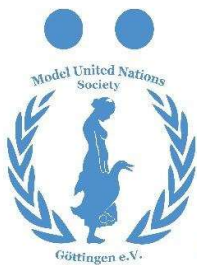


GÖMMUN



STUDY GUIDE

UNITED NATIONS HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL
(UNHRC)

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Word of Welcome by the Chairs

Dear Delegates,

It is our pleasure to welcome you to GöMUN's Human Rights Council. These year's topics are "ensuring equal political participation for women" and "Addressing the situation of political prisoners- Ensuring the right to free trials".

This background guide provides a first general overview on the two topics; however, you still should conduct individual research on the topics. Please also familiarize with GöMUN's Rules of Procedures in advance.

Model United Nations not only are about improving your public-speaking and problem-solving skills, it is also a great possibility to learn about how global diplomacy works and in addition a possibility to establish international contacts.

A lively debate lives from well-prepared delegates and everyone participating. So we would like to encourage everyone, especially first-timers, not be shy. If you have any questions do not hesitate to contact us.

We hope for fruitful debates and are looking forward to meet you in person during GöMUN in June.

Best regards

Olga Komorowski & Valentin Wagner

Committee Overview

The United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) was founded on March 15th, 2006 by the General Assembly with the adoption of resolution A/RES/60/251. The council is the successor of the United Nations Commission on Human Rights and held its first session from the 19th to the 30th of June 2006.

The council consists of 47-member states who are elected by the UN General Assembly. The countries elected remain in the Human Rights Council for a term of 3 years. Instead of all members being elected at once one third of the HRC members is replaced every year. To ensure a representation as fair as possible the HRC always consists of 13 African and 13 Asian states, 8 Latin American and Caribbean states, 7 Western European and 6 Eastern European states. The numbers have been determined according to the areas populations.

The Human Rights Council further has its own bureau consisting of one president and 4 vice presidents who each come from one of the 5 different geographical areas mentioned above. Currently the presidency is held by Vojislav Suc from Slovenia who was elected for a one-year term.

The HRC is responsible for the promotion and protection of human rights. To do so the committee actively promotes the human rights, checks what governments do for the protection of those rights, addresses the violations of human rights and gives recommendations to other UN bodies especially regarding human right emergencies. The council meets several times a year at the United Nations Office in Geneva in Switzerland. There are at least 3 regular session scheduled in a year and additionally the council can have meetings on human rights crises. Its documents are not legally binding and have a rather recommendatory nature. In order for a draft resolution to be adopted a simple majority is required.

The HRC has several procedures and sub bodies which distinguish it from other UN committees, those include:

- The Universal Periodic Review: Every 4,5 years the council conducts a Universal Periodic Review (UPR) during which it reviews the human rights records of all 193-member states

of the UN. During the UPR the UNHRC gives recommendations to each individual member state and the member states can come forward and ask for assistance if they struggle to ensure human rights within their country.

- The Special Procedures: The UNHRC is entitled to Special Procedures. For those special procedures the council appoints 5 independent individuals for example experts in a certain field who can go to places struggling with human rights and help by giving expertise, assisting in setting up infrastructure for the development of human rights and by raising awareness and writing reports.
- The Advisory Committee: The HRC has an advisory committee, which “functions as the “think tank” of the Council is focused mainly on studies and research-based advice”¹. This committee consists of 18 independent experts from 5 regional areas, who were elected by the HRC for a period of 3 years. Those experts have varying professional backgrounds and contribute to the council by examining proposals and offering their expertise.
- The Complaint Procedure: The so called “Complaint Procedure” allows nongovernmental groups and even individuals to issue a complaint, if they feel that their human rights are being violated. This distinguishes the HRC from other UN bodies, since it “is the only universal complaint procedure covering all human rights and fundamental freedoms in all UN member States.”²
- The Commissions of Inquiries: Based on human right violations the HRC can establish commissions of inquiries, which are responsible for collecting facts and information about specific human rights violations an example for such a commission is the “Commission on Human Rights in South Sudan” which is one of the seven commissions which are currently still active for the HRC.

