France's quota amounts to 6.12% of the budget (5th contributor) and this of the European Union, to almost 40% of the global budget. France's contribution for 2010 was €90 million (not including renovation of UN headquarters).

>> PKO budgets

Except for the longest-running operations (UNTSO in Palestine and UNMOGIP in Kashmir), whose expenses are covered by the UN regular budget, each peacekeeping operation (PKO) has its own budget, adopted in June for the financial year 1 July to 30 June. These budgets have rapidly expanded in the last ten years as the number and size of the operations increased. The PKO budget running from 1 July 2009 to 30 June 2010 thus amounted to $7.8 billion. Just like the regular budget, it is apportioned between Member States according to a scale designed to reflect their ability to pay As they bear a specific responsibility with regard to peace-keeping, permanent members of the

Security Council pay a higher quota, which in turns enables developing countries to benefit from reductions (amounting to 20% to 90% of their regular budget quota). Under this system, France's contribution amounts to 7.56% of the PKO budget since 1 January 2010. It totalled €95,5 million in 2009.

>> Funds and programmes

The total resources of UN funds and programmes are hard to assess because of the diversity and fragmentation of their activities. Plus, this amount strongly varies from one year to the next, depending on the scope of international crises needing to be solved. In 2008, UN's main funds (UNCTAD, UNDCP, UNICEF, UNDP, UNFPA, HCR, WFP, UNRWA and UN-HABITAT) had approximately $14 billion at their disposal

Unlike the regular budget and the PKO budgets, the funds and programmes are funded by voluntary contributions. France's contributions to the operating expenses and regular programmes of these funds and programmes amounted to €71,5 million in 2009 less than 1% of UN voluntary funds. 80% of these contributions helped finance four organisations:

– United Nations Development Programme (UNDP): €26 million
– Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees (OHCR): €14 million
– UNICEF: €10 million
– Programme for Palestinian refugees (UNRWA): €5 million

France will contribute €55,1 million to UN funds and programmes in 2010 and will keep focusing on the same four organisations.

Role of the Fifth Committee

Under Article 17 of the UN Charter, the General Assembly may examine and approve the organisation's expenditure and the apportionment of funding among Member States. These

tasks fall in practice to the Fifth Committee, which meets during the main part of the General Assembly's ordinary session (September to December) and at resumed sessions in March and May.

During the main part of the session, the Fifth Committee primarily examines issues that require the General Assembly to authorise expenditures before the end of the calendar year (such as the approval of the two-year budget). At the resumed session in March, the Fifth Committee then addresses those topics that were not dealt with during the main part. Under UNGA Resolution 49/233, the resumed session in May is devoted to questions on the funding of peacekeeping operations. However, the Fifth Committee may examine a draft budget for a peacekeeping operation at any time should the Security Council mandate an emergency operation. In addition to budget matters, the Fifth Committee may also examine administrative and management issues, as well as human resources matters. On of its functions is to issue opinions on the basis of reports from the Secretary-General and the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ). The latter comprises 16 independent experts elected by the General Assembly and is a key element in Member States' monitoring of the UN's budgets.

Multilingualism

Multilingualism is of particular importance for the United Nations. It is designed to facilitate the effective involvement of all UN members in the United Nations' debates and work. It is the means by which the UN encourages, defends and preserves the diversity of languages and cultures in the world. It also enables wide public access to UN activities.

In February 1946, the General Assembly approved Resolution 2 (I) whereby Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish became the official languages of all UN bodies.

On 18 December 1973, Resolution 28/3191, added Arabic as the sixth official language.

Under Resolution 2 (I), French and English remain the two working languages of the Secretariat. Resolution 61/266 on multilingualism reaffirmed this in 2007. Communication within the UN, whether official communication between Member States and all the players involved in the work of the United Nations, or between Member States and the UN Secretariat, requires to distinguish between working languages and official languages.

External communication intended for the general public may include languages other than the official ones.

Balancing the six official languages used for daily work has been a constant concern since the United Nations was established, particularly for its various Secretaries-General. In Resolution 54/64 of 6 December 1999, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to appoint a senior Secretariat official as coordinator for multilinguism-related issues within the Secretariat. The coordinator's task is to harmonise procedures and propose strategies to ensure that the UN's language practice complies with the recommendations and clauses which the various resolutions on multilinguism include. The coordinator traditionally performs the job of Under-Secretary-General for Communications and Public Information and is supported by an informal network of focal points. Resolution 50/11 of 2 November 1995 requested the Secretary-General to treat all language services equally and provide them with the resources and working conditions to enable them to optimise the quality of their services. It stressed the importance for the Department of Public Information of using all UN's official languages when carrying out its activities and reaffirmed the need to achieve absolute parity for the six official languages on the UN's websites. It also encouraged United Nations information centres to pursue their local action in favour of multilingualism. Such priorities

were recalled in Resolution 61/266 on multilingualism in 2007, as well as in resolutions concerning the Information and Conference planning Committee. ■

III.

Fields of action

Peace and security

Peacekeeping operations

Peacekeeping operations, which were not provided for in the UN Charter[4], are now one of the United Nations' main instruments.

>> More, increasingly complex operations

After the failure of UN operations, symbolised by those in Somali and Bosnia in the mid-1990s, which caused some disaffection among Western countries with regard to blue-beret operations, the number and extent of UN operations have now reached a new record level.

The number of troops involved has grown rapidly: as at 31 May 2010, 101,867 uniformed personnel were deployed in 15 peacekeeping operations, compared with 12,300 in July 1999[5].

In qualitative terms, the peacekeeping operations take place in more dangerous environments and under stronger mandates.

The first peacekeeping operations consisted of placing forces of interposition between State belligerents and supervising cease-fires. They depended on three principles: consent by the parties, impartiality and non-recourse to force except in self-defence.

Apart from self-defence, the question of the use of force arose in the 1960s (Congo) in order to respond to action taken

4. The second UN Secretary-General, Dag Hammarskjöld, said that peace-keeping came under "Chapter VI and a half" of the Charter, somewhere between traditional methods of resolving disputes peacefully (outlined in Chapter VI), on the one hand, and more forceful, less "consent-based" action (Chapter VII), on the other.

5. In addition to these 15 peacekeeping operations, the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) runs two political and peace-building operations: United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) and United Nations Integrated Office in Burundi (BINUB).

Woman soldier in blue beret from the Philippine battalion in the peacekeeping operation in Haiti (MINUSTAH).
UN Photo/Logan Abassi

to prevent the peacekeeping operations from fulfilling their mandates.

The issue took on a new importance in the 1990s, when PKOs were deployed in conflict situations involving militias, criminal bands and other local "trouble-makers" seeking to upset the peace process or threatening the civilian population. The Security Council then gave "robust mandates" to a number of operations, authorising them to "use all means necessary" to prevent any attempt to disturb the peace process, protect the civilian population or help national authorities keep order. In effect, the Security Council intended to give the blue berets the means to defend themselves and their mandates.

UN operations are also increasingly multidimensional: in addition to security, they are tasked with helping build the rule of law, protect human rights, support the political process and provide economic and humanitarian assistance. The police function in particular has been developed in a large number of operations (just over 10,000 police officers involved).

These two changes have expensive financial implications. The total budget for all peacekeeping operations has risen from $0.84 billion in 1998/1999 to $7.8 billion in 2009/2010.

There is also the question of available resources: scarce military capacities (helicopters), contingents' professional and language skills, and training. Needs are particularly acute for PKOs in French-speaking countries (where half the United Nations troops are deployed) which lack personnel who speak French, especially police officers.

>> Contributing countries

Of the 118 countries contributing troops to UN-led operations, a dozen emerging countries provide the bulk. These include the Indian subcontinent, which provides 33,000 blue berets, 35% of the total, and is by far the largest reservoir of UN troops.

The Western countries, leading contributors in the early 1990s, have withdrawn to some extent in the last ten years, preferring to intervene in operations mandated but not commanded by the United Nations. The heavy involvement of European countries in UNIFIL, where they provide 6,600 troops, the largest contingent, represents a change of policy, and France, Italy and Spain have now become major contributors. The Europeans also kept some of their EUFOR troops in Chad/CAR when it was relieved by MINURCAT II.

>> Reform of peacekeeping

In response to criticism of the management of operations and the behaviour of some mission personnel, the United Nations began to reform its conduct of operations, especially following the Brahimi Report in August 2000. This reform also reflected a growing awareness of the limitations of empirical management of operations.

The reform of the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) involves the following objectives: professionalisation (with a stress on training); use of an integrated approach (involving security, development and humanitarian players); importance of responsibility (management, personnel behaviour, and zero tolerance for sexual abuse).

The difficulties encountered by some operations, particularly MONUC during the Kivu crisis at the end of 2008, pointed up the need to build capacities for preparing, planning and monitoring operations at the UN Secretariat in New York and the Security Council.

With the United Kingdom, France launched an initiative in the Security Council, during its presidency in January 2009, to improve the monitoring of PKOs along three practical dimensions: improving strategic monitoring, managing resource constraints (cost and volume), and implementing complex mandates (multidimensional missions, protection of civilians, crisis exit and peace building). The Secretariat has produced a report on peacekeeping (called "New Horizon") to meet these requirements.

Peace building

After decades of serious involvement in peacekeeping phases, the United Nations has learnt the need for longer intervention in the post-conflict stabilisation phase to avoid relapse in countries exiting crisis. During the crucial immediate post-conflict phase, the international community must support still fragile national institutions and enable them to meet the population's critical needs. Democracy and stability are not merely ensured from the day elections are held.

This greater post-crisis involvement presents the United Nations with new challenges:

- post-conflict phases are characterised by a multiplicity of international community players (UN institutions, international and regional organisations, donors, non-governmental organisations). It is the job of the United Nations to ensure overall coherence in all these actions

▶ even more than in actual crisis management, international post-conflict efforts must be designed for the long term. The slowness of reconstruction may demobilise the international community by the absence of short-term results ("donor fatigue"). The United Nations must, therefore, be in a position to define an overall strategic approach to mobilise the international community over time.

To meet these challenges, the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) was set up on 20 December 2005 as a subsidiary advisory body of the Security Council and General Assembly. It represents an initial attempt to achieve coherence in the international community's action in post-conflict and reconstruction phases. The aim is to define crisis exit strategies with concrete objectives for beneficiary countries and bring together all the relevant players and donors. Four countries are at present on the PBC agenda: Burundi, CAR, Guinea Bissau and Sierra Leone. Pursuant to resolutions that have governed its creation, a **review process** of the PBC will take place in 2010, ie five years after its creation.

The United Nations is also increasingly involved in the field of security system reform (SSR), an essential precondition for successful exit from crisis. The Secretary-General has published an initial report entitled "Securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in supporting security sector reform". In addition to UNDP action, the DPKO's Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions is setting up an SSR support capacity.

SSR is based on an integrated approach to cooperation action in civilian fields (reform of police, judiciary, prisons) and military fields (reform of the army). For efficient implementation, it requires full ownership on the part of the authorities concerned. Since SSR addresses sensitive areas (good governance and human rights, sovereign functions), it requires, first of all, an explanation of the concept and education.

Blue beret from an Indian battalion in MONUC impounds a store of weapons and ammunition as part of the disarmament process.
UN Photo/Martine Perret

Fight against terrorism

Since 11 September 2001, the fight against terrorism has become a major concern for the United Nations, especially at the Security Council. The UN General Assembly has played a major normative role in devising thirteen "sectoral" conventions concerning terrorism since 1963.

