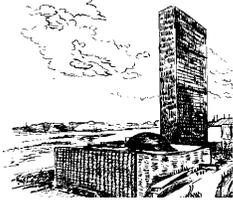


## Part 2



# Economic and Social Affairs

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## Economic and Development Issues

### Financing for Development

The March 2002 UN Conference on Financing for Development held in Monterrey, Mexico was the most important development conference in a decade. President Bush joined over 50 other heads of state and government and more than 200 ministers from around the world to discuss the best way to foster development.

In the lead up to the Monterrey Conference, President Bush announced the creation of the Millennium Challenge Account to link additional U.S. development funding to countries that demonstrate sound political, economic, and social policies. The President made clear that “countries that live by these three broad standards—ruling justly, investing in their people, and encouraging economic freedom—will receive more aid from America. And, more importantly, over time, they will really no longer need it.” Both his announcement and his attendance at the conference demonstrated America’s strong commitment to fighting global poverty.

The Monterrey Conference broke new ground in the UN’s development work. Through active U.S. leadership and close cooperation with others, the development discussion focused on factors that are fundamental to development: national responsibility coupled with international support, an enabling domestic environment that fosters private enterprise, and the mobilization of private resources.

More specifically, the world leaders agreed for the first time that developing countries need:

- good governance;
- an investment–friendly environment;
- private enterprise;
- human capacity-building;
- effective use of substantially–increased official development assistance; and
- implementation of the Doha trade commitments.

The U.S. delegation promoted active World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) participation in the preparatory process, as well as in the Monterrey Conference and in the follow-up sessions.

To ensure effective follow-up to the Monterrey Conference, the United States worked with a broad coalition of developed and developing countries during the 57th General Assembly to adopt two resolutions reinforcing the consensus achieved at Monterrey. Resolution 57/272 reiterated the key development roles of an enabling environment, private capital, and trade coupled with official development assistance. Resolution 57/273 was aimed at providing effective UN Secretariat support for implementing the consensus.

The United States also mounted an effort to organize the General Assembly's development agenda around Monterrey Consensus themes, in order to consolidate or eliminate a number of what the United States believed were repetitive and non-essential resolutions. While this reform effort did not gain immediate support, many members expressed a recognition of the problem. The General Assembly established a working group to examine the next session's agenda and conference follow-up work.

Finally, because of U.S. Government efforts and support from like-minded countries, the 2002 high-level meeting of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and Bretton Woods Institutions (the World Bank and the IMF) focused on the need for the United Nations and these institutions to stay engaged in the Monterrey follow-up process.

### **World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD)**

The World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), held in Johannesburg, South Africa in August 2002, was the largest gathering of world leaders since the 1992 UN Conference on Environment and Development (Rio Earth Summit). The WSSD marked an important milestone in sustainable development. Countries agreed to shift their efforts away from a traditional emphasis on setting standards and global targets toward a new approach that emphasized countries' responsibilities and concrete actions to reach internationally-agreed development goals. The Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development (the Summit's plan for implementing its recommendations) and the WSSD Partnerships (the Summit's outcome documents) underpinned this new sustainable development vision. The partnership documents stressed the importance of cooperative relationships among governments, the private sector, and civil society, and the need for sound domestic governance in order to achieve sustainable development.

The Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation addressed "three pillars" of sustainable development: economic growth, social development, and environmental protection. Both documents reflected U.S. priorities on development, such as those articulated by President Bush. The Johannesburg documents included trade and finance language that reinforced the Doha Development Agenda and advanced the Monterrey Consensus on

development financing. Moreover, the WSSD documents included some of the strongest endorsements of domestic good governance ever contained in a negotiated UN text. In carrying out the May 23, U.S. “Vision Statement on Sustainable Development,” the United States launched more than 20 partnerships at the WSSD, including four Presidential “Signature Partnerships” addressing water, energy, hunger, and forest issues. Other U.S. partnerships and initiatives launched at WSSD addressed issues such as marine ecosystems, safe water systems, infectious diseases, housing, and education. Beyond the political endorsements of the partnership concept, a total of about 300 new partnerships and initiatives were launched at the WSSD.

#### **UN Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD)**

In December 1992, the Economic and Social Council established the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) as a functional commission to follow up implementation of the Rio Earth Summit’s goals. Based at UN Headquarters in New York, it is composed of 53 UN or UN agency members, elected to three-year terms. It formally meets four weeks annually to consider specific sustainable development issues and promote implementation of internationally agreed development goals. From May 2001 until the August 2002 WSSD, the CSD served as the preparatory committee for WSSD, organizing preparatory meetings and setting the agenda.

The United States has been a member since the Commission’s inception. In the lead up to the WSSD, the United States worked closely with other UN members to develop a comprehensive agenda for the summit that would balance developing country interests (e.g., a focus on “means of implementation”) with those of developed countries (e.g., good governance and partnerships).

#### **UN General Assembly Resolutions**

In December 2002, the General Assembly adopted a resolution that endorsed the Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation. The United States joined consensus on this resolution. The General Assembly’s resolution also adopted sustainable development as a key element for the overarching framework of UN activities. These measures included Conventions on Biological Diversity, Combating Desertification, Climate Change, and Conventions on mountains, water, the Caribbean Basin, and small-island developing states. The General Assembly also called for an organizational session of the CSD in April/May 2003 to establish a work program to monitor WSSD outcomes.

#### **World Food Summit: Five Years Later**

One hundred eighty-two countries attended the June 10–13, 2002 “World Food Summit: Five Years Later” (WFS5YL) meeting in Rome. While 47 heads of state or government attended, most FAO members sent their Ministers of Agriculture. OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) countries generally fielded large delegations

with expertise in agriculture and development, with only two OECD countries, Spain and Italy, represented at the Head of Government level. U.S. Secretary of Agriculture Ann Veneman led the U.S. delegation, which included U.S. Agency for International Development Administrator Andrew Natsios and State Department Under Secretary for Economic, Business, and Agricultural Affairs Alan Larson. In addition to civil society and private-sector advisors, the delegation also included Congressman Tony Hall and Congresswoman Eva Clayton.

Heads of Delegation opened the Summit by endorsing the WFS5YL Declaration, subtitled “International Alliance against Hunger.” Negotiations on the Declaration had concluded at the pre-summit June 6–9 FAO Committee on World Food Security. The Declaration recommits members to implementation of the original World Food Summit Declaration and Plan of Action. It makes strong references to rural development; the need to boost agricultural productivity; the importance of agricultural trade and science-based standards in trade; school food programs; generation of resources consistent with the Monterrey Consensus approach to development; and agricultural research and technology, including biotechnology. Operative Paragraph 10 of the Declaration invited the FAO Council, which is the executive organ of the FAO’s governing body, to establish an intergovernmental working group. The working group would begin meeting in 2003 for a period of two years to elaborate a set of voluntary guidelines to support member states’ efforts to achieve the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security, and report its progress to the FAO Committee on World Food Security.

The United States submitted a reservation to this provision of the Declaration, which reads as follows:

“The United States believes that the issue of adequate food can only be viewed in the context of the right to a standard of living adequate for health and well-being, as set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which includes the opportunity to secure food, clothing, housing, medical care and necessary social services. Further, the United States believes that the attainment of the right to an adequate standard of living is a goal or aspiration to be realized progressively that does not give rise to any international obligation or any domestic legal entitlement, and does not diminish the responsibilities of national governments towards their citizens. Additionally, the United States understands the right of access to food to mean the opportunity to secure food, and not a guaranteed entitlement. Concerning Operative Paragraph 10, we are committed to concrete action to meet the objectives of the World Food Summit, and are concerned that sterile debate over ‘Voluntary Guidelines’ would distract attention from the real work of reducing poverty and hunger.”

The Italian Minister of Agriculture chaired a seminar on the right to food on the last day of the WFS5YL. Participants were invited to “discuss ways in which the right to adequate food and the fundamental right to be free from hunger can be implemented.” With the exception of the United

States, seminar participants, government representatives, and representatives of nongovernmental (NGOs) and civil society organizations all endorsed the Right to Food. The UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food, Jean Ziegler (Switzerland), concurred. Some regretted that the Declaration did not contain a “Code of Conduct,” but they applauded Operative Paragraph 10 of the Declaration.

The U.S. plenary statement, delivered by Secretary Veneman, highlighted U.S. efforts to improve agricultural productivity and nutrition and combat famine, including through school feeding and emergency food aid. Special attention was paid to needs in southern Africa. The statement also stressed the devastating impact of HIV/AIDS on food security. The Secretary of Agriculture announced that the United States would host a ministerial science and technology conference in early 2003 to focus on how developing countries’ food needs could be met through new food and agricultural technologies.

The Declaration of the WFS5YL successfully incorporated new challenges and opportunities available for dealing with poverty and hunger in line with the World Food Summit targets for 2015. The WFS5YL provided a venue for introducing the U.S. agricultural productivity initiative, highlighting U.S. actions to prevent famine and improve nutrition, and presenting U.S. views on improving agricultural productivity through biotechnology. The United States was able to stage successful peripheral events and engage in productive bilateral meetings. The press focus on trade issues frequently upstaged the development message, but also provided U.S. principals an opportunity to respond to criticisms of the U.S. farm bill.

### **UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD): Role and Activities**

The United States regards trade and investment as engines for growth and vital avenues for development and has looked for ways to promote trade overseas. The United States actively pursued this policy goal in the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) in 2002. The United States also continued its efforts to streamline the organization and to make its work less polemical and more practical. U.S. diplomats participated in substantive evaluations of UNCTAD’s programs, leading to the elimination of under-performing initiatives.

UNCTAD mainly serves as a permanent forum for intergovernmental discussions on trade and development issues. In 2002, UNCTAD held several intergovernmental and expert-level sessions. Topics covered in expert-level discussions included multilateral cooperation, production diversification, competition law and policy, and international standards of accounting and reporting. Its Secretariat carries out research, data collection, and analysis to provide substantive input to such discussions.

During a 2002 mid-term review, the United States worked successfully to reduce the number and length of intergovernmental meetings in favor of more practical experts meetings on significant trade and develop-

ment topics. The United States also worked closely with the European Union to reduce the number of negotiated documents. This reduction resulted in shorter, more practical discussions, as delegations no longer had to stake out politically-motivated negotiating positions.

The United States urged UNCTAD to focus on providing practical assistance to developing countries in areas such as customs reform, trade augmentation, and investment promotion. The Advance Cargo Information System program, for example, helps developing countries create integrated multi-modal transport systems that facilitate trade and improve governance. Customs reforms are the centerpiece of the Automated System for Customs Data program, which is the leading customs computerized system in developing countries.

Among UNCTAD's achievements are its Investment Policy Reviews, which assess the progress countries have made toward adopting market-driven economic reforms. The reviews stress these reforms as the most important element of an investment promotion strategy. Reviews of African countries have highlighted the success of the U.S. Government's Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (2000) in promoting both trade and investment.

Based in Geneva, UNCTAD currently has 190 members. UNCTAD's \$85 million biennial budget is funded from the UN regular budget for which the United States is assessed 22 percent. UNCTAD's technical assistance activities are funded separately through voluntary contributions. The current Secretary-General, Rubens Ricupero (Brazil), began his tenure in 1995 and is due to leave the post in 2004.

## **International Trade Center (ITC)**

The United States pursues one of its key development assistance priorities—helping countries build their trading capacity—through its work with the International Trade Center (ITC). The ITC, headquartered in Geneva, works closely with its parent organizations, the World Trade Organization (WTO) and the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), to provide trade-related technical assistance for developing countries. The ITC is the most operational of the three organizations. It directly supports the enterprise sector in developing countries to expand exports and improve import operations through tools such as the Export Fitness Checker (software that helps a firm assess its export readiness) and the Marketplace (an online database that links potential buyers and sellers via the Internet). The ITC also works with developing country governments to assist them craft and implement trade development strategies, which facilitate their integration into multilateral trading systems.