¹ United Nations Human Rights Council. Info Booklet,
http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/HRCouncil/HRC_booklet_En.pdf

² United Nations Human Rights Council. Info Booklet,
http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/HRCouncil/HRC_booklet_En.pdf

Topic A: Ensuring Equal Political Participation of Women

Introduction

Article 21 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that “everyone has the right to equal access to public service in his country”. In reality however, many people are denied that access due to discrimination, because of their gender, sexual orientation or race (United Nations 1948: Article 21b). Those people are often directly banned from the possibility to run for a public office or indirectly prevented from taking one, through being presented as a stereotype or not having the opportunity to even try, due to structural injustices. One important step towards achieving equal political participation of all people, including equal possibilities to vote and run for office, is ensuring the equal representation of men and women in Governments and Parliaments. Although the amount of women in Parliament positions has nearly doubled over the last 20 years, most countries are still far away from actual gender equality. Women have proven to be just as qualified for government positions as man and even more likely to speak up about issues promoting gender equality, such as: education, child care, equal pay and the abandoning of structural injustices against woman.

Definitions

Political Participation: The United Nations include in their definition of political participation far more than the right to vote and comes to the conclusion that “political participation derives from the freedom to speak out, assemble and associate; the ability to take part in the conduct of public affairs; and the opportunity to register as a candidate, to campaign, to be elected and to hold office at all levels of government” (UN Women Watch 2004).

Structural Injustices: There are various definitions of the term structural injustices. The World Encyclopaedia of Law defines structural injustices as “the violence and harm that results from the political, economic, cultural, military, and other structures of society that have developed historically and are arranged in ways that enable some people to have vastly more access than others to resources, tools for acquiring resources, and the power to determine the terms of common life” (Alfredsson 2018).

Historical Background

Historically political participation was mostly considered a domain typical for men, while women were responsible for taking care of their households and raising children. The first country to grant women the right to vote was New Zealand in 1893, however it was not until the establishment of suffrage movements and the end of World War I until other countries started following this example in large numbers (Pariona 2017). The suffrage movements started at the beginning of the 20th century and were led by women, who fought for their right to participate in politics. Over the last century more and more countries began granting women the right to vote and to be elected in parliament however the amount of women in parliaments and government positions to this day remains significantly lower than the amount of men in positions of power. Today the only countries with a larger amount of women than men in parliament are Rwanda and Bolivia (Bruce-Lockhardt 2015). And although we see more and more countries electing women as their leaders most countries have still not reached that milestone yet. This is well depicted by the pictures of international summits such as the G20 summit in Germany in 2017, where among the 20 leaders only 3 were female:



³ Official Picture of the G20 summit: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/12/countries-with-most-female-politicians/>

Key Issues and Threats

Currently with women making up less than a quarter of the world's politicians billions of people do not get represented in their parliaments and governments (Jezard 2017). This is especially crucial since female politicians have proven to be an amazing asset to the economic and political development of countries. Especially since they tend to have an approach based more on their personal experience as a woman and are therefore more capable to address issues affecting the lives of women in their country in a more effective way than men. Additionally, data has shown that women also put a higher emphasis on social issues in general and are more likely to work on issues like education and health. The UN has long recognized the benefits and the necessities of female political participation, this is why gender equality and the empowerment of women is the third Millennium Development Goal (MDG) (United Nations).

However, giving women the possibility to engage in politics is not just worth striving for, it is also ensuring some of the basic UN principles as the right to political participation for everyone is included among others in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (UNHRC).

Actors Involved/Block Positions

The actors involved in this issue are mostly governments. Apart from states, actors can be found among activists and NGOs such as UN Women, We Forum and Amnesty International. The following will outline the positions of certain country groups. However, those outlines will be generalized and if you really want to understand your countries positions you will have to look up it stances on specific proposals (quotas, paternity leave etc.).

Western States: The North American and European States have spoken up frequently about putting more women into parliament and getting more women to participate in politics, however so far, they have not been successful in achieving real gender equality with regards to the issue. The Western country with the most women in parliament is Sweden with almost 44% (Bruce-Lockhardt 2015). Most Western countries however struggle to surpass 40%. Additionally, women in some western countries are still held to different standards than men, which leads to

them getting elected less likely, this could be last seen in the media coverage of the US Presidential race. This is why western countries are very engaged in influencing the society into perceiving women as capable leaders and not just as wives and mothers.

