

UNIVERSITY OF SZEGED
FACULTY OF LAW AND POLITICAL SCIENCES
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International Organizations – In Law and Practice

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Szegedi Tudományegyetem
Állam-és Jogtudományi Kar
Nemzetközi és Regionális Tanulmányok Intézet
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Glossary

capacity-building	Reducing obstacles that inhibit people, governments, international organizations and non-governmental organizations from realizing their developmental goals while enhancing the abilities that will allow them to achieve measurable and sustainable results
Chapter VII	The 7 th chapter of the Charter of the United Nations, it deals with the threats to international peace and security and authorizes the Security Council to order sanctions and take measures against a state threatening international peace and security.
closed organizations	Organizations which do not admit new members, usually these organizations are related to a special region or function.
collective security	A system of maintaining world peace and security by concerted action on the part of the nations of the world or a region. Basis of collective security is the principle that an armed attack against one shall be regarded as an attack against all.
comprehensive test ban	Bans nuclear explosions by everyone, everywhere: on the Earth's surface, in the atmosphere, underwater and underground.
contribution	A sum of money that is paid by the member of an organization to it for the operation of the organization. It can be either set by the organization or given voluntarily.
disarmament	The reduction or abolition of offensive or defensive fighting capability, a nation's military forces and weapons.
free-trade area	A free-trade area is a trade bloc whose member countries have signed a free-trade agreement (FTA), which eliminates tariffs, import quotas, and preferences on most (if not all) goods and services traded between them. It can be considered the second stage of economic integration.
general organization	When an organization has a general scope of competences. General scope means that it deals with political, economic, social and military issues as well.

humanitarian assistance	Aid and action designed to save lives, alleviate suffering and maintain and protect human dignity during and in the aftermath of emergencies.
international organization	It is a form of intergovernmental co-operation, established by a treaty, at least between two or three states, it has a permanent structure, thus it has at least one, but usually more permanent organs, and it is the subject of international law.
mutual defence organization	An international organization based on the notion of collective security, declaring that if an armed attack occurs against a member of the organizations, the others would provide military assistance to defend the attacked state.
NGO	It is an organization founded by states and/or private actors, but is governed and managed only by private actors. States can participate in sponsoring the NGO, however it cannot have governing rights. NGOs are founded under the national law of the state in which it has its headquarters, thus it is not under international law. NGOs do not have international legal personality; they are not subjects of international law.
non-proliferation	Preventing, blocking or halting the spread of nuclear weapons knowledge, fissile material and nuclear related technology.
open organization	An IO which can be joined freely by any state.
particular organizations	IOs which have more than 2, but less than all the states as members.
peace-building	Actions that are designed to prevent the start or resumption of violent conflict within a nation by creating a sustainable peace. Peace-building activities address the root causes or potential causes of violence, create a societal expectation for peaceful conflict resolution and stabilize society politically and socioeconomically.
peacekeeping	Preservation of peace, especially the supervision by international forces of a truce between hostile nations.
permanent members of the UN Security Council	Five great power states which have a permanent seat in the Council, since 1945, the establishment of the United Nations. (They are: China, USA, Russia, United Kingdom, France)

permanent observer	Non-member states of an organization or other entities can participate in the meetings of an organization, without having member rights and obligations.
post-conflict rehabilitation	Activities carried out after a conflict aimed at stabilization, reconstruction and peace-building.
regional organization	When members of an organization are all related to one area, a region.
rule of law	The rule of law is a legal maxim whereby decisions are made by applying known legal principles, abiding the existing international law.
semi-open organizations	IOs which set certain criteria for admission.
specialised organization	When an IO has competence to deal only with specific matters.
specialized agencies	Universal international organizations with special competences, which have signed a treaty with the United Nations to become part of the UN Family.
subjects of international law	States, international organizations and in certain restricted ways human beings (with respect to human rights), the International Committee of the Red Cross (with respect to humanitarian law), the international community (with respect to the rights relating to Antarctica or the space).
treaty	A treaty is an international document which creates, modifies or terminates international rights and obligations.
universal organization	When all the existing and recognised states are members of an organization.
weapons of mass destruction	A weapon that can kill and bring significant harm to a large number of humans (and other life forms) and/or cause great damage to man-made structures (e.g. buildings), natural structures (e.g. mountains), or the biosphere in general. E.g.: nuclear, chemical, biological weapons.

Abbreviations

AFTA	ASEAN Free Trade Area
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASEM	Asia-Europe Meeting
AU	African Union
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CARIFTA	Caribbean Free Trade Association
CE	Council of Europe
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CTBTO	Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty Organization
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council (UN)
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FTA	Free Trade Association
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPU	General Postal Union
G8	Group of Eight
G77	Group of Seventy-seven
HQ	Headquarters
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (a.k.a. World Bank)
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization
ICC	International Criminal Court
ICJ	International Court of Justice (UN)
ICCO	International Cocoa Organization
ICO	International Coffee Organization
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
IDA	International Development Association
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMO	International Maritime Organization
IO	International organization
ISO	International Sugar Organization
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
LAFTA	Latin-American Free Trade Association
LAS	League of Arab States

LoN	League of Nations
MERCOSUR	Southern Common Market
MIGA	Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Association
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OAS	Organization of American States
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OEEC	Organization for European Economic Co-operation
OIC	Organization of the Islamic Conference
OPEC	Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
P5	Permanent members of the UN Security Council
RoP	Rules of Procedure
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation
SC	Security Council (UN)
SEATO	South-East Asia Treaty Organization
UN / UNO	United Nations / United Nations Organization
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
UNHCHR	United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNOG	United Nations Office in Geneva
UNOV	United Nations Office in Vienna
UPU	Universal Postal Union
WAEC	West African Economic Community
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WTO	World Trade Organization

1. General overview, history of international co-operation

1.1. Introduction

In everyday language the term ‘international organization’ includes not only interstate arrangements but, arrangements among non-governmental organizations and transnational actors. International organization seems to be a very broad concept, which has evolved with the practice of various forms of international governance. Sometimes the term is referred to in the meaning of a formal organization, sometimes as an international ordering principle or as an international regime.

This course mainly deals with formal, intergovernmental organizations, such as the United Nations, the Council of Europe or the African Union. However, basic knowledge is provided about non-profit, non-governmental organizations, like the International Committee of the Red Cross or the Greenpeace, along with such forums and movements, which are not intergovernmental organizations but of high importance in international co-operation and policy-making, such as the former non-aligned movement, the G8 or the G77.

This course material aims at clarifying different terms, providing a basic, but nevertheless thorough knowledge about international organizations. The course covers the legal background and the institutional framework of the organizations, as well as their decision-making and evaluation of their work.

During the semester the course will cover the history of international organizations, the theoretical basis (definition, classification, membership, organs, decision-making, procedure, international civil service, diplomatic relations, immunities, responsibility), the United Nations in detail, regional-general organizations and particular organizations, organizations aiming at collective security and disarmament, institutions of economic co-operation, forums and movements.

Integral parts of the course are practical tasks, which are not included in this course material, but will be handed out during the course.

1.2. History of international co-operation

1.2.1. Origins

It was not until the 19th century that actual international organizations (IOs) began to appear in significant numbers. Though the advent of states as sovereign political units – from the 17th century – was an important step, preconditions for the creation of IOs were not met during the 17–18th centuries. For example, there was insufficient contact

between states, there was little recognition of problems arising from interdependence among states, and there was no perceived need for institutionalized mechanisms to manage international relations.

The first serious attempt at formal international organization arose with the Congress of Vienna (1814–1815), which established diplomatic foundations for a new European security order following the devastation of the Napoleonic Wars. The resulting ‘Congress system’ was a fundamental turning point in the conduct and organization of international relations. It created a more systematic and institutionalized approach to managing issues of war and peace in the international system. The principal innovation at Vienna was that representatives of states should meet at regular intervals - not just in the wake of war - to discuss diplomatic issues. Accordingly, four major peacetime conferences were held between 1815 and 1822.

After this period a looser association of the Great Powers continued in existence – an attenuated Congress system limited to dealing with problems as they arose, not seeking to anticipate them. This ‘Concert of Europe’ featured sporadic gatherings throughout the century, mostly in response to wars: Paris in 1856, Vienna in 1864, Prague in 1866, Frankfurt in 1871, Berlin in 1878, Berlin in 1884-1885, and The Hague in 1899 and 1907. These last two conferences went so far as to establish the first permanent international court, namely the Permanent Court of Arbitration, to settle international disputes. Although this system of conferences was not an organization yet, since it didn’t have permanent institutions or organs, but it started a process. The result of the Concert was, indeed, quite a long period of relatively peaceful interstate relations among the great powers of Europe.

Owing to the lack of war and stable situation, industry and trade developed, inventions boomed. The technological changes brought on by the Industrial Revolution – especially in communication (telegraph) and transportation (steamship and railroad) – created an interdependence among states that required more stable forms of cooperation. A new set of IOs was created to manage international economic transactions which were an increasingly important aspect of interstate relations but were difficult for national governments to manage on a unilateral basis. To facilitate shipping, navigation and trade on rivers, states established commissions for the Rhine, Elbe and Danube in the first part of the 19th century.

A related set of IOs was also a response to technological change. These were concerned primarily with non-political, technical matters and included the International Telegraphic Union (1865), the General (later Universal) Postal Union (1874), the International Union of Railway Freight Transportation (1890), and the International Bureau of Weights and Measures (1875). Some of these organizations had elaborate institutional frameworks, including permanent bureaus that represented forerunners of secretariats. The ultimate purpose of these IOs was to facilitate international trade by establishing market rules and standardization.

1.2.2. From 1919 to 1945

Following World War, I the first worldwide international organization had been established: The League of Nations. The League of Nations was the first attempt at collective security, under Article 16 of the League Covenant, all member states were required to come to the aid of a member that was the victim of military aggression. The League was overwhelmingly concerned with fostering peace, though economic and social issues received attention too. All members participated in the General Assembly, while a separate League Council – consisting of permanent members (like Britain, France, Japan, Italy, Germany, Soviet Union, China) and several rotating members – guided the operation of the organization.

Though President Woodrow Wilson was its chief proponent, the United States never joined the League. The Covenant was frequently violated and countries with different interests could withdraw from the League, thus escaping the sanctions. Of the League's 42 founding members, 23 remained members until it was dissolved in 1946, at its greatest extent from September 1934 to February 1935, it had 58 members, most of the then existing countries. The Soviet Union became a member in 1934 and was expelled in 1939 for aggression against Finland. The Nazi Germany and Japan withdrew in 1933 rather than to submit themselves to the judgment of the League.

The organization never lived up to its promise. It successfully resolved some small military conflicts, but couldn't stop aggression, acquisition of territories by the use of force. In practice it suspended working in 1940, and was legally dissolved in 1946, after the formation of the United Nations.

The League of Nations was not the only IO established between the two world wars. The International Labour Organization was set up in 1919 to pursue a vision based on the premise that universal, lasting peace can be established only if it is based on social justice. The driving forces for ILO's creation arose from security, humanitarian, political and economic considerations. There was keen appreciation of the importance of social justice in securing peace, against a background of exploitation of workers in the industrializing nations of that time. There was also increasing understanding of the world's economic interdependence and the need for cooperation to obtain similarity of working conditions in countries competing for markets. ILO still exists, it has become a specialized agency of the United Nations in 1946.

1.2.3. Since 1945

The architects of the post-war system set out to establish an extraordinarily ambitious framework of positive international law and institutions. Though the number of formal IOs increased from about 50 to 80 during the interwar period, in the enthusiasm

of the early post-war period they were created on a wide scale until they numbered over 600 by 1980.

The most important is the United Nations, whose basic structure was decided by the US, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union and China at the Dumbarton Oaks meeting of 1944 and the 1945 Yalta Summit. The drafters of the Charter, signed at the San Francisco conference of founding members in June 1945, were conscious of the limits inherent in the idealism of the League of Nations. Abstinance from unilateral use of force remained the main driving principle, and the Security Council was entrusted with primary responsibility for authorizing and overseeing military action. The reality of the Cold War dashed these expectations and rendered the UN ineffective, though not irrelevant, in global security affairs. But demand for an expanded range of UN security services has re-emerged in the post-Cold War era and, despite some failures in recent years, the UN is playing an increasingly important security role.

Another set of organizations was created during and following World War II, for the purpose of avoiding economic conflict by, especially, maintaining currency stability and free trade. The Bretton Woods monetary system established the US dollar as the central currency; other currencies would be valued according to the dollar, which in turn was pegged to gold. Two formal IOs were created as part of this system: the International Monetary Fund was charged with monitoring balance of payments, while the World Bank supervised economic development and post-war reconstruction. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was established in 1947 to maintain open trade based on the principle of non-discrimination. It was replaced in 1995 by the more encompassing and centralized – for instance, it contains strengthened dispute settlement procedures – World Trade Organization.

A further striking development in the world of international organizations in the post-war period has been the rise of regional IOs. Some perform a wide range of functions within a given geographical area, dealing with generally all issues (the Organization of American States, the Organization of Central American States, the Arab League, the Organization of African Unity, and the Association of South East Asian Nations). Others are specifically security-related, such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe. The largest number is economic, like common markets and free-trade areas. The European Union started as one dealing with economics, however by now it is the most developed and complex regional organization.

Despite the frequent assumption that IOs rarely die once created, fully one-third of the organizations that existed in 1981 were defunct by 1992. Many of those that became inactive were in the former Eastern bloc or were regional development organizations in the developing world.

According to The Yearbook of International Organizations prepared by the Union of International Associations in 2021, there are c. 31.000 active IOs in 300 countries, and this number increases c. 1200 each year. IOs range in size from small consultative organizations such as the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization to very substantial bureaucracies like the World Bank or European Union with elaborate administrative structures, large budgets, many employees and extensive operational capacities. In this book, the reader will meet only with those IOs that have been making either global or regional impact, and that have an important role in international relations in accordance with the definition given under the section entitled Theory I.

1.3. International organisations and the theory of international relations

Establishment and the principles of the League of Nations were highly motivated by the liberal ideas of international relations. The central issue to liberalism – in greatly simplified version – was how to achieve lasting peace, believing in the good nature of people and nations, who are able to co-operate because that is in the interest of all. Liberalists believed that international law has a major role in moderating and constraining state behaviour. It is often nicknamed as an idealistic approach, which rather focuses on the legal and organizational structure of institutions instead of analysing incentives of states, their willingness to transfer power to an international organization.

World War II and the failure of the League of Nations were considered to be the failure of liberalism as well. The theory of realism took its place emphasizing that international life is fundamentally driven by the harsh realities of power politics. Realism continues to view power, not institutions, as the key organizing principle of international affairs, and is sceptical of any significant role for formal organizations. Events of the Cold War especially gave way to this approach.

Since the end of the Cold War a renewal of some aspects of idealism can be seen, which is based on the fact that in the past 20 years the significance of international organizations has risen. Globalisation shows how much nations and people are co-dependent. Long-term and increasing interactions among states in all fields of activity – including health, technology, security, environment, culture and economics – mean that even the most powerful states are sensitive to occurrences elsewhere and cannot always achieve their goals by themselves. Small states that are dependent on larger states have even stronger reasons to seek support from such organizations. Moreover, this interdependence takes increasingly complex forms, including the increase in the number of significant transnational actors such as multinational corporations and environmental groups. These changes have increased opportunities for formal international organizations but have not necessarily increased the willingness of states to transfer political authority to them.

IOs have not always lived up to the high expectations they have raised. This was true with the League of Nations in the 1930s and with the United Nations by the 1970s when the General Assembly and various UN agencies seemed to have become little more than forums for ideological debate (between North and South and between East and West). In the 1980s the UN system faced open hostility from the United States, its most powerful member.

In fact, many formal IOs continued to play an important role throughout this period. Economic organizations were instrumental in the performance of the global economy, while NATO was the most institutionalized, and probably the most successful, alliance in the field of collective security. In the post-Cold War years, formal organizations have experienced somewhat of a renewal. There has been an effort to make better use of existing organizations, to change them to address a different set of problems.

Check your knowledge!

What was the ‘Congress system’?

When and why did states start to establish international organizations?

What were the aims and weaknesses of the League of Nations?

What was the effect of World War II on international organizations?

What is the difference between the liberal and the realist approach to international organizations?

Useful websites:

International Relations Theory: <https://www.e-ir.info/publication/international-relations-theory/>

United Nations on YouTube: <https://www.youtube.com/c/unitednations/featured>

Global Governance Watch: <http://www.globalgovernancewatch.org/>

The Yearbook of International Organizations: <https://uia.org/yearbook>

2. Theory I. – Definition, classification, organs, budget, procedure

2.1. Definition

An international organization is a form of intergovernmental co-operation, established by a treaty, at least between two or three states, it has a permanent structure, thus it has at least one, but usually more permanent organs, and it is the subject of international law.

Let's examine this definition:

1. International organizations are created by states which are represented by their governments or heads of state, thus the literature also calls them interstate or intergovernmental organizations. These states and those which join later are the members of the organization. Some organizations have other organizations as members too, for example the European Union is a member of the World Trade Organization.
2. IOs are always established by a treaty. A treaty is an international document which creates, modifies or terminates international rights and obligations. A treaty can be made only by the subjects of international law, that is states and international organizations. (The difference between a treaty and a contract is, that a treaty is created under the rules and by the subjects of international law, while a contract is a document created by private actors, for example a contract for the sale of a house.) Founding treaties of IOs can have different names, the most common ones are charter, covenant or statute. E.g.: Charter of the United Nations, Covenant of the League of Nations, Statute of the Council of Europe. The founding treaty provides all the rules of the organization, its structure, organs, rights and obligations of the members.
3. In order to become an international organization, the established structure needs to be permanent, it has to have at least one permanent organ. Usually IOs have at least 3 permanent organs, some very complex ones even have 20 organs. Although the IO is established by states, and the member states make the main decisions and define the policy of the IO, yet the IO has to have a certain level of independence. This level is usually represented by the administrative organ, namely the Secretariat and the formal leader of the organization, the Secretary-General.

4. The subjects of international law are states, international organizations and in certain restricted ways human beings (with respect to human rights), the International Committee of the Red Cross (with respect to humanitarian law), the international community (with respect to the rights relating to Antarctica or the space). An international organization becomes the subject of international law only if that is clearly stated in its founding treaty, if that is intended by its founders. To be the subject of international law means that the IO has international legal personality. This international legal personality is given to the organization by its founding members, it is restricted, meaning that the organization has only those rights which were given to it. In contrast, the international legal personality of a state is original, it is not given by anyone, and it is full. A state can deal with any kind of issues, has all the rights, while international organizations have only those that were specifically given to it.)

2.2. Classification

International organizations can be classified with respect to several characteristics:

- number of members
- scope of competences
- possibility of joining.

Number of members

Some international organizations have only 3-4 members, while in others all the states are represented. A bilateral organization has only 2 members, that is very rare.

Usually IOs have more than 2, but less than all the states as members, these are the so called particular organizations. Such is the World Trade Organization with about 150 members. If an organization is particular, but all of its members are related to one area, we call that a regional organization, for example the European Union.

When all the existing and recognised states are members of an organization it is called a universal organization. The main example of it is the United Nations with its 193 members.

Scope of competences

Some IOs only deal with specific issues, certain matters, while others have competence over all the fields. When an IO has competence to deal with only specific matters, it is called a specialised organization. For example, NATO's main sphere is collective security and military issues, while it does not deal with health, environment and trade. When an organization has a general scope of competences, it is called a general organization. The general scope means that it deals with political, economic, social and military issues as well. Such organization is the United Nations, the Organization of American States or the African Union.

Possibility of joining

Some of the international organizations welcome any state which would like to join, while others restrict admission of new members. Any state can join an open organization, like the World Health Organization or the United Nations. Closed organizations do not admit new members, usually these organizations are related to a special region or function. Such an organization is the Danube Commission, in which only those states can be members which have a part of the River Danube in their territory. Semi-open organizations are those which set certain criteria for admission, for example OECD accepts only developed states, above a certain level of GDP.

When combining these ways of classifications, it can be said that the United Nations is a universal, general and open IO. Or NATO is a particular, special and semi-open IO. Or the Danube Commission is a regional, special and closed organization.

2.3. Organs

As it was demonstrated in the definition of international organization, permanent organs are a key element. Typically, IOs have at least three organs or institutions, divided in accordance with the tasks. Every IO has a decision-making, an executive and an administrative body. Some organizations have advisory organs and other institutions, such as courts and commissions.

Decision-making body

The top level decision-making organ of every IO is a body consisting of the representatives of all the member states. This is a plenary meeting, where states are often represented at a very high level, like the head of state or government, minister or sometimes an accredited ambassador. They can deal with any issues related to the work of the organization, quite often all states have equal votes (every state has one). Usually this body sets the main outlines of policy, the strategies for the IO, but often their decision is non-binding.

These bodies can have very different names, for example assembly (United Nations – General Assembly), congress (World Meteorological Organization – Congress), conference (ILO – Conference), council (NATO – North Atlantic Council), board of governors (IMF – Board of Governors).

Executive and/or governing body

IOs need organs which execute the decisions of the main decision-making body, and conduct the day-to-day work of the organization. These organs are usually not only executing tasks, but they make decisions too. These forums are smaller in number in order to make it more efficient. It either consists of representatives of selected member states or independent experts. It greatly varies what functions and powers these bodies have, for example in the UN the Security Council has power to permit the use of force against a state, while the Economic and Social Council has limited powers to sanction. As it can be seen some organizations have more organs of this nature, divided along their tasks.

These organs can have very different names, for example council (UN – Security Council, Economic and Social Council), board (WHO – Executive Board), committee (OECD – Executive Committee), commission (EU – Commission).

Administration

All IOs need an organ which provides the administrative tasks. Usually they are called Secretariat. The head of the Secretariat is the Secretary-General, who is the main representative of the organization. He or she is an independent, impartial person, elected by the other organs, usually by the decision-making body. He is the head of the staff of the Secretariat, responsible for the faultless flow of work in the organization.

Advisory bodies

The main decision-making body of all IOs consists of the representatives of the government. In the past decades it has become increasingly important in some IOs to have advisory bodies similar to national parliaments, which represent the people.

These are usually related to regional organizations, the first one was established in Europe, in the framework of the Council of Europe. The Parliamentary Assembly had been set up in 1949, it consists of representatives of the national parliaments of each member state. Such organ exists in the Organization of American States, in the African Union and in the EU. Usually these organs are only ‘giving advice’ and do not have binding decisions, the European Parliament in the European Union is an exception, since it has legislative powers.

Other bodies

International organizations usually establish commissions or committees for certain topics, for example the International Law Commission in the UN is responsible for the development and codification of international law. Both in the UN and in other IOs numerous commissions deal with human rights, environment protection, budgetary and financial issues of the IO.

Major IOs usually have their own organ for the settlement of disputes among its members. The International Court of Justice is one of the six principal organs of the UN, the European Court of Justice belongs to the EU, and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights is a body of OAS.

Some IOs have their own banks, like the European Investment Bank and the European Central Bank in the EU.

All IOs have subsidiary organs, like committees, commissions, working groups which help their work, provide expertise, prepare documents for decisions, conducts research, etc. For example, the Peace-building Commission, the Counter-terrorism Committee and the Working Group on Children and Armed Conflict all belong to the UN Security Council as subsidiary organs.

2.4. Budget

The budget of all IOs consists of two parts: contribution of the member states and other funds. Without a proper budget IOs would not be able to conduct their tasks. In the past decades many IOs experienced political crisis owing to the non-payment of the due contribution or the disagreement about the allocation of the money, or the alleged misuse of funds. The budget of IOs – similarly to the budget of nations – is divided into chapters in accordance with the tasks. The two main chapters are the administrative costs (E.g.: salary of the staff, costs of the headquarters) and the operational costs (money allocated to the special tasks of the organization).

The most significant resource of an IO is the contribution of the members however voluntary payments and income from activities are significant also. Compulsory contribution of member states is either set at an equal amount (all members pay the same sum) or with respect to its development and capability. In the latter case, the organization revises regularly the financial capability and the development of each member state. Usually GDP or the Human Development Index (HDI) is used. Often IOs take into consideration other aspects too, for example the inner stability of a state (whether there is an armed conflict), and the rate of state debt.

In certain organizations the size of the contribution defines the rights of the member, for example in the International Monetary Fund states paying more have more votes.

Voluntary contribution of member states has become increasingly important in the past decades, and this is a good way for a country to decide what reason it wants to support. For example, the United States provides the significant part of the budget of UNICEF, while many West-European countries provide huge contributions to the UN Development Program, the WHO or FAO.

2.5. Rules of procedure and decision-making

The founding treaties outline the main tasks, functions and powers of all organs however it usually doesn't contain detailed rules of procedure. Organs have the right to draft their own Rules of Procedure (RoP) or the main decision-making body drafts it. These rules cover the inner structural issues of the organs (for example the possibility of establishing subsidiary organs), the rules of procedure that has to be followed at the meetings, and rules about decision-making and voting.