In addition, ITC supports national government efforts to design and implement trade development strategies. ITC also works with private-sector groups, such as chambers of commerce, to strengthen key trade support services. Finally, ITC collaborates with business communities to help

small and medium-sized enterprises become more competitive and aware of export opportunities.

In 2002, the United States provided a \$500,000 grant to the ITC to support its TradeMap project. TradeMap is a tool intended to help developing countries promote realistic marketing strategies and boost trade.

The United States also supports many other ITC programs, such as the “World Trade Net Program” and the Joint Integrated Technical Assistance Program in Selected Least-Developed and Other African Countries. These programs assist developing countries and their business sectors to acquire the knowledge and expertise necessary to take advantage of global trading regimes.

ITC’s 2002 expenditures were \$38 million, about 45 percent of which was for substantive programs. Its 2002 staffing level was 134 employees (11 American citizens). The WTO and UNCTAD provided half of ITC’s funding. Voluntary contributions accounted for 41 percent, and the remaining 9 percent was provided by the UN Development Program and other sources. The United States did not contribute to the ITC’s voluntary fund.

### **African Issues: NEPAD**

In September 2002, the UN Declaration on the New Economic Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) took over from the UN New Agenda for the Development of Africa in the 1990s. NEPAD was an important victory for the United States because the new program incorporated language on peace, security, democracy, good governance, human rights, sound economic management, and the “African Peer Review Mechanism,” an innovative feature of NEPAD, which is intended to ensure that members of NEPAD fulfill the agreements to reform made in the Partnership. These agreements reflected an understanding that Africa’s future must be determined by Africans, and Africa’s leaders must hold themselves and each other accountable for their actions. These elements form the essential basis for an African-led agenda, which the United States believes is the foundation for successful development on the African continent.

### **Development Activities: Bodies/Programs/Issues**

#### **UN Development Program (UNDP)**

Under the leadership of Administrator Mark Malloch Brown (United Kingdom), the UN Development Program (UNDP) has become a key U.S. partner in multilateral efforts to promote democratic governance and poverty reduction. UNDP’s new direction, established through reforms begun in 1999, was further defined by three important international conferences of the new millennium—the Millennium Summit (2000), the Monterrey Conference on Financing for Development (2002) and the World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD) (2002). The UN’s development philosophy is shaped and executed by UNDP and fellow members of the

UN Development Group (UNDG), which is comprised of the UN Children's Fund, the UN Population Fund (UNFPA), and the World Food Program. It is based on international development goals (IDGs), including those contained in the Millennium Declaration. The United States continued to disagree with UNDG's input-based approach toward the goal of fostering global partnerships for development, which asks for donor countries' contributions without regard to the responsibilities and actions of the receiving country. UNDG's development goals are intended to reflect the commitment to good governance, partnership, and mutual responsibility of the Monterrey Consensus, and the call for public-private partnerships of the WSSD's Plan of Implementation.

UNDP's activities center on six areas of sustainable human development: poverty eradication, democratic governance, crisis prevention and recovery, energy and the environment, information and communications technology, and HIV/AIDS. Good governance, institutional capacity building, and the advancement of women are the cross-cutting themes that bind the six focus areas. UNDP has offices in 130 countries and programs in 166, giving it a near-universal presence in the developing world. The UNDP manages and funds the UN Resident Coordinator System. The Resident Coordinator leads the UN country team and coordinates UN development and humanitarian field activities. UNDP also actively pursues partnerships with the World Bank, bilateral donors, the private sector, and civil society at the operational level. The UNDP is funded entirely through voluntary contributions. The United States has always been a member of the 36-state UNDP/UNFPA Executive Board.

In his capacity as chair of the UN Development Group, the UNDP Administrator also has primary responsibility for implementing the 1997 Secretary-General's reforms, which demand that all UN operational agencies commit to coordinate their assistance with each other and, most importantly, with the development process of recipient countries.

Key activities in 2002 included:

- UNDP incorporated achievement of the IDGs into its work plan. By the end of 2004, country teams in every developing country will have produced a report containing information on progress made since the baseline year of 1990 and an analysis of what is needed to achieve the Millennium Declaration goals by 2015. The reports will form the basis of the Secretary-General's global report on the IDGs to the 58th UN General Assembly (2003). Twenty countries had submitted reports by the end of 2002.
- UNDP devotes 60 percent of its efforts to assisting governments in adopting democratic governance. In Nepal, for instance, it helped the government streamline the judicial system, making it less costly for all citizens by reducing multiple tiers, improving legal drafting, and devising less costly dispute settlement mechanisms, such as local arbitration boards at the village level. In Senegal and other African countries, UNDP worked with parliamentarians to put their Assembly documents online and set up Assembly Intranets. The project also enabled legislators to communicate with constituents.

- The Resident Coordinator in Zimbabwe, who also serves as the Humanitarian Coordinator and the UNDP Resident Representative, was at the center of efforts to avert a looming humanitarian crisis caused by poor economic decision-making. He attempted to place Zimbabwe's land reform on a firm legal basis and slow down precipitous reform implementation; initiated regional meetings on humanitarian needs; hosted a scientific conference on biotechnology and food assistance; and provided a bi-weekly forum for donors and Zimbabwean Government officials to exchange information.
- In Angola, UNDP undertook, along with Chevron Texaco Corporation and the Government of Angola, an initiative to support small business development. The CEO of Chevron Texaco commented that the purpose behind the initiative was "to spur economic development, promote security, and to assist in securing better lives for the people in Angola."

In July 2002, the Arab Human Development Report became the first regional report issued under the UNDP aegis. The well-known annual Human Development Reports have become a valued reference on progress in human development. However, the Arab Human Development Report was far more than a statistical compendium. Prepared by some 30 Arab economists, sociologists, cultural experts, and other academicians, the report undertook to analyze why progress in human development had stagnated in the Arab states. While acknowledging progress in increasing life expectancy and decreasing infant mortality rates, the scholars found that lack of political, social, and intellectual freedom and the repression of women were major causes of the Arab region's lack of progress. The report spurred broad debate and controversy in the region and has been widely cited in U.S. policy debates on the Middle East.

In addition to the Arab Human Development Report, the United States welcomed UNDP's annual human development report on "Deepening Democracy in a Fragmented World." However, the United States objected strongly to some of the research performed by UNDP's independent Office of Development Studies. This office published a book on Global Public Goods that was based on assumptions and analyses that have not been accepted by the United States or by the UN General Assembly. The United States also objected to research on trade, which called into question the relevance of international trade for the poorest nations.

In the early 1990s, the United States generally provided more than \$100 million annually to UNDP. In 1996, the U.S. contribution dropped to \$52 million, but U.S. levels have increased since then as UN reforms took hold. The U.S. Government returned to its top donor rank in 2002 with a contribution of \$95.6 million. In 2002, the total UNDP budget was \$2.8 billion, derived from contributions to the regular budget, cost-sharing arrangements, and trust funds. Its administrative expenditures, which included support to the UN operational activities and UN Volunteers, were \$406 million or 14.4 percent of the total.

UNDP employs 4,655 people, of whom 3,849 are in the field. Some 11.7 percent of UNDP's professional staff is American. The United States

had urged UNDP to play a much larger role in coordinating all UN assistance activities in post–conflict situations in order to speed the transition from relief to development.

The UNDP demonstrated its commitment to its coordination role in Afghanistan with a more robust Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery (BCPR). It provided essential services and assistance, which no other multilateral or bilateral organization could have put into operation as quickly and efficiently. The BCPR helped create a verifiable civil servant roster and facilitated the payment of civil service salaries. It restored ministry buildings so that the government could function, and provided the logistics for the emergency Loya Jirga (Grand Council) that elected Hamid Karzai to lead the Interim Afghanistan Government until elections, which, under the Bonn agreement, would take place in June 2004.

#### **UN Children’s Fund (UNICEF)**

The UN General Assembly created the UN Children’s Fund (UNICEF) in 1946 to meet the emergency needs of children after World War II. UNICEF continues to provide emergency assistance for children and mothers affected by natural and human–made disasters in countries such as Afghanistan, Sudan, and Sierra Leone. UNICEF is also involved in development. Operating from approximately 5,600 posts in 162 developing countries, UNICEF programs address children’s health, sanitation, nutrition, basic education, and protection needs, wherever possible through low–cost interventions at the family and the community levels.

The United States has been a member of UNICEF’s Executive Board, now comprised of 36 members serving three–year terms, since the Fund’s inception. In 2002, the United States was elected for another term to begin in 2003.

In December 2001, after extensive consultations, the Executive Board approved a Medium Term Strategic Plan for 2002–2005. Five organizational priorities were identified: “immunization plus”; integrated early childhood development; girls’ education; fighting HIV/AIDS; and improved protection of children from violence, exploitation, abuse, and discrimination. In 2002, this plan, adapted for local conditions, guided country programming, partnerships with other UN entities and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), fund–raising (by the National Committees), monitoring, and advocacy.

UNICEF and Executive Director Carol Bellamy (United States) continued high–profile advocacy on behalf of children, particularly “the most disadvantaged” (i.e., victims of conflict, extreme poverty, discrimination, abuse, exploitation, and those with disabilities). To raise awareness of the problems children face, UNICEF served as the substantive secretariat for the May 2002 UN General Assembly Special Session on Children (see the section on Human Rights). While the Fund considers the Convention on the Rights of the Child a fundamental framework, UNICEF officials avoided public debate over “child rights.” Communication with the United

States on policy issues was frequent. In addition, family strengthening was discussed as a cross-cutting issue.

In 2002, Executive Director Bellamy increasingly emphasized outcomes and results-based programming and budgeting. Approximately one-third of UNICEF's budget in 2002 supported humanitarian assistance for children in 35 countries torn by conflict, famine, flood, or earthquakes, such as in both Congo republics, the Ivory Coast, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Central America, Liberia, Rwanda, Somalia, southern Africa, North Korea, and Iraq. Because of its half-century history of dedication to children, UNICEF is sometimes able to establish programs in areas to which other UN agencies and NGOs are denied access. In humanitarian crises, UNICEF takes the lead in infant and maternal health care, supplemental nutrition, education, and water and sanitation.

Among UNICEF's achievements in 2002 were 2.3 million mosquito bed nets for malaria-endemic countries; 1 million Bangladeshi babies registered at birth so they can receive social services; 344,000 Bangladeshi child workers taught by 5,300 UNICEF-trained teachers and administrators; safe drinking water for 500,000 more Sudanese, due to UNICEF-supported wells, pumps, and hygiene education; iodine supplements for 91 million infants to prevent mental retardation; voluntary and confidential testing, anti-retroviral drugs, and counseling on infant feeding for HIV/AIDS-positive mothers in 47 countries; HIV/AIDS adolescent peer counseling programs in 71 countries; 575 million children vaccinated against polio; over 3,600 child soldiers reintegrated into communities in Sierra Leone; 790,000 Brazilian children in school rather than child labor, due to a stipend to families established through UNICEF advocacy; two cross-border agreements to halt child trafficking; and comprehensive data and analysis on the effects of economic transition on child health, nutrition, mortality, education, institutionalization, drug use, crime, punishment, and HIV/AIDS rates in 27 Baltic and Central European countries.

In Afghanistan, UNICEF's decades-long presence positioned the Fund to provide humanitarian assistance and reconstruction as soon as fighting ended and international staff were readmitted. Nearly 6 million children under age five were vaccinated against polio; a massive measles inoculation and Vitamin A supplementation campaign began; 27 tons of emergency supplies were provided after an earthquake in the north; and 3 million children and their teachers were equipped with 6 million metric tons of pens, pencils, paper, slates, geometry kits, and textbooks. UNICEF worked closely with the Health and Education Ministries of the interim government to enhance their credibility and thus contributing to political stability.