Latin American States: Latin America is ranking as the second most successful region in the world when it comes to equal political participation of men and women (Tello Rosas 2017). “16 of the 18 Latin American countries have implemented affirmative action mechanisms, aimed at enhancing women’s participation on electoral lists” (Tello Rosas 2017). The most successful countries among them are Bolivia, Cuba, Nicaragua and Mexico all having more than 40% of women in parliaments (Inter Parliamentary Union 2018). However, there are large disparities among the Latin American states with “some countries have a clear underrepresentation with less than 20% of women in Congress” (Tello Rosas 2017). Most countries in Latin America express a willingness to increase the number of women in congresses and parliament.

Asian States: The percentage of women in parliaments in Asian countries typically varies between 10 and 25% with Japan having the lowest amount at 9% (Inter Parliamentary Union). This means that in Asia “Women’s representation is below the global average” (True 2013: 2). The main reason for the low representation of women in this area is caused by the traditional understanding of the woman as a mother and not a leader. As “cultural, customary and religious discourses are frequently used to moralize that the ‘rightful’ place of women is NOT in politics” (True 2013: 2).

Arabic States: “Arab states have one of the lowest rates of women’s political representation at 17 percent” (Shalaby 2016). In Arabic states political participation of women is closely tied to the religious understanding of a woman as a caretaker and mother. As the number of women in schools and workplaces remains low so does the amount of women participating in politics. So far “few Arab countries have attempted to bridge the gender gap in the political arena by means of constitutional and electoral mechanisms (i.e., Tunisia, Algeria, and Morocco)” (Shalaby 2016).

African States: “Africa is a leader in women’s parliamentary representation globally” (Tripp 2013). 13 African countries have more than 30% of women in parliament, with Rwanda leading

the world with over 60% (Inter Parliamentary Union 2018). Additionally, “there have been nine female prime ministers in Africa since 1993” and “in July 2012, South Africa’s Nkosazana Dhlamini-Zuma took over the leadership of the African Union Commission” (Tripp 2013). Many African countries have therefore made tremendous progress when it comes to political participation of women. However, many girls are still discouraged from getting involved in politics and the situation of women’s rights in general and especially in conflict areas remains critical.

Main Measures Already Adopted (Resolutions, Documents...)

There have been several measures adopted by the United Nations to promote the Political Participation of Women. As stated in an earlier paragraph the right to an equal access to political participation was recognized by the UN in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (UNHRC). Regarding the last Convention the UNHRC has also a sub-body the “Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)” devoted to the global implementation of the convention.

Some of the more recent measures also include the adoption of resolution A/RES/66/130, which states that states should take measures to eliminate prejudices against women and promote the image of a politically active woman who is as capable as a man (A/RES/66/130).

Furthermore, the issue of Political Participation of Women has been undertaken by the UNHRC, UNDP and UN Women. It has also been declared part of the 3rd Millennium Development Goal, which is named “Promoting Gender Equality and Empowering Women” (United Nations). Furthermore, the Beijing Action Plan⁴ from 1995 also outlines concrete steps to enhance the amount of Women in Power and Decision making.

⁴ Available under: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/decision.htm>

There have also been numerous programs on local level that have proven to be successful and could be used as inspiration for further international frameworks. One example for such a program is the “50/50 Parity is Now” campaign in Bolivia (Tello Rosas 2017).

Possible Measures to be adopted

When addressing this issue multiple approaches can be combined and taken into consideration:

First of all, governments, who did not do so already, should be encouraged to sign the before mentioned conventions and measures to ensure their implementation to be put in place and strengthened. Governments should further be encouraged to conduct studies or to allow the UN to conduct them in order to find the specific causes for the low participation of women in politics.

Second of all many countries started to experiment with quotas as an affirmative action tool to ensure more political participation of women. While some countries completely oppose quotas over governments are big advocates of them. There are multiple ways quotas can be implemented varying from party quotas to reserved seats in parliament⁵. Gender quotas are therefore an approach worth discussing.

Another important term are structural injustices which prevent women from participating in politics. One important issue is education. There are still more boys than girls receiving a higher education, which results in more men than women in high positions of power. Another issue is childcare. Women are mainly seen as responsible for their children and if governments are not able to provide assistance for them, for example through providing enough day care spots and granting paternity leave so that fathers can also take care of their children women are often stuck at home and do not have the possibility to run for office. Another issue is economic empowerment of women. Women need to get more opportunities to be seen in leading positions in order to be perceived as such in societies. This leads us to the final measure: awareness campaigns. The importance and benefits of women in governance and politics needs to be stressed in the population so that women will not be frowned upon when deciding to take a

⁵ You can take a look at this map to find out whether your country has quotas:
<https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/gender-quotas>

political position. Furthermore, the image of a woman capable to lead and being equal to men in decision making and skills needs to be presented in society in order to change societies perception of women as primarily wives and mothers.

