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Division :- 'E'

Subject :- International Relations (extra credit course)

Topic :- BRICS

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Introduction

BRICS is the acronym coined to associate five major emerging economies: Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa. The BRICS members are known for their significant influence on regional affairs. Since 2009, the governments of the BRICS states have met annually at formal summits. Russia hosted the most recent 12th BRICS summit on 17 November 2020 virtually due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Originally the first four were grouped as "BRIC" (or "the BRICs") before the induction of South Africa in 2010. The BRICS have a combined area of 39,746,220 km² (15,346,101.0 sq mi) and an estimated total population of about 3.21 billion, or about 26.656% of the world land surface and 41.53% of the world population. Four out of five members are among the world's ten largest countries by population and by area, except for South Africa, the twenty-fourth in both. Members of G20, as of 2018, these five states had a combined nominal GDP of US\$19.6 trillion, about 23.2% of the gross world product, a combined GDP (PPP) of around US\$40.55 trillion (32% of World's GDP PPP), and an estimated US\$4.46 trillion in combined foreign reserves. The BRICS have received both praise and criticism from numerous commentators. Bilateral relations among BRICS states are conducted mainly based on non-interference, equality, and mutual benefit. The existence of the BRICS grouping does not signify a formal or informal alliance; there are multiple economic, territorial, and political disputes between the five governments.

BRIC's Growth in Global Dominance

In 1990, BRIC countries accounted for 11% of global gross domestic product (GDP). By 2014, this figure rose to nearly 30%. These figures

include a high in 2010, following a plunge in value, surrounding the 2008 financial crisis.

BRIC countries were originally projected to be the fastest-growing market economies by Jim O'Neill of Goldman Sachs in 2001. The Goldman Sachs thesis does not argue that these countries are a political alliance, like the European Union (EU), or a formal trading association. Instead, it asserts they have power as an economic bloc. BRIC countries have not announced formal trade agreements, but leaders regularly attend summits together and often act in concert with one another's interests. It has been postulated that by 2050 these economies would be wealthier than most of the current major economic powers.

This growth is due to lower labor and production costs in these countries. The BRIC initialization expanded to include South Africa as the fifth nation in 2010. Many companies also cite BRIC nations as a source of foreign expansion or foreign direct investment (FDI) opportunities. Foreign business expansion happens in countries with promising economies in which to invest.

Goldman Sachs, which coined the term, also created an investment fund especially targeted at opportunities in the BRIC economies. However, it merged that fund with a broader emerging markets fund in 2015 following a slowdown in growth prospects for the economies.

In O'Neill's 2001 report, published by Goldman Sachs, he noted while global GDP was set to rise 1.7% in 2002, BRIC nations were forecast to grow more quickly than the G-7. The G-7 are a group of the seven most advanced global economies, which include Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United

States. In the paper "Building Better Economic BRICs," O'Neill runs through four scenarios for measuring and projecting GDP, adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP). In these scenarios, the nominal GDP assumption for BRIC rises from the 2001 measurement of 8% in US dollars (USD) to 14.2%—or, when converted at PPP rates, 23.3% to 27.0%.

In 2003, Dominic Wilson and Roopa Purushothaman wrote a report "Dreaming with BRICs: The Path to 2050," again published by Goldman Sachs, claiming that by 2050 the BRIC cluster could grow to a size larger than the G7 when measured in USD. The world's most significant economies would, thus, look drastically different in four decades, with the largest global economic powers, by income per capita, no longer being the wealthiest nations.

Objective

- To study the BRICS organization.
- To study the works of BRICS organization.
- To study how the allegiance of nations is beneficial to each other.
- To study all the trade policies between BRICS nations.
- To study the international relations between these BRICS nations.
- To analyze the international relations between BRICS nations.

History

The term "BRIC" is believed to be coined in 2001 by then-chairman of Goldman Sachs Asset Management, Jim O'Neill, in his publication *Building Better Global Economic BRICs*. But, it was actually coined by Roopa Purushothaman who was a Research Assistant in the original report. The foreign ministers of the initial four BRIC General states (Brazil, Russia, India, and China) met in New York City in September 2006 at the margins of the General Debate of the UN Assembly, beginning a series of high-level meetings. A full-scale diplomatic meeting was held in Yekaterinburg, Russia, on 16 June 2009.

First BRIC summit

The BRIC grouping's 1st formal summit, also held in Yekaterinburg, commenced on 16 June 2009, with Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva, Dmitry Medvedev, Manmohan Singh, and Hu Jintao, the respective leaders of Brazil, Russia, India, and China, all attending. The summit's focus was on improving the global economic situation and reforming financial institutions, and discussed how the four countries could better co-operate in the future. There was further discussion of ways that developing countries, such as 3/4 of the BRIC members, could become more involved in global affairs.

In the aftermath of the Yekaterinburg summit, the BRIC nations announced the need for a new global reserve currency, which would have to be "diverse, stable and predictable." Although the statement that was released did not directly criticize the perceived "dominance" of the US dollar – something that Russia had criticized in the past – it did spark a fall in the value of the dollar against other major currencies.

Entry of South Africa

In 2010, South Africa began efforts to join the BRIC grouping, and the process for its formal admission began in August of that year. South Africa officially became a member nation on 24 December 2010, after being formally invited by China to join and subsequently accepted by other BRIC countries. The group was renamed BRICS – with the "S" standing for South Africa – to reflect the group's expanded membership. In April 2011, the President of South Africa, Jacob Zuma, attended the 2011 BRICS summit in Sanya, China, as a full member.

Developments

The BRICS Forum, an independent international organization encouraging commercial, political, and cultural cooperation between the BRICS nations, was formed in 2011. In June 2012, the BRICS nations pledged \$75 billion to boost the lending power of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). However, this loan was conditional on IMF voting reforms. In late March 2013, during the fifth BRICS summit in Durban, South Africa, the member countries agreed to create a global financial institution intended to rival the western-dominated IMF and World Bank. After the summit, the BRICS stated that they planned to finalize the arrangements for this New Development Bank by 2014. However, disputes relating to burden sharing and location slowed down the agreements.

At the BRICS leaders meeting in St Petersburg in September 2013, China committed \$41 billion towards the pool; Brazil, India, and Russia \$18 billion each; and South Africa \$5 billion. China, holder of the world's largest foreign exchange reserves and contributes the bulk of the currency pool, wants a more significant managing role, said one BRICS official. China also wants to be the location of the reserve. "Brazil and India want the initial capital to be shared equally. We know that China wants more," said a Brazilian official. "However, we are still negotiating, there are no tensions arising yet." On 11 October 2013, Russia's Finance Minister Anton Siluanov said that creating a \$100 billion fund designated to steady currency markets would be taken in early 2014. The Brazilian finance minister, Guido Mantega, stated that the fund would be created by March 2014. However, by April 2014, the currency reserve pool and development bank had yet to be set up, and the date was rescheduled to 2015. One driver for the BRICS

development bank is that the existing institutions primarily benefit extra-BRICS corporations, and the political significance is notable because it allows BRICS member states "to promote their interests abroad... and can highlight the strengthening positions of countries whose opinion is frequently ignored by their developed American and European colleagues."

In March 2014, at a meeting on the margins of the Nuclear Security Summit in The Hague, the BRICS Foreign Ministers issued a communiqué that "noted with concern, the recent media statement on the forthcoming G20 Summit to be held in Brisbane in November 2014. The custodianship of the G20 belongs to all Member States equally, and no one Member State can unilaterally determine its nature and character." In light of the tensions surrounding the 2014 Crimean crisis, the Ministers remarked that "The escalation of hostile language, sanctions and counter-sanctions, and force does not contribute to a sustainable and peaceful solution, according to international law, including the principles and purposes of the United Nations Charter." This was in response to the statement of Australian Foreign Minister Julie Bishop, who had said earlier that Russian President Vladimir Putin might be barred from attending the G20 Summit in Brisbane. In July 2014, the Governor of the Russian Central Bank, Elvira Nabiullina, claimed that the "BRICS partners the establishment of a system of multilateral swaps that will allow to transfer resources to one or another country, if needed" in an article which concluded that "If the current trend continues, soon the dollar will be abandoned by most of the significant global economies and it will be kicked out of the global trade finance."

Over the weekend of 13 July 2014, when the final game of the FIFA World Cup was held, and in advance of the BRICS Fortaleza summit, Putin met fellow leader Dilma Rousseff to discuss the BRICS

development bank, and sign some other bilateral accords on air defense, gas and education. Rouseff said that the BRICS countries "are among the largest in the world and cannot content themselves in the middle of the 21st century with any kind of dependency." The Fortaleza summit was followed by a BRICS meeting with the Union of South American Nations president's in Brasilia, where the development bank and the monetary fund were introduced. The development bank will have capital of US\$50 billion with each country contributing US\$10 billion, while the monetary fund will have US\$100 billion at its disposal.

On 15 July, the first day of the BRICS 6th summit in Fortaleza, Brazil, the group of emerging economies signed the long-anticipated document to create the US\$100 billion New Development Bank (formerly known as the "BRICS Development Bank") and a reserve currency pool worth over another US\$100 billion. Documents on cooperation between BRICS export credit agencies and an agreement of cooperation on innovation were also inked.

At the end of October 2014, Brazil trimmed down its US government holdings to US\$261.7 billion; India, US\$77.5 billion; China, US\$1.25 trillion; South Africa, US\$10.3 billion.

In March 2015, Morgan Stanley stated that India and Indonesia had escaped from the 'fragile five' (the five major emerging markets with the most fragile currencies) by instituting economic reforms. Previously, in August 2013, Morgan Stanley rated India and Indonesia, together with Brazil, Turkey, and South Africa, as the 'fragile five' due to their vulnerable currencies. But since then, India and Indonesia have reformed their economies, completing 85% and 65% of the necessary adjustments respectively, while Brazil had only achieved 15%, Turkey only 10%, and South Africa even less.

After the 2015 summit, the respective communications ministers, under a Russian proposal, had a first summit for their ministries in Moscow in October where the host minister, Nikolai Nikiforov, proposed an initiative to further tighten their information technology sectors and challenge the monopoly of the United States in the sector.

Since 2012, the BRICS group of countries have been planning an optical fibre submarine communications cable system to carry telecommunications between the BRICS countries, known as the BRICS Cable. Part of the motivation for the project was the spying of the U.S. National Security Agency on all telecommunications that flowed in and out of United States territory.

In August 2019, the communications ministers of the BRICS countries signed a letter of intent to cooperate in the Information and Communication Technology sector. This agreement was signed in the fifth edition of meeting of communication ministers of countries member of the group. The agreement was signed at the fifth meeting of BRICS communications minister held in Brasilia.

Summits

The grouping has held annual summits since 2009, with member countries taking turns to host. Prior to South Africa's admission, two BRIC summits were held, in 2009 and 2010. The first five-member BRICS summit was held in 2011. The most recent BRICS summit took place in Brazil from 13 to 14 November 2019. India will host the BRICS 2021 summit at New Delhi & amid tensions with China, Xi Jinping had made a soft move by supporting India's Chairmanship in 2021. Experts are saying China is trying to rebuild its relation with India after Standoff.

I. **First BRICS Summit:**

The inaugural **BRIC summit** took place in Yekaterinburg, Russia on June 16, 2009. The four heads of government from the BRIC countries attended. The summit was to discuss the global recession taking place at the time, future cooperation between states, and trade. Some of the specific topics discussed were food, trade, climate trade, and security for the nations. They called out for a more influential voice and representation for up and coming markets. Note at the time South Africa was not yet admitted to the BRICS organization at the time.

II. **2nd BRICS Summit:** The **2010 BRIC summit** took place in Brasília, Brazil on April 16, 2010. This was the second BRIC summit after Yekaterinburg in 2009. The meeting took place between the four heads of government from the BRIC states following bilateral meetings in the prior days. Guests: Jacob Zuma (President of South Africa) and Riyad al-Maliki (Foreign Minister of the Palestinian National Authority). The second summit continued on the conversation of the global recession and how to recover. They had a conversation on the IMF, climate change, and more ways to form cooperation between states.

- III. 3rd BRICS Summit:** The **2011 BRICS summit** took place in Sanya on the island of Hainan, China, on 14 April 2011. This was the third BRICS summit since 2009. The meeting took place between the five heads of state/heads of government from the BRICS states following bilateral meetings in the prior days. First summit to include South Africa alongside the original BRIC countries. The third summit had nations debating on the global and internal economies of countries.
- IV. 4th BRICS Summit:** The **2012 BRICS summit** was the fourth annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference attended by the heads of state or heads of government of the five member states Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The summit was held at Taj Hotel in New Delhi, India on 29 March 2012 and began at 10:00 Indian Standard Time. This is the first time that India has hosted a BRICS summit. The theme of the summit was "BRICS Partnership for Global Stability, Security and Prosperity".The BRICS Cable announced an optical fibre submarine communications cable system that carries telecommunications between the BRICS countries. The fourth summit discussed how the organization could prosper from the global recession and how they could take advantage of that to help their economies. BRICS had the intention of improving their global power and to provide adequate development for their state
- V. 5th BRICS Summit:** The **2013 BRICS summit** was the fifth annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference attended by the head of states or heads of government of the five member states Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The summit was held in Durban, South Africa in 2013. This

completed the first round of BRICS summits. The fifth summit discusses the New Development Bank proposition and Contingent Reserve Agreement. BRICS also announced the Business Council and its Think Tank Council.

VI. 6th BRICS Summit: The **6th BRICS summit** was the sixth annual diplomatic meeting of the BRICS, a grouping of major emerging economies that includes Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. It was hosted by Brazil, as the first host country of the current five-year summit cycle; the host city was Fortaleza. Though Brazil had previously hosted a four-member BRIC summit in April 2010, 2014 marked its first full BRICS summit; the 2010 summit in Brasília did not officially include South Africa, who were only invited as guests as a prelude to their gaining full membership in December 2010. Argentine President Cristina Kirchner was a special guest of the summit, and the BRICS leaders met with their UNASUR counterparts shortly after. The 6th BRICS summit resulted in the official inauguration of the New Development Bank, a multilateral development bank intended as an alternative to the World Bank and International Monetary Fund.

VII. 7th BRICS Summit : The **7th BRICS summit** was the seventh annual diplomatic summit of the head of states or government of the BRICS member states. It was held in the Russian city of Ufa in Bashkortostan on 8–9 July 2015. joint summit with SCO-EAEU. The seventh summit discussed global, economic problems, and better ways to foster cooperation between member states.

- VIII. 8th BRICS Summit :** The **2016 BRICS summit** was the eighth annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference attended by the heads of country or heads of government of the five member countries Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The summit was held from 15 to 16 October 2016 at the Taj Exotica hotel in Benaulim, Goa, India. India holds the chair of the BRICS from February 2016 to December 2016. The eighth BRICS summit debated on topics like counter-terrorism, economies, and climate change. BRICS also issued the Goa Declaration and Action Plan, hoping to harden their relationships.
- IX. 9th BRICS Summit:** The **2017 BRICS summit** was the ninth annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference attended by the heads of state or heads of government of the five member states Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The summit was held in Xiamen, China, the second time the China has hosted the summit after the 2011 summit. The ninth summit was an event that talked about a bright future for BRICS and what their goals intend to be. They still covered and debated on international and regional issues with one another; hopeful to keep moving forward.
- X. 10th BRICS Summit:** The **2018 BRICS summit** is the tenth annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference attended by the heads of state or heads of government of the five member states Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The summit was held in Johannesburg, South Africa, the second time the South Africa has hosted the summit after the 2013 summit. The tenth summit had the members discuss their rising

industries. Hoping they can cut a bigger slice of the industry market.

XI. 11th BRICS Summit: The **2019 BRICS summit** was the eleventh annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference to be attended by the heads of state or heads of government of the five member states Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The meeting was held at the Itamaraty Palace, where the Brazilian Ministry of Foreign Affairs is located. The Brazilian capital hosted the BRICS summit for the second time. The Sherpa meeting was held in the Brazilian city of Curitiba between March 14 and 15. The eleventh summit discussed advancements in the BRICS's science and innovation fields. Primarily trying to advance technology and digital currency. They made mutual agreements to help stop drug trafficking and organized crime; both internationally and internally.

XII. 12th BRICS Summit : The **2020 BRICS summit** was the twelfth annual BRICS summit, an international relations conference attended by the heads of state or heads of government of the five member states Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. The meeting was originally scheduled to take place in Saint Petersburg from July 21 to 23, 2020, but was changed to a video conference held on November 17 due to the outbreak of the global COVID-19 pandemic. Joint summit with SCO. Discussing a mutual agreement on helping BRICS member countries to help foster better living standards and quality of life for each countries people. Plans on focusing on peace, economies, and cultural societal issues.

India in BRICS

India shares close economic and cultural ties with her BRICS partners. India attaches high importance to engagement with BRICS as a platform for coordination, consultation and cooperation on current issues. India's engagement with BRICS countries may be seen in the context of our proactive and broad-based international engagement to contribute towards building a peaceful and prosperous world. India's trade with BRICS partners is about US\$ 95 billion [2013-14 data— from the Ministry of Commerce & Industry of India]. India's strengths lie in labour, services, generic pharmaceuticals, and information technology. There are significant synergies with other BRICS partners which may be tapped to further strengthen intra-BRICS linkages in these areas. India's notable contribution to BRICS is proposal of the New Development— Bank which was put on the BRICS agenda at the 4th Summit hosted by India in New Delhi in March 2012. Subsequently, India hosted the first Negotiation Meeting for taking this initiative forward in August 2012. After several rounds of negotiations and Finance Ministers' meetings, the Agreement for setting up the Bank has been signed at the 6th Summit in Brazil in July 2014. The Bank has headquarters in Shanghai, with a regional office in South Africa. The first President of the Bank is from India. ⁵ <http://www.indianembassy.ie> ⁷ Other Indian initiatives include a BRICS Report released at the Delhi— Summit in March 2012 focusing on synergies and complementarities between the BRICS economies and highlighting their role as growth drivers of the world economy. India also added the Urbanization Forum to BRICS cooperation mechanisms— to bring greater focus on intra-BRICS cooperation to learn from each other's experience in tackling challenges of rapid urbanization faced by all BRICS members. India

institutionalized the practice of holding BRICS Academic Forum— meetings as preparatory meetings feeding into the Summit agenda by hosting the first such meeting in New Delhi in May 2009 before the first BRIC Summit held in Yekaterinburg, Russia in June 2009. At the 6th BRICS Summit in Brazil in July 2014, India has proposed— important initiatives in order to strengthen intra-BRICS cooperation. These initiatives relate to online education, an affordable health care platform, a virtual BRICS university, BRICS language schools, cooperation in small and medium enterprises, tourism, youth exchanges, a Young Scientists Forum and disaster management.

Conclusion

BRICS member countries, home to 43 per cent of the worlds' population, account for around 30 per cent of global GDP and 17 per cent share in the world trade. In other words, the BRICS countries are collectively the largest market in the world, and their cumulative GDP has more than tripled in the last ten years. However, despite these impressive figures and the institutional mechanism already in place, the volume of trade within the alliance, which in 2013 was estimated at \$300 billion, accounts for a mere 6.5 per cent of their total turnover of goods with the outside world. This can be explained by the fact that there are great distances separating the BRICS member countries, and not just geographically. Member countries enjoy different rates of economic growth; direct air service exists only between a few of their very largest cities; their respective languages are not commonly studied at schools and universities, meaning that even educated people from the five countries have very little understanding of their respective histories and cultures; and their societies are made up of different ethnic and religious groups. For the success of this forum and to face the existing global challenges BRICS member countries will have to realize on its full potential and resources by involving the rest of the world.

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World Health Organization

The World Health Organization (WHO) is a specialized agency of the United Nations responsible for international public health. The WHO Constitution, which establishes the agency's governing structure and principles, states its main objective as “the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health” It is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland, with six semi-autonomous regional offices and 150 field offices worldwide

The WHO was established by constitution on 7 April 1948, which is commemorated as World Health Day. The first meeting of the World Health Assembly (WHA), the agency's governing body, took place on 24 July 1948. The WHO incorporated the assets, personnel, and duties of the League of Nations' Health Organization and the Office International d'Hygiène Publique, including the International Classification of Diseases (ICD). Its work began in earnest in 1951 following a significant infusion of financial and technical resources.

The WHO's broad mandate includes advocating for universal healthcare, monitoring public health risks, coordinating responses to health emergencies, and promoting human health and well being. It provides technical assistance to countries, sets international health standards and guidelines, and collects data on global health issues through the World Health Survey. Its flagship publication, the World Health Report, provides expert assessments of global health topics and health statistics on all nations. The WHO also serves as a forum for summits and discussions on health issues.

The WHO has played a leading role in several public health achievements, most notably the eradication of smallpox, the near-eradication of polio, and the development of an Ebola vaccine. Its current priorities include communicable diseases, particularly HIV/AIDS, Ebola, COVID-19, malaria and tuberculosis; non-communicable diseases such as heart disease and cancer; healthy diet, nutrition, and food security; occupational health; and substance abuse. As part of the United Nations Sustainable Development Group, the WHA, composed of representatives from all 194 member states, serves as the agency's supreme decision-making body. It also elects and advises an executive board made up of 34 health specialists. The WHA convenes annually and is responsible for selecting the director-general, setting goals and priorities, and approving the WHO's budget and activities. The current director-general is Tedros Adhanom, former health minister and foreign minister of Ethiopia, who began his five-year term on 1 July 2017.

Overall focus

The WHO's Constitution states that its objective "is the attainment by all people of the highest possible level of health"

The WHO fulfills this objective through its functions as defined in its Constitution: (a) To act as the directing and coordinating authority on international health work; (b) To establish and maintain effective collaboration with the United Nations, specialized agencies, governmental health administrations, professional groups and such other organizations as may be deemed appropriate; (c) To assist Governments, upon request, in strengthening health services; (d) To furnish appropriate technical assistance and, in emergencies, necessary aid upon the request or acceptance of Governments; (e) To provide or assist in providing, upon the request of the United Nations, health services and facilities to special groups, such as the peoples of trust territories; (f) To establish and maintain such administrative and technical services as may be required, including epidemiological and statistical services; (g) to stimulate and advance work to eradicate epidemic,

endemic and other diseases; (h) To promote, in co-operation with other specialized agencies where necessary, the prevention of accidental injuries; (i) To promote, in co-operation with other specialized agencies where necessary, the improvement of nutrition, housing, sanitation, recreation, economic or working conditions and other aspects of environmental hygiene; (j) To promote co-operation among scientific and professional groups which contribute to the advancement of health; (k) To propose conventions, agreements and regulations, and make recommendations with respect to international health matters and to perform.

WHO has defined its role in public health as follows:

- Providing leadership on matters critical to health and engaging in partnerships where joint action is needed;
- Shaping the research agenda and stimulating the generation, translation, and dissemination of valuable knowledge;
- Setting norms and standards and promoting and monitoring their implementation;

- Articulating ethical and evidence-based policy options;
- Providing technical support, catalysing change, and building sustainable institutional capacity; and
- Monitoring the health situation and assessing health trends.
- CRVS (civil registration and vital statistics) to provide monitoring of vital events (birth, death, wedding, divorce).

Response to the COVID-19 pandemic

World Health Organization's response to the COVID-19 pandemic

The WHO created an Incident Management Support Team on 1 January 2020, one day after Chinese health authorities notified the organization of a cluster of pneumonia cases of unknown etiology. On 5 January the WHO notified all member states of the outbreak, and in subsequent days provided guidance to all countries on how to respond, and confirmed the first infection outside China. The organization warned of limited human-to-human transmission on 14

January, and confirmed human-to-human transmission one week later. On 30 January the WHO declared a Public Health Emergency of International Concern (PHEIC), considered a “call to action” and “last resort” measure for the international community and a pandemic on 11 March. The WHO’s recommendations were followed by many countries including Germany, Singapore and South Korea, but not by the United States. The WHO subsequently established a program to deliver testing, protective, and medical supplies to low-income countries to help them manage the crisis.

Health policy

WHO addresses government health policy with two aims: firstly, “to address the underlying social and economic determinants of health through policies and programmes that enhance health equity and integrate pro-poor, gender-responsive, and human rights-based approaches” and secondly “to promote a healthier environment, intensify primary prevention and influence public policies in all sectors so as to address the root causes of environmental threats to health”

The organization develops and promotes the use of evidence-based tools, norms and standards to support member states to inform health policy options. It oversees the implementation of the International Health Regulations, and publishes a series of medical classifications; of these, three are over-reaching “reference classifications”: the International Statistical Classification of Diseases (ICD), the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) and the International Classification of Health Interventions (ICHI). Other international policy frameworks produced by WHO include the International Code of Marketing of Breast-milk Substitutes (adopted in 1981), Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (adopted in 2003) the Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel (adopted in 2010) as well as the WHO Model List of Essential Medicines and its pediatric counterpart.

Digital Health

On Digital Health topics, WHO has existing Inter-Agency collaboration with the International Telecommunication Union (the UN Specialized Agency for ICT), including the Be Health, Be Mobile initiative

and the ITU-WHO Focus Group on Artificial Intelligence for Health.

Public health education and action

Each year, the organization marks World Health Day and other observances focusing on a specific health promotion topic. World Health Day falls on 7 April each year, timed to match the anniversary of WHO's founding. Recent themes have been vector-borne diseases (2014), healthy ageing (2012) and drug resistance (2011).

The other official global public health campaigns marked by WHO are World Tuberculosis Day, World Immunization Week, World Malaria Day, World No Tobacco Day, World Blood Donor Day, World Hepatitis Day, and World AIDS Day.

As part of the United Nations, the World Health Organization supports work towards the Millennium Development Goals. Of the eight Millennium Development Goals, three – reducing child mortality by two-thirds, to reduce maternal deaths by three-quarters, and to halt and begin to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS – relate directly to WHO's scope; the other five inter-relate and affect world health.

Structure

Membership

As of January 2021, the WHO has 194 member states: all member states of the United Nations except for Liechtenstein (192 countries), plus the Cook Islands and Niue. A state becomes a full member of WHO by ratifying the treaty known as the Constitution of the World Health Organization. As of May 2019 and January 2021, it also had two associate members, Puerto Rico and Tokelau. The WHO two-year budget for 2022–2023 is paid by its 194 members and 2 associate members. Several other countries have been granted observer status. Palestine is an observer as a “national liberation movement” recognized by the League of Arab States under United Nations Resolution 3118. The Holy See also attends as an observer, as does the Order of Malta. The government of Taiwan was allowed to participate under the designation “Chinese Taipei” as an observer from 2009 to 2016, but has not been invited again since.

World Health Assembly and Executive Board

The World Health Assembly (WHA) is the legislative and supreme body of WHO. Based in Geneva, it typically meets yearly in May. It appoints the director-general every five years and votes on matters of policy and finance of WHO, including the proposed budget. It also reviews reports of the executive board and decides whether there are areas of work requiring further examination. The Assembly elects 34 members, technically qualified in the field of health, to the executive board for three-year terms. The main functions of the board are to carry out the decisions and policies of the Assembly, to advise it and to facilitate its work. As of May 2020, the chairman of the executive board is Dr. Harsh Vardhan.

Director-General

Director-General of the World Health Organization

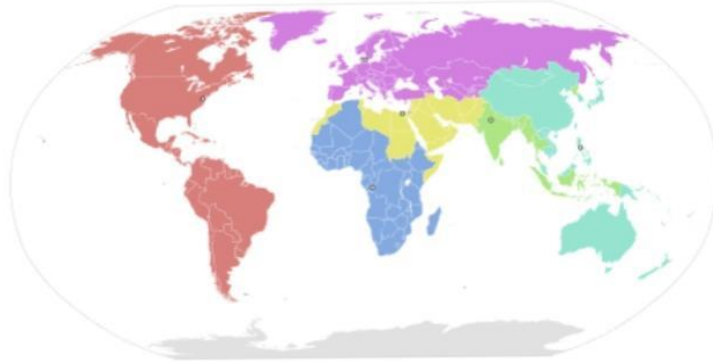
The head of the organization is the director-general, elected by the World Health Assembly. The term lasts

for five years, and Directors-General are typically appointed in May, when the Assembly meets. The current director-general is Dr. Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus, who was appointed on 1 July 2017


Global institutions


Apart from regional, country and liaison offices, the World Health Assembly has also established other institutions for promoting and carrying on research.

Regional office





Map of the WHO's regional offices and their respective operating regions.


 Africa; HQ: **Brazzaville**, Republic of the Congo

 Western Pacific; HQ: **Manila**, Philippines

 Eastern **Mediterranean**; HQ: **Cairo**, Egypt

 South East Asia; HQ: **New Delhi**, **India**

 Europe; HQ: **Copenhagen**, Denmark

 Americas; HQ: **Washington, D.C.**, US

The regional divisions of WHO were created between 1949 and 1952, and are based on article 44 of the WHO's

constitution, which allowed the WHO to “establish a [single] regional organization to meet the special needs of [each defined] area”. Many decisions are made at the regional level, including important discussions over WHO’s budget, and in deciding the members of the next assembly, which are designated by the regions.

Each region has a regional committee, which generally meets once a year, normally in the autumn. Representatives attend from each member or associative member in each region, including those states that are not full members. For example, Palestine attends meetings of the Eastern Mediterranean Regional Office. Each region also has a regional office. Each regional office is headed by a director, who is elected by the Regional Committee. The board must approve such appointments, although as of 2004, it had never overruled the preference of a regional committee. The exact role of the board in the process has been a subject of debate, but the practical effect has always been small. Since 1999, regional directors serve for a once-renewable five-year term, and typically take their position on 1 February.

Each regional committee of the WHO consists of all the Health Department heads, in all the governments of the countries that constitute the Region. Aside from electing the regional director, the regional committee is also in charge of setting the guidelines for the implementation, within the region, of the health and other policies adopted by the World Health Assembly. The regional committee also serves as a progress review board for the actions of WHO within the Region.

The regional director is effectively the head of WHO for his or her region. The RD manages and/or supervises a staff of health and other experts at the regional offices and in specialized centres. The RD is also the direct supervising authority – concomitantly with the WHO Director-General – of all the heads of WHO country offices, known as WHO Representatives, within the region.

Employees

The WHO employs 7,000 people in 149 countries and regions to carry out its principles. In support of the principle of a tobacco-free work environment, the WHO does not recruit cigarette smokers. The organization has previously instigated the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in 2003.

Goodwill Ambassadors

The WHO operates “Goodwill Ambassadors”; members of the arts, sports, or other fields of public life aimed at drawing attention to WHO’s initiatives and projects. There are currently five Goodwill Ambassadors (Jet Li, Nancy Brinker, Peng Liyuan, Yohei Sasakawa and the Vienna Philharmonic Orchestra) and a further ambassador associated with a partnership project (Craig David).

On 21 October 2017, the Director-General Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus appointed the then Zimbabwean president Robert Mugabe as a WHO Goodwill Ambassador to help promote the fight against non-

communicable diseases. The appointment address praised Mugabe for his commitment to public health in Zimbabwe. The appointment attracted widespread condemnation and criticism in WHO member states and international organizations due to Robert Mugabe's poor record on human rights and presiding over a decline in Zimbabwe's public health. Due to the outcry, the following day the appointment was revoked.

Medical Society of the World Health Organization

Since the beginning, the WHO has had the Medical Society of the World Health Organization. It has conducted lectures by noted researchers and published findings, recommendations. The founder, Dr. S. William A. Gunn has been its president. In 1983, Murray Eden was awarded the WHO Medical Society medal, for his work as consultant on research and development for WHO's Director-General.

The world health headquarters



WHO Headquarters in Geneva

The seat of the organization is in Geneva, Switzerland. It was designed by Swiss architect Jean Tschumi and inaugurated in 1966. In 2017, the organization launched an international competition to redesign and extend its headquarters



**ASSIGNMENT
OF
INTERNATIONAL
RELATION**

Name: Mausam Bikram Sah

Class: TYBBA

Sec: A

Roll No: 66

WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION (WTO)

The world Trade organization is an intergovernmental organization that regulates and facilitates international trade between nation. It officially operation on 1 January 1995,pursuant to the 1994 Marrakesh agreement, thus replacing the General Assembly On Tariffs and Trade(GATT) that had been established in 1948. The WTO is the largest international economic organization, with 164 member states representing over 96% of global trade and global GDP.

The WTO facilitate trade in goods, services and intellectual property among participating countries by providing a framework for negotiating trade agreements, which usually aim to reduce or eliminate tariffs, quotas and other restrictions; these agreement are signed by representatives of members government and ratified by their legislature. The WTO also administers independent dispute resolution for enforcing participants adherence to trade agreements and resolving trade related disputes. The organization prohibited discrimination between trading partners, but provides exceptions for environmental protection, national security, and other important goals.

The WTO is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland. It's top decision making body is the ministerial conference, which is composed of all members states and usually convenes Biannually; consensus is emphasized in all decision. Day to day function are handled by the general council made up of representatives from all members. A Secretariat of over 600 personal, led by the director general and four deputies, provides administrative, professional, and technical services. The WTO's annual budget is roughly 220 million USD, which is contributed by members based on their proportion of international trades.

Studies show the WTO has boosted trade and reduced trade barriers. It has also influenced trade agreement generally; a 2017 analysis found that the vast majority of preferential trade agreements (PATs) up to that point explicitly reference the WTO, with substantial portion of text copied from WTO agreements of the United Nations sustainable development Goals also referenced WTO agreements as instruments of reducing inequality. However, critics contend that the benefits of WTO facilitated free trade are not share equally, citing the out come of negotiations and data showing a continually widening gap between rich and poor nation .

History:

The WTO precursor General Assembly On Tariffs and Trade (GATT), was established by multilateral treaty of 23 countries in 1947 after world War II in the wake of other new multilateral institutions dedicated to international economic cooperation such as the World Bank and the international monetary Fund. A comparable international institution for trade, named the international trade organization never started as the US and other signatories didn't ratify the establishment treaty, and so GATT slowly became a international organization.

The WTO launched the current round of negotiations, the Doha Development Round, at the fourth ministerial conference in Doha, Qatar in November 2001. This was to be an ambitious effort to make globalization more inclusive and help the world's poor, particularly by slashing barriers and subsidies in farming. The initial agenda comprised both further trade liberalization and new rule making, underpinned by commitment to strengthen substantial assistance to developing countries.

Progress stalled over difference between developed nations and the major developing countries on issues such as industrial tariffs and non tariffs barriers to trade particularly against and between the EU and the US over their maintenance of agricultural subsidies seen to operate effectively as trade barriers. Repeated attempts to revive the talks proved unsuccessful, though the adoption if the Bali Ministerial Declaration in 2013 addressed bureaucratic barriers to commerce.

As of June 2012, the future of the Doha Round remained uncertain, the work programme lists 21 subjects in which the original deadline of 1 January 2005 was missed, and the round remain incomplete. The conflict between free trade on industrial goods and services but retention of protectionism on frame subsidies to domestic agricultural sector and the substansation of fair trade on agricultural project remain the major obstacles. This impasse has made it impossible to launch new WTO negotiations beyond the Doha Development Round. As a result, there have been an increasing number of bilateral free trade agreements between governments. As of July 2012 there were various negotiation groups in the WTO system for the current stalemated agricultural trade negotiations.