The United States consulted with UNICEF on policy and technical matters. Health and education specialists from UNICEF, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), and American NGOs collaborated on child survival and development activities. UNICEF's HIV/AIDS division met with

USAID, State Department, and HHS experts to identify mutually supportive areas for research and programming on the prevention of mother-to-child transmission. UNICEF and the State Department worked closely on child protection issues, including sexual exploitation and trafficking.

In 2002, the UNICEF budget totaled \$1.27 billion, (including \$253 million for emergency assistance), provided through voluntary contributions. Of this amount, governments (including intergovernmental organizations) contributed \$913 million. An additional \$482 million came from nongovernmental/private-sector sources (including UN agencies). Income from other sources amounted to \$59 million. UNICEF spent \$79 million on administrative costs. UNICEF's program budget is allocated to country programs according to three criteria: under-five mortality rate, income level (GNP per capita), and the size of the population under 18 years.

The United States, the largest single donor, contributed \$120 million to regular (core) resources in 2002. It provided an additional \$127 million to "other resources" for projects earmarked by USAID, for work in mine awareness and trafficking, and for UNICEF emergency programs. Emergency assistance in the budget was provided by the USAID Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance and the State Department's Bureau of Population, Migration, and Refugees. UNICEF employs 8,520 people, 377 of them Americans.

### **Millennium Development Goals Campaign**

In September 2000, at the UN Millennium Summit, world leaders agreed to a set of time-bound and measurable goals and targets for eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; achieving universal primary education; promoting gender equality and empowering women; reducing child mortality; improving maternal health; combating HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases; ensuring environmental sustainability; and developing a global partnership for development. These targets, plus a number of other targets with which UN member states have not agreed, were listed as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in the UN Secretary-General's 2001 report, "Road Map Towards the Implementation of the UN Millennium Declaration." The United Nations mounted a campaign to raise public awareness of the MDGs, and aims to build coalitions and mobilize worldwide political action on behalf of the MDGs.

In March 2002, the President said,

"America supports the international development goals in the UN Millennium Declaration, and believes that these goals are a shared responsibility of developed and developing countries. To make progress, we must encourage nations and leaders to walk the hard road of political, legal and economic reform, so all their people can benefit."

The Secretary-General has made the MDGs the centerpiece of the UN's development effort. Secretary-General Annan has appointed UNDP Administrator Mark Malloch Brown (United Kingdom) to oversee the overall progress on achieving the MDGs. The UN also launched the MDG Campaign, headed by former Dutch Development Minister Eveline Her-

fkens, to generate public awareness, and the Millennium Project, headed by Jeffery Sachs (United States), to generate donor resources. The World Bank and United Nations have used the MDGs to argue publicly that some \$50 to \$70 billion per year in additional official development assistance (ODA) is required to meet development goals.

The United States has insisted that the ODA target is a product of the UN Secretariat and that the member states never negotiated and agreed to it. The United States questioned the methodologies used to develop this estimate of \$50 billion, and pointed out that this line of reasoning unduly emphasized donor input instead of recipient performance and output, such as domestic institutions and policy environment and mobilization of private resources.

### **Human Settlements**

In December 2001, the UN General Assembly converted the 58-member UN Commission on Human Settlements to a full program of the General Assembly, “the UN Human Settlements Program (UN-HABITAT).” UN-HABITAT’s work focuses on sustainable urban development and the role of cities as consumers of resources and producers of economic wealth and development. The Commission is also the UN focal point for efforts to achieve the Millennium Declaration goal of improving the lives of 100 million slum dwellers by 2020. The creation of the new UN-HABITAT program marked a significant achievement in the U.S. reform agenda. The United States had pressed for a complete overhaul of the former Commission after the 1996 Habitat II Conference in Istanbul and had cut off voluntary contributions for the Commission. Following the complete restructuring of the organization by new management, the United States supported granting of program status and resumed modest voluntary contributions.

UN-HABITAT is headquartered in Nairobi, Kenya. Its Governing Council meets every two years, with the next meeting scheduled for May 2003. States are elected to the Governing Council on a regional basis for four-year terms. The United States has been a member of the Council since 1977 and, in 2002, was re-elected for another term.

UN-HABITAT’s focus in 2002 positioned it more closely with U.S. foreign policy objectives related to economic development, democracy building (through decentralization of power through local authorities, good governance, gender equality, and the mobilization of domestic resources). Concerns about abstract issues like “housing rights” gave way to emphasis on results-oriented normative and operational activities.

To assist developing countries in better management of urbanization, UN-HABITAT gathers data on cities and promotes best practices in a variety of fields related to human settlements and the role of local authorities. Its technical arm works with local authorities and national governments to develop and decentralize services. It conducts global campaigns to promote improved urban governance, and secure (housing) tenure (which is the right to use and occupy land) to facilitate the access of cur-

rent inhabitants to credit, micro-financing for shelter upgrades and income generation, and the right of women to equal inheritance of property. It does this through advocacy, toolkits, and technical cooperation on legislative and policy reform.

UN-HABITAT's campaign on urban governance promotes the understanding that the quality of urban governance is the single most important factor for the eradication of urban poverty and for building prosperous cities. It focuses on capacity-building through its training-of-trainers programs for local officials and community-based organizations. National and local campaigns are underway in Nigeria, Tanzania, Burkina Faso, Senegal, India, the Philippines, Nicaragua, Jamaica, Brazil, Cuba, Peru, and the Balkans.

UN-HABITAT provides advice to local governments through policy papers on best practices and legislative reforms and a "good urban governance index," which enables cities to assess and monitor progress on specific indicators of good governance. Good urban governance toolkits are being developed to support participatory urban decision-making, transparency in local government, and participatory budgeting. The campaign on urban governance also promotes the involvement of women in decision-making at all levels.

In 2002, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development worked with UN-HABITAT's Global Urban Observatory on the use of Geographic Information System (GIS) technology to collect and interpret data on urbanization. GIS technology is a major tool for policy analysis related to land-use planning and urban governance. GIS-based partnerships were also established between American universities and a number of city governments in developing countries to demonstrate model urban management practice and to develop computer training materials for use worldwide.

Representatives from the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) attended the World Urban Forum (WUF), an international conference convened by UN-HABITAT in years the Governing Council does not meet. Academics, local and national government officials, and slum dwellers exchanged knowledge and best practices on decentralization of authority from national to local officials, the role of local authorities, and strategies for improving access to clean water and sanitation for the poor. In response to consensus decisions arrived at by the participants of the 2002 WUF and the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, UN-HABITAT stepped up its Water for African Cities program, which seeks to reduce water depletion through better local management, and partnered with the Asian Development Bank to do the same in Asian cities. It also established a Water and Sanitation Trust Fund for such activities elsewhere.

Under the leadership of Dr. Anna Tibaijuka (Tanzania), elected for a four-year term in 2002 after serving for two years, the program has consolidated its organizational structure around four strategic objectives in the

mid-term: shelter and sustainable human settlements development; monitoring the Habitat Agenda; regional and technical cooperation; and human settlements financing. The Program established enhanced cooperation with the UN Development Program and the other agencies of the UN Development Group in 2002. When called upon to lead the shelter sector in the reconstruction of Afghanistan, UN-HABITAT coordinated its efforts with UN humanitarian agencies, demonstrating its capabilities in post-conflict situations.

In 2002, funding for UN-HABITAT's work came from the UN's regular budget (\$6.2 million), technical cooperation projects (\$132 million) executed by Habitat on behalf of other UN agencies, principally Habitat's work in northern Iraq funded by the Oil-for-Food Program, and voluntary contributions by donor countries to the UN-Habitat Foundation (\$9 million for core resources and \$7 million for targeted projects). UN-HABITAT employs 172 professional staff at its headquarters and in regional, and liaison offices, of whom eight are American.

### **Economic and Social Council High-Level Segment**

The Economic and Social Council's 2002 High Level Segment had one theme: "The Contribution of Human Resources Development, Including in the Areas of Health and Education, to the Process of Development." The United States actively participated in four roundtable discussions, each of which focused on a different aspect of human resources development, including progress towards the Millennium Development Goals in Africa, partnerships and roles, strengthening institutional capabilities for sustainable development, and policy coherence and financing.

The Ministerial Declaration outcome document recognized the centrality of human resources development to economic capacity and the eradication of poverty. The Declaration focused on education and health, but also contained language on good governance, sound economic policies, peace and security, HIV/AIDS, gender equality, trade, and debt relief. U.S. efforts to add language on these issues were successful.

## **Environment**

### **UN Environment Program (UNEP)**

The UN Environmental Program (UNEP), founded in 1972, is headquartered in Nairobi, Kenya and has six regional offices throughout the world in Europe, Africa, North America, Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean, and west Asia. UNEP's responsibilities are to assess the state of the environment, to provide early warning of environmental threats, and to serve as the catalyst of the United Nations in promoting international cooperation and action in response to such threats. UNEP is led by Executive Director Klaus Toepfer (Germany), who was reappointed in 2002 to a second four-year term. UNEP's Governing Council consists of 58 elected member states, including the United States. Members are elected by the UN General Assembly from four regional groupings to serve four-year terms.

In February 2002, UNEP addressed several issues of concern to the United States at its annual Governing Council/Global Ministerial Environmental Forum (GC/GMEF), held in Cartagena, Colombia. These issues included improving the institutional structure for addressing environmental issues; international chemicals management; environmental monitoring, including post–conflict assessment; and environmental programs for the Palestinian occupied territories. The U.S. delegation, led by Assistant Secretary of State for Oceans, International Environmental and Scientific Affairs John Turner, succeeded in resolving the above issues in a manner consistent with U.S. policy goals.

A key issue on the agenda for the Cartagena meeting was a review of the existing structure of international institutions dealing with the environment. Although UNEP has the lead in the UN system on environmental matters, many key issues, such as ozone depletion, climate change, and biodiversity, are handled mainly through separate international agreements covering these areas. A number of countries expressed concern that this structure was too decentralized and that new, overarching systems should be established, perhaps even a new World Environment Organization. The United States and many other countries argued against that approach, noting that the existing structure was effective and that creating a new institution could hamper the ability of the existing bodies to respond quickly to environmental developments. Instead, the United States proposed that the current institutional structure be made more efficient through better policy coordination among the different bodies and improved administrative arrangements, such as the co–location of the Secretariats of new, related international environmental agreements. These U.S. proposals were in large measure adopted.

Participants at the Cartagena meeting also addressed UNEP’s future work program in the field of international chemicals management. UNEP’s work in this area has led to several important new global agreements strongly supported by the United States, including the 2001 Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants. Delegates agreed that UNEP would develop a Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management to help prioritize its work in this area. This approach involves extensive, intergovernmental coordination to identify gaps and make recommendations for work in the field of international chemicals management. The development of this proposed strategic approach will be completed by 2005.

The GC/GMEF instituted a voluntary indicative scale of contributions (VISC) in an effort to increase UNEP’s funding and make it more predictable. The United States was concerned that the use of indicative scales in the UN system may be used to imply that the voluntary contributions made by the United States to various organizations are insufficient. The final decision adopting the VISC included wording demanded by the United States, with support from many other countries, that governments could contribute to UNEP on “any other basis identified by a member state,” ignoring the VISC.

UNEP's Post-Conflict Assessment Unit completed an analysis of the effects of depleted uranium projectiles in parts of the former Yugoslavia. The final report, which the United States and others endorsed, documented that use of the ordnance had not caused long-term environmental damage. This UN report was consistent with U.S. policy and was important in countering prevailing misconceptions on the health effects posed by depleted uranium.

The United States and UNEP also signed a memorandum of understanding to continue sharing satellite data between the U.S. Geological Survey and UNEP's Division of Early Warning and Assessment, whose mission is to integrate and analyze technical data to derive policy-relevant information on a range of scientific environmental matters. This arrangement, begun in 1991, protects life and property around the world by strengthening UNEP's capacity to identify developing environmental problems, such as drought and desertification. In so doing, UNEP can alert governments to such dangers early and assist them in responding to problems.