>> Action by the Security Council and its subsidiary bodies: main resolutions and sanctions regimes

The Security Council began to examine terrorism issues in the early 1990s. Its action then was mainly to adopt sanctions against States suspected of being linked to certain terror-

ist acts. In 1999, Resolution 1269 called on all UN Member States to cooperate in preventing and suppressing all terrorist acts. This resolution was a forerunner of the intensification of Security Council initiatives after 11 September 2001.

The UNSC created its first anti-terrorism instrument in 1999 by Resolution 1267: the 1267 Committee, a Security Council subsidiary body, is tasked with monitoring the sanctions (assets freeze, travel ban and arms embargo) imposed on individuals and entities associated with Al-Qaida and the Taliban.

The Committee meets frequently to update its sanctions list in order to reflect as closely as possible the reality of a continually changing threat. A large number of individuals and entities are placed on the list, generally on the basis of information from States. The Committee's decisions are made by consensus. Exemptions are provided for, in particular to allow sanctioned individuals to cover their basis expenses. The 1267 Committee employs a monitoring team made available by the Secretary-General.

Now that several hundred individuals and entities are subject to 1267 Committee sanctions, it has become imperative to take their rights into account. Resolution 1730 (2006) established a "focal point" to enable individuals and entities subject to sanctions to directly request their own de-listing, without resorting to State requests. This endowed such individuals and entities with reinforced procedural garantees. Resolution 1822 (2008) further improves their rights by requiring a detailed statement of case, timely notification of the individuals and entities sanctioned by resolution 1267 and regular updating of the sanctions list.

A new milestone was reached with the adoption on 17 December 2009 of Resolution 1904 (2009), creating the office of independent Ombudsman Mediator, responsible for considering delisting requests, who replaces, for the activities of the 1267 Committee, the focal point created by Resolution 1730 (2006). The Ombudsman facilitates exchanges between the person or entity asking for delisting and the 1267 Committee.

After 11 September 2001, the Security Council adopted Resolution 1373 (28 September 2001), intended to strengthen international coordination in the fight against terrorism. It created a new subsidiary body, the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC), to monitor implementation by States of their obligations under Resolution 1373. The Committee's tasks include helping to develop national and international mechanisms to prevent and suppress (criminalisation of certain acts in domestic law; adoption of adequate legislation), assisting and promoting international cooperation, encouraging States to ratify the major international anti-terrorism conventions and facilitating the provision of technical assistance (the Committee does not directly provide assistance but seeks to bring together potential donors and recipient States). Member States are required to regularly report to the CTC on measures taken nationally to implement Resolution 1373. To assist the Committee in its work, the Security Council created by Resolution 1535 of 26 March 2004 a Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTED). This directorate has developed a number of instruments (annual reports on implementation of Resolution 1373, country assessments, country visits).

On 14 September 2005, at the UNGA summit, the Security Council held a meeting of Heads of State and Government during which Resolution 1624 was adopted, requiring States to criminalize and suppress incitements to commit terrorist acts.

>> Role of the General Assembly: framing of major conventions and adoption of United Nations general strategy

The General Assembly addressed the issue of international terrorism as early as 1972. A general resolution on "measures to eliminate international terrorism" is discussed each year in committee and then adopted in plenary session. Its main aim is to renew the mandate of the *ad hoc* Committee on Measures to Eliminate Terrorism which is negotiating a comprehensive convention on terrorism. The thirteen conventions currently in force were framed by the Sixth Committee.

At the September 2005 summit, in their final general declaration, Heads of State and Government unreservedly condemned terrorism in all its forms and manifestations. They also undertook to use their best endeavours to have the 60th Session of the UNGA in 2006 adopt a global counter-terrorism strategy in order to provide coordinated and coherent responses to terrorism at national, regional and international level.

Member States on the Sixth Committee have since 2000 been negotiating a draft comprehensive convention on international terrorism. Despite continual efforts by conciliators, discussion always founders on the question of defining the terrorist phenomenon (some countries, including members of the Organisation of the Islamic Conference, wish to exempt from the definition acts committed in armed struggle against foreign occupation) and consequently the scope of the Convention. Formal negotiating sessions of the Sixth Committee are generally held twice a year.

In September 2006, before the close of its 60th session, the UNGA managed to adopt a United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy. With this strategy the General Assembly reaffirmed and strengthened in practical ways its role in fighting terrorism. The strategy is intended to achieve coherence between existing counter-terrorism mechanisms and

strengthen cooperation between States and international and regional organisations dealing with terrorism. Inspired by the recommendations in the Secretary-General's Madrid speech in May 2005, the strategy contains four major strands of measures: to address the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism; to prevent and combat terrorism; to build States' capacity to prevent and combat terrorism and to strengthen the role of the United Nations system in this regard; and to ensure compliance with human rights for all and the rule of law as the fundamental basis of the fight against terrorism.

The Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF) established by the UN Secretary-General has the mission of ensuring overall coordination and coherence in the counter-terrorism efforts of the United Nations system. It seeks to promote a balanced approach to fighting terrorism in the spirit of the global strategy.

Disarmament and the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction

>> A major role in disarmament and the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction

Although disarmament is not among the aims and principles of the United Nations, Article 11 of the Charter enables the General Assembly to examine the principles of disarmament and weapons regulation and to make recommendations to Member States and the Security Council. Article 26 of the Charter promotes "the establishment and maintenance of international peace and security with the least diversion for armaments of the world's human and economic resources". The UNGA's First Committee is specifically devoted to disarmament and international security questions.

In 1976, the UNGA decided to hold its first special session on disarmament from 23 May to 1 July 1978. This special session defined two major objectives: to divert States from

the arms race and to seek an agreement on a comprehensive disarmament strategy. It established the Conference on Disarmament (CD), which is the sole negotiating forum on disarmament, and the UN Disarmament Commission (UNDC), a deliberative assembly separate from the First Committee.

The Conference on Disarmament, based in Geneva with 66 Member States, completed negotiations for the main agreements on weapons of mass destruction, such as the 1993 Paris Convention to prohibit chemical weapons and the 1996 comprehensive nuclear test ban treaty. After several years of stalemate, the CD finally adopted a work plan which could restart negotiations in 2010 and lead to the drafting of a "cut off" treaty banning the production of fissile material for nuclear weapons in 2010. The Disarmament Commission, to which all Member States belong, meets annually but has not managed to reach a consensus on practical recommendations.

At France's suggestion after the 1978 UNGA special session, a United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) was established in Geneva. The United Nations also runs three regional centres for peace and disarmament reporting to the Secretariat (Office for Disarmament Affairs) in Lomé, Togo, for Africa, Katmandu, Nepal, for Asia-Pacific and Lima, Peru, for the Americas and Caribbean.

The United Nations addresses the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction in close association with disarmament matters: in the field of nuclear non-proliferation, for example, a number of resolutions have been passed by the First Committee every year since the adoption in 1994 of the resolution on the gradual reduction of the nuclear threat.

Under the main relevant conventions on the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (non-proliferation treaty [NPT], 1972 Biological Weapons Convention [BWC] and 1993 Chemical Weapons Convention [CWC]), the Security Council has examined a number of

Iran

Alerted by the Board of Governors of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in February 2006, the Security Council on 31 July 2006 adopted Resolution 1696, endorsing the proposal made by the "Six" (China, France, Germany, Russia, United Kingdom and United States) to Teheran for cooperation to develop a modern civil nuclear energy industry in return for confidence-building measures by Iran on the purely peaceful nature of its nuclear programme. Resolution 1696 also requested full cooperation with the IAEA, demanded the suspension of sensitive activities and warned that if Iran did not respect its obligations the UNSC would propose increasingly severe international sanctions.

In the absence of any constructive response from Teheran, the Security Council had no option but to adopt Resolutions 1737 (December 2006), 1747 (March 2007), 1803 (March 2008), 1835 (September 2008) and 1929 (June 2010) under Chapter VII of the United Nations Charter.

These resolutions were supported by all five permanent members. They reaffirmed Iran's obligation to suspend its sensitive activities and to cooperate with the IAEA, and gradually implemented a variety of sanctions on key sectors. Resolution 1929, noting that Iran had not fulfilled the obligations imposed by previous resolutions of the Security Council, adopted a extensive and robust set of sanctions, notably: a ban on investment abroad on certain nuclear and ballistic activities, an embargo on Iran's imports of heavy weaponry, an asset freeze on 40 additional entities, an inspection mechanism calling on States to inspect suspicious cargo to and from Iran in their territory (seaports, airports, territorial waters). Implementation of the sanctions regime against Iran is monitored by the 1737 Committee established by Resolution 1737. Resolution 1929 created a panel of eight experts to assist the Committee.

cases of proliferation, such as Iran and North Korea, by virtue of its main responsibility for maintaining international peace and security.

Security Council Resolution 1887 on nuclear proliferation and disarmament was adopted by a Heads of States meeting under the presidency of President Obama on 24 September 2009. This resolution stresses that the Security Council has a vital role to play in the fight against the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction as this phenomenon poses a threat to international peace and security. In addition, Resolution 1887 also provides for an ambitious roadmap which notably paves the way for the Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference of May 2010.

>> The 1540 Committee, a new Security Council instrument for addressing the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction

With its adoption of Resolution 1540 on 28 April 2004, the Security Council for the first time described the proliferation of nuclear, chemical and biological weapons and their means of delivery as a threat to international peace and security. Resolution 1540 called on States to adopt and implement national rules and regulations to ensure compliance with the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction. It also identified the risk from non-State actors with weapons of mass destruction.

The establishment of the 1540 Committee to implement this resolution led to the development of a number of further strands in the international community's fight against nuclear, biological and chemical proliferation:

– Binding measures: requirement that States should report their actions to the 1540 Committee;
– Information and outreach measures: planning of seminars held for Member States, including joint meetings with the counter-terrorism committees (1267 and 1373 Committees);

– Assistance measures: assistance with implementing Resolution 1540 for States that request it. This system is based on international "best practice" on non-proliferation, in particular the commitments of the Nuclear Suppliers Group (NSG) concerning nuclear non-proliferation. The aim of the 1540 Committee is primarily to help States acquire the means to combat the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction by countering the proliferation networks that endanger their security, such as that of the Pakistani Abdul Qadeer Khan, discovered in 2003.

North Korea

In response to the ballistic missile launches on 5 July 2006 and the announcement of a nuclear test on 9 October 2006, the Security Council adopted Resolutions 1695 and 1718 condemning these actions and demanding that North Korea dismantle its ballistic missile and weapons of mass destruction programmes. Resolution 1718 also established a sanctions regime (embargo on sensitive goods, missiles and associated technologies, on luxury goods, travel ban and asset freeze for those involved in the programmes).

Following a further North Korean ballistic launch on 5 April 2009 and a nuclear test announced on 25 May 2009, the Security Council significantly strengthened its sanctions against North Korea in Resolution 1874 (embargo on almost all weapons, cargo inspections on suspect North Korean ships and aircraft, stronger individual sanctions, restrictions of financial services for people and institutions involved in ballistic and weapons of mass destruction programmes, restrictions on export credit for activities that might support sensitive North Korean activities, strengthening of the 1718 Committee).

New threats (organised crime, bribery, drug trafficking)

The growth in international drug trafficking, and of cross-border organised crime and associated bribery is having a new impact on the maintenance of international security and peace. They help weaken and destabilise States by compromising their good governance (narco-States, failed States). Conversely they hamper the attempts at rebuilding public and development institutions made by national authorities and the international community in post-conflict and crisis exit periods. Because these activities often cross borders, they may have a wider effect in destabilising entire regions.