Rules of procedures contain the dates of sessions and meetings, for example the UN General Assembly convenes for the regular session on the third Tuesday of

September in every year, suspends work in December and resumes work in the following year, until spring. It regulates the participation of representatives, their number, the seating order, the order of speech, the rules for setting the agenda, the election of officers within the organ, the conduct of business, and the working languages of the organ. For example, the UN has six official languages, however the Security Council mainly uses English. The case is similar in other organizations too, since translation is expensive and takes time. In the EU the most often used working language is French, however the EU has 23 official languages.

Decisions of an organ are the result of a process, which is also regulated in the founding treaty and the rules of procedure. Decisions can be made only in topics which are on the agenda. Usually these issues are first discussed at a general debate, where countries wishing to express their opinions have the possibility to share it with the others. Usually time is previously set in a few minutes, so all delegations can have a chance to share their opinions. For example, in the General Assembly of the UN the general debate usually takes up 2.5–3 weeks, and it has been noted that during recent sessions the average length speeches has been 35 minutes, which seems to be excessively long. Also the order of speech is set, sometimes in alphabetical order of the English names of the members, sometimes in the order of signing up, sometimes based on traditions. For example, in the general debate of the UN General Assembly it is always Brazil that speaks first, then comes the United States and the others in order of their signing up.

After the general debate the debate of each item on the agenda takes place, which is usually followed by voting. Voting is either in secret or public. Some decisions require consent of all the members or of all the present and voting members (called consensus), other times simple majority (50% +1) or a qualified majority (2/3) is enough. The word quorum refers to the minimum number of the members who has to be present and voting in order to deliver a valid decision. Usually that rate is more than half of the members (50% + 1).

The result of this procedure is a decision of the organ. Decisions are usually called resolutions, decisions or other special names, such as opinion or recommendation.

Check your knowledge!

Explain in detail the definition of international organization!

How can IOs be classified?

What are the typical organs of every IO?

From what sources do IOs have money?

Describe the typical decision-making process!

What is the Rules of Procedure?

Useful websites:

RoP of the UN General Assembly: - <https://www.un.org/en/ga/>

Modes of Decision-Making in IOs:

<https://www.hsfk.de/en/research/projects/projects/modes-of-decision-making-in-international-organizations>

3. Theory II. - International civil service, relations, immunities, treaties, responsibility

3.1. International civil service

Origins of the international civil service can be traced back to the early years of the 20th century. IOs created in the second half of the 19th century, like the Universal Postal Union did not have independent secretariats. Administration and work was done by the experts delegated by the member states, who received their salaries from the sending state. The first international secretariat belonged to the International Institute of Agriculture (the predecessor of FAO), which was established in 1905. This was the first time when states decided that an international organization needs to have a body independent from the sending states. Officers of the Institute served only the Institute and couldn't take orders from the sending state or the state of their nationality. Thus international civil service was born.

Although the Covenant of the League of Nations only gave administrative, technical functions to its Secretariat, during its work it has gained importance. The head of the Secretariat had a very active role in practice, and was able to represent the League independently from the member states. This was similar at ILO. These secretariats had approximately 1500-2000 officers. After World War II a big rise was in the number of IOs and thus in the number of people working for them. Today about 130,000 people are employed by international organizations in the secretariat, for the operation of the organization. Their work is regarded as international civil service, provided for the international community.

International civil service has its basic rules:

- independence: officers are independent from the sending state or the state of their nationality, should not accept orders from governments;
- loyalty: officers have to be loyal to the IO, they have to perform tasks with respect to the founding document and other decisions of the IO;
- impartiality: officers should show neutral conduct toward ideologies and interests of the different member states, they can accept functions and honour from states, political parties or other organizations with the permission of the IO (and with respect to the principle of independence, loyalty and impartiality);
- equitable geographical representation: members of the civil service should come from all the member states of the IO in a proportionate way;
- efficiency, competence and integrity: officers should conduct their work efficiently, only those should become members of the international service who have the knowledge of the field and they should be of high morals.

3.2. Privileges and immunities of IOs and their staff

IOs' headquarters are always located on the territory of a country. In order to be able to conduct their work employees need to have certain protection in the host country and also in other countries. This protection means that the IO is entitled to certain rights which are called privileges and immunities.

The privileges and immunities of diplomats of states have developed throughout centuries, it is one of the oldest fields of international law. Many of these rules are used to IOs in analogical way nevertheless several treaties have been concluded in order to regulate the issue. Some of them are related to certain IOs:

- Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations, New York, 1946
- Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the Specialized Agencies, New York, 1947
- Agreement on the Status of NATO National Representatives and International Staff, Ottawa, 1951

Some of the agreements are related to special issues:

- Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents, 1973
- Vienna Convention on the Representation of States in Their Relations with International Organizations of a Universal Character, 1975

All in all, a few common rules can be derived from the agreements. Privileges and immunities mean that officers, premises and documents of the IO have special rights.

Inviolability

Premises of the mission shall be inviolable. The agents of the host or other states may not enter them, except with the consent of the representative of the IO. The archives, documents, correspondence of the IO shall be inviolable at any time and wherever they may be. The officer of the IO shall be inviolable when executing his functions and tasks. The host state shall treat the agent of the organization with due respect and shall take all appropriate steps to prevent any attack on his person, freedom or dignity.

Immunity from police actions and criminal, civil and administrative proceedings

The premises, their furnishings and other property thereon and the means of transport of the IO shall be immune from search, requisition, attachment or execution. The agent of the organization shall not be arrested or detained in any form. The agent shall enjoy immunity from the criminal jurisdiction of the host state, as well as from its civil and administrative jurisdiction.

Immunity from dues and taxes

The IO shall be exempt from all national, regional or municipal dues and direct taxes in respect of its premises, assets, income and other property. The employees of the organization shall be exempt from direct taxes.

These rules fully pertain to the leaders of the organization, however there are restrictions with respect to lower-ranking officers and other employees. These immunities are usually functional immunities, meaning that the rights are linked to the official activities (and the officer is not entitled to it when not performing official tasks). With respect to detailed rules, agreements usually refer to the provisions of the 1961 Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations, which regulates diplomatic relations among states.

3.3. Diplomatic and other relations of IOs

IOs can conclude treaties, can be observers in other IOs, can have offices in member states, can have diplomatic relations with non-member states or with other IOs, they can even be members of other IOs.

3.3.1. Headquarters agreement

IOs always sign headquarters agreement with the host state (where the headquarters or “HQ” is seated). The host state doesn’t have to be a member of the organization in order to be a host. Switzerland is one of the most well-known examples, it was not a member of the League of Nations – as being a neutral country – and yet it became its host. Austria is not a member of OPEC, while OPEC’s HQ is in Vienna. When an organization has offices in several countries, it signs an agreement with all of them. For example, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees has a regional office in Budapest (called as the Representation Central Europe office as of January 2021), the status of which is regulated under a treaty between Hungary and the UN.

The host country and the IO regulate in the headquarters agreement the legal status of the IO, its legal personality, privileges, immunities, the rules of entry of the agents of the organization into the host country, as well as the rules of entry of the delegates of states and entities. This has caused several problems in the past decades, for example Arab countries didn’t let in the Israeli delegation when a UN conference was held in their country. Similarly, the USA didn’t allow the delegation of Palestine into its territory, which is observer in the UN.

3.3.2. Permanent missions of states to IOs

States felt the need to represent themselves at the League of Nations not only by the government delegates sent to the meetings, but at a permanent level. During the two world wars it has become popular to set up permanent missions at IOs. These permanent

missions are similar to the diplomatic missions of a government sent to another state. Members of the permanent mission enjoy diplomatic rights, privileges and immunities. They are sent by the government of the state and they have to present their letter of credence (a formal letter from the head of state of the sending nation to the head of the organization providing the mandate), in the case of the UN to the Secretary-General.

In theory this seems to be a bilateral relationship between the sending state and the IO, however in practice it is trilateral, because the host country is also involved. It has happened several times that the host country limited the rights of the permanent missions of certain countries. For example, the United States doesn't have stable diplomatic relations with Cuba, but since Cuba is a member of the UN, the US has to allow the permanent mission of Cuba to be on the territory of the US. The US forbade the members of the permanent mission to leave New York more than 25 miles.

Task of the permanent mission is to participate in the work of the organization, to represent the sending nation and to provide information to the sending state about the work of the organization. Permanent missions can also be set up by non-member states and entities who are observers in an organization. For example, the Vatican is not a member of the UN, but it has a permanent observer mission in New York and Geneva. Prior to Switzerland's admission to the UN in 2002, it also had such a mission there.

3.3.3. Mission of an IO to a state

It is not frequent but has happened several times that organizations sent permanent missions to a state. For example, the Commission of the EU sends a permanent mission to all the countries that wish to join the EU. For years such a representation was present in Hungary too.

Another reason why some IOs have permanent missions or representatives sent to certain countries is to conduct their work more efficiently, to reach their aims. This is often visible in the field of development, the UN Development Program has offices in more than 100 developing countries, assisting their government and the people. Such representations are present on the field of humanitarian action too, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees has regional offices all around the world. Sometimes organizations have information centres in countries, to disseminate information about the IO and its work.

3.3.4. Permanent mission of an IO to another IO

IOs often send missions to another IO in order to gain information about their work, to build relations, to co-operate. Lots of organizations have representatives delegated to the UN, for example the EU and the African Union. These missions are similar to the observer mission, they don't have member-rights, but can observe the meetings, in some cases even present their opinion in the debate.

3.4. Treaties concluded by IOs

The right to conclude an international treaty is part of the international legal personality. However, before World War II this was not generally acknowledged. The UN Charter brought great change in that with authorizing the Security Council to conclude international agreements in the field of international peace and security and the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council with the to-be specialized agencies.

The law of international treaties was developed in customary international law and was codified in 1969 (Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties). However, this convention only covers treaties between states. In 1986 states drafted a convention on the law of treaties between states and international organizations or between international organizations, but it has not entered into force yet. The provisions of the 1986 convention highly resembles to the rules set in the 1969 convention.

The capacity to conclude treaties is either regulated by the founding document of the IO or by the customs and traditions in the IO. It can be an issue who should represent the organization when negotiating a treaty and which organ has the right to conclude it. Usually representation is done by the secretary-general and the right to conclusion is given to the main decision-making body of the IO. IOs have a right to conclude treaties in order to reach their aims and to conduct their functions. Thus their capacity to conclude treaties is more restricted than the capacity of states. Headquarters agreements are a basic example of a treaty concluded between a state and an IO. IOs can also conclude treaties between themselves, for example when the EU joined the WTO.

3.5. Responsibility of IOs

It has long been a question – since the existence of IOs – what is their international responsibility for an internationally wrongful act. This issue is very complex, since international organizations are separate legal entities, nevertheless their work is defined by their member states. An internationally wrongful act is an action or omission of an IO by which it breaches an international obligation.

An example of such internationally wrongful act was the bombing of Yugoslavia by NATO in 1999. Only the UN Security Council is allowed to permit the use of force and in the case of Yugoslavia in 1999, it didn't give the authorization. Yugoslavia started to fall apart in 1991 and soon there was a bloody armed conflict in its territory. By 1995 genocide occurred in the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina, a former republic of Yugoslavia that wished to become an independent state. Although a peace treaty was concluded in 1995, the remaining parts of Yugoslavia were still not fully peaceful. In 1998 and 1999 the Serbian government took actions against the Albanian minority living

on its territory in the area called Kosovo. The UN Security Council several times dealt with the issue in resolutions, ordering Serbia to respect human rights and to follow its international obligations. But the SC did not order military intervention owing to the Russian veto. NATO member countries decided that they wouldn't want to risk another genocide in the Balkans and started aerial bombing in order to force Serbia to stop human rights violations.

The illegal action was done by NATO, an international organization, but the question arose who is responsible for it. Is it NATO as the organization or is it the member states who took the decision in the Council of NATO?

In international law there's no treaty which would give answers to these questions. The UN has a draft treaty prepared by the International Law Commission, which deals with this issue. (See Draft articles on the responsibility of international organizations, Yearbook of the International Law Commission, 2011.) This document provides answers to these questions however it is legally not binding. According to it in such cases primarily the organization is responsible, while secondarily the member states. They should either provide reparation (to bring back the original situation, to repair the caused harm), or compensation (pay money), or satisfaction (e.g.: acknowledgement of the illegal act, saying sorry).

A further problem is that there's no existing international court where IOs can be sued for their actions. Thus in such cases only diplomatic solutions are left.

Check your knowledge!

What are the main rules of international civil service?

What are the common rules for the privileges and immunities of IOs?

What is a permanent mission of a state to an IO?

How do IOs conclude international treaties?

What are the main problems with respect to the responsibility of IOs?

Useful websites:

Draft articles on the responsibility of IOs:

https://legal.un.org/ilc/texts/instruments/english/draft_articles/9_11_2011.pdf

Anne Peters: Treaty-Making Power, Max Planck Encyclopaedia of Public International Law:

<http://www.mpepil.com/ViewPdf/epil/entries/law-9780199231690-e1494.pdf?stylesheet=EPIL-display-full.xsl>

Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations:

https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=III-1&chapter=3&clang=en

4. United Nations I. - History, structure, Charter, principles, budget, tasks

The United Nations (UN) is an IO founded in 1945 after the Second World War by 51 countries committed to maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations among nations and promoting social progress, better living standards and human rights. The UN can take action on a wide range of issues, and provide a forum for its 193 Member States to express their views.

The work of the UN is although best known for peacekeeping, peace-building, conflict prevention and humanitarian assistance, there are many other ways the United Nations and its system (specialized agencies, funds and programmes) affect people's lives and try to make the world a better place. It works on a broad range of fundamental issues, from sustainable development, environment and refugees protection, disaster relief, counter terrorism, disarmament and non-proliferation, to promoting democracy, human rights, gender equality and the advancement of women, governance, economic and social development and international health, clearing landmines, expanding food production, and more, in order to achieve its goals and coordinate efforts for a safer world for this and future generations.

4.1. History

The forerunner of the UN was the League of Nations, an IO conceived in similar circumstances during the First World War, and established in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles "to promote international cooperation and to achieve peace and security". The League of Nations ceased its activities after failing to prevent Second World War.

By 1941, practically all Europe had fallen to the Axis powers. In the Declaration of St. James's Palace 13 governments decided that they would fight until victory and "that the only true basis of enduring peace is the willing co-operation of free peoples in a world". Two months after the London Declaration came the next step to a world organization, when President Roosevelt (USA) and Prime Minister Churchill (UK) drafted the Atlantic Charter (14 August 1941). Among others they declared their "desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations" and that "all the men in all lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want" as well as the need to establish a "wider and permanent system of general security".

The name "United Nations", coined by US President Franklin D. Roosevelt was first used in the Declaration of the United Nations of 1 January 1942, during the Second World War, when representatives of 26 nations pledged their Governments to continue fighting together against the Axis Powers. But the basis for a world organization had yet to be defined, and such a definition came at the meeting of the Foreign Ministers of Great Britain, the United States and the Soviet Union in 1943, at the conferences held in

Moscow and Tehran. The principles of the world organization-to-be laid down in conferences held in Dumbarton Oaks (1944) and at the end of the European scene of World War II in Yalta.

In Spring 1945, representatives of 50 countries—which had declared war on Germany and Japan and had subscribed to the United Nations Declaration—met in San Francisco at the United Nations Conference on International Organization to draw up the United Nations Charter. The basis of proposals was worked out by the representatives of China, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States at Dumbarton Oaks, United States in August-October 1944. The Charter was signed on 26 June 1945 by the representatives of the 50 countries. Poland, which was not represented at the Conference, signed it later and became one of the original 51 Member States.

The United Nations officially came into existence on 24 October 1945, when the Charter had been ratified by China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, the United States and by a majority of other signatories, and thus entered into force. United Nations Day is celebrated on 24 October each year. The Charter of the United Nations is mostly the same as it was accepted in 1945, although it had been amended three times (in 1963, 1965 and 1971).

The Preamble of the Charter explains the founding of the organization as follows:

Preamble

We the peoples of the United Nations determined

- *to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and*
- *to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and*
- *to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and*
- *to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,*
and for these ends
- *to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and*
- *to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and*
- *to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and*
- *to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples,*

have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims

Accordingly, our respective Governments, through representatives assembled in the city of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations.

4.2. Purpose

The UN has 4 main purposes: i) to keep peace throughout the world; ii) to develop friendly relations among nations; iii) to help nations work together to improve the lives of poor people, to conquer hunger, disease and illiteracy, and to encourage respect for each other's rights and freedoms; iv) to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations to achieve these goals.

Article 1 of the Charter declares these aims:

Article 1

The Purposes of the United Nations are:

- 1. To maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace;*
- 2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;*
- 3. To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and*
- 4. To be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.*

4.3. Principles

Article 2 of the Charter sets the principles of the United Nations which mainly covers the principles of international law as well. The principles shall govern the organization and its member states in pursuit of the purposes stated in Article 1. These principles are binding on all states, even if they are not members of the UN, since these principles also exist in customary international law.

4.3.1. Sovereignty and equality

Article 2 (1)

The Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its Members.

Sovereignty and equality of states have been a principle of international law and relations since the Peace of Westphalia (1648). Sovereignty is an abstract manifestation of the existence and power of the state. Originally it was linked to the head of state, but this personalization was gradually replaced by the abstract concept. One of the most important features of sovereignty is immunity from the action of other states, meaning that other states cannot manifest their power over it. E.g.: The courts of one state cannot rule over the other state; one state's police cannot take action on the territory of the other.

Since all states are sovereign this resulted in the principle of equality. If no state is above the other in legal sense, then they are all equal. It shall be noted that this is only legal equality, and does not mean equal size, population and wealth. Legal equality has a few exceptions, the most important one is the additional rights of the permanent members of the UN Security Council. China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States have veto power with respect to decisions about peace and security issues – however this additional right is also paired with additional responsibility, namely it is their primary task to sustain peace.

4.3.2. Good faith

Article 2 (2)

All Members, in order to ensure to all of them the rights and benefits resulting from membership, shall fulfil in good faith the obligations assumed by them in accordance with the present Charter.

“One of the basic principles governing the creation and performance of legal obligations, whatever their source, is the principle of good faith. Trust and confidence are inherent in international co-operation.” (Nuclear Tests case, ICJ Reports, 1974, p. 253.) It is a background principle shaping the observance of existing rules of international law. It is indispensable for friendly relations among states, it sets the ground for trust in each other.

This principle is also closely linked to the most important principle of treaty law, namely *pacta sunt servanda*. This Latin term means that international agreements are binding and shall be respected. The law of treaties rests undoubtedly upon this principle since the whole concept of binding international agreements can only be based upon the presupposition that they are commonly accepted as having that quality.

4.3.3. Peaceful settlement of disputes

Article 2 (3)

All Members shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered.

For centuries it was allowed to settle disputes by the means of weapons, but in 1899 states took a different point of view and declared in one of The Hague Conventions, namely the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes (Art. 1.) that “With a view to obviating, as far as possible, recourse to force in the relations between States, the Signatory Powers agree to use their best efforts to insure the pacific settlement of international differences.”

There are several peaceful methods which can successfully solve problems. These methods fall into two major categories: i) diplomatic procedures and ii) adjudication. Article 33 (1) of the UN Charter says that the parties to any dispute shall *seek a solution by negotiation, inquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice.*

Bilateral or multilateral negotiations are helpful at the beginning of a dispute, however when the relationship of the parties worsens they might need outside help. The use of a third party, whether an individual, a state or a group of states or an international organization can be of great assistance.

When providing good offices, the third party attempts to influence the opposing sides to enter into negotiations, whereas mediation implies the active participation in the negotiation process. The mediator usually offers solutions to the dispute. The offer of assistance shall not be regarded by any of the parties to the dispute as unfriendly, hostile acts.

Where differences of opinion on factual matters underlie a dispute, institution of a commission of inquiry might help. In this case reputable observers and experts are asked to ascertain precisely the facts of the situation, they conduct an impartial and thorough investigation. While mediation and good offices is often used by states, inquiry is rather applied within the UN and other organizations.

In conciliation not only the basis of the dispute is investigated by the conciliator, but suggestions for the settlement are embodied in a report. It involves elements of both inquiry and mediation.

Diplomatic procedures are sometimes institutionalized, most of the IOs naturally have a task of dispute settlement. The UN Charter recognizes that possibility too, when accepting that peaceful settlement can also be provided by or through the organs of international organizations. E.g.: The African Union established several commissions and mechanisms in an attempt to solve boundary disputes of African states or to mediate in other issues.

Judicial settlement of a dispute is another possibility; in this case the opposing parties refer the case to a court. It can either be before an existing court, like the International Court of Justice or they can choose arbitrators, who will decide the case.

The judgment of a court or arbitration tribunal is compulsory for the parties (while diplomatic methods do not provide binding results).

4.3.4. Prohibition of threat or use of force

Article 2 (4)

All Members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations.

Article 2 (5)

All Members shall give the United Nations every assistance in any action it takes in accordance with the present Charter, and shall refrain from giving assistance to any state against which the United Nations is taking preventive or enforcement action.

Article 2 (6)

The Organization shall ensure that states which are not Members of the United Nations act in accordance with these Principles so far as may be necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security.

The prohibition of threat or use of force is enshrined in Article 2 (4) of the Charter, but the following two points shall also be dealt with here. Article 2 (4) is regarded now as a principle of customary international law and as such is binding upon all states in the world community, even if they are not members of the UN. This principle had a long period of evolution, from the concepts of just war. Already in ancient times and then in the Middle Ages theories and conditions of just war were introduced, mainly by publicists. However, direct antecedents of the principle were the founding document of the League of Nations and the 1928 Briand-Kellogg Pact, in which states have resigned the right to use force in order to settle their disputes.

One of the main tasks of the UN is to sustain peace and all member states should help these efforts (Art. 2(5)). The specialty of the United Nations is described in Article 2 (6), directly admitting that actions of the UN taken for the maintenance or restoration of peace shall be respected even by non-member states. That is a unique provision, since usually an act of an organization is binding only on its members.

The prohibition of use of force has only two exceptions: i) self-defence and ii) authorization by the Security Council under Chapter VII of the Charter. The right to self-defence is guaranteed by Article 51 of the Charter, which declares:

Article 51

Nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defence if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations,

until the Security Council has taken measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken by Members in the exercise of this right of self-defence shall be immediately reported to the Security Council and shall not in any way affect the authority and responsibility of the Security Council under the present Charter to take at any time such action as it deems necessary in order to maintain or restore international peace and security.

The other exception will be discussed in detail in the chapter about the Security Council.

4.3.5. Principle of non-intervention

Article 2 (7)

Nothing contained in the present Charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state or shall require the Members to submit such matters to settlement under the present Charter; but this principle shall not prejudice the application of enforcement measures under Chapter VII.

This principle is founded upon the concept of territorial sovereignty. Intervention is prohibited where it bears upon matters in which each state is permitted to decide freely by virtue of the principle of state sovereignty. These matters include the choice of political, economic, social and cultural systems and the formulation of foreign policy. Intervention supposes that coercion is used in regard to such choices, which must be free. Although the Charter only defines this obligation towards the United Nations, it is a customary obligation of all states too.

4.4. Structure of the UN

The UN has a complex system of organs, committees, funds, programmes and specialized agencies. Altogether these are called the United Nations Family. All of them are linked to the six principal organs of the UN:

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1) General Assembly, | 2) Secretariat, | 3) Security Council, |
| 4) Economic and Social Council, | 5) International Court of Justice, | 6) Trusteeship Council. |

The work of these organs will be discussed in detail in the next two chapters.

4.5. Membership in the UN

Membership, in accordance with the Charter, “is open to all peace-loving States that accept the obligations contained in the United Nations Charter and, in the judgment of the Organization, are able to carry out these obligations”. States are admitted to membership in the UN by decision of the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council.

The UN had 51 founding members, mainly the Allied and neutral countries in World War II. The number of members was year-by-year rising in the 1950s, with the admission of the former enemies (like Hungary, Bulgaria, Italy, Japans) and the newly independent colonies (E.g.: Burma, Laos, Sudan, Guinea). By the end of the year 1960 the organization had doubled – in terms of membership. From then a steady rise had started, with the joining of 3-4 states every year, mainly the former colonial territories. This growth is apparent until about 1975, then it slowed down until the end of the Cold War. In 1990 the UN had 159 members, and within 5 years 26 countries had been admitted. Most of these were the successors of the Soviet Union, like Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and of Yugoslavia, like Slovenia and Croatia. Today the organization has 193 members, the newest one is South-Sudan since 2011.

Non-member states of the United Nations, which are members of one or more specialized agencies, can apply for the status of “permanent observer”. The status of a permanent observer is based purely on practice, and there are no provisions for it in the Charter. In the era of the Cold War mainly neutral states acted as permanent observers, like Switzerland, who later became members of the UN. Today there’s only one commonly recognized state which is a permanent observer and that is the Vatican (Holy See). Palestine is another entity which is permanently participating as an observer. Permanent observers have free access to most meetings and relevant documentation.