Function:

- 1. To implement rules and provision related to trade policy review mechanism.**
- 2. To provide a platform to member. Countries to decide future strategies related to trade and tariff.**
- 3. To provide facilities for implementation, administration and operation of multilateral and bilateral agreement of the world Trade.**
- 4. To administer the rules and processes related to dispute settlement.**
- 5. To ensure the optimum use of world resources.**
- 6. To assist international organization such as IMF and IBRD for establishing coherence in universal economic policy determination.**

Objectives:

- 1. To improve the standard of living of people in the member countries.**
- 2. To ensure full employment and broad increase in effective demand.**
- 3. To enlarge production and trade of goods.**
- 4. To increase the trade of services.**
- 5. To ensure optimum utilization of world resources.**
- 6. To protect the environment.**
- 7. To accept the concept of sustainable development.**

WTO Agreements:

The WTO's rule and the agreements are the result of negotiations between the members. The current sets were the outcome to the 1986-93 Uruguay Round Negotiations which included a major revision of the original GATT.

GATT is now the WTO's principal rule book for the trade in goods. The Uruguay Round also created new rules for dealing with trade in services, relevant aspects of intellectual property, dispute settlement and trade policy reviews.

The complete set run to some 30000 pages consisting of about 30 agreements and separate commitment made by individual members in specific areas such as, lower customs duty rates and services market opening.

Through these agreements, WTO members operates a non Discriminatory trading system that spells out their right and their obligations. Each country receives guarantees that its exports will be treated fairly and consistently in other countries markets. Each country promises to do the same for imports into its own market. The system also gives developing countries some flexibility in implementing their commitments.

- **Goods:** it all began with trades of good. From 1947 to 1994, GATT was the forum for negotiating lower custom duty rates and other trade barriers; the text of the general agreements spelt out important, rule, particularly non discriminations since 1995, the updated GATT had become the WTO s umbrella agreements for trade in goods.
- **Services:** banks, insurance firms, telecommunication companies, tour operators, hotel chains and transport companies looking to do business aboard can now enjoy the same principles of free and fair that originally only applied to trade in goods.
- **Intellectual property:** the WTO's intellectual property agreement amount to rules for trade and investment in ideas and creativity. The rules state how copyright, patents, trademarks, geographical names uses to identify products, industrial design, integrated circuit layout design and undisclosed information such as trade secrets “intellectual property” Should be protected when trades is involved.
- **Dispute settlement:** the WTO’S procedure for resolving trades quarrels under the dispute settlement understanding is vital for enforcing the rules and therefore, fir ensuring that trade flows smoothly. Countries bring dispute to the WTO if they think their rights under the agreements are being infringed. Judgments by specially appointed independent experts are based on interpretation of the agreements and individual countries commitment.
- **Policy:** the trade policy reviews mechanism's purpose is to improve transparency, to create a greater understanding of the policies that countries are adopting and to assess their impact. Many members also see the reviews as constructive feedback on their policies.

Mission:

The mission of the WTO aims to encourage smooth and free trade by promoting lower trade barriers and providing a platform for the negotiation of trades and it resolve dispute between members nations, when they arise. The goal is to help producers of goods and services, exporters, and importers conduct their business.

Vision:

WTO has a vision of a world in which trade structure and practices have been transformed to work in favour of the poor and promote sustainable development and justice

International Relations-Assignment

Paimora Kalandarbekova

TY BBA(IB)

Roll No.38

India – Tajikistan Relations: Prospects and Challenges

Introduction

India and Tajikistan share a geo-cultural similarity. Both the countries had historical contacts of ancient times. Although both the countries have the physical barrier of high Himalayan and Hindukush mountain ranges, they are having close socio-economic and cultural relations. The main role played ideological linkage of Zoroastrianism, Buddhism, Islam, and Sufism by the invasion of Aryans, Kushans, Sakas, Turks, Mughals etc, with the high mobility of scholars, spiritualists, statesman, craftsman, artists, literati, and traders. The movement of people, ideas, trade, and culture influences human development given the footprint of political, economic and social life into the whole region. (Warikoo 2016)

Geographically speaking Tajikistan is the smallest in size, of all Central Asian countries. It shares borders with four countries- Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan, Afghanistan, and China.

Therefore strategically, Tajikistan is important for India, because it is very nearer to Pak occupied Kashmir. The mutual similarity is established particularly by the common Indo-Aryan ancestry of the Tajik and Indian languages. The President of Tajikistan Emomali Rahmon attaches immense importance to the Aryan heritage of the Tajiks being parallel to that of Indians. The works of Indian poets Amir Khusrao, Saadi, Bedil, Ghani Kashmiri, Zebunissa and others have had great influence on the Tajik literature. While the Indo-Aryan group of languages belongs to Tajik, and Pamiri language has similarity with Sanskrit. As well as Indian classic Panchtantra became famous as Kalila Dimini in Tajikistan.

The establishment of Islam in Central Asia and its spread to India in medieval times borrowed new dimension at present times. The entry of Muslim artisans, Syeds, traders, and mercenaries from Central Asia reshaped the geopolitical history of India. With the expansion of Persian (Tajik) language in India, great works in Persian literature by literary giants were produced. (Warikoo 2016)

Tajikistan just after its independence in 1991 by the Soviet Union witnessed instability in the region, and its economy and social condition got adversely affected by the civil war from 1992 to 1997. After the independence of the country most of the radical Islamist groups like Islamic Renaissance Party of Tajikistan (IRPT), Taliban, Al Qaeda, Jamaat-i-Islami, Hizb-ut-

Tahrir, Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan played an active role in the revival of Islam in the Central Asian region. Therefore after independence, the whole Central Asian countries witnessed Islamic radicalisation.

Both the countries India-Tajikistan have healthy diplomatic relations. The President of Tajikistan Mr Emomali Rahmon and Indian Prime Minister Shri Narendra Modi in 2015 have expressed their close cooperation in the area of defence and security. As well as reviewed the cooperation and further expanded the existing cooperation.

The two countries successfully concluded the Foreign Office Consultations on 17th November 2016. The meeting of the Joint Working Group (JWG) in Defence Cooperation on 2nd November 2016 agreed that this type of consultations next to with Joint Commission of Trade, Economic, Scientific and Technical Cooperation, Joint Working Group on Counter-terrorism and regular consultations between National Security Council have to carry on for joint assistance. Both the countries admit that terrorism and extremism immensely affected peace, stability, and progress for all countries. The two leaders decided that terrorism in all its forms must be ruined without any distinction between good and bad terrorists and called for an end to support, hold and condition of protected havens to terrorists. Both leaders reaffirmed their resolution to make stronger bilateral counter- terrorism cooperation, enlarge security and defence ties and work for the untimely adoption of the Comprehensive Convention on International Terrorism by the United Nation General Assembly. For both the countries, it is an immense responsibility to stabilize President Rahmon who has always given support to India's candidature for permanent membership of an expanded United Nation Security Council. He also supported India's full membership of Shanghai Cooperation Organization (MEA 2016).

India as a full member of Shanghai Cooperation Organisation framework serves a constructive tendency into the Central Asian region. The two countries have scope in political, economic, trade cooperation. And the development of inter-parliamentary relations. Tajikistan is ready to attract Indian investment for implementation of projects in infrastructure, trade, service, production, energy, particularly of renewable energy, and establishing joint production ventures in different areas. Both the countries for the connectivity in a shorter term can increase the number of direct flights between Dushanbe and Delhi. Tajikistan's potential in tourism, widening cooperation and experience sharing in the area of medicine was considered an important beneficiary for the peoples. For the two countries strengthening cooperation in establishing joint diagnostic and medical care centers, humanitarian, cultural and education will be the beneficial area. (Tajik Embassy report 2018)

Cultural Relations

India's soft power reach is visible in Tajikistan. And the positive perceptions of India can further be conditional by the 600 plus Indian films that are dubbed to the Tajik language every year. These translations were possible because in Tajikistan many universities have strong Hindi and Urdu departments. It is indicating the existence of a deeper scholarly interest in India and the demand for Indian languages as well.

In addition, both states share a rich familiar past. In March 1947, the famous Tajik poet Mirzo Tursunzade in his visit to India wrote several poems on the time of Independence in India. These poems generated extensive interest among the people of Tajikistan. Consequently, the works of Indian writers such as Rabindranath Tagore, Prem Chand, and others were translated into Tajik. There are also facts of the regular history in India, for example, the famous 17th- century Tajikpoet Abdul Qadir Bedil in central Delhi. And the Bollywood DVD's are readily available in several markets around the city. To further the interest in Indian culture and history among the Tajik people, the Indian Embassy in Dushanbe frequently organizes celebrations of the festivals of Holi, Diwali and the birthday of Mahatma Gandhi. In the existing bilateral relationship, these efforts are likely to support the goodwill and could give added confidence to people to people contact - with welcome implications for trade, investments and for India's hard work to build deeper development partnerships in the broader Central Asian region. (Mullen and Prasad 2014)

Bilateral relations

The two countries India- Tajikistan had established diplomatic relations on 24 August 1992, after one year of Independence of Tajikistan. India opened its diplomatic mission in Dushanbe and Tajikistan opened its embassy in New Delhi in June 2003.

The Tajikistan President visited India six times; three visits were official in 1993, 1995, 2001 and three State Visits 2006, 2012, 2016. From the Indian side in 2003 Prime Minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee paid an official visit to Tajikistan. In 2013 Vice-President of India Muhammad Hamid Ansari was visited, during this time Indian government has announced to give one supercomputer to Tajik Technical University.

The last high dignitary visit was the State visit of Prime Minister Modi to Dushanbe on July 13- 14, 2015. The ministers of Foreign Affairs mutual visits by the Minister of External Affairs of India SM Krishna to Tajikistan took place in July 2012, whereas Tajik Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. S. Aslov paid the first official visit to India in May 2015. The last visit by Indian External Affairs Minister Smt. Sushma Swaraj to Dushanbe took place in September 2014 for the participation of Shanghai Cooperation Organisation.

Minister of Defence of Tajikistan Colonel-General Sherali Mirzo visited India officially on 6- 9 February 2018. India and Tajikistan have a joint intergovernmental Commission on Cooperation in Several fields led by the Ministry of economy and trade. This commission reviews the economy, industry, trade, science, culture etc. the 9th session of the Joint Commission was held in New Delhi on 16 June 2017.

There is in addition, a political consultations mechanism among the foreign offices of two countries. These consultations are conducted annually. In 2016, the last meeting took place in Dushanbe, Indian delegation was headed by Secretary West Sujatha Metha. Two sides considered an extensive range of issues, including the State Visit of the President of Tajikistan to India in December 2016. This visit has addressed the area of political, military, regional security, economy, energy, culture and science, consular matters as well as

partnership in international arenas. For counter-terrorism affairs, the two countries have a joint working group. It is a platform to share an opinion on current counter-terrorism affairs. India and Tajikistan had its ties to fight against terrorism in the late 1990"s. The ties have grown stronger since 2002, especially in the aspect of counter-terrorism and defence co-operation. (Tajik embassy 2017)

Economic Relations

The route for transportation of goods from India is by sea to Bandar Abbas and from there via Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan by land. This route is very time consuming and the costs are very high. Apart from this, there are difficulties at border crossings. India mainly exports pharmaceuticals, meat and meat made products, apparel and clothing accessories and iron and steel. From Tajikistan, India is importing different types of Ores, slag, ash, aluminum, organic chemicals, herbal oils, cotton, and dried fruits. The bilateral export import data mentioned for five years from 2008 to 2017. As per the export data below, we can see the highest import in the year 2014 to 2015 and the lowest from 2008 to 2009 due to the Tajikistan natural disaster. (Ministry of External Affairs 2017)

Export Data from India to Tajikistan:-

Export Year	2008-2009	2010-2011	2012-2013	2014-2015	2016-2017
Total	84,075,505.87	113,696,426.38	163,431,828.96	189,634,841.76	184,943,355.34

Source: Ministry of Commerce and Industry India

Import Data from Tajikistan to India:-

Export Year	2008-2009	2010-2011	2012-2013	2014-2015	2016-2017
Total	137,443,555.45	168,346,695.57	266,916,195.69	273,708,657.84	257,766,559.22

Source: Ministry of Commerce and Industry India

As per the import table, we can clearly see the highest import data from 2014 to 2015. India delivered foremost food assistance in 2011 to 2012. To defeat a crisis caused by an exceptionally harsh winter in January-February 2008, therefore India gave a grant of US \$ 2 million. In June 2009, the US \$ 200,000 cash support was given by India to conquer damage caused by floods in April-May 2009. After flash floods in Kulyab province in May 2010, India provided the US \$ 200,000 humanitarian cash support. India always provided humanitarian assistance during the natural disaster. Recently, in 2017 also India provided USD 100,000 to Tajikistan as humanitarian help for natural disasters. (Ministry of External Affairs 2017) In 2016, India and Tajikistan signed a memorandum of understanding in the area of avoidance of double taxation and prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on income. (MEA 2016)

Strategic Relations

For India, Tajikistan's importance lies in its geo-strategic location. As it is mentioned above, it shares borders with China, Uzbekistan, Afghanistan and Kyrgyzstan. Its proximity is located into Pakistan occupied Kashmir (POK). India's regional calculus, Tajikistan takes an important place, especially in the perspective of Afghanistan and Pakistan. The penetration of extremist forces into Tajikistan can have serious security concerns for India because of its closeness to POK and its impact on Kashmir.

Tajikistan is rich in hydroelectric power. It has the largest natural water resources in the region. Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan have 90 percent of the water resources of Central Asia. And Tajikistan has 65 percent of the glaciers into the region. In the Commonwealth of Independent States, in the area of hydroelectricity, Tajikistan is the second largest producer after Russia. According to the official report Tajikistan's National Strategy for Energy Sector Development 2006-2015, the country is going to reach a production of 35 billion KWh in 2015. Tajikistan also has deposits of more than 40 semi-precious stones, silver, and gold. Tajikistan has large reserves of mercury, lead, brown coal, zinc, antimony, tungsten, and uranium deposits. These resources make Tajikistan an important country into the Central Asian region that offers numerous opportunities for India.

India and Tajikistan share close security and defense relations. India has upgraded the Ayni airport in Dushanbe, and it is totally operational now. In the defense sector, India is giving training to Tajik forces, numbers of Tajik military cadets and young officers undergoing training at many defense institutes in India. This military training is free of charge for the Tajik military personnel. (Roy 2012)

Security Issues

Geographically, Tajikistan is surrounded by Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Uzbekistan. These countries were witnessing the activities of Islamist radical groups in the name of Jihad formation of Islamic State, agenda of Islamic Caliphate, Islamic law, revivalist movements

etc to destabilize the situation in the Central Asian region. Afghanistan being a neighboring country has played a crucial role, the Taliban group had supported fully the inside militant group of Tajikistan. And Tajik –Afghan border was indulged into drug trafficking and attempted to attack the Tajik government by the militants. The Central Asian militants fought alongside the Taliban.

Tajik people were affected due to the pathetic socio-economic situation and the misinterpretation of Islam by the radical sources. Now ISIS is also recruiting people from the Central Asian region. The Tajik government has reported that 190 Tajiks are fighting in the Syrian conflict for ISIS, which is the cause of serious concern. And on the Indian side, Taliban, Al- Qaeda all are active in Pak occupied Kashmir with the name of Jihad. They are brainwashing the Kashmiri people. Pakistan is supporting most of the terrorist groups to disturb the Indian side. For curtailing terrorism both of the nation Tajikistan and India are effectively making their policy. India, always in every international platform raising the question to curtail the biggest challenge terrorism.

As The President of Tajikistan visited India in 2012, and the joint statement of Tajikistan and India, both the countries address terrorism as the biggest challenge for the security and peace of the nation. They gave importance to the need to work jointly towards eliminating the problem of terrorism including the exchange of information, data, financing of terrorism and related matters. They strengthened the need for dialogue between security agencies. Both the countries further gave impetus to the need for adoption of "Comprehensive Convention on International Terrorism" by the UN General Assembly in the future. In this regard, they agreed to maintain consultations between the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and to synchronize their efforts within the framework of the Joint Working Group on Combating International Terrorism.

Both the countries discussed the Afghanistan situation and the challenges facing the region. They addressed the problem of terrorism and drug trafficking. They confirmed the validity of the importance of sustained peace and stability in the country, mainly, in the context of the proposed withdrawal of the International Security Assistance Force in 2014 from Afghanistan. Both the countries accentuate their support to the Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan in establishing an independent, peaceful, democratic and successful Afghanistan. (MEA 2012)

The President of Tajikistan Emmomali Rehmon visited on 2016 in India and signed the Memorandum of Understanding between Financial Intelligence Unit of India and the Financial Monitoring Department under the National bank of Tajikistan relating to cooperation in the exchange of financial intelligence connected to money laundering, interrelated crimes, and financing of terrorism. (MEA 2016)

Connect Central Asia Policy

India's Connect Central Asia Policy, first introduced by Minister of State for External Affairs E. Ahmed in Kyrgyzstan with the track 2 initiative organized on 12 to 13 June 2012. The

main aims were fast-track India's relations with the whole region. The policy consists of setting up of universities, information and technology centers, hospitals, an e- network in telemedicine, joint economic ventures, improving air connectivity to boost trade and tourism, strategic partnership in defense and security affairs, and joint scientific research (Das 2012).

The agreement of Turkmenistan –Afghanistan-Pakistan-India pipeline has the importance for India's future energy plans. It will connect India with Central Asia and we can easily build up our strong economic relationship. Indian companies can show its capability towards the construction sector and build world-class structures at reasonable rates. For land connectivity, the International North-South Transport Corridor (INSTC) is required, which has been given importance too. The Indian banks will be set up if it will get a positive environment (Ahamed 2012).

This policy had given the opportunity to set up a military hospital and also planned to operate up to 14 flights to Dushanbe. And another area of interest of this policy is India's engagement to Central Asia towards the economic sector. (Kothari 2014)

External Affairs Minister SM Krishna visited Tajikistan in July 2012. His visit to Dushanbe is the first by an Indian External Affairs Minister (EAM). He discussed with his counterpart Hamrokhom Zarifi about bilateral cooperation on several issues including energy, counter-terrorism, and communication intended at further establishing bilateral ties. They had discussed the situation in Afghanistan and regional developments. During this visit, S M Krishna also addressed a conference of the Indian Heads of Missions (HOM) to 11 countries in the region. (Kothari 2014)

Conclusion

As India –Tajikistan shares close relations with each other historically. And the geostrategic location of Tajikistan can give India a chance to engage with some other central Asian countries and Afghanistan. Both the countries share healthy cultural relations. Therefore India's soft power is very much visible. When it comes to bilateral ties between the two countries, it has witnessed many official high level visits of the leaders. As well as, shares active diplomatic relations. The Economic relation between India and Tajikistan mainly exports pharmaceuticals, apparel, clothing, meals, accessories etc. but the main hurdle for the healthy economic relation is connectivity with the Central Asian region (CAR). As CAR is landlocked so for connectivity we have to look into Afghanistan, Iran and Pakistan. Therefore the project of International North South Corridor, Turkmenistan- Afghanistan-Pakistan-India (TAPI) pipeline should be sped up by the policy makers. For increasing trade, a temporary solution is to start more air cargos.

Tajikistan, is strategically an important country because it shares borders with China, Uzbekistan, Afghanistan and Kyrgyzstan. Its proximity is located into Pakistan occupied Kashmir (POK). It is very rich in hydroelectric power and has vast natural resources. Both the countries share defence and security relations as a result India has upgraded the Ayni airport in Tajikistan. When it comes to security issue, both the countries are the victim of

Terrorism, drug trafficking, money laundering and all. And for India, it is an important task to focus on the security aspect of Tajikistan because of the proximity of the country in Pak Occupied Kashmir. Both the countries' leaders are willing to stabilize Afghanistan due to security reasons. So the time has come to focus actively into the Connect Central Asia policy for the proactive relation with Tajikistan and with the Central Asian region.

Foreign Relations Of India

By Vedant Poddar

The **Ministry of External Affairs (India)** (MEA), also known as the Foreign Ministry, is the government agency responsible for the conduct of **foreign relations of India**. With the world's third largest military expenditure, fourth largest armed force, fifth largest economy by GDP nominal rates and third largest economy in terms of purchasing power parity,^[1] India is a prominent regional power,^[2] a nuclear power, an emerging global power and a potential superpower. India assumes a growing international influence and a prominent voice in global affairs.

As a former British colony, India is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations and continues to maintain relationships with other Commonwealth countries. Since gaining independence from Britain in 1947, however, India is now classified as a newly industrialised country and has cultivated an extensive network of foreign relations with other states. As a member state of BRICS - a repertoire of emerging major economies that also encompasses Brazil, Russia, China and South Africa, India also exerts a salient influence as the founding member of the Non-Aligned Movement.^[3] In recent decades, India has pursued a more expansive foreign policy that encompasses the neighbourhood first policy embodied by SAARC as well as the Look East policy to forge more extensive economic and strategic relationships with other East Asian countries. Moreover, India was one of the founding members of several international organisations—the United Nations, the Asian Development Bank, New Development BRICS Bank, and G-20, widely considered the main economic locus of emerging and developed nations.^[4]

History

India's relations with the world have evolved since the British Raj (1857–1947), when the British Empire took responsibility for handling external and defence relations. When India gained independence in 1947, few Indians had experience in making or conducting foreign policy. However, the country's oldest political party, the Indian National Congress, had established a small foreign department in 1925 to make overseas contacts and to publicise its independence struggle. From the late 1920s on, Jawaharlal Nehru, who had a long-standing interest in world affairs among independence leaders, formulated the Congress stance on international issues. As Prime Minister from 1947, Nehru articulated India's approach to the world.

India's international influence varied over the years after independence. Indian prestige and moral authority were high in the 1950s and facilitated the acquisition of developmental assistance from both East and West. Although the prestige stemmed from India's nonaligned stance, the nation was unable to prevent Cold War politics from becoming intertwined with interstate relations in South Asia. On the intensely debated Kashmir issue with Pakistan, India lost credibility by rejecting United Nations calls for a plebiscite in the disputed area.^[12]

In the 1960s and 1970s India's international position among developed and developing countries faded in the course of wars with China and Pakistan, disputes with other countries in South Asia, and India's attempt to match Pakistan's support from the United States and China by signing the Indo-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation in August 1971. Although India obtained substantial Soviet military and economic aid, which helped to strengthen the nation, India's influence was undercut regionally and internationally by the perception that its friendship with the Soviet Union prevented a more forthright condemnation of the Soviet presence in Afghanistan. In the late 1980s, India improved relations with the United States, other developed countries, and China while continuing close ties with the Soviet Union. Relations with its South Asian neighbours, especially Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Nepal, occupied much of the energies of the Ministry of External Affairs.^[13]

Ministry of External Affairs

The Ministry of External Affairs is the Indian government's agency responsible for the foreign relations of India. The Minister of External Affairs holds cabinet rank as a member of the Council of Ministers.

Subramanian Jaishankar is current Minister of External Affairs. The Ministry has a Minister of State V Muraleedharan. The Indian Foreign Secretary is the head of Indian Foreign Service (IFS) and therefore, serves as the head of all Indian (ambassadors) and high commissioners.^[40] Harsh Vardhan Shringla is the current Foreign Secretary of India.

SAARC

Certain aspects of India's relations within the subcontinent are conducted through the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). Its members other than India are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Established in 1985, SAARC encourages co-operation in agriculture, rural development, science and technology, culture, health, population control, narcotics control and anti-terrorism.

SAARC has intentionally stressed these "core issues" and avoided more divisive political issues, although political dialogue is often conducted on the margins of SAARC meetings. In 1993, India and its SAARC partners signed an agreement to gradually lower tariffs within the region. Forward movement in SAARC has come to a standstill because of the tension between India and Pakistan, and the SAARC Summit originally scheduled for, but not held in, November 1999 has not been rescheduled. The Fourteenth SAARC Summit was held during 3–4 April 2007 in New Delhi.

Recent SAARC summit that was scheduled to be held in Islamabad was postponed due to terrorist acts particularly Uri attack.

Partnership agreements

India has signed strategic partnership agreements with more than two dozen countries/supranational entities listed here in the chronological order of the pacts:

Agreements			
Si.no.	Country	Year of Agreement signed	Reference

1	France	1997	[76]
2	Russia	2000	[77]
3	Germany	2001	[78]
4	Mauritius	2003	[79]
5	Iran	2003	[80]
6	United Kingdom	2004	[81]
7	United States of America	2004	[82]
8	European Union	2004	[83]
9	Indonesia	2005	[84]
10	China	2005	[85]
11	Brazil	2006	[86]
12	Vietnam	2007	[87]
13	Oman	2008	[88]
14	Kazakhstan	2009	[89]
15	Australia	2009	[90]
16	Malaysia	2010	[91]

17	South Korea	2010	[92]
18	Saudi Arabia	2010	[93]
19	Uzbekistan	2011	[94]
20	Afghanistan	2011	[95]
21	Tajikistan	2012	[96]
22	ASEAN	2012	[97]
23	Japan	2014	[98]
24	Seychelles	2014	[99]
25	Mongolia	2015	[100]
26	Singapore	2015	[101]
27	United Arab Emirates	2015	[102]
28	Rwanda	2017	[103]
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Future agreements

Currently, India is taking steps towards establishing strategic partnerships with Canada and Argentina. Although India has not signed any formal strategic partnership agreements with Bhutan and Qatar, its foreign ministry often describes relations with these countries as 'strategic'.

India's relation with neighbouring and famous countries -

Bangladesh

India was the second country to recognise Bangladesh as a separate and independent state, doing so on 6 December 1971. India fought alongside the Bangladeshis to liberate Bangladesh from West Pakistan in 1971. Bangladesh's relationship with India has been difficult in terms of irrigation and land border disputes post 1976. However, India has enjoyed favourable relationship with Bangladesh during governments formed by the Awami League in 1972 and 1996. The recent solutions of land and maritime disputes have taken out irritants in ties.

Lt Gen Niazi signing the Instrument of Surrender under the gaze of Lt Gen Aurora, effectively ending Bangladesh Liberation War and creating the new state of Bangladesh.

At the outset India's relations with Bangladesh could not have been stronger because of India's unalloyed support for independence and opposition against Pakistan in 1971. During the independence war, many refugees fled to India. When the struggle of resistance matured in November 1971, India also intervened militarily and may have helped bring international attention to the issue through Indira Gandhi's visit to Washington, D.C. Afterwards India furnished relief and reconstruction aid. India extended recognition to Bangladesh prior to the end of the war in 1971 (the second country to do so after Bhutan^[112]) and subsequently lobbied others to follow suit. India also withdrew its military from the land of Bangladesh when Sheikh Mujibur Rahman requested Indira Gandhi to do so during the latter's visit to Dhaka in 1972.

▼ Afghanistan

Bilateral relations between India and Afghanistan have been traditionally strong and friendly. While India was the only South Asian country to recognise the Soviet-backed Democratic Republic of Afghanistan in the 1980s, its relations were diminished during the Afghan civil wars and the rule of the Islamist Taliban in the 1990s.^[109] India aided the overthrow of the Taliban and became the largest regional provider of humanitarian and reconstruction aid.^{[58][110]}

The new democratically elected Afghan government strengthened its ties with India in wake of persisting tensions and problems with Pakistan, which is continuing to shelter and support the Taliban.^{[58][110]} India pursues a policy of close co-operation to bolster its standing as a regional power and contain its rival Pakistan, which it maintains is supporting Islamic militants in Kashmir and other parts of India.^[58] India is the largest regional investor in Afghanistan, having committed more than US\$2.2 billion for reconstruction purposes.^[111]

China

Despite lingering suspicions remaining from the 1962 Sino-Indian War, the 1967 Nathu La and Cho La incidents, and continuing boundary disputes over Aksai Chin and Arunachal Pradesh, Sino-Indian relations have improved gradually since 1988. Both countries have sought to reduce tensions along the frontier, expand trade and cultural ties, and normalise relations.^[127]

A series of high-level visits between the two nations have helped improve relations. In December 1996, PRC President Jiang Zemin visited India during a tour of South Asia. While in New Delhi, he signed with the Indian Prime Minister a series of confidence-building measures for the disputed borders. Sino-Indian relations suffered a brief setback in May 1998 when the Indian Defence minister justified the country's nuclear tests by citing potential threats from the PRC. However, in June 1999, during the Kargil crisis, then-External Affairs Minister Jaswant Singh visited Beijing and stated that India did not consider China a threat. By 2001, relations between India and the PRC were on the mend, and the two sides handled the move from Tibet to

India of the 17th Karmapa in January 2000 with delicacy and tact. In 2003, India formally recognised Tibet as a part of China, and China recognised Sikkim as a formal part of India in 2004.

In mid-January, 2021, it was reported that both the countries had finally agreed upon the de-escalation from their positions. Several footages of Chinese troops removing tents/barracks were released. Both the countries also agreed that India would move back to Finger-3, while China retained its position back to Finger-8, and was also declared the area from Finger-3 to Finger-8 to be "No man's land"

Famous Countries

United States

Before and during the Second World War, the United States under President Roosevelt gave strong support to the Indian independence movement despite being allies to Britain.^{[258][259]} Relations between India and the United States were lukewarm following Indian independence, as India took a leading position in the Non-Aligned Movement, and received support from the Soviet Union. The US provided support to India in 1962 during its war with China. For most of the Cold War, the USA tended to have warmer relations with Pakistan, primarily as a way to contain Soviet-friendly India and to use Pakistan to back the Afghan Mujahideen against the Soviet occupation of Afghanistan. An Indo-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation, signed in 1971, also positioned India against the USA.

After the Sino-Indian War and the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965, India made considerable changes to its foreign policy. It developed a close relationship with the Soviet Union and started receiving massive military equipment and financial assistance from the USSR. This had an adverse effect on the Indo-US relationship. The United States saw Pakistan as a counterweight to pro-Soviet India and started giving the former military assistance. This created an atmosphere of suspicion between India and the US. The Indo-US relationship suffered a considerable setback when the Soviets took over Afghanistan and India overtly supported the Soviet Union.

In recent years, India-United States relations have still improved significantly during the Premiership of Narendra Modi since 2014.¹

Russia

Indian PM Narendra Modi with Russian President Vladimir Putin. India and Russia enjoy strong strategic and military relations.

India's ties with the Russian Federation are time-tested and based on continuity, trust and mutual understanding. There is national consensus in both the countries on the need to preserve and strengthen India-Russia relations and further consolidate the strategic partnership between the two countries. A Declaration on Strategic Partnership was signed between present Russian President Vladimir Putin and former Indian Prime Minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee in October 2000 the partnership is also referred as "special and privileged strategic partnership" .

United Kingdom

India has a high commission in London and two consulates-general in Birmingham and Edinburgh.^[325] The United Kingdom has a high commission in New Delhi and five deputy high commissions in Mumbai, Chennai, Bangalore, Hyderabad and Kolkata.^[326] Since 1947, India's relations with the United Kingdom have been through bilateral, as well as through the Commonwealth of Nations framework. Although the Sterling Area no longer exists and the Commonwealth is much more an informal forum, India and the UK still have many enduring links. This is in part due to the significant number of people of Indian origin living in the UK. The large

South Asian population in the UK results in steady travel and communication between the two countries. The British Raj allowed for both cultures to imbibe tremendously from the other. The English language and cricket are perhaps the two most evident British exports, whilst in the UK food from the Indian subcontinent is very popular.^[327] The United Kingdom's favourite food is often reported to be Indian cuisine, although no official study reports this.

Economically the relationship between Britain and India is also strong. India is the second largest investor in Britain after the US. Britain is also one of the largest investors in India.

South Korea

The cordial relationship between the two countries extends back to 48AD, when Queen Suro, or Princess Heo, travelled from the kingdom of Ayodhya to Korea.^[211] According to the Samguk Yusa, the princess had a dream about a heavenly king who was awaiting heaven's anointed ride. After Princess Heo had the dream, she asked her parents, the king and queen, for permission to set out and seek the man, which the king and queen urged with the belief that god orchestrated the whole fate.^[212] Upon approval, she set out on a boat, carrying gold, silver, a tea plant, and a stone which calmed the waters.^[211] Archeologists discovered a stone with two fish kissing each other, a symbol of the Gaya kingdom that is unique to the Mishra royal family in Ayodhya, India. This royal link provides further evidence that there was an active commercial engagements between India and Korea since the queen's arrival to Korea.^[211] Current descendants live in the city of Kimhae as well as abroad in America's state of New Jersey and Kentucky. Many of them became prominent and well-known around the world like President Kim Dae Jung, Prime Minister Jong Pil Kim.

The relations between the countries have been relatively limited, although much progress arose during the three decades. Since the formal establishment of the diplomatic ties between two countries in 1973, several trade agreements have been reached. Trade between the two nations has increased exponentially, exemplified by the \$530 million during the fiscal year of 1992–1993, and the \$10 billion during 2006–2007.^[213] During the 1997 Asian financial crisis, South Korean businesses sought to increase access to the global markets, and began trade investments with India.^[213] The last two presidential visits from South Korea to India were in 1996 and 2006,^[214] and the embassy works between the two countries are seen as needing improvements.^[215] Recently, there have been acknowledgements in the Korean public and political spheres that expanding relations with India should be a major economical and political priority for South Korea. Much of the economic investments of South Korea have been drained into China;^[216] however, South Korea is currently the fifth largest source of investment in India.^[217] To The Times of India, President Roh Moo-hyun voiced his opinion that co-operation between India's software and Korea's IT industries would bring very efficient and successful outcomes.^[214] The two countries agreed to shift their focus to the revision of the visa policies between the two countries, expansion of trade, and establishment of free trade agreement to encourage further investment between the two countries. Korean companies such as LG, Hyundai and Samsung have established manufacturing and service facilities in India, and several Korean construction companies won grants for a portion of the many infrastructural building plans in India, such as the "National Highway Development Project".^[217] Tata Motor's purchase of Daewoo Commercial Vehicles at the cost of \$102 million highlights the India's investments in Korea, which consist mostly of subcontracting.

Australia

India & Australia are both Commonwealth members. Sporting and cultural ties are significant. Australian cricketers often undertake large commercial ventures in India, enhanced with the IPL, and, to a lesser degree, the ICL. Bollywood productions enjoy a large market in Australia. In 2007, PM John Howard visited Mumbai and its entertainment industry, in efforts to increase Tourism in India to Australia.