The fight against these new threats is the task primarily of the United Nations forums based in Vienna, such as the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the International Narcotics Control Board. More determined involvement by the UNGA and the Security Council also appeared to be desirable. In this regard, the Security Council adopted in June 2008 a resolution on the smuggling to and within Afghanistan of the chemical precursors needed to produce heroin and ran a debate on the theme of "drug trafficking as a threat to international security" under the presidency of Burkina Faso in December 2009 and finally held under French presidency, on 24 February 2010, a first general debate on these issues.

Sanctions

>> Formulating sanctions

Like the use of armed force, Security Council sanctions are governed by Chapter VII of the Charter on "action with respect to threats to the peace, breaches of the peace, and acts of aggression". The use of sanctions, explicitly provided for in Article 41, is envisaged in the Charter as an alternative (or preliminary) to the use of force. The Security Council calls upon

Jordanians troops in MINUSTAH take up position during a drug seizure exercise in Haiti (22 December 2008). *UN Photo/Marco Dormino*

Member States to apply the necessary measures to give effect to its decisions. Article 41 thus mentions the "complete or partial interruption of economic relations and of rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio, and other means of communication, and the severance of diplomatic relations", which Member States should help implement

Since the first sanctions applied to South Rhodesia in 1966 and South Africa in 1970, the Security Council has made increasing use of the sanctions instrument (12 sanctions regimes at present, 6 regimes lifted) in a wider variety of situations (such as armed conflict, stalemate in a political process, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and terrorism).

As sanctions have been used more often, so they have changed in nature: they are now always targeted and usually standardised, such as embargoes on weapons and sensitive goods, travel bans and asset freezes. This has made them more effective: whether intended to deprive parties of their means of action (weapons embargo during a conflict, ban on transactions related to proliferation, assets freeze to combat terrorism) or, more generally, to bring pressure to bear on one party to incite them to cooperate, sanctions have had significant results (South Africa, Angola, Libya, Sierra Leone, Liberia, etc.). In the fight against terrorism, travel bans and asset freezes help to disrupt the activities of terrorist groups and their support networks.

>> Sanctions committees, key to the effective implementation of sanctions

To ensure the effective implementation of sanctions by UN Member States, the Security Council may decide to establish a sanctions committee, a subsidiary organ of the Council comprising all Security Council Member States. Meetings are generally held of experts from the various permanent representations.

A sanctions committee has three main functions:

– **adopt new sanctions and update existing ones:** according to its mandate, a sanctions committee may designate persons, entities and assets to be subject to sanctions or supplement and update sanctions lists established by the UNSC

– **monitor the proper implementation of the sanctions decided by the UNSC:** a sanctions committee compiles and verifies the information that UN Member States must supply concerning initiatives taken to apply sanctions

– **clarify the procedures for applying sanctions:** a sanctions committee may answer questions from States about the practical application of sanctions. It may, for example, confirm the existence of a breach of sanctions identified by a State. When necessary, the committee may request States for information to enable it to respond to a given situation.

The current number of sanctions committees is twelve. Some are supported by groups of experts appointed by the UN Secretariat who are tasked with overseeing the implementation of sanctions and assessing progress made in countries targeted by sanctions. Such groups might also propose measures to improve the efficiency of sanctions schemes. As sanctions regimes have developed, it has become necessary to establish procedures to safeguard the rights of the individuals and entities subject to sanctions. At France's suggestion, the Security Council adopted Resolution 1730 (2006) creating for all sanctions regimes established by the Security Council a "focal point" to receive de-listing requests. Resolution 1822 (2008) requires for the sanctions regime against Al-Qaeda and the Taliban timely notification of the individuals and entities sanctioned, a detailed statement of case, and regular updating of the list of individuals and entities sanctioned. These procedural guarantees have been gradually extended to other individual sanctions regimes.

For European Union Member States, the sanctions decisions of the 1267 Committee and other sanctions committees are transposed at European level into a common position and EU regulations subject to the control of the Community courts, which monitor the respect of the rights of the persons and entities sanctioned (particularly the adversarial principle).

Cooperation between the United Nations and other international and regional organisations in the fields of crisis management and security

Chapter VIII of the UN Charter encourages regional organisations to cooperate with the United Nations, consistent with the purposes and principles of the Charter, in particular the

Security Council's pre-eminence in maintaining international peace and security. This cooperation has developed, for example, with the European Union, which intends to play an international role commensurate with its political and economic importance and is more than a regional organisation in the strict sense of the word. Close cooperation is also emerging between the United Nations and the African Union to manage crises in Africa.

>> Cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union

Cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union in crisis management and security has grown rapidly in a few years with the launch of twenty or so military and civil operations and of the EU's Common Security and Defence Policy (CSDP) on all continents. The EU has always sought to act in cooperation with the United Nations (Security Council mandate; support for United Nations peacekeeping operations [PKOs]). This cooperation is one of the main areas in which the CSDP is being developed.

Cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union in crisis management, whose principles on the European side were laid down by the European Council in Nice in 2000, was formalised in joint declarations on 24 September 2003 and 7 June 2007.

The 2003 Artemis and 2006 EUFOR DRC operations were launched in response to an appeal from the United Nations Secretary-General to support the action of the United Nations mission to DR Congo (MONUC). From March 2008 to March 2009, under Security Council Resolution 1778, the European Union deployed operation EUFOR Chad/CAR in eastern Chad and north-eastern Central African Republic. This operation contributed to protecting endangered civilians (refugees and displaced persons), facilitated relief action and ensured the protection of the United Nations Mission in the

Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon meets with Catherine Ashton, High Representative of the European Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy (January 2010).
UN Photo/Mark Garten

Central African Republic and Chad (MINURCAT). The EU's military operation was relieved by a military component of the United Nations mission (MINURCAT II) in March 2009.

A number of European Union and United Nations missions are currently deployed in the same theatres: in Afghanistan, EUPOL police reform operation and UNAMA (United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan); in DR Congo, EUSEC DRC and EUPOL DRC to reform the security and police sectors and MONUC; in Guinea Bissau, the mission to support reform of the security sector (EU SSR) and UNOGBIS (United Nations Integrated Peace-Building Office in Guinea Bissau), for example.

Under resolutions adopted by the Security Council, the EU naval operation Atalanta is currently protecting the vessels of the World Food Programme (WFP) supplying humanitarian aid to Somalia and helping combat piracy off the Somali coast. A new form of operational cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union has thus emerged at sea.

This growing cooperation between the United Nations and the European Union is made easier by the similar conception they both have of crisis management by the international community (in particular, the need to mobilise all available instruments, whether political, civilian or military).

This cooperation increases the legitimacy of both organisations: EU operations enjoy the political legitimacy that comes from UN Security Council mandates, and the United Nations benefits from the credibility and operational resources supplied by the EU to conduct complex operations in difficult areas.

Exchanges between the two Secretariats are a daily occurrence in New York and Brussels. In addition to cooperation in crisis management, the partnership between the United Nations and the European Union is developing in the field of security in the broad sense, upstream of crises (training of personnel deployed in United Nations PKOs, African capacity building in crisis management) and downstream (such as security sector reform [SSR], Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration [DDR], support for the UN Peacebuilding Commission).

With the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty on 1 December 2009, which increases the consistency of its external action, the European Union should be able to develop still further its cooperation with the United Nations. The President of the European Council, Herman Van Rompuy, and the High Representative for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy, Catherine Ashton, regularly speak in New York (General Assembly, Security Council).

>> Cooperation between the United Nations and the African Union

The African Union has also asserted itself in recent years as a major partner of the United Nations in Africa.

The partnership between the United Nations and the African Union in the field of peace and security is developing at present at two levels:
– **political**, with regular dialogue between the United Nations Security Council and the African Union's Peace and Security Council (PSC)
– **operational**, with the deployment of peacekeeping operations of the African Union or subregional organisations under United Nations mandate.

Some of these operations have been supported by United Nations PKOs (Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire). A joint, so-called hybrid mission (UNAMID) has been deployed in Darfur, Sudan, since 1 January 2008.

The United Nations, in coordination with other international partners (such as the European Union), is working to help strengthen two aspects of the African Union's peacekeeping:

– **the AU's current lack of the capability to conduct complex large-scale operations over time.** The solution involves capacity building for African peace-keeping: management, planning and conduct of operations; strengthening of African peacekeeping contingents complying with United Nations standards

– **the funding of African peacekeeping operations.** In July 2008, the United Nations decided to examine how to improve the funding of African operations outside the UN budget.

Protection of human rights

In his 2005 report "In larger freedom: towards development, security and human rights for all", Kofi Annan reaffirmed that development, peace and security and human rights were inextricably linked. Recognition of the crucial nature of compliance with human rights was endorsed that same year by the Heads of State and Government meeting in New York for the "Millennium +5" Summit. The United Nations reform adopted at the 2005 Summit integrated this approach.

Civil and political rights: major issues

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) was adopted on 16 December 1966 and entered into force in 1976. It enumerates rights already recognised in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and make them binding.

The first right described and recognised in various human rights protection instruments is the right to life. Other civil and political rights protected by the United Nations are freedom of expression, freedom of assembly, freedom of religion and conscience, protection against torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading punishment and treatment, freedom of movement, the right to a fair trial by a competent, independent and impartial court.

The promotion and respect of civil and political rights is inextricably linked to the democratic ideal. These rights affirm the primacy of human dignity and the inherent freedom to participate in the elaboration of political choices and the life of political institutions. Civil and political rights are to be distinguished from economic, social and cultural rights. The former belong mainly to the category of negative liberties ("freedom from"), stressing the autonomy of the individual, whereas the latter are mainly positive liberties ("entitlement to"), promoting equality of opportunity. During the Cold War this division tended to distinguish the "free world" from the "Soviet bloc", which preferred "real rights" to "formal rights". At present the debate splits differently: in addition to the opposition between the advocates of civil and political rights and the advocates of economic, social and cultural rights, a new division is emerging between the defenders of universal human rights and the defenders of cultural relativism. This divide is largely artificial, since human rights are not only indivisible and interdependent, but also because the commitment of, say, the European Union to economic, social and cultural rights is a real one. Nevertheless, given the growing influence of cultural relativism, the advocacy of universal civil and political rights is one of the great challenges of the years ahead.

Economic, social and cultural rights

Economic, social and cultural rights (ESCR) were recognised as compliant with the principles of the United Nations in the 1966 International Covenant (ICESCR), which entered into force, like the ICCPR, in 1976. Examples of ESCR are the right to work; to free choice of employment, the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of oneself and of one's family, the right to physical and mental health, the right to decent housing, the right to education and the right to free trade unions.

The specific feature of certain economic, social and cultural rights, compared with civil and political rights, is that under Article 2-1 of the ICESCR, they require States to implement them "to the maximum of [their] available resources".

Over the years, economic, social and cultural rights have been extended and specified by jurisprudence and the general comments of the ESCR Committee. For example in General Comment n° 15, the Committee considered the right to water as one of the rights protected by the Covenant: "the human right to water is indispensable for leading a life in human dig-

nity". France is one of the States that have officially recognised the right to access to water and implement it in their national legislation.