4.6. Headquarters

Although New York is the most famous headquarter of the UN, it is not the only one. New York is the seat of 5 principal organs, the only exception is the International Court of Justice, which is based in The Hague.

Furthermore, UN has 3 regional headquarters in Geneva (Switzerland), Vienna (Austria) and Nairobi (Kenya). The Geneva headquarter (UNOG) is the building of the former centre of the League of Nations, it constitutes a world centre for diplomatic conferences and an operational base for a great number of activities in the economic and social fields. A focal point for multilateral diplomacy, UNOG services more than 8,000 meetings every year, making it one of the busiest conference centres in the world. It is the biggest UN duty stations outside of the New York headquarters.

The United Nations Office at Vienna (UNOV) was established on 1 January 1980 as the third United Nations Headquarters after New York and Geneva, it hosts several UN offices, such as the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and UN Office for Outer Space Affairs.

The United Nations Office at Nairobi, the UN headquarters in Africa, was established by the General Assembly in 1996. It facilitates cooperation between the United Nations and regional organizations, provides administrative and other support services to the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat); provides joint and common services to other organizations of the United Nations system in Africa.

Apart from the 4 main headquarters, UN has several offices and centres, for example the UN Volunteers is based in Bonn, 63 information centres are scattered all around the world (E.g.: 11 in Asian cities, like Kathmandu, Islamabad, New Delhi and Tokyo), and the specialized agencies are also seated in different cities, for example UNESCO in Paris (France) or FAO in Rome (Italy).

4.7. Official languages

The UN has six official languages: Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. Publication of documents and materials takes place in all 6 languages, except for some institutions. The International Court of Justice only uses French and English.

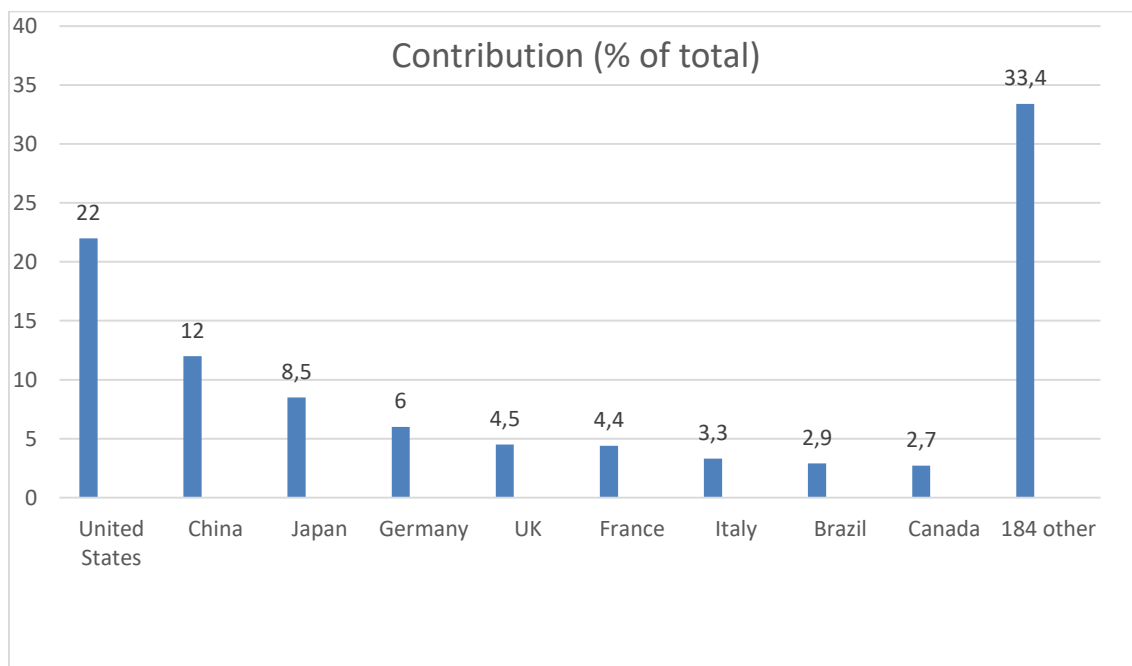
4.8. Budget

Every member of the UN shall contribute to its work with financial means. The expenses shall be borne by the Members as apportioned by the General Assembly. The UN has a regular budget of approximately 3 billion USD which covers such costs as the maintenance of the HQ, salary of the staff, political management and co-ordination, international and regional development co-operation, international law and justice, information services. This budget does not entail the expenses of peace-keeping, programmes and funds, special agencies.

The General Assembly examines in every 2nd year the economic power of every state and their GDP, which forms the basis of decision in the apportioning of the contribution. The General Assembly plans the budget, assesses how much money is needed for the operation of the UN, then decides what percentage of it shall be provided by each state (with respect to their capacity).

The United States is the biggest contributor with paying 22% of the total regular budget. The US is followed by some of the most developed countries, altogether 66 % of

the budget is paid by 9 states, while the other 184 members of the UN only pay 33% of the total budget (see the diagram below). These countries each pay less than 1%. The smallest contribution is 0.001%, which is paid by the least developed, smallest states or countries stricken with armed conflicts, famine, natural disasters. In 2021 this category involved among others Somalia, Rwanda, Liberia, Kyrgyzstan, Eritrea, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Timor-Leste, Togo, and Nauru.



A Member State in arrears in the payment of its dues – in an amount that equals or exceeds the contributions due for two preceding years – can lose its vote in the General Assembly. For example, Iran, Republic of Congo and Zimbabwe were sanctioned based on this rule. An exception is allowed if the Members State can show that conditions beyond its control contributed to this inability to pay, such as civil wars, natural disasters. E.g.: The General Assembly permitted voting in the GA to 6 countries in the 66th session (2011-12) who couldn't pay their share: Comoros, Sao Tome and Principe and Somalia and the probation is still ongoing as of 2021.

Above the contribution to the regular budget further financial and material contribution is needed in order to execute peace-keeping and to operate special agencies, programmes, funds. Member states contribute voluntarily by sending money, troops, experts, food etc. This extra contribution totals in about 10 billion USD/year (out of which about 7 billion is spent on peace-keeping). Thus altogether the regular and extra budget of the UN is approximately 12-13 billion USD/year, phrased in other words, that is the amount of money spent by 193 countries to make the world better and more peaceful. When comparing that sum to other data it proves to be surprisingly insignificant: global

military expenditure stood at over 1917 billion USD in year 2019; McDonald's spent about 447.3 million USD on advertising in 2019; Apple spent almost 248 million USD on advertising in 2018the biggest lottery win in the USA was 640 million USD.

Check your knowledge!

Why and how was the UN established?

What is the purpose of the United Nations?

What are the principles of the international system?

What kind of peaceful methods exist for settlement of international disputes?

What is the difference between the prohibition of use of force and the prohibition of intervention?

Which are the principal organs of the UN?

How can a country become the member of the UN?

Describe the budget of and the contribution of the countries to the UN!

Useful websites:

United Nations: www.un.org

5. United Nations II. - General Assembly, Secretariat, International Court of Justice, Economic and Social Council

5.1. General Assembly (GA)

The General Assembly occupies a central position as the chief deliberative, policymaking and representative organ of the United Nations. Comprising all 193 Members of the United Nations, it provides a unique forum for multilateral negotiation of the full spectrum of international issues covered by the Charter. It also plays a significant role in the process of standard-setting and the codification of international law. The Assembly meets in regular session intensively from September to December each year, and thereafter as required. Special sessions may be called by the Secretary-General at the request of the Security Council or the majority of UN members. Such special sessions have been held to discuss issues, like Palestine in 1947-48, apartheid in 1989, drug abuses in 1998, HIV/AIDS in 2001, children in 2002, human rights issues in Aleppo and in South Sudan in 2016, and recently in Myanmar in 2021. Emergency sessions may also be called if urgently needed when peace is threatened. Such sessions have been convened with respect to the Middle East situation several times (1956, 1958, 1967, 1982, 1997-2002), about Afghanistan in 1980.

5.1.1. Functions and powers of the General Assembly

According to the Charter of the United Nations (Art. 10-17), the General Assembly may:

- Consider and make recommendations on the general principles of cooperation for maintaining international peace and security, including disarmament;
- Discuss any question relating to international peace and security and, except where a dispute or situation is currently being discussed by the Security Council, make recommendations on it;
- Discuss, with the same exception, and make recommendations on any questions within the scope of the Charter or affecting the powers and functions of any organ of the United Nations;
- Initiate studies and make recommendations to promote international political cooperation, the development and codification of international law, the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and international collaboration in the economic, social, humanitarian, cultural, educational and health fields;
- Make recommendations for the peaceful settlement of any situation that might impair friendly relations among nations;
- Receive and consider reports from the Security Council and other United Nations organs;

- Consider and approve the United Nations budget and establish the financial assessments of Member States;
- Elect the non-permanent members of the Security Council and the members of other United Nations councils and organs and, on the recommendation of the Security Council, appoint the Secretary-General.

Pursuant to its “Uniting for Peace” resolution of 1950, the Assembly may also take action if the Security Council fails to act, owing to the negative vote of a permanent member, in a case where there appears to be a threat to the peace, breach of the peace or act of aggression. The Assembly can consider the matter immediately with a view to making recommendations to Members for collective measures to maintain or restore international peace and security.

While the Assembly is empowered to make only non-binding recommendations to states on international issues within its competence, it has, nonetheless, initiated actions – political, economic, humanitarian, social and legal – which have affected the lives of millions of people throughout the world. The role of the GA has increased since its inception, due not only to the failure of the Security Council to function effectively, but also to the enormous growth in membership. While the Security Council is the playground of the big powers, the GA is the perfect stage for the smaller countries, since all members have equal votes. The influence and the activity of the Assembly have proved vital in the creation and consolidation of a new method of maintaining international peace. The landmark Millennium Declaration, adopted in 2000, and the 2005 World Summit Outcome Document reflect the commitment of member states to reach specific goals to attain peace, security and disarmament along with development and poverty eradication; safeguard human rights and promote the rule of law; protect environment; meet the special needs of Africa; and strengthen the United Nations.

5.1.2. Landmark decisions of the General Assembly

The General Assembly had accepted some very important decisions in the field of human rights, peace and development. Out of the many, here only a few selected ones are presented for demonstration.

1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was inspired by the aims of the United Nations, which expressly stated protection of human rights, although the Charter does not contain a catalogue of human rights. In 1948 the GA accepted the first international document which is although not binding on states – since it was accepted in the form of a GA resolution and not as a treaty – but had become the basis for many later human rights conventions, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966). The Universal Declaration is considered to have gained binding power through customary law. It ensures such rights as the right to life, prohibition of torture and right to marry.

1950 Uniting for Peace

In Resolution 377 of 1950, titled “Uniting for Peace” the General Assembly states that if the UN Security Council “fails to exercise its primary responsibility” of maintaining international peace and security, the General Assembly can and should take up the matter itself and urge member states to consider collective action. The Assembly may also take action if the Security Council fails to act owing to the negative vote of a permanent member in a case where there appears to be a threat to the peace, breach of the peace or act of aggression. The assembly has enacted this resolution in a handful of instances, including the Suez crisis of 1956.

1960 Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples

By the end of the 1950s many states pushed in the GA for more action in the liberation of colonial countries. It was a regular topic and the GA has decided to accept a declaration which states that the United Nations has an important role in assisting the movement for independence in Trust Territories (see 5.4. of this Chapter) and that all peoples have the right to self-determination. All peoples have the right to have their country with a political and economic system of their choice. Many members of the GA thought that colonial powers didn’t do all they could have to end colonialism, thus the declaration states that it should come to a speedy and unconditional end for the sake of universal peace.

2000 Millennium Declaration

The Millennium Declaration was accepted by the GA in 2000 at the proposal of Secretary-General Kofi Annan. It set forth the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), a collection of “time-bound and measurable” targets for combating illiteracy, HIV/AIDS, malaria, dangers to the environment, bad living standards, etc.

For fulfilment of the MDGs 15 years was planned and every fifth year an assessment is made. In 2005 the survey showed improvement in many fields, but later the economic crisis slowed the process, in some fields it even stopped. By 2015 the original targets – probably – cannot be fulfilled, however it brought change in policies and common aims for all nations.

5.1.3. Voting

Each member state of the UN has one vote in the GA, even though each member state can have not more than five representatives in the GA. Votes taken on designated important issues, such as recommendations on peace and security and the election of Security Council members, judges of the ICJ, the budget, require a two-thirds majority of Member States, but other questions are decided by simple majority. In recent years, a special effort has been made to achieve consensus on issues, rather than deciding by a formal vote, thus strengthening support for the Assembly’s decisions. The President, after

having consulted and reached agreement with delegations, can propose that a resolution be adopted without a vote.

5.1.4. Subsidiary Organs of the General Assembly

The subsidiary organs of the General Assembly are divided into categories: Boards, Commissions, Committees, Councils, Panels, Working Groups and others.

After discussing the items on the agenda, seeking where possible to harmonize the various approaches of states, the subsidiary organs present their recommendations, usually in the form of draft resolutions and decisions, to a plenary meeting of the Assembly for its consideration. GA has six main committees which cover i) disarmament and international security; ii) economic and financial; iii) social, humanitarian and cultural; iv) special political and decolonisation; v) administrative and budgetary; vi) legal matters. Loads of other committees, commissions etc. deal with relevant topics of the GA, for example the International Law Commission (ILC), UN Commission on International Trade Law (UNCITRAL) and the UN Institute for Training and Research.

5.2. Secretariat

The Secretariat consists of the Secretary-General (SG) and his staff. Both the Secretary-General and members of the staff are independent from all governments and other entities, they only represent the UN.

5.2.1. Functions of the Secretariat

The SG is the main representative of the UN; he is the chief administrative officer. He shall act in that capacity and perform such other functions as are entrusted to him or her by the Security Council, General Assembly, Economic and Social Council and other United Nations organs. The Charter also empowers the Secretary-General to bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security. These guidelines both define the powers of the office and grant it considerable scope for action.

The Secretary-General would fail if he did not take careful account of the concerns of member states, but he must also uphold the values and moral authority of the United Nations, and speak and act for peace. Each year, the Secretary-General issues a report that appraises its activities and outlines future priorities. Each Secretary-General also defines his role within the context of his particular time in office, for example current SG Ban Ki-moon set – among others – sustainable development, conflict-prevention, support of nations in transition as his preferences.

The team of the Secretary-General: one Deputy SG, a senior management group which consists of senior diplomats, who help the management of the Secretariat and the

UN, and approx. 40 special representatives and envoys, mainly sent to places where peace is or has been endangered, for example to Western Sahara, Yemen, Sudan, Somalia, Libya etc.

5.2.2. The Secretary-General (SG)

The Secretary-General is appointed by the GA upon the unanimous recommendation of the Security Council. Thus he has to be acceptable to all the permanent members, and this is vital in order to being effective when in office. After the recommendation of the SC, the GA votes on the matter, and elects the person who receives at least the two-third of the votes. The SG is elected to 5 years, but can be re-elected, as it usually happens.

The personality, integrity, independence and impartiality of the SG is very important, his role in international affairs has varied greatly owing to this. The SG is often asked to be a mediator in international conflicts or to provide good offices, can influence decisions of the concerned parties and strengthen international peace. During the Cold War period impartiality of the SGs was even more essential, thus they were chosen from countries which were neutral. The UN had 8 Secretary-Generals yet, all men.

Trygve Lie (Norway, in office: 1946-52 - resigned)

Prior to his election as the first secretary-general of the United Nations, Lie led the Norwegian delegation to the UN Conference on International Organization in San Francisco, April 1945; chaired Commission III, which drafted the Security Council provisions of the UN Charter; and in 1946 he led the Norwegian delegation to the UN General Assembly in London. While in office, Lie supported UN intervention in the Korean War and the foundation of Israel and Indonesia. He also advocated UN recognition of People's Republic of China upon the exile of the Nationalist government.

Dag Hammarskjöld (Sweden, in office: 1953-61)

Dag Hammarskjöld was unanimously elected to two terms as secretary-general and served until September 18, 1961, when he died in a plane crash en route to a peace mission in the Congo. Mr. Hammarskjöld's most significant contributions to the United Nations' mission include promotion of Armistice Agreements between Israel and the Arab States; the 1956 establishment of the UN Emergency Force (UNEF); and multiple visits to countries in Africa, Asia, Europe, the Americas, and the Middle East to acquaint himself with officials of member governments and problems in specific areas. He is considered to be the most energetic and emblematic secretary-general.

U Thant (Burma, in office: 1961-71)

U Thant served as acting secretary-general after Dag Hammarskjöld's death. Just over a year later, the General Assembly voted unanimously to make him SG. At the time of his appointment, U Thant was the permanent representative of Burma to the UN, and had previously chaired the UN Congo Conciliation Commission and the Committee on a

UN Capital Development Fund. Under his leadership, the UN assisted in facilitating the end of the Cuban missile crisis and allayed civil war in the Congo.

Kurt Waldheim (Austria, in office: 1972-81)

Before he was elected SG, Waldheim was the permanent representative of Austria to the UN. During his leadership, Waldheim participated in the Paris International Conference on Vietnam and presided over the first phase of the Geneva Peace Conference on the Middle East. Five years after his second term ended, Waldheim was elected President of Austria, a post he held until 1992; however, during the campaign his service in the Nazi German Army came to light. Though he declared no personal involvement, Waldheim was implicated in Nazi atrocities in the Balkans during World War II and was subsequently barred from entering the United States by the Justice Department.

Javier Pérez de Cuéllar (Peru, in office: 1982-91)

Before assuming office, Perez de Cuellar was Peru's ambassador to Switzerland, the Soviet Union, Poland, and Venezuela; served as his nation's permanent representative to the United Nations; and represented Peru on the Security Council, even serving as the Council's president. In 1979, he was appointed under-secretary-general for special political affairs. While in office, the UN leader oversaw negotiations for the release of American hostages in Lebanon, facilitated the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan, negotiated the ceasefire ending the Iran-Iraq War, and developed the 1991 UN-backed peace pact in Cambodia.

Boutros Boutros-Ghali (Egypt, in office: 1992-96)

Boutros-Ghali served one term as SG, suspending his candidacy for a second term after conflicts with US foreign-policy leaders. He has an extensive international relations background as a scholar, diplomat, and jurist. Boutros-Ghali's term in office was marked by increased operating costs and ineffective peacekeeping efforts that proved burdensome to the UN. The UN has failed in preventing genocide in the territory of former Yugoslavia and Rwanda.

Kofi A. Annan (Ghana, in office: 1997-2006)

Began his career as a budget officer with the WHO and rose through the ranks to become UN under-secretary-general. In 1995 he was appointed the SG's special representative to the former Yugoslavia. His Millennium Report advocated the Millennium Development Goals, initiatives to eradicate poverty, combat HIV/AIDS, and protect the environment.

Ban Ki-moon (Republic of Korea, in office: 2007-2017)

As a SG, he emphasized climate change policy, gave effort to mitigate the surging prices of both energy and food in the developing world, and an inherited portfolio of issues including nuclear non-proliferation negotiations with Iran and continued efforts to solidify the United Nations' role in the Darfur conflict. Prior to serving as SG, Ban was South Korea's Minister of Foreign Affairs and Trade, prior to that, since 1970 had served

in a variety of diplomatic roles inside and outside of Korea, including posts at embassies in the United States, Austria, and India. He worked for the UN between 2001 and 2004, when he served as chief of staff to the president of the General Assembly.

António Guterres (Portugal, in office since: 2017)

Guterres is a former Prime Minister of Portugal and was a chair of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, where he chaired the Committee on Demography, Migration and Refugees. Prior to his appointment as Secretary-General, Mr. Guterres served as United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees from June 2005 to December 2015, heading one of the world's foremost humanitarian organizations during some of the most serious displacement crises in decades. His agenda mostly focuses on the migration and refugee issues which are one of the most discussed topics since mid-2000s, besides the other important topics.

5.3. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

It is the UN's largest and most complex subsidiary body. Most of the economic, social, cultural and health activities of the UN is performed by ECOSOC, which also has a coordinating function for the work of the UN and the specialized agencies. It consists of 54 members, 18 of which are elected each year by the GA for a 3-year term. ECOSOC membership is based on geographic representation: 14 seats are allocated to Africa, 11 to Asia, 6 to Eastern Europe, 10 to Latin America and the Caribbean, and 13 to Western Europe and other areas. Each member has one vote, but its powers are restricted to recommendations which are non-binding upon the member states. Decisions are taken by simple majority vote.

5.3.1. *Work in the ECOSOC*

The ECOSOC currently holds an organizational session in the spring and a substantive session in July. The substantive session, convened alternately in New York (even years) and Geneva (odd years), is divided into the following parts: high-level segment, operational activities segment, coordination segment, humanitarian affairs segment and general segment.

A number of subsidiary bodies (e.g.: Commission on Population and Development, Commission on Sustainable Development) fall within the purview of the ECOSOC and are required to report annually (sometimes biannually) on their activities. The reports contain resolutions/decisions adopted by the subsidiary body and may, in some instances, forward draft resolutions or decisions which are being recommended to the Council or through the Council to the Assembly for adoption.

The Secretary-General also reports to the Council on issues called for by resolutions. ECOSOC conducts studies; formulates resolutions, recommendations, and conventions for consideration by the General Assembly; and coordinates the activities of

various UN organizations. Most of ECOSOC's work is performed in functional commissions on topics such as human rights, narcotics, population, social development, statistics, the status of women, and science and technology. There are expert bodies, standing committees, agencies, and ad hoc bodies working with or assisting to the ECOSOC.

5.3.2. ECOSOC and the importance of NGOs

The UN Charter allows ECOSOC to grant consultative status to non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

An NGO is an organization founded by states and/or private actors, but is governed and managed only by private actors. States can participate in sponsoring the NGO, however it cannot have governing rights. NGOs are founded under the national law of the state in which it has its headquarters, thus it is not under international law. NGOs do not have international legal personality, they are not subjects of international law (the only exception is the International Committee of the Red Cross). Usually NGOs are established in order to perform such tasks which are not done by the state either owing to incapability or unwillingness.

Beginning in the mid-1990s, measures were taken to increase the participation of NGOs in the work of the UN, and by the early 21st century more than 2,500 NGOs had been granted consultative status. Already at the establishment of the UN it was acknowledged that NGOs can assist the work of UN, especially when dealing with issues of poverty, social and cultural matters. In 1946 40 NGO received consultative status, by 1992 their number rose to 700 and today more than 5000 have acquired that status. NGOs with consultative status need to report to the UN on their activities and they help the work of the UN.

The consultative status has 3 categories:

- general,
- special,
- roster.

In the general category there are about 140 NGOs which can participate at all meetings since they deal with most of the issues of ECOSOC. E.g.: Caritas Internationalis, Greenpeace International, International Alliance of Women, Muslim World League, Socialist International.

NGOs – about 4400 – dealing with special matters belong to the 2nd category and have consultative right with respect to the concerned issues. E.g.: Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch in human rights, AIDS Action against HIV/AIDS, Habitat for Humanity in settlement and living conditions.

NGOs on the roster list – about 960 – are chosen to consult only when their special matters are concerned. E.g.: American Motorcyclist Association, Arab NGO Network for Development, Asian Buddhist Conference for Peace and China Association of Women Entrepreneurs.

5.4. The Trusteeship Council

In setting up an International Trusteeship System, the Charter established the Trusteeship Council as one of the main organs of the United Nations and assigned to it the task of supervising the administration of Trust Territories placed under the Trusteeship System. Major goals of the System were to promote the advancement of the inhabitants of Trust Territories and their progressive development towards self-government or independence. Trust territories were the former colonies and territories belonging to the League of Nations' Mandate System. By the end of World War II several former colonies had gained independence, like Iraq (1932), Syria (1946), India (1947), but still there were many of them. Altogether 100 territory became Trust Territory.

The aims of the Trusteeship System have been fulfilled to such an extent that all Trust Territories have attained self-government or independence, either as separate States or by joining neighbouring independent countries. The Trusteeship Council suspended operation in 1994, with the independence of Palau, the last remaining United Nations trust territory. The Council amended its rules of procedure to drop the obligation to meet annually and agreed to meet as occasion required. The Trusteeship Council is made up of the P5 of the Security Council.

5.5. International Court of Justice (ICJ)

The seat of the Court is at the Peace Palace in The Hague (Netherlands). The Court is assisted by a Registry, its administrative organ. Its official languages are English and French. The founding document of the Court is the Statute which is an integral part of the Charter.

The Court's role is to settle, in accordance with international law, legal disputes submitted to it by States and to give advisory opinions on legal questions referred to it by authorized United Nations organs and specialized agencies.

5.5.1. Judges

The Court is composed of 15 judges, who are elected for nine years by the UN General Assembly and the Security Council. In order to ensure a measure of continuity, one third of the Court is elected every three years. Judges are eligible for re-election. Should a judge die or resign during his or her term of office, a special election is held as soon as possible to choose a judge to fill the unexpired part of the term.