There are ongoing strategic attempts to form an "Asian NATO" with India, Japan, the US and Australia through the Quadrilateral Security Dialogue. During the first decade of the 21st century, the deepening of strategic relations between the two nations was prevented by a range of policy disagreements, such as India's refusal to sign the NPT and Australia's consequent refusal to provide India with uranium. Australia's parliament later allowed for the sale of uranium to India, following changes in government.^[184] Closer strategic cooperation between India, Japan, the United States and Australia also began during the second half of the 2010s, which some analysts attributed to a desire to balance Chinese initiatives in the Indo-Pacific region.^[185]

Canada

Indo-Canadian relations, are the longstanding bilateral relations between India and Canada, which are built upon a "mutual commitment to democracy", "pluralism", and "people-to-people links", according to the government of Canada. In 2004, bilateral trade between India and Canada was at about C\$2.45 billion. However, the botched handling of the Air India investigation and the case in general suffered a setback to Indo-Canadian relations. India's Smiling Buddha nuclear test led to connections between the two countries being frozen, with allegations that India broke the terms of the Colombo Plan. Although Jean Chrétien and Roméo LeBlanc both visited India in the late 1990s, relations were again halted after the Pokhran-II tests.

Canada-India relations have been on an upward trajectory since 2005. Governments at all levels, private-sector organisations, academic institutes in two countries, and people-to-people contacts—especially diaspora networks—have contributed through individual and concerted efforts to significant improvements in the bilateral relationship. The two governments have agreed on important policy frameworks to advance the bilateral relationship. In particular, the Nuclear Cooperation Agreement (signed in June 2010) and the current successful negotiations of the Comprehensive Economic Partnership Agreement (CEPA) constitute a watershed in Canada-India relations. The two governments have attempted to make up for lost time and are eager to complete CEPA negotiations by 2013 and ensure its ratification by 2014. After conclusion of CEPA, Canada and India must define the areas for their partnership which will depend on their ability to convert common interests into common action and respond effectively for steady co-operation. For example, during "pull-aside" meetings between Prime Minister Manmohan Singh and Stephen Harper at the G-20 summit in Mexico in June 2012, and an earlier meeting in Toronto between External Affairs Minister S. M. Krishna and John Baird, the leaders discussed developing a more comprehensive partnership going beyond food security and including the possibility of tie-ups in the energy sector, mainly hydrocarbon.

Germany

During the Cold War India maintained diplomatic relations with both West Germany and East Germany. Since the fall of the Berlin Wall, and the reunification of Germany, relations have further improved.

Germany is India's largest trade partner in Europe. Between 2004 and 2013, Indo-German trade grew in volume but dropped in importance. According to Indian Ministry of Commerce MX data: Total trade between India and Germany was \$5.5billion (3.8% share of Indian trade and ranked 6) in 2004 and \$21.6billion (2.6% share of Indian trade and ranked 9) in 2013. Indian exports to Germany were \$2.54billion (3.99% ranked 6) in 2004 and \$7.3billion (2.41% ranked 10) in 2013. Indian imports from Germany were \$2.92billion (3.73% ranked 6) in 2004 and \$14.33billion (2.92% ranked 10) in 2013.

Indo-German ties are transactional. The strategic relationship between Germany and India suffers from sustained anti-Asian sentiment,¹ institutionalized discrimination against minority groups, and xenophobic incidents against Indians in Germany. The 2007 Mügeln mob attack on

Indians and the 2015 Leipzig University internship controversy has clouded the predominantly commercial-oriented relationship between the two countries. Stiff competition between foreign manufactured goods within the Indian market has seen machine-tools, automotive parts and medical supplies from German *Mittelstand* ceding ground to high-technology imports manufactured by companies located in ASEAN & BRICS countries.^{[292][293][294][295]} The Volkswagen emissions scandal drew the spotlight to corrupt behaviour in German boardrooms^{[296][297][298]} and brought back memories of the HDW bribery scandal surrounding the procurement of *Shishumar*-class submarines by the Indian Navy. The India-Germany strategic relationship is limited by the insignificance of German geopolitical influence in Asian affairs. Germany has no strategic footprint in Asia. Germany like India is working towards gaining permanent seats in the United Nations Security Council.

European Union

India was one of the first countries to develop relations with the European Union. The Joint Political Statement of 1993 and the 1994 Co-operation Agreement were the foundational agreements for the bilateral partnership. In 2004, India and European Union became "Strategic Partners". A Joint Action Plan was agreed upon in 2005 and updated in 2008. India-EU Joint Statements was published in 2009 and 2012 following the India-European Union Summits.

India and the European Commission initiated negotiations on a *Broad-based Trade and Investment Agreement* (BTIA) in 2007. Seven rounds of negotiations have been completed without reaching a Free Trade Agreement.

According to the Government of India, trade between India and the EU was \$57.25 billion between April and October 2014 and stood at \$101.5 billion for the fiscal period of 2014–2015.

The European Union is India's second largest trading bloc, accounting for around 20% of Indian trade (Gulf Cooperation Council is the largest trading bloc with almost \$160 billion in total trade). India was the European Union's 8th largest trading partner in 2010. EU-India trade grew from €28.6 billion in 2003 to €72.7 billion in 2013.

France, Germany and UK collectively represent the major part of EU-India trade. Annual trade in commercial services tripled from €5.2 billion in 2002 to €17.9 billion in 2010.¹ Denmark, Sweden, Finland and the Netherlands are the other more prominent European Union countries who trade with India.

Name :- 1) Sahil Gidwani, Tybbaca
2) Priyen Joshi, Tybbaca

Foreign Relations of India

The Ministry of External Affairs (India) (MEA), also known as the Foreign Ministry, is the government agency responsible for the conduct of foreign relations of India. With the world's third largest military expenditure, fourth largest armed force, fifth largest economy by GDP nominal rates and third largest economy in terms of purchasing power parity,^[1] India is a prominent regional power,^[2] a nuclear power, an emerging global power and a potential superpower. India assumes a growing international influence and a prominent voice in global affairs.

As a former British colony, India is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations and continues to

maintain relationships with other Commonwealth countries. Since gaining independence from Britain in 1947, however, India is now classified as a newly industrialised country and has cultivated an extensive network of foreign relations with other states. As a member state of BRICS - a repertoire of emerging major economies that also encompasses Brazil, Russia, China and South Africa, India also exerts a salient influence as the founding member of the Non-Aligned Movement.^[3] In recent decades, India has pursued a more expansive foreign policy that encompasses the neighbourhood first policy embodied by SAARC as well as the Look East policy to forge more extensive economic and strategic relationships with other East Asian countries. Moreover, India was one of the founding members of several international organisations—the United Nations, the Asian Development Bank, New Development BRICS Bank, and G-20, widely considered the main economic locus of emerging and developed nations.^[4]

History

India's relations with the world have evolved since the British Raj (1857–1947), when the British Empire took responsibility for handling external and defence relations. When India gained

independence in 1947, few Indians had experience in making or conducting foreign policy. However, the country's oldest political party, the Indian National Congress, had established a small foreign department in 1925 to make overseas contacts and to publicise its independence struggle. From the late 1920s on, Jawaharlal Nehru, who had a long-standing interest in world affairs among independence leaders, formulated the Congress stance on international issues. As Prime Minister from 1947, Nehru articulated India's approach to the world.

India's international influence varied over the years after independence. Indian prestige and moral authority were high in the 1950s and facilitated the acquisition of developmental assistance from both East and West. Although the prestige stemmed from India's nonaligned stance, the nation was unable to prevent Cold War politics from becoming intertwined with interstate relations in South Asia. On the intensely debated Kashmir issue with Pakistan, India lost credibility by rejecting United Nations calls for a plebiscite in the disputed area.^[12]

In the 1960s and 1970s India's international position among developed and developing countries faded in the course of wars with China and Pakistan, disputes with other countries in South Asia, and India's attempt to match Pakistan's support from the United States and China by signing the Indo-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation in August 1971.

Although India obtained substantial Soviet military and economic aid, which helped to strengthen the nation, India's influence was undercut regionally and internationally by the perception that its friendship with the Soviet Union prevented a more forthright condemnation of the Soviet presence in Afghanistan. In the late 1980s, India improved relations with the United States, other developed countries, and China while continuing close ties with the Soviet Union. Relations with its South Asian neighbours, especially Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Nepal, occupied much of the energies of the Ministry of External Affairs.^[13]

Ministry of External Affairs

The Ministry of External Affairs is the Indian government's agency responsible for the foreign relations of India. The Minister of External Affairs holds cabinet rank as a member of the Council of Ministers.

Subramanian Jaishankar is current Minister of External Affairs. The Ministry has a Minister of State V Muraleedharan. The Indian Foreign Secretary is the head of Indian Foreign Service (IFS) and therefore, serves as the head of all Indian (ambassadors) and high commissioners.^[40] Harsh Vardhan Shringla is the current Foreign Secretary of India.

SAARC

Certain aspects of India's relations within the subcontinent are conducted through the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). Its members other than India

are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Established in 1985, SAARC encourages co-operation in agriculture, rural development, science and technology, culture, health, population control, narcotics control and anti-terrorism.

SAARC has intentionally stressed these "core issues" and avoided more divisive political issues, although political dialogue is often conducted on the margins of SAARC meetings. In 1993, India and its SAARC partners signed an agreement to gradually lower tariffs within the region. Forward movement in SAARC has come to a standstill because of the tension between India and Pakistan, and the SAARC Summit originally scheduled for, but not held in, November 1999 has not been rescheduled. The Fourteenth SAARC Summit was held during 3–4 April 2007 in New Delhi.

Recent SAARC summit that was scheduled to be held in Islamabad was postponed due to terrorist acts particularly Uri attack.

Partnership agreements

India has signed strategic partnership agreements with more than two dozen countries/supranational entities listed here in the chronological order of the pacts:

Agreements			
Si.no.	Country	Year of Agreement signed	Reference
1	France	1997	[76]
2	Russia	2000	[77]
3	Germany	2001	[78]
4	Mauritius	2003	[79]
5	Iran	2003	[80]

6	United Kingdom	2004	[81]
7	United States of America	2004	[82]
8	European Union	2004	[83]
9	Indonesia	2005	[84]
10	China	2005	[85]
11	Brazil	2006	[86]
12	Vietnam	2007	[87]
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▼ **Afghanistan**

Bilateral relations between India and Afghanistan have been traditionally strong and friendly. While India was the only South Asian country to recognise the Soviet-backed Democratic Republic of Afghanistan in the 1980s, its relations were diminished during the Afghan civil wars and the rule of the Islamist Taliban in the 1990s.^[109] India aided the overthrow of the Taliban and became the

largest regional provider of humanitarian and reconstruction aid.^{[58][110]}

The new democratically elected Afghan government strengthened its ties with India in wake of persisting tensions and problems with Pakistan, which is continuing to shelter and support the Taliban.^{[58][110]} India pursues a policy of close co-operation to bolster its standing as a regional power and contain its rival Pakistan, which it maintains is supporting Islamic militants in Kashmir and other parts of India.^[58] India is the largest regional investor in Afghanistan, having committed more than US\$2.2 billion for reconstruction purposes.^[111]

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There are ongoing strategic attempts to form an "Asian NATO" with India, Japan, the US and Australia through the Quadrilateral Security Dialogue. During the first decade of the 21st century, the deepening of strategic relations between the two nations was prevented by a range of policy disagreements, such as India's refusal to sign the NPT and Australia's consequent refusal to provide India with uranium. Australia's parliament later allowed for the sale of uranium to India, following changes in government.^[184] Closer strategic cooperation between India, Japan, the United States and Australia also began during the second half of the 2010s, which some analysts attributed to a desire to balance Chinese initiatives in the Indo-Pacific region.^[185]

Canada

Indo-Canadian relations, are the longstanding bilateral relations between India and Canada, which are built upon a "mutual commitment to democracy", "pluralism", and "people-to-people links", according to the government of Canada. In 2004, bilateral trade between India and Canada was at about C\$2.45 billion. However, the botched handling of the Air India investigation and the case in general suffered a setback to Indo-Canadian relations. India's Smiling Buddha nuclear test led to connections between the two countries being frozen, with allegations that India broke the terms

of the Colombo Plan. Although Jean Chrétien and Roméo LeBlanc both visited India in the late 1990s, relations were again halted after the Pokhran-II tests.

Canada-India relations have been on an upward trajectory since 2005. Governments at all levels, private-sector organisations, academic institutes in two countries, and people-to-people contacts—especially diaspora networks—have contributed through individual and concerted efforts to significant improvements in the bilateral relationship. The two governments have agreed on important policy frameworks to advance the bilateral relationship. In particular, the Nuclear Cooperation Agreement (signed in June 2010) and the current successful negotiations of the Comprehensive Economic Partnership Agreement (CEPA) constitute a watershed in Canada-India relations. The two governments have attempted to make up for lost time and are eager to complete CEPA negotiations by 2013 and ensure its ratification by 2014. After conclusion of CEPA, Canada and India must define the areas for their partnership which will depend on their ability to convert common interests into common action and respond effectively for steady co-operation. For example, during "pull-aside" meetings between Prime Minister Manmohan Singh and Stephen Harper at the G-20 summit in Mexico in June 2012, and an earlier meeting in Toronto between External Affairs Minister S. M. Krishna and John Baird, the leaders discussed developing a more

comprehensive partnership going beyond food security and including the possibility of tie-ups in the energy sector, mainly hydrocarbon.

Germany

During the Cold War India maintained diplomatic relations with both West Germany and East Germany. Since the fall of the Berlin Wall, and the reunification of Germany, relations have further improved.

Germany is India's largest trade partner in Europe. Between 2004 and 2013, Indo-German trade grew in volume but dropped in importance. According to Indian Ministry of Commerce MX data: Total trade between India and Germany was \$5.5billion (3.8% share of Indian trade and ranked 6) in 2004 and \$21.6billion (2.6% share of Indian trade and ranked 9) in 2013. Indian exports to Germany were \$2.54billion (3.99% ranked 6) in 2004 and \$7.3billion (2.41% ranked 10) in 2013. Indian imports from Germany were \$2.92billion (3.73% ranked 6) in 2004 and \$14.33billion (2.92% ranked 10) in 2013.

Indo-German ties are transactional. The strategic relationship between Germany and India suffers from sustained anti-Asian sentiment,¹ institutionalized discrimination against minority groups, and xenophobic incidents against Indians in Germany. The 2007 Mügeln mob attack

on Indians and the 2015 Leipzig University internship controversy has clouded the predominantly commercial-oriented relationship between the two countries. Stiff competition between foreign manufactured goods within the Indian market has seen machine-tools, automotive parts and medical supplies from German *Mittelstand* ceding ground to high-technology imports manufactured by companies located in ASEAN & BRICS countries.^{[292][293][294][295]} The Volkswagen emissions scandal drew the spotlight to corrupt behaviour in German boardrooms^{[296][297][298]} and brought back memories of the HDW bribery scandal surrounding the procurement of *Shishumar*-class submarines by the Indian Navy. The India-Germany strategic relationship is limited by the insignificance of German geopolitical influence in Asian affairs. Germany has no strategic footprint in Asia. Germany like India is working towards gaining permanent seats in the United Nations Security Council.

European Union

India was one of the first countries to develop relations with the European Union. The Joint Political Statement of 1993 and the 1994 Co-operation Agreement were the foundational agreements for the bilateral partnership. In 2004, India and European Union became "Strategic Partners". A Joint Action Plan was agreed upon in 2005 and updated in 2008. India-EU Joint

Statements was published in 2009 and 2012 following the India-European Union Summits.

India and the European Commission initiated negotiations on a *Broad-based Trade and Investment Agreement* (BTIA) in 2007. Seven rounds of negotiations have been completed without reaching a Free Trade Agreement.

According to the Government of India, trade between India and the EU was \$57.25 billion between April and October 2014 and stood at \$101.5 billion for the fiscal period of 2014–2015.

The European Union is India's second largest trading bloc, accounting for around 20% of Indian trade (Gulf Cooperation Council is the largest trading bloc with almost \$160 billion in total trade). India was the European Union's 8th largest trading partner in 2010. EU-India trade grew from €28.6 billion in 2003 to €72.7 billion in 2013.

France, Germany and UK collectively represent the major part of EU-India trade. Annual trade in commercial services tripled from €5.2 billion in 2002 to €17.9 billion in 2010.¹ Denmark, Sweden, Finland and the Netherlands are the other more prominent European Union countries who trade with India.

Name: Ahmad Faisal Ayoubi

Class TY BBA-IB

Roll NO: 02

International Relation Assignment

Extra Credit Course

International Humanitarian Aid

International Humanitarian Aid

Humanitarian aid is material and logistic assistance to people who need help. It is usually short-term help until the long-term help by the government and other institutions replaces it. Among the people in need are the homeless, refugees, and victims of natural disasters, wars, and famines. Humanitarian relief efforts are provided for humanitarian purposes and include natural disasters and man-made disasters. The primary objective of humanitarian aid is to save lives, alleviate suffering, and maintain human dignity. It may, therefore, be distinguished from development aid, which seeks to address the underlying socioeconomic factors which may have led to a crisis or emergency. There is a debate on linking humanitarian aid and development efforts, which was reinforced by the World Humanitarian Summit in 2016. However, the conflation is viewed critically by practitioners.

Humanitarian aid is seen as "a fundamental expression of the universal value of solidarity between people and a moral imperative". Humanitarian aid can come from either local or international communities. In reaching out to international communities, the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) of the United Nations (UN) is responsible for coordination responses to emergencies. It taps to the various members of Inter-Agency Standing Committee, whose members are responsible for providing emergency relief. The four UN entities that have primary roles in delivering humanitarian aid are United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Food Programme (WFP).

History

The beginnings of organized international humanitarian aid can be traced to the late 19th century. The most well-known origin story of formalized humanitarian aid is that of Henri Dunant, a Swiss businessman and social activist, who upon seeing the sheer destruction and inhumane abandonment of wounded soldiers from the Battle of Solferino in June 1859, canceled his plans and began a relief response.

Humanitarian efforts that precede the work of Henri Dunant include British aid to distressed populations on the continent and in Sweden during the Napoleonic

Wars, and the international relief campaigns during the Great Irish Famine in the 1840s. In 1854, when the Crimean War began Florence Nightingale and her team of 38 nurses arrived to Barracks Hospital of Scutari where there were thousands of sick and wounded soldiers. Nightingale and her team watched as the understaffed military hospitals struggled to maintain hygienic conditions and meet the needs of patients. Ten times more soldiers were dying of disease than from battle wounds. Typhus, typhoid, cholera and dysentery were common in the army hospitals. Nightingale and her team established a kitchen, laundry and increased hygiene. More nurses arrived to aid in the efforts and the General Hospital at Scutari was able to care for 6,000 patients.

Nightingale's contributions still influence humanitarian aid efforts. This is especially true in regard to Nightingale's use of statistics and measures of mortality and morbidity. Nightingale used principles of new science and statistics to measure progress and plan for her hospital. She kept records of the number and cause of deaths in order to continuously improve the conditions in hospitals. Her findings were that in every 1,000 soldiers, 600 were dying of communicable and infectious diseases. She worked to improve hygiene, nutrition and clean water and decreased the mortality rate from 60% to 42% to 2.2%. All of these improvements are pillars of modern humanitarian intervention. Once she returned to Great Britain she campaigned for the founding of the Royal Commission on the Health of the Army. She advocated for the use of statistics and coxcombs to portray the needs of those in conflict settings. Despite little to no experience as a medical physician, Dunant worked alongside local volunteers to assist the wounded soldiers from all warring parties, including Austrian, Italian and French casualties, in any way he could including the provision of food, water, and medical supplies. His graphic account of the immense suffering he witnessed, written in his book "A Memory of Solferino", became a foundational text to modern humanitarianism.

1980s

Early attempts were in private hands and were limited in their financial and organizational capabilities. It was only in the 1980s, that global news coverage and celebrity endorsement were mobilized to galvanize large-scale government-led famine (and other forms of) relief in response to disasters around the world. The 1983–85 famine in Ethiopia caused upwards of 1 million deaths and was

documented by a BBC news crew, with Michael Buerk describing "a biblical famine in the 20th Century" and "the closest thing to hell on Earth".

Live Aid, a 1985 fund-raising effort headed by Bob Geldof induced millions of people in the West to donate money and to urge their governments to participate in the relief effort in Ethiopia. Some of the proceeds also went to the famine hit areas of Eritrea.

2010s

The first global summit on humanitarian diplomacy was held on 23 and 24 May 2016 in Istanbul, Turkey.^[36] An initiative of United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, the World Humanitarian Summit included participants from governments, civil society organizations, private organizations, and groups affected by humanitarian need. Issues that were discussed included: preventing and ending conflict, managing crises, and aid financing.

Funding

Aid is funded by donations from individuals, corporations, governments and other organizations. The funding and delivery of humanitarian aid is increasingly international, making it much faster, more responsive, and more effective in coping to major emergencies affecting large numbers of people (e.g. see Central Emergency Response Fund). The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) coordinates the international humanitarian response to a crisis or emergency pursuant to Resolution 46/182 of the United Nations General Assembly. The need for aid is ever-increasing and has long outstripped the financial resources available.

Delivery of humanitarian aid

Truck for delivery of aid from Western to Eastern Europe

Humanitarian aid spans a wide range of activities, including providing food aid, shelter, education, healthcare or protection. The majority of aid is provided in the form of in-kind goods or assistance, with cash and vouchers constituting only 6% of total humanitarian spending. However, evidence has shown how cash transfers can be better for recipients as it gives them choice and control, they can be more cost-efficient and better for local markets and economies.

It is important to note that humanitarian aid is not only delivered through aid workers sent by bilateral, multilateral or intergovernmental organizations, such as the United Nations. Actors like the affected people themselves, civil society, local informal first-responders, civil society, the diaspora, businesses, local governments, military, local and international non-governmental organizations all play a crucial role in a timely delivery of humanitarian aid.

How aid is delivered can affect the quality and quantity of aid. Often in disaster situations, international aid agencies work in hand with local agencies. There can be different arrangements on the role these agencies play, and such arrangement affects that quality of hard and soft aid delivered.

Technology and humanitarian aid

Traditionally, humanitarian organizations have concentrated their efforts in the delivery of human, medical, food, shelter and water sanitation and hygiene resources during humanitarian emergencies.

Nevertheless, since the 2010 Haiti Earthquake, the institutional and operational focus of humanitarian aid has been on leveraging technology to enhance humanitarian action, ensuring that more formal relationships are established, and improving the interaction between formal humanitarian organizations such as the United Nations (UN) Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) and informal volunteer and technological communities known as digital humanitarians.

The recent rise in Big Data, high-resolution satellite imagery and new platforms powered by advanced computing have already prompted the development of innovative computational solutions to help humanitarian organizations make sense of the vast volume and velocity of information generated during disasters. For example, crowdsourcing maps (such as Open Street Maps) and social media messages in Twitter were used during the 2010 Haiti Earthquake and Hurricane Sandy to trace leads of missing people, infrastructure damages and rise new alerts for emergencies.

Satellite imagery is now used to predict how many people will be displaced from their homes and where they will likely move. Such insights helps emergency personnel to identify how much aid in terms of water, food and medical care will

be needed and where to send it before they conduct a Rapid Needs Assessment on the field, and at the same time it helps prevent putting the humanitarian organization personnel at risk. Artificial intelligence algorithms may instantaneously assess flooding, building and road damage based on satellite images and weather forecasts, allowing rescuers to distribute emergency aid more effectively and identify those still in danger and isolated from escape routes.^[43] Another example that illustrates technology used for humanitarian purposes is the Artificial Intelligence for Digital Response (AIDR) platform which is a free and open source software that automatically collects and classifies tweets that are posted during emergencies, humanitarian crises and disasters. AIDR uses human and machine intelligence to automatically tag up to thousands of messages per minute so humanitarian organizations are able to take faster decisions depending on the trends from the data collected during a specific kind emergency.

Big data for humanitarian operations provides a unique opportunity to access instantaneously contextual information about pending and ongoing humanitarian crises. The development of rigorous information management systems may lead to feasible mechanisms for forecasting and preventing crises. Nevertheless, there are important issues to be discussed concerning the veracity and validity of data. Data that are collected or generated through digital or mobile mechanisms will often pose additional challenges, especially regarding the verification when the information comes from social media. Though a significant amount of work is under way to develop software and algorithms for verifying crowdsourced or anonymously provided data, such tools are not yet operational or widely available. Also, multiple data transactions and increased complexity in data structures raise the potential for error in humanitarian data entry and interpretation, and this raises concerns about the accuracy and representativeness of data that is used for policy decisions in highly pressurized situations that demand quick decision-making.

Humanitarian aid and conflict

In addition to post-conflict settings, a large portion of aid is often directed at countries currently undergoing conflicts. However, the effectiveness of humanitarian aid, particularly food aid, in conflict-prone regions has been criticized in recent years. There have been accounts of humanitarian aid being not only inefficacious, but actually fueling conflicts in the recipient countries. Aid stealing is one of the prime ways in which conflict is promoted by humanitarian

aid. Aid can be seized by armed groups, and even if it does reach the intended recipients, "it is difficult to exclude local members of local militia group from being direct recipients if they are also malnourished and qualify to receive aid." Furthermore, analyzing the relationship between conflict and food aid, a recent research shows that the United States' food aid promoted civil conflict in recipient countries on average. An increase in United States' wheat aid increased the duration of armed civil conflicts in recipient countries, and ethnic polarization heightened this effect.¹ However, since academic research on aid and conflict focuses on the role of aid in post-conflict settings, the aforementioned finding is difficult to contextualize. Nevertheless, research on Iraq shows that "small-scale [projects], local aid spending . . . reduces conflict by creating incentives for average citizens to support the government in subtle ways."¹ Similarly, another study also shows that aid flows can "reduce conflict because increasing aid revenues can relax government budget constraints, which can [in return] increase military spending and deter opposing groups from engaging in conflict." Thus, the impact of humanitarian aid on conflict may vary depending upon the type and mode in which aid is received, and, *inter alia*, the local socio-economic, cultural, historical, geographical and political conditions in the recipient countries.

Composition

The total number of humanitarian aid workers around the world has been calculated by ALNAP, a network of agencies working in the Humanitarian System, as 210,800 in 2008. This is made up of roughly 50% from NGOs, 25% from the Red Cross/ Red Crescent Movement and 25% from the UN system.¹ In 2010, it was reported that the humanitarian fieldworker population increased by approximately 6% per year over the previous 10 years.

Psychological Issues

Aid workers are exposed to tough conditions and have to be flexible, resilient, and responsible in an environment that humans are not psychologically supposed to deal with, in such severe conditions that trauma is common. In recent years, a number of concerns have been raised about the mental health of aid workers.

The most prevalent issue faced by humanitarian aid workers is PTSD (Post Traumatic Stress Disorder). Adjustment to normal life again can be a problem,

with feelings such as guilt being caused by the simple knowledge that international aid workers can leave a crisis zone, whilst nationals cannot.

A 2015 survey conducted by *The Guardian*, with aid workers of the Global Development Professionals Network, revealed that 79 percent experienced mental health issues.

Standards

The humanitarian community has initiated a number of interagency initiatives to improve accountability, quality and performance in humanitarian action. Five of the most widely known initiatives are the Active Learning Network for Accountability and Performance in Humanitarian Action (ALNAP), Humanitarian Accountability Partnership (HAP), People in Aid, the Sphere Project and the Core Humanitarian Standard on Quality and Accountability (CHS). Representatives of these initiatives began meeting together on a regular basis in 2003 in order to share common issues and harmonise activities where possible.

People in Aid

The People in Aid Code of Good Practice was an internationally recognised management tool that helps humanitarian aid and development agencies enhance the quality of their human resources management. As a management framework, it was also a part of agencies' efforts to improve standards, accountability and transparency amid the challenges of disaster, conflict and poverty.

Humanitarian Encyclopedia

The Humanitarian Encyclopedia, launched in June 2017, aims to create "a clear and comprehensive reference framework, influenced by local and contextualized knowledge analyses of lessons learned and best practices, as well as insights for evidence-based decision and policy-making." A part of this mission will be to provide a centralised data base for defining or clarifying different understandings of key concepts in humanitarian aid. The need for this stem from the experience in Haiti in the aftermath of the 2010 earthquake, where international aid organisations

pushed out local aid groups as a result of a lack of reflection and understanding of local contexts and aid concepts, making the relief effort less efficient.

Free to access, the project is expected to be completed within five years, with the first parts slated to be published online by the end of 2018.

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Roll No. 176

Topic - The Integration of African Muslim Minority: A Critique of French Philosophy and Policy.

Introduction

My research question addressed in this thesis is simply: why has segregation of African Muslims occurred? My objective is to assess the viability of assimilation in the integration of African Muslims in France. My hypothesis is that the process established by the French government for the assimilation and integration of African Muslims into French society has constructed and maintained segregated African Muslim diaspora communities. This topic was chosen because I possess a general interest in the integration of Muslims into Western society. Due to the broadness of the Muslim population, I narrowed my focus on African Muslims.

My thesis is relevant given the increased visibility of the African Muslim presence in Western society. The Riots of 2005 were seen as a violent reaction to a singular event; on the contrary, the rioting was against systemic violence, stigmatisation, segregation and poverty. The riots of 2005 serve as the visualisation of the unseen “other” within French society. Arguably, Muslims and in particular African Muslims are the most visible and problematic immigrant group in France today. The situation of African Muslims in France is a crucial test case for the robustness of contemporary French democracy. migration statistics are difficult to ascertain because information on immigrants based on ethnic identification is unknown. Since 2005, France no longer requires visa

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permits for nationalities from member countries within the European Union. So data presented to provide a clear picture on immigrant nationality is left vague. However, yearly census surveys are conducted. While specific ethnic data is not collected, information is provided in cases where interviewees

identify their country of origin. Much of the statistical data and corresponding information within this thesis is due to the annual census survey data collected by the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE) and translated by the National Institute of Demographic Studies (INED).

Guided Discussion: Segregation of the African Muslim Diaspora in France

Presently debates regarding the location of the African Muslim minority diaspora communities living in French society remains on the fringes of political discourse within France. The African Muslim situation within France cannot be answered without taking various aspects into consideration. Therefore for in this project I seek to answer why such segregation has occurred in present-day France. The focus of this research is to determine the relationship between the political and cultural aspects of French society. I examine the role of French government in the creation of segregated African Muslim communities. I am interested in the examination of the negotiation process taking place between governance and religiosity. I analyse the role of French governance in the construction of segregated African Muslim diaspora communities in metropolitan France. Throughout this thesis three aspects of French governance are examined: philosophy, French colonialism, and the realities of African Muslims.

Removing Ambiguity in French Case

There are conceptual limitations in identifying terms such as historical legacy, *la mission civilisatrice*, secularism, assimilation, and integration when examining social, cultural, and political embeddedness of French society. Therefore such terms shall be defined now.

Due to the ambiguity that surrounds the term historical legacy, I define it here as the historical record of events which France actively or passively engaged in which shaped the development of contemporary French society. (Bleich, 2005) This definitional understanding is central to my examination of the root causal mechanism for segregation of African Muslims in France. The French historical legacy developed over time following stages of growth, prominence, decline, and conflict. It is this concept of historical legacy which allows consistent patterns of state behaviour to emerge. Furthermore, based on the emergence

of such patterns, the nature of current state-to-immigrant relationship can be determined.

The institutionalisation of secularism is the most recognisable attribute in the strategic policy approach for immigration integration. Institutionalisation of secularism is the formalised separation of the state and public domain from religiosity. In France, it is not a simple case of separating governance from religion but rather the removal of religious affiliation and attachments from political and public spheres. Thus, France has passed laws making religion a completely private matter. Notably, secularisation relies on the complete removal of religious entanglements within public spheres of society.

Secularism is a tool utilised by the government of France to force rather than promote assimilation; assimilation is the processes by which immigrants navigate acculturation and integration; and integration of immigrants focuses here on the inclusion both socially and politically into France. Therefore the lack of integration is presented by the development of segregated Muslim African diaspora communities. There are three traditions of French citizenship; one, *jus soli*, citizenship is automatic to the individual born in the territory. The second, *jus sanguine*, citizenship is determined on the basis of descent (an individual born abroad to citizen parents). Finally, the third which I will call, colonial legacy, immigrants can acquire citizenship through registration, naturalisation, or declaration. (Brusker 1994) France has established “a readiness to grant citizenship, but it has a republican conception of citizenship which does not allow, at least in theory, a body of citizens to be differentially identified.”

Anatomy of Study: The French Case

I explore French colonial practices in Africa, because I seek to assess the assimilation of individuals of the newly independent colonies in Africa into French society. My focus is on African Muslim diaspora communities established between 1960 into the early 1970s. Although my focus is on this timeframe, I utilize literature which examines the earlier migration of people of similar ancestral origin. The work I present here narrows in on present-day immigration integration, relying heavily on historical data. In order to examine the assimilation and integration of African Muslims, I first study the philosophical underpinnings from the 1789 French Revolution in the creation of policies put in place for such negotiation. This work is important because it identifies the processes which lead to the development of segregated communities. It also sheds light on the unintended negative consequences of public policies, which in the case of France, I argue, have led to the segregation and hindered successful integration of immigrants into prevailing French

society. Spatial segregation, in addition, has worsened life conditions of immigrants and exposed them to a culture of marginalisation that is not only potentially explosive, but also detrimental to their own wellbeing. Determining the causal mechanisms for the creation of segregated communities, allows researchers to assist in the construction of better more conscious policies.

The mainstream assessment of Muslim immigrants, by the West, focuses too narrowly on linkages between Islam and violence under the guise of religion. The riots which took place in 2005 were seen by many within France as an action by a religious radical “other,” acting against the secular government. Such a view, however, overlooks the socioeconomic deprivation as the causal mechanism which united people with similar ancestral identification, igniting a riot. The images of violent Muslim youth rioting in Parisian suburbs that for a while were circulated widely in French and international media have certainly contributed to the hostilities from non-Muslims towards Muslims, because too often, the appearance of linkages between religion and violence, are perceived as a threat aimed directly against Western world order. (Bertossi, 2006) It is the increasing visibility of Muslims within the traditionally non-Muslim country of France that brought about a host of challenges to the forefront of political discourse. The most important challenge as discussed here, are issues of assimilation and integration of Muslims into French society. The French reliance of secularisation and assimilation for the integration of Muslim immigrants, ultimately results in a policy too narrowly focused on the reduction of the influence of religion (Islam) neglecting the broader goal of the actual assimilation and integration of Muslims.

This thesis illustrates how the integration policies undertaken by the French government have been moderately affective in reducing the influence of Islam but have created pockets of Muslim communities deeply embedded with the Islamic tradition. This

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outcome can be in part attributed, I argue, to the very policies focusing on the reduction of religious influence and favoring secular policies of assimilation. The institutionalisation of secularism has resulted in the alienation of African Muslim communities. In the French case, secularism is forced upon immigrants who themselves may publicly recognize the secular laws, but privately cling to vestiges of religious self- identification which in turn leads to the creation of hidden communities built by individuals with shared commonalities such as religious observance. Ultimately French governance has neglected the community level of integration of Muslims by focusing solely on the broader

implications of extremism associated frequently with the spread of the Islamic diaspora.