Women's rights

The condition of women in the world requires particular attention to their interests. They are the victims of persistent discrimination both legal and socio-economic: male/female equality remains theoretical in many countries and women are still often subject to legal discrimination (polygamy, restricted inheritance and property rights, marital tutelage). Women are often prime targets during armed conflicts and are particular subject to large-scale sexual violence, deemed to be a weapon of war and crime against humanity by Security

Afghan women in a literacy class (29 April 2008).
UN Photo/Sebastian Rich

Council Resolution 1820. Women are also the first victims of domestic violence and prime targets of human trafficking. They also suffer from the persistence of cultural and religious practices and prejudices such as genital mutilations and pre-natal selection.

The United Nations took steps in 1979 to improve women's condition in the world by adopting the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Only 7States (including the United States, Sudan, Somalia and Iran) are not as yet parties to this convention.

Improvement in the condition of women is one of the main Millennium Development Goals. Strategies in favour of women have been adopted under the aegis of the United Nations, such as the action plan approved at the International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo in 1994 (providing for access to sexual and reproductive health) and the action programme of the 1995 Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women. France has taken an active part in adoption by the UNSC of major resolutions on "Women, peace and security": Resolution 1325 (2000), 1820 (2008), 1888 and 1889 (2009).

Children's rights

In addition to monitoring compliance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child and its two optional protocols, UNICEF designs a large number of programmes to help implement the Millennium Development Goals. Since 2001, the Fund has focused its work on five primary priorities (girls' education, immunisation plus, child protection, HIV/AIDS, and early childhood) integrated in a medium-term strategic plan implemented via its regional field offices in 157 countries and territories.

Universal Children's Day is observed on 20 November, which is also the date of various national days for the defence and

Bernard Kouchner, French Minister of Foreign and European Affairs, visits DR Congo; here with children with AIDS at the Heal Africa hospital, Goma (26 January 2008).
MAEE/Frédéric de La Mure

promotion of children's rights. It celebrates the Convention on the Rights of the Child adopted on 20 November 1989 by the UN General Assembly. Inspired by various legal systems, the CRC was the first binding international legal instrument to define a child ("any person under the age of 18").

It comprises 54 articles setting out the fundamental rights of all children without discrimination of any kind: right to life, to survival and development, to protection against maltreatment and exploitation, to participate fully in family, cultural and social life, to freedom of expression and to having their views given due weight, to health and education. The Convention is based on four leading principles that underpin the respect of all rights: non-discrimination; paramount consideration for the

child's best interests; the right to life and development; respect for the child's views. The States Parties to the Convention are required to design and implement measures and policies that give due consideration to the child's best interests.

These rights are detailed in two Optional Protocols: one relating to the involvement of children in armed conflicts, and the other to the trafficking and prostitution of children and pornography portraying children.

Integration of human rights and innovative action by the Security Council

In recent years the Security Council has directly examined issues specifically relating to human rights, thus reasserting the link between international security and compliance with human rights.

>> Working group on children and armed conflict

Security Council Resolution 1612 of 22 April 2005 provided for the establishment of a Security Council working group on children and armed conflict. The group began work in July 2005 and is an innovative mechanism. Comprising the 15 members of the Security Council, it meets behind closed doors to examine reports produced by the monitoring and reporting mechanisms in countries of concern, reviews progress achieved in designing and implementing action plans, and makes recommendations to the governments or rebel groups in these countries to prevent the recruitment of child soldiers, obtain their liberation or demobilisation and facilitate their re-integration into society. In the event that its recommendations are not followed, the working group may request the UNSC to apply sanctions.

The monitoring and reporting mechanism, whose mandate has been extended by the Resolution 1882 of the Security Council, seeks to monitor the following six grave abuses:

Paris "Free Children from War" Conference addressed by Ishmael Beah, major witness and former child soldier in Sierra Leone (February 2007).
MAEE/Frédéric de La Mure

killing or maiming of children; recruiting or using child soldiers; attacks against schools or hospitals; rape and other grave sexual violence against children; abduction of children; denial of humanitarian access for children.

The number of child soldiers is estimated at between 250,000 and 300,000, mainly to be found in 13 countries (Myanmar, Burundi, Chad, Colombia, DR Congo, Nepal, Philippines, Somalia, Sudan, Sri Lanka, Uganda and, since February 2008, Afghanistan and the CAR; Côte d'Ivoire has been removed from the list of situations of concern because of progress made on the ground). The working group has recorded a number of not insignificant successes, such as the demobilisation of thousands of child soldiers around the world, the liberation and re-integration of child soldiers in Côte d'Ivoire and Chad (400 child soldiers), the agreement by the MLS/Minnawi in Sudan and the Karen in Myanmar to stop using child soldiers. The working group was chaired by France from 2005 to the start of 2009.

>> Protection of civilians

The Security Council's action on the protection of civilians in armed conflict (PoC) was enshrined in Resolution 1674, moved by the United Kingdom and France and unanimously adopted on 28 April 2006. The resolution reaffirmed the principle of each Member State's responsibility to protect its civilian populations and provided a legal and political framework establishing the Security Council's full legitimacy to intervene to end massive human rights violations. States are also obliged to end impunity and to prosecute those responsible for serious crimes. The Security Council insisted on the need to enable the re-establishment of independent national legal institutions and systems in post-conflict countries. Justice and reconciliation mechanisms make it possible not only to establish individual responsibilities but also encourage the promotion of peace and truth, national reconciliation and the recognition of victims' rights.

In November 2009, the Security Council adopted Resolution 1894 about the "protection of civilians in armed conflicts" which establishes for the first time an important link between its action in the area of protection of civilians and its responsibility to protect. This Resolution contains also orientations to reinforce the language on protection of civilians in the UN peacekeeping operations' mandates.

>> Women, peace and security

Noting that women and girls are the main victims of armed conflict and can play a positive role in the re-establishment of peace in post-conflict situations, the Security Council

Legal instruments for the protection of human rights

The universality of human rights is based on the global application of fundamental rights held to be inalienable, indivisible, interdependent and applicable without discrimination to all human beings. This set of rights is included in the International Bill of Human Rights, comprising

– the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, which isn't legally binding

– the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights adopted in 1966 with its two Optional Protocols, of which the first authorises the Commission on Human Rights to receive and examine submissions from individual victims of rights violations and the second, adopted in 1989, aims to abolish the death penalty

– the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights adopted in 1966.

Other international instruments for the protection of human rights include:

– International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination of 1965

– Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women of 1979 and its Optional Protocol

– Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment of 1984 and its Optional Protocol

– Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1989 and its two Optional Protocols

– International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance of 2006

– Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities of 2006.

Woman blue beret from an Indian battalion examines a young patient.
UN Photo/Rick Bajornas

adopted Resolution 1325 (2000) "Women, peace and security" which:

– urges States in conflict situations to increase the participation of women at decision-making levels in conflict resolution and peace processes

– encourages the integration of women in United Nations peacekeeping operations, as military observers, civilian police and human rights experts

– promotes measures taken by States to guarantee women's fundamental rights once peace is restored

– emphasises the responsibility of all States to put an end to impunity, especially relating to sexual violence and to exclude these crimes, where feasible, from amnesty provisions.

UNSC Resolutions 1820 (2008), 1888 and 1889 (2009) followed on from Resolution 1325, stressing in particular the need to combat sexual violence in armed conflict.

International justice

A number of judicial organs work to achieve the United Nations' aims. A distinction needs to be made between the International Court of Justice, the United Nations Administrative Tribunal and the various other international criminal courts.

International Court of Justice, the ultimate arbitrator of disputes between States

The International Court of Justice succeeded the League of Nations' Permanent Court of International Justice and under Chapter XIV of the UN Charter is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. Its Statute is annexed to the Charter and is an integral part of it.

The Court sits in The Hague and comprises fifteen judges elected by absolute majority of both the General Assembly and the Security Council from jurisconsults and senior magistrates of high moral character. The judges are elected for nine years, one-third every three years, and are re-eligible. Since 6 February 2009, its President has been Hisashi Owada (Japan).

The Court's competence extends to all cases submitted by those parties which have declared that they recognise its jurisdiction as compulsory. These disputes concern such matters as the interpretation of a treaty, any question of international law, the existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of an international obligation, and the nature or extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation.

The Court may also be seized under the arbitration clauses enshrined in various bilateral and multilateral agreements, or by special agreement between the Parties.

Under Article 96 of the UN Charter, the General Assembly or Security Council may also request an advisory opinion from the International Court of Justice concerning any legal question.

Article 94 of the UN Charter requires each Member of the United Nations to comply with the decision of the International Court of Justice in any case to which it is a party. If any party to a case fails to perform the obligations incumbent upon it under a judgement rendered by the Court, the other party may have recourse to the Security Council, which may, if it deems necessary, make recommendations or decide upon measures to be taken to give effect to the judgement.

From 22 May 1947 to 6 July 2009, 144 cases were entered in the General List. The Court has mainly dealt with land or sea border disputes and cases relating to international crises (such as military and paramilitary activities in Nicaragua (1986), the legal consequences of the construction of a wall in the Occupied Territories of Palestine (2004), disputes between the successor States of the former Yugoslavia (2006) and disputes relating to the application of international conventions in the consular, air travel or legal fields).

United Nations Administrative Tribunal, the guarantee of the rights of UN officials

The United Nations Administrative Tribunal is a specialised jurisdiction established by Resolution 351 A (IV) of the General Assembly on 24 November 1949. It comprises seven members of different nationalities, appointed by the General Assembly for a term of four years, renewable once. The Tribunal is competent to hear and pass judgement upon applications alleging non-observance of contracts or terms

of employment of UN staff members as well as applications alleging non-observance of the regulations and rules of the Joint Staff Pension Fund.

During its 62nd Session, the General Assembly decided, in its Resolution 62/228, to revise the mechanisms for the administration of justice and establish two levels of jurisdiction: the United Nations Dispute Tribunal; as a first level instance, and the United Nations Appeal Tribunal. This reform was formalised in Resolution 63/253, the new judges were elected in the first half of 2009 and the new institutions started work on 1 July 2009.

UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon with the judges of the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (27 February 2009).
UN Photo/Mark Garten

International criminal justice: hopes for combating impunity

It is important to distinguish between international criminal tribunals established by the Security Council under its UN Charter Chapter VII powers, which are subsidiary organs of the Security Council, the International Criminal Court created by the Statute signed in Rome on 17 July 1998 and the hybrid jurisdictions set up by agreement between a given State and the United Nations.

>> International Criminal Tribunals

The International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) was set up by Security Council Resolutions 808 of 22 February 1993 and 827 of 25 May 1993 to judge those individuals deemed responsible for serious violations of international humanitarian law on the territory of the former Yugoslavia after 1 January 1991. The Tribunal sits in The Hague. By mid-2009, 161 persons had been charged, 120 cases were closed (guilty, not guilty or dismissed), 41 cases were pending and 2 accused (Ratko Mladi€and Goran Hadži€) were still at large. If the fugitives are arrested, the Tribunal is due to complete its mission in 2012.

The International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) was set up by Security Council Resolution 955 of 8 November 1994. Its mandate is to judge those individuals deemed responsible for acts of genocide and other serious violations of international humanitarian law on the territory of Rwanda, and those Rwandan citizens deemed responsible for such acts and violations on the territory of neighbouring States, between 1 January and 31 December 1994. The Tribunal sits in Arusha, Tanzania. Up to 4 May 2009, 44 accused in 31 different cases had been finally judged. Action against 24 accused in 10 different cases is pending. Seven detained persons remain to be judged. The Prosecutor continues his efforts to arrest the last thirteen fugitives, who include Félicien Kabuga. This Tribunal is also due to complete its mission in 2012.