Judges must be elected from among persons of high moral character, who possess the qualifications required in their respective countries for appointment to the highest judicial offices, or are experts of international law. Judges must be fluent in at least one of the official languages of the Court. The Court may not include more than one national of the same state. Moreover, the Court as a whole must represent the main forms of civilization and the principal legal systems of the world. Although there is no entitlement to membership on the part of any country, the Court has always included judges of the nationality of the permanent members of the Security Council. Once elected, the judge is not a delegate of any government or other institution. They have to exercise their powers impartially and conscientiously. No judge may engage in any other occupation during his/her term. He/she is not allowed to exercise any political or administrative function, nor to act as agent, counsel or advocate in any case.

When a state which has a case at the Court does not have a judge of its nationality can choose an *ad hoc* judge. The *ad hoc* judge has exactly the same rights as the other judges, but only serves in the Court in the concerned case. In the cases the judgment is rendered not by the 15, but 16 or 17 judges.

All judges enjoy privileges and immunities comparable with those of the head of a diplomatic mission. Each Member of the Court receives an annual salary consisting of a base salary (approx. 176,000 USD), with a special supplementary allowance of 15,000 USD for the President.

5.5.2. Cases

The Court may entertain two types of cases:

- contentious cases: legal disputes between states submitted to it by them, and
- advisory proceedings: requests for advisory opinions on legal questions referred to it by United Nations organs and specialized agencies.

As it will be seen in the following parts, the ICJ can only decide disputes between countries (and not between people, international organizations or NGOs), and it can help the organs of the UN with advice.

5.5.3. Contentious cases

Only states may be parties to contentious cases. The Court is competent to entertain a dispute only if the states concerned have accepted its jurisdiction. That means that the Court shall deal with the dispute only if the states involved agree to it. Acceptance of the jurisdiction of the Court can happen in several ways, for example by entering into a special agreement to submit the dispute to the Court; or when the states are parties to a treaty containing a provision that in the event of a disagreement over the interpretation or

application of the treaty, one of them may refer the dispute to the Court; or by a unilateral acceptance of the jurisdiction of the Court.

Proceedings may be instituted by one of the parties of the dispute (the applicant state sends an application to the Court against the respondent state) or the parties of the dispute together request the Court's proceeding in a special agreement (thus there's no applicant and respondent in this case).

Contentious proceedings have two phases: i) a written phase, in which the parties file and exchange pleadings containing a detailed statement of the points of fact and of law on which each party relies; ii) an oral phase consisting of public hearings at which agents and counsel address the Court. After the oral proceedings the Court withdraws to deliberate and then delivers its judgment at a public sitting. The judgment includes the facts, relevant law, pleadings of the parties, the comments of the Court, how judges voted in each of the issues and if any judge wishes to do so he or she may append an opinion to the judgment.

The judgment is final, binding on the parties to a case and without appeal. A state which contends that the other side has failed to perform the obligations under a judgment rendered by the Court may lay the matter before the Security Council, which is empowered to recommend or decide upon the measures to be taken to give effect to the judgment.

As of April 2021 the Court had almost 120 contentious cases. The United States had the most cases, and out of the permanent members of the Security Council China had the least, namely none. China has never accepted the jurisdiction of the Court, notwithstanding that China has always had a judge in the Court. Among the landmark judgments of the Court can be mentioned the 1967 - North Sea Continental Shelf (Federal Republic of Germany/Netherlands/Denmark); 1979 - United States Diplomatic and Consular Staff in Tehran (United States of America v. Iran); 1984 - Military and Paramilitary Activities in and against Nicaragua (Nicaragua v. United States of America).

5.5.4. Advisory proceedings

Advisory proceedings before the Court are open solely to five organs of the UN and to 16 specialized agencies of the United Nations family. The United Nations General Assembly and Security Council may request advisory opinions on "any legal question". Other United Nations organs and specialized agencies can request advisory opinion only if they have been authorized to do so by the GA. Other organs than the GA and SC is allowed to seek advisory opinions only with respect to "legal questions arising within the scope of their activities".

When it receives a request for an advisory opinion, the Court, in order that it may give its opinion with full knowledge of the facts, is empowered to hold written and oral proceedings, certain aspects of which recall the proceedings in contentious cases.

A few days after the request is filed, the Court draws up a list of those states and IOs that will be able to provide information on the question before the Court. Those states are not in the same position as parties to contentious proceedings, the Court only consults them, but the advisory opinion of the Court will not be binding on them and also the Court is not bound by the information, comment or opinion given by the states and other organizations. After the written phase states are usually invited to present oral statements at public sittings. Advisory proceedings are concluded by the delivery of the advisory opinion at a public sitting.

It is of the essence of such opinions that they are advisory, unlike the Court's judgments, they have no binding effect. The requesting organ, agency or organization remains free to give effect to the opinion by any means open to it, or not to do so. As of April 2021 the Court has rendered 27 advisory opinions on subjects like the international legality of the threat and use of nuclear weapons, the situation in Namibia, the legal consequences of the construction of a wall in the occupied Palestinian territory by Israel, and on the reparation for injuries suffered in the service of the United Nations.

Check your knowledge!

What are the functions and powers of the General Assembly?

Describe three landmark decision of the General Assembly!

Name at least 5 Secretary-Generals and summarize their achievements!

What is an NGO?

How are NGOs related to ECOSOC?

What was the Trusteeship System?

Who can be the judge of the ICJ?

What is the difference between a contentious case and an advisory proceeding?

Useful websites:

United Nations: www.un.org

International Court of Justice: www.icj-cij.org

6. United Nations III. - Security Council (SC)

The Security Council has primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. It is so organized as to be able to function continuously, and a representative of each of its members must be present at all times at UN Headquarters in New York. The Council may meet elsewhere, but rarely does (it only happened twice, in 1972 and 1973 when it held a session first in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and the following year in Panama City, Panama).

6.1. Members

The SC has 15 members: 5 permanent members (China, France, Russia, United Kingdom, United States of America) and 10 non-permanent members, elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms. The number of non-permanent members was increased from six to ten by an amendment of the Charter in 1965. The General Assembly elects 5 new non-permanent members every year, and they are not eligible for immediate re-election after the 2-year term.

Presently (2021) the non-permanent members are Estonia, India, Ireland, Kenya, Mexico, Niger, Norway, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Tunisia and Vietnam. Non-permanent members are elected on a geographical basis, the seats are distributed as follows: Africa 3, Latin America and the Caribbean 2, Asia 2, Western Europe and other States 2, Eastern Europe 1.

The Presidency of the Council rotates monthly, according to the English alphabetical listing of its member States.

6.2. Functions and powers

Chapter V of the UN Charter deals with the composition, functions, powers, procedure and voting of the Security Council. Chapter VI consists of the pacific settlement of disputes and Chapter VII describes the actions with respect to the threats to peace, breaches of peace and acts of aggression. These rules are collected in this chapter of the book, grouped around certain topics.

Under the Charter, the functions and powers of the Security Council are:

- to maintain international peace and security in accordance with the principles and purposes of the United Nations;
- to investigate any dispute or situation which might lead to international friction;
- to recommend appropriate procedures and methods of adjusting such disputes or the terms of settlement;

- to formulate plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments;
- to determine the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression and to recommend what action should be taken or order actions;
- to call on members to apply economic sanctions and other measures, such as complete or partial interruption of economic relations, rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio, and other means of communication, and the severance of diplomatic relations, as it may be necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security;
- to take military action against an aggressor;
- to recommend the admission of new members;
- to recommend to the General Assembly the appointment of the Secretary-General and, together with the Assembly, to elect the judges of the International Court of Justice.

Any member state may bring any dispute or situation to the attention of the Security Council (as well as the General Assembly) in case the member state considers it to be a threat to peace. When a complaint concerning a threat to peace is brought before it, the SC's first action is usually to recommend to the parties to try to reach agreement by peaceful means. In some cases, the SC itself undertakes investigation and mediation. It may appoint special representatives or request the Secretary-General to do so or to use his good offices. It may set forth principles for a peaceful settlement. The Security Council often works in committees and working groups, which deal with special issues, such as terrorism, conflict-prevention, peace-keeping operations, child soldiers, etc.

When a dispute leads to fighting, the SC's first concern is to bring it to an end as soon as possible. On many occasions, the SC has issued cease-fire directives which have been instrumental in preventing wider hostilities. It also sends UN peace-keeping forces to help reduce tensions in troubled areas, keep opposing forces apart and create conditions of calm in which peaceful settlements may be sought. The SC may decide on enforcement measures, economic sanctions (such as trade embargoes) or collective military action.

All members shall make available to the Security Council its armed forces, assistance and facilities, including the rights of passage when it is necessary to maintain or restore peace. In these cases, special agreement is set up between the SC and the concerned states or states.

A member state against which preventive or enforcement action has been taken by the Security Council may be suspended from the exercise of the rights and privileges of membership by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. A member state which has persistently violated the principles of the Charter may be expelled from the United Nations by the GA on the SC's recommendation.

A state which is a member of the UN but not of the Security Council may participate, without a vote, in its discussions when the SC considers that that country's

interests are affected. Both members of the UN and non-members, if they are parties to a dispute being considered by the Security Council, are invited to take part, without a vote, in the SC's discussions.

Under the Charter, all members of the UN agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council. While other organs of the United Nations make recommendations to governments, the SC alone has the power to take decisions which member states are obligated to carry out. Furthermore, the Security Council even has the right to take action against countries which are non-member states if they threaten international peace and security.

As it can be seen from the powers and functions the Security Council is the only international organ that is allowed to take military action, to use force against states or other entities. The use of force is prohibited to all, but in case this prohibition is breached by a state or other entities the attacked state has the right to self-defence (= to use force until the SC decides what to do) and the Security Council can use force to maintain or restore peace.

6.3. Voting

Each Council member has one vote. Decisions on procedural matters are made by an affirmative vote of at least nine of the 15 members. Decisions on substantive matters require nine votes, including the concurring votes of all five permanent members. This is the rule of "Great Power unanimity", often referred to as the "veto" power.

Veto power is only used if a "no" vote is cast by any of the P5, and abstention from voting does not mean the use of veto. The UN Charter does not regulate the event of abstention; it was introduced into the practice of the SC already at the end of the 1940s when the Soviet Union blocked the decisions of the Council by either non-participation or by abstention from voting. In the period of the Cold War the United States and the Soviet Union had regularly used veto to hinder decisions in their area of influence. Thus no decision was delivered on the Vietnam War, on the 1956 revolution in Hungary, or on any of the Israeli-Arab conflicts. The USSR vetoed most often (107 times), then the US (79 times), then United Kingdom (29 times), France (16 times) and China (11 times). Since the end of the Cold War still the US is putting the most veto, however China's vetoing is on the rise with respect to decisions on African conflicts and for example Syria.

6.4. Achievements

6.4.1. Collective security

No matter how ineffective the SC is, it is still the legitimate and authorized body for maintaining peace and providing collective security. Although universal peace is yet

to come, a third world war has been prevented yet. Security and peace is the interest of all countries on the long run, however in the short term some might see war and use of force as a means to gaining power, territory or other advantages. This endangers the security of all the members of the community. In order to restore that security, members of the community can take actions collectively, such as collective self-defence and the SC is also aimed to be the representative organ of the community which is guarding peace and collective security.

6.4.2. Peace-keeping

The concept of peacekeeping is not specifically mentioned as such anywhere in the Charter. It evolved as a pragmatic solution in the early years of the UN when it became apparent that some of the Charter provisions relating to the maintenance of international peace and security could not be implemented as envisaged. Peace-keeping is generally executed by armed forces, but the recipient country has to agree to the presence of the forces. That is why peace-keeping is often referred to as the “Six-and-a-half” Chapter of the Charter.

Since the UN does not have its own military force, it depends on the contributions from member states. Altogether in the history of peace-keeping 117 countries contributed military and police personnel, which shows wide support for peace-keeping. The first operation, the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO), was created in 1948 to supervise the truce called for by the Security Council in Palestine. Since 1948, UN peacekeepers have undertaken 67 field missions. As of April 2021, 13 peace operations had been going on at 4 continents with more than 115,000 personnel. In 2021, the outburst of the COVID-19 pandemic has significantly disrupted UN peacekeeping operations. The UN had to take urgent steps to avoid its peacekeeping operations catching and/or spreading the virus, thus the peacekeeping missions were adapted to reduce mission activities to the most critical tasks only.

As a rule, peacekeeping operations are established by the Security Council, the organ designated by the Charter as primarily responsible for the maintenance of peace and security; the financial aspects of peacekeeping, on the other hand, are considered by the General Assembly.

Peacekeepers deploy to war-torn regions where nobody else is willing or able to go and prevent conflict from returning or escalating. Peacekeeping supports the peace-process, but cannot substitute the lack of will to conclude peace. The main aim of peacekeeping is to provide a secure environment that enables peace efforts to proceed. Peacekeeping shall be conducted impartially and only works when it is widely accepted by the population of that country where it is deployed.

A survey by Oxford University economists found that international military intervention under Chapter VII of the UN Charter is the most cost-effective means of

preventing a return to war in post-conflict societies (see Paul Collier and Anke Hoeffler). The UN increasingly works in peacekeeping partnerships with other international and regional organizations, such as the African Union (AU), the Economic Community of the West African States (ECOWAS) or the European Union (EU).

In addition to maintaining peace and security, peacekeepers are increasingly charged with assisting in political processes, reforming judicial systems, training law enforcement and police forces, disarming and reintegrating former combatants, and supporting the return of internally displaced persons and refugees. UN electoral assistance has become an increasingly essential feature in UN peace operations. UN peace missions have supported elections in several post-conflict countries, including Nepal, Afghanistan, Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Haiti, Iraq, Liberia, and Sudan.

As it can be seen above, the tasks of peacekeeping have changed a lot since the 1950s. Peacekeeping originally meant that troops were deployed to areas where truce was declared in order to prevent the recurrence of the conflict. In this case peacekeeper soldiers could only use their weapons to defend themselves if they were attacked. Their presence was their most important function.

However, the past 25 years of experiences have shown that a long-lasting peace needs assistance in transition to democratic institutions, establishment of systems, infrastructure, schools, development and work for people. International theory created new terms for these tasks, such as peacemaking and peace-building.

Peacemaking seeks to achieve full reconciliation among adversaries and new mutual understanding among parties, it is also called restorative justice or transformative justice, it addresses conflicts at all levels of the society.

Peace-building is designed to prevent the start or resumption of violent conflict within a nation by creating a sustainable peace. Peace-building activities address the root causes or potential causes of violence, create a societal expectation for peaceful conflict resolution and stabilize society politically and socioeconomically. Peace-building involves a range of measures targeted to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management, and to lay the foundations for sustainable peace and development. Peace-building strategies must be coherent and tailored to specific needs of the country concerned, based on national ownership, and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced, and therefore relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the above objectives.

UN peacekeeping has three basic principles:

- consent of the parties: peacekeeping forces shall only be deployed to countries which agreed to it in advance

- impartiality: peacekeeping forces cannot take sides in any conflict, their task is to prevent further military actions
- non-use of force: UN peacekeeping operations are not an enforcement tool. However, they may use force at the tactical level, with the authorization of the Security Council, if acting in self-defence and defence of the mandate. UN peacekeeping operation should only use force as a measure of last resort. (That should not be confused with peace enforcement which is ordered under Chapter VII of the Charter and it doesn't need the consent of the concerned parties.)

6.4.3. Individual criminal responsibility

In many cases the Council was unable to avert a conflict, to take effective decisions, but one of the most creative solutions it ever came up with was the establishment of international criminal tribunals for the prosecution of persons responsible for serious violations of international humanitarian law. Actually the idea came from the Secretary-General, but the SC was willing to act. In the early '90s civil wars raged in the Balkans owing to the dissolution of Yugoslavia. It was especially damaging between 1992 and 1995, even genocide happened. Although most of the enforcement decisions of the SC were vetoed by Russia, in 1993 the P5 agreed in the establishment of an international tribunal which punished the individual perpetrators of crimes against humanity, genocide and for serious breaches of international humanitarian law. A similar tribunal has been set up by the SC in 1994 with respect to Rwanda where a civil war ruined the country and resulted in genocide.

Later the United Nations participated in the establishment of other tribunals too, usually concluding an agreement with the concerned state, providing professional and financial assistance. Such special courts had been set up for example for Sierra Leone, Cambodia, and Lebanon. These special courts have a limited mandate to examine certain events of a non-international armed conflict, their subject-matter is confined to war crimes and crimes against humanity.

The good experiences of these tribunals paved the way to the establishment of a permanent international criminal court, which finally took place in 1998. The Rome Statute of 1998 established the International Criminal Court (ICC), which has started its operation in 2002. It is an independent international court, it is *not* part of the UN system, but the Security Council has certain rights. Article 13 allows the Security Council to refer to the Court situations that would not otherwise fall under the Court's jurisdiction (as it did in relation to the situations in Darfur and Libya, which the Court could not otherwise have prosecuted as neither Sudan nor Libya are state parties). Thus the Court can investigate and prosecute international crimes related to armed conflicts.

6.5. Reform

Even though the geopolitical realities have changed drastically since 1945, when the set-up of the SC was decided, the Security Council has changed very little during this long period. The winners of Second World War shaped the Charter of the United Nations in their national interests, dividing the veto-power pertinent to the permanent seats amongst themselves. With the enlargement of the United Nations membership, processes of decolonization, old structures and procedures were increasingly challenged. The only reform to the number or seats took place in 1965, when the number of non-permanent members was changed from 6 to 10.

In 1992, the reform discussions of the UN Security Council were launched again by the Secretary-General and it has been on the agenda ever since.

By 1992, Japan and Germany had become the second and third largest contributor to the United Nations and started to demand a permanent seat. Also Brazil (fifth largest country in terms of territory) and India (second largest country in terms of population) as the most powerful countries within their regional groups and key players within their regions saw themselves with a permanent seat. This group of four countries formed an interest group later known as the G4.

On the other hand, their regional rivals were opposed to the G4 becoming permanent members with a veto power. They favoured the expansion of the non-permanent category of seats with members to be elected on a regional basis. Italy, Spain, Argentina, Canada, Mexico, South Korea and Pakistan started to form an interest group, known as the “Coffee Club” and later “Uniting for Consensus”.

Simultaneously, the African Group started to demand two permanent seats for themselves, on the basis of historical injustices and the fact that a large part of the Council’s agenda is concentrated on the continent. Those two seats would be permanent African seats that rotate between African countries chosen by the African group. Nevertheless, South Africa and Nigeria have several times expressed their needs to permanent seats, claiming that they are the leading countries in Africa.

The existing permanent members, each holding the right of veto on Security Council reform, announced their positions reluctantly. The United States supported the permanent membership of Japan and India and a small number of additional non-permanent members. The United Kingdom and France essentially supported the G4 position, with the expansion of permanent and non-permanent members and the accession of Germany, Brazil, India and Japan to permanent member status, as well as an increase the presence by African countries on the Council. China supported the stronger representation of developing countries, voicing support for India. Russia, India's long-time friend and ally has also endorsed the fast growing power’s candidature to assume a

seat of a permanent member on the Security Council. Several bodies of the UN, like the Secretary-General and the GA prepared reports about the reform plans.

While there is general agreement that the Security Council needs to be reformed, there is extensive disagreement on how, making the issue extremely divisive. To many, the reform of the Security Council is a question of its continuing legitimacy. Expansion of the membership could help enhance its authority. A review of the working methods could make it more transparent, and agreeing to limit the use of the veto power in cases could broaden its appeal. To others, reforming the Security Council is mainly about increasing their own power; a seat at the table could potentially translate into greatly increased influence over much of the United Nations system.

Reform of the Security Council encompasses five key issues:

- categories of membership,
- the question of the veto held by the five permanent members,
- regional representation,
- the size of an enlarged Security Council and its working methods,
- and the Security Council–General Assembly relationship.

Member States are currently in the midst of submitting and discussing position papers on these topics and negotiations are in full swing.

Check your knowledge!

Who are the members of the Security Council?

What are the functions and powers of the SC?

What are the rules of voting in the SC?

What is the difference between peacekeeping, peacemaking and peace-building?

What does collective security mean?

What are the basic principles of peace-keeping?

How has individual criminal responsibility for war crimes developed in the past decades?

What are the challenges of reforming the UN?

Useful websites:

United Nations: www.un.org

Peacekeeping: <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/>

Reform of the UN: <https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/1302192>

<http://www.globalpolicy.org/un-reform.html>

Summary table of UN tasks and powers

ORGAN	TASK, FUNCTION	POWER
General Assembly	maintain international peace & security, disarmament, discuss any question related to the UN Charter or work of the UN, promote cooperation and development	make recommendations, initiate studies, set up peace operations
	promote and develop international law and human rights	draft treaties, make recommendations, collect and codify customary international law
	promote peaceful settlement of disputes	make recommendations, initiate peaceful methods of dispute settlement
	check all the other organs of the UN, receive and consider their reports	consider the reports, make recommendations
	UN budget	consider and approve it, decide the amount of contribution of every member
	elect: - the non-permanent members of the SC, - the members of other councils and organs, - the judges of ICJ, the Secretary-General	elect them (in some cases together with the SC)
	deal with membership issues	admit new members, suspend membership rights, expel from organization
Secretariat	represent the organization	personally represent, send envoys (to states, IOs)
	administration, assist the work of the UN	participate in the work of the organs, attend all the meetings of the organs of the UN, write yearly report to the GA about the work of the organization, issue reports and studies
	promote international peace & security	request procedure of the SC, make recommendations to UN organs and member states, provide peaceful means of dispute settlement, issue reports & studies

ORGAN	TASK, FUNCTION	POWER
Economic and Social Council	improve the economic, social, education, health, human rights matters and situation	make or initiate studies and reports, make recommendations, draft conventions, call international conferences, consult with NGOs and other organizations, set up commissions
	co-ordinate the activities of the specialized agencies	consult with them, make recommendations, consider their reports
	assist the work of the SC and GA	provide information to SC and GA
International Court of Justice	adjudicate disputes of states	render binding judgment
	give advice to UN organs	give advisory opinion
Security Council	maintain international peace & security, investigate any dispute or situation endangering it, declare the threat or act of aggression	make recommendations, form plans, order actions, call on members to apply sanctions and measures, take military action, set up international tribunals, set up peace operations
	assist the work of the General Assembly	make recommendations about membership (admission, suspension), recommend the person to be elected as Secretary-General, judges of the ICJ

7. United Nations IV. - Specialized agencies

7.1. Definition

Specialized agencies are independently established IOs which sign a treaty with the UN General Assembly to become a specialized agency of the UN. The Economic and Social Council controls the relationship, the special agency reports to ECOSOC. Special agencies have special tasks that help the UN to fulfil its mandate. The UN and the UN specialized agencies altogether are called the UN Family.

Altogether the UN has 15 specialized agencies:

1. FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
2. ICAO: International Civil Aviation Organization
3. IFAD: International Fund for Agricultural Development
4. ILO: International Labour Organization
5. IMF: International Monetary Fund
6. IMO: International Maritime Organization
7. ITU: International Telecommunication Union
8. UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
9. UNIDO: United Nations Industrial Development Organization
10. UNWTO: World Tourism Organization
11. UPU: Universal Postal Union
12. WHO: World Health Organization
13. WIPO: World Intellectual Property Organization
14. WMO: World Meteorological Organization
15. World Bank Group
 - a. IBRD: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
 - b. IDA: International Development Association
 - c. IFC: International Finance Corporation

The reference to the number as 15 Specialized Agencies is because the World Bank Group, which is now treated as one organization, is composed, in part, of three Specialized Agencies are not counted in.

Specialised agencies will be dealt with here in groups of subject matter.

7.2. Agriculture and industry

7.2.1. International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)

Founded: 1944 HQ: Montreal, Canada

Task: safe, secure and sustainable development of civil aviation

Yearly total budget: USD 249 million

No. of members: 193 (192 UN members and Cook Islands)

7.2.2. *International Labour Organization (ILO)*

Founded: 1919 HQ: Geneva, Switzerland

Task: cooperation among governments + employers + workers

Yearly total budget: USD 784 million

ILO is the international organization responsible for drawing up and overseeing international labour standards. ILO is a unique international organization because in its decision-making it's not only governments that are involved, but representatives of employers and workers as well. It is the only 'tripartite' United Nations agency that brings together representatives of governments, employers and workers to jointly shape policies and programmes promoting decent work for all. This unique arrangement gives ILO an edge in incorporating 'real world' knowledge about employment and work.

The organization was established in 1919, as part of the Treaty of Versailles that ended World War I, to reflect the belief that universal and lasting peace can be accomplished only if it is based on social justice. There was keen appreciation of the importance of social justice in securing peace, against a background of exploitation of workers in the industrializing nations of that time. There was also increasing understanding of the world's economic interdependence and the need for cooperation to obtain similarity of working conditions in countries competing for markets.