The limitations of my thesis include the sole focus on one country alone for the construction of my case study in examining the cause of segregation of African Muslims in France. The French case is not typical given the constant objective to maintain a monoculture, however, given the overwhelming denial of multiculturalism it serves as an alternative course which makes examining the viability assimilation and integration policies necessary. Moreover, France is a perfect example of the linkages between host nation and the country of origin for African Muslims given the pre-existing historical connections between France and former African colonies.

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Many theoretical approaches have been used to observe the negotiations which occur between Muslim immigrants, Muslims already in France, and non-Muslims within the traditionally non-Muslim communities of France. The current work examines the interrelationship between French governance and African Muslim minorities. Therefore, I utilize that theoretical put forth by Max Weber as it relates to contemporary formulations of systems theory such as rationality, functional differentiation, and specialization of roles within the

frame work of the state. (Chilcote, 99) I am analyzing the role of the state in the creation of segregated African Muslim diaspora minority communities, therefore my theoretical framework centre's around the state, its institutions, policies, and the impact on society. In the French case, the government of France is reliant upon an assimilation model which places emphasis on the construction of one common shared or universally held identity. This work conducts a case study of one country negotiating the integration and assimilation processes associated with immigration.

CHAPTER II: ASSIMILATION

In this chapter I seek to illustrate how France developed and subsequently utilized the Republican model of assimilation to integrate African Muslim immigrants. The segregation of the African Muslim diaspora community can only be understood first by analyzing French governance in constructing the processes for immigration assimilation and integration. To do this, I examine the philosophical outcomes of the French Revolution of 1789, where I put special emphasis on the ideologies fundamental to the creation of "Frenchness" or monocultural French society. Once I have established the historical development upon which integration policies are founded, I demonstrate how the revolutionary ideologies impacted the development of assimilation model itself. Furthermore, I conceptualize components of assimilation model. Then, I illustrate the current conditions of and general issues in assimilation of African Muslims.

Legacies of the French Revolution (1789)

The great awakening of Enlightenment period of the sixteenth century ushered in the age of thinkers, but ran against various Christian traditions. Even during the French Revolution, Christianity was met with violent fervour. The hostilities did not stem from a rejection of the Christianity as a religious institution, but rather a rejection of system of privilege and corruption surrounding its ties with the function of the French government. (De Tocqueville, 1955) Therefore the French Revolution was not an anti-religious movement, although there might be a resemblance of. The revolution served as a direct but subtle challenge to religion, that is to say the state organization of religion. "The revolution set out to replace feudal institutions with a new social and political order, at once simply and more uniform, based on the concept of the equality of all men." (De Tocqueville, 20)

While the French Revolution may not have spurred the actual development of foundational ideologies upon which French policies are created, it certainly

provided the clean slate for the formation of a new beginning where philosophies and policies could be combined. Furthermore, it is the creation of a secular state reliant upon the three symbols of *liberté*, *égalité*, and *fraternité* developed in the republican spirit of the French Revolution, that directly influence the current shape of immigration integration policies. The ideologies of the French Revolution are examined in order to provide the backdrop for present-day policy and implementation.

Upon closer examination of the French Revolution, ideologies fundamental to the development to contemporary French policies are revealed. Well educated men, with revolutionary ideas known as “Men of Letters” are the inventors and proponents of the ideologies expressed in the revolution. These “men of letters” who would take over administrative offices were thoroughly hostile to deliberative assemblies, to secondary organisations vested with powers, and, generally speaking to all those counterpoises which have been devised by free people at various stages of their history to curb the domination of a central authority.” (Tocqueville, 159) The notion of political freedom was not on the radar as it was so long extinct that any resemblance to it was foreign.

National ideals established from the ideologies expressed in the French Revolution influenced the structures of integration policies and the policymaking institutions. The continuity between principles and results of France’s immigration integration policies is linked to the power of Republicanism, which is the culmination of universalistic and republican principles of the French Revolution. Ultimately Republicanism was forever cemented in French society with the separation of church and state signaling a triumph of the secularization of authority. Even more important outcomes of the development of Republicanism meant the adoption and applicability of principles of due process and equality before the law. Republicanism is the cornerstone for the development of political and legal culture and has remained influential in contemporary policy development in France.

French republicanism emphasizes the supremacy of French nationality as a political identity and eschews intervening attachments or group identities leading to the adoption as assimilation as a guiding principle of race policy. (Lieberman, 19) Universalism is at the core of Republicanism, and remains instrumental to the maintenance of national solidarity. Based on the French ideal of universalism, French society was to be a nation of interconnected citizens’ void of divisive elements such as race ethnicity or religion. “In 1833 a law granted citizenship to all freemen in the colonies (creating a theoretical explosion of citizenship when slavery was abolished in 1848), this is extremely important in determining how with great ease Algerians would become French citizens under French rule.”

Although ambiguous, “French racialism and romanticism mingled in an evolving ideology of French nationalism that insisted on the unified organic, biological (and sometimes Catholic) roots of French identity, an ideology that has cast a long shadow over French intellectual and political life in the twentieth century, culminating in Vichy.” (Lieberman, 51) Republicanism combines two approaches to immigration integration policy formation and citizen membership: universalism and assimilation. Republicanism embodies these ideologies stemming from the French Revolution, utilized in the development of social policies of integration. The social policies of France are steeped in the colorblind tradition of French republicanism. Although republicanism is not contextualized or conceptualized for immigration integration policies, it nevertheless has influenced the development of such policies. Republicanism is ideologically universalistic but is particularistic in application as it guards against the erosion individual rights.

Liberté Egalité and Fraternité

Liberté, égalité, and fraternité (liberty, equality, and brotherhood) are linked to the republican spirit rather than the French Revolution; the ideologies expressed in French republicanism were rooted in the revolutionary ideas of the revolution. Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité are found in the Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizen 1789. Articles four and six are applicable to liberté, and égalité. Article four, Liberty consists in the freedom to do everything which injures no one else; hence the exercise of the natural rights of each man has no limits except those which assure to the other members of the society the enjoyment of the same rights. (Postgate, 1921) These limits can only be determined by law. Article six says: Law is the expression of the general will. Every citizen has a right to participate personally, or through his representative, in its foundation. (Ibid) It must be the same for all, whether it protects or punishes. All citizens, being equal in the eyes of the law, are equally eligible to all dignities and to all public positions and occupations, according to their abilities, and without distinction except that of their virtues and talents. (Postgate, 1921) The third term, fraternité is not explicitly incorporated into the declaration. Although various interpretations exist to explain the adoption of fraternité here it is applied as a universalistic ideal expressed as a moral obligation that links the individual with the community focusing on group solidarity.

Although this section does not present the complete history of the French Revolution, it accomplishes my goal of illustrating the development of influential ideologies developed in France. Although centralization occurred just prior to the revolution, many other attributes of today’s government are solely based on

revolutionary ideologies, such as, secularization, universalism, and the development of the republican assimilation model as the strategy for immigration integration.

French Republican Model

In the French Republican ideal or the Jacobin model, the objectives of integration are both cultural and political. (Schain, 2003) The expectation is that immigrants will want to conform to French cultural and legal norms, and that there is an acceptance of common public spaces there is separation from religious faith and expression. (Ibid) Although the adoption of the republican model has policy application, it has not prevented special programs or laws aimed targeting specific groups from being implemented. The French Republican model provides an explicit process of integration; by recognizing the legitimacy of collective identities in the private sector, republicanism prevents the public acknowledgment of ethnic and religious groups; affording them no direct special privileges in public policy. This means that there is “color-blind” support and recognition of the individual but not the collective.

Until recently public policy research, has neglected religion as a relevant input factor with exception of a few welfare and social policy studies, however, there is little knowledge and empirical data for its policy implications. (Minkenberg, 2004) Religion is commonly considered by social scientists to be an aspect of culture, and is uniquely held by some to be an aspect of social life that must be kept separate from the state, and policies to institutionalize secularism are characteristic of Western European society. (Minkenberg, 2007) Historical linkages between state and religion have resulted in the French aversion to the existence of entanglements of religion and state. Policies of secularism within Europe are based on past and recent historical memory of conflict between Europe and Islam. This is not the place to retell the long history of conflict but suffice it to say the expulsion of Muslims from pre-modern Europe has left an indelible imprint on the shared historical memory of Europeans.

Most recent work put forth by political science scholars has focused on particular events or issues plaguing Europe; the events such as terrorist attacks in July 2005 in London, the 2005-2006 riots in Paris, and issues like the headscarf debate. (Roy, 2007) However, religion and religious legacies need to be included in the analysis of these policies to underscore the fact policies have changed throughout Western Europe since the September 11, 2001 attacks. The debates on Muslim immigration and integration have focused on the religious linkages. (Minkenberg, 2007) The debate over Muslim immigration and integration highlight a bigger question regarding the compatibility of Western culture with Islam. The recent debates illustrate how religious arguments draw divisions along distinctive boundaries of access and membership.

Europe has a long history of state sponsored religion or at least a dominant religion has been interwoven with the state apparatus. The French Revolution of 1789 for example was as much an event to remove the monarchical government system as it was to overthrow the shackles of hierarchical system of privilege and excesses associated with the Church. According to Minkenberg (2004), “historical legacies of state religion (Catholic, Anglican, Protestant churches) meddling in the public and private lives of people facilitated the creation of institutional arrangements in church-state relations.” (2) Many countries in Western Europe, in particular France, are heavily influenced by the historical religious legacies shared with the Muslim world. Therefore their approach to Muslim immigration is met with caution and skepticism. Subsequently, Europeans are threatened by the visibility of Muslims, which represent the widening sphere of influence of Islam in the region. (Minkenberg, 2007) It is this tension between the religious and non-religious that intensifies the secularization of French society. Theoretically the institutionalization of secular as experienced in France has made it possible for Muslims to live within the secularised world while maintaining their personal Muslim identity. Notably, cultural biases assume religious practices are embedded with specific traditions that either need to be erased or incorporated into multicultural spaces. Throughout his work, Roy (2007) cites the need for compromise if Islam and secularism are indeed compatible. However, these compromises cut both ways affecting Muslim and non-Muslims alike. European society needs to back away from Islamophobia (paranoia marked by extreme fear and practice of avoidance towards Islam, by prevailing non-Muslim majority) and institute policies of integration rather than the separation of religion from identity. (Roy, 2007) Although the French case is an extreme example of religious avoidance, there are instances of successful integration of religious peoples within the country of France

Development of Assimilation Model of Immigration Integration

In dealing with settlement and integration of immigrants, France has adopted the assimilation model. The assimilation model is shaped directly by the French Revolution. The increased Muslim visibility has heightened fears and anxieties about cultural and national security, further narrowing the discourse on inclusion of Muslim immigrants. (Phillips, 2010) The increased politicalisation of Muslim integration has reinforced commitment to policies believed to promote common values, national unity and ethnic desegregation. (Ibid) France has adopted the assimilation model, which it is built upon cultural universalism, secular and civic ideals.

France has maintained policies aimed toward assimilation, rejecting any forms of cultural or linguistic differentiation or racial identification. This tradition is built upon ideologies of equality, liberty, and fraternity; outcomes of the French Revolution. These ideologies are coupled with secularization. France has constructed a series of immigration integration policies that are both explicit and implied.

According to Michael Schain (2003), “trends in civic integration policies create an obligation for immigrants who wish to attain the rights of citizens to individually demonstrate that they have earned those rights. (1)” The government of France has introduced a three-pronged approach to immigrant integration: a revised integration plan, a proactive campaign against discrimination, and a more open but still highly selective Two aspects of the assimilation model are examined within the confines of this chapter: segmented and downward assimilation. I believe these terms to be vital in understanding the lack of integration of African Muslims in French society. The final section within examining the assimilation model of integration focuses on citizenship, which is necessary in understanding the issues of assimilation which follows

Segmented assimilation

. Presented in the French case segmented assimilation, a vague term which is reliant upon work completed in 2007 utilizing data from a previous study Generation 98 a survey of individuals that left school. The term is left ambiguous; however inferences can be made on the nature of its awareness. Roughly stated segmented assimilation refers to the adaptive processes and experiences immigrants have as they integrate into a host society. Segmented assimilation, however, includes many different ways that a new immigrant may adapt to a new society. They may follow the traditional model and assimilate into the middle class. Alternatively, they might follow a less prosperous path and assimilate into the underclass. Therefore, segmented assimilation demonstrates that the assimilation process for immigrants is not cut and dry. There are various avenues which immigrants navigate the processes already in place.

The authors Richard Alba, Irene Fournier and Roxane Silberman (2007), test their notion of segmented assimilation as developed in the American context however, applied to the second generation of African Muslims in France. The outcome of their study found that the most disadvantaged individuals were from former African colonies predominately of Muslim faith. (Alba and Silberman, 2007) Resulting disadvantaged African Muslims enter the labour-market with educational credentials lower of their native French counterparts. The authors conclude that higher unemployment rates among of African Muslims cannot be explained by educational differences alone, citing

discrimination practices in hiring processes. The authors also concede that the utilization of an American conceptualisation of segmented assimilation is not entirely applicable to the French case. The greatest contribution made by presenting this literature is conceptualization of second generation: "constituted by immigrant's children who are born and raised in the receiving society." (Alba and Silberman, 2007:1)

In the French case, ethnic inequalities exist in the education system, however, in the last two decades fewer individuals have dropped out from school, and although though it may be cost prohibitive, there is greater ease of access to higher education. (Alba and Silberman, 2007) While the authors draw distinctions between individuals based on ethnic or racial basis, I am reminded that France strives to avoid such distinctions.

French republicanism is fundamental to integration policies for the incorporation of second generation. Although the foundation of policies focuses on the creation of French identity without ethnic or racial distinctions, it has not prevented the creation of policies targeted for the benefit of France's second generation. "The government has designated certain zones of priority in education (ZEP) where schools receive additional support because they meet certain indicators of distress such as high rate of repeaters or foreigners." (Alba and Silberman, 2007: 6) The disadvantages of the second generation are confirmed when analyzing unemployment as a function of education and ethnic generational divides. The authors conclude their analysis of the Generation 98 asserting that coupled with their understanding of segmented assimilation, second generation from former French colonies in Africa are by far the most disadvantaged actors in the labour- market. (Alba and Silberman, 2007) These individuals enter the labour-market with deficiencies in education but they are further alienated by self-perception that by belonging to the second generation they themselves are individually disadvantaged and discriminated against. "Although French census data does not permit quantitative analyses of segregation, a variety of journalistic and ethnographic accounts strongly suggest that Maghreb families are concentrated in some of the poorest neighborhoods in France and that youthful members of the second generation are relatively likely to be engaged in petty crime and gang violence." (Alba and Silberman, 2007: 22)"

Downward assimilation. A component of segmented assimilation, downward assimilation, focuses on second-generation children of immigrants deemed at risk for downward mobility. This is seemingly an alternative path in society that children of immigrants face. The true definition is rather vague but safe to infer that downward assimilation is the process by which masses become dispossessed within society. Although the notion of downward assimilation is

not an exact match aspects certainly fit the African Muslim second and third generation immigrant experience. While downward assimilation is a product of racism in the United States, the very processes are exhibited in the French case. The second and third generation African Muslim immigrant encounters racism in schools and then the labour markets, combined with the presence of an indigenous racial minority, from whom the second generation can learn a repertoire of oppositional attitudes and behavior. These experiences profoundly influence future behaviors.

Citizenship.

Although not the focus of this thesis, citizenship cannot be neglected in the discussion of immigration and integration policies. Citizenship is plagued by constant tension between universal inclusion and particularistic exclusion. The modern conceptualization of citizenship denotes the status of identity, but also the process of integration of those with membership into a collective. Furthermore, conceptualization of citizenship is supported by the notion of shared humanity and universal rights, as established from the European Enlightenment. Calls for greater focus on immigration integration, ethnic minorities, and upgrading the meaning of citizenship, have repositioned the question of unity and integration, along with that of citizenship to the center of the political arena.

The French integration crisis is seen merely as an echo of the overall developments throughout the European Union. (Bertossi, 2006) Traditional philosophy of liberal tolerance has given way to perceptions of Islam as a threat to Western values. One key element to serve as contradiction is the very nature of the relationship of France and the European Union. Integration has increasingly been seen through a supranational lens of the EU, whereas citizenship is still within the jurisdiction of state sovereignty. Citizenship in France is ambiguous in regards to ethno-cultural and religious identities. It is this ambiguousness that leads to a contradiction in citizenship policies, the gap between universal principles from which the French Constitution is established and equality of rights of membership and treatment of formal citizens who are ultimately also members of minority groups. (Bertossi, 2006) The constitution acknowledges the individual as a citizen and as "French" only. The result of contradictions presented in philosophy and practice, has been the identification of a group which is nonexistent, objectively. "Muslims are perceived as not accepting of the "republican values;" supposedly having problematic transnational allegiances, and refusing integration into French society." The very concept of French citizenship is interwoven with the development of French

civil, political, and social rights. In the French case, citizenship is both a status of and a process. Furthermore, it is also a matter of discrimination and privilege. The development of citizenship rights depends on the legal infrastructure and community capacities for participatory association. (Lefebvre, 2003) French conceptualization of citizenship intentionally neglects social and socioeconomic and cultural pluralistic dimensions for the conscious prevention of fragmentation and degradation of Republicanism. "In France, the precedence of citizenship over nationality begins with a semantic confusion, which united in a single term two separate realms, political and juridical, producing citizen a word with a double semantic function arising from the sixteenth-century *droit ancien*, the ancient *régime* juridic conception of citizenship." (Lefebvre, 16) French integration policies which are based on the conceptualization of citizenship which is focused on universal male suffrage, at the same time disregarding economic and social circumstances which has excluded some individuals from the equality, resulting is a symbolic affirmation of unity. French citizenship neglects social and socioeconomic dimension intentionally because of fear surrounding social fragmentation. At the heart of the matter is the contradiction between French Republicanism and the reality of policy implementation

Issues of Assimilation

Although France is a country of immigrants, it is a country of Frenchmen. Despite the cultural racial ethnic diversity, France is a mono-cultural society. Assimilation is ideologically fundamental to French Republicanism that coincides with notions of universalism, pluralism, along with secularism. Assimilation stems from the understanding that citizenship should be based upon high level of cultural cohesion, and that if immigrants wished to become French citizens they should adopt French culture and values rejecting others. In her conclusion, Jane Freedman claims that by banning headscarves, the French government has created legislation which supports exclusion of Muslim girls. Roughly put the law justifies the exclusionary practices of teachers. The religious identification of Islam serves as a visible rejection to the established secular French state.

The immigration policies of France have been shaped by a conflict between actions performed by the state and the republican principles which the laws were founded upon. (Maillard, 2005) Arguably, the case that French culture is universalistic even with the adoption of the assimilation model of integration as implemented by France is a contradiction of philosophy and governance. (Ibid) Arguably, the accommodation of Islam is an increasingly important political issue across Western Europe. The headscarf debate is the most common and

divisive of all attempts to reduce the influence of Islam throughout Western Europe. French leadership has taken up a direct and explicit favorable position on the issue of banning the burqa and all resemblances of a full face veil. (Roy, 2007) France has implemented policies that bans the wearing of religious symbols within public institutions, state institutions, in the public arena such as Jewish skullcaps, “large” crucifixes, and most controversial the burqa (full face veil). (Minkenberg, 2004) The veil is most associated with Muslims, however many women of Christian faith wear scarves covering their hair and neck leaving visible the face.

The issue of Muslim integration is highlighted by the affaire des foulards (headscarf affair), which is an ongoing debate over rights of religious displays in secular schools. Freedman explores the principles of secularism and its applicability by analyzing the report by the Stasi Commission set up by former President Chirac. Ultimately Freedman argues that the utilization of secularism is evidence of movement back to assimilation as the objective public policy for immigration integration.

While widespread attention has been on legislation from the French government banning the wearing of the foulard along with other religious symbols in French schools, lack of attention has been paid to the broader implications thereof. “The legislation is a battle which encompasses wider issues concerning the place of secularism in modern French Republic and the integration of Muslim immigrants into French society.” (Freedman, 6) The reaction to the headscarf issue in schools in France illustrates the key role played by secularism in construction of identity as defined by French Republicanism. The headscarf debate highlights post-colonial relationship between France the colonial empire and North Africa as its periphery. “The debate about whether Muslim girls should be allowed to wear their headscarves in the secular schools so dear to the heart of French Republicanism exposed one of the fundamental difficulties that the French conceptions of nationhood and citizenship pose for immigrants, namely the residual assimilationist which demands some kind of cultural uniformity as part of its project of integration.” (Freedman, 6) The dissection of secularism further provides the evidence by which Freedman assesses the position of Muslims in French society. Although secularism is a key component of French Republicanism it nevertheless has challenged the establishment of settled Muslim immigrants in France. (Freedman, 2004)

“Socially Islam is practiced by a group of people that is dominated, underprivileged and reduced to political silence.” (Freedman, 8) Despite the opportunities and access to the welfare system, Muslims are at a lesser advantage because of their socioeconomic status; illustrating a circular pattern of poverty and ethnicity. There are currently few political or social organizations

that directly operate in France that are comprised solely of Muslim peoples. Although there are councils created to voice concerns of Muslims in France, many Muslims perceive these as government lead organizations which neither represent Muslims nor present issues plaguing the Muslim community. Islam “as the identity of a specific community demanding the recognition of its collective rights after the Anglo-Saxon multiculturalist came as a blow to the secular French Republic.” (Maillard, 77) Rather Islam is represented on behalf of Muslims through third-party affiliations such as the New Anti-Capitalist Party in France.

Resistance to Acculturation

Despite socioeconomic deprivation, young North Africans in France utilize music to carve a cultural niche for themselves. The focus is on the production of values created in a mono-cultural society are rejected and new hybrid ethnicities are created and disseminated through music. “Of all the concepts used with reference to the adjustment process of immigrants, assimilation seems to have garnered the most attention, not so much for its conceptual and theoretical value, but rather for its ideological overtones.” (Echchaibi, 295) Assimilation as the process for integration or adjustment into French society, fails to account for the fluidity of cultural production and transmission in an unbounded territory lacking spatial separation. (Echchaibi, 2001) Immigrants acquire cultural characteristics of the receiving country while holding on to their cultural attributes reinforcing and maintaining unassimilated segregated populations. Arguably there is a failure of assimilation discourse to capture the potential variations of the immigrant experience which can be juxtaposed to the ongoing debate in globalization theory regarding homogenization and heterogenization. (Echchaibi, 2001)

I present music as a cultural expression of identity that bonds people of similar ideologies and lineages. Most scholars examine African Muslim immigration integration in France through understanding assimilation, which prevents reciprocal cultural translation. (Echchaibi, 2001) Media produced by and for immigrants and their communities serve to affirm or articulate their ancestral linkages. The examination of music illustrates that the traditional association of Islam and foreignness linked to the immigration of Muslim African, can no longer be equated to the conceptualization of citizenship and nationality or their cultural identity in France as an assault on Frenchness.

However, the marginalization of young North African peoples in French mainstream media, culminated in the utilization of video cassette recorders for the production and dissemination of culture specific films music and news from home countries. "Radio Soleil and Radio Blur (later called Beur FM) were among the first North African stations to go on the air." (Echchaibi, 303) These two stations are of special importance demonstrating how young North Africans have been able to create and supplant their own cultures amid the mono-culture of French society. Although both radio stations included French language they promoted Arabic language and their cultural linkages with Africa (programming included Arabic religious lessons, news, and music). (Echchaibi, 2001) Although there was a language barrier, a cultural void was filled by these radio stations. Ultimately, young North Africans used music as both a form of integration and protest.

"Images of North Africans in French media are neocolonial in character, portraying them either as alien to the French community or as a burden on the French economy." (Echchaibi, 307) Music is only one form of media that immigrants of North African sought to express themselves; however, it was not the only one. The utilization of television is more representative of their situation which is usually misrepresented. (Echchaibi, 2001) However, the video cassette recorder continues to be the best way to solidify linkages with cultures of origins, satellites have created greater ease of access. African Muslims themselves have found a way to maintain their identity as established previously in countries of origin. The creation of radio stations and reproduction of language and cultural symbols illustrates the willingness of the African Muslim diaspora communities to seek out and create a representative form of media for themselves.

Downward assimilation.

A component of segmented assimilation, downward assimilation, focuses on second-generation children of immigrants deemed at risk for downward mobility. This is seemingly an alternative path in society that children of immigrants face. The true definition is rather vague but safe to infer that downward assimilation is the process by which masses become dispossessed within society. Although the notion of downward assimilation is not an exact match aspects certainly fit the African Muslim second and third generation immigrant experience. While downward assimilation is a product of racism in the United States, the very processes are exhibited in the French case. The second and third generation African Muslim immigrant encounters racism in schools and then the labour markets, combined with the presence of an indigenous racial minority, from whom the second generation can learn a

repertoire of oppositional attitudes and behavior. These experiences profoundly influence future behaviors.

Alejandro Portes and Min Zhou (1993) examine factors on the processes of social adaptation of immigrant second generation. Using ethnographic material and survey data the authors illustrate the processes of integration. Although Portes and Zhou focus on the United States, I believe the work completed has broader implications in examining immigration integration policies and their outcomes. "There is an expectation that foreign-born and their offspring will first acculturate and then seek entry and acceptance among the native-born as a prerequisite for their social and economic advancement." (Portes and Zhou, 82) Prejudices arise from the processes of immigrant incorporation. "Prejudice is not intrinsic to a particular skin color or racial type, and indeed, many immigrants never experienced it in their native lands." (Portes and Zhou, 83) The movement of different peoples into a monocultural society creates visible distinctions between the various populations. "It is by virtue of moving into a new social environment, marked by different values and prejudices, that physical features become redefined as a handicap." (Ibid) Although multiple modes of incorporation exist, three types of resources challenge contemporary assimilation processes: political refugees are eligible for government programs education loans; foreign groups exempted from prejudices (mostly of European descent); and immigrants who join well-established and diversified ethnic groups. (Portes and Zhou, 1993) It is difficult to determine levels of incorporation and integration from one generation to the next between European and non- European immigrants.

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International Labour Organization

The International Labour Organization (ILO) is an international organization created in Geneva in 1919 for better for working conditions and standard of living. In 1946, this organization has become a special organization of the United Nations and won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1969.

Juan Somavía was the ILO's director-general from 1999 until October 2012, when Guy Ryder was elected as his replacement. This governing body is composed of 28 government representatives, 14 workers' representatives, and 14 employers' representatives.

Governance, organization, and membership

ILO headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland

Unlike other United Nations specialized agencies, the International Labour Organization has a tripartite governing structure that brings together governments, employers, and workers of 187 member States, to set labour standards, develop policies and devise programmes promoting decent work for all women and men. The structure is intended to ensure the views of all three groups are reflected in ILO labour standards, policies, and programmes, though governments have twice as many representatives as the other two groups.

Governing body

The Governing Body is the executive body of the International Labour Organization. It meets three times a year, in March, June and November. It takes decisions on ILO policy, decides the agenda of the International Labour Conference, adopts the draft Programme and Budget of the Organization for

submission to the Conference, elects the Director-General, requests information from the member states concerning labour matters, appoints commissions of inquiry and supervises the work of the International Labour Office.

India has assumed the Chairmanship of the Governing Body of International Labour Organization in 2020. Apurva Chandra, Secretary (Labour and Employment) has been elected as the Chairperson of the Governing Body of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) for the period October 2020- June 2021. Ten of the titular government seats are permanently held by States of chief industrial importance: Brazil, China, France, Germany, India, Italy, Japan, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States. The other Government members are elected by the Conference every three years (the last elections were held in June 2017). The Employer and Worker members are elected in their individual capacity.

The Constitution of the International Labour Organization

The constitution of the International Labour Organization affirms that "universal and lasting peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice." An additional declaration adopted in Philadelphia at the 26th section affirms that "Labour is not a commodity" (I "Freedom of expression and association are essential to sustained progress" "Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere" and that human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity".

Unemployment

Unemployment or joblessness is when a person who is of normal working age (usually about 15-18 to about 60-65) does not have a paid job. They therefore do not get paid a salary. In some parts of the world, there are social networks to care for the unemployed.

The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed people divided by the total population of that age group of a country. The unemployment rate is influenced by many things, including the government of a country to the average age of a country's population. Unemployment is a bad thing for society.

A certain amount of unemployment is natural. 'Full employment' does not mean no-one is out of work. Governments now aim to increase the number of jobs (which can be done) rather than cut out all unemployment (which cannot be done).

Forced labor

Forced labor includes all forms of slavery, and related practices including debt slavery, serfdom, human trafficking and labor camps. It is any work or service a person is forced to do against their will. It usually includes a threat of some form of punishment. The International Labour Organization had defined Forced labor as "all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily." This was in the Forced Labour Convention, 1930. Exceptions included work done while serving in a military organization, community service when the work serves the community, and anyone convicted and serving a prison sentence. Convict labor must be supervised by public officials. The convention does not allow convicts to be under the supervision of private individuals, companies or organizations.

Child labour

Child labour means that children are forced to work like adults and take part in an economic activity. According to the ILO International Labour Organization the term is applied to people up to age thirteen, or seventeen in case of dangerous work. Only about a fourth of the ILO members have ratified the respective convention, but the age limits are generally accepted.

When children work like adults, this will deprive them of their childhood: Very often, they cannot attend regular school either. This kind of work is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful.

Child labour is fundamentally different from casual work done by children, like guarding other children, or helping here and there. Child labour is forbidden in most countries. In some places minor boys and girls work in tea stalls, restaurants, hotels and other small shops. Some work in huge factories like brick factories. The main reason why child labour occurs is poverty.

There are two kinds of work that minors can do:

Some work they do is acceptable, as it is only light, or easy to do. Children can also do it while they are well-integrated into the family. This kind of work can be done in addition to an education the children are getting.

The other kind of work is difficult to do, or it is physically exhausting. It may be dangerous, the children may be required to work for long hours and in humiliating clothing.

In general the second kind of work is usually labelled child labour. Estimates are that up to 350 million children are affected by child labour. Eight million of these are affected by the worst forms of child

labour: they are child soldiers, they are forced into child prostitution, they are used for child pornography, they are child slaves, debt bondage or affected by human trafficking.

Migrant worker

A migrant worker is someone who regularly works away from home, if they even have a home.

The United Nations' use of this term overlaps with 'foreign worker'. In the United States, the term is commonly used broadly to describe people who move frequently to find work or, more narrowly, those who earn low wages performing manual labor in the agriculture field.

Migrant workers are often forced into poor situations. Some are illegal immigrants and can be expelled if found. They are supported by the International Labour Organization. In 1990, the United Nations also adopted the Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers to protect them.

Often migrant workers can boost regional economy by spending their wages there.

Open borders help migrant workers. In Europe for example countries that recently joined European Union have seen massive outflow of workers to the countries with higher wages. Some people who work in foreign countries are called "expatriates".

Domestic worker

A domestic worker is a person who works within the scope of a residence. A domestic worker is employed by somebody, and therefore domestic workers get paid. They are free to leave their employment if they wish. Many domestic workers are required by their employer to wear a uniform when in their employer's home.

In the Victorian era, Britain had a lot of domestic workers. The butler was the most important one. At meal times he would have been something like a head waiter. Other male domestic workers were often called "valets". A valet (sometimes said with a silent "t") may have been a personal servant who looked after his master's clothes and comforts, and possibly looked after money matters as well. Female domestic workers were usually maids who cleaned, cooks who prepared the meals and nannies who looked after the children. Gardeners would have done the gardening.

In the early 18th century, even some musicians were servants and had to wear livery (uniform). In 1717, when composer Johann Sebastian Bach said he wanted to leave his job, the duke he worked for put him in prison. Back in the 19th century, there were many domestic workers in Europe or the United States, as

well as in other countries, they would have domestic workers. In the early 20th century, new laws were made in Britain to protect domestic workers, and give them more rights.

Today in many parts of the world domestic workers from poorer countries are often employed by people in the richer countries.

To ensure the right of decent work for all kind of domestic workers including migrant workers, International Labour Organization has made Convention No. 189 on domestic workers.

International Labour Conference

The ILO organises once a year the International Labour Conference in Geneva to set the broad policies of the ILO, including conventions and recommendations. Also known as the "international parliament of labour", the conference makes decisions about the ILO's general policy, work programme and budget and also elects the Governing Body.

Each member state is represented by a delegation: two government delegates, an employer delegate, a worker delegate and their respective advisers. All of them have individual voting rights and all votes are equal, regardless the population of the delegate's member State. The employer and worker delegates are normally chosen in agreement with the most representative national organizations of employers and workers. Usually, the workers and employers' delegates coordinate their voting. All delegates have the same rights and are not required to vote in blocs.

Delegates have the same rights, they can express themselves freely and vote as they wish. This diversity of viewpoints does not prevent decisions being adopted by very large majorities or unanimously.

Heads of State and prime ministers also participate in the Conference. International organizations, both governmental and others, also attend but as observers.

Commission on International Labour Legislation

Meanwhile, the Paris Peace Conference sought to dampen public support for communism. Subsequently, the Allied Powers agreed that clauses should be inserted into the emerging peace treaty protecting labour unions and workers' rights, and that an international labour body be established to help guide international labour relations in the future.

The advisory Commission on International Labour Legislation was established by the Peace Conference to draft these proposals. The Commission met for the first time on 1 February 1919, and Gompers was elected as the chairman.

Offices

ILO headquarters

Centre William Rappard, seat of the ILO between 1926-1974, now hosting the WTO

The ILO is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland. In its first months of existence in 1919, its offices were located in London, only to move to Geneva in the summer 1920. The first seat in Geneva was on the Pregny hill in the Ariana estate, in the building that used to host the Thudicum boarding school and currently the headquarters of the International Committee of the Red Cross. As the office grew, the Office relocated to a purpose-built headquarters by the shores of Lake Lemman, designed by Georges Epitoux and inaugurated in 1926 (currently the seat of the World Trade Organization). During the Second World War the Office was temporarily relocated to McGill University in Montreal, Canada.

The current seat of the ILO's headquarters is located on the Pregny hill, not far from its initial seat. The building, a biconcave rectangular block designed by Eugène Beaudoin, Pier Luigi Nervi and Alberto Camenzind, was purpose-built between 1969-1974 in a severe rationalist style and, at the time of construction, constituted the largest administrative building in Switzerland.

Regional offices

Regional Office for Africa, in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire

Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, in Bangkok, Thailand

Regional Office for Europe and Central Asia, in Geneva, Switzerland

Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean, in Lima, Peru

Regional Office for the Arab States, in Beirut, Lebanon.

Future of Work

The ILO launched the Future of Work Initiative in order to gain understanding on the transformations that occur in the world of work and thus be able to develop ways of responding to these challenges. The initiative began in 2016 by gathering the views of government

representatives, workers, employers, academics and other relevant figures around the world. About 110 countries participated in dialogues at the regional and national level.

These dialogues were structured around "four centenary conversations: work and society, decent jobs for all, the organization of work and production, and the governance of work." The second step took place in 2017 with the establishment of the Global Commission on the Future of Work dealing with the same "four centenary conversations". A report is expected to be published prior to the 2019 Centenary International Labour Conference. ILO is also assessing the impact of technological disruptions on employments worldwide.