>> International Criminal Court

As the prime permanent international criminal jurisdiction, the International Criminal Court was set up by the Rome treaty signed on 17 July 1998, entering into force on 1 July 2002. Under its Statute, its competence is restricted to the most serious crimes affecting the whole of the international community (genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes) committed after July 1, 2002, and ultimately the crime of aggression, the definition and Court competence conditions of which were agreed on by the first Review Conference of the Rome Statute, held in Kampala from May 31th to June 11th.

The International Criminal Court is linked to the United Nations system but remains independent from it. Although the Court is meant to become universal, it is only competent for Parties to the Rome Statute or Non Parties that have recognised its jurisdiction. The competence of the Court is established by an international agreement. However, the Court can be seized for any situation by the Security Council, acting under Chapter VII of the UN Charter (see for example Resolution 1593 (2005) of the UNCS on the situation in Darfur). The 111 Parties are mainly from Europe, Latin America and Africa, whereas very few are from Asia. The United States, China and Russia are not State Parties to the Rome Statute.

The ICC's jurisdiction is subordinate to the principle of complementarity: the Court only intervenes when competent national jurisdictions refuse or are unable to judge the alleged criminals effectively. It may be referred to by a State Party, the Security Council or the Prosecutor, who at the request of the victims may be authorised by the Pre-Trial Chamber to proceed with an investigation.

The trial of three warlords from the Democratic Republic of Congo (Thomas Lubanga, Germain Katanga and Matthieu Ngudjolo Chui) has been running since 2009. A Congolese leader, Jean-Pierre Bemba, is also accused of acts committed in the Central African Republic: his trial is set to start on July 5, 2010 The Prosecutor of the Court is also leading inquiries related to genocide accusations in Darfur (in particular, an arrest warrant has been issued for Sudanese President Omar Al Bashir) and situations handed over by Uganda (on exactions committed by the leaders of the Lord's Resistance Army – LRA – including its chief Joseph Koni) and Kenya (since 31 March 2010, on acts of crime against humanity committed during the national elections which were held between June 2005 and November 2009).

Moreover, the Prosecutor has launched preliminary examinations on alleged crimes committed in Afghanistan, Colombia, Georgia, Ivory Coast and Guinea, as well as Palestine.

>> Hybrid jurisdictions

▶ **Special Court for Sierra Leone:**
This tribunal was set up following Security Council Resolution 1315 of 14 August 2000, requesting the UN Secretary-General to create with the Government of Sierra Leone a special court to try those primarily responsible for crimes against humanity, war crimes and crimes under Sierra Leone law committed since 30 December 1996. This jurisdiction was established by an agreement between the United Nations and the Government of Sierra Leone on 16 January 2002 constituting the Statute of the Court. Its members include Sierra Leone magistrates and judges mainly from the English-speaking States of West Africa and the Commonwealth; it applies English common law and its working language is English. It normally sits in Sierra Leone. However, due to security reasons, the trial of Charles Taylor (former president of Liberia yet subject to the Court's jurisdiction) is currently being held in the premises of the International Criminal Court in The Hague. When this trial is finished, the Court's mission will be completed.

▶ **Extraordinary Chambers in the Courts of Cambodia** (also known as "Khmer Rouge tribunal")
On 6 June 2003, the Royal Government of Cambodia and the United Nations Secretary-General signed an agreement,

which came into force on 29 April 2005, for the last Khmer leaders to be judged by a hybrid jurisdiction of international and Cambodian judges, integrated into the Cambodian legal system and applying Cambodian law. The leaders of Democratic Kampuchea will face charges of crimes and serious breaches of Cambodian criminal law, international humanitarian law and international conventions recognised by Cambodia, committed between 17 April 1975 and 6 January 1979 (genocide, crimes against humanity, serious violations of the 1949 Geneva Conventions, including homicide, torture and religious persecution). By 2009, the only trial to have begun is that of a former camp leader known as "Duch".

▶ **Special Tribunal for Lebanon:**
In Resolution 1757 of 30 May 2007, the Security Council, acting under Chapter VII of the UN Charter, established the Special Tribunal for Lebanon provided for in agreements between the Lebanese Government and the United Nations on 23 January and 6 February 2007. This jurisdiction will prosecute those responsible for the attack of 14 February 2005 that caused the death of the former Lebanese Prime Minister Rafic Hariri and other terrorist attacks in Lebanon after 1 October 2004. The Tribunal, sitting in The Hague and comprising Lebanese and other national judges, is currently being organised.

Humanitarian action

Response to humanitarian crises

By the mandates it gives to its agencies, the United Nations provides specific responses to humanitarian crises.

The prime task of the World Food Programme (WFP) is to combat hunger and poverty in the world by meeting urgent needs and supporting economic and social development. It

A member of the European Union assessment team disembarks a UN peacekeeping helicopter in Petit-Goâve, Haiti.
UN Photo/Logan Abassi

supplies aid to refugees, victims of natural disasters and the most vulnerable population groups.

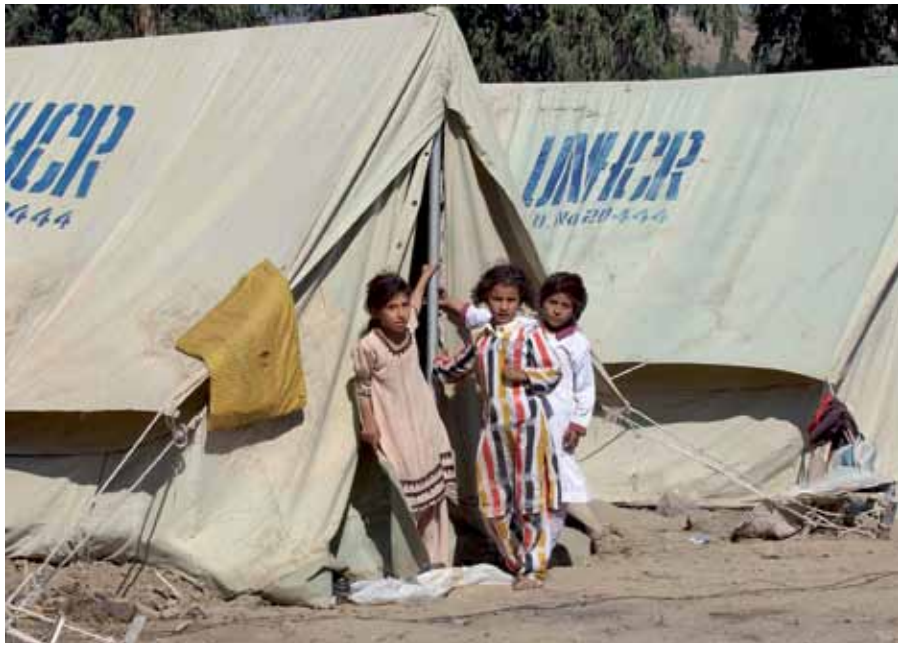
When a humanitarian crisis (armed conflict or natural disaster) causes major movements of people (refugees or internally displaced persons), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) intervenes to afford them protection and assistance.

The UNHCR Office was created by the United Nations General Assembly in 1950 (Resolution 428), and its mission, under the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (and asylum-seekers), is the international protection of refugees, asylum-seekers and the stateless. The agency seeks to ensure the right of all to seek asylum and find refuge in another State.

The UNHCR's initial mandate does not cover the issue of displaced persons. No United Nations agency has a specific mandate to protect them. However, because of its experience and presence in the field, the UNHCR has provided protection and assistance to 14.4 million displaced persons in 2009. In all, in 2009, the number of people covered by its work was 25 million. The UNHCR has offices in 118 countries and employs 6,650 staff.

The situation of Palestinian refugees is dealt with by a specific United Nations agency: UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East). It was created in 1949 by Resolution 302 of the UN General Assembly.

At present, UNRWA is the main provider of basic services to the 4.7 million Palestinian refugees living in the Palestinian



Earthquake victim camp in Pakistan run by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
UN Photo/Evan Schneider

Territories, Jordan, Syria and Lebanon. This assistance comprises five elements: education (the Agency's largest budget); health; relief and social services; microenterprise and microfinance; and camp infrastructure and facilities.

Humanitarian coordination

The Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) is tasked with coordinating the humanitarian aid delivered by United Nations agencies and ensuring the coherence of all humanitarian action in crises. The role of the OCHA was reinforced by the humanitarian reform of the United Nations in 2005. It is rests upon three main ideas:

– **Achieving a mechanism of rapid financing for humanitarian emergencies as a result of the implementation of the CERF:** the Central Emergency Response Fund for serious crisis (urgent or sudden disasters) or underfinanced crisis (within a limit of a third of the CERF funds). The fund reinforced the ability to give rapid financing answers,. It stands in compliance with the logic of humanitarian assistance coordination. The CERF is only accessible to UN agencies. It is not intended to substitute for their budgets.

– **Organising a humanitarian coordination, based on the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA).** OCHA does not lead operational activities of its own. In New York, OCHA reports to the Security Council on the humanitarian situation in a given region or country. In the field, its representatives hold regular consultation meetings with various humanitarian players, attended by NGOs and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC). OCHA also appoints humanitarian coordinators to better assess needs and choices on assistance strategy. It represents the Emergency Relief Coordinator in the country of operation. However, in practice, many humanitarian coordinators hold the function of Resident Coordinator (referring to the UNDP) and/or of representative of a UN agency in the given country.

– **Improving humanitarian aid in the field by implementing clusters that allow inter-agency coordination** (a leader Agency is appointed for each theme according to its competence). For every aspect of humanitarian intervention (health, shelters, education and so on), the clusters must allow coordination between relevant actors in the area of operation.

Both the CERF and the Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP) provide financing: they raise annual funds to help contributors schedule, implement and control their activities. They also allow the beneficiaries to monitor distributed aid and Flash Appeals, to structure humanitarian aid coordination during the first three to six months of the emergency period. These two financing mechanisms are also managed by OCHA.

To address natural disasters, the UN humanitarian system also relies on the United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination (UNDAC), whose role is to identify a body of humanitarian professionals, working for the United Nations, other organisations or governments around the world. The UNDAC appeals to this body to provide assistance during humanitarian crisis in the immediate aftermath of of a natural disaster. The UNDAC forwards information regarding the nature of the disaster and the assessment of the situation, enabling the OCHA to coordinate the humanitarian response.

Development and the environment

Although it is a linchpin in all matters of peace and security, the United Nations devotes most of its voluntary and compulsory resources to higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development (Article 55 of the UN Charter). One of the strongest messages of the United Nations is that the development of all peoples is the basis for peace and security.

The United Nations system operates at various levels to achieve its objectives via specialised institutions, funds and programmes.

Development

>> Economic development

In 2005, 1.4 billion human beings were living on less than $1.25 a day, 900 million were hungry and 1.6 billion had no satisfactory access to basic hygiene. To combat these inequities, the United Nations works to promote and fund economic development in poor countries. When the world's leaders adopted the Millennium Development Goals in 2000, they undertook to achieve the MDGs by 2015. A summit will be held in 2010 to report on progress made.

The network of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) coordinates efforts at global and national level to achieve the MDGs and helps countries define and implement their development strategies. Its operational work mainly concerns poverty reduction, democratic governance, crisis prevention and recovery, and the environment. Under its mandate to coordinate, the UNDP plays an important role in the field in encouraging coherence between the actions of the agencies present locally, in compliance with the priorities defined by the beneficiary countries. The UN Resident Coordinator, often a UNDP staff member, is a full partner for the local authorities and a team leader for implementing, with the other agencies, the actions decided on. This role has been strengthened following the proposals of the high-level panel on system-wide coherence.