Questions that should be addressed in a Final Resolution

- How can the implementation of existing conventions and resolutions be strengthened?
- Which obstacles do women face when trying to participate in politics and what are effective ways to tackle them?
- Are gender quotas a possible solution?
- How can the society's perception of women be changed?
- Which structural injustices do women face and how can they be eliminated?

Suggested Readings

The most important and useful readings for you should include the following:

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights:

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CCPR.aspx>

Resolution A/RES/66/130 on the Political Participation of Women (2011):

http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/66/130

Ranking of all countries according to the percentage of women in parliament:

<http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>

You can also go to the Websites of UNWomen, the UNHRC, WeForum and idea.int to research the topic and your countries position on it.

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<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/gender.shtml>

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<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/wps/publication/Chapter3.htm>

Topic B: Addressing the situation of political prisoners - Ensuring the right to free trials

Introduction

Many people all over the world are imprisoned for different political reasons and have no access to fair trials. In some cases, the prisoners don't even have a chance of getting a trial. Often being imprisoned for political reasons goes along with torture. The United Nations have undertaken different measures in order to address them and their imprisonment conditions. However as recent examples show, they are not always effective. One of the problems is that there is no general definition of political prisoners, so that sometimes the borders between an imprisonment on a regular basis and one for political reasons are weak. Additionally, the idea of a fair trial mostly depends on the parties involved. These problems shall be explained in detail in the next section.

Definitions

There are several definitions of political prisoners. If one uses the lexically definition, a political prisoner is "someone who is put in prison for expressing his disapproval of their own government, or for belonging to an organization, race, or social group no approved of by that government" (Cambridge dictionary 2018). Amnesty divides political imprisonment in seven subcategories: First of all, prisoners of conscience, this term is equivalent to the legally definition. The second category is arbitrary detention, which means to be imprisoned without a process. The third category is called incommunicado, which means to be unable to communicate with the entire outside world. Category number four is secret detention, which means to be put in a secret jail. Category number five is inadequate imprisonment conditions; this could be an overcrowded jail for example or not enough food etc. The sixth category is unfair trials. This includes not having access to legal support, but also can include faked proof which is used against the defendant. Last but not least according to amnesty political imprisonment also can include torture (Cmp. ibid 2018.) It is easier to define a fair trial, since it can be described by a legal term. A "fair trial [is] a [...] right to a trial that provides certain practical protections for the citizen. [The] concept [...] involve[s] an impartial judge, effective

[...] legal representation, a lack of undue delay and freedom from self-incrimination” (Stewart 2006: fair trial).

Historical background

Different people have been arrested for political reasons at least since the middle age. If one focusses on the 20th century one can especially think about the cruel system of political imprisonment of the Nazi regime in Germany. Imprisonment for political reasons in Gulags was also the all-day reality in the Soviet Union (Cmp. Merrimann/Winter 2006:1291). One of the most famous political prisoners, who was released by the end of the century, was Nelson Mandela, who was arrested for his protest against the Apartheid regime. Depending on the definition also the prisoners in Guantanamo can be classified as political prisoners (Cmp. Kenney 2017). One can deduce that detainees exist during history since the medieval age and all over the world. Of course, also one can discover unfair trials all over the time in history. One can find a lot of examples for unfair trials during the current century, too. For example, China sentenced 10000 people to death for alleged capital offenses by begin of the 21st century, also Russia is often mentioned in the context of unfair trials during the recent century (Cmp. Amnesty 2004). A more current example has been unfair trials in Somalia, which have been held by military courts (Cmp. Human Rights Watch 2014).

Key issues and threats

As mentioned before key issues and threats of political imprisonment affects the detainee directly, since he is put in jail without having committed a crime. In most of the cases also he does not have any access to legal support, which usually goes hand in hand with a conviction in an unfair trial. In case that he has no possibilities to contact the outer world and if he is imprisoned in a secret location his relatives live in an uncertain situation. Indirectly also other political opponents are affected, since they have to realize, that they also have to fear an imprisonment for political reasons if they continue with their protest. If unfair trials are held also the credibility of the entire judiciary is endangered, since also sentences in fair trials can be paid in doubt.