In addition to contributing to the key work UNEP does on chemicals and early warning and assessment, the United States also continued its strong support for UNEP's work in other core programs, including the regional seas program, capacity building for domestic governance through the trade and environment programs, and the global program of action to combat land-based sources of marine pollution.

In 2002, UNEP's Environment Fund received unearmarked voluntary contributions of \$64 million, supplemented by \$80 million in earmarked contributions, of which \$34 million was to support specific conventions and protocols. In 2002, UNEP had a total of 922 approved posts (500 were professional), of which 837 were filled (423 professional). Of the 423 filled professional posts, 27, or 6.4 percent, were Americans. UNEP has trouble attracting and retaining strong American candidates because of Nairobi's critical crime level, relatively unattractive salary levels, and inability of spouses to obtain employment.

#### **UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)**

The FCCC entered into force in March 1994, and there are currently 188 parties. The United States ratified the treaty in 1992. The FCCC seeks to promote stabilization of atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases at levels that would prevent dangerous human interference with the climate system. FCCC parties adopted the Kyoto Protocol in December 1997, which would have required developed nations to reduce their collective greenhouse gas emissions by approximately 5.2 percent below 1990 levels during the period 2008–2012. President Bush announced in March 2001 that the United States would not ratify the Kyoto Protocol to the FCCC because it exempted developing countries (including some of the world's largest emitters of greenhouse gases) from binding emission targets and because it would cause serious harm to the U.S. economy. The

United States would not interfere with the efforts of other countries implementing the Kyoto Protocol.

At the Eighth Conference of the Parties in New Delhi, India, held October–November 2002, the United States worked closely with several countries to reach a consensus in adopting the Delhi Ministerial Declaration on Climate Change and Sustainable Development (“Delhi Ministerial”), which placed new emphasis on technology and adaptation to climate change. Also in 2002, the United States pledged to contribute \$500 million over a four–year period to the Global Environmental Facility, a primary international mechanism for transferring clean energy technologies and other environmentally friendly technologies to the developing world. Continued participation by U.S. officials and financial support for the FCCC helps to advance specific Administration initiatives regarding technology transfer and capacity–building for developing countries and the enhancement of bilateral climate change cooperation. The United States contributed \$4.7 million to the FCCC in 2002.

#### **Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)**

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) was created in 1988 as a joint effort of the World Meteorological Organization and the UN Environment Program. The IPCC conducts periodic assessments of studies on the science of climate change, its potential impacts, and ways countries adapt and seek to mitigate climate change. In 2002, the IPCC elected a new chair, Dr. Rajendra Pachauri (India), and elected a prominent U.S. scientist, Dr. Susan Solomon (NOAA), to co–chair the committee addressing climate science. The IPCC also initiated consideration of the structure of the Fourth Assessment Report, which will be completed in 2007.

Continued participation by U.S. scientists and officials and financial support for the IPCC helps to advance specific Administration initiatives regarding climate change, science, and technology (including global observation systems), capture and storage of carbon, and climate modeling. In 2002, the United States contributed \$2.7 million to the IPCC.

#### **Population**

In the UN system, population issues are considered by the Commission on Population and Development, as well as during any population conferences held throughout the year. The UN Population Fund provides assistance to governments to promote awareness of how population concerns affect many issues of concern to them. During 2002, the issues of reproductive rights and reproductive health were discussed at the Commission session and at the Asian and Pacific Population Conference. These issues were also raised in connection with the U.S. payment to the Population Fund.

#### **UN Commission on Population and Development (CPD)**

The UN Commission on Population and Development (CPD) studies and advises the UN Economic and Social Council on population changes,

including migration, and their effect on economic and social conditions. It also monitors, reviews, and assesses implementation of the Program of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), held in 1994, at the regional, national, and international levels.

The CPD held its 35th session in New York April 1–5, 2002. The 47 members debated the reports “Reproductive Rights” and “Reproductive Health with Special Reference to HIV/AIDS,” which constituted the central theme of the session. In its statement, the U.S. delegation emphasized the U.S. commitment to providing assistance to help achieve the principal goals that the ICPD adopted and aimed to attain by 2015. These goals included making reproductive health care accessible to all individuals of appropriate ages through the primary health care system; significantly reducing maternal mortality; and ensuring universal access to primary education. At the end of the proceedings, the United States joined consensus on a resolution that reaffirmed the ICPD Plan of Action and outcome documents of other conferences. At the same time, the United States entered a strong Explanation of Position. The EOP emphasized that the United States understood that the word “reaffirms,” as it relates to the outcome documents, did not constitute a reaffirmation of any language in those documents that could be construed as promoting the legalization of abortion or the expansion of legal abortion.

#### **UN Population Fund (UNFPA)**

The UN Population Fund (UNFPA) conducts population programs in 160 countries. The United Nations works with multi-year programs, which usually last three or four years. When one program ends, the 36-member UNFPA Executive Board negotiates a new one with the host country. UNFPA works with decision-makers to raise awareness of the links among population trends and poverty, urbanization, HIV/AIDS, aging, environmental protection, migration, gender issues, and reproductive health. UNFPA implements its programs through four primary and mutually reinforcing strategies: advocacy; strengthening of national capacity; formulating and utilizing a suitable knowledge base; and promoting and coordinating institutional partnerships. The UN Secretary-General appointed Executive Director Thoraya Obaid (Saudi Arabia) in 2001 for a four-year term.

The United States withheld a \$34 million contribution to UNFPA in 2002 after concerns were raised that the UNFPA supported China’s coercive population program.

In May, a three-member independent assessment team traveled to China at the request of the Secretary of State. This team found that, notwithstanding some relaxation in the 32 counties in which the UNFPA was involved, the Chinese Government’s population practices had “coercive elements in law and practice.” In light of the team’s finding and other information, including Chinese law, the State Department’s annual human rights reports, and briefings supplied by the UNFPA, the Secretary determined on July 21 that China’s coercive law and practices amounted to a

“program of coercive abortion.” The Secretary also found that UNFPA’s “support and involvement in China’s population–planning activities allows the Chinese Government to implement more effectively its program of coercive abortion.”

According to the Foreign Operations Appropriations Act, “none of the funds available in this Act...may be made available to any organization or program which...supports or participates in the management of a program of coercive abortion or involuntary sterilization.” As required by U.S. law, therefore, Secretary Powell determined that no U.S. funds could be provided to UNFPA at that time. On September 30, President Bush transferred the full \$34 million that initially had been budgeted for UNFPA to the U.S. Agency for International Development’s Child Survival and Health Program Fund with the instruction that the funds be used to promote reproductive health.

The United States is one of 36 members of the UN Development Program/UNFPA Executive Board and participates actively. For example, in 2002, the United States gave supportive statements at the Executive Board meetings regarding the implementation of a new multi–year funding strategy and the steps taken by UNFPA management to develop a culture of performance through results–based management.

An important U.S. policy objective is advancement of the principal goals for 2015, adopted by the ICPD Program of Action, as mentioned above. UNFPA is the lead UN organization for implementing the recommendations of the ICPD’s five–year review (ICPD+5).

UNFPA also collaborates with the Joint UN Program on HIV/AIDS and the World Health Organization to address the HIV/AIDS pandemic, a key U.S. national interest. Prevention of infection is the focus of these ongoing efforts.

Some 131 countries (a record) contributed \$256 million to UNFPA’s regular budget in calendar year 2002. Contributions were \$13 million below the core income for 2001. The decrease was due to the U.S. decision to withhold the previously mentioned \$34 million from the program, as well as cuts in contributions by two other major donors for economic reasons. UNFPA employs 927 staff. Of UNFPA’s professional staff, 5.5 percent are American.

### **Asian and Pacific Population Conference**

The theme of the Fifth Decennial Asian and Pacific Population Conference, held in Bangkok December 11–17, 2002, was “Population and Poverty in Asia and the Pacific.” Joint organizers of the Conference were the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and the UNFPA.

After calling for recorded votes on two sections of the document, (“Reproductive Rights and Reproductive Health” and “Adolescent Reproductive Health”), the United States joined consensus in adopting the Plan of Action. The U.S. delegation also made a Statement of Reservation, in

response to language in the document that appeared to promote abortion and adolescent sexual activity. The United States also expressed reservations about language “reaffirming” the goals and objectives of the ICPD, due to concerns that this document could be interpreted as promoting abortion.

Of the 33 voting countries (plus two abstentions), 29 made Explanations of Vote (EOVs). Nearly all stated explicitly that, in their view, neither the document nor the ICPD Program of Action promoted abortion or underage sexual activity, and that implementation of ICPD was the sovereign right of each country. Only two countries made EOVs without such clarification.

### **Regional Commissions**

The United Nations has five regional economic commissions: Economic Commission for Africa, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), and the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia. They are charged with “raising the level of economic activity” within their respective regions and “maintaining and strengthening the economic relations” of the countries within their scopes, “both among themselves and with other countries of the world.” The regional commissions are funded out of the regular UN budget, but many of their activities are financed by extrabudgetary grants from bilateral and multilateral donors. The United States is a member of ECE, ECLAC, and ESCAP. U.S. participation in regional commissions serves to advance and safeguard U.S. foreign policy and commercial interests.

#### **Economic Commission for Europe (ECE)**

The Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) was established in 1947 to encourage economic cooperation within Europe and between Europe and other countries with close trade and business ties. At the end of December 2002, ECE membership consisted of 55 member nations, including the United States, Canada, Switzerland, Israel, and the Central Asian and Caucasian states of the former Soviet Union.

The ECE is traditionally a “standards setting” and coordination body in many technical fields, such as in energy, environment, vehicle construction, road safety, timber, and perishable produce. ECE standards often are adopted around the world. To advance and safeguard U.S. national and business interests, the United States participates in ECE activities. Many U.S. Government agencies, such as the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Energy, and Transportation regularly participate in the Commission’s work.

At the ECE’s 2002 annual session, held May 7–10 at its headquarters in Geneva, delegates focused on labor, the economic aspects of security, and strengthening of the ECE in light of the principles and priorities of the Millennium Declaration.

ECE is led by Executive Secretary Brigita Schmognerova (Slovak Republic), appointed by the UN Secretary-General in 2002. The ECE receives biennial funding from the UN regular budget of approximately \$37.41 million. Out of the total Secretariat staff of about 200 at ECE headquarters, Americans have 10 positions, seven of which are at the professional level.

### **Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)**

The Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) was established in 1948 and has 41 member states. The United States is a full member with voting privileges. The Commission is headquartered in Santiago, Chile, with two sub-regional offices for Mexico and for the Caribbean. It also has offices in Bogota, Brasilia, Buenos Aires, Montevideo, and Washington, D.C. Executive Secretary Jose Antonio Ocampo (Colombia) has headed the organization since the start of his five-year term in January 1998.

ECLAC's mission is to improve coordination and cooperation among member states and international entities in an effort to advance social and economic development in the region. Although it previously advocated closed markets and state-run economies, ECLAC now supports trade liberalization and privatization. Its main products are sector studies and statistical compilations. Topics include projects on food and agriculture; industrial, scientific, and technological development; international trade; development financing, sustainable development; population; women and development; statistics and economic projections, transport; transnational corporations; and regional cooperation.

As a member of the Tripartite Committee, along with the Organization of American States and the Inter-American Development Bank, ECLAC contributes to the Summit of the Americas process in five areas: the Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA), which is a U.S. priority; transportation; small enterprises; education; and women's issues. In the FTAA process, ECLAC provides the FTAA working groups with analytical support, technical assistance, and studies as requested.

ECLAC publications generally fall into two categories: original products prepared by respected scholars and work that complements rather than duplicates work being done elsewhere. ECLAC's targeted distribution to key organizations helps maximize the impact of its publications. The United States regularly makes use of ECLAC's annual economic and social overviews and statistical compilations.