>> Social development

The United Nations stresses the social nature of economic development, in work, education, population, human development and male-female equality.

The main objectives of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) are to promote compliance with international work standards, encourage the creation of decent jobs and develop social protection and dialogue. The ILO's Summit on the Global Jobs Crisis (15-17 June, 2009) pointed out the importance, at a time of international economic and financial crisis, of taking account of the social dimension of globalisation. Following the Summit, a Global Compact for employment was adopted to provide a framework and guidelines for national responses to the crisis and thereby strengthen the role of the ILO in this field.

Education has a multiplier effect on all other development indicators. Among bodies addressing education issues, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) devotes nearly 15% of its budget to education. Similarly, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) monitors children's attendance at schools providing quality teaching in cities and rural areas.

The rapid growth of urban population is concentrating millions of poor people in shanty towns in deplorable sanitary conditions. The UN Habitat programme focuses on promoting housing for all, better management of urban services, urban poverty reduction, disaster mitigation and post-conflict recovery.

Similarly, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) works for the right to health, equality of opportunity and the promotion of human development. It follows the link between population, living conditions, reproduction and access to development.

Women play a major role in economic and social development. In the developing world, they account for 50% to 80% of the production, processing and marketing of foodstuffs. The United Nations supports increasing the resources given to women and monitors the protection of their fundamental rights. The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) provides financial and technical assistance to innovative programmes and strategies to foster women's empowerment and gender equality.

World Bank and International Monetary Fund, UN specialised institutions

The **World Bank's** mission is to reduce poverty in the world and improve living standards. One of its constituent parts, the **International Bank for Reconstruction and Development** (IBRD) focuses on countries able to contract loans, while the International Development Association (IDA) helps insolvent countries. Both offer very-low-interest loans, interest-free loans and grants to developing countries for a range of projects.

The World Bank often works in parallel with the **International Monetary Fund (IMF), which was also created at the Bretton Woods Conference**. The latter is tasked with ensuring the stability of the international monetary and financial system. The IMF seeks to promote economic stability, prevent crises and contribute to their solution, promote growth and reduce poverty. It monitors, assists and lends. At present the IMF is reforming the system of representation and voting rights for States.

>> Migration and development

The Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD) held its first meeting in 2007 in Brussels. It is one result of the High-Level Dialogue held during the 61st session of the UNGA. It is presented as a platform for sharing practices and experiences in the fields of migration and development. It enables dialogue at global level to define appropriate means for maximising the advantages of international migration for development and minimising its negative effects.

International Organisation for Migration (IOM)

The IOM is not part of the United Nations system, even though it works in close cooperation with the UN. It promotes respect for human dignity in international migration by acting in the fields of migration and development, and migration whether assisted, regulated or forced. It addresses in a crosscutting manner the promotion of international migration law, health and gender in migration contexts.

Environment

>> Climate

The Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), winner of the 2007 Nobel Peace prize, has played a major role in making international policy-makers aware of the urgency of meeting the challenge of climate change. It was set up in 1988 by two UN bodies, the United Nations Programme for Development (UNDP) and the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO). Its work was the basis for the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) signed in 1992 and supplemented by the Kyoto Protocol in 1997, which sets out differentiated objectives for reducing greenhouse gas emissions to 1990 levels.

The United Nations' mobilisation on the climate question is exemplary. The Secretary-General has offered to coordinate United Nations action and has involved himself personally by convening a high-level meeting to invite world leaders to take action against climate change. The United Nations has been the main forum for concluding agreements on climate (climate change, desertification, ozone layer, forests, and biodiversity, to name the most important). Recent UNDP work has stressed the consequences of climate change for human development.

The adoption of the Copenhagen Agreement, negociated on 18 December 2009 by around thirty heads of States and governments only took note of the UN's mobilisation. The session Bonn session (May 31st - June 11th 2010) is considered a key step towards a global treaty on climate, in particular with regards to the preparation of the Cancun Summit, from November 29th to December 10, 2010.

>> Environment and sustainable development

The creation of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) in 1972 was the institutional recognition of the need to protect the environment. The various conventions that have been signed reinforce the necessity for global environmental governance (GEG). UNEP fosters cooperation in protecting the

Global Environmental Governance (GEG)

Today's international environmental governance still has potential in increasing its effectiveness in meeting the challenges posed to the global environment. The large number of multilateral agreements on the environment and absence of a strong steering mechanism also make it difficult to ensure consistency in any measures taken.

In his address to the ILO conference on 15 June 2009, President Sarkozy stressed the fact that "once we have reached […] an ambitious agreement on climate, a genuine World Environment Organisation capable of enforcing any commitments made will have to be created."

It is with this in mind that France is supporting the proposal for a WEO. It is arguing for the broad outlines of the organisation to be adopted at the Rio+20 summit, one of the main themes of which will be the "institutional framework for sustainable development"

Such an organisation would in particular be based on the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP).

environment. Its task is to inspire and inform States and citizens and enable them to ensure their quality of life without compromising that of future generations. The United Nations was also behind the Global Environment Fund.

During the 1990s, in addition to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, two major conventions to protect the environment were adopted and the concept of sustainable development was asserted in Rio. The United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity aims to protect animal and plant species and their habitats. It obliges States to preserve their biological diversity and ensure a fair access to and benefit-sharing of genetic resources. The Convention to Combat Desertification deals with improving soil quality and managing land and water resources.

Other fields of economic and social intervention

>> Health

Three of the eight Millennium Development Goals directly concern health, although all of them are to some extent involved: reduce child mortality (six infections account for 90% of the 9 million annual child deaths); improve maternal health (500,000 women die during pregnancy each year); combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases by reversing their incidence by 2015.

To meet these goals, three organisations have a special role: the World Health Organisation (WHO), the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS, (UNAIDS), and the International Drug Purchase Facility (UNITAID).

The World Health Organisation sets standards and provides technical assistance. It is a lead agency and sets up partnerships when joint action is needed, while monitoring the health situation. In the case of AIDS, the WHO works with UNAIDS, which

coordinates the work of ten UN organisations against AIDS. The WHO takes an active part in preventing, treating and detecting malaria epidemics, focusing especially on pregnant women, and works in close cooperation with the Stop TB Partnership.

Two "vertical funds", devoted to specific themes, outside the UN system but of increasing importance, influence UN action in these fields:
– the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, commits $18,4 billion, supporting 572 programmes in 140 countries
– in drugs access, UNITAID, hosted by the WHO, facilitates the supply to developing countries of drugs against HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria via innovative funding, particularly via a solidarity tax on plane tickets. Its 2009 budget sums up to to $705 million in products, of which 85% are intended for Least Developed Countries.

>> Trade and industry

The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) was established in 1964 and is the General Assembly's main organ dealing with international trade and development, and related topics: finance, technology, investment, competition, and sustainable development. The UNCTAD is particularly involved in the preparation of the Fourth Conference on the Least Developed Countries, which is scheduled to take place in 2011.

The mission of the United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO) is to promote and accelerate industrial development in developing countries for cooperation at global, national, regional and sectoral level. UNIDO has three main activities: poverty reduction through productive activities; trade capacity-building by promoting industrial investment and technology; and energy and environment, with support programmes for ecologically sustainable industrial development strategies and technologies.

The World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) aims to promote intellectual property and copyright by international treaties and national legislation, as well as technical assistance, information and services. WIPO addresses such matters as technology transfer, cultural diversity, access to drugs, internet regulation and fair access to and benefit sharing of genetic resources.

World Trade Organisation (WTO)

The WTO is a related organisation of the UN, dealing with the rules of trade between countries. It is based on agreements negotiated and signed by most of the world's major trading countries and ratified by their parliaments. The purpose is to help the producers, exporters and importers of goods and services to do their work.

>> Transport

L'Organisation maritime internationale (OMI) favorise la collaboThe International Maritime Organisation (IMO) encourages cooperation in the regulation of technical questions. It fosters the general adoption of maritime safety standards, puts the resources of maritime services at the disposal of world trade by abolishing discriminatory measures and prevents pollution at sea by vessels and sea-based installations.

A healthy air transport network is a major economic asset for many countries and a catalyst for tourism, the world's largest industry. The definition and modernisation of reference practices are the job of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO). Its aim is to ensure the safe, orderly development of international civil aviation. The ICAO is a forum for presenting, analysing and debating rules and procedures for standardisation before a decision is made. The ICAO's mission is now changing to address the new challenges of terrorism and the environment.

>> Food and agriculture

The Millennium Development Goals are all addressed by organisations working in the field of farming and food production. This is particularly true of the first MDG, which directly targets the more than a billion under-nourished people in the world. The early date of foundation (1945) of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations attests to its importance. The trend towards higher prices for foodstuffs and questions of food security have revived interest in the organisation. The World Summit on Food Security, held in November 2009, established a global partnership for agriculture, food security and nutrition.

The FAO's role is to promote agriculture, nutrition, forestry, fisheries and rural development, as well as to eradicate hunger. It is a world focus for information and knowledge on food and agriculture and has a major standard-setting role (Codex alimentarius). The recent food crisis led to the establishment of a task force of all UN agencies concerned, under the chairmanship of the Secretary-General. It also prompted a global partnership between political, scientific and financial bodies in which the FAO will play a key role.

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) was set up to fund agricultural projects in developing countries, in response to food crises. IFAD is dedicated to eradicating rural poverty in developing countries. Working with governments, donors, NGOs and many other partners, IFAD focuses on tailor-made solutions, which may involve country-dwellers' access to markets, technology and natural resources.

>> Information technologies

The Universal Postal Union (UPU) is the main cooperation body promoting international postal services ensuring universal coverage and solidarity between its members.

Farming for development: rice fields in Madagascar.
UN Photo/Lucien Rajaonina

The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) brings together public authorities and the private sector to encourage the development of telecommunications and establish the necessary standards.

The World Summit on the Information Society, suggested by the ITU, was a four-year process with phases in Geneva (2003) and Tunis (2005), marking the determination of the international community to comprehensively address all aspects of the information society. It produced 11 key principles, listed in the Geneva Declaration, as well as the idea of digital solidarity and the need for regulating the internet, recognised as a "global public resource".

>> Tourism

The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) seeks to stimulate job creation by tourism, encourage the protection of the environment and tourist heritage and promote sustainable, responsible tourism and understanding among nations.

Education, science and culture

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) was founded in 1946 and is headquartered in Paris. It is the specialised agency of the United Nations that promotes intellectual cooperation.

UNESCO is a laboratory of ideas, catalyst for international cooperation, standard-setter, capacity-builder and clearing house. Its major fields of action are education, the exact and natural sciences, the social and human sciences, culture, communication and information.

The core of UNESCO's action is the defence of culture, in particular the protection of natural and cultural world heritage, safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage (2003 Convention), promotion of the diversity of cultural expressions (2005 Convention) and the education sector.

UNESCO also plays a major role in dialogue between cultures and is a crucial forum for promoting tolerance via education in compliance with the principle of universality that underpins the United Nations system. Its work is key to bringing countries together at a time when the idea of a "clash of civilisations" is widely discussed and debate in the United Nations is becoming polarised between regional groups.

The General Conference is the highest decision-making body of UNESCO and comprises representatives of all Member States. It meets every two years to determine UNESCO's

strategies and main lines of work and approve the programme and two-year budget.