ILO has 187 members, and it is the global body responsible for drawing up and overseeing international labour standards. The organization launched technical assistance programmes to provide expertise and assistance to governments, workers and employers worldwide, especially in developing nations. In 1998 ILO adopted the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. These principles and rights are the right to freedom of association and collective bargaining and the elimination of child labour, forced labour and discrimination linked to employment. ILO has also developed many international agreements on prohibition of child labour, on standards for women doing hazardous work, on night shifts, etc.

The ILO's broad policies are set by the International Labour Conference, which meets once a year and brings together the organization's constituents. The Conference also adopts new international labour standards and approves the ILO's work plan and budget. Between sessions of the Conference, the ILO is guided by its Governing Body, which is composed of 28 government members, 14 employer members and 14 worker members. The ILO's Secretariat, the International Labour Office, has its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland and maintains field offices in more than 40 countries.

7.2.3. *International Maritime Organization (IMO)*

Founded: 1958 HQ: London, UK
Task: shipping, maritime security No. of members: 174
Yearly total budget: USD 40 million

7.2.4. *U. N. Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)*

Founded: 1966 HQ: Vienna, Austria
Task: promote industrial development and global industrial cooperation
Yearly total budget: USD 240 million
No. of members: 170

UNIDO promotes industrial development for poverty reduction, deals with issues of globalisation and sustainability. Its mandate is to promote and accelerate sustainable industrial development in developing countries and economies in transition, and work towards improving living conditions in the world's poorest countries by drawing on its combined global resources and expertise. UNIDO's services are based on two core functions: as a global forum, it generates and disseminates industry-related knowledge; as a technical cooperation agency, it provides technical support and implements projects. UNIDO seeks to achieve long-term impact in three main areas: poverty reduction, trade capacity-building, energy and environment.

7.2.5. *Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)*

Founded: 1945 HQ: Rome, Italy
Tasks: improve nutrition, agricultural productivity, rural areas' economy
Yearly total budget: USD 2.6 billion
No. of members: 194 (+ the EU)

FAO's mandate is to raise levels of nutrition, improve agricultural productivity, better the lives of rural populations and contribute to the growth of the world economy. As a knowledge organization, FAO creates and shares critical information about food, agriculture and natural resources in the form of global public goods. FAO plays a connector role, through identifying and working with different partners with established expertise, and facilitating a dialogue between those who have the knowledge and those who need it. FAO links the field to national, regional and global initiatives in a mutually reinforcing cycle.

FAO has 194 member states and a member organization, the EU. Representatives of members meet at the biennial FAO Conference to review global governance policy issues and international frameworks, as well as to evaluate work carried out and to approve the budget for the next biennium. The Conference elects the Council Members,

to serve three-year rotating terms to carry out executive oversight of programme and budgetary activities.

FAO's main areas are: early warning of food crisis, detection of threats to food production, health and environment, sustainable forest management, and water security.

7.3. Science and communication

7.3.1. *International Telecommunication Union (ITU)*

Founded: 1865 HQ: Geneva, Switzerland
Task: regulates information and communication technology issues
Yearly total budget: USD 170 million
No. of members: 193

7.3.2. *Universal Postal Union (UPU)*

Founded: 1874 HQ: Bern, Switzerland
Task: coordination of global postal sector, mailing and other services
Yearly total budget: USD 70 million
No. of members: 192

7.3.3. *U. N. Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)*

Founded: 1946 HQ: Paris, France
Task: improve education, research and cultural cooperation, world heritage
Yearly total budget: USD 1.3 billion
No. of members: 193 (and 11 associate members)

UNESCO works to create the conditions for dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples, based upon respect for commonly shared values. UNESCO's mission is to contribute to the building of peace, the eradication of poverty, sustainable development and intercultural dialogue through education, the sciences, culture, communication and information. The Organization focuses, in particular, on two global priorities: Africa, and gender equality. Another important field of activity of UNESCO is the protection of world heritage.

The General Conference is UNESCO's primary decision-making body, comprising representatives of all Member States. It meets every 2 years to determine the policies and main lines of work of the Organization. Following the principle of 1 vote per country, it approves UNESCO's biennial programme and budget. The President of the General Conference between 2011-2013 was Katalin Bogyai, a Hungarian diplomat. The 40th session of the UNESCO General Conference was held on 12 November 2019, and Turkish Ambassador Altay Cengizer was elected President of the General Conference.

Every 4 years, the General Conference appoints the Director-General of UNESCO based on the recommendation of the Executive Board. The Executive Board, composed of 58 Member States, is responsible for the execution of the programme adopted by the General Conference. It meets twice a year to examine the Organization's programme and budget. The Secretariat consists of the Director-General and staff. The Director-General is the executive head of the Organization.

7.3.4. World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)

Founded: 1967 HQ: Geneva, Switzerland
Task: intellectual property law, arbitration, services for the private sector
Yearly total budget: USD 430 million
No. of members: 193

7.4. Finance

7.4.1. International Monetary Fund (IMF)

Founded: 1944 HQ: Washington DC, USA
Task: surveillance of global monetary system, technical assistance, lending
Yearly total budget: USD 1.1 billion
No. of members: 190

The IMF had been established in order to oversee and control the global monetary system. In 1944 the Bretton Woods system was introduced, it is a 'par value system', meaning that the USD was set to be convertible into gold. The dollar's fixed value against gold and fixed exchange rates existed until 1971. Since 1972 flexible exchange rates are used and concessional loaning to countries with payment difficulties has been introduced. At the end of the 1970s to the mid-1980s global debt crisis occurred, which resulted in the reform of the global debtor system.

By 1991 IMF has reached nearly universal membership, and it provided policy advice, technical assistance, and financial support to the transitional states. Apart from advice and assistance, one of the major functions of IMF is to lend money to the countries in need (this task originally was given to IBRD, today both IMF and IBRD provide lending).

In 1997 IMF got much criticism for poor handling of the Asian financial crisis, which led to the re-evaluation of fiscal policy and introduction of national assessments on voluntary basis. Since 2007, the start of the recent global economic crisis, the Fund's lending capacity was tripled to around \$750 billion. After 2007, the IMF has lent millions of dollars to a number of countries affected by the crisis, including Belarus, Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Pakistan, Poland, Romania, Serbia, Sri Lanka, and Ukraine. As of 2020,

IMF lent \$165 billion to 83 countries, including \$16.1 billion to 49 low-income countries. Of the total amount owed to IMF as on May 31, the 10 biggest borrowing countries, including Portugal, Greece, Ukraine, Ireland and Pakistan, owed nearly 86% of the total amount lent.

7.4.2. *International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)*

Founded: 1944 HQ: Washington DC, USA

Task: loans, guarantees, risk management products, analytical and advisory services (for states)

No. of members: 189

IBRD – also called the World Bank – works with middle-income and creditworthy poorer countries to promote sustainable, equitable and job-creating growth, and to reduce poverty. The Bank mainly provides loans, it raises most of its funds on the world’s financial markets. IBRD borrowing peaked at \$28 billion with the Asian financial crisis in 1998, now projected to borrow between \$10 to 15 billion a year.

7.4.3. *International Development Association (IDA)*

Founded: 1960 HQ: Washington DC, USA

Task: long-term credits and grants No. of members: 173

IDA provides interest-free credits and grants for programs that boost economic growth, reduce inequalities and improve people’s living conditions (for states). IDA is partly financed by IBRD, shares the same staff and headquarters with IBRD. IDA is one of the largest sources of assistance for the world’s 79 poorest countries, 39 of which are in Africa. It is the single largest source of donor funds for basic social services in the poorest countries. IDA gives concessional credits for long-term repayment (35-40 yrs.). 2020 Top 10 IDA borrowers were Nigeria, Bangladesh, Democratic Republic of Congo, Pakistan, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Nepal, Kenya, Somalia, Myanmar.

Nigeria	2,576	
Bangladesh	2,265	
Congo, Democratic Republic of		1,642
Pakistan	1,471	
Ethiopia	1,046	
Tanzania	950	
Nepal	949	
Kenya	943	
Somalia	903	
Myanmar	900	

7.4.4. *International Finance Corporation (IFC)*

Founded: 1956 HQ: Washington DC, USA
Task: loan for private sector No. of members: 185

IFC is responsible for providing financial assistance and loans for the private sector of developing countries. It is partly financed by IBRD, shares the same administration and HQ with IBRD.

7.4.5. *Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)*

Founded: 1988 HQ: Washington DC, USA
Task: risk insurance, guarantee and promoting FDI No. of members: 181

MIGA provides political risk insurance (guarantees) to the private sector, and promotes foreign direct investment (FDI) into developing countries. It aims at increasing the amount of insurance available to investors, to provide online investment information services. It also provides dispute resolution services for guaranteed investments. Since 1988, MIGA has issued guarantees worth more than \$21 billion for more than 600 projects in 100 developing countries.

7.4.6. *International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID)*

Founded: 1966 HQ: Washington DC, USA
Task: arbitration, dispute settlement No. of members: 163

ICSID is the leading international arbitration institution devoted to Investor-State dispute settlement, it is a specialized judicial forum for investment dispute settlement based on the system of bilateral investment treaties (BITs). In 2020, ICSID registered 54 cases, the largest share of cases registered in 2020 involved States in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (28%), followed by South America (17%) and Sub-Saharan Africa (12%). Central America and the Caribbean, and Western Europe each accounted for 10%, while the Middle East and North Africa, and South and East Asia and the Pacific accounted for 9% of new cases, respectively. Five percent of new cases involved States in North America. Four States—Benin, Denmark, Norway and Switzerland—had their first cases at ICSID in 2020.

7.5. Other

7.5.1. *World Health Organization (WHO)*

Founded: 1948 HQ: Geneva, Switzerland
Task: guidelines, standards, public health issues
Yearly total budget: USD 1.6 billion No. of members: 194

During the COVID-19 pandemic started in 2020 and affected everyone globally, importance of WHO was quite visible since it put great efforts to provide statistical, technical, advisory and other relevant information to the public. After declaring the novel coronavirus outbreak as a public health emergency of international concern WHO had the highest level of alarm. WHO called weekly the Member States to share the latest knowledge and insights on COVID-19, therefore created one of the largest knowledge-base on the topic. Also, launched the COVID-19 Partners Platform as an enabling tool for all countries, implementing partners, donors and contributors to collaborate in the global COVID-19 response. Furthermore, WHO launched the so-called COVAX program jointly with two other IOs with the aim of developing a vaccine against COVID-19 in countries where there are no resources to do it. If the COVAX program succeeds, at least 20% of the selected countries' population will be vaccinated and the countries will receive necessary support to put an end to this pandemic.

7.5.2. World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

Founded: 1873, 1950 HQ: Geneva, Switzerland
Task: weather and climate, training, research, cooperation
Yearly total budget: USD 85 million No. of members: 187

7.5.3. World Tourism Organization (UNWTO)

Founded: 1934, 1970 HQ: Madrid, Spain
Task: global forum for tourism policy issues
No. of members: 159

Check your knowledge!

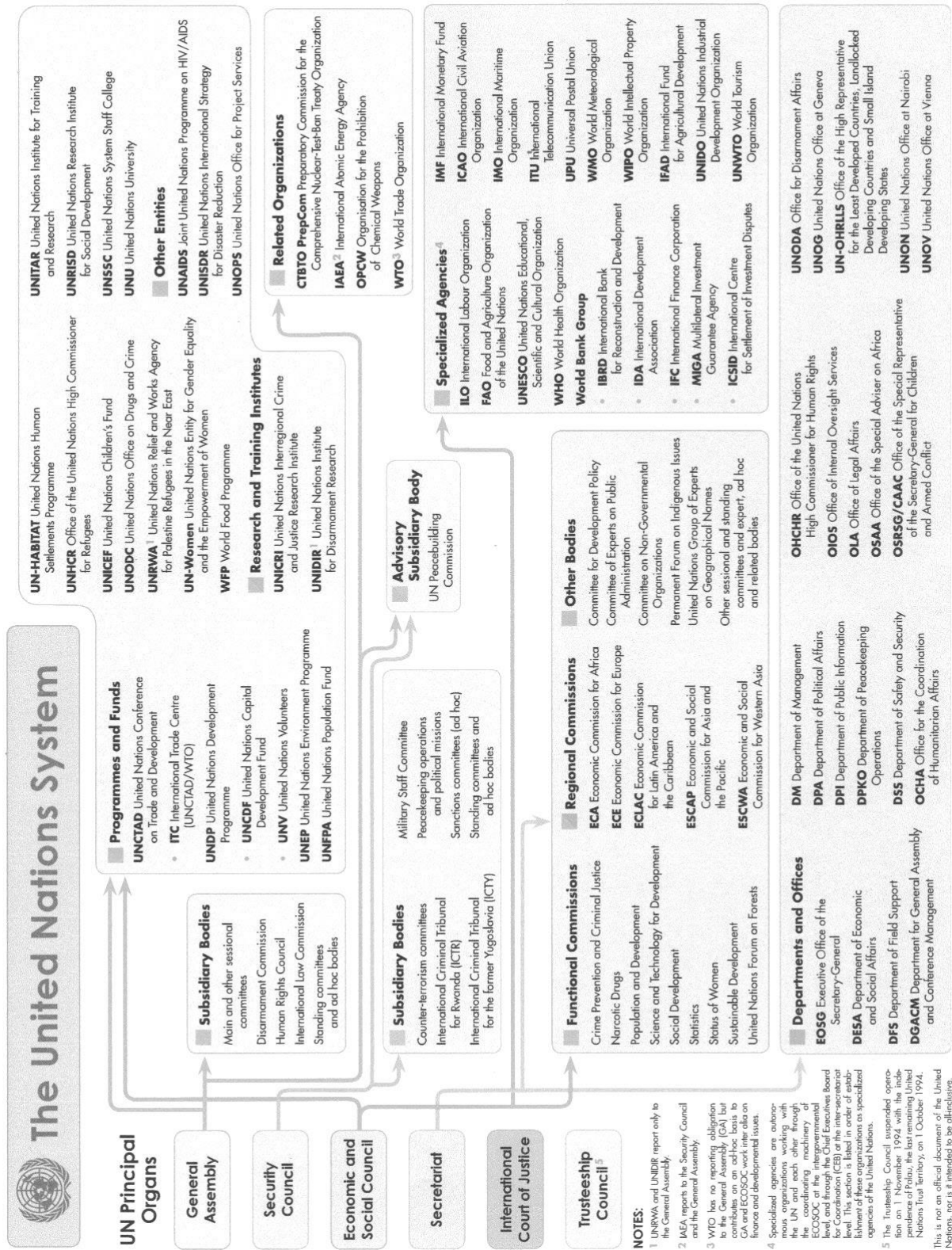
What is the definition of specialized agencies?
How many specialized agencies are there?
How can an IO become a specialized agency?
Name at least 10 specialized agencies and their field of work!
What does ILO, IMF, IBRD stand for?

Useful websites:

Link to all specialized agencies: <https://research.un.org/en/docs/unsystem/sa>

Chart of UN Family

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8. Regional organizations – Organization of American States, Arab League, African Union, ASEAN, Council of Europe

8.1. Organization of American States (OAS)

The Organization of American States is the world's oldest regional organization, dating back to the First International Conference of American States, held in Washington, D.C., from October 1889 to April 1890. That meeting approved the establishment of the International Union of American Republics, and the stage was set for the weaving of a web of provisions and institutions that came to be known as the inter-American system, the oldest international institutional system. The organization was greatly changed in a reform in 1948 with the signing of the Charter of the Organization of American States (Pact of Bogotá, Colombia). The OAS headquarters is located in Washington, D.C. (USA).

Today, the OAS brings together all 35 independent states of the Americas and constitutes the main political, juridical, and social governmental forum in the region. In addition, it has granted permanent observer status to 72 states, as well as to the European Union (EU).

8.1.1. Purpose

The Organization was established in order to achieve among its member states “an order of peace and justice, to promote their solidarity, to strengthen their collaboration, and to defend their sovereignty, their territorial integrity, and their independence.”

The Organization has four essential purposes:

- representative democracy,
- human rights,
- peace and security,
- economic, social and cultural development.

These are also considered as four main pillars, which support each other and are intertwined through political dialogue, inclusiveness, cooperation, and legal and follow-up instruments that provide the OAS with the tools to maximize its work in the hemisphere.

8.1.2. Structure

The supreme organ of the Organization of American States is called the General Assembly and it comprises the delegations of all the member states. All member states have the right to one vote.

The Permanent Council attends to the matters entrusted to it by the General Assembly or the Meeting of Consultation of Ministers of Foreign Affairs. The Permanent Council monitors the maintenance of friendly relations among the member states and the observance of the standards governing General Secretariat operations. At the request of the member states, the Permanent Council prepares draft agreements to promote and facilitate cooperation between the OAS, the United Nations, and other inter-American institutions.

The Inter-American Council for Integral Development (CIDI) can report directly to the General Assembly and has decision-making authority in matters related to partnership for development.

Administrative tasks of the organization are performed by the General Secretariat.

OAS also has an Inter-American Court on Human Rights which is very similar to the European Court of Human Rights (belonging to the Council of Europe).

8.1.3. Remarks

OAS is a very important organization in the Americas dealing generally with all the issues international organizations usually do. However, the organization is very much influenced by the United States of America. Several times in its history OAS was not able to solve disputes among some of its members and the US. The United States often dominated decision-making and persuaded members of the organization to accept a decision that if communist regime is formed in any member state, the state shall be expelled from OAS. This was executed only once, against Cuba. The organization was not able to prevent conflicts between the United States and for example Panama, Nicaragua, Grenada. The Falkland-crisis also represented a break in the integrity of the members, since the United States took the side of Britain, while all Central and South American states supported Argentina.

8.2. African Union

The African Union is a regional organization in Africa with general scope of activities. It's a relatively new organization, the "product" of independence of the states on the continent.

8.2.1. History

The predecessor of the African Union was the Organization of African Unity (OAU), established in 1963 in Ethiopia by 32 states. It existed until 2002, when it was replaced by the African Union.

The main objectives of the OAU were

- to rid the continent of the remaining vestiges of colonization and apartheid;
- to promote unity and solidarity among African States;
- to coordinate and intensify cooperation for development;
- to safeguard the sovereignty and territorial integrity of member states;
- to promote international cooperation within the framework of the United Nations.

Through the OAU Coordinating Committee for the Liberation of Africa, the Continent worked and spoke as one with undivided determination in forging an international consensus in support of the liberation struggle and the fight against apartheid. The main link between the members was the fight against colonization, however after most African territories had been liberated they failed to find a common goal. Member states were divided among several lines, such as support for the USA and the Soviet Union, capitalism, socialism and non-alignment.

By the 1990s the organization was on the edge of breaking up. The two possibilities at the time were either to end the organization or to base it on new grounds with new aims, structure and will. In 1999, members of the Organisation of African Unity issued the Sirte Declaration calling for the establishment of an African Union, with a view, inter alia, to accelerating the process of integration in the continent; to enable it play its rightful role in the global economy while addressing multifaceted social, economic and political problems compounded as they are by certain negative aspects of globalisation. The Constitutive Act of the African Union was accepted in 2000 and entered into force in 2002.

8.2.2. Objectives of the AU

- To achieve greater unity and solidarity between the African countries and the peoples of Africa;
- To defend the sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of its member states;
- To accelerate the political and socio-economic integration of the continent;
- To promote peace, security, and stability on the continent;
- To promote democratic principles and human rights;

- To promote sustainable development and raise the living standards of African peoples;

To advance the development of the continent by promoting research in all fields, in particular in science, technology and health.

8.2.3. *The organs of AU*

The Assembly of Heads of State and Government is the supreme organ of the Union. The Executive Council is the main organ of execution, it is composed of ministers sent by the member states, and it is responsible to the Assembly. The Commission is a key organ, it represents the Union and defends its interests, elaborates draft common positions and prepares strategic plans of the Union; body initiating decision-making, it consists of eight Commissioners who all have one-one topic they are responsible for, like foreign affairs, agriculture and industry.

One of the most unique bodies of AU is the Peace and Security Council, whose main task is to maintain regional peace. The Pan-African Parliament is an organ to ensure the full participation of African peoples in governance, development and economic integration of the Continent. The Economic, Social and Cultural Council is an advisory organ composed of different social and professional groups of the member states of the Union. AU also aims at establishing financial institutions of the region, such as the African Central Bank, the African Monetary Fund and the African Investment Bank, The African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights (AfCHPR) serves as the legal organ of the union.

8.2.4. *Remarks*

The structure of the African Union is very similar to the institutional structure of the European Union, however most of it has been under planning or ratification process for 10 years and still doesn't work effectively. AU has not been able to circumvent conflicts, to find a new common goal which unites all nations of the continent. Another problem of AU is that its organs are planned to be seated in very different parts of Africa, very far from each other: headquarters and Secretariat in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), the Pan-African Parliament in Johannesburg (South Africa), the African Central Bank in Abuja (Nigeria) and the African Monetary Fund in Yaoundé (Cameroon).

8.3. League of Arab States

The Arab League, officially called the League of Arab States, is a regional organisation of Arab states in North and Northeast Africa, and Southwest Asia (Middle East). It was formed in Cairo in 1945 with six members: Egypt, Iraq, Transjordan (renamed Jordan in 1949), Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, and Syria. There was a continual

increase in membership during the second half of the 20th century, with additional 15 Arab states being admitted, with a current total of 22 member states (including Syria, whose participation has been suspended since November 2011 owing to the events of the uprising, and including Palestine, which the League regards as an independent state).

8.3.1. Purpose and functions

According to the founding treaty the main goal of the League is to “draw closer the relations between member States and co-ordinate collaboration between them, to safeguard their independence and sovereignty, and to consider in a general way the affairs and interests of the Arab countries.” The aims of the League in 1945 were to strengthen and coordinate the political, cultural, economic, and social programs of its members, and to mediate disputes among them or between them and third parties. Furthermore, the signing of an agreement on Joint Defence and Economic Cooperation (1950) committed the signatories to coordination of military defence measures. A common market was established in 1965.

The Arab League facilitates political, economic, cultural, scientific and social programs designed to promote the interests of the Arab world. It has served as a forum for the member states to coordinate their policy positions, to deliberate on matters of common concern, to settle some Arab disputes, and to limit conflicts such as the 1958 Lebanon crisis. The League has served as a platform for the drafting and conclusion of many landmark documents promoting economic integration. One example is the Joint Arab Economic Action Charter which sets out the principles for economic activities in the region. The League encourages measures against crime and drug abuse, and deals with labour issues – particularly among the emigrant Arab workforce.

8.3.2. Structure

The highest body of the League is the Council, composed of representatives of member states, usually foreign ministers, their representatives or permanent delegates. Each member state has one vote, irrespective of its size. The Council meets twice a year, in March and September, and may convene a special session at the request of two members. Decisions made by the Council are binding only on members who voted for them.

Day-to-day, the League is run by the General Secretariat. Headed by a Secretary-General, it is the administrative body of the League and the executive body of the Council and the specialised ministerial councils.

Through institutions such as the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO) and the Economic and Social Council of the Arab League’s

Council of Arab Economic Unity (CAEU) the League executes its economic, social and cultural aims.

The Joint Defence Council is the organ created to execute the Joint Defence and Economic Cooperation, however it is very ineffective. Since decisions are only binding on those states which voted for it, it cannot force its decisions on other members.

8.3.3. Remarks

The area of members of the Arab League straddles two continents: Africa, and Asia. This can already define differences in the aims and interests of the member states, however that's not the only dividing line among the members. Other fractions occur along the issues of religion, namely some countries are extreme and some are moderate Muslims. In economic terms some are rich with oil and some are not.

One of the only issues they usually agree is the hatred against Israel. Where members do agree on a common position, such as support for the Palestinians under Israeli occupation, this rarely, if ever, goes beyond the issuing of declarations. Perhaps the sole exception has been the economic boycott of Israel, which between 1948 and 1993 was almost total.

Although even in this issue they had differences, for example: The first major action was the joint intervention in 1948 when the State of Israel emerged, although in fact a main participant in this intervention, Transjordan, had agreed with the Israelis to divide up the Arab Palestinian state proposed by the UN General Assembly, while Egypt intervened primarily to prevent its rival from accomplishing its objective.

The Arab League's effectiveness has been severely hampered by other divisions among member states too. For example, during the Cold War some members were Soviet-oriented while others fell within the Western camp. There has been rivalry over leadership, notably between Egypt and Iraq. Then there have been the hostilities between traditional monarchies – such as Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Morocco – and new republics, or “revolutionary” states such as Egypt under Gamal Abdel Nasser, Baathist Syria and Iraq, and Libya under Muammar Gaddafi.

The League was severely tested by the 2003 US-led attack on Saddam Hussein's Iraq, with some backing the war, some opposing it and others standing on the sidelines.

Since the “Arab spring” uprisings in early 2011, the League has shown a greater sense of purpose, even though many conflicts within the League occur time by time. It backed UN action against Muammar Gaddafi's forces in Libya and condemned Syria's repressions of nationwide protests. The League had even suspended first the membership of Libya (then restored full membership after half a year, when the National Transitional

Council took over the government). Syria has been suspended since November, 2011 owing to the disproportionate violence against regime opponents.