ASSINGMENT

NATO-NORTH ATLANTIC TEATY ORGANISATION

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) is an alliance of 30 countries that border the North Atlantic Ocean. The Alliance includes 30 members, and they are Albania, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Montenegro, the Netherlands, North Macedonia, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, and the United States.

NATO is led by United States primarily who contributes three-fourths of NATO's budget. NATO's Headquarters are located in Haren, Brussels, Belgium, while the headquarters of Allied Command Operations is near Mons, Belgium.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was formed in Washington on 4 April 1949. Made up of nations from North America and Europe, 12 independent countries originally signed the North Atlantic Treaty.

The treaty's purpose was to commit each signatory country to the peace and security of all other members. NATO's primary purpose was to defend member nations from threats by communist countries. The United States also wanted to maintain a presence in Europe. It sought to prevent a resurgence of aggressive nationalism and foster political union in European countries. Protecting democratic freedom among its 30-member nations remains NATO'S core purpose. As a political and military alliance, the coalition's value to global security continues to be paramount.

The members are subject to the obligations of the treaty but there remains a certain level of flexibility, which allows members to choose how they participate. NATO contributes to the security environment by defending democratic values, individual liberty and the rule of law, working for peace and stability across the Euro-Atlantic. The collective defense of its members and, through partnerships with non-NATO countries, is carried out by a leading role in peacekeeping and crisis response

operations. By contributing to peace and security, NATO helps to create political stability and economic growth.

In 1950, NATO's top political decision was to make an official, organizational body: The North Atlantic Council (NAC). Allies agreed to dismiss the Regional Planning Groups promoting an integrated military command, to create the post of Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and appoint an American General as its head. In response to these agreements, on December 19, 1950, the NAC announced the appointment of General Dwight D. Eisenhower as the first SACEUR, officially named by President Harry S. Truman. As of 2020, the position celebrated its 70th anniversary with General Tod D. Wolters currently holding the title of SACEUR.

After that day, SACEUR became responsible for overall command of NATO military operations. His role is to conduct the necessary military planning for operations, including the identification of forces required for the mission and request these forces from NATO countries.

The position of SACEUR remains today as the commander of Allied Command Operations (ACO) based at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe in Belgium. The following episode discusses ACO, the military structure within NATO and dives into the variety of headquarters and roles that exist within the organizational military chain.

NATO STRUCTURE

Before delving into its structure it is important to note that NATO is: a political and military organization with both domains having an important role to play.

The North Atlantic Council (NAC) is NATO's highest decision-making body and consists of Permanent Representatives – usually Ambassadors - from its 30 member countries. The NAC meets several times per week at the level of permanent representatives. It also meets at the level of Foreign Ministers, Defense Ministers and Heads of State and Government. All decisions in the NAC are taken by consensus. The work of the Council is prepared by dozens of subordinate committees that are responsible for specific areas of policy.

The current Secretary General of NATO is the former Norwegian Prime Minister Jens Stoltenberg who took office on October 1, 2014.

The Secretary General is NATO's top International civil servant and has three main roles: Chairman of the NATO Atlantic Council and other key bodies, the principal spokesperson and leader of the International Staff.

The first Secretary General, Lord Ismay, took up office on April 4, 1952, as both Secretary General of the Organization and as Vice-Chairman of the North Atlantic Council. Since that time, twelve different diplomats have served officially as secretary general.

Each NATO member state has a delegation at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium where they contribute to the consultation process. The delegation is headed by an ambassador, who is appointed by his/her government for a period ranging between one to eight years.

The military structure is rigid and involves all forces. The key elements of the NATO military organization are the Military Committee composed by the Chiefs of Defence of NATO member countries, its executive body, the International Military Staff and the Military Command Structure.

The NATO Command Structure is divided into two principal strategic commands: Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT).

ACO is responsible for the planning and execution of all Alliance operations. The command is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) in Mons, Belgium and headquartered at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE). The current SACEUR is General Tod D. Wolters (American Airforce Four Star General) who took command in May 2019. SACEUR leads all NATO military operations and is dual hatted as the commander, US European Command.

Allied Command Transformation (ACT) has a two-fold role as a warfare development command, first, to enable ACO to efficiently conduct operations and second, to prepare NATO's future operations. The command is headed by Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), which is headquartered in Norfolk, Virginia. The current SACT is French Air Force General André Lanata who took command in June 2018.

There are three tiers of command: strategic, operational, and tactical. The command structure is based on functionality rather than geography.

SHAPE, home to ACO, is a strategic headquarters. Its role is to prepare, plan, conduct and execute NATO military operations, missions and tasks in order to

achieve the strategic objectives of the Alliance. As such it contributes to the deterrence of aggression and the preservation of peace, security and the territorial integrity of the Alliance.

Under ACO there are three operational level commands: Allied Joint Force Command Brunssum (JFCBS) in the Netherlands, Allied Joint Force Command Naples (JFCNP) in Italy and Joint Force Command Norfolk (JFC-NF) in the United States. There are also three tactical level commands: Allied Air Command (AIRCOM) in Germany; Allied Land Command (LANDCOM) in Turkey and Allied Maritime Command (MARCOM) in the United Kingdom. Other commands include Naval Striking and Support Forces NATO (STRIKFORNATO) in Portugal; NATO Communication and Information System Group (NCISG) in Belgium and the Joint Support and Enabling Command (JSEC) in Germany.

ACT is also a strategic headquarters and organized around four principal functions: strategic thinking, development of capabilities, education, training and exercises and also cooperation and engagement. All of these functions are reflected in the composition of ACT, principally at its Norfolk Headquarters and then three subordinate entities: Joint Warfare Centre in Norway; Joint Force Training Centre in Poland and Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre in Portugal.

Additionally, NATO's other education and training facilities, which are not part of the NATO Command Structure, also coordinate with ACT. This includes the NATO Defence College in Italy; the NATO School in Germany; the NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre in Greece and nationally run Centers of Excellence. NATO Agencies also interact with ACT on matters of common concern.

NATO FUNCTIONING

The 30 members of NATO participate, in a multitude of ways, in the functioning of the Alliance. Within NATO Headquarters (NATO HQ) each Ally has diplomatic representation and military representation. Both are responsible, at their respective levels of competence, to participate in collective decisions while protecting national positions and interests.

On the other hand, the member states participate with their own staffs in the activities of the International Staff and the International Military Staff, at the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee, whose methods of allocating the positions are

proportional to the financial contributions and operational structures in theatres. Ultimately, the presence in the staff reflects the specific weight of the members.

The North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the highest political decision-making body within NATO. The NAC supervises the political and military processes concerning security issues affecting the whole Alliance. It is composed of permanent representatives from each member state of the branch or field under consideration, usually Ambassadors. They discuss political or operational issues that require collective decision making. The NAC generally meets at least weekly at the level of permanent representatives or ambassadors who are on duty in Brussels at the various delegations. The body also meets at the ministerial level twice per year at the level of Foreign Ministers and three times per year at the level of Defence Ministers. Occasionally, at the highest level, summit meetings play a key role in the Alliance's evolution; they are not regular meetings, nations are represented by the heads of state and government. These summits are used to introduce new policy, invite prospective new members into the Alliance, launch major initiatives and reinforce partnerships. One notable component is the national representatives sit around the table according to the English alphabetical order. The same order is followed in all NATO committees.

In summary, the NAC provides a forum for broad consultation among members on all matters affecting their peace and security in which decisions are made on the basis of unanimity and mutual agreement. There are no majority votes or decisions. This means that policies decided by the NAC are the expression of the collective will of NATO as a whole.

As mentioned, the NAC has effective political authority and decision-making powers; it is the only body established by the North Atlantic Treaty pursuant to Article 9: << The Parties hereby establish a council, on which each of them shall be represented, to consider matters concerning the implementation of this Treaty. The council shall be so organized as to be able to meet promptly at any time. The council shall set up such subsidiary bodies as may be necessary, in particular it shall establish immediately a defence committee which shall recommend measures for the implementation of Article 3 and 5>>.

Another important aspect to understand about NATO's function is the issue of finance. The operating expenses of the Alliance are divided on the basis of the member countries Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Although many expenses are

created by the member states according to the so-called <<costs lie where they fall>>, this means that the Allies pay their own part.

After the NAC, the oldest permanent body in NATO is the Military Committee (MC) which is the primary source of military advice to the NAC and the Nuclear Planning Group. It gives direction to the two Strategic Commanders: Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), positions discussed earlier.

The Military Committee, headed by British Air Chief Marshal Sir Stuart Peach since June 2018, meets frequently at the level of permanent Military Representatives and three times a year at the level of Chiefs of Defence.

The Military Committee is in charge of translating political decisions and guidance into military direction, recommending necessary defence measures for NATO areas and the implementation of decisions for military operations. It is an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO. The MC also develops strategic policies and concepts, prepares long-term planning of strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO's interests.

MILITARY COMMAND STRUCTURE

Allied Command Operations (ACO) is a three-tier command with headquarters and supporting elements at the strategic, operational and tactical level. It exercises command and control of static and deployable headquarters, as well as joint and combined forces across the full range of the Alliance's military missions. Joint forces are forces from two or more military departments working under a single command and combined forces are forces from different countries working under a single command.

SHAPE, at the strategic level, is at the head of six operational commands, two of which are supported by tactical (or component) level entities.

ALLIED COMMAND OPERATION

There are three tiers of command: strategic, operational, and the tactical level. The command structure is based on functionality rather than geography.

STRATEGIC LEVEL COMMAND (SHAPE)

SHAPE is a strategic headquarters. Its role is to prepare, plan, conduct and execute NATO military operations, missions and tasks in order to achieve the strategic objectives of the Alliance. As such it contributes to the deterrence of aggression and the preservation of peace, security and the territorial integrity of Alliance.

ACO is headed by SACEUR, who exercises his responsibilities from SHAPE. Traditionally, he is a United States Flag or General officer. SACEUR is dual-hatted as the commander of the US European Command, which shares many of the same geographical responsibilities. SACEUR is responsible to the Military Committee, which is the senior military authority in NATO under the overall political authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG). The Military Committee is the primary source of military advice to the NAC and NPG.

OPERATIONAL LEVEL COMMAND: BRUNSSUM, NAPLES & NORFOLK

The operational level consists of three standing Joint Force Commands (JFCs): one in Brunssum, The Netherlands, one in Naples, Italy and one in Norfolk, Virginia. All must be prepared to plan, conduct and sustain NATO operations of different size and scope. Effectively, they need to be able to manage a major joint operation either from their static location or from a deployed headquarters when operating directly in a theatre of operation. In the latter case, the deployed headquarter is referred to as a Joint Task Force HQ or JTFHQ and should be able to operate for a period of up to one year.

When deployed, a Joint Force Command is only charged to command one operation at a time. However, the elements of the Joint Force Command which have not deployed can provide support to other operations and missions. When a Joint Force Command is not deployed, it can assist ACO in dealing with other headquarters which are deployed in theatre for day-to-day matters and assist, for instance, with the training and preparation for future rotations.

The commands at this level are also responsible for engaging with key partners and regional organizations in order to support regional NATO HQ tasks and responsibilities, as directed by SACEUR. Additionally, they support the

reinforcement of cooperation with partners participating in NATO operations and help to prepare partner countries for NATO membership.

TACTICLE LEVEL COMMAND

LAND, AIR & MARITIME

The tactical (or component) level consists of what is called Single Service Commands (SSCs): land, maritime and air commands. These service-specific commands provide expertise and support to the Joint Force Commands at the operational level in Brunssum or Naples. They report directly to SHAPE and come under the command of SACEUR.

Headquarters Allied Air Command (HQ AIRCOM)

Ramstein, Germany: this command's role is to plan and direct the air component of Alliance operations and missions, and the execution of Alliance air and missile defence operations and missions. Ramstein is also the Alliance's principal air advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise. Ramstein, with adequate support from within and outside the NATO Command Structure can provide command and control for a small joint air operation from its static location, i.e., from Ramstein or can act as Air Component Command to support an operation which is as big or bigger than a major joint operation.

Headquarters Allied Land Command (HQ LANDCOM)

Izmir, Turkey: this command's role is to provide a deployable land command and control capability in support of a Joint Force Command running an operation larger than a major joint operation. It can also provide the core land capability for a joint operation (major or not) or a deployable command and control capability for a land operation. Izmir is also the principal land advisor for the Alliance and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise.

Headquarters Allied Maritime Command (HQ MARCOM)

Northwood, the United Kingdom: this command's role is to provide command and control for the full spectrum of joint maritime operations and tasks. From its location in Northwood, it plans, conducts and supports joint maritime operations. It is also the Alliance's principal maritime advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise. Northwood is ready to command a small maritime joint operation or act as the maritime component in support of an operation larger than a major joint operation.

Tactical Air C2 Elements

Two CAOCs are located at Uedem (Germany) and Torrejon (Spain). CAOCs are hybrid entities that consist of two parts: a Static Air Defence Centre (SADC) and a Deployable Air Operations Centre (D-AOC).

The Deployable Air Command and Control Centre (DACCC), located at Poggio Renatico (Italy), is a hybrid entity which consists of three elements: a Deployable Air Control Centre – Recognized Air Picture Production Centre – Sensor Fusion Post (DARS), a D-AOC and a Deployable Sensors Suite (DSS). In peacetime, the DACCC will be responsible for the initial functional training of assigned NCS JFAC personnel from both the HQ AIRCOM and the D-AOCs.

STRIKFORNATO

STRIKFORNATO provides a Maritime Battle Staff Operational Command, under the command of SACEUR, to deliver rapidly deployable and scalable headquarters, capable of planning and executing the full spectrum of joint maritime operations. Comprised of 12 nations, STRIKFORNATO focuses on Joint Maritime Expeditionary Operations, mainly through the integration of U.S. naval and amphibious forces into NATO operations.

NATO MAJOR OPERATIONS AND MISSIONS

NATO is an active and leading contributor to peace and security on the international stage. It promotes democratic values and is committed to the peaceful resolution of disputes. However, if diplomatic efforts fail, it has the military capacity to undertake crisis management operations alone or in cooperation with other countries and international organizations. Over years NATO has undertaken many missions and operations around the world, some of them are:

NATO in Bosnia and Herzegovina

After diplomatic efforts failed to end the conflict in Bosnia-Herzegovina (BiH), the International Community called upon the Alliance to act, and NATO was prepared to respond.

In August 1995, NATO launched Operation Deliberate Force to compel an end to Serb-led violence in BiH. This successful air campaign paved the way to the signing of the Dayton Peace Accords in December 1995.

To support the implementation of this peace agreement, NATO immediately deployed a UN-mandated Implementation Force (IFOR) comprising some 60,000 troops. This operation was followed in December 1996 with the deployment of a 32,000-strong Stabilization Force (SFOR), which maintained a secure environment in BiH until the mandate was handed over to a European Union (EU) force in December 2004.

These first three successful peace-support operations demonstrated NATO's readiness to act decisively when called upon by the International Community. What followed was a period of unprecedented operational activity for the Alliance.

NATO in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

Responding to a request from the Macedonian government, NATO implemented three successive operations there from August 2001 to March 2003.

First, Operation Essential Harvest disarmed ethnic Albanian groups operating on Macedonia's territory.

The follow-on Operation Amber Fox provided protection for international monitors overseeing the implementation of the peace plan.

Finally, Operation Allied Harmony was launched in December 2002 to provide advisory elements to assist the government in ensuring stability throughout Macedonian territory.

These operations in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia demonstrated the strong inter-institutional cooperation between NATO, the EU and the OSCE.

Pakistan earthquake relief operation

Just before the onset of the harsh Himalayan winter, a devastating earthquake hit Pakistan on 8 October 2005, killing an estimated 80 000 people and leaving up to three million without food or shelter.

On 11 October, in response to a request from Pakistan, NATO launched an operation to assist in the urgent relief effort. The Alliance airlifted close to 3,500 tons of supplies and deployed engineers, medical units and specialist equipment to assist in relief operations. This was one of NATO's largest humanitarian relief operations, which came to an end on 1 February 2006.

The Alliance has aided other countries hit by natural disasters over time, including Turkey, Ukraine and Portugal.

Counter-piracy in the Gulf of Aden

From October to December 2008, NATO launched Operation Allied Provider, which involved counter-piracy activities off the coast of Somalia. Responding to a request from UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, NATO naval forces provided escorts to UN World Food Programme (WFP) vessels transiting through the dangerous waters in the Gulf of Aden, where growing piracy has threatened to undermine international humanitarian efforts in Africa.

Concurrently, in response to an urgent request from the African Union, these same NATO naval forces escorted a vessel chartered by the AU carrying equipment for the Burundi contingent deployed to AMISOM.

CURRENT ONGOING OPERATIONS

NATO in Afghanistan

NATO's operation in Afghanistan constitutes the Alliance's most significant undertaking to date. Established by UN mandate in 2001, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) has been under NATO leadership since August 2003.

ISAF comprises some 55,000 troops from over 40 different countries deployed throughout Afghanistan. Its mission is to extend the authority of the Afghan central government in order to create an environment conducive to the functioning of democratic institutions and the establishment of the rule of law.

A major component of this mission is the establishment of professional Afghan National Security Forces that would enable Afghans to assume more and more responsibility for the security of their country. Much progress has already been

made. From a non-existent force in 2003, the Afghan army currently comprises over 70,000 soldiers, and has begun taking the lead in most operations.

In addition to conducting security operations and building up the Afghan army and police, ISAF is also directly involved in facilitating the development and reconstruction of Afghanistan through 26 Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) which are engaged in identifying reconstruction needs and supporting humanitarian assistance activities throughout the country.

NATO in Kosovo

While Afghanistan remains NATO's primary operational theatre, the Alliance has not faltered on its other commitments, particularly in the Balkans. Today, roughly 15,000 Allied troops operate in the Balkans as part of NATO's Kosovo Force (KFOR).

Having first entered Kosovo in June 1999 to end widespread violence and halt the humanitarian disaster, KFOR troops continue to maintain a strong presence throughout the territory, preserving the peace that was imposed by NATO nearly a decade earlier.

Following Kosovo's declaration of independence in February 2008, NATO agreed it would continue to maintain its presence on the basis of UN Security Council Resolution 1244. In June 2008, the Alliance decided to take on responsibility for supervising the dissolution of the Kosovo Protection Corps and to help create a professional and multiethnic Kosovo Security Force.

NATO and Iraq

Between the Balkans and Afghanistan lies Iraq, where NATO has been conducting a relatively small but important support operation.

At the Istanbul Summit in June 2004, the Allies rose above their differences and agreed to be part of the international effort to help Iraq establish effective and accountable security forces. The outcome was the creation of the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I).

The NTM-I delivers its training, advice and mentoring support in a number of different settings. All NATO member countries are contributing to the training effort either in or outside of Iraq, through financial contributions or donations of equipment.

Monitoring the Mediterranean Sea

NATO operations are not limited only to zones of conflict. In the aftermath of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, NATO immediately began to take measures to expand the options available to counter the threat of international terrorism.

With the launching of the maritime surveillance operation Active Endeavour in October 2001, NATO added a new dimension to the global fight against terrorism.

Led by NATO naval forces, Operation Active Endeavour is focused on detecting and deterring terrorist activity in the Mediterranean. The scope of this operation was later expanded to include the escort of Allied civilian and commercial vessels through the Strait of Gibraltar.

The operation has proved to be an effective tool both in safeguarding a strategic maritime region and in countering terrorism on and from the high seas. Moreover, the experience and partnerships developed through Operation Active Endeavour have considerably enhanced NATO's capabilities in this increasingly vital aspect of operations.

Supporting the African Union

Well beyond the Euro-Atlantic region, the Alliance continues to support the African Union (AU) in its peacekeeping missions on the African continent.

Since June 2007, NATO has assisted the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing airlift support for AU peacekeepers. This support was authorized until February 2009 and the Alliance is ready to consider any new requests from the AU. NATO also continues to work with the AU in identifying further areas where NATO could support the African Standby Force.

NATO's support to AMISOM coincided with a similar support operation to the AU peacekeeping mission in Sudan (AMIS). From June 2005 to December 2007, NATO provided air transport for some 37,000 AMIS personnel, as well as trained and mentored over 250 AMIS officials. While NATO's support to this mission ended when AMIS was succeeded by the UN-AU Mission in Darfur (UNAMID), the Alliance immediately expressed its readiness to consider any request for support to the new peacekeeping mission.

NATO's continuing support to the AU is a testament to the Alliance's commitment to building partnerships and supporting peacekeeping and humanitarian efforts beyond the Euro-Atlantic region.

Counter-piracy off the Horn of Africa

In March 2009, NATO launched Operation Allied Protector, a counter-piracy operation, to improve the safety of commercial maritime routes and international navigation off the Horn of Africa. The force is conducting surveillance tasks and providing protection to deter and suppress piracy and armed robbery, which are threatening sea lines of communication and economic interests.

NATO WORK DURING COVID

From the start of the outbreak, NATO has implemented robust measures to limit the spread of the virus, in response to virus NATO continuous to deliver credible and effective defense against COVID-19.

Allied armed forces are playing a vital role in supporting national civilian responses across the Alliance. This support includes logistics and planning, field hospitals, the transport of patients, disinfection of public areas, and at border crossings.

NATO's Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) is an important tool helping to provide relief to Allies and partners. The Centre operates on a 24/7 basis, coordinating requests from NATO Allies and partners for help, as well as offers of assistance to cope with the consequences of major crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Here some examples of NATO work during COVID.

- In response to requests for assistance from North Macedonia, Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina, on 8 April Turkey provided all three countries medical supplies, including protective clothing, masks and test kits.
- In response to requests for assistance from North Macedonia, Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina, on 8 April Turkey provided all three countries medical supplies, including protective clothing, masks and test kits.
- The U.S. Government has committed \$1.1 million to mitigate the spread of the COVID-19 outbreak in North Macedonia. North Macedonia received a field hospital donated by Norway, allowing it to double the capacity at the Infectious Disease Clinic at Skopje's largest hospital in the combat against Covid-19. Norway also donated medical supplies to North Macedonia worth 180,000 Euro.
- In response to Spain and Italy's requests for assistance made through the EADRCC, the Czech Republic bilaterally provided both countries with medical supplies, including 10,000 protective medical suits each.
- NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) has a leading role in responding to the crisis. The NSPA provides logistics support and the organization of transport of key supplies and equipment to Allies, partners and other international organizations. As of 11 April, the NSPA has delivered Intensive Care Unit ventilators to Italy, personal protective equipment to Spain and medical supplies to Norway. Earlier, the NSPA had helped Luxembourg increase its hospital capacity by providing field hospital tents, mobilizing equipment in less than 24 hours.
- Romania has used the capability to import protective material with three shipments during this month, including a shipment of 100,000 suits on 8 April, with support of the United States.
- Bilateral assistance between Allies and between Allies and partners continues to be an important part of the international response, showing the strength of NATO solidarity. For example, a Czech Army aircraft transported 1,000,000 masks to North Macedonia on 10 April. Earlier on 3 April two Spanish military aircraft transported 50 ventilators sent by the German government to Spain. The German air force flew Italian and French patients for treatment, and doctors from Poland and Albania travelling to help their Italian colleagues.
- US-led KFOR Regional Command East delivered gloves, face masks and other medical supplies to the Mayors of Mitrovica North and South in Kosovo.

Various such missions are being taken care of by NATO not just, helping their members and partners but also the world, NATO is helping various African nations, Asian countries to fight this pandemic.

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ASSINGMENT

NATO-NORTH ATLANTIC TEATY ORGANISATION

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The members are subject to the obligations of the treaty but there remains a certain level of flexibility, which allows members to choose how they participate. NATO contributes to the security environment by defending democratic values, individual liberty and the rule of law, working for peace and stability across the Euro-Atlantic. The collective defense of its members and, through partnerships with non-NATO countries, is carried out by a leading role in peacekeeping and crisis response

operations. By contributing to peace and security, NATO helps to create political stability and economic growth.

In 1950, NATO's top political decision was to make an official, organizational body: The North Atlantic Council (NAC). Allies agreed to dismiss the Regional Planning Groups promoting an integrated military command, to create the post of Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and appoint an American General as its head. In response to these agreements, on December 19, 1950, the NAC announced the appointment of General Dwight D. Eisenhower as the first SACEUR, officially named by President Harry S. Truman. As of 2020, the position celebrated its 70th anniversary with General Tod D. Wolters currently holding the title of SACEUR.

After that day, SACEUR became responsible for overall command of NATO military operations. His role is to conduct the necessary military planning for operations, including the identification of forces required for the mission and request these forces from NATO countries.

The position of SACEUR remains today as the commander of Allied Command Operations (ACO) based at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe in Belgium. The following episode discusses ACO, the military structure within NATO and dives into the variety of headquarters and roles that exist within the organizational military chain.

NATO STRUCTURE

Before delving into its structure it is important to note that NATO is: a political and military organization with both domains having an important role to play.

The North Atlantic Council (NAC) is NATO's highest decision-making body and consists of Permanent Representatives – usually Ambassadors - from its 30 member countries. The NAC meets several times per week at the level of permanent representatives. It also meets at the level of Foreign Ministers, Defense Ministers and Heads of State and Government. All decisions in the NAC are taken by consensus. The work of the Council is prepared by dozens of subordinate committees that are responsible for specific areas of policy.

The current Secretary General of NATO is the former Norwegian Prime Minister Jens Stoltenberg who took office on October 1, 2014.

The Secretary General is NATO's top International civil servant and has three main roles: Chairman of the NATO Atlantic Council and other key bodies, the principal spokesperson and leader of the International Staff.

The first Secretary General, Lord Ismay, took up office on April 4, 1952, as both Secretary General of the Organization and as Vice-Chairman of the North Atlantic Council. Since that time, twelve different diplomats have served officially as secretary general.

Each NATO member state has a delegation at NATO Headquarters in Brussels, Belgium where they contribute to the consultation process. The delegation is headed by an ambassador, who is appointed by his/her government for a period ranging between one to eight years.

The military structure is rigid and involves all forces. The key elements of the NATO military organization are the Military Committee composed by the Chiefs of Defence of NATO member countries, its executive body, the International Military Staff and the Military Command Structure.

The NATO Command Structure is divided into two principal strategic commands: Allied Command Operations (ACO) and Allied Command Transformation (ACT).

ACO is responsible for the planning and execution of all Alliance operations. The command is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) in Mons, Belgium and headquartered at Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE). The current SACEUR is General Tod D. Wolters (American Airforce Four Star General) who took command in May 2019. SACEUR leads all NATO military operations and is dual hatted as the commander, US European Command.

Allied Command Transformation (ACT) has a two-fold role as a warfare development command, first, to enable ACO to efficiently conduct operations and second, to prepare NATO's future operations. The command is headed by Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), which is headquartered in Norfolk, Virginia. The current SACT is French Air Force General André Lanata who took command in June 2018.

There are three tiers of command: strategic, operational, and tactical. The command structure is based on functionality rather than geography.

SHAPE, home to ACO, is a strategic headquarters. Its role is to prepare, plan, conduct and execute NATO military operations, missions and tasks in order to

achieve the strategic objectives of the Alliance. As such it contributes to the deterrence of aggression and the preservation of peace, security and the territorial integrity of the Alliance.

Under ACO there are three operational level commands: Allied Joint Force Command Brunssum (JFCBS) in the Netherlands, Allied Joint Force Command Naples (JFCNP) in Italy and Joint Force Command Norfolk (JFC-NF) in the United States. There are also three tactical level commands: Allied Air Command (AIRCOM) in Germany; Allied Land Command (LANDCOM) in Turkey and Allied Maritime Command (MARCOM) in the United Kingdom. Other commands include Naval Striking and Support Forces NATO (STRIKFORNATO) in Portugal; NATO Communication and Information System Group (NCISG) in Belgium and the Joint Support and Enabling Command (JSEC) in Germany.

ACT is also a strategic headquarters and organized around four principal functions: strategic thinking, development of capabilities, education, training and exercises and also cooperation and engagement. All of these functions are reflected in the composition of ACT, principally at its Norfolk Headquarters and then three subordinate entities: Joint Warfare Centre in Norway; Joint Force Training Centre in Poland and Joint Analysis & Lessons Learned Centre in Portugal.

Additionally, NATO's other education and training facilities, which are not part of the NATO Command Structure, also coordinate with ACT. This includes the NATO Defence College in Italy; the NATO School in Germany; the NATO Maritime Interdiction Operational Training Centre in Greece and nationally run Centers of Excellence. NATO Agencies also interact with ACT on matters of common concern.

NATO FUNCTIONING

The 30 members of NATO participate, in a multitude of ways, in the functioning of the Alliance. Within NATO Headquarters (NATO HQ) each Ally has diplomatic representation and military representation. Both are responsible, at their respective levels of competence, to participate in collective decisions while protecting national positions and interests.

On the other hand, the member states participate with their own staffs in the activities of the International Staff and the International Military Staff, at the North Atlantic Council and the Military Committee, whose methods of allocating the positions are

proportional to the financial contributions and operational structures in theatres. Ultimately, the presence in the staff reflects the specific weight of the members.

The North Atlantic Council (NAC) is the highest political decision-making body within NATO. The NAC supervises the political and military processes concerning security issues affecting the whole Alliance. It is composed of permanent representatives from each member state of the branch or field under consideration, usually Ambassadors. They discuss political or operational issues that require collective decision making. The NAC generally meets at least weekly at the level of permanent representatives or ambassadors who are on duty in Brussels at the various delegations. The body also meets at the ministerial level twice per year at the level of Foreign Ministers and three times per year at the level of Defence Ministers. Occasionally, at the highest level, summit meetings play a key role in the Alliance's evolution; they are not regular meetings, nations are represented by the heads of state and government. These summits are used to introduce new policy, invite prospective new members into the Alliance, launch major initiatives and reinforce partnerships. One notable component is the national representatives sit around the table according to the English alphabetical order. The same order is followed in all NATO committees.

In summary, the NAC provides a forum for broad consultation among members on all matters affecting their peace and security in which decisions are made on the basis of unanimity and mutual agreement. There are no majority votes or decisions. This means that policies decided by the NAC are the expression of the collective will of NATO as a whole.

As mentioned, the NAC has effective political authority and decision-making powers; it is the only body established by the North Atlantic Treaty pursuant to Article 9: << The Parties hereby establish a council, on which each of them shall be represented, to consider matters concerning the implementation of this Treaty. The council shall be so organized as to be able to meet promptly at any time. The council shall set up such subsidiary bodies as may be necessary, in particular it shall establish immediately a defence committee which shall recommend measures for the implementation of Article 3 and 5>>.

Another important aspect to understand about NATO's function is the issue of finance. The operating expenses of the Alliance are divided on the basis of the member countries Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Although many expenses are

created by the member states according to the so-called <<costs lie where they fall>>, this means that the Allies pay their own part.

After the NAC, the oldest permanent body in NATO is the Military Committee (MC) which is the primary source of military advice to the NAC and the Nuclear Planning Group. It gives direction to the two Strategic Commanders: Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), positions discussed earlier.

The Military Committee, headed by British Air Chief Marshal Sir Stuart Peach since June 2018, meets frequently at the level of permanent Military Representatives and three times a year at the level of Chiefs of Defence.

The Military Committee is in charge of translating political decisions and guidance into military direction, recommending necessary defence measures for NATO areas and the implementation of decisions for military operations. It is an essential link between the political decision-making process and the military structure of NATO. The MC also develops strategic policies and concepts, prepares long-term planning of strength and capabilities of countries and areas posing a risk to NATO's interests.

MILITARY COMMAND STRUCTURE

Allied Command Operations (ACO) is a three-tier command with headquarters and supporting elements at the strategic, operational and tactical level. It exercises command and control of static and deployable headquarters, as well as joint and combined forces across the full range of the Alliance's military missions. Joint forces are forces from two or more military departments working under a single command and combined forces are forces from different countries working under a single command.

SHAPE, at the strategic level, is at the head of six operational commands, two of which are supported by tactical (or component) level entities.

ALLIED COMMAND OPERATION

There are three tiers of command: strategic, operational, and the tactical level. The command structure is based on functionality rather than geography.

STRATEGIC LEVEL COMMAND (SHAPE)

SHAPE is a strategic headquarters. Its role is to prepare, plan, conduct and execute NATO military operations, missions and tasks in order to achieve the strategic objectives of the Alliance. As such it contributes to the deterrence of aggression and the preservation of peace, security and the territorial integrity of Alliance.

ACO is headed by SACEUR, who exercises his responsibilities from SHAPE. Traditionally, he is a United States Flag or General officer. SACEUR is dual-hatted as the commander of the US European Command, which shares many of the same geographical responsibilities. SACEUR is responsible to the Military Committee, which is the senior military authority in NATO under the overall political authority of the North Atlantic Council (NAC) and the Nuclear Planning Group (NPG). The Military Committee is the primary source of military advice to the NAC and NPG.

OPERATIONAL LEVEL COMMAND: BRUNSSUM, NAPLES & NORFOLK

The operational level consists of three standing Joint Force Commands (JFCs): one in Brunssum, The Netherlands, one in Naples, Italy and one in Norfolk, Virginia. All must be prepared to plan, conduct and sustain NATO operations of different size and scope. Effectively, they need to be able to manage a major joint operation either from their static location or from a deployed headquarters when operating directly in a theatre of operation. In the latter case, the deployed headquarter is referred to as a Joint Task Force HQ or JTFHQ and should be able to operate for a period of up to one year.

When deployed, a Joint Force Command is only charged to command one operation at a time. However, the elements of the Joint Force Command which have not deployed can provide support to other operations and missions. When a Joint Force Command is not deployed, it can assist ACO in dealing with other headquarters which are deployed in theatre for day-to-day matters and assist, for instance, with the training and preparation for future rotations.

The commands at this level are also responsible for engaging with key partners and regional organizations in order to support regional NATO HQ tasks and responsibilities, as directed by SACEUR. Additionally, they support the

reinforcement of cooperation with partners participating in NATO operations and help to prepare partner countries for NATO membership.

TACTICLE LEVEL COMMAND

LAND, AIR & MARITIME

The tactical (or component) level consists of what is called Single Service Commands (SSCs): land, maritime and air commands. These service-specific commands provide expertise and support to the Joint Force Commands at the operational level in Brunssum or Naples. They report directly to SHAPE and come under the command of SACEUR.

Headquarters Allied Air Command (HQ AIRCOM)

Ramstein, Germany: this command's role is to plan and direct the air component of Alliance operations and missions, and the execution of Alliance air and missile defence operations and missions. Ramstein is also the Alliance's principal air advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise. Ramstein, with adequate support from within and outside the NATO Command Structure can provide command and control for a small joint air operation from its static location, i.e., from Ramstein or can act as Air Component Command to support an operation which is as big or bigger than a major joint operation.

Headquarters Allied Land Command (HQ LANDCOM)

Izmir, Turkey: this command's role is to provide a deployable land command and control capability in support of a Joint Force Command running an operation larger than a major joint operation. It can also provide the core land capability for a joint operation (major or not) or a deployable command and control capability for a land operation. Izmir is also the principal land advisor for the Alliance and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise.