UNESCO's action spans the world with a network of offices in addition to the headquarters (27 offices covering more than one country, 21 national offices and 10 regional offices) and a dozen institutes, such as the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris. Its work is supported by the action of national commissions for UNESCO that liaise with local civil society and assist the Organisation in implementing its programmes and activities.

New challenges

Responsibility to protect

The R2P is the heir of the "right of humanitarian intervention", a concept developed by Bernard Kouchner. It came to light in the 90's when the international community failed to react to the mass atrocities faced by the civilians in Rwanda and Bosnia-Herzegovina. It differs from the right to intervene because it consists not only in a right, but also in a duty, under specific terms.

The International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (established by Canada) published a report in 2002 entitled "The Responsibility to Protect". It asserts that sovereignty entitles a State to "control" its domestic affairs, but it also confers to the State a "responsibility" to protect its population within its borders. It states that, where a State does not protect its population, this responsibility should be borne by the entire international community.

The United Nations acknowledges the concept in 2005 World Summit Outcome. Gathered in New York, The Head of States and Governments asserted that the international

community, within the UN, has the duty to deploy diplomatic and humanitarian means as well as other pacific ones, in compliance with Chapters VI and VII of the UN Charter, in order to protect civilians from genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes and ethnic cleansing.

In September 2009, the UN General assembly reasserted this principle through the Resolution 63/108 after having renewed the 2005 consensus during the debate organized by the President of the UN General Assembly in July 2009.

The Security Council, through Resolution 1894 (11 November 2009) on the protection of civilians in armed conflicts, established a new link between the protection of civilians and its responsibility on the basis of the "responsibility to protect".

The endorsement of this concept by the world's Heads of State and Government represented a major political invention. For the first time, the idea that there is not merely a right but rather a duty for the international community to intervene in the case of massive human rights violations committed within a State was agreed by consensus.

Human security

Human security is a concept introduced in the 1994 report of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Human security was seen no longer as involving matters of military threat and protection of strategic foreign policy objectives but as focused on the lives of human beings. The aim is to protect each individual and enable them to fully exercise their vital freedoms.

In 1999, the United Nations created its Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS). At the same time the Human Security Network was set up.

An independent Commission on Human Security was set up in 2001 in response to an appeal from Kofi Annan at the

Millennium Summit "to free the individual from want and fear". Its report, delivered in 2003, stresses the need to put the individual at the centre of decision-making processes and to use this viewpoint to address current challenges, such as post-conflict rehabilitation, poverty reduction, health, education, migration and conflict.

Environmental security

The impact of environmental change on collective security is receiving more attention in the various forums of the United Nations. Recognition of the negative impact of climate change on peace and security was recently achieved in the adoption of a resolution by the General Assembly in June 2009.

Examination of the issue has begun in the various relevant organs of the United Nations and its agencies (UNDP, UNEP, HCR, etc.) in order to develop tools for preventing and mitigating climate upheaval and reduce the risk of internal violence or conflict between States. A particular focus has been placed on population movements caused by natural disasters, desertification or rising sea levels.

Corporate social responsibility

In 1999, the UN Secretary-General proposed a Global Compact between the United Nations and private companies on corporate social and environmental responsibility. At a time of globalisation, when companies are having an increasing impact on the environment, the world of work and human rights, the Global Compact aims to encourage corporate compliance with the values of the United Nations. The Compact asks companies to embrace, support and enact, within their sphere of influence, a set of core values.

In particular they are asked to respect ten principles in the fields of:

– human rights: respect for international law, and avoidance of complicity in abuses by their subsidiaries

– labour standards: freedom of association, the right to collective bargaining, elimination of forced labour, child labour and discrimination in employment

– the environment: a precautionary approach, environmentally friendly technologies

– anti-corruption. ■

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ANNEX I

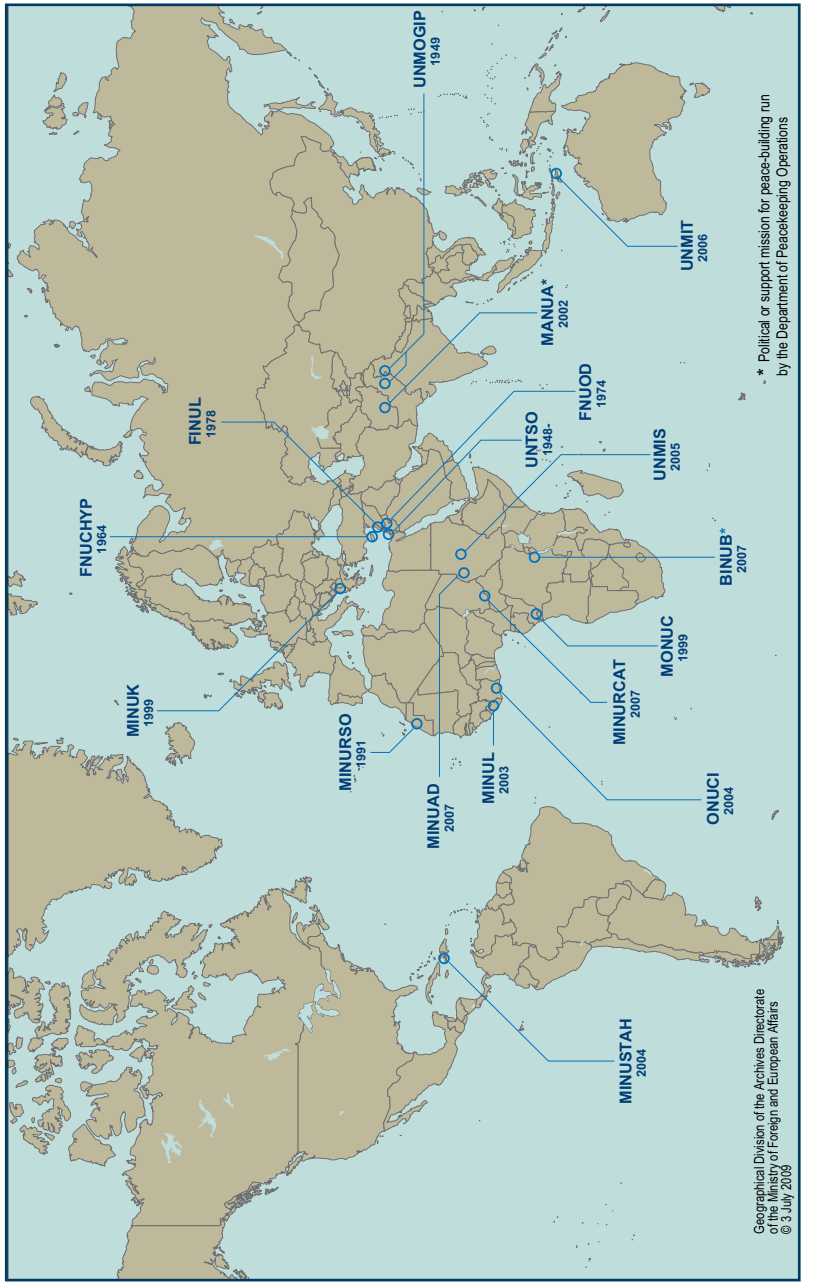
Current United Nations peacekeeping operations

	MISSIONS	Total number of uniformed personnel serving in United Nations peacekeeping missions as at 31 May 2010**
BINUB*	United Nations Integrated Office in Burundi	13
MINURCAT	United Nations Mission in the Central African Republic and Chad	3,149
MINURSO	United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara	239
MINUSTAH	United Nations Stabilisation Mission in Haiti	10,916
MONUC	United Nations Organisation Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo	20,796
UNAMA*	United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan	16
UNAMID	African Union/United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur	22,087
UNDOF	United Nations Disengagement Observer Force	1,04
UNFICYP	United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus	926
UNIFIL	United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon	12,067
UNMIK	United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo	16
UNMIL	United Nations Mission in Liberia	9,429
UNMIS	United Nations Mission in the Sudan	10,611
UNMIT	United Nations Integrated Mission in Timor-Leste	1,530
UNMOGIP	United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan	44
UNOCI	United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire	8,531
UNTSO	United Nations Truce Supervision Organisation	154
Total		101.867

* Political or support mission for peace-building run by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations

** Comprising armed troops, military experts on a mission, gendarmes and police officers.

Current United Nations peacekeeping operations



ANNEXE

The United Nations System

Principal Organs

Trusteeship Council

Security Council

Subsidiary Bodies

Military Staff Committee
Standing Committee and ad hoc bodies
Peacekeeping Operations and Missions
Counter-Terrorism Committee
International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia (ICTY)
International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR)

General Assembly

Subsidiary Bodies

Main committees
Human Rights Council
Other sessional committees
Standing committees and ad hoc bodies
Other subsidiary organs

Advisory Subsidiary Body

United Nations Peacebuilding Commission

Economic and Social Council

Functional Commissions

Commissions on:
- Narcotic Drugs
- Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice
- Science and Technology for Development
- Sustainable Development
- Status of Women
- Population and Development

Commission for Social Development
Statistical Commission

Regional Commissions

Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)
Economic Commission for Europe (ECE)
Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA)

Other Bodies

Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues
United Nations Forum on Forests
Sessional and standing committees
Expert, ad hoc and related bodies

International Court of Justice

Specialized Agencies [7]

ILO International Labour Organization
FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WHO World Health Organization

World Bank Group

IBRD International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
IDA International Development Association
IFC International Finance Corporation
MIGA Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency
ICSID International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes

IMF International Monetary Fund
ICAO International Civil Aviation Organization
IMO International Maritime Organization
ITU International Telecommunication Union
UPU Universal Postal Union
WMO World Meteorological Organization
WIPO World Intellectual Property Organization
IFAD International Fund for Agricultural Development
UNIDO United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNWTO World Tourism Organization

Secretariat

Departments and Offices

OSG [3] Office of the Secretary-General
OIOS Office of Internal Oversight Services
OLA Office of Legal Affairs
DPA Department of Political Affairs
UNODA Office for Disarmament Affairs
DPKO Department of Peacekeeping Operations
DFS [4] Department of Field Support
OCHA Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
DESA Department of Economic and Social Affairs
DGACM Department for General Assembly and Conference Management
DPI Department of Public Information
DM Department of Management
UN-OHRLLS Office of the High Representative for the Least Developed Countries, Landlocked Developing Countries and Small Island Developing States
OHCHR Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
UNODC United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
DSS Department of Safety and Security

UNOG UN Office at Geneva
UNOV UN Office at Vienna
UNON UN Office at Nairobi

Programmes and Funds

UNCTAD United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
ITC International Trade Centre (UNCTAD/WTO)
UNDCP [1] United Nations Drug Control Programme
UNEP United Nations Environment Programme
UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNIFEM United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNV United Nations Volunteers
UNCDF United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNFPA United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
WFP World Food Programme
UNRWA [2] United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UN-HABITAT United Nations Human Settlements Programme

Research and Training Institutes

UNICRI United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute
UNITAR United Nations Institute for Training and Research
UNRISD United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNIDIR [2] United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research
UN-INSTRAW United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women

Other UN Entities

UNOPS United Nations Office for Project Services
UNU United Nations University
UNSSC United Nations System Staff College
UNAIDS Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

Related Organizations

WTO World Trade Organization
IAEA [5] International Atomic Energy Agency
CTBTO Prep.Com [6] PrepCom for the Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization
OPCW [6] Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons

Other UN Trust Funds [8]

UNFIP United Nations Fund for International Partnerships
UNDEF United Nations Democracy Fund

NOTES: Solid lines from a Principal Organ indicate a direct reporting relationship; dashes indicate a non-subsidiary relationship.