The theme for ECLAC's 2002 biennial session, held May 6–10 in Brasilia, was "Globalization and Development." Initially, a Secretariat report advocated "legal enforceability" of "rights" to food, housing, and other social goods, as well as "international social funds" to backstop this process. The U.S. delegation dissented, explaining that these concepts were contrary to U.S. policy that citizens have the right to *access*, rather than the absolute right, to housing, food, and other social goods. References to

such entitlements were subsequently dropped in Secretariat statements and in conference documentation prepared for consensus adoption. The U.S. delegation at the session focused on good governance, free trade, and opportunities presented by globalization.

ECLAC receives annual funding from the UN regular budget of approximately \$35 million. ECLAC also receives approximately \$46 million each year in extrabudgetary contributions. The United States has never made a voluntary contribution to ECLAC. There are eight Americans out of a total of 197 professional staff members who work for the Secretariat.

### **Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP)**

The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) was established in 1947 and has its headquarters in Bangkok, Thailand. At the end of December 2002, it consisted of 52 member nations (including non-regional members France, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom) and nine associate members. The United States is a full ESCAP member with voting privileges.

ESCAP gives technical support to member governments regarding a wide array of socio-economic development issues. Activities include direct advisory services, training and sharing of regional experiences, and dissemination of knowledge and data through meetings, seminars, publications, and inter-country networks.

Since his appointment in July 2000, Executive Secretary Dr. Kim Hak-Su (Republic of Korea) has focused ESCAP on poverty alleviation, a dominant concern for many countries in the region. The United States pushed for significant institutional reforms that Dr. Kim initiated and joined consensus on the resolution that outlined the new structure. Under Dr. Kim's leadership, the Commission adopted this major reorganization plan in 2002, reducing the number of standing committees from six to three. The new structure will go into effect January 2003, with the following thematic committees: Poverty Reduction, Managing Globalization, and Emerging Social Issues. Under each committee, subcommittees were established to address particular topics. This reform is intended to streamline ESCAP's focus.

ESCAP received annual funding of approximately \$26.7 million from the UN regular budget; the United States provided the standard 22 percent of the UN regular budget. ESCAP also received approximately \$11.2 million in extrabudgetary contributions, including a voluntary U.S. contribution of \$300,000 in 2002 for a regional narcotics demand reduction program. Of 175 professional positions in the ESCAP Secretariat, 11 are held by American citizens.

## **Social Issues**

### **Aging/Commission for Social Development (CSocD)**

The global phenomenon of aging populations dominated the UN's social development agenda in 2002. Two other matters also figured prominently in the 2002 agenda: preparations for the 10th anniversary of the Year of the Family (which will be in 2004), and exploration of the desirability of drafting a convention on the rights of persons with disabilities.

Between February 11 and 21, the UN Commission for Social Development held its 40th annual meeting in New York, devoting itself to the issue of aging. The U.S. delegation worked hard to ensure that the agreed conclusions at the meeting were not merely conceptual, but results-oriented. The Commission's 52 members could not agree on a consensus statement and, at the end of the session, the Chair summarized the meeting's results.

Between April 8 and 12, the United States, along with more than 80 other countries, attended the Second World Assembly on Aging in Madrid. The U.S. delegation, led by the Department of Health and Human Services' Assistant Secretary for Aging, Josefina Carbonell, was among those that successfully persuaded other delegations to recognize in the conference's concluding document, the Madrid International Plan of Action, the primary role of governments in addressing the critical issue of aging. The Madrid plan of action provides a blueprint for the future, including both practical steps that nations can take to provide for the aged and principles upon which countries should build in formulating policies. However, most attendees declined to discuss the hard choices that governments face, such as later retirement, in meeting the challenges of rapidly aging populations.

As a regional follow-up to the World Assembly in Madrid, the United States met September 11–13 in Berlin with the 54 other member states of the UN Economic Commission for Europe to develop a regional implementation strategy for the Madrid Plan of Action. The resulting regional plan was longer and less specific than the United States sought. It did, however, underscore the need for every nation to review pension systems and revise retirement laws. It also provided a basis for subsequent discussions at the national level, where the United States believes most of the work must be done.

With the 10th anniversary of the first Year of the Family approaching in 2004, the 40th session of the Commission for Social Development recommended, with U.S. support because it believes that the family is a cornerstone of society, that the General Assembly adopt a resolution authorizing preparations to mark the date and stress the importance of families for social well-being across the globe. The Commission for Social Development recommended that the General Assembly endorse a concerted promotional, informational, and media campaign by governments and nongovernmental organizations at the national, regional, and

international levels to celebrate the family in society; devote one plenary meeting of the 59th UN General Assembly to observing the 10th anniversary; and ask the Secretary-General to continue facilitating international cooperation within the framework of the follow-up to the International Year of the Family.

The final topic of note in 2002 was the possible creation of an international convention on the rights of persons with disabilities. In 2001, the General Assembly adopted a Mexico-sponsored resolution by consensus that established an *ad hoc* committee to draft a convention. The United States participated in the first such *ad hoc* committee meeting from July 29 to August 9, in New York. On December 18, the General Assembly adopted by consensus Resolution 57/229, which called for a second meeting of the *ad hoc* committee in 2003. An international convention on the rights of persons with disabilities remained under discussion in the U.S. Administration at the end of the 2002.

### **Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice**

The UN Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (Crime Commission) is the principal intergovernmental policy-making body of the United Nations on criminal justice issues. The 40-member Crime Commission is a functional UN commission that falls under the Economic and Social Council's (ECOSOC) Third Committee. The Commission meets yearly at the UN Office in Vienna to make policy decisions, some of which are then forwarded to ECOSOC or occasionally to the UN General Assembly for endorsement.

The 11th session of the Crime Commission convened in Vienna, April 16–25, 2002. The United States agreed to 16 resolutions on topics that included restorative justice, which assists crime victims in recovering from crime-induced trauma; crime prevention; trafficking in persons; kidnapping; trafficking in protected species of flora and fauna; and the exploitation of children. One of the resolutions called for improved international cooperation and technical assistance to combat terrorism, particularly the implementation of the UN's counter-terrorism conventions.

The Crime Commission also discussed the ongoing and future work of the UN Center for International Crime Prevention (Crime Prevention Center). All Commission members supported a resolution calling upon all UN member states to ratify and implement the UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime (TOC) and its three supplemental protocols as soon as possible. The optional protocols further codify the CICP's role of providing technical assistance to member states. The United States has consistently supported the Center with technical expertise and substantial material support in this endeavor.

The Commission also addressed expanding the small UN Office on Drugs and Crime Terrorism Prevention Branch. Shortly after the Commission meeting concluded, the United States provided \$230,000 to the Office to support its efforts to facilitate member state's implementation of counter-terrorism conventions in coordination with the Security Council's

Counter-Terrorism Committee in New York. By the end of 2002, these early efforts began to show results, including the establishment of implementation guidelines for host-nation officials states.

Between 1997 and 2000, U.S. voluntary contributions to the Crime Center ranged between \$500,000 and \$1 million annually. In 2001, U.S. support increased substantially to \$1.8 million, more than any other donor. Most of this amount was earmarked for the Center's activities to promote ratification of the recently completed TOC and its supplemental protocols, and also to support ongoing negotiations of the UN Convention Against Corruption. In 2002, the U.S. contribution expanded on these assistance activities, providing \$1.73 million to support these activities and technical assistance to member states to prevent and combat trafficking in persons.

The UN Office on Drugs and Crime has 68 professionals in Vienna and the field, of which seven (approximately 10 percent) are American citizens.

### **International Drug Control**

The International Narcotics Control Board (INCB) and the UN International Drug Control Program (UNDCP) advance U.S. counternarcotics objectives by helping UN member states implement key international agreements. These agreements include the 1961 Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs as amended by the 1972 Protocol, the 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances, and the 1988 UN Convention Against the Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances. Taken together, they prohibit cultivation of opium, cocaine, and marijuana; target drug traffickers and their proceeds; promote national drug abuse prevention and treatment campaigns; and regulate the production of precursor chemicals used to make illicit drugs.

In 2002, the UN Secretary-General appointed Antonio Maria Costa (Italy) as the new Executive Director of the UNDCP. Costa took office in June 2002, following the resignation of Pino Arlacchi in December 2001 and the interim stewardship of Steinar Bjornsson (Sweden). Costa quickly began to articulate a new vision for the UNDCP and its sister entity, the Center for International Crime Prevention (CICP). He established a task force to recommend a refocus of priorities, and operational and management reforms. He also sought to integrate administrative functions such as fund-raising and personnel, and suggested merging the CICP with the UNDCP. The United States succeeded in preventing the merger, but Costa was successful in changing the "umbrella" term for the UNDCP and the CICP from the UN Office of Drug Control and Crime Prevention to the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).

The United States and Mr. Costa established a solid working relationship. He visited the United States several times in 2002 to consult with American officials.

The UNODC enhanced international cooperation during 2002 on legal advisory programs and issues such as money laundering and chemical

control. The UNODC helped UN member states increase their compliance with the UN drug control conventions by helping them to develop their national drug control plans and ensuring that appropriate laws were in place. The UNODC also continued its partnerships with other UN agencies, including the UN Development Program, the World Health Organization, the International Labor Organization, and the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

For the biennium 2002–2003, UNODC's total budget (programs, support, and agencies) was \$166.4 million and its spending in 2002 totaled \$83.2 million. UNODC had 287 professionals in Vienna and the field, of whom 19 (approximately 6.6 percent) were American citizens.

Overall, U.S. funding of UN counternarcotics programs helped them to expand. The United States advocated UNODC's approach to counternarcotics, which balanced alternative development programs and demand reduction with supply reduction. Supply reduction was achieved through law enforcement efforts to eradicate suppliers and prosecute traffickers. The United States was particularly encouraged by UNODC's success in reducing the illicit opium and coca cultivation in Burma and Laos.

In 2002, the UNODC spent the U.S. voluntary contribution of \$13.9 million on global drug control programs including prevention of money laundering (\$1.5 million), precursor chemical control (\$165,000 for the Data Bank Advisory–Precursor Control program), and legal advice on treaty implementation (\$800,000). Major UNODC alternative development projects in Laos and the Wa territories of Burma (\$700,000), and chemical control projects in South America (\$300,000 for Bolivia and Colombia) and Central Asia, and judicial/prosecutorial training in Africa (\$300,000 in South Africa and Kenya), Latin America, and East Asia were funded. Funds were also used to open a drug office in Afghanistan.

The 53–member UN Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND), of which the United States has been a member since 1946, is the UN's central policy–making body for dealing with drug–related matters. When it met in Vienna, Austria, in March 2002, the United States achieved its priority drug control objectives such as a resolution calling for strengthening international cooperation in the control of opium poppy cultivation. The resolution specifically called upon the UNODC to strengthen Afghanistan's counternarcotics capacity, and to act as a coordinating mechanism for bilateral and multilateral counter–drug efforts.

Also at the CND meeting, the UN Under Secretary–General for the Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS), Dileep Nair, urged implementation of the 2001 OIOS recommendations calling for management reforms of the CND, supported by the United States. Such reforms included expanding program evaluation to include member states and other stakeholders; establishing the Program and Project Committee, which reviews project proposals before they are submitted to donors; installing a new financial system, which allows member states access to

current information through a restricted internet site; and mandating a results-based budget.

The 2002 CND meeting included a debate on alternative development (which includes crop substitution programs, alternative livelihood programs, and infrastructure development) and eradication of illicit drug crops, which served as a follow-up to the 1998 UN General Assembly Special Session. The U.S. narcotics affairs director of the U.S. Embassy in La Paz, Bolivia, delivered remarks emphasizing the important linkage between alternative development, eradication, and law enforcement. He pointed to Afghanistan as a place where these linkages must be made. He also said that member states shared responsibilities and urged them to consider donating funds for alternative development projects, regardless of their size.