Headquarters Allied Maritime Command (HQ MARCOM)

Northwood, the United Kingdom: this command's role is to provide command and control for the full spectrum of joint maritime operations and tasks. From its location in Northwood, it plans, conducts and supports joint maritime operations. It is also the Alliance's principal maritime advisor and contributes to development and transformation, engagement and outreach within its area of expertise. Northwood is ready to command a small maritime joint operation or act as the maritime component in support of an operation larger than a major joint operation.

Tactical Air C2 Elements

Two CAOCs are located at Uedem (Germany) and Torrejon (Spain). CAOCs are hybrid entities that consist of two parts: a Static Air Defence Centre (SADC) and a Deployable Air Operations Centre (D-AOC).

The Deployable Air Command and Control Centre (DACCC), located at Poggio Renatico (Italy), is a hybrid entity which consists of three elements: a Deployable Air Control Centre – Recognized Air Picture Production Centre – Sensor Fusion Post (DARS), a D-AOC and a Deployable Sensors Suite (DSS). In peacetime, the DACCC will be responsible for the initial functional training of assigned NCS JFAC personnel from both the HQ AIRCOM and the D-AOCs.

STRIKFORNATO

STRIKFORNATO provides a Maritime Battle Staff Operational Command, under the command of SACEUR, to deliver rapidly deployable and scalable headquarters, capable of planning and executing the full spectrum of joint maritime operations. Comprised of 12 nations, STRIKFORNATO focuses on Joint Maritime Expeditionary Operations, mainly through the integration of U.S. naval and amphibious forces into NATO operations.

NATO MAJOR OPERATIONS AND MISSIONS

NATO is an active and leading contributor to peace and security on the international stage. It promotes democratic values and is committed to the peaceful resolution of disputes. However, if diplomatic efforts fail, it has the military capacity to undertake crisis management operations alone or in cooperation with other countries and international organizations. Over years NATO has undertaken many missions and operations around the world, some of them are:

NATO in Bosnia and Herzegovina

After diplomatic efforts failed to end the conflict in Bosnia-Herzegovina (BiH), the International Community called upon the Alliance to act, and NATO was prepared to respond.

In August 1995, NATO launched Operation Deliberate Force to compel an end to Serb-led violence in BiH. This successful air campaign paved the way to the signing of the Dayton Peace Accords in December 1995.

To support the implementation of this peace agreement, NATO immediately deployed a UN-mandated Implementation Force (IFOR) comprising some 60,000 troops. This operation was followed in December 1996 with the deployment of a 32,000-strong Stabilization Force (SFOR), which maintained a secure environment in BiH until the mandate was handed over to a European Union (EU) force in December 2004.

These first three successful peace-support operations demonstrated NATO's readiness to act decisively when called upon by the International Community. What followed was a period of unprecedented operational activity for the Alliance.

NATO in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

Responding to a request from the Macedonian government, NATO implemented three successive operations there from August 2001 to March 2003.

First, Operation Essential Harvest disarmed ethnic Albanian groups operating on Macedonia's territory.

The follow-on Operation Amber Fox provided protection for international monitors overseeing the implementation of the peace plan.

Finally, Operation Allied Harmony was launched in December 2002 to provide advisory elements to assist the government in ensuring stability throughout Macedonian territory.

These operations in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia demonstrated the strong inter-institutional cooperation between NATO, the EU and the OSCE.

Pakistan earthquake relief operation

Just before the onset of the harsh Himalayan winter, a devastating earthquake hit Pakistan on 8 October 2005, killing an estimated 80 000 people and leaving up to three million without food or shelter.

On 11 October, in response to a request from Pakistan, NATO launched an operation to assist in the urgent relief effort. The Alliance airlifted close to 3,500 tons of supplies and deployed engineers, medical units and specialist equipment to assist in relief operations. This was one of NATO's largest humanitarian relief operations, which came to an end on 1 February 2006.

The Alliance has aided other countries hit by natural disasters over time, including Turkey, Ukraine and Portugal.

Counter-piracy in the Gulf of Aden

From October to December 2008, NATO launched Operation Allied Provider, which involved counter-piracy activities off the coast of Somalia. Responding to a request from UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, NATO naval forces provided escorts to UN World Food Programme (WFP) vessels transiting through the dangerous waters in the Gulf of Aden, where growing piracy has threatened to undermine international humanitarian efforts in Africa.

Concurrently, in response to an urgent request from the African Union, these same NATO naval forces escorted a vessel chartered by the AU carrying equipment for the Burundi contingent deployed to AMISOM.

CURRENT ONGOING OPERATIONS

NATO in Afghanistan

NATO's operation in Afghanistan constitutes the Alliance's most significant undertaking to date. Established by UN mandate in 2001, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) has been under NATO leadership since August 2003.

ISAF comprises some 55,000 troops from over 40 different countries deployed throughout Afghanistan. Its mission is to extend the authority of the Afghan central government in order to create an environment conducive to the functioning of democratic institutions and the establishment of the rule of law.

A major component of this mission is the establishment of professional Afghan National Security Forces that would enable Afghans to assume more and more responsibility for the security of their country. Much progress has already been

made. From a non-existent force in 2003, the Afghan army currently comprises over 70,000 soldiers, and has begun taking the lead in most operations.

In addition to conducting security operations and building up the Afghan army and police, ISAF is also directly involved in facilitating the development and reconstruction of Afghanistan through 26 Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs) which are engaged in identifying reconstruction needs and supporting humanitarian assistance activities throughout the country.

NATO in Kosovo

While Afghanistan remains NATO's primary operational theatre, the Alliance has not faltered on its other commitments, particularly in the Balkans. Today, roughly 15,000 Allied troops operate in the Balkans as part of NATO's Kosovo Force (KFOR).

Having first entered Kosovo in June 1999 to end widespread violence and halt the humanitarian disaster, KFOR troops continue to maintain a strong presence throughout the territory, preserving the peace that was imposed by NATO nearly a decade earlier.

Following Kosovo's declaration of independence in February 2008, NATO agreed it would continue to maintain its presence on the basis of UN Security Council Resolution 1244. In June 2008, the Alliance decided to take on responsibility for supervising the dissolution of the Kosovo Protection Corps and to help create a professional and multiethnic Kosovo Security Force.

NATO and Iraq

Between the Balkans and Afghanistan lies Iraq, where NATO has been conducting a relatively small but important support operation.

At the Istanbul Summit in June 2004, the Allies rose above their differences and agreed to be part of the international effort to help Iraq establish effective and accountable security forces. The outcome was the creation of the NATO Training Mission in Iraq (NTM-I).

The NTM-I delivers its training, advice and mentoring support in a number of different settings. All NATO member countries are contributing to the training effort either in or outside of Iraq, through financial contributions or donations of equipment.

Monitoring the Mediterranean Sea

NATO operations are not limited only to zones of conflict. In the aftermath of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, NATO immediately began to take measures to expand the options available to counter the threat of international terrorism.

With the launching of the maritime surveillance operation Active Endeavour in October 2001, NATO added a new dimension to the global fight against terrorism.

Led by NATO naval forces, Operation Active Endeavour is focused on detecting and deterring terrorist activity in the Mediterranean. The scope of this operation was later expanded to include the escort of Allied civilian and commercial vessels through the Strait of Gibraltar.

The operation has proved to be an effective tool both in safeguarding a strategic maritime region and in countering terrorism on and from the high seas. Moreover, the experience and partnerships developed through Operation Active Endeavour have considerably enhanced NATO's capabilities in this increasingly vital aspect of operations.

Supporting the African Union

Well beyond the Euro-Atlantic region, the Alliance continues to support the African Union (AU) in its peacekeeping missions on the African continent.

Since June 2007, NATO has assisted the AU Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) by providing airlift support for AU peacekeepers. This support was authorized until February 2009 and the Alliance is ready to consider any new requests from the AU. NATO also continues to work with the AU in identifying further areas where NATO could support the African Standby Force.

NATO's support to AMISOM coincided with a similar support operation to the AU peacekeeping mission in Sudan (AMIS). From June 2005 to December 2007, NATO provided air transport for some 37,000 AMIS personnel, as well as trained and mentored over 250 AMIS officials. While NATO's support to this mission ended when AMIS was succeeded by the UN-AU Mission in Darfur (UNAMID), the Alliance immediately expressed its readiness to consider any request for support to the new peacekeeping mission.

NATO's continuing support to the AU is a testament to the Alliance's commitment to building partnerships and supporting peacekeeping and humanitarian efforts beyond the Euro-Atlantic region.

Counter-piracy off the Horn of Africa

In March 2009, NATO launched Operation Allied Protector, a counter-piracy operation, to improve the safety of commercial maritime routes and international navigation off the Horn of Africa. The force is conducting surveillance tasks and providing protection to deter and suppress piracy and armed robbery, which are threatening sea lines of communication and economic interests.

NATO WORK DURING COVID

From the start of the outbreak, NATO has implemented robust measures to limit the spread of the virus, in response to virus NATO continuous to deliver credible and effective defense against COVID-19.

Allied armed forces are playing a vital role in supporting national civilian responses across the Alliance. This support includes logistics and planning, field hospitals, the transport of patients, disinfection of public areas, and at border crossings.

NATO's Euro-Atlantic Disaster Response Coordination Centre (EADRCC) is an important tool helping to provide relief to Allies and partners. The Centre operates on a 24/7 basis, coordinating requests from NATO Allies and partners for help, as well as offers of assistance to cope with the consequences of major crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Here some examples of NATO work during COVID.

- In response to requests for assistance from North Macedonia, Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina, on 8 April Turkey provided all three countries medical supplies, including protective clothing, masks and test kits.
- In response to requests for assistance from North Macedonia, Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina, on 8 April Turkey provided all three countries medical supplies, including protective clothing, masks and test kits.
- The U.S. Government has committed \$1.1 million to mitigate the spread of the COVID-19 outbreak in North Macedonia. North Macedonia received a field hospital donated by Norway, allowing it to double the capacity at the Infectious Disease Clinic at Skopje's largest hospital in the combat against Covid-19. Norway also donated medical supplies to North Macedonia worth 180,000 Euro.
- In response to Spain and Italy's requests for assistance made through the EADRCC, the Czech Republic bilaterally provided both countries with medical supplies, including 10,000 protective medical suits each.
- NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) has a leading role in responding to the crisis. The NSPA provides logistics support and the organization of transport of key supplies and equipment to Allies, partners and other international organizations. As of 11 April, the NSPA has delivered Intensive Care Unit ventilators to Italy, personal protective equipment to Spain and medical supplies to Norway. Earlier, the NSPA had helped Luxembourg increase its hospital capacity by providing field hospital tents, mobilizing equipment in less than 24 hours.
- Romania has used the capability to import protective material with three shipments during this month, including a shipment of 100,000 suits on 8 April, with support of the United States.
- Bilateral assistance between Allies and between Allies and partners continues to be an important part of the international response, showing the strength of NATO solidarity. For example, a Czech Army aircraft transported 1,000,000 masks to North Macedonia on 10 April. Earlier on 3 April two Spanish military aircraft transported 50 ventilators sent by the German government to Spain. The German air force flew Italian and French patients for treatment, and doctors from Poland and Albania travelling to help their Italian colleagues.
- US-led KFOR Regional Command East delivered gloves, face masks and other medical supplies to the Mayors of Mitrovica North and South in Kosovo.

Various such missions are being taken care of by NATO not just, helping their members and partners but also the world, NATO is helping various African nations, Asian countries to fight this pandemic.

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International Relations Assignment

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International Court of Justice

The **International Court of Justice**, sometimes known as the **World Court**, is one of the six principal organs of the United Nations (UN). It settles disputes between states in accordance with international law and gives advisory opinions on international legal issues. The ICJ is the only international court that adjudicates general disputes between countries, with its rulings and opinions serving as primary sources of international law.



The ICJ is the successor of the Permanent Court of International Justice (PCIJ), which was established in 1920 by the League of Nations. Following the Second World War, both the League and the PCIJ were replaced by the United Nations and ICJ, respectively. The Statute of ICJ, which sets forth its purposes, draws heavily from that of its predecessor, whose decisions remain valid. All member states of the UN are party to the ICJ Statute and may initiate contentious cases; however, advisory proceedings may only be submitted by certain UN organs and agencies.

The ICJ is a panel of 15 judges elected by the General Assembly and Security Council for nine-year terms. No more than one judge of a given nationality may serve on the court at the same time, and judges as a whole must represent the principal civilizations and legal systems of the world. Seated in the Peace Palace in The Hague, Netherlands, the ICJ is the only principal UN organ not located in New York City. Its official working languages are English and French.

History

The creation of the Court represented the culmination of a long process of developing methods for the pacific settlement of international disputes, the origins of which can be traced back to classical times.

Article 33 of the United Nations Charter lists the following methods for the pacific settlement of disputes between States: negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, and resort to regional agencies or arrangements, to which should also be added good offices. Some of these methods involve the services of third parties. For example, mediation places the parties to a dispute in a position in which they can themselves resolve their dispute thanks to the intervention of a third party. Arbitration goes further, in the sense that the dispute is submitted to the decision or award of an impartial third party, so that a binding settlement can be achieved. The same is true of judicial settlement (the method applied by the International Court of Justice), except that a court is subject to stricter rules than an arbitral tribunal, particularly in procedural matters.

Historically, mediation and arbitration preceded judicial settlement. The former was known in ancient India and the Islamic world, whilst numerous examples of the latter can be found in ancient Greece, in China, among the Arabian tribes, in maritime customary law in medieval Europe, and in Papal practice.

The origins of arbitration

The modern history of international arbitration is generally recognized as dating from the so-called Jay Treaty of 1794 between the United States of America and Great Britain. This Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation provided for the creation of three mixed commissions, composed of equal numbers of American and British nationals, whose task it would be to settle a number of outstanding questions between the two countries which it had not been possible to resolve by negotiation. While it is true that these mixed commissions were not strictly speaking organs of third-party adjudication, they were intended to function to some extent as tribunals. They reawakened interest in the process of arbitration. Throughout the nineteenth century, the United States and the United Kingdom had recourse to them, as did other States in Europe and the Americas.

The *Alabama Claims* arbitration in 1872 between the United Kingdom and the United States marked the start of a second, even more decisive, phase. Under the Treaty of Washington of 1871, the United States and the United Kingdom agreed to submit to arbitration claims by the former for alleged breaches of neutrality by the latter during the American Civil War. The two countries set forth certain rules governing the duties of neutral governments that were to be applied by the tribunal, which they agreed should consist of five members, to be appointed by the Heads of State of the United States, the United Kingdom, Brazil, Italy and Switzerland, the last three States not being parties to the case. The arbitral tribunal's award ordered the United Kingdom to pay compensation, which it duly did. The proceedings served to demonstrate the effectiveness of arbitration in settling of a major dispute, and led during the latter years of the nineteenth century to a range of developments, namely:

- a sharp growth in the practice of inserting in treaties clauses providing for recourse to arbitration in the event of a dispute between the parties;

- the conclusion of general treaties of arbitration for the settlement of specified classes of inter-State disputes;
- efforts to construct a general law of arbitration, so that countries wishing to have recourse to this means of settling disputes would not be obliged to agree each time on the procedure to be adopted, the composition of the tribunal, the rules to be followed and the factors to be taken into consideration in making the award;
- proposals for the creation of a permanent international arbitral tribunal to avoid the need to set up a special *ad hoc* tribunal to decide each individual dispute.

The International Court of Justice (ICJ)



The outbreak of war in September 1939 inevitably had serious consequences for the PCIJ, which had for some years been experiencing a decline in its level of activity. After its last public sitting on 4 December 1939 and its last order on 26 February 1940, the Permanent Court of International Justice in fact dealt with no further judicial business and no elections of judges were held. In 1940 the Court relocated to Geneva, leaving one judge in The Hague together with a few Registry officials of Dutch nationality. Despite the war, consideration needed to be given to the future of the Court and to the creation of a new international political order.

In 1942 the United States Secretary of State and the Foreign Secretary of the United Kingdom declared themselves in favour of the establishment or re-establishment of an international court after the war, and the Inter-American Juridical Committee recommended

that the PCIJ's jurisdiction should be extended. Early in 1943, the United Kingdom Government took the initiative of inviting a number of experts to London to constitute an informal Inter-Allied Committee to examine the matter. That Committee, under the chairmanship of Sir William Malkin (United Kingdom), held 19 meetings, which were attended by jurists from 11 countries. In its report, which was published on 10 February 1944, it recommended:

- that the Statute of any new international court should be based on that of the Permanent Court of International Justice;
- that the new court should retain an advisory jurisdiction;
- that acceptance of the jurisdiction of the new court should not be compulsory;
- that the court should have no jurisdiction to deal with essentially political matters.

Meanwhile, on 30 October 1943, following a conference, China, the USSR, the United Kingdom and the United States issued a joint declaration recognizing the necessity "of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving States, and open to membership by all such States, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security".

This declaration led to exchanges between the Four Powers at Dumbarton Oaks (United States), and resulted in the publication on 9 October 1944 of proposals for the establishment of a general international organization, to include an international court of justice. A meeting was subsequently convened in Washington, in April 1945, of a committee of jurists representing 44 States. This Committee, under the chairmanship of G. H. Hackworth (United States), was entrusted with preparing a draft Statute for the future international court of justice, for submission to the San Francisco Conference, which was meeting from April to June 1945 to draw up the United Nations Charter. The draft statute prepared by the Committee was based on the Statute of the PCIJ and was therefore not a completely new text. The Committee nevertheless felt obliged to leave a number of questions open which it felt the Conference should decide: Should a new court be created? In what form should the court's mission as the principal judicial organ of the United Nations be stated? Should the court's jurisdiction be compulsory and, if so, to what extent? How should the judges be elected? The final decisions on those points, and on the definitive form of the statute, were made at the San Francisco Conference, in which 50 States participated. The Conference decided against compulsory jurisdiction and in favour of the creation of an entirely new court, which would be a principal organ of the United Nations, on the same footing as the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council and the Secretariat, and whose statute would be annexed to the Charter, forming an integral part of it. The main reasons that led the Conference to decide to create a new court were the following:

- as the court was to be the principal judicial organ of the United Nations, it was felt inappropriate for that role to be filled by the Permanent Court of International Justice, with its connection to the League of Nations, which was itself on the point of dissolution;
- the creation of a new court was more consistent with the provision in the Charter that all Member States of the United Nations would *ipso facto* be parties to the court's statute;
- several States that were parties to the Statute of the PCIJ were not represented at the San Francisco Conference and, conversely, several States represented at the Conference were not parties to the Statute;
- there was a feeling in some quarters that the PCIJ formed part of an older order, in which European States had dominated the political and legal affairs of the international community, and that the creation of a new court would make it easier for

States outside Europe to play a more influential role. This proved to be true: the membership of the United Nations has grown from 51 in 1945 to 193 in 2020.

Nevertheless, the San Francisco Conference considered that a degree of continuity should be maintained, particularly since the Statute of the PCIJ had itself been drawn up on the basis of past experience, and had seemed to work well. The Charter therefore clearly stated that the Statute of the International Court of Justice was based upon that of the PCIJ. At the same time, the necessary steps were taken to transfer as much of the PCIJ's jurisdiction as possible to the International Court of Justice. In any event, the decision to create a new court necessarily involved the dissolution of its predecessor. The PCIJ met for the last time in October 1945 and resolved to transfer its archives and effects to the new International Court of Justice, which, like its predecessor, was to have its seat at the Peace Palace. The judges of the PCIJ all resigned on 31 January 1946, and the election of the first Members of the International Court of Justice took place on 6 February 1946, at the First Session of the United Nations General Assembly and Security Council. In April 1946, the PCIJ was formally dissolved, and the International Court of Justice, meeting for the first time, elected as its President Judge José Gustavo Guerrero (El Salvador), the last President of the PCIJ. The Court appointed the members of its Registry (largely from among former officials of the PCIJ) and held an inaugural public sitting on the 18th of that month. The first case was submitted in May 1947. It concerned incidents in the Corfu Channel and was brought by the United Kingdom against Albania.

Members of the Court

The International Court of Justice is composed of 15 judges elected to nine-year terms of office by the United Nations General Assembly and the Security Council. These organs vote simultaneously but separately. In order to be elected, a candidate must receive an absolute majority of the votes in both bodies. This sometimes makes it necessary for a number of rounds of voting to be held.

In order to ensure a degree 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.

Elections are held in New York (United States of America) during the annual autumn session of the General Assembly. The judges elected at a triennial election commence their term of office on 6 February of the following year, after which the Court holds a secret ballot to elect a President and a Vice-President to hold office for three years.

All States parties to the Statute of the Court have the right to propose candidates. Such proposals are made not by the government of the State concerned, but by a group consisting of the members of the Permanent Court of Arbitration (see History) designated by that State, i.e. by the four jurists who can be called upon to serve as members of an arbitral tribunal under the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907. In the case of countries not participating in the Permanent Court of Arbitration, nominations are made by a group constituted in the same way. Each group can propose up to four candidates, no more than two of whom may be of its own nationality, while the others may be from any country whatsoever, regardless of whether it is a party to the Statute or has declared that it accepts the compulsory jurisdiction of the ICJ. The names of candidates must be communicated to the Secretary-General of the United Nations within a time-limit of his/her choosing.

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 jurisconsults of recognized competence in international law.

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.

Once elected, a Member of the Court is a delegate neither of the government of his own country nor of that of any other State. Unlike most other organs of international organizations, the Court is not composed of representatives of governments. Members of the Court are independent judges whose first task, before taking up their duties, is to make a solemn declaration in open court that they will exercise their powers impartially and conscientiously.

In order to guarantee his or her independence, no Member of the Court can be dismissed unless, in the unanimous opinion of the other Members, he/she no longer fulfils the required conditions. This has in fact never happened.

When engaged in the business of the Court, the Members of the Court enjoy privileges and immunities comparable with those of the head of a diplomatic mission. In The Hague, the President takes precedence over the doyen of the diplomatic corps, who is followed by the Vice-President, after which precedence alternates between judges and ambassadors. Each Member of the Court receives an annual salary consisting of a base salary (which, for 2018, amounts to US\$176,437) and post adjustment, with a special supplementary allowance of US\$15,000 for the President. The post adjustment multiplier changes every month and is dependent on the United Nations exchange rate between the United States dollar and the euro. On leaving the Court, judges receive an annual pension which, after a nine-year term of office, is equal to half the annual base salary.

Presidency

The President and Vice-President are elected by the Members of the Court every three years by secret ballot. The election is held on the date on which Members of the Court elected at a triennial election begin their terms of office or shortly thereafter. An absolute majority is required and there are no conditions of nationality. The President and Vice-President may be re-elected.

The President presides at all meetings of the Court; he/she directs its work and supervises its administration, with the assistance of a Budgetary and Administrative Committee and various other committees, all composed of Members of the Court. During judicial deliberations, the President has a casting vote in the event of votes being equally tied.

In The Hague, where he/she is obliged to reside, the President of the Court takes precedence over the doyen of the diplomatic corps.

The President receives a special supplementary allowance of US\$15,000 per annum, in addition to his/her annual salary.

The Vice-President replaces the President in his/her absence, in the event of his/her inability to perform his/her duties, or in the event of a vacancy in the presidency. He/she receives a daily allowance for doing so. In the absence of the Vice-President, this role falls to the senior judge.

On 8 February 2021, the Court elected Judge Joan E. Donoghue (United States of America) as President and Judge Kirill Gevorgian (Russian Federation) as Vice-President.

The following judges have previously served as President or Vice-President:

Guerrero and Basdevant

1946-1949

Basdevant and Guerrero

1949-1952

Sir Arnold McNair and Guerrero

1952-1955

Hackworth and Badawi

1955-1958

Klaestad and Sir Muhammad Zafrulla Khan

1958-1961

Winiarski and Alfaro

1961-1964

Sir Percy Spender and Wellington Koo

1964-1967

Bustamante y Rivero and Koretsky

1967-1970

Sir Muhammad Zafrulla Khan and Ammoun

1970-1973

Lachs and Ammoun

1973-1976

Jiménez de Aréchaga and Nagendra Singh

1976-1979

Sir Humphrey Waldock and Elias

1979-1982 (Sir Humphrey Waldock died on 15 August 1981. The functions of the Presidency were thereafter exercised by Judge Elias as Acting President, by virtue of Articles 13 and 14 of the 1978 Rules of Court.)

Elias and Sette-Camara

1982-1985

Nagendra Singh and Ladreit de Lacharrière

1985-1988 (Judge Ladreit de Lacharrière died on 10 March 1987. On 6 May 1987 the Court elected Judge Mbaye to be its Vice-President for the remainder of his predecessor's term.)

J. M. Ruda and Mbaye

1988-1991

Sir Robert Jennings and Oda

1991-1994

Bedjaoui and Schwebel

1994-1997

Schwebel and Weeramantry

1997-2000

Guillaume and Shi

2000-2003

Shi and Ranjeva

2003-2006

Higgins and Al-Khasawneh

2006-2009

Owada and Tomka

2009-2012

Tomka and Sepúlveda-Amor

2012-2015

Abraham and Yusuf

2015-2018

Yusuf and Xue

2018-2021

Chambers and Committees

Chambers

The Court generally discharges its duties as a full Court (a quorum of nine judges, excluding judges *ad hoc*, being sufficient). But it may also form permanent or temporary chambers.

The Court has three types of chamber:

- the Chamber of Summary Procedure, comprising five judges, including the President and Vice-President, and two substitutes, which the Court is required by Article 29 of the Statute to form annually with a view to the speedy despatch of business;
- any chamber, comprising at least three judges, that the Court may form pursuant to Article 26, paragraph 1, of the Statute to deal with certain categories of cases, such as labour or communications;
- any chamber that the Court may form pursuant to Article 26, paragraph 2, of the Statute to deal with a particular case, after formally consulting the parties regarding

the number of its members - and informally regarding their name - who will then sit in all phases of the case until its final conclusion, even if in the meantime they cease to be Members of the Court.

With respect to the formation of a Chamber pursuant to Article 26, paragraph 1, of the Statute, it should be noted that in 1993 the Court created a Chamber for Environmental Matters, which was periodically reconstituted until 2006. However, in the Chamber's 13 years of existence no State ever requested that a case be dealt with by it. The Court consequently decided in 2006 not to hold elections for a Bench for the said Chamber.

The provisions of the Rules concerning chambers of the Court are likely to be of interest to States that are required to submit a dispute to the Court, or have special reasons for doing so, but prefer, for reasons of urgency or other reasons, to deal with a smaller body than the full Court.

Despite the advantages that chambers can offer in certain circumstances, under the terms of the Statute their use remains exceptional. Their formation requires the consent of the parties. While, to date, no case has been heard by either of the first two types of chamber, by contrast six cases have been dealt with by *ad hoc* chambers.

Chambers under Article 26, paragraph 2 (*ad hoc* chambers)

No such chamber is currently active.

The first *ad hoc* chamber was formed in 1982 in the case concerning the *Delimitation of the Maritime Boundary in the Gulf of Maine Area* between Canada and the United States, and the second in 1985 in the case concerning the *Frontier Dispute* between Burkina Faso and the Republic of Mali. The third was set up in March 1987 in the case concerning *Elettronica Sicula S.p.A. (ELSI)* between the United States of America and Italy, and the fourth was formed in May 1987 in the case concerning the *Land, Island and Maritime Frontier Dispute* between El Salvador and Honduras. 2002 saw the formation of the fifth, to deal with the *Frontier Dispute (Benin/Niger)* case, and the sixth, to hear the *Application for Revision of the Judgment of 11 September 1992 in the Case concerning the Land, Island and Maritime Frontier Dispute (El Salvador/Honduras: Nicaragua intervening) (El Salvador v. Honduras)*.

Every Chamber has comprised five members. The Chamber which sat in the *Gulf of Maine* case comprised four Members of the Court (one of whom possessed the nationality of one of the parties) and one judge *ad hoc* chosen by the other party. The Chamber formed in the *Frontier Dispute (Burkina Faso/Republic of Mali)* case comprised three Members of the Court and two judges *ad hoc* chosen by the parties. The Chamber formed in the *Elettronica Sicula S.p.A. (ELSI)* case comprised five Members of the Court (two of whom possessed the nationality of one of the parties). The Chamber which sat in the case concerning the *Land, Island and Maritime Frontier Dispute* comprised three Members of the Court and two judges *ad hoc* chosen by the parties, as did the two Chambers formed in 2002.

Committees

Budgetary and Administrative Committee

Administrative decisions are prepared for the full Court by a Budgetary and Administrative Committee composed of the President (chair), the Vice-President and four or five other judges elected triennially.

The present composition of the Committee is as follows:

President – Joan E. Donoghue

Vice- President – Kirill Gevorgian

Judges - Peter Tomka

Ronny Abraham

Abdulqawi Ahmed Yusuf

Xue Hanqin

Julia Sebutinde

How the Court Works



The Court may entertain two types of cases: legal disputes between States submitted to it by them (contentious cases) and requests for advisory opinions on legal questions referred to it by United Nations organs and specialized agencies (advisory proceedings).

Contentious cases

Only States (States Members of the United Nations and other States which have become parties to the Statute of the Court or which have accepted its jurisdiction under certain conditions) may be parties to contentious cases.

The Court is competent to entertain a dispute only if the States concerned have accepted its jurisdiction in one or more of the following ways:

- by entering into a special agreement to submit the dispute to the Court;
- by virtue of a jurisdictional clause, i.e., typically, when they are parties to a treaty containing a provision whereby, in the event of a dispute of a given type or disagreement over the interpretation or application of the treaty, one of them may refer the dispute to the Court;
- through the reciprocal effect of declarations made by them under the Statute, whereby each has accepted the jurisdiction of the Court as compulsory in the event of a dispute with another State having made a similar declaration. A number of these declarations, which must be deposited with the United Nations Secretary-General, contain reservations excluding certain categories of dispute.

States have no permanent representatives accredited to the Court. They normally communicate with the Registrar through their Minister for Foreign Affairs or their ambassador accredited to the Netherlands. When they are parties to a case before the Court they are represented by an agent. An agent plays the same role, and has the same rights and obligations, as a solicitor or *avoué* in a national court. However, since international relations are at stake, the agent is also as it were the head of a special diplomatic mission with powers to commit a sovereign State. He/she receives communications from the Registrar concerning the case and forwards all correspondence and pleadings, duly signed or certified, to him. In public hearings the agent opens the argument on behalf of the government he/she represents and lodges the submissions. In general, whenever a formal act is to be done by the government represented, it is done by the agent. Agents are sometimes assisted by co-agents, deputy agents or assistant agents and always have counsel or advocates, whose work they co-ordinate, to assist them in the preparation of the pleadings and the delivery of oral argument. Since there is no special International Court of Justice Bar, there are no conditions that have to be fulfilled by counsel or advocates to enjoy the right of pleading before it, the only exception being that they must have been appointed by a government to do so.

Proceedings may be instituted in one of two ways:

- Through the notification of a special agreement: this document, which is bilateral in character, can be lodged with the Court by either or both of the States parties to the proceedings. A special agreement must indicate the subject of the dispute and the parties thereto. Since there is neither an “applicant” State nor a “respondent” State, in the Court’s publications their names are separated by an oblique stroke at the end of the official title of the case, e.g., Benin/Niger.
- By means of an application: the application, which is unilateral in character, is submitted by an applicant State against a respondent State. It is intended for

communication to the latter State and the Rules of Court contain stricter requirements with regard to its content. In addition to the name of the party against which the claim is brought and the subject of the dispute, the applicant State must, as far as possible, indicate briefly on what basis - a treaty or a declaration of acceptance of compulsory jurisdiction - it claims that the Court has jurisdiction, and must succinctly state the facts and grounds on which its claim is based. At the end of the official title of the case the names of the two parties are separated by the abbreviation *v.* (for the Latin *versus*), e.g., *Nicaragua v. Colombia*.

The date of the institution of proceedings, which is that of the receipt by the Registrar of the special agreement or application, marks the opening of proceedings before the Court. Contentious proceedings include 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, and an oral phase consisting of public hearings at which agents and counsel address the Court. As the Court has two official languages (English and French), everything written or said in one language is translated into the other. The written pleadings are not made available to the press and public until the opening of the oral proceedings, and only then if the parties have no objection.

After the oral proceedings the Court deliberates *in camera* and then delivers its judgment at a public sitting. The judgment is final, binding on the parties to a case and without appeal (at the most it may be subject to interpretation or, upon the discovery of a new fact, revision). Any judge wishing to do so may append an opinion to the judgment.

By signing the Charter, a Member State of the United Nations undertakes to comply with the decision of the Court in any case to which it is a party. Since, furthermore, a case can only be submitted to the Court and decided by it if the parties have in one way or another consented to its jurisdiction over the case, it is rare for a decision not to be implemented. A State which considers that the other side has failed to perform the obligations incumbent upon it under a judgment rendered by the Court may bring the matter before the Security Council, which is empowered to recommend or decide upon measures to be taken to give effect to the judgment.

The procedure described above is the normal procedure. However, the course of the proceedings may be modified by incidental proceedings. The most common incidental proceedings are preliminary objections, which are raised to challenge the competence of the Court to decide on the merits of the case (the respondent State may contend, for example, that the Court lacks jurisdiction or that the application is inadmissible). The matter is one for the Court itself to decide. Then there are provisional measures, interim measures which can be requested by the applicant State if it considers that the rights that form the subject of its application are in immediate danger. A third possibility is that a State may request permission to intervene in a dispute involving other States if it considers that it has an interest of a legal nature in the case, which might be affected by the decision made. The Statute also makes provision for instances when a respondent State fails to appear before the Court, either because it totally rejects the Court's jurisdiction or for any other reason. Failure by one party to appear does not prevent the proceedings from taking their course, although the Court must first satisfy itself that it has jurisdiction. Finally, should the Court find that parties to separate proceedings are submitting the same arguments and submissions against a common opponent in relation to the same issue, it may order the proceedings to be joined.

The Court discharges its duties as a full court but, at the request of the parties, it may also establish *ad hoc* chambers to examine specific cases. A Chamber of Summary Procedure is elected every year by the Court in accordance with its Statute.

The sources of law that the Court must apply are: international treaties and conventions in force; international custom; the general principles of law; judicial decisions; and the

teachings of the most highly qualified publicists. Moreover, if the parties agree, the Court can decide a case *ex aequo et bono*, i.e., without confining itself to existing rules of international law.

A case may be brought to a conclusion at any stage of the proceedings by a settlement between the parties or by discontinuance. In case of the latter, an applicant State may at any time inform the Court that it does not wish to continue the proceedings, or the two parties may declare that they have agreed to withdraw the case. The Court then removes the case from its List.

Advisory proceedings

Advisory proceedings before the Court are only open to five organs of the United Nations and 16 specialized agencies of the United Nations family or affiliated organizations.

The United Nations General Assembly and Security Council may request advisory opinions on “any legal question”. Other United Nations organs and specialized agencies which have been authorized to seek advisory opinions can only do so with respect to “legal questions arising within the scope of their activities”.