The Arab League has been a little more effective at lower levels, such as shaping school curricula, preserving manuscripts and translating modern technical terminology. It has helped to create a regional telecommunications union.

8.4. Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

Asia doesn't have such a regional organization which unites all states of the continent, that is also due to the fact that very different powerful countries exist there. China, Japan and India are the biggest and most developed ones, while with respect to the territory even Russia can be considered as a state of Asia.

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations, or ASEAN, was established in 1967 in Bangkok, Thailand, with the signing of the ASEAN Declaration (Bangkok Declaration) by the founding countries of ASEAN, namely Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. Then joined 5 more states: Brunei Darussalam, Viet Nam, Lao PDR, Myanmar and Cambodia, making up what are today the ten member states of ASEAN.

8.4.1. Purpose

As set out in the ASEAN Declaration, the aims and purposes of ASEAN are:

- To accelerate the economic growth, social progress and cultural development in the region;
- To strengthen the foundation for a prosperous and peaceful community of Southeast Asian Nations;
- To promote regional peace and stability through respect for justice and rule of law;
- To collaborate more effectively for the expansion of their trade;
- To maintain close and beneficial cooperation with existing international and regional organisations with similar aims and purposes.

8.4.2. Structure

Work of the organization is mainly directed by the ASEAN Coordinating Council which comprises the ASEAN Foreign Ministers. They meet at least twice a year. Once in every year an ASEAN Summit is held, where the heads of state or government represent each member state. It is the supreme policy-making body of the ASEAN. The meetings of the ASEAN Summit are prepared by the Council.

The Secretariat provides the administrative basis for the organization, it is based in Jakarta (Indonesia). The main representative is the Secretary-General, who is appointed

by the ASEAN Summit for a non-renewable term of office of five years, selected from among nationals of the ASEAN Member States based on alphabetical rotation.

There are ASEAN Community Councils dealing with the issues of the ASEAN Community, namely there are 3 councils: ASEAN Political-Security Community Council, ASEAN Economic Community Council, and the ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community Council.

ASEAN Sectoral Ministerial Bodies implement the decisions and agreements of the ASEAN Summit, and strengthens cooperation in the fields where they operate.

The Committee of Permanent Representatives support the work of the Councils, it coordinates “everyday work”, liaises with the Secretary-General and the Secretariat.

The members of the ASEAN establish national secretariats serving as the national focal point and keeping all the information on all ASEAN matters, coordinating the implementations of ASEAN decisions at national level, and raise awareness about ASEAN.

8.4.3. ASEAN Community and the Asian Charter

The ASEAN Vision 2020 was adopted by the ASEAN Leaders on the 30th Anniversary of ASEAN in 1997. They agreed on a shared vision of ASEAN as a concert of Southeast Asian nations: outward looking, living in peace, stability and prosperity, bonded together in partnership in dynamic development and in a community of caring societies. In 2003 the ASEAN Leaders resolved that an ASEAN Community shall be established. The ASEAN Community is comprised of three pillars, namely the ASEAN Political-Security Community, ASEAN Economic Community and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community.

The ASEAN Charter serves as a foundation in achieving the ASEAN Community by providing legal status and institutional framework for ASEAN. It also codifies ASEAN norms, rules and values; sets clear targets for ASEAN; and presents accountability and compliance. The ASEAN Charter entered into force in 2008, since then ASEAN operates under a new legal framework and has new organs to boost its community-building process.

8.5. Council of Europe (CoE)

In a speech at the University of Zurich in 1946, Sir Winston Churchill called for a “kind of United States of Europe” and the creation of a Council of Europe. It was founded in 1949 by the Treaty of London (also called the Statute of the Council of Europe) by ten states: Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Many other states followed, especially after the democratic transitions in Central and Eastern Europe during the early 1990s. It now covers virtually the entire European continent, with its 47 member countries. It is based in Strasbourg (France). The official languages of the Council are

English and French, but Russian, Italian and German are also working languages. The budget of the organization is approx. 500 million EUR (in 2021).

8.5.1. Objectives

The Council of Europe seeks to develop throughout Europe common and democratic principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights and the European Social Charter. The primary aim of CoE is to create a common democratic and legal area throughout the whole of the continent, ensuring respect for its fundamental values: human rights, democracy and the rule of law.

On the basis of these fundamental values, CoE tries to find shared solutions to major problems such as terrorism, organised crime and corruption, cybercrime, bioethics and cloning, violence against children and women, and trafficking in people.

Objectives of the Council of Europe are:

- to protect human rights, pluralist democracy and the rule of law;
- to promote awareness and encourage the development of Europe's cultural identity and diversity;
- to find common solutions to the challenges facing European society;
- to consolidate democratic stability in Europe by backing political, legislative and constitutional reform.

As it can be seen from the objectives, the Council of Europe deals with cultural, social and other issues, but its work does not involve military or defence issues. In the 1940s, when the Council of Europe came into being, the aim was to have cooperation among European countries in all areas however this was not achieved in the frame of one organization. The Council of Europe was the first established in 1949, with the above-mentioned aims. In the 1950s organizations for economic and industrial cooperation were established (European Coal and Steel Community, 1951; European Economic Community, 1957; European Atomic Energy Agency, 1957) and one for military-defence issues (Western European Union, 1954).

8.5.2. Structure

The Council of Europe has several organs, and it conducts its work at three levels: intergovernmental, inter-parliamentary and regional/local level.

When establishing CoE there were two schools of thought competing: some favoured a classical IO with representatives of governments, while others preferred a political forum with parliamentarians. Both approaches were finally combined through the creation of the Committee of Ministers and the Parliamentary Assembly. To these levels were added the regional or local level, with the setting up of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities.

Committee of Ministers

The main intergovernmental organ of the organization is the Committee of Ministers. This is CoE's decision-making body and is made up of the ministers of foreign affairs. The Committee of Ministers decides CoE's policy and approves its budget and programme of activities.

Parliamentary Assembly

The inter-parliamentary level is represented at the Parliamentary Assembly which is the deliberative body and the driving force of the Council of Europe. Its members are appointed by the national parliaments of each member state.

Congress of Local and Regional Authorities and Conference of INGOs

The main organ for the regional level is the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities, it is the voice of Europe's 200 000 regions and municipalities and provides a forum where elected representatives can discuss common problems, pool their experiences and develop policies. It works to strengthen democracy and improve services at local and regional level. CoE also benefits from the knowledge of about 400 international NGOs in the Conference of INGOs. It provides vital links between politicians and the public and brings the voice of civil society to the Council.

Secretariat

Administration of the organization is conducted by the 2000-member staff Secretariat; the main representative of the organization is the Secretary-General. The Secretary General is elected by the Parliamentary Assembly for a five-year term. He is responsible for the strategic planning and direction of the Council's work programme and budget and oversees the day-to-day management of CoE.

European Court of Human Rights

Protection of human rights is one of the most important, if not the most important function of the organization. The European Court of Human Rights is the permanent judicial body which guarantees for all Europeans the rights safeguarded by the European Convention on Human Rights. Both states and individuals can turn to the Court for protection of rights.

8.6. European Union

The European Union is the most important European organization, which comprises 27 European countries and has a general scope of activities. Since the European Union is covered in a separate course, this course does not deal with it.

Check your knowledge!

What are the common aims of all regional organizations?

When and why were the major regional organizations established?

What are the achievements and failures of OAS, AU, AL, ASEAN and CoE?

Describe the structure and institutions of these regional organizations!

Useful websites:

African Union: www.au.int

ASEAN: www.asean.org

Council of Europe: www.coe.int

OAS: www.oas.org

European Union: <http://europa.eu>

9. Collective security, disarmament, nuclear safety (OSCE, NATO, IAEA, CTBTO)

Collective security has always been important to states, that is the reason why from Ancient times states have concluded mutual assistance and defence treaties, meaning that they would help each other in case of an armed attack against any of them. These mutual assistance systems had become very complicated by the early years of the 20th century and since most of the treaties had been secret, it was a surprise to countries how the First World War became a world war so soon. Since then treaties shall be made public and thus these systems are known. The beginning of the Cold War brought a change and several IOs based on the notion of collective security came into being. Some are still functioning like NATO and OSCE, while others like the Warsaw Pact and SEATO are not.

Disarmament and nuclear safety are also linked to this issue, since the discovery of the nuclear bomb has made the world an even more dangerous place. The height of the Cold War showed that nuclear armament and race between the countries shall be controlled, thus states established control mechanism, nuclear-free zones and organizations to deal with the issues of nuclear energy. The most important of them are IAEA and CTBTO.

9.1. North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

9.1.1. History

In 1949, when ideological clashes between East and West were gaining momentum, ten Western European states, the United States and Canada signed the North Atlantic Treaty. The primary aim was to create an alliance of mutual assistance to counter the risk posed by the Soviet Union in seeking to extend its control over Eastern Europe and other parts of the continent. At the time, Europe was still recovering from the devastation caused by the Second World War. By committing to the principle of collective defence, NATO's aim was to maintain a secure environment for the development of democracy and economic growth.

At the end of the Cold War, with the disappearance of its traditional adversaries, some commentators believed that the need for NATO had also been removed and that future defence expenditure and investment in armed forces could be dramatically reduced. Many NATO Allies started cutting their defence spending, some by as much as 25%. However, it soon became apparent that although the end of the Cold War might have removed the threat of military invasion, instability in some parts of Europe had increased. Regional conflicts, often fuelled by ethnic tensions, broke out in the former Yugoslavia

and in parts of the former Soviet Union and threatened to spread. New forms of political and military cooperation were required to preserve peace and stability in Europe and prevent the escalation of regional tensions.

For that reason, NATO created new mechanisms for Euro–Atlantic security cooperation with non-member countries. It also underwent major internal reforms to adapt its military structures and capabilities to new tasks. In addition to its traditional task of collective defence, the Alliance soon became engaged in crisis management as well as partnership with countries and organizations cooperating in the wider field of security. NATO adapted quickly to the post-Cold War security environment. Within a few years, it conducted its first operations out of NATO territory to end conflict in the western Balkans. NATO deployed its first peacekeeping operation to Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1995.

9.1.2. Collective defence-clause

Article 5 of the North Atlantic Treaty contains the main rule of collective defence:
“The Parties agree that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all and consequently they agree that, if such an attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defence recognized by Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations, will assist the Party or Parties so attached by taking forthwith, individual and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.”

The only time when invocation of this clause appeared was after the September 11, 2001 attacks against New York and Washington DC. The next day, for the first time in the Alliance’s history, the Allies invoked Article 5, NATO’s collective defence provision, thereby affirming that an attack against one constituted an attack against them all. The Alliance subsequently adopted measures to support the United States. It rapidly deployed vessels to the Eastern Mediterranean to board and search ships suspected of terrorist activity. This deployment continues today as Operation Active Endeavour, which now encompasses the entire Mediterranean. In addition, individual Allies deployed forces to Afghanistan in support of the US-led operation against al Qaida – the terrorist group responsible for the 9/11 attacks – and the repressive Taliban regime that harboured it. The Alliance was leading the follow-on peacekeeping mission, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), from 2003 till 2014 when it was terminated.

9.1.3. Purpose and tasks

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization’s fundamental purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of its members through political and military means. NATO brings together 28 member countries from Europe and North America, consulting and cooperating in the fields of security and defence. Although much has changed since its

founding in 1949, the Alliance remains an essential and unique source of stability in an unpredictable geopolitical environment. NATO members now confront a far broader spectrum of security challenges than in the past. Threats such as the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and ballistic missile technologies, cyber-attacks and terrorism know no borders.

NATO's primary goals are the collective defence of its members and the maintenance of a democratic peace in the North Atlantic area. All 28 Allies have an equal say, the Alliance's decisions must be unanimous and consensual, and its members must respect the basic values of democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law. NATO has military and civilian headquarters and an integrated military command structure but very few forces or assets are exclusively its own. Most forces remain under full national command and control until member countries agree to undertake NATO-related tasks.

NATO has three core tasks:

- collective defence,
- crisis management and
- cooperative security through partnerships.

9.1.4. Structure

NATO's decision-making structure is divided into 2 parts: political and military. The headquarters for the political branch is in Brussels (Belgium), while the military branch is seated in Norfolk (USA).

North Atlantic Council

The North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the Alliance's principal political decision-making body. The Council and a network of committees provide the framework for Allies to consult, cooperate and plan for multinational activities both political and military in nature. The Council meets weekly at the level of ambassadors. Regular meetings of the Council also take place at the level of foreign or defence ministers. Every year or two, NATO holds a summit where heads of state and government decide on strategic questions facing the Alliance. Regular meetings also take place with representatives from NATO's partners.

Military Committee

Military aspects are implemented, under the political oversight of the Council, through NATO's Military Committee.

Secretary General

The Secretary General chairs meetings of the North Atlantic Council and other important NATO bodies, helps to build consensus among members, and serves as the principal spokesperson, representative of NATO. In managing day-to-day activities, he or she is supported by the Secretariat.

9.2. Warsaw Pact

The Soviet Union and seven of its European satellites signed a treaty establishing the Warsaw Pact, a mutual defence organization that put the Soviets in command of the armed forces of the member states.

The Warsaw Pact, so named because the treaty was signed in Warsaw (Poland), included the Soviet Union, Albania, Poland, Romania, Hungary, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, and Bulgaria as members. The treaty called on the member states to come to the defence of any member attacked by an outside force and it set up a unified military command under the Soviet Union. The split of Germany and Berlin into a Western and Eastern part, and the formation of NATO represented a direct threat to the Soviet Union and it responded with the Warsaw Pact.

In 1990, East Germany left the Pact and reunited with West Germany; the reunified Germany then became a member of NATO. The rise of non-communist governments in other Eastern bloc nations, such as Hungary, Poland and Czechoslovakia, throughout 1990 and 1991 marked an effective end of the power of the Warsaw Pact. In 1991, the pact was dissolved in Budapest and all Soviet forces left the region.

9.3. Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO)

The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), a regional defence organization existed from 1955 to 1977. It was created by the Southeast Asia Collective Defence Treaty, signed at Manila in 1954 (also known as the Manila Pact), by the representatives of Australia, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, the United Kingdom, and the United States. SEATO was an alliance organized to oppose the growing communist influence in Southeast Asia. The treaty was based on the notion of collective defence.

Headquartered in Bangkok, SEATO relied on the military forces of member states (like NATO). In its first few years of operation, SEATO's effectiveness was not tested, but at the beginning of the 1960s, conflicts in South Vietnam and Laos challenged the strength of the alliance and ultimately found it lacking. France withdrew from military cooperation in 1967, and Great Britain refused active military cooperation in the Vietnam conflict. Moreover, a 1960s dispute between Pakistan and India further undermined the efficacy of the alliance. In 1972 Pakistan completely withdrew from the alliance. In September 1975 the signatories decided to phase out the operations, and the organization was formally dissolved in 1977. The collective defence treaty remains in effect, however.

9.4. Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)

With 57 States from Europe, Central Asia and North America, OSCE is the world's largest regional security organization. It offers a forum for political negotiations and decision-making in the fields of early warning, conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict rehabilitation, and puts the political will of its participating States into practice through its unique network of field missions.

OSCE has a comprehensive approach to security that encompasses politico-military, economic and environmental, and human aspects. It therefore addresses a wide range of security-related concerns, including arms control, confidence- and security-building measures, human rights, national minorities, democratization, policing strategies, counter-terrorism and economic and environmental activities.

9.4.1. History – From CSCE to OSCE

Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE)

OSCE traces its origins to the early 1970s, when the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe (CSCE) was created to serve as a multilateral forum for dialogue and negotiation between East and West. Around the negotiating table set representatives of Western Europe, the United States, Canada, Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. Their aim was to discuss questions relating to the security of Europe, co-operation in the fields of economics, science, technology, environment, human rights and humanitarian fields. Meeting over two years in Helsinki and Geneva, the CSCE reached agreement on the Helsinki Final Act, which was signed in 1975. This document contained a number of key commitments on politico-military, economic, environmental and human rights issues that became central to the so-called 'Helsinki process'.

It also established ten fundamental principles (the "Decalogue") governing the behaviour of States towards their citizens, as well as towards each other:

1. Sovereign equality, respect for the rights inherent in sovereignty
2. Refraining from the threat or use of force
3. Inviolability of frontiers
4. Territorial integrity of States
5. Peaceful settlement of disputes
6. Non-intervention in internal affairs
7. Respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the freedom of thought, conscience, religion or belief
8. Equal rights and self-determination of peoples
9. Co-operation among States
10. Fulfilment in good faith of obligations under international law

Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE)

Until 1990, the CSCE functioned mainly as a series of conferences that built on the participating States' commitments, while periodically reviewing their implementation. However, with the end of the Cold War, in 1990 at the Paris Summit, the Charter of Paris had been accepted which started an institutionalization process. As part of this institutionalization process, the name was changed from Conference (CSCE) to Organization (OSCE) by a decision of the Budapest Summit in 1994 and the organization acquired permanent institutions and operational capabilities.

9.4.2. Members

The Organization comprises 57 participating States that span the globe, encompassing three continents – North America, Europe and Asia – and more than a billion people. All members enjoy equal status, and decisions are taken by consensus on a politically, but not legally binding basis. Although the organization is called regional, it overarches continents and the link between its members is rather the shared ideas and interests, than belonging to the same region. The best demonstration to that is that Canada, Hungary, Turkey, Russia and Tajikistan are all members.

9.4.3. Structure and budget

The organization's main decision-making bodies are the Ministerial Councils, the Permanent Council and the Forum for Security Co-operation. Administration and execution of the decisions is done by the Secretariat. Other institutions, such as the Parliamentary Assembly assist the implementation of OSCE tasks.

Ministerial Councils and Summits

Summits are periodic meetings of Heads of State or Government of OSCE member states that set priorities at the highest political level. During periods between summits, decision-making and governing power lies with the Ministerial Council.

Permanent Council

The Permanent Council, one of the main regular decision-making bodies, convenes weekly in Vienna (Austria), in the headquarters of OSCE, to discuss developments in the OSCE area and to make appropriate decisions.

Forum for Security Co-operation

The Forum for Security Co-operation meets weekly in Vienna to discuss and make decisions regarding military aspects of security in the OSCE area, in particular confidence- and security-building measures.

Secretariat

The OSCE Secretariat, under the direction of the Secretary General, provides operational support and administration. The Secretary General is appointed by the

Ministerial Council for a term of three years. Special representatives help the work of the Secretary General, such as the Special Representative for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings.

Other institutions

In order to fulfil the tasks of OSCE other offices and institutions do the field work, for example the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights is based in Warsaw, Poland. It is active throughout the OSCE area in the fields of election observation, democratic development, human rights, tolerance and non-discrimination, and rule of law.

The Representative on Freedom of the Media observes media developments in all OSCE participating states. She provides early warning on violations of freedom of expression and promotes full compliance with OSCE press freedom commitments.

The post of the OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities was established in 1992 to identify and seek early resolution of ethnic tensions that might endanger peace, stability or friendly relations between OSCE participating states.

The Parliamentary Assembly of the OSCE is the parliamentary dimension, it was established by the 1990 Paris Summit to promote greater involvement in the OSCE by national parliaments. The primary task of the 323-member Assembly is to facilitate inter-parliamentary dialogue, it assesses the implementation of OSCE objectives in the member states.

The Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, which is based in Geneva (Switzerland), provides a mechanism for the peaceful settlement of disputes between States.

Budget

OSCE is funded by contributions from its members. The organization's unified budget for 2019 totals in 140 million EUR.

9.4.4. Activities

Security touches on many aspects of the way we live and are governed. OSCE's comprehensive view of security covers three "dimensions":

- the politico-military;
- the economic and environmental;
- and the human.

OSCE's activities cover all three of these areas, from hard security issues such as conflict prevention to fostering economic development, ensuring the sustainable use of natural resources, and promoting the full respect of human rights and fundamental

freedoms. OSCE is very active in observing elections, monitoring minority rights and human rights, training officials and civil servants, providing assistance for disarmament, and fighting corruption.

Owing to its unique structure and legally non-binding cooperation OSCE is quite effective even in sensitive cases and issues.

9.5. International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)

The IAEA was created in 1957 in response to the deep fears and expectations resulting from the discovery of nuclear energy. Its fortunes are uniquely geared to this controversial technology that can be used either as a weapon or as a practical and useful tool.

The Agency's genesis was US President Eisenhower's Atoms for Peace address to the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1953. These ideas helped to shape the IAEA Statute, which 81 nations unanimously approved in 1957. The Statute outlines the three pillars of the Agency's work:

- nuclear verification and security,
- safety,
- technology transfer.

IAEA is an independent intergovernmental, science and technology-based organization, but it reports to the General Assembly and the Security Council of the United Nations. It works for the safe, secure and peaceful uses of nuclear science and technology. Its key roles contribute to international peace and security, and to the world's social, economic and environmental development.

IAEA has 172 member states, and its headquarters are in Vienna (Austria). The Democratic People's Republic of Korea is the only country who joined the IAEA in 1974, but then withdrew its membership in 1994.

9.5.1. History of the international regulation of nuclear energy

In 1957, founding of IAEA was the first widely accepted international action in order to control nuclear technology, to promote nuclear safety and the peaceful use of nuclear energy. In the 1940s and 1950s several states have acquired the nuclear technology and military testing was steadily growing until the beginning of the 1960s. It reached its height in 1962 when as many as 178 tests took place: 96 conducted by the United States and 79 by the Soviet Union. This was the year of the Cuban Missile Crisis when the Cold War threatened to become a nuclear war. The preceding year had seen the testing of the largest nuclear weapon ever exploded, the Soviet Union's "Tsar Bomb" with an estimated yield of 50 megatons.

These events led to the adoption of the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty (PTBT) in 1963, which banned nuclear testing for military and for peaceful purposes, in the atmosphere, underwater and in space. The PTBT was important from an environmental point of view, but did little to prevent overall nuclear testing, which largely moved underground.

PTBT was only aimed at the testing of nuclear weapons, while many states expressed their wish to have nuclear weapons. The permanent members of the Security Council – all of them already a nuclear power – decided that this would be very dangerous, thus in 1968 the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) had been accepted. Three pillars of NPT are non-proliferation of nuclear weapons, disarmament of the existing nuclear arsenal and the promotion of peaceful use of nuclear technology. IAEA has become the main supervisor body of the treaty, allowed to conduct field missions, check nuclear facilities and safeguard the peaceful use of nuclear energy. NPT states that only those can have nuclear weapons, which states already had by 1967, that is USA, UK, China, France and Russia. However, this approach has prevented a few countries from joining the treaty. Today NPT has 189 signatories, but India, Pakistan, Israel are not parties to it, and North Korea withdraw from it in 2005. Iran, on the other hand, had made some statements about withdrawing from the NPT during the President Trump's administration, but took no action in favour.

Notwithstanding the PTBT and the NPT, the world's nuclear arsenals ballooned throughout the Cold War, from slightly more than 3,000 weapons in 1955 to over 60,000 in the late 1980s (United States 23,000 and the Soviet Union 39,000). Furthermore, the world did not witness any significant decrease in nuclear testing activities and nuclear weapons acquisition among the nuclear weapon States until the early 1990s. The total number of nuclear tests in the second half of the 1980s amounted to as many as 174.

In the early 1990s nuclear states have agreed on a moratorium on testing, the Soviet Union's (and Russia's) last nuclear test was conducted in 1990, the United Kingdom's in 1991, the United States in 1992, France and China conducted their last tests in 1996. During the moratorium these and other, non-nuclear states negotiated and drafted the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty (CTBT), which is discussed in the next section of this chapter. In the past 2 decades about 10 nuclear test explosions took place by the non-NPT member states: both Pakistan and India had 2-2 in 1998, and North Korea 6 between 2006 and 2017. These acts were strongly condemned by the international community and the Security Council, stating that the acts were a clear threat to international peace and security.

9.5.2. Functions and powers of IAEA

- assists member states, in planning for and using nuclear science and technology for various peaceful purposes, including the generation of electricity;

- facilitates the transfer of nuclear technology and knowledge in a sustainable manner to developing member states;
- develops nuclear safety standards and promotes the achievement and maintenance of high levels of safety in applications of nuclear energy;
- verifies, through its inspection system, that States comply with their commitments, under the Non-Proliferation Treaty and other non-proliferation agreements, to use nuclear material and facilities only for peaceful purposes.

9.5.3. Structure

Policymaking bodies of IAEA are the General Conference and the Board of Governors. The third main body of the organization is the Secretariat.

General Conference of IAEA Member States

The General Conference of IAEA Member States meets annually to consider and approve IAEA's programme and budget and to decide on other matters brought before it by the Board of Governors, the Director General, or Member States.

Board of Governors

The Board of Governors generally meets five times per year, it is composed of 35 member states, as designated and elected by the General Conference. At its meetings, the Board examines and makes recommendations to the General Conference on the IAEA's accounts, programme, and budget and considers applications for membership. It also approves safeguards agreements and the publication of the IAEA's safety standards and has the responsibility for appointing the Director General of the IAEA with the approval of the General Conference.