The United States cosponsored a resolution requesting a UNODC report evaluating the status of the support budget and general-purpose funds, with options for securing assured funding. The United States supported and the CND adopted resolutions calling for aid for law enforcement efforts targeting amphetamine-type stimulant production; encouraging better international information exchange between member states and international organizations regarding drug abuse; regulating opiate demand and supply for medical and scientific needs; improving traveler's access to internationally controlled drugs used for medical purposes; and holding a ministerial session in the 2003 meeting of the CND. The Commission also adopted resolutions on HIV/AIDS and drug abuse and drug-demand reduction that were consistent with U.S. objectives.

The 13-member INCB is an independent quasi-judicial body charged with promoting and assisting governments to comply with the provisions of the international drug control treaties. The INCB meets periodically to monitor the implementation of the drug control treaties and the movement of narcotic and psychotropic substances around the world. In November 2002, the INCB reviewed, and put in its annual report, the economic consequences of illicit crop cultivation and illicit drug trade. The Board concluded that drug trafficking does not contribute to sustainable economic development and prosperity. Though labor intensive, illicit crop cultivation and illicit drug production do not generate much additional employment while actually preventing long-term economic growth that leads to the destabilization of civil society. The review focused on opium poppy cultivation and drug trafficking in Afghanistan, using it as an example of how illicit drug trade can destabilize a country and hinder economic development. The Report concluded that sustainable and peaceful development in Afghanistan is not possible if the drug problem is not addressed. The Board reviewed operations of the international drug control system, presenting an analysis of the world situation in regard to illicit drugs, and set up working groups to identify and trace precursor chemicals for amphetamine-type stimulants.

## **Human Rights**

### **General Assembly Special Session on Children and the Convention on the Rights of the Child**

Originally scheduled for September 2001, the UN General Assembly's Special Session on Children convened in May 2002 with the UN Children's Fund acting as organizer and Secretariat. The 1,700 delegates included 69 heads of state or government; 190 high-level delegations; representatives from over 2,400 nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) from 117 countries; leading figures in business, religion, the arts, and academia; cultural and sports celebrities; and for the first time at a U.N. conference, over 400 children who spoke on their personal experiences.

With U.S. policy leadership, the Special Session on Children advanced several important U.S. foreign policy goals related to global health and economic and social development. The U.S. delegation drew attention to the Millennium Challenge Account, which aims to boost U.S. development aid to countries that govern justly, invest in their people, and promote economic freedom. They highlighted U.S. domestic and international programs for children and they worked to ensure language in the final conference document did not pose threats to sovereignty, the role of parents, U.S. state and local laws/practices, and the role of the family. Concerns arose regarding draft language on abortion and abortion counseling, reproductive health of adolescents, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child as the only standard for policies concerning children.

Secretary of Health and Human Services Tommy Thompson and U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) Administrator Andrew Natsios co-lead the U.S. delegation. Officials from the Departments of Health and Human Services, Labor, Education, Justice, State, USAID, and the Environmental Protection Agency, as well as members of Congress, made presentations or participated in conference briefings and panel discussions on child survival, nutrition, malaria, improving educational quality, child labor, environmental health, juvenile justice, HIV/AIDS prevention, and trafficking. The delegation distributed copies of various U.S. Government reports, such as "USAID Child Survival and Disease Programs Fund-2001," "Child Labor—the International Child Labor Program," "No Child Left Behind," and the "United States Government Report to the Second World Congress on the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children."

By the end of 2002, 191 countries had ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The United States had signed the Convention in 1995 but has not submitted it to the Senate for ratification due to serious political and legal concerns that it conflicts with U.S. policies on the central role of parents, sovereignty, and state and local law. Under the U.S. Constitution, activities covered by the Convention such as education, health, custody and visitation, adoption, and juvenile justice are handled primarily at the state and local level. Other provisions in the Convention, such as the

degree to which children should participate in decisions affecting themselves or should have a “right” to independent action, are at odds with the emphasis the United States places on the duty of parents to protect and care for children.

Since the United States has not ratified the Convention and has its own legal framework of local, state, and federal laws, the delegation could not accept references to the Convention on the Rights of the Child as the only standard for future domestic and international actions on behalf of children. Further, the United States believes that abstract conventions are less effective than concrete programs that focus on what children really need. In the end, the U.S. efforts were successful. “A World Fit for Children” recognizes the importance of the Convention for countries that are party to it, but does not portray it as the only normative basis for action.

Another major issue involved references to reproductive health services which may have included abortion. The United States insisted on the deletion of references to reproductive health that could be seen as supporting or endorsing abortion or abortion counseling for children or adolescents. The United States pressed for greater attention in the final document to the Special Session “A World Fit for Children” to promoting abstinence for adolescents as a method of preventing unwanted pregnancies and the transmission of diseases, including HIV/AIDS. The United States was successful in achieving a text that emphasized the importance of the family, and which did not include language that would have broadened the definition of “family” beyond parameters generally accepted by the American people.

“A World Fit for Children,” adopted by consensus, establishes for the next decade a global agenda of 21 specific targets to promote healthy lives; provide quality education; protect against abuse, exploitation, and violence; and combat HIV/AIDS. The targets are to be achieved in the context of supporting the family, ending discrimination, and reducing poverty. The document contains hortatory references to the two optional protocols to the Convention on the Rights of the Child to which states can accede without being party to the Convention. These protocols deal with children involved in armed conflict and the sale of children, child prostitution, and child pornography. The United States strongly supports both protocols, which were submitted to the Senate for ratification prior to the original date for the Special Session. The instruments of ratification for both protocols were deposited at the United Nations on December 23, 2002. By the end of 2002, 46 countries were states parties to these protocols.

The optional protocol on the sale of children, child pornography, and child prostitution was the first instrument of international law to define these terms legally. It represented a giant step forward in U.S. efforts to combat trafficking for forced commercial sexual exploitation. Over 300,000 girls and boys were used in government or rebel forces as soldiers and an estimated 1 million were trafficked for coerced sexual exploitation

or labor. The protocol requires state parties to protect children up to the age of 18 and treats the actions of exploiters as criminal acts that merit serious punishment. It also promotes international law enforcement cooperation.

The optional protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict confirms that the minimum age for compulsory recruitment into a state party's armed forces is 18 years. State parties must take "all feasible measures" to ensure that members of their armed forces who are under 18 years old do not take a "direct part" in hostilities. The protocol also promotes international cooperation in the rehabilitation and social integration of persons who are victims of acts contrary to the provision of the protocol.

The Security Council also took important action in 2002 regarding children in armed conflict. The Council adopted Resolution 1460, which identified countries in violation of international commitments, and required the Secretary-General to monitor and report to the Security Council on the situation of child soldiers in each country.

## **Status of Women**

The UN Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) was established in June 1946 to report and make recommendations to the UN Economic and Social Council on promoting women's rights to participate in the political process, and to have economic opportunity, social development, health, and education. Following the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, the General Assembly mandated that the Commission integrate into its program a follow-up process to the Conference by regularly reviewing the critical areas of concern in the Platform for Action and mainstreaming a gender perspective in UN activities.

The CSW convened its 46th session in New York, March 4–15, 2002. The main items on the agenda were "Follow-up to the Fourth World Conference on Women and to the Special Session of the General Assembly entitled 'Women 2000: Gender Equality, Development, and Peace for the Twenty-first Century'"; "Eradicating Poverty, Including Through the Empowerment of Women Throughout Their Life Cycle in a Globalizing World"; and "Environmental Management and Mitigation of Natural Disasters: a Gender Perspective."

The United States introduced a resolution at the CSW on the "situation of women and girls in Afghanistan" and cosponsored the resolutions on "mainstreaming a gender perspective into all policies and programs in the UN system" and "Release of women and children taken hostage, including those subsequently imprisoned, in armed conflicts." All were adopted by consensus.

The United States called for a vote on and voted against the resolution "The situation of and assistance to Palestinian women," which called upon Israel to facilitate the return of all refugees and displaced Palestinian women and children to their homes and properties. The United States

believed that the resolution addressed a number of issues, including refugees and Jerusalem, that the two parties had agreed to resolve between themselves in negotiating and did not want to pre-judge the outcome of those negotiations.

## **Human Rights**

In a variety of UN forums, the United States continued to call for respect for human rights, and made efforts to expose violators throughout 2002. In 2002, the UN Commission on Human Rights (UNCHR) adopted 92 resolutions and 18 decisions. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) adopted the UNCHR report and 44 draft decisions dealing with human rights issues. The UN General Assembly adopted more than 70 human rights resolutions. The United States, although an observer in the UNCHR, worked closely with like-minded delegations to secure adoption of resolutions condemning human rights violations in specific countries of concern and fending off negative amendments.

The UNCHR is the principal organ in the United Nations for achieving the UN Charter objective of promoting respect for human rights. It is composed of 53 members, each elected for three-year terms.

The UNCHR held its annual session in Geneva, Switzerland, March 18–April 26. Although the United States lost its seat on the Commission for the 58th Session, it attended as a vocal observer and let its opinions be known.

The Middle East was again a contentious issue during the session, with continued efforts to adopt unbalanced resolutions about Israel. Members of the UNCHR also differed on the focus of the Commission, with many pressing for continued emphasis on economic, social and cultural rights, rather than the traditional civil and political rights, which is the view supported by the United States.

The controversy over resolutions targeting only Israeli actions magnified differences among the members of the UNCHR and created an environment hostile to consensus. The United States worked unceasingly to support balanced action on human rights abuses, no matter where the abuses occurred. Human rights violators headed off Commission condemnation by being elected to the Commission, with countries like Vietnam, Libya, and Cuba serving as members in 2002.

The Secretary-General, in his 2002 report to the General Assembly, discussed the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights at length, and proposed changes to improve its efficiency and effectiveness; to rationalize the various tasks of the Office; and to strengthen support for human rights at the country level, improve special procedures, consolidate treaty body reporting, and improve overall management. The UN High Commissioner, Sergio Vieira de Mello (Brazil), accepted the challenge to reform the Office, and began implementing changes suggested in management studies. The United States welcomed these reform efforts, which are expected to continue.

In May 2002, ECOSOC, of which the UNCHR is a subsidiary body, held elections for UNCHR membership. Each regional group elects members and the United States urged members of its group, the Western European and Others Group (WEOG), to elect it to the UNCHR. The WEOG reached agreement on a slate that included the United States, with the three-year term to begin in January 2003.

ECOSOC is responsible for economic and social issues, such as promoting higher standards of living, full employment and economic progress, identifying solutions to international economic and social problems, and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. ECOSOC adopted the UNCHR report and 44 draft decisions that the UNCHR recommended for ECOSOC adoption. The United States voted no on 13 and abstained on two. The theme for the session was the centrality of development of human resources in economic development and eradication of poverty.

During the 2002 session, the United States opposed adoption of the draft decision in the UNCHR report on the Draft Optional Protocol on the Convention Against Torture (DOPCAT) as a flawed and costly agreement that would not advance the important struggle against torture. The United States unequivocally condemns the practice of torture and is a state party to the Convention Against Torture. The Optional Protocol's funding mechanism was also objectionable to the United States, in that funding for the Protocol would be taken from the regular budget, supported by all members, rather than funding it from the states party to the Protocol. The United States proposed an amendment addressing the issue, which was defeated by a vote of 15 (U.S.) to 29, with 8 abstentions. The DOPCAT was then adopted by ECOSOC by a vote of 35 to 8, with 10 (U.S.) abstentions.

During the 2002 General Assembly, the United States also succeeded in working with other nations to adopt resolutions condemning human rights abuses in Iraq, Sudan, and Burma. The United States, nevertheless, failed to defeat a General Assembly resolution supporting the DOPCAT. The final vote on the resolution was 127 to 4 (U.S.), with 42 abstentions. The United States put its objection to the resolution into the record by delivering an explanation of its vote.