Actors involved/ block positions

As mentioned above, different countries all over the world are accused of political imprisonment and unfair trials, so one cannot identify definitive block positions. The only one block position which is possible to be identified are the member states of the European Union. The reason therefore is the European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, which was adopted by the Council of the European Union in 1987. It forbids unfair trials and imprisonment for political reasons. The convention is not only binding for the states, who primarily signed it, it is also a pre-condition for new members to sign it (Cmp. European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment). 151 parties have signed the U.N. Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. However, all countries except for New Zealand, Singapore, Qatar, Gabon, Benin, Finland, Uruguay and Costa Rica are supposed to have it broken at least one time according to a study of Duke University (Cmp. Noack 2014). So, it is nearly impossible to identify any block positions or main actors involved. It means that you should find out more about your assigned country's position during your individual research. Nevertheless, different Non-Governmental Organizations, like Amnesty International or Human Rights Watch engage against political imprisonment and unfair trials. Furthermore, the Non-Governmental Organization "Fair Trials" engages for fair trials on an international level.

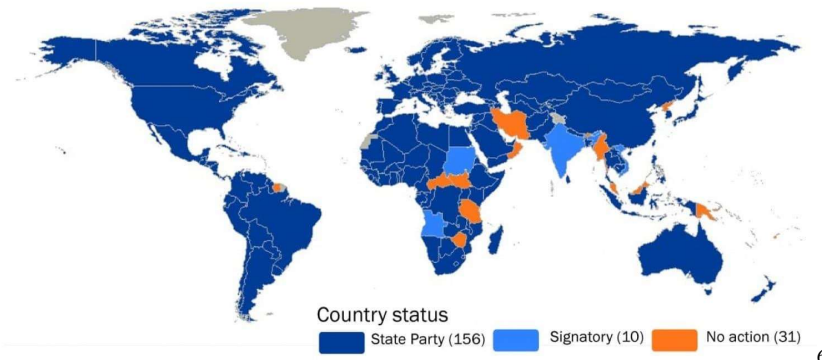
Main measures already adopted

The European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment has been adopted by the member states of the European Union only. Of course, also the United Nations have adopted different measures over the time. They shall be explained further detailed, here. In 1955 the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners have been adopted. They focus on the basic needs of prisoners and detainees, explicitly hygienic conditions, the provision of clothing and food, medicine etc. (Cmp. Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners:1.-26.). In addition, it forbids physical punishments (Cmp. Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners: 28-31).

In 1966 the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights has been adopted by the General Assembly. Article 7 focusses on imprisonment in general, here it says: “No one shall be subject to torture or to [...] inhuman [...] punishment” (International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights: Article 7). Article 9 focusses on political imprisonment specifically and forbids detainment explicitly (Cmp. International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights: Article 9). The covenant requests “fair [...] hearings by a[n] independent tribunal” (International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights: Article 14). The Covenant also established an expert panel on human rights, the Human Rights Committee (Cmp. *ibid*).

In 1984 the Adoption of the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment followed. One of the main aims of it was to make torture illegally, so it should become included in the criminal law with appropriate punishments (Cmp. Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment: Article 4). An expert panel against torture is introduced by the convention, too (Cmp. Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment: Article 17 ff.). In 2002 an optional protocol, which adds the convention has been adopted. It gives the signatory states the possibility to allow visits of a subcommittee of the expert panel, which has preventive tasks against torture.

Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment



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⁶ The graphic shows the state parties and signatories of the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Source: Noack 2014

The International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance shall protect every human being against secret detention. It also requests the states to include the practice of enforced disappearance in their criminal law (Cmp. International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance: Article 4-5). Like in the other conventions, which have been mentioned before, this convention also founds an expert panel against enforced disappearance. If a matter of urgency is handed over to the expert committee, it is allowed to search for the person, which seems to have disappeared by force (Cmp. International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance: Article 26-30).

In 1988 the General Assembly adopted a resolution, which established a Body of Principles for the Protection of All Persons under Any Form of Detention or Imprisonment. It demands the states to treat any kind of prisoners in a human way, as it request judicial oversight about any form of imprisonment as well (Cmp. A/RES/43/173: Principle 1-3). It strictly forbids “torture or [...] cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment” (A/RES/43/173: Principle 5) of any detainee. The body asks all states, who signed it, to provide access for the detainees to any kind of communication, which makes it possible for them, to contact their family or legal support (Cmp. A/RES/43/173: Principle 16).