When it receives a request for an advisory opinion the Court must assemble all the facts, and is thus empowered to hold written and oral proceedings, similar to those in contentious cases. In theory, the Court may do without such proceedings, but it has never dispensed with them entirely.

A few days after the request has been filed, the Court draws up a list of the States and international organizations that are likely to be able to furnish information on the question before the Court. Such States are not in the same position as parties to contentious proceedings: their representatives before the Court are not known as agents, and their participation in the advisory proceedings does not render the Court’s opinion binding upon them. Usually the States listed are the member States of the organization requesting the opinion. Any State not consulted by the Court may ask to be.

It is rare, however, for the ICJ to allow international organizations other than the one that requested the opinion to participate in advisory proceedings. The only non-governmental international organizations that has ever been authorized by the ICJ to furnish information did not in the end do so (*International Status of South West Africa*). The Court has rejected all such requests by private parties.

The written proceedings are shorter than in contentious proceedings between States, and the rules governing them are relatively flexible. Participants may file written statements, which sometimes form the object of written comments by other participants. The written statements and comments are regarded as confidential, but are generally made available to the public at the beginning of the oral proceedings. States are then usually invited to make oral statements at public sittings.

Advisory proceedings conclude with the delivery of the advisory opinion at a public sitting.

Such opinions are essentially advisory; in other words, unlike the Court’s judgments, they are not binding. The requesting organ, agency or organization remains free to give effect to the opinion as it sees fit, or not to do so at all. However, certain instruments or regulations provide that an advisory opinion by the Court does have binding force (e.g., the conventions on the privileges and immunities of the United Nations).

Nevertheless, the Court's advisory opinions are associated with its authority and prestige, and a decision by the organ or agency concerned to endorse an opinion is as if it were sanctioned by international law.

Financial Assistance to Parties

Secretary-General's Trust Fund to Assist States in the Settlement of Disputes through the International Court of Justice

In 1989, with a view to encouraging States to submit their disputes to the Court, the Secretary-General of the United Nations set up a trust fund to provide financial assistance in certain circumstances. Today the fund is open to all States wishing to submit a dispute, provided that the jurisdiction of the Court (or the admissibility of the application) is not or is no longer in question. A further purpose of the fund is to help States parties to a dispute to comply with the judgment rendered by the Court.

Jurisdiction

The International Court of Justice acts as a world court. The Court's jurisdiction is twofold: it decides, in accordance with international law, disputes of a legal nature that are submitted to it by States (jurisdiction in contentious cases); and it gives advisory opinions on legal questions at the request of the organs of the United Nations, specialized agencies or one related organization authorized to make such a request (advisory jurisdiction).

Contentious Jurisdiction

In the exercise of its jurisdiction in contentious cases, the International Court of Justice settles disputes of a legal nature that are submitted to it by States in accordance with international law. An international legal dispute can be defined as a disagreement on a question of law or fact, a conflict, or a clash of legal views or interests.

Only States may apply to and appear before the International Court of Justice. International organizations, other authorities and private individuals are not entitled to institute proceedings before the Court.

Article 35 of the Statute defines the conditions under which States may access the Court. While the first paragraph of that article states that the Court is open to States parties to the Statute, the second is intended to regulate access to the Court by States which are not parties to the Statute. The conditions under which such States may access the Court are determined by the Security Council, subject to the special provisions contained in treaties in force at the date of the entry into force of the Statute, with the proviso that under no

circumstances shall such conditions place the parties in a position of inequality before the Court.

The Court can only deal with a dispute when the States concerned have recognized its jurisdiction. No State can therefore be a party to proceedings before the Court unless it has in some manner or other consented thereto.

Advisory Jurisdiction

Since States alone are entitled to appear before the Court, public (governmental) international organizations cannot be parties to a case before it. However, a special procedure, the advisory procedure, is available to such organizations and to them alone. This procedure is available to five United Nations organs, fifteen specialized agencies and one related organization.

Though based on contentious proceedings, advisory proceedings have distinctive features resulting from the special nature and purpose of the advisory function.

Advisory proceedings begin with the filing of a written request for an advisory opinion addressed to the Registrar by the United Nations Secretary-General or the director or secretary-general of the entity requesting the opinion. In urgent cases the Court may take all appropriate measures to speed up the proceedings. To assemble all the necessary information about the question submitted to it, the Court is empowered to hold written and oral proceedings.

A few days after the request has been filed, the Court draws up a list of the States and international organizations that are likely to be able to furnish information on the question before the Court. Usually, the States listed are the member States of the organization requesting the opinion, while sometimes the other States to which the Court is open in contentious proceedings are also included. As a rule, organizations and States authorized to participate in the proceedings may submit written statements, followed, if the Court considers it necessary, by written comments on others's statements. These written statements are generally made available to the public at the beginning of the oral proceedings, if the Court considers that such proceedings should take place.

Contrary to judgments, and except in rare cases where it is expressly provided that they shall have binding force (for example, as in the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations, the Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the Specialized Agencies of the United Nations, and the Headquarters Agreement between the United Nations and the United States of America), the Court's advisory opinions are not binding. The requesting organ, agency or organization remains free to decide, as it sees fit, what effect to give to these opinions.

Despite having no binding force, the Court's advisory opinions nevertheless carry great legal weight and moral authority. They are often an instrument of preventive diplomacy and help to keep the peace. In their own way, advisory opinions also contribute to the clarification and development of international law and thereby to the strengthening of peaceful relations between States.

Cases

The Court has a twofold role: to settle, in accordance with international law, legal disputes submitted to it by States (contentious cases) and to give advisory opinions (advisory procedures) on legal questions referred to it by duly authorized United Nations organs and specialized agencies.

In contentious proceedings, when a dispute is brought before the Court by a unilateral application filed by one State against another State, the names of the parties in the official title of the case are separated by the abbreviation v. for the Latin versus (e.g., *Cameroon v. Nigeria*). When a dispute is submitted to the Court on the basis of a special agreement between two States, the names of the parties are separated by an oblique stroke (e.g., *Indonesia/Malaysia*).

The first case entered in the General List of the Court (*Corfu Channel (United Kingdom v. Albania)*) was submitted on 22 May 1947.

Between 22 May 1947 and 5 March 2021, 179 cases were entered in the General List.



BMCC
TY- BBA INTERNATIONAL
RELATIONS PROJECT

NAME - AREESHA BALSARA
CLASS - TY BBA (B)
ROLL NO - 108
SUBJECT – INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS
(BATCH 3)

World Trade Organization (WTO)

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the only global international organization dealing with the rules of trade between nations. At its heart are the WTO agreements, negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world's trading nations and ratified in their parliaments. The goal is to help producers of goods and services, exporters, and importers conduct their business. It is an organization for trade opening. It is a forum for governments to negotiate trade agreements. It is a place for them to settle trade disputes. It operates a system of trade rules. Essentially, the WTO is a place where member governments try to sort out the trade problems they face with each other.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) deals with the global rules of trade between nations. Its main function is to ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably and freely as possible.

Roberto Azevêdo is the sixth Director-General of the WTO. His appointment took effect on 1 September 2013 for a four-year term. In February 2017, WTO members agreed to appoint Mr Azevêdo for a second four-year term, starting on 1 September 2017.



WTO History

The WTO's origins began with trade negotiations after World War II.

In 1948, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade focused on reducing tariffs, anti-dumping, and non-tariff measures. From 1986 – 1994 the Uruguay Round round of negotiations led to the formal creation of the WTO.

In 1997, the WTO brokered agreements promoting trade in telecommunications services among 69 countries. It also removed tariffs on information technology products between 40 members. It improved trade of banking, insurance, securities and financial information between 70 countries.

Membership

Members and observers

The WTO has over 160 members representing 98 per cent of world trade. Over 20 countries are seeking to join the WTO.

Accessions

To join the WTO, a government has to bring its economic and trade policies in line with WTO rules and negotiate its terms of entry with the WTO membership.



1. Functions

The most important functions of the WTO are as follows:

Oversees the implementation, administration, and operation of the covered agreements.

Provides a forum for negotiations and for settling disputes.

Reviews and propagates national trade policies.

Ensures the coherence and transparency of trade policies through surveillance in global economic policy-making.

Assists in developing, least-developed, and low-income countries in transition to adjust to WTO rules and disciplines through technical cooperation and training.

Regularly assesses the global trade picture in its annual publications and research reports.

Cooperates closely with the IMF and the World Bank.

2. Agreements

The WTO oversees about 60 different agreements which have the status of international legal texts. Some of the most important agreements are as follows:

Agreement on Agriculture has three central “pillars”: domestic support, market access, and export subsidies.

General Agreement on Trade in Services was established in 1995 to extend the multilateral trading system to service sector, in the same way as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) provided such a system for merchandise trade.

Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Right sets down minimum standards for many forms of intellectual property (IP) regulation.

Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade ensures that technical negotiations and standards, as well as testing and certification procedures, do not create unnecessary obstacles to trade.

Agreement on Customs Valuation adopts the “transaction value” approach and prescribes methods of customs valuation that members are to follow.

3. Advantages and Disadvantages of the World Trade Organization (WTO)

- The history of international trade has been a battle between protectionism and free trade, and the WTO has fueled globalization with both positive and adverse effects. The organization's efforts have increased global trade expansion, but a side effect has been a negative impact on local communities and human rights.
- Proponents of the WTO, particularly multinational corporations (MNCs), believe that the organization is beneficial to business, seeing the stimulation of free trade and a decline in trade disputes as beneficial to the global economy. Skeptics believe that the WTO undermines the principles of organic democracy and widens the international wealth gap. They point to the decline in domestic industries and increasing foreign influence as negative impacts on the world economy.
- As part of his broader attempts to renegotiate U.S. international trade deals, when he was in office, President Trump threatened to withdraw from the WTO, calling it a "disaster." A U.S. withdrawal from the WTO could have disrupted trillions of dollars in global trade, however, he didn't withdraw from it during this time in
- The major reasons for a country to join the WTO are:
- Since each country needs to export its goods and services to receive foreign exchange for essential imports, such as capital goods, technology, fuel, and sometimes even food, it requires access to foreign markets. But countries require permission for making their goods and services enter foreign countries.
- Thus countries need to have bilateral agreements with each other. By joining a multilateral framework like the WTO, the need to have individual bilateral agreements is obviated as the member countries are allowed to export and import goods and services among themselves.
- An individual country is unlikely to get a better deal in bilateral agreements than what it gets in a multilateral framework. It has been observed that developing countries had to commit to a greater degree to developed countries in bilateral agreements than what is required under the WTO.

- A country can learn from the experiences of other countries, being part of the community of countries and influence the decision-making process in the WTO.
- The WTO provides some protection against subjective actions of other countries by way of its dispute settlement system that works as an in-built mechanism for enforcement of rights and obligations of member countries.
- It would be odd to remain out of WTO framework for conducting international trade that has been in existence for about six decades and accounts for over 97 per cent of world trade. It may even be viewed as suspicious by others.

4. Decision Making of WTO:

- WTO is a member-driven consensus-based organization. All major decisions in the WTO are made by its members as a whole, either by ministers who meet at least once every two years or by their ambassadors who meet regularly in Geneva.
- A majority vote is also possible but it has never been used in the WTO and was extremely rare in the WTO's predecessor, GATT. The WTO's agreements have been ratified in all members' parliaments. Unlike other international organizations, such as the World Bank and the IMF, in WTO, the power is not delegated to the board of directors or the organization's head.
- In view of the complexities involved in multilateral negotiations among 150 member countries with diverse resource capabilities, areas of special interest, and geo-political powers, decision-making through consensus is highly challenging.
- Developed countries with much greater economic and political strengths often employ pressure tactics over developing and least developed countries in building up a consensus. This has led to considerable networking among the member countries and evolving of several country groups.

Exhibit 5.2 Country groups in WTO trade negotiations

African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP countries, also Lome Convention Countries) Developing country group of former colonies of Europe which maintain strong ties to the EU.

Least Developed Countries (LDCs) A group of countries identified by the UN and recognized by the WTO as 'least developed' in terms of their low GDP per capita, and their high degree of economic vulnerability.

Cairns Group Grain exporters, i.e., Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Fiji, Hungary, Indonesia, Malaysia, New Zealand, the Philippines, Thailand, and Uruguay.

Quad Group (also 'Old Quad') Developed country trade leaders, i.e., the EU, the US, Japan, and Canada.

New Quad Group (also Group of 4 or G4) Critical developed and developing market leaders, i.e., the US, the EU, Brazil, and India.

Five Interested Parties (FIPS, also Non-Group of 5 or NG5) Nations that helped negotiate the 2004 Framework Agreement on Agriculture that now serves as the basis for the Doha round. Quad plus one, i.e., the US, the EU, Brazil, India, and Australia.

Friends of anti-dumping A group of nations that seeks reforms of rules that would affect the US

and European Union anti-dumping investigations. Members include Japan, South Korea, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Hong Kong, Norway, Switzerland, Taiwan, and Thailand.

Friends of Mode 4 Mode 4 is the movement of natural persons in order to supply a service in another country. 12 member countries include India, Mexico, Indonesia, and Thailand.

Group of 10 (G10) Net food importers and subsidizers, includes Switzerland, Japan, Norway.

Group of 20 (G20) Primary developing nations united on agricultural negotiations, i.e., Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, China, Egypt, Guatemala, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, Paraguay, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania, Thailand, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Zimbabwe.

Group of 33 (G33) Developing countries concerned with protecting agricultural markets of developing countries from low-priced import competition from industrialized countries and large agro-exporters.

Group of 90 (G90) Poorest or least developed nations consisting of the African, Caribbean, and Pacific countries (ACP), the Least Developed Countries (LDCs), and the African Union (AU) countries.

Source: WTO.

- When WTO rules impose disciplines on countries' policies, it is the outcome of negotiations among WTO members. The rules are enforced by the members themselves under agreed procedures that they negotiated, including the possibility of trade sanctions. The sanctions too are imposed by member countries, and authorized by the membership as a whole.

5. Organizational Structure of the WTO:

The organizational structure of WTO as summarized in Fig. 5.1, consists of the Ministerial Conference, General Council, council for each broad area, and subsidiary bodies.

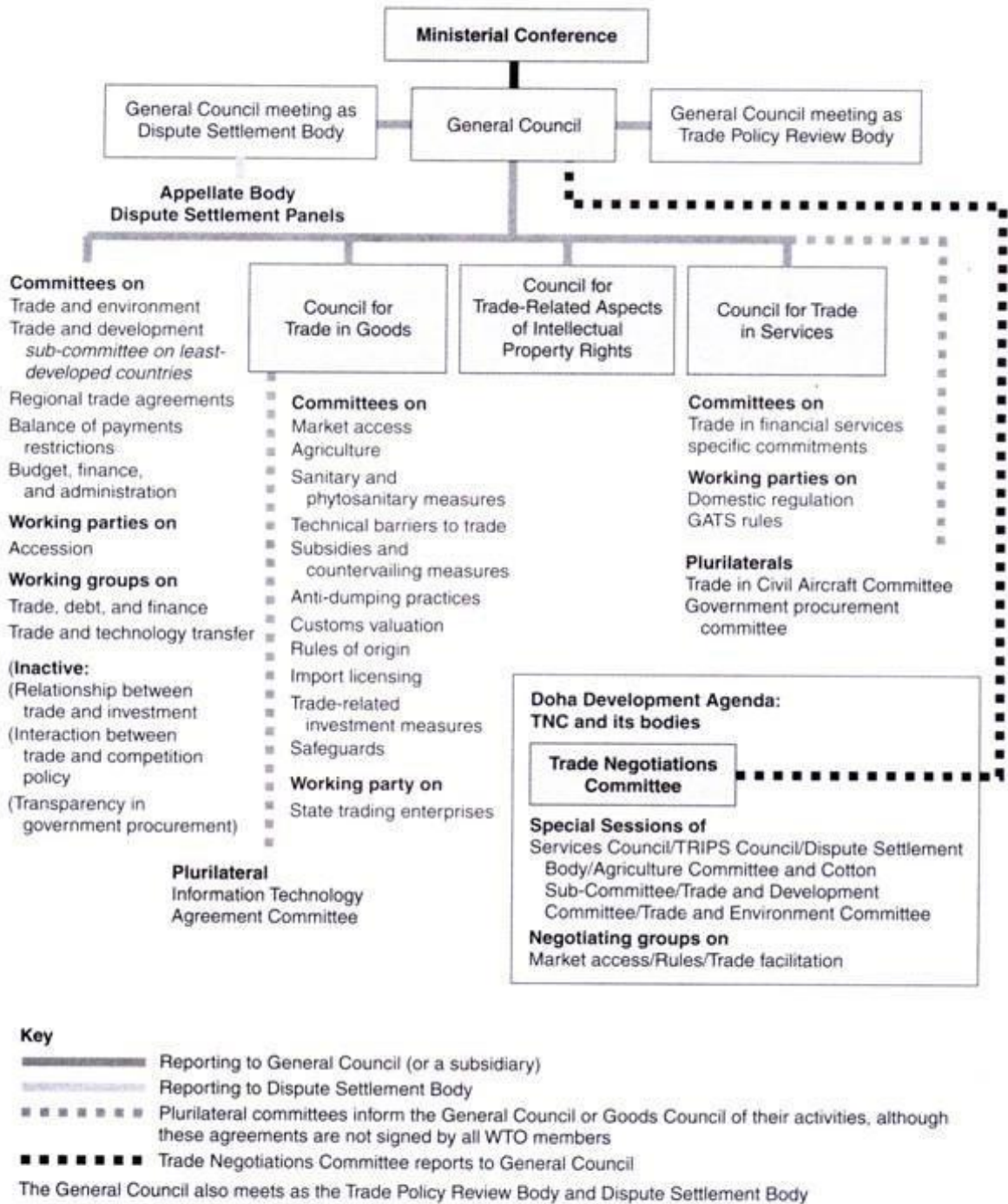


Fig. 5.1 WTO structure

- *First level – The Ministerial Conference:*
- The Ministerial Conference is the topmost decision-making body of the WTO, which has to meet at least once every two years.

- *Second level – General Council:*
- Day-to-day work in between the Ministerial Conferences is handled by the following three bodies:
- The General Council
- The Dispute Settlement Body
- The Trade Policy Review Body

- In fact, all these three bodies consist of all WTO members and report to the Ministerial Conference, although they meet under different terms of reference.

- *Third level – Councils for each broad area of trade:*
- There are three more councils, each handling a different broad area of trade, reporting to the General Council.
- The Council for Trade in Goods (Goods Council)
- The Council for Trade in Services (Services Council)
- The Council for Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS Council)

- Each of these councils consists of all WTO members and is responsible for the working of the WTO agreements dealing with their respective areas of trade. These three also have subsidiary bodies. Six other bodies, called committees, also report to the General Council, since their scope is smaller.

- They cover issues, such as trade and development, the environment, regional trading arrangements, and administrative issues. The Singapore Ministerial Conference in December 1996 decided to create new working groups to look at investment and competition policy, transparency in government procurement, and trade facilitation.

- *Fourth level – Subsidiary bodies:*
- Each of the higher councils has subsidiary bodies that consist of all member countries.
- Goods Council:
 - It has 11 committees dealing with specific subjects, such as agriculture, market access, subsidies, anti-dumping measures, etc.
- Services Council:
 - The subsidiary bodies of the Services Council deal with financial services, domestic services, GATS rules, and specific commitments.
- Dispute settlement body:
 - It has two subsidiaries, i.e., the dispute settlement ‘panels’ of experts appointed to adjudicate on unresolved disputes, and the Appellate Body that deals with appeals at the General Council level. Formally all of these councils and committees consist of the full membership of the WTO. But that does not mean they are the same, or that the distinctions are purely bureaucratic.
- In practice, the people participating in the various councils and committees are different because different levels of seniority and different areas of expertise are needed. Heads of missions in Geneva (usually ambassadors) normally represent their countries at the General Council level.
- Some of the committees can be highly specialized and sometimes governments send expert officials from their countries to participate in these meetings. Even at the level of the Goods, Services, and TRIPS councils, many delegations assign different officials to cover different meetings.
- All WTO members may participate in all councils, etc., except the Appellate Body, dispute settlement panels, textile monitoring body, and plurilateral committees.
- The WTO has a permanent Secretariat based in Geneva, with a staff of around 560 and is headed by the Director-General. It does not have branch offices outside Geneva. Since decisions are taken by the

members themselves, the Secretariat does not have the decision-making role those other international bureaucracies are given.

- The Secretariat's main duties are to extend 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.

6. Principles of the Multilateral Trading System under the WTO:

- For an international business manager, it is difficult to go through the whole of the WTO agreements which are lengthy and complex being legal texts covering a wide range of activities.
- The agreements deal with a wide range of subjects related to international trade, such as agriculture, textiles and clothing, banking, telecommunications, government purchases, industrial standards and product safety, food sanitation regulations, and intellectual property.
- However, a manager dealing in international markets needs to have an understanding of the basic principles of WTO which form the foundation of the multilateral trading system.
- These principles are discussed below:
 - *Trade Without Discrimination:*
 - Under the WTO principles, a country cannot discriminate between its trading partners and products and services of its own and foreign origin.
 - Most-favoured nation treatment:
 - Under WTO agreements, countries cannot normally discriminate between their trading partners. In case a country grants someone a special favour (such as a lower rate of customs for one of their products), then it has to do the same for all other WTO members. The principle is known as Most-favoured nation (MFN) treatment.

- This clause is so important that it is the first article of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which governs trade in goods. MFN is also a priority in the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS, Article 2) and the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS, Article 4), although in each agreement, the principle is handled slightly differently.
- Together, these three agreements cover all three main areas of trade handled by the WTO.
- Some exceptions to the MFN principle are allowed as under:
 - Countries can set up a free trade agreement that applies only to goods traded within the group—discriminating against goods from outside.
 - Countries can provide developing countries special access to their markets.
 - A country can raise barriers against products that are considered to be traded unfairly from specific countries.
 - In services, countries are allowed, in limited circumstances, to discriminate.
- But the agreements only permit these exceptions under strict conditions. In general, MFN means that every time a country lowers a trade barrier or opens up a market, it has to do so for the same goods or services from all its trading partners—whether rich or poor, weak or strong.
- National treatment:
 - The WTO agreements stipulate that imported and locally- produced goods should be treated equally—at least after the foreign goods have entered the market. The same should apply to foreign and domestic services, and to foreign and local trademarks, copyrights and patents.
- This principle of ‘national treatment’ (giving others the same treatment as one’s own nationals) is also found in all the three main WTO agreements, i.e., Article 3 of GATT, Article 17 of GATS, and Article 3 of TRIPS.

- *Gradual Move Towards freer Markets Through Negotiations:*
- Lowering trade barriers is one of the most obvious means of encouraging international trade. Such barrier includes customs duties (or tariffs) and measures, such as import bans or quotas that restrict quantities selectively. Since GATT's creation in 1947-48, there have been eight rounds of trade negotiations. At first these focused on lowering tariffs (customs duties) on imported goods.
- *Increased Predictability of International Business Environment:*
- Sometimes, promising not to raise a trade barrier can be as important as lowering one, because the promise gives businesses a clearer view of their future market opportunities. With stability and predictability, investment is encouraged, jobs are created, and consumers can fully enjoy the benefits of competition—choice and lower prices.
- The multilateral trading system is an attempt by governments to make the business environment stable and predictable.
- *Promoting Fair Competition:*
- The WTO is sometimes described as a 'free trade' institution, but that is not entirely accurate. The system does allow tariffs and, in limited circumstances, other forms of protection. More accurately, it is a system of rules dedicated to open, fair, and undistorted competition.
- The rules on non-discrimination—MFN and national treatment—are designed to secure fair conditions of trade. The WTO has also set rules on dumping and subsidies which adversely affect fair trade. The issues are complex, and the rules try to establish what is fair or unfair, and how governments can respond, in particular by charging additional import duties calculated to compensate for damage caused by unfair trade.

7. Deadlock in WTO Negotiations:

- Despite intensive negotiations, deadlines were missed and negotiations across all areas of the Doha work programme were suspended mainly due to lack of convergence on major issues in agriculture and NAMA in July 2006. Agriculture remains the most contentious issue in the recent Ministerial Conferences, widening the developed- developing country divide.
- Major developed countries continue to give high amount of subsidies to their farmers. Interestingly, developed countries have fulfilled their obligation of reduction in reducible subsidy in technical terms despite increasing the absolute amount of subsidy.
- Besides, the EU and the US continue to give export subsidies as well. Ironically, developed countries are pressurizing developing countries to reduce their tariffs substantially. This poses a threat to the domestic farming sector of developing countries, which has got serious socio-economic and political implications.
- This makes negotiations in agriculture extremely complex. Developed countries, on the other hand, are keen on market access for their industrial products.



Fig. 5.4 Basic issues in the Doha deadlock

8. Ministerial Conferences under World Trade Organization (WTO):

- The highest decision-making body in the WTO is the Ministerial Conference (MC) that has to take place once in two years. Six ministerial conferences have taken place so far and have generated a lot of debate and controversies across the world, as discussed here:
- *Singapore Ministerial Conference:*
- The first MC took place at Singapore during 9-13 December 1996 and reviewed the operations post-WTO. Major developed countries brought in proposals to start negotiations in some new areas, such as investment, competition policy, government procurement, trade facilitation, and labour standards. This evoked a lot of controversy.
- *Geneva Ministerial Conference:*
- The second MC, held at Geneva (Switzerland) during 18-20 May 1998, discussed implementation concerns of developing and least developing countries that led to establishment of a mechanism for evaluation of implementation of individual agreements.
- *Seattle Ministerial Conference:*
- The third MC, held in Seattle (US) from 30 November to 3 December 1999, witnessed dramatic changes in negotiations as the developing countries made intense preparations for the conference unlike in the previous MCs wherein issues brought in by the developed countries were chiefly discussed.
- *Doha Ministerial Conference:*
- The fourth MC held during 9-14 November 2001, at Doha in Qatar further built up the divide between the developed and the developing countries in the WTO. On the one hand, developed countries were keen on formally pushing forward a new round of multilateral trade negotiations, which would include the issues of investment, competition policy, transparency in government procurement, and trade facilitation.

- *Cancun Ministerial Conference:*
- The fifth MC was held in Cancun (Mexico) during 10-14 September 2003 under heightened strain between the major developed and developing countries. Developing countries believed that heavy subsidies on production and exports of agriculture in developed countries had been grievously harming their agriculture which is means of livelihood of their major population unlike in developed countries.
- *The Hong Kong Ministerial Conference:*
- The sixth MC took place in Hong Kong during 13-18 December 2005. It called for conclusions in 2006 of negotiations launched at Doha in 2001 and establishment of targets and time frames in specific areas
- Subsequently, at the General Council meeting held at Geneva on 31 July 2006, an agreement was reached on the framework in order to conduct the negotiations. Preliminary agreements were reached on broad approaches, especially in the areas of agriculture and industrial tariffs.

THANK YOU!

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WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION

The **World Health Organization (WHO)** is a specialized agency of the United Nations responsible for international public health. The WHO Constitution, which establishes the agency's governing structure and principles, states its main objective as "the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health". It is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland, with six semi-autonomous regional offices and 150 field offices worldwide

The WHO was established by constitution on 7 April 1948, which is commemorated as World Health Day. The first meeting of the World Health Assembly



(WHA), the agency's governing body, took place on 24 July 1948. The WHO incorporated the assets, personnel, and duties of the League of Nations' Health Organization and the Office International d'Hygiène Publique, including the International Classification of Diseases (ICD). Its work began in earnest in 1951 following a significant infusion of financial and technical resources

The WHO's broad mandate includes advocating for universal healthcare, monitoring public health risks, coordinating responses to health emergencies, and promoting human health and well being. It provides technical assistance to countries, sets international health standards and guidelines, and collects data on global health issues through the World Health Survey. Its flagship publication, the World Health Report, provides expert assessments of global health topics and health statistics on all nations. The WHO also serves as a forum for summits and discussions on health issues.

The WHO has played a leading role in several public health achievements, most notably the eradication of smallpox, the near-eradication of polio, and the development of an Ebola vaccine. Its current priorities include communicable diseases, particularly HIV/AIDS, Ebola, COVID-19, malaria and tuberculosis; non-communicable diseases such as heart disease and cancer; healthy diet, nutrition, and food security; occupational health; and substance abuse. As part of the United Nations Sustainable Development Group, the WHA, composed of representatives from all 194 member states, serves as the agency's supreme decision-making body. It also elects and advises an executive board made up of 34 health specialists. The WHA convenes annually and is responsible for selecting the director-general, setting goals and priorities, and approving the WHO's budget and activities. The current director-general is Tedros Adhanom, former health minister and foreign minister of Ethiopia, who began his five-year term on 1 July 2017.

The WHO relies on contributions from member states (both assessed and voluntary) and private donors for funding. Its total approved budget for 2020–2021 is over \$7.2 billion, of which the majority comes from voluntary contributions from member states. Contributions are assessed by a formula that includes GDP per capita. Among the largest contributors were Germany (which contributed 12.18% of the budget), the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (11.65%), and the United States (7.85%).

POLICIES AND OBJECTIVES

The WHO's Constitution states that its objective "is the attainment by all people of the highest possible level of health.

The WHO fulfills this objective through its functions as defined in its Constitution: To act as the directing and coordinating authority on international health work; To establish and maintain effective collaboration with the United Nations, specialized agencies, governmental health administrations, professional groups and such other organizations as may be deemed appropriate; To assist Governments, upon request, in strengthening health services; To furnish appropriate technical assistance and, in emergencies, necessary aid upon the request or acceptance of Governments; To provide or assist in providing, upon the request of the United Nations, health services and facilities to special groups, such as the peoples of trust territories; To establish and maintain such administrative and technical services as may be required, including epidemiological and

statistical services; to stimulate and advance work to eradicate epidemic, endemic and other diseases; To promote, in co-operation with other specialized agencies where necessary, the prevention of accidental injuries; To promote, in co-operation with other specialized agencies where necessary, the improvement of nutrition, housing, sanitation, recreation, economic or working conditions and other aspects of environmental hygiene; To promote co-operation among scientific and professional groups which contribute to the advancement of health; To propose conventions, agreements and regulations, and make recommendations with respect to international health matters and to perform.

As of 2012, the WHO has defined its role in public health as follows:

- providing leadership on matters critical to health and engaging in partnerships where joint action is needed;
- shaping the research agenda and stimulating the generation, translation, and dissemination of valuable knowledge;
- setting norms and standards and promoting and monitoring their implementation;

- articulating ethical and evidence-based policy options;
- providing technical support, catalysing change, and building sustainable institutional capacity; and
- monitoring the health situation and assessing health trends.
- CRVS (civil registration and vital statistics) to provide monitoring of vital events (birth, death, wedding, divorce).

MEMBERSHIP



As of January 2021, the WHO has 194 member states: all member states of the United Nations except for Liechtenstein (192 countries), plus the Cook Islands and Niue. A state becomes a full member of WHO by ratifying the treaty known as the Constitution of the World Health Organization. As of May 2019 and January 2021, it also had two associate members, Puerto Rico and Tokelau. The WHO two-year budget for 2022–2023 is paid by its 194 members and 2 associate members. Several other countries have been granted observer status. Palestine is an observer as a "national

liberation movement" recognized by the League of Arab States under United Nations Resolution 3118. The Holy See also attends as an observer, as does the Order of Malta. The government of Taiwan was allowed to participate under the designation "Chinese Taipei" as an observer from 2009 to 2016, but has not been invited again since.

In July 2020, former United States President Donald Trump officially indicated his intent to withdraw the United States, to take effect on 6 July 2021. However, it was afterwards acknowledged that the law which entered the United States into WHO in 1948 requires the United States Congress to approve the funds needed to formally withdraw. Following the election of Joe Biden as President in November 2020, the United States will remain a member of the WHO due to an executive order signed by Biden which stopped the withdrawal. Given the lengthy withdrawal process required, efforts to leave the WHO were not completed before Biden's inauguration in January 2021.

WHO member states appoint delegations to the World Health Assembly, the WHO's supreme decision-making body. All UN member states are

eligible for WHO membership, and, according to the WHO website, "other countries may be admitted as members when their application has been approved by a simple majority vote of the World Health Assembly" The World Health Assembly is attended by delegations from all member states, and determines the policies of the organization.

The executive board is composed of members technically qualified in health and gives effect to the decisions and policies of the World Health Assembly. In addition, the UN observer organizations International Committee of the Red Cross and International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies have entered into "official relations" with WHO and are invited as observers. In the World Health Assembly, they are seated alongside the other NGOs

WORLD HEALTH ASSEMBLY & EXECUTIVE BOARD



The World Health Assembly (WHA) is the legislative and supreme body of WHO. Based in Geneva, it typically meets yearly in May. It appoints the director-general every five years and votes on matters of policy and finance of WHO, including the proposed budget. It also reviews reports of the executive board and decides whether there are areas of work requiring further examination. The Assembly elects 34 members, technically qualified in the field

of health, to the executive board for three-year terms. The main functions of the board are to carry out the decisions and policies of the Assembly, to advise it and to facilitate its work

As of May 2020, the chairman of the executive board is Dr. Harsh Vardhan.

EMPLOYEES

The WHO employs 7,000 people in 149 countries and regions to carry out its principles. In support of the principle of a tobacco-free work environment, the WHO does not recruit cigarette smokers. The organization has previously instigated the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in 2003.

COUNTRY AND LIAISON

OFFICES

The World Health Organization operates 150 country offices in six different regions. It also operates several liaison offices, including those with the European Union, United Nations and a single office covering the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. It also operates the International Agency for Research on Cancer in Lyon, France, and the WHO Centre for Health Development in Kobe, Japan. Additional offices include those in Pristina; the West Bank and Gaza; the US-Mexico Border Field Office in El Paso; the Office of the Caribbean Program Coordination in Barbados; and the Northern Micronesia office. There will generally be one WHO country office in the capital, occasionally accompanied by satellite-offices in the provinces or sub-regions of the country in question.

The country office is headed by a WHO Representative (WR). As of 2010, the only WHO Representative outside Europe to be a national of that country was for the Libyan Arab

Jamahiriya ("Libya"); all other staff were international. WHO Representatives in the Region termed the Americas are referred to as PAHO/WHO Representatives. In Europe, WHO Representatives also serve as head of country office, and are nationals with the exception of Serbia; there are also heads of country office in Albania, the Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkey, and Uzbekistan The WR is member of the UN system country team which is coordinated by the UN System Resident Coordinator.