Secretariat

The IAEA Secretariat is made up of 2300 professional and support staff from scientific, technical, managerial, and professional disciplines. The Secretariat is headed by the Director General. The Director General is responsible for enforcement of the actions passed by the Board of Governors and the General Conference. The Director General is selected by the Board and approved by the General Conference for renewable four year terms.

Under the relationship agreement between the UN and the IAEA, the IAEA is recognized as being "responsible for international activities concerned with the peaceful uses of atomic energy." One of the statutory objectives of the IAEA is to ensure that none of the assistance it gives to member states is "used in such a way as to further any military purpose," and the IAEA has a staff of inspectors to report violations of this rule. In case of noncompliance, the agency's Board of Governors reports to the Security Council and the General Assembly of the UN.

9.6. Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty Organization (CTBTO)

9.6.1. The Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT)

The Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT) bans nuclear explosions by everyone, everywhere: on the Earth's surface, in the atmosphere, underwater and underground. Many attempts were made during the Cold War to negotiate a comprehensive test ban, but it was only in 1996 that the Treaty became a reality.

Over 2000 nuclear tests were carried out between 1945 and 1996, when the CTBT opened for signature: by the United States (1000+), the Soviet Union (700+), France (200+), the United Kingdom and China (45 each). Three countries have broken the de facto moratorium and tested nuclear weapons since 1996: India and Pakistan in 1998, and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) in 2006, 2009, 2013, 2016 and 2017.

183 countries have signed the CTBT, of which 161 have also ratified it (as of April 2021), including three of the nuclear weapon States: France, the Russian Federation and the United Kingdom. But 44 specific nuclear technology holder countries must sign and ratify before the CTBT can enter into force. Of these, eight are still missing: China, Egypt, India, Iran, Israel, North Korea, Pakistan and the USA. India, North Korea and Pakistan have yet to sign the CTBT.

Importance of the CTBT is that it makes it very difficult for countries to develop nuclear bombs for the first time, or for countries that already have them, to make more powerful bombs. It also prevents the huge damage caused by radioactivity from nuclear explosions to humans, animals and plants.

9.6.2. Preparatory Commission

Since CTBT is not yet in force, the organization is called the Preparatory Commission for the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization (CTBTO). It was founded in 1996, has over 270 staff from over 70 countries, and is based in Vienna.

CTBTO now consists of two main organs: a plenary body composed of all States Signatories (also known as the Preparatory Commission), which is assisted by three groups: a working group on administrative and financial issues, another on verification-related issues, and an advisory group. The other main body is the Provisional Technical Secretariat (PTS) which assists the plenary body in carrying out its activities. The CTBTO is financed mainly through assessed contributions by member states.

Apart from building up the verification regime, the Commission's main tasks are the promotion of the Treaty and the build-up of the verification regime so that it is operational when the Treaty enters into force.

9.6.3. Verification

The CTBT has a unique and comprehensive verification regime to make sure that no nuclear explosion goes undetected. This regime consists of three pillars:

- International Monitoring System,
- International Data Centre,
- On-Site Inspection.

The International Monitoring System (IMS) consist of 337 facilities worldwide to monitor the planet for signs of nuclear explosions as of May 2012, more than 260 facilities have been certified and around 85% of the facilities are running as of April 2021. The IMS uses different technologies to monitor earthquakes, man-made explosions, sound waves of the oceans, ultra-low frequency sound waves and to measure radioactive particles in the atmosphere.

On-site inspections can be dispatched to the area of a suspicious nuclear explosion if the data from the IMS indicate that a nuclear test has taken place there. A key benefit of an on-site inspection regime is that it deters potential violators from conducting nuclear explosions in the first place. Such an inspection can only be requested and approved by member states once the CTBT has entered into force. A large on-site inspection exercise was carried out in 2008 in Kazakhstan and in Jordan in 2014.

The International Data Centre at the CTBTO's HQ in Vienna receives tons of data from the global monitoring stations. The data are processed and distributed to the CTBTO's member states in both raw and analysed form. When North Korea tested in 2006 and 2009, the member states received information about the location, magnitude, time and depth of the tests within two hours – and before the actual test had been announced by North Korea.

9.6.4. Other advantages of the work of the CTBTO

Apart from the monitoring of nuclear testing, the activities of CTBTO, especially the collection and analysis of data can be of great importance in tsunami and earthquake warning, thus helping to warn people earlier and possibly saving lives. During the March 2011 Fukushima power plant accident, the network's radionuclide stations tracked the dispersion of radioactivity on a global scale. The data could also help us better understand oceans, volcanoes, climate change, the movement of whales, and many other issues.

Check your knowledge!

What does collective security and defence mean?

Why was NATO established and how does it operate?

What are the fundamental principles of OSCE?

Summarize the history of nuclear energy and nuclear testing!

What is the difference between the work of IAEA and CTBTO?

Useful websites:

NATO: www.nato.int

OSCE: www.osce.org

IAEA: www.iaea.org

CTBTO: www.ctbto.org

UN Office for Disarmament Affairs: www.un.org/disarmament/

10. Economic cooperation (OECD, WTO, OPEC, APEC, FTA)

10.1. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

10.1.1. Origins

The roots of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) go back to the rubble of Europe after World War II. Determined to avoid the mistakes of their predecessors in the wake of World War I, European leaders realised that the best way to ensure lasting peace was to encourage co-operation and reconstruction, rather than punish the defeated. The Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) was established in 1947 to run the US-financed Marshall Plan for reconstruction of a continent ravaged by war. By making individual governments recognise the interdependence of their economies, it paved the way for a new era of cooperation that was to change the face of Europe. Encouraged by its success and the prospect of carrying its work forward on a global stage, Canada and the US joined OEEC members in signing the new OECD Convention in 1960. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was officially born in 1961, when the Convention entered into force.

10.1.2. Members

OECD was established by 20 countries in 1960, since then 17 have joined, starting with Japan in 1964. China, India and Brazil have emerged as new economic giants. Most of the countries that formed part of the former Soviet bloc have either joined the OECD or adopted its standards and principles to achieve our common goals. Russia is negotiating to become a member of the OECD, and OECD now has close relations with Brazil, China, India, Indonesia and South Africa through the “enhanced engagement” programme. Together with them, the OECD brings around its table 40 countries that account for 80% of world trade and investment, giving it a pivotal role in addressing the challenges facing the world economy.

OECD membership is tied to economic capability, only the most developed countries are admitted, thus it is often nicknamed as the “Club of the Rich”.

10.1.3. Structure

Council

Decision-making power is vested in the OECD Council. It is made up of one representative per member country, plus a representative of the European Commission. The Council meets regularly at the level of permanent representatives to OECD and decisions are taken by consensus. The Council meets at ministerial level once a year to discuss key issues and set priorities for OECD work.

Secretariat

The work mandated by the Council is carried out by the OECD Secretariat. The head of the Secretariat is the Secretary-General, who also chairs the Council, thus linking the two organs. The Secretariat is in Paris and it is made up of some 2500 staff members, who support the activities of committees, and carry out the work in response to priorities decided by the OECD Council. The staff includes economists, lawyers, scientists and other professionals.

Specialised committees

Representatives of the 37 OECD member countries meet in specialised committees to advance ideas and review progress in specific policy areas, such as economics, trade, science, employment, education or financial markets. There are about 250 committees, working groups and expert groups.

10.1.4. Functions and tasks

The mission of OECD is to promote policies that will improve the economic and social well-being of people around the world.

OECD

- provides a forum in which governments can work together to share experiences and seek solutions to common problems;
- works with governments to understand what drives economic, social and environmental change;
- measures productivity and global flows of trade and investment;
- analyses and compares data to predict future trends;
- sets international standards on a wide range of things, from agriculture and tax to the safety of chemicals;
- recommends policies designed to make the lives of ordinary people better.

OECD accomplishes its tasks also by working with businesses and representatives of labour, with other civil society organisations. OECD is highly committed to market economies backed by democratic institutions and focuses on the wellbeing of all citizens.

After the 2009 economic crisis OECD focuses on helping governments in member countries and elsewhere in four main areas:

- governments need to restore confidence in markets and the institutions and companies that make them function. That will require improved regulation and more effective governance at all levels of political and business life.
- governments must re-establish healthy public finances as a basis for future sustainable economic growth;
- to foster and support new sources of growth through innovation, environmentally friendly 'green growth' strategies and the development of emerging economies;

- to underpin innovation and growth, we need to ensure that people of all ages can develop the skills to work productively and satisfyingly in the jobs of tomorrow.

OECD's work is based on

- continued monitoring of events in member countries as well as outside OECD area, and includes regular projections of short and medium-term economic developments;
- collection and analysis of data, after which committees discuss policy regarding this information, the Council makes decisions, and then governments implement recommendations;
- peer reviews through which the performance of individual countries is monitored by their peers, all carried out at committee-level;
- drafting agreements, standards and recommendations for international co-operation. They can culminate in formal agreements by countries, for example on combating bribery, or on the treatment of capital movements. They may produce standards and models, for example in the application of bilateral treaties on taxation, or recommendations, for example on cross-border co-operation in enforcing laws against spam. They may also result in guidelines, for example on corporate governance or environmental practices;
- publishing OECD's data, analysis, results and other intellectual output is the most important part of dissemination of information. OECD publishes regular outlooks, annual overviews and comparative statistics.

The OECD budget is about EUR 380 million. OECD is funded by its member countries. The size of OECD's budget and its programme of work are determined on a two-year basis by member countries. National contributions are based on a formula which takes account of the size of each member's economy. The largest contributor is the United States, which provides nearly 20% of the budget, followed by Japan 9%. Countries may also make voluntary contributions to financially support outputs in the OECD programme of work. Unlike the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund, OECD does not dispense grants or make loans.

10.2. World Trade Organization (WTO)

10.2.1. Origins

The World Trade Organization came into being in 1995. One of the youngest of the IOs, WTO is the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) established in the wake of World War II. So while the WTO is still young, the multilateral trading system that was originally set up under GATT is well over 60 years old. GATT

and the WTO have helped to create a strong and prosperous trading system contributing to unprecedented growth. Total trade in 2000 was 22-times the level of 1950.

The system was developed through a series of trade negotiations, or rounds, held under GATT. The first rounds dealt mainly with tariff reductions but later negotiations included other areas such as anti-dumping and non-tariff measures. The bulk of WTO's current work comes from the 1986–94 negotiations called the Uruguay Round and earlier negotiations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). The final momentum of the Uruguay Round was the establishment of WTO. The WTO is currently the host to new negotiations, under the 'Doha Development Agenda' launched in 2001.

The Doha Development Agenda (DDA), adds negotiations and other work on non-agricultural tariffs, trade and environment, WTO rules such as anti-dumping and subsidies, investment, competition policy, trade facilitation, transparency in government procurement, intellectual property, and a range of issues raised by developing countries as difficulties they face in implementing the present WTO agreements. Following the DDA the "Nairobi Package" was adopted at the WTO's Tenth Ministerial Conference, held in Nairobi, Kenya, in 2001 containing a series of six Ministerial Decisions on agriculture, cotton and issues related to least-developed countries (LDCs)

According to new estimates from the WTO, the volume of world merchandise trade is expected to increase by 8.0% in 2021 after having fallen 5.3% in 2020, continuing its rebound from the pandemic-induced collapse that bottomed out in the second quarter of 2020.

WTO is the only IO dealing with the global rules of trade between nations. Its main function is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably and freely as possible.

10.2.2. Members, structure, budget

The WTO has 160 members (as of April 2021), accounting for about 95% of world trade. Around 30 others are negotiating membership. China has joined in 2001. Member states' contribution makes up the budget of approx. 200 million Swiss francs (CHF).

Decisions are made by the entire membership. This is typically by consensus. A majority vote is also possible but it has never been used in the WTO, and was extremely rare under the WTO's predecessor, GATT. The WTO's agreements have been ratified in all members' parliaments. The most important bodies of the organization are the Ministerial Conference, the General Council, other councils, and the Secretariat.

Ministerial Conference

The WTO's top level decision-making body is the Ministerial Conference which meets at least once every two years. To this meeting every member state sends the head of government or the relevant minister.

General Council

Below the Ministerial Conference is the General Council (ambassadors and heads of delegation in Geneva) which meets several times a year in the Geneva HQ. The General Council also meets as the Trade Policy Review Body and the Dispute Settlement Body.

Specialized Councils

Specialized councils deal with special issues and they report to the General Council, such councils are the Goods Council, the Services Council and the Intellectual Property Council. The Councils work and other areas of WTO work are covered by numerous specialized committees, working groups and working parties who deal with the individual agreements and other areas such as the environment, development, membership applications and regional trade agreements.

Secretariat

The WTO Secretariat is based in Geneva (Switzerland), it has around 600 staff and is headed by a Director-General. Since decisions are taken by the members themselves, the Secretariat does not have decision-making role, only provides administrative tasks. The Secretariat's main duties are to supply technical support for the various councils and committees and the ministerial conferences, to provide technical assistance for developing countries, to analyse world trade, and to explain WTO affairs to the public and media. The Secretariat also provides some forms of legal assistance in the dispute settlement process and advises governments wishing to become members of the WTO.

10.2.3. Functions and tasks

It is an organization for trade opening, a forum for governments to negotiate trade agreements and to settle trade disputes. WTO agreements, negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world's trading nations, provide the legal ground rules for international commerce. Although negotiated and signed by governments, the goal is to help producers of goods and services, exporters, and importers conduct their business, while allowing governments to meet social and environmental objectives.

The system's overriding purpose is to help trade flow as freely as possible – so long as there are no undesirable side effects. That partly means removing obstacles, also means ensuring that individuals, companies and governments know what the trade rules are around the world, and giving them the confidence that there will be no sudden changes of policy.

Trade relations often involve conflicting interests. Agreements negotiated in the WTO system often need interpreting. The most harmonious way to settle these differences is through some neutral procedure based on an agreed legal foundation. That is the purpose behind the dispute settlement process written into the WTO agreements.

Main tasks of WTO are:

- trade negotiations about principles of liberalization on goods, services and intellectual property. These include individual countries' commitments to lower customs tariffs and other trade barriers, and to open and keep open services markets. They set procedures for settling disputes. These agreements are not static; they are renegotiated from time to time and new agreements can be added to the package.
- implementation and monitoring of trade agreements and policies. Various WTO councils and committees seek to ensure that these requirements are being followed and that WTO agreements are being properly implemented. All WTO members must undergo periodic scrutiny of their trade policies and practices, each review containing reports by the country concerned and the WTO Secretariat.
- dispute settlement mechanism is a procedure developed in the framework of WTO to solve trade quarrels between member states. Countries bring disputes to the WTO if they think their rights under the agreements are being infringed. Judgments by specially appointed independent experts are based on interpretations of the agreements and individual countries' commitments.
- building trade capacity for less developed countries. WTO agreements contain special provision for developing countries, including longer time periods to implement agreements and commitments, measures to increase their trading opportunities, and support to help them build their trade capacity, to handle disputes and to implement technical standards. The WTO organizes hundreds of technical cooperation missions to developing countries annually. It also holds numerous courses each year in Geneva for government officials. Aid for Trade aims to help developing countries develop the skills and infrastructure needed to expand their trade.

10.2.4. Main areas of regulation

Goods

It all began with trade in goods. From 1947 to 1994, GATT was the forum for negotiating lower customs duty rates and other trade barriers; the text of the General Agreement spelt out important rules, particularly non-discrimination.

Since 1995, the updated GATT has become the WTO's umbrella agreement for trade in goods. It has annexes dealing with specific sectors such as agriculture and textiles,

and with specific issues such as state trading, product standards, subsidies and actions taken against dumping.

Services

Banks, insurance firms, telecommunications companies, tour operators, hotel chains and transport companies looking to do business abroad can now enjoy the same principles of freer and fairer trade that originally only applied to trade in goods.

These principles appear in the new General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). WTO members have also made individual commitments under GATS stating which of their services sectors they are willing to open to foreign competition, and how open those markets are.

Intellectual property

The rules state how copyrights, patents, trademarks, geographical names used to identify products, industrial designs, and undisclosed information such as trade secrets – “intellectual property” – should be protected when trade is involved.

10.2.5. Dispute settlement

The WTO’s procedure for resolving trade quarrels is vital for enforcing the rules and therefore for ensuring that trade flows smoothly. Countries bring disputes to the WTO if they think their rights under the agreements are being infringed. Judgements by specially-appointed independent experts are based on interpretations of the agreements and individual countries’ commitments.

The system encourages countries to settle their differences through consultation. Failing that, they can follow a carefully mapped out, stage-by-stage procedure that includes the possibility of a ruling by a panel of experts, and the chance to appeal the ruling on legal grounds. Dispute settlement mechanism has already existed in the time of GATT, however it was not as popular as since the existence of WTO. The number of cases brought to the WTO is around 40 cases per year, compared to the 300 disputes dealt with during the entire life of GATT (1947–94).

10.3. Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)

10.3.1. Origins and members

The Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) is a permanent, intergovernmental organization, created at the Baghdad Conference in 1960, by Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Venezuela. The five Founding Members were later joined by nine other Members: Libya (1962); United Arab Emirates (1967); Algeria (1969); Nigeria

(1971); Angola (2007), Gabon (between 1975–1994); Equatorial Guinea (2017) and Congo (2018). OPEC has its headquarters in Vienna (Austria).

Founding of the organization occurred at a time of transition in the international economic and political landscape, with extensive decolonisation and the birth of many new independent states in the developing world. The international oil market was dominated by multinational companies and was largely separate from centrally planned economies. OPEC developed its collective vision in emphasising the inalienable right of all countries to exercise permanent sovereignty over their natural resources in the interest of their national development.

OPEC rose to international prominence during the 1970s, as its member countries took control of their domestic petroleum industries and acquired a major say in the pricing of crude oil on world markets. OPEC's objective is to co-ordinate and unify petroleum policies among Member Countries, in order to secure fair and stable prices for petroleum producers; an efficient, economic and regular supply of petroleum to consuming nations; and a fair return on capital to those investing in the industry.

10.3.2. Structure

The top-level decision-making body of OPEC is the Conference, which comprises representatives of all the member states, the Conference sets the main policies and strategies. The everyday work is directed by the Board of Governors. The Secretariat is the executive organ, located in Vienna, it is responsible for the implementation of all resolutions passed by the Conference and carries out all decisions made by the Board of Governors. The Secretariat is headed by the Secretary General, who is the chief officer.

10.3.3. Remarks

Disputes among OPEC members are frequent, because they have different approaches to oil production. Various members have pushed for reductions in production quotas to increase the price of oil and thus their own revenues. These demands conflict with Saudi Arabia's stated long-term strategy of being a partner with the world's economic powers to ensure a steady flow of oil that would support economic expansion. Part of the basis for this policy is the Saudi concern that expensive oil or oil of uncertain supply will drive developed nations to develop alternative fuels. The Saudi Oil Minister Sheikh Yamani famously said in 1973: "The stone age didn't end because we ran out of stones."

Another recurring problematic issue is the membership fee in OPEC. Ecuador withdrew in 1992 because it was unwilling or unable to pay a \$2 million membership fee and felt that it needed to produce more oil than it was allowed to under the OPEC quota, although it re-joined in 2007 and then withdrew again in January 2020. Similar concerns prompted Gabon to suspend membership in 1995. Joining in and withdrawing from OPEC

is an unusual issue compared to the other IOs. Indonesia suspended its membership in January 2009, reactivated it again in January 2016, but decided to suspend its membership once in November 2016. However, it re-joined the Organization in July 2016. Finally, Qatar terminated its membership on 1 January 2019.

10.4. Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)

10.4.1. History

The idea of APEC was first publicly broached by former Prime Minister of Australia, Mr Bob Hawke, during a speech in Seoul (South Korea) in 1989. Later that year, 12 Asia-Pacific economies met in Australia to establish APEC. The founding members were: Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, New Zealand, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and the United States.

China, Hong Kong, and Chinese Taipei joined in 1991. Mexico and Papua New Guinea followed in 1993. Chile acceded in 1994. And in 1998, Peru, Russia and Viet Nam joined, taking the full membership to 21. Several other countries wished to join, but members of the co-operation refrain from new acceptances. For several years they set a moratorium, and they also refused for example India, saying that India does not have borders with the Pacific Ocean.

10.4.2. Structure

APEC is not an international organization in the strict sense, it is not institutionalized, however it shows signs of it.

Between 1989 and 1992, APEC met as informal conferences of senior officials and ministers. In 1993, then United States President, Bill Clinton, established the practice of an annual APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting. The Economic Leaders' Meeting is attended by the heads of government of all APEC members by a ministerial-level official. The location of the meeting rotates annually among the member economies. In every meeting they decide the next steps of co-operation, and they issue a declaration. These usually include concrete economical steps, address objectives, and propose regulation.

10.4.3. Pillars of activity

APEC's three main pillars of activity are:

- trade and investment liberalisation,
- business facilitation,
- economic and technical cooperation.

Trade and Investment Liberalisation

APEC is the premier forum for trade and investment liberalisation in the Asia-Pacific and has set target dates for “free and open trade”: no later than the year 2010 for industrialised economies, and 2020 for developing economies (the Bogor Goals). When APEC was established in 1989 average trade barriers in the region stood at 16.9%; by 2004 barriers had been reduced by approximately 70% to 5.5%. As a consequence, trade has grown among the members and among the members and other economies. This purpose is achieved by bilateral free trade agreements, of which over 30 have been concluded between APEC members. Currently negotiations are aiming at the establishment of a free trade area in the Pacific.

Business Facilitation

APEC members wish to ease administrative burdens for businesses, thus they reduced transaction costs, introduced electronic systems for payments of customs and duties, simplified administration for businesses. APEC Business Advisory Council is the private-sector arm of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation. The main mandate of this council is to advise Leaders and other APEC officials on issues of interest to business. In 2020, ABAC presented its recommendations to APEC Economic Leaders in relation to ABAC’s 2020 priorities of “Integration, Innovation, Inclusion and Sustainability.”

Economic and Technical Cooperation

Economic and Technical Cooperation (ECOTECH) activities are designed to build capacity and skills in APEC Member Economies at both the individual and institutional level, to enable them to participate more fully in the regional economy and the liberalisation process. This is mainly executed through projects which aim at capacity-building and people gain the necessary skills to meet their economic potential.

10.5. Free Trade Areas

A free-trade area is a trade bloc whose member countries have signed a free-trade agreement (FTA), which eliminates tariffs, import quotas, and preferences on most (if not all) goods and services traded between them. If people are also free to move between the countries, in addition to FTA, it would also be considered an open border. It can be considered the second stage of economic integration. Countries choose this kind of economic integration if their economic structures are complementary. If their economic structures are competitive, it is likely there will be no incentive for a FTA or only selected areas of goods and services will be covered.

Free trading was the starting point for the predecessor of the European Union, today countries have hundreds of FTAs. For example, the United States has 12 FTAs in force with 17 countries. In addition, the United States has negotiated FTAs with Korea, Panama and Colombia, but these agreements have not yet entered into force. The United States is also in the process of negotiating a regional FTA, the Trans-Pacific Partnership,

with Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Chile, Malaysia, New Zealand, Peru, Singapore and Vietnam.

Most of these multilateral agreements are signed between neighbouring countries, but there are exceptions like the worldwide WTO agreements. There are bigger free trade areas in the world, which have their own name:

- ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA)
- North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)
- South Asia Free Trade Agreement (SAFTA)
- Greater Arab Free Trade Area (GAFTA)
- Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR)
- Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA)
- Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)

Check your knowledge!

When and why was OECD established?

What are the tasks and functions of OECD?

What kind of organs does WTO have?

Which are the main areas of regulation in the WTO system?

How are disputes settled in the WTO?

What is OPEC?

What is APEC?

What does the expression 'free trade area' mean?

Name a few FTAs!

Useful websites:

OECD: www.oecd.org

WTO: www.wto.org

OPEC: www.opec.org

APEC: www.apec.org

Free trade agreements: <http://trade.gov/fta/>

11. Other organizations

11.1. Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC)

The Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) (formerly Organization of the Islamic Conference) is an inter-governmental organization which has membership of 57 states spread over four continents. The Organization is the collective voice of the Muslim world, ensuring to safeguard and protect the interests of the Muslim world in the spirit of promoting international peace and harmony among various people of the world. The Organization was established in 1969.

The present Charter of the Organization was adopted by the Eleventh Islamic Summit held in Dakar, in 2008 which laid down the objectives and principles of the organization and fundamental purposes to strengthen the solidarity and cooperation among the Member States. Over the last 40 years, the membership has grown from its founding members of 25 to 57 states. The Organization represents over 1.5 billion Muslims of the world, its headquarters are in Jeddah (Saudi Arabia).

Under the Charter, the Organization aims to:

- safeguard and protect the common interests and support the legitimate causes of the Member States;
- ensure active participation of the Member States in the global political, economic and social decision-making processes to secure their common interests;
- reaffirm its support for the rights of peoples as stipulated in the UN Charter and international law;
- strengthen intra-Islamic economic and trade cooperation; in order to achieve economic integration leading to the establishment of an Islamic Common Market;
- protect and defend the true image of Islam, to combat defamation of Islam and encourage dialogue among civilizations and religions;

The Organization is composed of the following main bodies:

The Islamic Summit, composed of Heads of State and Government of Member States, is the supreme authority of the Organization. It convenes once every three years to deliberate, take policy decisions and provide guidance on all issues pertaining to the realization of the objectives and consider other issues of concern to the Member States.