## **Humanitarian Issues**

### **Afghanistan**

At the beginning of 2002, Afghanistan's physical infrastructure lay in ruins and its social fabric in shreds after years of conflict. Over 7 million Afghans were internally displaced or had sought refuge outside of the country. At the UN donor's conference in Tokyo in January, the United States pledged \$297 million out of a total of \$1.8 billion raised for aid to Afghanistan. By the end of the fiscal year in September, the United States had exceeded that pledge by approximately 90 percent, providing some \$569 million in direct assistance and aid-in-kind.

In cooperation with the United Nations and other donors in 2002, the United States identified four principal objectives for humanitarian assistance and reconstruction in Afghanistan: immediate humanitarian assistance; strengthening the capacity of the central authority to govern; revitalizing economic growth, particularly in the agricultural sector; and promoting high-visibility projects to improve the quality of life for as many Afghans as possible.

In cooperation with the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the World Food Program (WFP), the United States provided approximately 70 percent of all food aid to Afghanistan from December 2001 through September 2002, valued at some \$200 million. Some 530,000 tons of grain, primarily wheat, were delivered before the first heavy snows of winter. Programs that provided a fixed amount of food in exchange for work or for sending all school-age children in a family back to school helped improve food security in an economy in which prices for basic commodities fluctuated wildly. The United States also provided 8,700 tons of seed and 12,100 tons of fertilizer to the agricultural sector, which contributed to an 82 percent increase in production of wheat over 2001 levels.

By year-end, approximately 3 million children had returned to school, 30 percent of them girls. The United States supplied 15 million textbooks for grades one through 12, printed in the Dari and Pushtu languages, along with 30,000 teacher-training kits. This assistance was distributed in cooperation with the Afghan government and the UN Office for Project Services.

To strengthen the central authority's capacity to govern, the United States rebuilt Radio Kabul, later renamed Radio Afghanistan, during March and April. The United States supported the rehabilitation and renovation of 16 ministry buildings in Kabul, including the installation of electricity, heating, telephones, and computers. With U.S. funding, the Afghan Teachers College was rebuilt and recommissioned.

The United States undertook the rebuilding of the Kabul-Kandahar section of Afghanistan's main "ring road" in September. This road links the country together both economically and politically. The United States committed \$80 million to this project and moved aggressively to begin the work. Additionally, the United States rebuilt approximately 4,400 miles of secondary and rural roads and over 550 miles of irrigation tunnels and canals.

Elsewhere during the year, the United States rebuilt 72 hospitals and health clinics and 142 schools and daycare centers.

The United States provided \$67 million to the UNHCR during 2002 for its work in Afghanistan, which was about 25 percent of the total amount received by that agency. UNHCR was the lead agency assisting in the repatriation and reintegration of approximately 2 million Afghan refugees. UNHCR also helped an estimated 600,000 internally displaced persons (IDP) return to their homes in 2002, far exceeding expectations.

Due to these greater-than-expected refugee and IDP returns, the resources of UN agencies such as UNHCR, the International Organization for Migration, and the WFP were strained to their limits throughout the year. Donor funding nevertheless resulted in a successful return and reintegration effort. Returnees received resettlement kits consisting of food and non-food items; and significant infrastructure repairs were undertaken, with emphasis on agriculture, education, and health care. Additionally, UNHCR and its implementing partners used funding from the United States and other donors to construct or rehabilitate approximately 40,000 private residences in rural areas.

By year-end, the number of persons dependent on some form of humanitarian relief had dropped by approximately 4 million, a clear success story for the UN's efforts in Afghanistan, which was due in large part to the substantial financial and programmatic contributions of the United States. Some 5 million persons, nearly 20 percent of the Afghan population, remained unable to feed and shelter themselves, demonstrating the magnitude of the task remaining to the international community.

### **Africa Famine**

The World Food Program (WFP) and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) launched major emergency operations for the victims of food crises in southern Africa, Ethiopia, and Eritrea in 2002. These crises showed how chronic hunger can exacerbate emergencies and emphasized the importance of building people's capacity to endure shocks by helping to create assets and support livelihoods. The WFP faced special demands in sub-Saharan Africa, where it fed 34 million people, almost 11 million more than in the previous year, accounting for 48 percent of its total 2002 beneficiaries resources. On November 21, 2002, WFP launched the "Africa Hunger Alert" campaign to attract international attention and funds to the hunger crisis affecting the African continent, in which 38 million people were at risk of starvation, including 15 million in southern Africa and 11–15 million in Ethiopia and Eritrea.

In March 2002, the UN's Interagency Standing Committee, charged with improving coordination among the UN humanitarian and development agencies and nongovernmental organizations, agreed to examine food security in six of the worst-affected countries in southern Africa—Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. The WFP and FAO conducted joint assessment missions in April and May, which indicated that 12.8 million people were on the brink of starvation after one of the region's worst agricultural disasters in decades. On July 18, during the launch of the Southern Africa Regional Appeal, Secretary-General Kofi Annan named WFP's Executive Director James Morris (United States) his Special Envoy for Humanitarian Needs in Southern Africa.

James Morris played an important role in implementing a comprehensive response to the crisis. He collaborated extensively with governments, donors, and partners to ensure that contributions were speedily channeled

to people in greatest need. As part of his advocacy for the region, Morris addressed the UN Security Council, the U.S. Congress, the European Parliament, the U.K. Parliament, and several meetings of the Humanitarian Liaison Working Group in Geneva and New York.

He outlined the following four immediate triggers of the food crises in Africa: bad governance (as in Zimbabwe); political and ethnic violence (as in Sudan, Burundi, Cote d'Ivoire, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo); HIV/AIDS, which aggravated famine in southern Africa and decimated the rural labor force; and bad weather (dry spells or drought in Eritrea, Ethiopia, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Zimbabwe; heavy rain or floods in Lesotho and south and central Mozambique).

In a statement to the Security Council on December 3, Morris recommended the following long-term measures to avoid or mitigate these food crises: stronger, more consistent, and broad-based funding for humanitarian aid; more investment in agriculture, and more donor aid targeted at agriculture; more investment in nutrition, education, and school feeding programs, especially for girls; freeing up of the private sector; and a trading system that encourages African and other developing country farmers to produce and export.

In 2002, the United States delivered or pledged more than 499,113 metric tons of food aid to southern Africa, at a total value of more than \$276 million, making the U.S. Government the largest donor to WFP's operations in southern Africa. Beginning July 2002, when the first signs of crop failure became apparent, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) provided approximately 430,000 metric tons of food to Ethiopia, valued at approximately \$179 million. USAID emergency food assistance to Eritrea during the same time period totaled 44,000 metric tons, valued at \$19 million.

### **Biotechnology**

The food crisis in southern Africa was exacerbated by delays that arose when several southern African nations questioned the safety and long-term health risks associated with biotech-derived food from the United States. Initial concerns also focused on gene migration and local crop exports to Europe.

The Governments of Malawi and Swaziland accepted unmilled U.S. corn. Zimbabwe accepted biotech-derived food assistance, provided it was milled before distribution. The Government of Mozambique, expressing concerns over the environmental effects of biotech food, allowed whole grain food aid to be transported across the country as long as shipments were covered. It also allowed distribution in country of milled food aid, but refused to accept the whole grain food aid that Zambia had also previously rejected. Lesotho accepted all relief food aid of biotech origin, but milled it before distribution due to lack of rural capacity.

Throughout 2002, the Government of Zambia continued to refuse biotech-derived food assistance, citing as reasons for its decision Zambia's lack of biotechnology and biosafety legislation, the potential risk of con-

tamination of traditional crops, and threats to Zambia's ability to export crops. Zambia initially allowed WFP to use whole grain biotech food aid for 130,000 refugees from Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo, but later required that all biotech food aid be shipped beyond Zambia's borders. USAID brought a delegation of Zambian scientists to the United States and Europe to review the science and regulation of biotechnology. The delegation's report, influenced largely by an outdated British Medical Association report, advised against accepting the food aid.

Throughout the crisis, James Morris spoke out often in support of biotech food, noting that it was eaten by millions of Americans and Canadians.

On August 23, the United Nations issued a statement that said the WFP, the FAO, and the World Health Organization did not believe that the biotech food being provided as food aid in southern Africa was likely to present human health risk, and therefore these foods could be eaten.

On September 19, on the margins of the 57th General Assembly, the United States arranged a panel discussion on biotechnology, co-hosted by the UN Development Program and the Partnership to Cut Hunger and Poverty in Africa. Focusing on food security and sustainable development, the internationally recognized panel members gave a balanced three-hour analysis that addressed concerns about the health and environmental safety of biotech food.

## **World Food Program**

The World Food Program (WFP) is the UN system's front-line multi-lateral food agency, mostly providing emergency food intervention, followed by recovery assistance and to a far lesser extent, related grant development assistance. Established in Rome in 1961 under UN and Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) auspices, WFP uses commodities and cash to support social and economic development, protracted refugee and displaced persons projects, and most of all, to provide emergency food assistance in natural disasters or human-made crisis situations.

In 2002, WFP assisted 72 million people in 82 countries suffering from hunger because of interrelated crises: natural disasters, conflict, extreme poverty, and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. WFP's largest challenge was to respond rapidly to an unprecedented number of weather-related disasters that caused large-scale food insecurity throughout Africa while meeting the needs of ongoing operations worldwide. At the same time, emerging peace in some areas led to increased needs because populations previously isolated by war became accessible, as in Angola, Sri Lanka, and Sudan. [Note: Part 2, Africa Famine, includes more discussion.]

WFP continued to meet needs in countries suffering from natural disasters and conflict, such as Afghanistan, Iraq, Central America, the Democratic People's Republic of North Korea, and Sudan. Programs also included a number of long-standing operations to assist refugees and

internally displaced persons, for example in Algeria, Colombia, Iran, and Nepal.

Southern Africa was the first major food emergency in which high rates of HIV/AIDS played a significant role in exacerbating food insecurity and malnutrition. HIV/AIDS represents a new type of humanitarian emergency because it decimates the most productive members of society, reducing long-term agricultural productivity and exceeding community caring capabilities for orphans and the sick. WFP changed its programming approach to meet the special needs of HIV/AIDS-affected beneficiaries, including altering the nutritional value and composition of emergency rations to include more protein, minerals, and vitamins. WFP also improved its targeting to identify locations of high HIV prevalence and allow distributions to be adjusted accordingly.

In 2002, over 15.6 million school children in 64 countries benefited from WFP school feeding activities. The U.S. Congress passed “The Farm Security and Rural Investment Act of 2002,” which authorized the McGovern–Dole International Food for Education and Child Nutrition Program. This program provides for donations of U.S. agricultural products, as well as financial and technical assistance, for school feeding and maternal and child nutrition projects in low-income, food-deficit countries that are committed to universal education. The legislation calls for the use of \$100 million in Commodity Credit Corporation funds to launch the program in fiscal year 2003, with future funding coming from Congressional appropriations.

WFP worked with the FAO and the International Fund for Agricultural Development to address longer-term and immediate food needs. Together they formulated a clear approach to reducing rural poverty and hunger—the “twin-track” approach—which was first launched at the International Conference on Financing for Development in 2002. This approach combines long-term agricultural development efforts and targeted programs, including food aid, to assist the hungry poor directly.

WFP took steps to enhance organizational capacity and operational efficiency, including a commitment to reduce its indirect support cost rate, the rate that the WFP charges for costs incurred by WFP to fund program support. A number of long-term efforts to strengthen partnership agreements came to fruition, including a revised Memorandum of Understanding with the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees and a new Field Level Agreement with nongovernmental organizations. WFP’s role in providing inter-agency logistics services was also institutionalized when the UN Joint Logistics Center was officially placed under its custodianship.