The measures, which have been mentioned before focussed mostly on the conditions of imprisonment. Of course, also the United Nations have adopted different measures on fair trials.

In 1984 the office of the high commissioner for human rights published a general comment, which dealt with article 13 of the covenant on Civil and Political Rights. It pointed out, that article 13 is valid for any law case and in addition clarifies, that the article applies to all “ordinary or specialized” (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights 1984:4.) courts. Furthermore, the comment demanded all party states to provide more exact information on their efforts for fair trials (Cmp. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights 1984:3.). Additionally, the commissioner tried to exhort the states to keep in mind the presumption of innocence without any conditions (Cmp. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights 1984:7.).

The remarks by the commissioner for human rights have been of a more general character. In contrast to this the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTIFT) addressed the topic of fair trial in the context of counter-terrorism measures. They published a report, which clearly stated, that the basic principles of the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights also have to be applied in trials which deal with possible terrorists (Cmp. CTIFT 2014:8). The report requested a clear division between actors of “law enforcement [and] intelligence agencies” (CTIFT 2014:10). It further focussed on the concept of impartiality, which means that “judicial officers exercise their function without personal bias [or] prejudice [...] and [...] secondly, that the tribunal acts in a manner that offers sufficient guarantees to exclude any [...] doubt of impartiality” (CTIFT 2014:14).

Possible measures to be adopted

As mentioned, a high amount of measures have been adopted by the United Nations so far. However, some additional measures could be adopted. Nowadays people who are imprisoned for political reasons are not arrested without legal grounds. In most of the cases they are arrested for having committed an alleged crime, which cannot be easily investigated by observers, e.g. obligations against a tax law. It would be sensual to adopt measures, which prevents the criminal law from a misuse for political reasons. As one can recognize, a lot of measures have been adopted, which focus on the imprisonment conditions of detainees. Of course, also measures in order to provide fair trials have been adopted, but in some sense, they are very unspecific. It means that it is possible to add them and to tidy up them more detailed.

Questions that should be addressed in a resolution

In the measures which have been adopted so far exact definitions of political imprisonment and some a little less exact definitions of a fair trial have been formulated. In addition, expert panels, which shall oversee if people are arrested for political reasons and oversee, if fair trials are hold up have been founded. Anyhow consequences are missing if the states obey the rules or if experts find out, that these rules are obeyed. This matter should be addressed in a resolution. Furthermore, the expert groups also have the task to establish measures of prevention. It seems that this task is not fulfilled completely, since nearly every member state has been accused of

unfair trials or political imprisonment. So maybe a reform of the expert committees could be included in a possible resolution.

Suggested Reading

First of all, the documents and conventions which have been mentioned are suggested to be read. In the context of fair trials Amnesty's fair trials manual is highly recommended ⁷. If you would like to be informed about obligations against the Convention against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment in detail, the ill-treatment, torture data collection project is a recommended source ⁸. If you would like to receive a general overview on the topic you will find general information on the websites of suitable NGOs, like Amnesty, Human Rights Watch or Fair trials. During your preparation for the conference you will not only prepare on the topic in general, you also have to be prepared about your assigned country and its position. As a source for a first overview the CIA world fact book can be recommended

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⁷ Available under <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/POL30/002/2014/en/>

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Position Paper Guidelines

A Position Paper is a document in which a Delegate states the position of their assigned country regarding the topics discussed in their committee. The Position Paper should show that you did your research about both of your topics and have a general understanding of your country's intentions and solutions to the problems at hand.

While there are various guidelines and recommendations for Position Papers, differing from conference to conference, the GöMUN Position Paper guidelines are the following:

- Your Paper should
 - a. depict your country's individual perception of the topics,
 - b. your country's previous relation with the problem and
 - c. the policies, measures and ideas that you would like to promote and implement as a delegate of your country.
- The Position Paper should be split in two sections. Each section should be devoted to one of your topics and consist of multiple paragraphs.
- Each topic's section of the Paper should be at least two-thirds of a Din A4 page and no more than a full Din A4 page. Overall, Position Papers should be about one and a half to two pages long.
- All Papers should be written in a standard, easily readable typeface with font size 12 and 1.5 spacing.
- If you choose to include works or ideas that are not your own, you are obliged to cite their origin.