The Council of Foreign Ministers, which meets once a year, considers the means for the implementation of the general policy of the Organization

The General Secretariat is the executive organ of the Organization, entrusted with the implementation of the decisions of the two preceding bodies.

11.2. Caribbean Community (CARICOM)

The establishment of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) was the result of a 15-year effort to fulfil the hope of regional integration. Regional cooperation started in 1958 and took different forms: first called the West Indies Federation, then Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA). In 1972, Caribbean leaders decided to transform the CARIFTA into a common market and establish the Caribbean Community. Economic cooperation in the region deepened in 1989 when the Heads of Government made the decision to transform the Caribbean Common Market into a single market where goods and services move freely. CARICOM has been greatly reformed in 2001, and establishment of new institutions took place. CARICOM has 15 member states, and 5 Associate Members

Structure of the organization:

The Conference of the Heads of Government is the main decision-making body. The other principal organ is the Council, which consists of Ministers responsible for CARICOM Affairs. The Secretariat is the principal administrative organ of the Community and is headed by a Secretary General. It is seated in Georgetown (Guyana).

Apart from the three main organs CARICOM has several other institutions, like the Assembly of Caribbean Community Parliamentarians, which was established in 1994 as a regional parliament, representing the people of the region. It is a deliberative and consultative body for the discussion of policies, programmes and other matters. It makes recommendations to the Conference, the Council and the various institutions of the Community and the Secretariat. The Assembly consists of representatives elected or appointed by the member states' Parliaments.

There are several institutions responsible for formulating policies and performing functions in relation to cooperation. E.g.: CARICOM Competition Commission, Caribbean Centre for Development Administration. The Community even has a judicial organ for settling disputes among states related to the common market, namely the Caribbean Court of Justice.

The objectives of the Community are:

- to improve standards of living and work;
- the full employment of labour and other factors of production;
- accelerated, coordinated and sustained economic development and convergence;
- expansion of trade and economic relations with third States;
- enhanced levels of international competitiveness;
- organisation for increased production and productivity;
- achievement of a greater effectiveness of Member States in dealing with third States, groups of States and entities of any description

- enhanced co-ordination of Member States' foreign and foreign economic policies and enhanced functional co-operation.

11.3. Commonwealth of Nations (Commonwealth)

The predecessor of the Commonwealth was the British Commonwealth of Nations, established in 1931 by autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by common allegiance to the Crown. The London Declaration of 1949 was a milestone on the road to developing the modern Commonwealth. India provided an interesting test case: it desired to become a republic yet wanted to remain a member of the Commonwealth and this posed a fresh challenge to the entire concept. Would Commonwealth membership only be for countries "owing an allegiance to the Crown"? A conference of Commonwealth Prime Ministers in 1949 decided to revise this criterion and to accept and recognise India's continued membership as a republic, paving the way for other newly independent countries to join. At the same time, the word "British" was dropped from the association's title to reflect the Commonwealth's changing character.

In 1965, the leaders of the Commonwealth established the Commonwealth Secretariat in London, which became the association's independent civil service, headed by a Secretary-General. Thus the Commonwealth became an intergovernmental organization, which today has 54 member states.

The Commonwealth does not have a sophisticated institutional framework.

Head of the Commonwealth is always the British monarch, however, the organization has a Secretary-General who is in practice the main representative of the organization and is responsible for the management and good governance of the Commonwealth. Administration is done by the Secretariat.

Heads of Government Meeting takes place in every second year, that is the main policy-making body. Ministers of concerned areas, such as trade, industry, health, agriculture meet as often as needed, but usually once a year.

11.4. Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)

The Commonwealth of Independent States is a regional organization whose participating countries are former Soviet Republics, formed during the breakup of the Soviet Union, in 1991. It is a loose association, stating that all its members are independent nations. By 1993 12 of the 15 former Soviet Republics joined the CIS, except for the 3 Baltic states, namely Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.

Although independence in the association is declared, all the Secretaries of CIS were Russian and the organization is significantly influenced by Russia. By today, several of the former republics withdrew from CIS, mainly owing to disputes with Russia. CIS has 9 members (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan). Turkmenistan participates as associate members, while Georgia withdrew fully in 2009 and Ukraine in 2018. Headquarters are in Minsk (Belarus) and Moscow (Russia).

Aim of CIS is to co-operate in political, economic and military issues. CIS has several Councils which outline the strategies and policies, such as the Council of the Heads of States, Council of the Heads of Governments, Council of Foreign Ministers and the Council of Defence Ministers. The Executive Committee is responsible for execution of the provisions set out by the Councils.

Members of CIS created several forums for economic cooperation, like a free trade area in 1994, the Central Asian Economic Cooperation in 1998, and the Eurasian Economic Community in 2000. However, none of these reached their goals fully, owing to – among others – high levels of corruption and bureaucracy.

For military cooperation CIS's members pledged to keep their armed forces and weapons under a single unified command and created a joint CIS Air Defence System. In 1992 CIS members signed the CIS Collective Security Treaty, but in 1999 several members (Azerbaijan, Georgia, Uzbekistan) refused to renew it. The remaining members reorganized it in 2002, they established the Collective Security Treaty Organization (CSTO). CSTO has 6 member states (in 2012): Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, and Tajikistan. This is legally a separate organization from CIS, however it provides the military aspect of CIS. CSTO is based upon the notion of collective security, with similar rules as in NATO. The headquarters of CSTO is in Moscow, and Russia has also won the right to veto military decisions in the member states, especially with respect to establishment of new military bases.

11.5. Smaller regional or specialised organizations

There are numerous smaller intergovernmental organizations either integrating a part of a region or dealing with very special issues (or both). Here only a few of them are discussed (based on a random selection).

11.5.1. Andean Community

The Andean Community dates back to 1969, when five South American countries (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador and Peru) signed the Cartagena Agreement in order to jointly improve their peoples' standard of living through integration and economic and

social cooperation. In 1976 Chile withdrew from it, Venezuela was a member between 1973-2006. Its headquarters is in Lima (Peru).

The Andean countries eliminated tariffs on their trade with each other and in 1993 formed a free trade area. This gave a strong boost to trade within the Community, which increased heavily, creating thousands of new jobs. Trade in services was also liberalized, particularly the different modes of transportation. Since 2003, the integration process was given a social content as well.

Main objectives of the organization are economic development, social cooperation, solidarity among members, to gradually form a Latin American common market.

Institutions of the organization developed gradually, and by now it has complex system: the main decision-making bodies are the Andean Council of Presidents and the Andean Council of Foreign Ministers; the main policy-making body is the Andean Community Commission, which is made up of a plenipotentiary representative from each member country, it now shares its legislative role with the Andean Council of Foreign Ministers. Administration and execution of decisions is done by the General Secretariat. The organizational system of the Andean Community highly resembles the system of the European Union, it also has a Parliament, a Court of Justice and several advisory councils. The EU is the third-largest trade partner and a major investor in the Andean countries. The Andean countries export agricultural products (45%), fishery products (15%) as well as mineral products (19,3%) to the EU

11.5.2. Organization for the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC)

In 1992 the Heads of State and Government of eleven countries: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Moldova, Romania, Russia, Turkey and Ukraine signed in Istanbul the Summit Declaration and the Bosphorus Statement giving birth to the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC). It came into existence as a promising model of multilateral political and economic initiative aimed at fostering interaction and harmony among the Member States, as well as to ensure peace, stability and prosperity encouraging friendly and good-neighbourly relations in the Black Sea region.

The BSEC Headquarters was established in 1994 in Istanbul.

BSEC acquired international legal identity and was transformed into a full-fledged regional economic organization in 1999. With the accession of Serbia and Montenegro in 2004, the member states increased to 12.

The principal regular decision making organ of the Organization of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation is the Council of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs. The decision

making within the BSEC is, apart from the Summit of the Heads of State and Government, bestowed upon the Council which may charge subsidiary organs to make a decision on a particular question and inform the Council on it. The Council shall, in principle, be convened at least once every six months.

There are many fields of co-operation: agriculture, energy, culture, trade, education, tourism, science, etc.

11.5.3. Danube Commission

The Danube Commission is an international intergovernmental organization established by the Convention regarding the regime of navigation on the Danube signed in Belgrade in 1948.

The main objectives of the Danube Commission's activity are to provide and develop free navigation on the Danube for the commercial vessels flying the flag of all states in accordance with interests and sovereign rights of the Member States of the Belgrade Convention, as well as to strengthen and develop economic and cultural relations of the said states among themselves and with the other countries.

The Member States of the Danube Commission are: Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Germany, Moldova, the Russian Federation, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia, and Ukraine. The seat of the organization is in Budapest (Hungary).

The Danube Commission in its work rests upon wide historical experience of navigation control on the international rivers of Europe and the best practice of the international river commissions, including the European Danube Commission established under the Paris Peace Treaty of 1856.

The Danube Commission's outlook is connected with the creation of the unified navigation system of inland waterways in Europe. It is concerned with the maintenance and improvement of navigation conditions of the Danube River, from its source in Germany to its outlets in Romania and Ukraine, leading to the Black Sea.

11.5.4. International Cocoa Organization (ICCO)

The International Cocoa Organization (ICCO) is a global organization, composed of both cocoa producing and cocoa consuming member countries, altogether 44 countries. Located in London (United Kingdom), ICCO was established in 1973 to put into effect the first International Cocoa Agreement which was negotiated in Geneva at a United Nations International Cocoa Conference. There have since been seven Agreements.

The mandate of the International Cocoa Organization is to work towards a sustainable world cocoa economy. The concept of “sustainability” encompasses social, economic and environmental dimensions in both production and consumption. This includes work on customs tariffs on cocoa bean imports, cocoa semi-products and chocolate; (indirect) taxes related to cocoa consumption and processing; production costs in different countries and regions; market information for cocoa farmers; and price risk management for farmers through co-operatives.

11.5.5. International Coffee Organization (ICO)

The International Coffee Organization was established in 1963 when the first International Coffee Agreement (ICA) entered into force, for a period of five years, and it has continued to operate under successive agreements negotiated since then. ICO is seated in London (United Kingdom) and has 49 members, out of which one is the European Union representing its 27 members. ICO Member Governments represent 97% of world coffee production and 67% of world consumption

Objectives of the organization is to encourage members to develop a sustainable coffee economy, to promote coffee consumption, the duality of coffee, to provide a forum for the private sector, to provide statistics, data and analysis of the coffee market.

Similar to ICCO and ICO there are other intergovernmental organizations, which deal with products, for example the International Sugar Organization and the International Grains Council.

Check your knowledge!

What is the CARICOM?

What are the aims of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation?

What is the difference between the Commonwealth of Nations and the Commonwealth of Independent States?

Choose three smaller organizations and describe them!

Useful websites:

Andean Community: www.comunidadandina.org

Caribbean Community: www.caricom.org

Commonwealth of Nations: <http://www.thecommonwealth.org/>

Danube Commission: www.danubecommission.org

International Cocoa Organization: www.icco.org

Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization: www.nafo.int

Organization for the Black Sea Economic Cooperation: www.bsec-organization.org

Organization of Islamic Cooperation: www.oic-oci.org

International Coffee Organization: <http://www.ico.org/>

12. Forums, movements and the future of international co-operation

The highest level of international co-operation is international organization, nevertheless it is not the only level. Several movements and forums have been established in the past decades by states to harmonize their policies, to discuss problems and strategies, to deal with the events of international life. At a global level most well-known movements are the Non-aligned Movement, the G8, G77, while at a regional level the Asia-Europe Meeting and the European Movement.

12.1. Non-aligned Movement

The Non-aligned Movement represents the interests of about 120 countries from all over the world, but mainly developing ones. Its origins date back to 1955, when in Bandung (Indonesia) 30 states from Africa and Asia gathered at a conference, where they declared their common interests, their shared problems. They decided to resist the pressure from big powers, to fight for their independence and against colonisation.

The first summit was held in 1961, in Belgrade (Yugoslavia), where countries not on a regional basis, but based on shared interests were invited. The participants drafted the principles of their co-operation and the criteria to become a member.

Member countries should have independent policies from the major powers, especially from the USA and USSR. Members should be against all forms of colonialism and should support national independence movements. Members should not be parties to multilateral military organizations related to the big powers (namely NATO, SEATO, and the Warsaw Pact).

The Movement's main aim was to have independent international politics, to fight against imperialism and colonialism, and to solve disputes in a peaceful way. Since the 1970s they've been urging the development of a new economic order, which is fair, equitable and sustainable.

The Movement meets in every third year on a summit, the 18th Summit was held in 2019 in Baku, Azerbaijan. Administration is done by the chairing country. Since all movement members are members of the UN, they hold informal meetings and do co-ordination among themselves in New York via ambassadors sent to the UN. They regularly have meetings in New York to discuss and co-ordinate positions and policies. Apart from the summit, where countries represent themselves at the head-of-state level, the movement often holds meetings at ministerial level.

12.2. G77, G8 and G20

The 'G + number' represents a group of states who have decided to meet regularly in order to discuss mainly economic issues and to harmonize positions.

12.2.1. G77

The Group of 77 or G77 has been founded in 1964 by 77 developing countries, who decided to co-ordinate their positions in the meetings of the UN, especially with respect to economic, social, cultural and development issues. The group has about 130 members today, but it has kept its original name.

The Group of 77 is the largest intergovernmental forum of developing countries in the United Nations, which provides the means for the developing countries to articulate and promote their collective economic interests and enhance their joint negotiating capacity on all major international economic issues within the United Nations system. Most of these countries are on the Southern Hemisphere, thus the group promotes South-South cooperation for development. China is a member of the G77.

The Chairmanship, which is the highest political body within the organizational structure of the Group of 77, rotates on a regional basis (between Africa, Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean) and is held for one year. Similar to the Non-aligned Movement they meet at the highest level summits (in about every 3rd – 4th year), as well as yearly at a ministerial level, and regularly in New York at ambassador-level.

12.2.2. G8

The Group of Eight (G8) is a forum for the governments of eight of the world's largest economies. (It excludes, however, two of the actual eight largest economies by nominal GDP: China, 2nd, and Brazil, 6th). The forum originated with a 1975 summit hosted by France that brought together representatives of six governments: France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States, thus leading to the name Group of Six or G6. The summit became known as the Group of Seven or G7 the following year with the addition of Canada. In 1997, Russia was added to group which then became known as the G8.

Heads of state meet once a year, while the sectoral ministers meet several times every year to discuss mainly economic issues. Lately, both France and the United Kingdom have expressed a desire to expand the group to include five developing countries, referred to as the Outreach Five or the Plus Five: Brazil, China, India, Mexico, and South Africa. These countries have participated as guests in previous meetings, which are sometimes called G8+5.

12.2.3. G20

G20 refers to the group of the twenty biggest economies, who also meet at heads of state and finance minister level. G20 has started at finance ministerial level in 1999, the G20 heads of government or heads of state have also periodically conferred at summits since their initial meeting in 2008. Collectively, the G20 economies account for more than 80 percent of the gross world product (GWP), 80 percent of world trade (including EU intra-trade), and two-thirds of the world population. The members are: South Africa, Canada, Mexico, USA, Argentina, Brazil, Australia, China, Japan, South Korea, India, Indonesia, Russia, Turkey, France, Germany, Italy, United Kingdom, Saudi Arabia and the European Union.

The G20 was proposed by former Canada as a forum for cooperation and consultation on matters pertaining to the international financial system. It studies, reviews, and promotes high-level discussion of policy issues pertaining to the promotion of international financial stability, and seeks to address issues that go beyond the responsibilities of any organization. With the G20 growing in stature after the 2008 Washington Summit, its leaders announced that the group would replace the G8 as the main economic council of wealthy nations, but it has not happened yet.

12.3. European Movement

The modern idea of a united Europe dates back to the end of the 19th century, although it has already been expressed by scholars and politicians in the early Middle Ages. The European movement was revived by Winston Churchill in 1947, when he initiated the establishment of the United European Movement. The movement organized a conference for delegates of all European nations to discuss the possibility of co-operation and development of Europe – between the two world powers, namely the US and the Soviet Union.

The movement had its first congress in 1948, named the Congress of Europe, where 6630 delegates represented their nations, such prominent politicians attended as Konrad Adenauer (future Chancellor of West Germany), Winston Churchill (former Prime Minister of the United Kingdom), Harold Macmillan (future Prime Minister of the UK), François Mitterrand (future President of France), Paul-Henry Spaak (President of Belgium) and Altiero Spinelli (Italian leader of the European movement, one of the founding fathers of the EU) took an active role in the congress and a call was launched for a political, economic and monetary Union of Europe.

After the congress the name of the movement has been changed to European Movement. Achievements since 1948:

- establishment of the Council of Europe (see Chapter 8),
- establishment of the College of Europe,

- establishment of the European Centre of Culture,
- active participation in European economic integration (predecessor organizations of EU).

Today the European Movement aims to be the place where civil society, business, trade unions, NGOs, political parties, local authorities and academia come together to craft a way forward for the European Union

The movement operates in its headquarters in Brussels (Belgium), and has national councils in 39 states.

12.4. Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM)

The Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM) was initiated in 1996 when the ASEM leaders met in Bangkok, Thailand. It brings together the 27 European Union Member States and the European Commission with 21 Asian countries and the ASEAN Secretariat (altogether 53 members). Meetings are held both at head of state and ministerial level.

The ASEM dialogue addresses political, economic and cultural issues. ASEM is an informal trans-regional platform for dialogue and cooperation between the two regions and has arisen out of a mutual recognition that the relationship between Asia and Europe needed to be strengthened in light of the challenges and opportunities of the 21st century. ASEM has provided a dialogue platform to address international matters such as United Nations reforms, weapons of mass destruction issues, terrorism, migration flows or WTO negotiations. Asia and Europe have worked together for improving the international security environment.

12.5. The future of international organizations

The end of the Cold War, the unforeseeable and dramatic events of the early 1990s have started significant changes both at a global (mainly in the UN Family) and a regional level (see for examples the changes in NATO and the development of European integration). An era has started where international co-operation can be based on generally believed principles and commonly shared values. The East-West confrontation – which for decades had a great influence on international relations – is over. Naturally, this does not mean that there are no disagreements or different interests in the international community, however paralysis based upon ideologies seems to be diminished. The end of the East–West opposition resulted in two effects. On the one hand more developing countries chose democratic and capitalistic models in their political and economic systems. On the other hand, common representation of interests has become looser and the disadvantageous side-effects of globalisation have increased, especially in the fields of trade and economics.

The 1990s posed serious challenges for IOs, they had to find a way to handle the new system of international relations and to tackle the challenges. Instead of the confrontation between the blocs, several new conflicts arose, which have often been inside a state. There has been a great rise in the number of non-international conflicts, civil wars and genocide. Difference between developed and developing countries has become even greater than before, instead of diminishing. In about 100 developing countries the per capita income is lower today, than it was 15 years ago. About one fifth of the world population has the 90% of the world GDP, while the poorest one fifth owns only 1% of it. At a world level, population is growing faster than economic growth. According to several researches, for example conducted by OECD and the World Bank, we cannot expect better living standards until the growth of the population is so fast. However, birth control is a very sensitive issue, relating to religion, human rights, social and political questions. These concerns are especially pressing in Africa and Southeast Asia. At the national level, some countries have started to deal with the issue, like China, Vietnam and South Korea, yet at the international level, conferences couldn't bring effective solutions.

Arms control and disarmament is still a major issue, even though states have committed themselves to the prohibition of use of force, nuclear disarmament is yet to come. Contrary to the solemn declarations, states still spend lot more on armament and military capacity-building than on international organizations fostering peace, providing food, shelter, vaccines against diseases and schooling for children. Even though peaceful settlement of disputes is a major principle, several conflicts have existed for 50-60 years, without a solution (just to mention a few: Korea, Arab-Israeli conflict, Kashmir).

In the past decades the international community has realised that protection of the environment is a key and urgent issue, climate change is a threat to many. Several human activities are causing such harms which are irreparable or can be repaired only in a very long time, it seems that people are using Earth without concern to future generations. Energy is a vital part of economic development, while most of today's energy production is very harmful to the environment (especially coal and oil).

These are issues which cannot be dealt with by every nation alone. Countries must co-operate and act together. International organizations can be an adequate forum for that, but it must be kept in mind that IOs are only secondary actors in the international arena. IOs can only do what they are authorized to do by the member states. On the one hand proliferation of IOs and international forums is good for building peaceful relations, while on the other hand work of international organizations is getting more fragmented. There are a vast number of international organizations at all levels (global, particular, regional), often dealing with the same issues and yet problems are still there. Efforts, knowledge and money are split among the different levels, not always with a respect to each other's' work. International organizations alone are not able to influence global processes; the world is more complex than that. The IMF or the WTO can be blamed for some bad decisions – which were adopted by the organ of IMF or WTO where the member states

are represented – but in itself IMF or the WTO is not responsible for all the faults of the financial and trading system. There are many other actors apart from IOs, who influence the system, starting with multinational companies, and going on with banks, NGOs, trade unions and politicians.

Globalisation is the result of hundreds of years of actions and development, it is a natural process and probably it's even going to increase. Globalisation has many positive effects, from the fact that people can travel around the world to the internet. The spread of information and technological know-how has resulted in investment and the development of industry in developing countries, levels of education arose and there are less illiterate people. Criticism of globalisation often mentions that the developed world still exploits developing ones, multinational companies are the real leaders of the world, the world is becoming more unified and people lose their cultural diversity. However, these negative effects are not generated by the work of international organizations, often quite on the contrary. One of the main objectives of UNESCO is to protect cultural heritage, to support diversity and dialogue.

International organizations are essential parts of the international community and relations in the 21st century. They are the best option – from the existing ones – to deal with international issues, such as climate change, sustainable development, protection of biodiversity, natural disasters, famine, and many other issues. For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic, the IOs showed a great effort to provide right information and launched investigations in which the results would be used for fighting against the pandemic. Even though decision-making is often influenced by the big powers, international organizations are a good forum for smaller countries to harmonize their interests and better represent their positions, to press solutions which are good for them. International organizations help to suppress the unilateral and selfish actions of states because it presents a control mechanism to all states. However, reform of the system, especially in the United Nations and the Security Council is inevitable to the maintenance of long-lasting peace. It is still the interest of the whole international community to have peace, as it was declared in the UN Charter in 1945. Even though the Charter and its principles have been violated several times in the past decades, the system still exists and works.

Check your knowledge!

What is the Non-aligned Movement?

What is the difference between the G8, G77 and G20?

What are the achievements of the European Movement?

What does ASEM stand for?

What are the challenges of international cooperation in the 21st century?

Useful websites:

G20: www.g20.org

G77: www.g77.org

Global Policy Forum: www.globalpolicy.org

Council on Foreign Relations: www.cfr.org

Summary table of international organizations

<i>Name</i>	<i>Founding date</i>	<i>HQ</i>	<i>Membership</i>	<i>Scope of competences</i>
African Union	1963	Addis Ababa	regional	general
Arab League	1945	Cairo	regional	general
ASEAN	1967	Jakarta	regional	P, E, S
CARICOM	1972	Georgetown	regional	P, E, S
CIS	1991	Moscow	particular	P, E, M
Commonwealth	1931	London	particular	P, E, S
Council of Europe	1949	Strasbourg	regional	P, E, S
CTBTO	1996	Vienna	universal	P, E
FAO	1945	Rome	universal	P, E, S
IAEA	1957	Vienna	universal	P, E
IBRD	1944	Washington	universal	P, E
ICAO	1944	Montreal	universal	P, E
IDA	1960	Washington	universal	P, E, S
IFC	1956	Washington	universal	P, E, S
ILO	1919	Geneva	universal	P, E, S
IMF	1944	Washington	universal	P, E
IMO	1958	London	universal	P, E
ITU	1865	Geneva	universal	P, E
MIGA	1988	Washington	universal	P, E, S
NATO	1949	Brussels	particular	P, M
OAS	1890	Washington	regional	general
OECD	1960	Paris	particular	P, E
OIC	1969	Jeddah	particular	P, E, S
OPEC	1960	Vienna	particular	P, E
OSCE	1994	Vienna	particular	P, E, S
UNESCO	1946	Paris	universal	P, S
UNIDO	1966	Vienna	universal	P, E
United Nations	1945	New York	universal	general
UNWTO	1970	Madrid	universal	P, E
UPU	1874	Bern	universal	P, E
WHO	1948	Geneva	universal	P, S
WIPO	1967	Geneva	universal	P, E
WMO	1950	Geneva	universal	P, S
WTO	1995	Geneva	universal	P, E

P = political; E = economic; S = social; M = military (general scope covers all four)

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G77: www.g77.org
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International Committee of the Red Cross: www.icrc.org
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