As in 2001, the majority of WFP’s beneficiaries were assisted through emergency operations. Contributions amounting to \$1 billion met 76 percent of the projected food requirements of these operations. Contributions to protracted relief and recovery operations of \$470 million made it possible to meet 96 percent of the requirements of these operations.

WFP has a regular staff of 2,684. Only 621 are at Rome headquarters; the remainder is in the field. James T. Morris (United States) became WFP's tenth Executive Director in April 2002. Four months later, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan appointed Mr. Morris as his Special Envoy on the humanitarian crisis in southern Africa, in addition to continuing his responsibilities as WFP head. The WFP's governing body, the Executive Board, has 36 members, including the United States.

WFP operates exclusively from voluntary contributions (commodities and cash) donated by governments. The nearly record level of contributions—\$1.8 billion—enabled WFP to meet 75 percent of its 2002 food requirements. For the second year in a row, more than half of WFP's resources (51.4 percent) came from the United States, with a contribution of \$928 million. Although WFP welcomed the continuing strong contributions from the United States, much of its effort on resource mobilization was targeted to broaden support from other major donors and open up new channels for contributions. Considerable progress was made with contributions from the European Commission and the European Union member states, which exceeded 2001 levels by \$200 million. Sixteen of the top 20 donors increased their contributions, 11 of them by 20 percent compared to 2001. Contributions from non-traditional donors—emerging donor governments, the private sector, nongovernmental organizations, and intergovernmental organizations—totaled \$34 million, or 2 percent, of total contributions.

### **UN High Commissioner for Refugees**

Established in 1950, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has a mandate to lead and coordinate international efforts to protect refugees and end their plight as migrants. The total population of concern to UNHCR numbered 19.8 million refugees, returnees, and internally displaced persons worldwide, down from 21.8 million persons in 2001. In 2002, UNHCR maintained offices in 120 countries, with a staff of 5,000.

UNHCR's Executive Committee (EXCOM), of which the United States is a member, approved a 2002 annual program budget of approximately \$801.7 million. In addition to the annual program budget, the UNHCR later appealed for \$228.1 million for supplementary programs to meet contingencies unforeseen at the beginning of the year, including the massive refugee returns to Afghanistan and Sierra Leone.

UNHCR is funded almost exclusively through voluntary contributions, with 2 percent of its budget coming from the UN regular budget and 98 percent from voluntary sources. The United States is the largest contributor to UNHCR, contributing over \$259 million to UNHCR's annual and supplemental programs. This amount constituted 31 percent of the contributions received, slightly higher than the U.S. average over the past 15 years of 26.8 percent. With UNHCR facing funding shortfalls again in 2002, the United States encouraged other donors to contribute their fair share and fully fund the program that they endorsed as EXCOM members.

Nevertheless, as the year ended with a \$100 million deficit, UNHCR reduced its activities. The State Department's Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, and refugee coordinators in the field monitor UNHCR operations.

With U.S. approval, UNHCR focused in 2002 on Africa and Afghanistan. Over 2 million Afghan refugees returned home and reconstruction efforts were begun. In Africa, the peace process in Angola brought hope that many refugees and internally displaced persons could eventually go home. In Sierra Leone, a successful peace process led to some 190,000 refugees returning home.

In late fall 2002, with the increasing likelihood of war in Iraq, UNHCR prepared for possible refugee flows in cooperation with the State Department's Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration officers and refugee coordinators based in the region. This involved inquiring as to UNHCR's plans and programs to ensure that it was undertaking adequate preparations, raising necessary questions or concerns, and providing UNHCR with funding to support its efforts.

The United States is a leading advocate for the protection of refugees and, in 2002, after allegations that humanitarian workers had sexually exploited refugees, the United States pressed the UNHCR to take measures necessary to ensure that such practices did not occur.

The United States and UNHCR continued to cooperate on resettlement not only as a solution for refugees who cannot return to their countries, but also for those facing danger and requiring a safe environment. In 2002, the United States only resettled 27,113 refugees, compared to approximately 69,000 in 2001, because of post-September 11 security measures.

Each fall, UNHCR's EXCOM meets to discuss refugee protection and policy, and the managing and financing of programs. UNHCR also holds three Standing Committee meetings throughout the year, which the United States attended and participated in. In October 2002, for the first time in more than 25 years, the EXCOM elected the United States to be its Rapporteur, an EXCOM Bureau position (one of three Bureau positions along with the EXCOM chair and deputy chair), the responsibility of which is to supervise the negotiation of refugee protection issues for the Agenda for Protection.

At the EXCOM, the U.S. plenary statement focused on ensuring adequate reintegration assistance and protection for returning Afghan refugees; the need to help refugees elsewhere around the world; UNHCR's continued funding shortfall and the need for better burden-sharing; UNHCR's need for improved budget management; better and broader standards for protecting refugees, especially women and children; food shortages; and U.S. appreciation for the contributions of refugee-hosting countries.

In 2002, the United States and UNHCR negotiated a Framework for Cooperation whose priorities included increasing American staffing in the UNHCR; protecting refugees, especially women and children, against vio-

lence; increased capacity-building of the UNHCR to resettle refugees in the United States; improving UNHCR's management oversight and accountability; strengthening its mechanism to register refugees; and enhancing UNHCR's readiness to cope with emergencies.

### **UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA)**

Since the 1950s, the UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) has been providing education, health, and social services to nearly 4 million Palestinian refugees and their descendants that live in the West Bank, Gaza, Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon.

UNRWA, which is headed by Commissioner-General Peter Hansen (Denmark), has 23,000 employees, most of whom are local Palestinians. Of the 140 employees who are not Palestinians, 20 are American citizens. UNRWA spends about 53 percent of its regular budget on education, including schools and teachers. Approximately 18 percent of its regular budget is devoted to health services, and another 10 percent on relief and social services. UNRWA spends nearly 19 percent on operational services.

The United States generously funds UNRWA to meet the humanitarian needs of Palestinian refugees. In fiscal year 2002, the United States contributed \$119.68 million to UNRWA, which constituted almost 30 percent of UNRWA's total 2002 donor funding of \$404 million. The largest portion of the U.S. contribution was \$88 million from Migration and Refugee Assistance funds to UNRWA's General Fund to provide relief and social services, health care, and education to Palestinian refugees. The United States also contributed \$1.4 million to UNRWA to help it carry out security monitoring of its facilities in Palestinian refugee camps in the West Bank and Gaza. The United States, through the State Department, provided another \$20 million in Emergency Refugee and Migration Assistance funding for food and emergency short-term employment in response to UNRWA's emergency appeal for the West Bank and Gaza, while the U.S. Agency for International Development gave an additional \$10 million to the same emergency appeal.

The United States believes that UNRWA has done a good job under very difficult circumstances in providing for the basic humanitarian needs of Palestinian refugees in all five fields of its operations.

### **UN Disaster and Humanitarian Relief Activities**

In 2002, the United States successfully supported UN General Assembly resolutions that will strengthen, albeit modestly, national, and international capabilities to prevent and respond to natural disasters.

In Resolution 57/256, the General Assembly endorsed the International Strategy on Disaster Reduction (ISDR), which will help nations to minimize natural disasters by adopting and enforcing better building codes, using disaster information management technology, and employing early warning and surveillance techniques. The United States strongly

supported this resolution, noting that the overall effectiveness of the international system is only as good as the quality of each national system. The United States spoke of the need for more effective cooperation between the public and private sectors, along with using Global Information System technology in disaster planning, monitoring, and reporting on emerging hazards. Such risk reduction will save lives and property, especially in the most vulnerable nations, thereby increasing economic and political stability.

Throughout the year, the United States continued to participate in the UN International Working Group on Disaster Reduction and to work closely with the ISDR Task Force on technology and scientific cooperation.

The United States and other partners in the field of emergency rescue met in Geneva with selected UN agencies, including the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance, to discuss expansion of the operations of expert search and rescue teams. In 1991, the United States worked to organize countries with expertise in this area together with earthquake-prone countries into an inter-governmental network known as the International Search and Rescue Group (INSARAG) to facilitate the exchange of information. The Geneva discussions in 2002 led to a Turkish-drafted resolution on urban search and rescue in the General Assembly [57/150], which was adopted by consensus. The resolution endorses the efforts of INSARAG to secure agreement from UN member states that would enable foreign expert rescue teams to enter countries quickly and with their own equipment to perform rescue operations.

The United States supported several other resolutions in the General Assembly related to disaster preparedness and response. In each instance, the United States successfully balanced its own national interests with the concerns of other countries within the context of regional and global events. For example, Ecuador agreed to amend Resolution 57/255 that sought support for an El Nino research center in Guayaquil, Ecuador by accepting the U.S. request that the center strengthen its links with national, meteorological, and hydrological services in different parts of the world, in view of the fact that the El Nino phenomenon affects parts of the world beyond Latin America. In another example, the Mozambique Government, while calling for international assistance, agreed to recognize the necessity for local, national, and regional strategies to prevent and manage natural disasters in Resolution 57/104.

### **NGO Committee**

Both the tone and pace of the 19-member Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) Committee on Nongovernmental Organizations (NGO Committee), which considers NGO applications for consultative status allowing NGOs to participate in ECOSOC and its subsidiary bodies through attendance at their meetings, improved in 2002 because it got a new chair and some new members. The United Nations welcomes the participation of NGOs in UN meetings because many NGOs bring expertise

to the meetings and participate at no cost to the United Nations. The United Nations maintains a vetting process to ensure that the NGOs seeking accreditation have expertise and have not acted contrary to the UN Charter, especially in promoting violence or terrorism.

Many NGOs that promote human rights and criticize governments for failings in this area seek UN accreditation. Partly as a response to these NGOs, several countries, including Cuba, Iran, Sudan, and the People's Republic of China, carefully scrutinized every facet of an applying NGO's operations, down to minute searches of the organization's websites. These countries looked for inconsistencies in an NGO's publications, connections to irredentist groups, and other potential problems as a way of stalling the NGO's application. Such continued scrutiny notwithstanding, an overall positive change began with the regular session in New York May 13–30, 2002, and continued through the resumed 2002 session, held from January 8–24, 2003.

The change in the chair and the composition of the committee with its concomitant shift toward more objective analysis of an NGO's application resulted in a record number of approvals of consultative status. The Committee recommended 93 NGOs for accreditation in May, the highest number in four years. This trend continued at the resumed session, when the Committee recommended 89 NGOs for consultative status, up from 56 during the same session the previous year.

The Committee also changed some procedures, most notably by encouraging candidate NGOs to send representatives to New York to answer questions in person. This practice allowed NGO representatives to answer questions on the spot and allay most concerns about questionable geopolitical, financial, or management issues thus avoiding the time-consuming process of sending letters and waiting for written responses. Several of the 37 U.S. NGOs, including The Heritage Foundation, The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), and the World Assembly of Muslim Youth, availed themselves of this opportunity, hoping to increase their chances of obtaining consultative status.

For the most part, the United States worked with Committee members to reach consensus on approving applications. The U.S. delegation worked with friends and allies on the Committee to separate the solid, qualified NGOs from the unknown or questionable applicants. U.S. successes included the NAACP and The Woman's Voice, International, which became accredited observers in 2002. The U.S. delegation also defended several NGOs, such as U.S.-based Freedom House and the Swiss NGO, UN Watch, against attempts by Cuba and Iran to strip them of accreditation because of critical statements attributed to those NGOs. The United States marshaled support for its position among members and defeated the efforts against these NGOs.

The Committee agreed to create an outreach tool, called the UN NGO Informal Regional Network (IRENE), which would be funded entirely

from voluntary contributions. IRENE's purpose is to increase UN outreach efforts to NGOs from developing countries. Historically, NGOs from developed countries have dominated the list of applicants for consultative status, with American NGOs at the top of the list. The United States supported this effort to increase the direct participation in UN discussions by persons and NGOs from developing countries so that their practical experience could shape the UN policies designed to help the people in those countries.