[1] The UN Drug Control Programme is part of the UN Office on Drugs and Crime.
[2] UNRWA and UNIDIR report only to the GA.
[3] The United Nations Ethics Office, the United Nations Ombudsman's Office, and the Chief Information Technology Officer report directly to the Secretary-General.
[4] In an exceptional arrangement, the Under-Secretary-General for Field Support reports directly to the Under-Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations.
[5] IAEA reports to the Security Council and the General Assembly (GA).
[6] The CTBTO Prep.Com and OPCW report to the GA.
[7] Specialized agencies are autonomous organizations working with the UN and each other through the coordinating machinery of the ECOSOC at the intergovernmental level, and through the Chief Executives Board for coordination (CEB) at the inter-secretariat level.
[8] UNFIP is an autonomous trust fund operating under the leadership of the United Nations Deputy Secretary-General. UNDEF's advisory board recommends funding proposals for approval by the Secretary-General.

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ANNEX 3

Main United Nations sites

1. New York

– United Nations General Assembly

– United Nations Security Council

– Economic and Social Council

– Trusteeship Council

– United Nations Secretariat

Other programmes and funds, such as:

– United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

– United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

– United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF)

– United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)

2. The Hague

– International Court of Justice (ICJ)

3. Genève

– United Nations Office at Geneva (UNOG)

Other subsidiary organs, such as:

– Human Rights Council (HRC)

– Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)

– Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

– United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)

– United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR)

– United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR)

– United Nations Compensation Commission (UNCC)

Specialised institutions such as the International Labour Organisation (ILO), International Telecommunication Union (ITU), World Health Organisation (WHO) and UNAIDS.

Geneva also hosts the headquarters of the World Trade Organisation, a related organisation.

4. Vienna

– United Nations Office at Vienna (UNOV)

Organisations of the United Nations Secretariat:

– United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

– Office for Outer Space Affairs (OOSA)

Vienna also hosts the headquarters of the International Atomic Energy Authority (IAEA), a related organisation.

5. Nairobi

– United Nations Office at Nairobi (UNON)

Programmes of the United Nations system:

– United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

– United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT)

6. Other cities

Other cities throughout the world also host bodies of the United Nations system, such as,

– Bern: Universal Postal Union (UPU)

– Copenhagen: Inter-Agency Procurement Services Office (IAPSO)

– London: International Maritime Organisation (IMO)

– Madrid: United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)

– Montreal: International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO)

– Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)

– Rome: Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), World Food Programme (WFP) and International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

– Tokyo: United Nations University (UNU)

– Washington, D.C.: International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank Group

ANNEX 4

Acronyms

English	French	
ACABQ	CCQAB	Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions
AU	UA	African Union
CEDAW		Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CERD		Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination
CMW	CTM	Committee on Migrant Workers
CRC		Committee on the Rights of the Child
CSD	CDD	Commission on Sustainable Development
CTC	CCT	Counter-Terrorism Committee
DDR	DDR	Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
DESA	DAES	Department of Economic and Social Affairs
DFS	DAM	Department of Field Support
DPKO	DOMP	Department of Peacekeeping Operations
ECOSOC	CES	Economic and Social Council
ECOWAS	CEDEAO	Economic Community of West African States
ESCR	DESC	Economic, social and cultural rights
FAO		Food and Agriculture Organisation
GEF		Global Environment Fund
GFMD	FMMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
HDI	IDH	Human Development Index
HRC	CDH	Human Rights Council
IAEA	AIEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IBRD	BIRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

ICAO	OACI	International Civil Aviation Organisation
ICC	CPI	International Criminal Court
ICJ	CIJ	International Court of Justice
ICRC	CICR	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICTR	TPIR	International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda
ICTY	TPIY	International Criminal Tribunal for former Yugoslavia
IFAD	FIDA	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	OIT	International Labour Organisation
IMF	FMI	International Monetary Fund
IMO	OMI	International Maritime Organisation
INCB	OICS	International Narcotics Control Board
IOM	OIM	International Organisation for Migration
IPCC	GIEC	Inter-governmental Panel on Climate Change
ITU	UIT	International Telecommunication Union
LoN	SDN	League of Nations
MDG	OMD	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	ONG	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPT	TNP	Non-Proliferation Treaty
NSG	GFN	Nuclear Suppliers Group
OCHA	BCAH	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OHCHR	HCDH	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
PBC	CCP	Peacebuilding Commission
PKO	OMP	Peacekeeping Operation
POC		Protection of Civilians
PSC	CPS	Peace and Security Council of the African Union
SCSL	TSSL	Special Court for Sierra Leone
SPM	MPS	Special Political Mission
SSR	RSS	Security System Reform
STL	TSL	Special Tribunal for Lebanon
UNAIDS	ONUSIDA	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS
UNAT	TANU	United Nations Administrative Tribunal

UNCTAD	CNUCED	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDC	CDNU	United Nations Disarmament Commission
UNDCP	PNUCID	United Nations International Drug Control Programme
UNDP	PNUD	United Nations Development Programme
UNEO	ONUE	(proposed) United Nations Environment Organisation
UNEP	PNUE	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO		United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFCCC	CCNUCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFF	FNUF	United Nations Forum on Forests
UNFPA	FNUAP	United Nations Population Fund
UNGA	AGNU	United Nations General Assembly
UNHABITAT	ONUHABITAT	United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UNHSP)
UNHCR	HCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF		United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDIR		United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research
UNIDO	ONUDI	United Nations Industrial Development Organisation
UNITAID	FIAM	International Drug Purchase Facility
UNO	ONU	United Nations Organisation
UNODC	ONUDC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNRWA		United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UNSC	CSNU	United Nations Security Council
UNSG	SGNU	United Nations Secretary-General
UNSGSR	RSSGNU	United Nations Secretary-General's Special Representative
UNWTO	OMT	World Tourism Organisation
UPR	EPU	Universal Periodic Review

UPU	UPU	Universal Postal Union
WB	BM	World Bank
WFI	IFI	World Financial Institutions
WFP	PAM	World Food Programme
WHO	OMS	World Health Organisation
WIPO	OMPI	World Intellectual Property Organisation
WMO	OMM	World Meteorological Organisation
WSIS	SMSI	World Summit on the Information Society
WTO	OMC	World Trade Organisation

ANNEX 5

France and the United Nations

France has given full support to United Nations action since its foundation.

As a permanent member of the Security Council, France pays particular attention to matters concerning the maintenance of international peace and security. France provides the Security Council with the wording of a large number of resolutions, has taken the initiative in many projects, such as, most recently, piracy and greater efficacy for sanctions regimes.

France is also a major direct and indirect contributor to peacekeeping operations. It is present in ten of the fifteen current UN peacekeeping operations. With 2,300 personnel deployed, of which 1,450 with UNIFIL in Lebanon, it ranks 13th among United Nations contributors and 1st among Security Council members. This direct contribution is supplemented by major commitments to the stabilisation forces authorised by the United Nations, whether ad hoc, with the EU (Artemis and EUFOR DRC, EUFOR Chad/CAR, for example), NATO (ISAF in Afghanistan, KFOR in Kosovo). In terms of funding, with a quota of 7.4% of the PKO budget, France is the 5th largest contributor to peacekeeping. In January 2009, together with the United Kingdom, France launched a Security Council initiative to improve the preparation, planning and monitoring of operations by the New York Secretariat and the Security Council.

France is also actively committed in the field of human rights. For nearly 25 years it pressed for an International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2006. It is behind the creation of special procedures against arbitrary imprisonment, enforced disappearance and extreme poverty. France takes part in discussions on implementing the concept of the responsibility to protect, inherited from the right to intervention advanced by Bernard Kouchner.

France also initiated the United Nations declaration on sexual orientation and gender identity made at the UNGA on 18 December 2008 and signed by 67 countries, marking a significant advance in the debate on this matter. This country, together with our European partners, is fully committed to the universal abolition of the death penalty.

In the field of the protection of children in armed conflicts, France has taken a leading role, with the creation of a UNSC working group on the matter and the production of the Paris Commitments, a series of innovative political principles. France is also one of the countries most committed to combating violence against women and negotiating and implementing UNSC Resolutions 1325 and 1820, 1888 and 1889 (women, peace and security) at the UN and also within the EU (on France's initiative, in 2008 the EU adopted CFSP guidelines on violence and discrimination against women).

France was behind the inclusion of the funding of global public goods in the discussion and work on development funding. It has also repeatedly taken practical initiatives to develop innovative forms of funding. It is behind the initiative to facilitate access to essential medicines, and the creation of vertical funds, particularly against HIV/AIDS.

In the field of the environment, France plays a leading role in rationalising and coordinating more effectively the action of the various bodies ("global environmental governance").

In terms of administrative support, the French Court of Audit (Cour des Comptes) certifies the United Nations' accounts.

According to 2008 data from the UN Secretariat, French nationals make up the second largest contingent of all categories of Secretariat staff, with 1,153 agents (of whom 393 administrators) out of 19,799. France accounts for 5.82% of staff (compared with 10.49% for the United States, 3.23% for the UK and 2.11% for Germany) and 5.27% of executives (United States 10.16%, UK 4.55%, Germany 3.55%). ■

ANNEX 6

The United Nations in films

North by Northwest,
Alfred Hitchcock, 1959, film

A New York advertising executive, Roger Thornhill (Cary Grant) is mistaken for one George Kaplan and kidnapped. He escapes and tries to prove his innocence. Each attempt identifies him further with Kaplan and he is accused of a murder at the United Nations.

Batman,
Leslie H. Martinson, 1966, film

The Penguin, The Joker, The Riddler and Catwoman plot together to kidnap a researcher who has invented a process that can dehydrate a human body to dust. After this crime, the gang of arch super-criminals kidnaps members of the UN Security Council and uses the invention on them. Batman and his companion, Robin, spring into action.

The Rescuers,
Walt Disney, 1977, animated film

Penny, an orphan kidnapped by the evil Madame Medusa, throws a message in a bottle out to sea. In the cellars of the United Nations building the Rescue Aid Society (a mouse organisation) convenes a meeting to organise a rescue mission.

Black Hawk Down,
Ridley Scott, 2001, film

In October 1993, civil war in Somalia causes a famine among the civilian population. The United Nations forces are attacked by a faction led by General Mohamed Farrah Aidid. The United States sends a task force of Delta Force soldiers, Army Rangers, and Special Operations Aviation Regiment to arrest Aidid. Unable to find him in person, the unit seeks his lieutenants.

The Interpreter,
Sydney Pollack, 2005, film

Sylvia Broome (Nicole Kidman) is an interpreter at United Nations headquarters in New York. On her way to her desk she overhears a conversation in Ku, an African dialect she is one of the few people to speak, and realises that a murder attempt is being planned on the President of the Republic of Matobo during his visit to the United States.

Hotel Rwanda,
Terry George, 2005, film

The film follows the action of the Rwandan Paul Rusesabagina, a Hutu, the manager of the five-star hotel, Les Mille Collines, in Kigali, who sheltered and saved the lives of over a thousand Rwandan Tutsi threatened by the 1994 genocide.

At the Glass Building: The History of the United Nations through its Secretaries-General,
Romuald Sciora, 2006, documentary

The United Nations Organisation is portrayed by its Secretaries-General from Kurt Waldheim to Kofi Annan. A few months before the campaign to elect a new Secretary-General, light is thrown on over half a century of world history.

In 2009, Romuald Sciora made another documentary on the United Nations called Planet UN: *the United Nations facing the challenges of the 21st century.*

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