The country office consists of the WR, and several health and other experts, both foreign and local, as well as the necessary support staff The main functions of WHO country offices include being the primary adviser of that country's government in matters of health and pharmaceutical policies

RESPONSE TO COVID-19

The WHO created an Incident Management Support Team on 1 January 2020, one day after Chinese health authorities notified the organization of a cluster of pneumonia cases of unknown etiology. On 5 January the WHO notified all member states of the outbreak and in subsequent days provided guidance to all countries on how to respond and confirmed the first infection outside China. The organization warned of limited human-to-human transmission on 14 January, and confirmed human-to-human transmission one week later. On 30 January the WHO declared a Public Health Emergency of International Concern (PHEIC) considered a "call to action" and "last resort" measure for the international community and a pandemic on 11 March. The WHO's recommendations were followed by many countries including Germany, Singapore and South Korea, but not by the United States. The WHO subsequently established a program to deliver

testing, protective, and medical supplies to low-income countries to help them manage the crisis. While organizing the global response to the COVID-19 pandemic and overseeing "more than 35 emergency operations" for cholera, measles and other epidemics internationally, the WHO has been criticized for praising China's public health response to the crisis while seeking to maintain a "diplomatic balancing act" between the United States and China. Commentators including John Mackenzie of the WHO's emergency committee and Anne Schuchat of the US CDC have stated that China's official tally of cases and deaths may be an underestimation. David Heymann, professor of infectious disease epidemiology at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, said in response that "China has been very transparent and open in sharing its data... and they opened up all of their files with the WHO."

The WHO faced criticism from the United States' Trump administration while "guid[ing] the world in how to tackle the deadly" COVID-19 pandemic. On 14 April 2020, United States President Donald Trump pledged to halt United

States funding to the WHO while reviewing its role in "severely mismanaging and covering up the spread of the coronavirus. The United States had paid half of its annual assessed fees to the WHO as of 31 March 2020; it would ordinarily pay its remaining fees in September 2020. World leaders and health experts largely condemned President Trump's announcement, which came amid criticism of his response to the outbreak in the United States. WHO called the announcement "regrettable" and defended its actions in alerting the world to the emergence of COVID-19. Trump critics also said that such a suspension would be illegal, though legal experts speaking to Politifact said its legality could depend on the particular way in which the suspension was executed. On 8 May 2020, the United States blocked a vote on a U.N. Security Council resolution aimed at promoting nonviolent international cooperation during the pandemic, and mentioning the WHO. On 18 May 2020, Trump threatened to permanently terminate all American funding of WHO and consider ending U.S. membership. On 29 May 2020, President Trump announced plans to withdraw the U.S. from the

WHO, though it was unclear whether he had the authority to do so. On 7 July 2020, President Trump formally notified the UN of his intent to withdraw the United States from the WHO. However, President Joe Biden canceled the planned withdrawal and announced that the U.S. would resume funding the organization.

International Relations Assignment

UNICEF

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What is UNICEF?

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), originally known as the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, was created by the United Nations General Assembly on 11 December 1946, to provide emergency food and healthcare to children and mothers in countries that had been devastated by World War II. In 1950, UNICEF's mandate was extended to address the long-term needs of children and women in developing countries everywhere. In 1953 it became a permanent part of the United Nations System, and the words "international" and "emergency" were dropped from the organization's name, though it retained the original acronym, "UNICEF".

About UNICEF

UNICEF was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1965. It is headquartered in New York City.

UNICEF has concentrated much of its effort in areas in which relatively small expenditures can have a significant impact on the lives of the most disadvantaged children, such as the prevention and treatment of disease. In keeping with this strategy, UNICEF supports immunization programs for childhood diseases and programs to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS; it also provides funding for health services, educational facilities, and other welfare services. Since 1996 UNICEF programs have been guided by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which affirms the right of all children to “the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health and to facilities for the treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health.” UNICEF’s activities are financed by both government and private contributions.

UNICEF works in over 190 countries and territories to save children's lives, to defend their rights, and to help them fulfil their potential, from early childhood through adolescence.

UNICEF National Committee

There are national committees in 36 developed countries, each established as an independent local non-governmental organization. Their primary function is to raise funds from the private sector, as UNICEF is entirely dependent on voluntary contributions. National committees collectively account for about one-third of the agency's annual income, including from corporations, civil society organizations, around six million individual donors worldwide.

Promotion and Fundraising

In the United States, Nepal and some other countries, UNICEF is known for its "Trick-Or-Treat for UNICEF" program in which children collect money for UNICEF from the houses they trick-or-treat on Halloween night, sometimes instead of candy. The program was discontinued in Canada in 2006.^[16]

UNICEF is present in 191 countries and territories around the world, but not involved in nine others

(Bahamas, Brunei, Cyprus, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Malta, Mauritius, Monaco, Singapore, and Taiwan).^[17]

Many people in developed countries first hear about UNICEF's work through the activities of one of the 36 national committees for UNICEF.

These non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are primarily responsible for fundraising, selling UNICEF greeting cards and products, creating private and public partnerships, advocating for children's rights, and providing other support. The US Fund for UNICEF is the oldest of the national committees, founded in 1947.^[18]

On 19 April 2007, Grand Duchess Maria Teresa of Luxembourg was appointed UNICEF Eminent Advocate for Children,^[19] in which role she has visited Brazil (2007),^[20] China (2008),^[21] and Burundi (2009).^[22]

In 2009, the British retailer Tesco used "Change for Good" as advertising, which is trademarked by UNICEF for charity usage but not for commercial or retail use. This prompted the agency to say, "it is the first time in Unicef's history that a commercial entity has purposely set out to capitalize on one of our campaigns and subsequently damage an income stream which several of our programs for children are dependent on". They went on to

call on the public "who have children's welfare at heart, to consider carefully who they support when making consumer choices".^{[23][24]} "Change for Good" is also supported by Australian airline Qantas, relying on passengers to fundraise via a given envelope since 1991, and has raised over \$36 million, with over 19,500 kg of coins every year.^[25] Frequent flyers can also redeem their mile points to donate.^[26] Norman Gillespie, UNICEF Australia's chief executive, said "If every Qantas passenger traveling domestically gave us just a few of their forgotten coins each time they traveled it would make little difference to their day, but a world of difference in saving children's lives.

Governance

UNICEF relies on country offices to help carry out its work through a unique program of cooperation developed with the host government. The programs last five years and seek to develop practical strategies for fulfilling and protecting the rights of children and women. Regional offices guide this work and provide technical assistance to country offices as needed. Overall management and administration of the organization take place at its headquarters in New York City.

Guiding and monitoring all of UNICEF's work is an executive board made up of 36 members who are government representatives. The board establishes policies, approves programs and decides on administrative and financial plans and budgets. Its work is coordinated by the bureau, comprising the president and four vice-presidents, each officer representing one of the five regional groups. These five officers are elected by the executive board annually from among its members, with the presidency rotating among the regional groups on an annual basis. As a matter of custom, permanent members of the Security Council do not serve as officers of the executive board.

The office of the secretary of the executive board helps maintain an effective relationship between the executive board and the UNICEF secretariat, and organizes field visits by board members.

Who are some of UNICEF's celebrity Goodwill

Ambassadors?

UNICEF's celebrity Goodwill Ambassadors initiative began in 1954 with American actor Danny Kaye, and international ambassadors since then have included Audrey Hepburn, Amitabh Bachchan, Serena Williams, and Shakira.

Facilities

UNICEF World Warehouse

The old UNICEF World Warehouse is a large facility in Denmark, which hosts UNICEF deliverable goods as well as co-hosts emergency goods for United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC). Until 2012 the facilities was a 25,000m² warehouse at Marmormolen in Copenhagen. With construction of a 45,000m² UN City that is to house all UN activities in Copenhagen under one roof,^[51] the warehouse service has been relocated to outer parts of the Freeport of Copenhagen. The facility houses the UNICEF Supply Division which manages strategic hubs in Dubai, Douala, and Colón.^[8] The warehouse contains a variety of items, e.g., food supplements, water purification tablets, dietary and vitamin supplements, and the "School in a box" (illustrated above).

UNICEF Innocent Research Centre

The UNICEF Innocent Research Centre in Florence, Italy, was established in 1988. The centre, formally known as the International Child Development Centres, has as its prime objectives to improve international understanding of issues relating to children's rights, to promote economic policies that advance the cause of children, and to help facilitate the full implementation of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child in industrialized and developing countries.

The program for 2006–2008 was approved by UNICEF Executive Board in September 2005.

It reaffirms the centre's academic freedom and the focus of IRC's research on knowledge gaps, emerging questions and sensitive issues which are relevant to the realization of children's rights, in developing and industrialized countries. It capitalizes on IRC's role as an interface between UNICEF field experience, international experts, research networks and policy makers and is designed to strengthen the centre's institutional collaboration with regional academic and policy institutions, pursuing the following goals:

- Generation and communication of strategic and influential knowledge on issues affecting children and the realization of their rights;
- Knowledge exchange and brokering;
- Support to UNICEF's advocacy, policy's and program development in support of the Millennium Agenda
- Securing and strengthening the centre's institutional and financial basis.

Three interrelated strategies guide the achievement of these goals:

- Evidence-based analysis drawing on quantitative and qualitative information, the application of appropriate methodologies, and the development of recommendations to assess and inform advocacy and policy action.
- Enhanced partnerships with research and policy institutions and development actors, globally and at regional level, in developing and industrialized countries.
- Communication and leveraging of research findings and recommendations to support policy development and advocacy initiatives through strategic dissemination of studies and contribution to relevant events and fora

Position on ethical theme

UNICEF's programmatic objectives include the promotion of safe abortions and education in family planning and in the use of contraception.

In a joint declaration of 2011, UNICEF argued the need to combat the spread of selective abortion, through plans that favored, inter alia, the use of safe abortion services and family planning programs in order to decrease the use of abortion.

In 2013, together with WHO, it published an integrated plan of guidelines for the prevention of infant mortality caused by pneumonia and diarrhea, including, among the recommended strategies for promoting the health of women and children, access to safe abortion.

UNICEF has adopted the ABC strategy ("**a**bstinence, **b**e faithful and consistent **c**ondom use") promoted in various international AIDS prevention interventions. The strategy was later updated as the "**ABC to Z** model", to include **D**elaying and **V**oluntary **C**ounseling & **T**esting.

In 1996 the Vatican withdrew its symbolic contribution to UNICEF on the occasion of the publication by UNICEF of a manual on emergency operations for refugee populations which supported the spread of emergency contraceptive practices.

Despite this, on several occasions senior UNICEF officials have denied that the organization promoted abortion or family planning methods.

UNICEF also supports the adoption by states of laws that guarantee LGBT couples and their children the legal recognition of their status, as these rules would help ensure the best interests of children.

Controversies

Adoption program

UNICEF has a policy preferring orphanages only be used as temporary accommodation for children when there is no alternative. UNICEF has historically opposed the creation of large-scale, permanent orphanages for children, preferring instead to find children places in their (extended) families and communities, wherever possible. This has led UNICEF to be skeptical of international adoption efforts as a solution to child care problems in developing countries; UNICEF has preferred to see children cared for in their birth countries rather than be adopted by foreign parents.

A 2015 article in *U.S. News & World Report* magazine asserted UNICEF's intervention that on giving large cash payments to developing countries can lead to a cessation of international adoptions until all of its recommendations are in place, and have even labelled UNICEF a "villain" for the extent of its negative impact on orphans. Elizabeth Bartholet and Paulo Barrozo have written in this context, encouraging adoption protocols to take on a more child-centric viewpoint.^[*citation needed*]

Child mortality

One concern is that the child mortality rate has not decreased in some areas as rapidly as had been planned, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, where in 2013 "the region still has the highest child mortality rate: 92 deaths per 1000 live births".^[69] and that "Globally, nearly half of under-five deaths are attributable to undernutrition."

In 2005, Richard Horton editor-in-chief of *The Lancet*, editorialized that "over 60% of these deaths were and remain preventable" and that the coverage levels for these interventions are "appallingly low in the 42 countries that account for 90% of child deaths".

A \$27 million UNICEF program in West Africa in 2001–2005 which was meant to decrease child deaths from disease has been deemed a failure, according to a study that found higher survival rates of children in some regions that weren't included in that program.

Critics argue that UNICEF's focus on rights rather than safety and survival is idealistic, and that by focusing on politicized children's rights instead of mere child survival, UNICEF has contributed indirectly to the child mortality crisis.

NSA surveillance

Documents released by Edward Snowden in December 2013 showed that "UNICEF" was among the surveillance targets of British and American intelligence agencies.

Funding of UK food charities

In December 2020 UNICEF made funding available to feed children in UK for first time as part of its Food Power for Generation COVID initiative. UNICEF pledged £25,000 to School Food Matters a south London charity, to help feed children over the Christmas holidays. A partnership of Devon charities had also been given £24,000 to help feed 120 families over the winter of 2020. UNICEF said it was helping children in the UK because of an increase in food poverty in Britain, caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. It estimates there are children going hungry in a fifth of households. Anna Kettley, from UNICEF said "We are one of the richest countries in the world and we should not have to be relying on food banks or food aid." Labour MP Zarah Sultana in the House of Commons said, "For the first time ever, UNICEF, the UN agency responsible for providing humanitarian aid to children, is having to feed working-class kids

in the UK but while children go hungry, a wealthy few enjoy obscene riches." In response, Jacob Rees-Mogg, Tory MP and Leader of the House of Commons said, "I think it is a real scandal that UNICEF should be playing politics in this way when it is meant to be looking after people in the poorest, the most deprived, countries of the world where people are starving, where there are famines and where there are civil wars, and they make cheap political points of this kind, giving, I think, 25,000 to one council. It is a political stunt of the lowest order. UNICEF should be ashamed of itself." Chris Forster, from Transforming Plymouth Together, one of the Devon charities to benefit from UNICEF donations, said, "We had one family as part of the deliveries last week literally in tears with gratitude because their cupboard was bare." One unidentified Plymouth mum-of-three said: "I obviously would never see my children go without so there have been two or three days where I just haven't eaten at all.

The Scottish National Party MP, Tommy Sheppard said, "It is astonishing that these comments are coming from the same government that had to be publicly shamed into following Scotland's lead and providing free school meals for children over the holidays." LBC reported that the UN humanitarian aid agency are providing over £700,000 to feed hungry children in the UK.

International Trade Assignment

International trade is the exchange of capital, goods, and services across international borders or territories because there is a need or want of goods or services.

In most countries, such trade represents a significant share of gross domestic product (GDP). While international trade has existed throughout history (for example Uttara Atha, Silk Road, Amber Road, scramble for Africa, Atlantic slave trade, salt roads), its economic, social, and political importance has been on the rise in recent centuries.

Carrying out trade at an international level is a complex process when compared to domestic trade. When trade takes place between two or more states factors like currency, government policies, economy, judicial system, laws, and markets influence trade.

To smoothen and justify the process of trade between countries of different economic standing, some international economic organisations were formed, such as the World Trade Organization. These organisations work towards the facilitation and growth of international trade. Statistical services of intergovernmental and supranational organisations and governmental statistical agencies publish official statistics on international trade.

Characteristics of global trade

A product that is transferred or sold from a party in one country to a party in another country is an export from the originating country, and an import to the country receiving that product. Imports and exports are accounted for in a country's current account in the balance of payments.

Trading globally may give consumers and countries the opportunity to be exposed to new markets and products. Almost every kind of product can be found in the international market, for example: food, clothes, spare parts, oil, jewellery, wine, stocks, currencies, and water. Services are also traded, such as in tourism, banking, consulting, and transportation.



Ancient Silk Road trade routes across Eurasia

Advanced technology (including transportation), globalisation, industrialisation, outsourcing and multinational corporations have major impacts on the international trade system.

Increasing international trade is crucial to the continuance of globalisation. Countries would be limited to the goods and services produced within their own borders without international trade. International trade benefits many countries in various aspects.

Differences from domestic trade

In practical terms, carrying out trade at an international level is typically a more complex process than domestic trade. The main difference is that international trade is typically more costly than domestic trade. This is due to the fact that a border typically imposes additional costs such as tariffs, time costs due to border delays, and costs associated with country differences such as language, the legal system, or culture (non-tariff barriers).

Another difference between domestic and international trade is that factors of production such as capital and labour are often more mobile within a country than across countries. Thus, international trade is mostly restricted to trade in goods and services, and only to a lesser extent to trade in capital, labour, or other factors of production. Trade in goods and services can serve as a substitute for trade in factors of production. Instead of importing a factor of production, a country can import goods that make intensive use of that factor of production and thus embody it. An example of this is the import of labour-intensive goods by the United States from China. Instead of importing Chinese labour, the United States imports goods that were produced with Chinese labour. One report in 2010, suggested that international trade was increased when a country hosted a network of immigrants, but the trade effect was weakened when the immigrants became assimilated into their new country.



Ports play an important role in facilitating international trade. The Port of New York and New Jersey grew from the original harbour at the convergence of the Hudson River and the East River at the Upper New York Bay.

Largest countries by total international trade

Rank	State	International trade of goods (billions of USD)	International trade of services (billions of USD)	Total international trade of goods and services (billions of USD)
-	<i>World</i>	32,430	9,635	42,065
-	 <i>European Union</i>	3,821	1,604	5,425
1	 United States	3,706	1,215	4,921
2	 China	3,686	656	4,342
3	 Germany	2,626	740	3,366
4	 United Kingdom	1,066	571	1,637

Rank	State	International trade of goods (billions of USD)	International trade of services (billions of USD)	Total international trade of goods and services (billions of USD)
5	 Japan	1,250	350	1,600

Top traded commodities by value (exports)

Rank	Commodity	Value in US\$('000)	Date of information
1	Mineral fuels, oils, distillation products, etc.	\$2,183,079,941	2015
2	Electrical, electronic equipment	\$1,833,534,414	2015
3	Machinery, nuclear reactors, boilers, etc.	\$1,763,371,813	2015
4	Vehicles (excluding railway)	\$1,076,830,856	2015
5	Plastics and articles thereof	\$470,226,676	2015

International trade versus local production

Local food

In the case of food production trade-offs in forms of local food and distant food production are controversial with limited studies comparing environmental impact and scientists cautioning that regionally specific environmental impacts should be considered. Effects of local food on greenhouse gas emissions may vary per origin and target region of the production. A 2020 study indicated that local food crop production alone cannot meet the demand for most food crops with "current production and consumption patterns" and the locations of food production *at the time of the study* for 72–89% of the global population and 100–km radiuses as of early 2020

Qualitative differences and economic aspects

Qualitative differences between substitutive products of different production regions may exist due to different legal requirements and quality standards or different levels of controllability by local production- and governance-systems which may have aspects of security beyond resource security, environmental protection, product quality and product design and health. The process of transforming supply as well as labour rights may differ as well.

Local production has been reported to increase local employment in many cases. A 2018 study claimed that international trade can increase local employment. A 2016 study found that local employment and total labour income in both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing were negatively affected by rising exposure to imports.

Local production in high-income countries, rather than distant regions may require higher wages for workers. Higher wages incentivize automation which could allow for automated workers' time to be reallocated by society and its economic mechanisms or be converted into leisure-like time.

Specialization, production efficiency and regional differences

Local production may require knowledge transfer, technology transfer and may not be able to compete in efficiency initially with specialized, established industries and businesses, or in consumer demand without policy measures such as eco-tariffs. Regional differences may cause specific regions to be more suitable for specific production, thereby increasing advantages of specific trade over specific local production. Forms of local production that are highly localized may not be able to meet the efficiency of more large-scale, highly consolidated production in terms of efficiency, including of environmental impact. [citation needed]

Resource security

A systematic, and possibly first large-scale, cross-sectoral analysis of water, energy and land in security in 189 countries that links total and sectorial consumption to sources showed that countries and sectors are highly exposed to over-exploited, insecure, and degraded such resources with economic globalization having decreased security of global supply chains. The 2020 study finds that most countries exhibit greater exposure to resource risks via international trade – mainly from remote production sources – and that diversifying trading partners is unlikely to help countries and sectors to reduce these or to improve their resource self-sufficiency.

World Trade Organization

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is an intergovernmental organization that regulates and facilitates international trade between nations. It officially commenced operations on 1 January 1995, pursuant to the 1994 Marrakesh Agreement, thus replacing the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) that had been established in 1948. The WTO is the world's largest international economic organization, with 164 member states representing over 96% of global trade and global GDP.

The WTO facilitates trade in goods, services and intellectual property among participating countries by providing a framework for negotiating trade agreements, which usually aim to reduce or eliminate tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions; these agreements are signed by representatives of member governments fol. 9–10 and ratified by their legislatures. The WTO also administers independent dispute resolution for enforcing participants' adherence to trade agreements and resolving trade-related disputes. The organization prohibits discrimination

between trading partners, but provides exceptions for environmental protection, national



security, and other important goals.

The WTO is **headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland**. Its top decision-making body is the Ministerial Conference, which is composed of all member states and usually convenes biannually; consensus is emphasized in all decisions. Day-to-day functions are handled by the General Council, made up of representatives from all members.¹ A Secretariat of over 600 personnel, led by the Director-General and four deputies, provides administrative, professional, and technical services. The WTO's annual budget is roughly 220 million USD, which is contributed by members based on their proportion of international trade.

Studies show the WTO has boosted trade and reduced trade barriers. It has also influenced trade agreement generally; a 2017 analysis found that the vast majority of preferential trade agreements (PTAs) up to that point explicitly reference the WTO, with substantial portions of text copied from WTO agreements. Goal 10 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals also referenced WTO agreements as instruments of reducing inequality.² However, critics contend that the benefits of WTO-facilitated free trade are not shared equally, citing the outcomes of negotiations and data showing a continually widening gap between rich and poor nations.

History

The WTO precursor General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), was established by a multilateral treaty of 23 countries in 1947 after World War II in the wake of other new multilateral institutions dedicated to international economic cooperation—such as the World Bank (founded 1944) and the International Monetary Fund (founded 1944 or 1945).

Functions

Among the various functions of the WTO, these are regarded by analysts as the most important:

- It oversees the implementation, administration and operation of the covered agreements (with the exception is that it does not enforce any agreements when China came into the WTO in Dec 2001)
- It provides a forum for negotiations and for settling disputes.

Additionally, it is WTO's duty to review and propagate the national trade policies and to ensure the coherence and transparency of trade policies through surveillance in global economic policy-making. Another priority of the WTO is the assistance of developing, least-developed and low-income countries in transition to adjust to WTO rules and disciplines through technical cooperation and training.³

1. The WTO shall facilitate the implementation, administration, and operation and further the objectives of this Agreement and the Multilateral Trade Agreements, and shall also provide the framework for the implementation, administration, and operation of the multilateral Trade Agreements.
2. The WTO shall provide the forum for negotiations among its members concerning their multilateral trade relations in matters dealt with under the Agreement in the Annexes to this Agreement.

3. The WTO shall administer the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes.
4. The WTO shall administer a Trade Policy Review Mechanism.
5. to achieve greater coherence in global economic policymaking, the WTO shall cooperate, as appropriate, with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and its affiliated agencies.

Principles of the trading system

The WTO establishes a framework for trade policies; it does not define or specify outcomes. That is, it is concerned with setting the rules of "trade policy." Five principles are of particular importance in understanding both the pre-1994 GATT and the WTO:

1. **Non-discrimination.** It has two major components: the most favoured nation (MFN) rule and the national treatment policy. Both are embedded in the main WTO rules on goods, services, and intellectual property, but their precise scope and nature differ across these areas. The MFN rule requires that a WTO member must apply the same conditions on all trade with other WTO members, i.e., a WTO member has to grant the most favourable conditions under which it allows trade in a certain product type to all other WTO members. "Grant someone a special favour and you have to do the same for all other WTO members. National treatment means that imported goods should be treated no less favourably than domestically produced goods (at least after the foreign goods have entered the market) and was introduced to tackle non-tariff barriers to trade (e.g. technical standards, security standards et al. discriminating against imported goods).
2. **Reciprocity.** It reflects both a desire to limit the scope of free-riding that may arise because of the MFN rule and a desire to obtain better access to foreign markets. A related point is that for a nation to negotiate, it is necessary that the gain from doing so be greater than the gain available from unilateral liberalization; reciprocal concessions intend to ensure that such gains will materialize.
3. **Binding and enforceable commitments.** The tariff commitments made by WTO members in multilateral trade negotiation and on accession are enumerated in a schedule (list) of concessions. These schedules establish "ceiling bindings": a country can change its bindings, but only after negotiating with its trading partners, which could mean compensating them for loss of trade. If satisfaction is not obtained, the complaining country may invoke the WTO dispute settlement procedures.
4. **Transparency.** The WTO members are required to publish their trade regulations, to maintain institutions allowing for the review of administrative decisions affecting trade, to respond to requests for information by other members, and to notify changes in trade policies to the WTO. These internal transparency requirements are supplemented and facilitated by periodic country-specific reports (trade policy reviews) through the Trade Policy Review Mechanism (TPRM). The WTO system tries also to improve predictability and stability, discouraging the use of quotas and other measures used to set limits on quantities of imports.¹
5. **Safety values.** In specific circumstances, governments are able to restrict trade. The WTO's agreements permit members to take measures to protect not only the environment but also public health, animal health and plant health.

There are three types of provision in this direction:

1. articles allowing for the use of trade measures to attain non-economic objectives;
2. articles aimed at ensuring "fair competition"; members must not use environmental protection measures as a means of disguising protectionist policies.
3. provisions permitting intervention in trade for economic reasons.

Organizational structure

- The General Council
- The Dispute Settlement Body
- The Trade Policy Review Body

The General Council, whose Chair as of 2020 is David Walker of New Zealand has the following subsidiary bodies which oversee committees in different areas:

Council for Trade in Goods

There are 11 committees under the jurisdiction of the Goods Council each with a specific task. All members of the WTO participate in the committees. The Textiles Monitoring Body is separate from the other committees but still under the jurisdiction of the Goods Council. The body has its chairman and only 10 members. The body also has several groups relating to textiles.

Council for Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights

Information on intellectual property in the WTO, news and official records of the activities of the TRIPS Council, and details of the WTO's work with other international organizations in the field.

Council for Trade in Services

The Council for Trade in Services operates under the guidance of the General Council and is responsible for overseeing the functioning of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). It is open to all WTO members and can create subsidiary bodies as required.

Trade Negotiations Committee

The Trade Negotiations Committee (TNC) is the committee that deals with the current trade talks round. The chair is WTO's director-general. As of June 2012, the committee was tasked with the Doha Development Round.

The Service Council has three subsidiary bodies: financial services, domestic regulations, GATS rules, and specific commitments. The council has several different committees, working groups, and working parties. There are committees on the following: Trade and Environment; Trade and Development (Subcommittee on Least-Developed Countries); Regional Trade Agreements; Balance of Payments Restrictions; and Budget, Finance and Administration. There are working parties on the following: Accession. There are working groups on the following: Trade, debt and finance; and Trade and technology transfer.

As of 31 December 2019, the number of WTO staff on a regular budget is 338 women and 285 men

Decision-making

The WTO describes itself as "a rules-based, member-driven organization—all decisions are made by the member governments, and the rules are the outcome of negotiations among members". The WTO Agreement foresees votes where consensus cannot be reached, but the practice of consensus dominates the process of decision-making.

Richard Harold Steinberg (2002) argues that although the WTO's consensus governance model provides law-based initial bargaining, trading rounds close through power-based bargaining favouring Europe and the U.S., and may not lead to Pareto improvement.

Dispute settlement

The WTO's dispute-settlement system "is the result of the evolution of rules, procedures and practices developed over almost half a century under the GATT 1947". In 1994, the WTO members agreed on the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes (DSU) annexed to the "Final Act" signed in Marrakesh in 1994. Dispute settlement is regarded by the WTO as the central pillar of the multilateral trading system, and as a "unique contribution to the stability of the global economy". WTO members have agreed that, if they believe fellow-members are violating trade rules, they will use the multilateral system of settling disputes instead of taking action unilaterally.

The operation of the WTO dispute settlement process involves case-specific panels appointed by the Dispute Settlement Body (DSB), the Appellate Body, The Director-General and the WTO Secretariat, arbitrators, and advisory experts.

However, the dispute settlement system cannot be used to resolve trade disputes that arise from political disagreements. When Qatar requested the establishment of a dispute panel concerning measures imposed by the UAE, other GCC countries and the US were quick to dismiss its request as a political matter, stating that national security issues were political and not appropriate for the WTO dispute system

Accession and membership

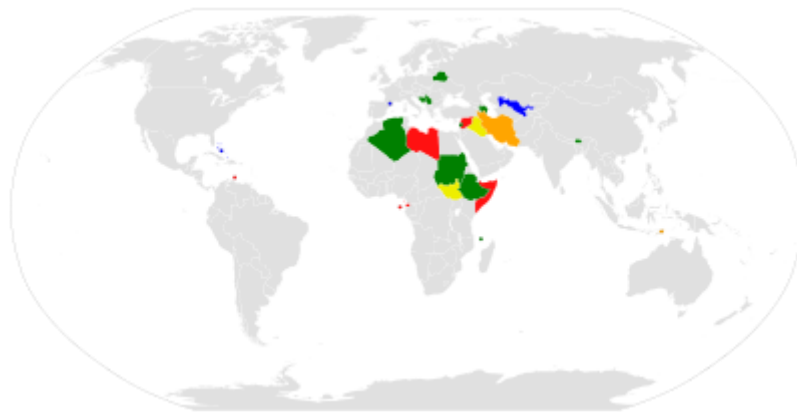
The process of becoming a WTO member is unique to each applicant country, and the terms of accession are dependent upon the country's stage of economic development and the current trade regime. The process takes about five years, on average, but it can last longer if the country is less than fully committed to the process or if political issues interfere. The shortest accession negotiation was that of the Kyrgyz Republic, while the longest was that of Russia, which, having first applied to join GATT in 1993, was approved for membership in December 2011 and became a WTO member on 22 August 2012.

Accession process

A country wishing to accede to the WTO submits an application to the General Council, and has to describe all aspects of its trade and economic policies that have a bearing on WTO agreements. The application is submitted to the WTO in a memorandum which is examined by a working party open to all interested WTO Members

After all necessary background information has been acquired, the working party focuses on issues of discrepancy between the WTO rules and the applicant's international and domestic trade policies and laws. The working party determines the terms and conditions of entry into the WTO for the applicant nation and may consider transitional periods to allow countries some leeway in complying with the WTO rules.

The final phase of accession involves bilateral negotiations between the applicant nation and other working party members regarding the concessions and commitments on tariff levels and market access for goods and services. The new member's commitments are to apply equally to all WTO members under normal non-discrimination rules, even though they are negotiated bilaterally. For instance, as a result of joining the WTO, Armenia offered a 15 per cent ceiling bound tariff rate on accessing its market for goods.



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WTO accession progress:

- Draft Working Party Report or Factual Summary adopted
- Goods or Services offers submitted
- Working party meetings
- Memorandum on Foreign Trade Regime submitted
- Working party established

Members and observers

The WTO has 164 members and 25 observer governments. Liberia became the 163rd member on 14 July 2016, and Afghanistan became the 164th member on 29 July 2016. In addition to states, the European Union, and each EU country in its own right,¹ is a member. WTO members do not have to be fully independent states; they need only be a customs territory with full autonomy in the conduct of their external commercial relations. Thus, Hong Kong has been a member since 1995 (as "Hong Kong, China" since 1997) predating the People's Republic of China, which joined in 2001 after 15 years of negotiations. Taiwan acceded to the WTO in 2002 as the "Separate Customs Territory of Taiwan, Penghu, Kinmen and Matsu." The WTO Secretariat omits the official titles (such as Counsellor, First Secretary, Second Secretary and Third Secretary) of the members of Taiwan's Permanent Mission to the WTO, except for the titles of the Permanent Representative and the Deputy Permanent Representative.

As of 2007, WTO member states represented 96.4% of global trade and 96.7% of global GDP. Iran, followed by Algeria, are the economies with the largest GDP and trade outside the

WTO, using 2005 data. With the exception of the Holy See, observers must start accession negotiations within five years of becoming observers. A number of international intergovernmental organizations have also been granted observer status to WTO bodies. Ten UN members have no affiliation with the WTO.

Agreements

The WTO oversees about 60 different agreements which have the status of international legal texts. Member countries must sign and ratify all WTO agreements on accession. A discussion of some of the most important agreements follows.

The Agreement on Agriculture came into effect with the establishment of the WTO at the beginning of 1995. The AoA has three central concepts, or "pillars": domestic support, market access and export subsidies.

The General Agreement on Trade in Services was created to extend the multilateral trading system to service sector, in the same way as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) provided such a system for merchandise trade. The agreement entered into force in January 1995.

The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights sets down minimum standards for many forms of intellectual property (IP) regulation. It was negotiated at the end of the Uruguay Round of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) in 1994.

The Agreement on the Application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures—also known as the SPS Agreement—was negotiated during the Uruguay Round of GATT, and entered into force with the establishment of the WTO at the beginning of 1995. Under the SPS agreement, the WTO sets constraints on members' policies relating to food safety (bacterial contaminants, pesticides, inspection, and labelling) as well as animal and plant health (imported pests and diseases).

The Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade is an international treaty of the World Trade Organization. It was negotiated during the Uruguay Round of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade and entered into force with the establishment of the WTO at the end of 1994. The object ensures that technical negotiations and standards, as well as testing and certification procedures, do not create unnecessary obstacles to trade".

The Agreement on Customs Valuation, formally known as the Agreement on Implementation of Article VII of GATT, prescribes methods of customs valuation that Members are to follow. Chiefly, it adopts the "transaction value" approach.

In December 2013, the biggest agreement within the WTO was signed and known as the Bali Package











2020 Director-General selection

In May 2020, Director-General Roberto Azevedo announced that he would step down on 31 August 2020. As of October 2020, a nomination and selection process is currently under way with eight candidates and the final selection is expected on 7 November 2020 with the consensus of 164 member countries. A strong consensus had formed around the candidacy of Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala but on 28 October it emerged that the US representative was opposed to her appointment

Budget

The WTO derives most of the income for its annual budget from contributions by its Members. These are established according to a formula based on their share of international trade.

2019 Top 10 Members' contributions to the consolidated budget of the WTO

Rank	Country	CHF	Percentage
1	 United States	22,660,405	11.59%
2	 China	19,737,680	10.10%
3	 Germany	13,882,455	7.10%
4	 Japan	7,896,245	4.04%
5	 United Kingdom	7,446,595	3.81%
6	 France	7,440,730	3.81%
7	 South Korea	5,777,025	2.96%
8	 Netherlands	5,745,745	2.94%
9	 Hong Kong	5,427,080	2.78%
10	 Italy	5,096,685	2.61%
Others		94,389,355	48.28%
TOTAL		195,500,000	100.00%

Criticism

Although tariffs and other trade barriers have been significantly reduced thanks to GATT and WTO, the promise that free trade will accelerate economic growth, reduce poverty, and increase people's incomes has been questioned by many critics. Some prominent sceptics [who?] cite the example of El Salvador. In the early 1990s, they removed all quantitative barriers to imports and also cut tariffs. However, the country's economic growth remained weak. On the other hand, Vietnam which only began reforming its economy in the late 1980s, saw a great deal of success by deciding to follow the China's economic model and liberalizing slowly along with implementing safeguards for domestic commerce. Vietnam has largely succeeded in accelerating economic growth and reducing poverty without immediately removing substantial trade barriers

Critics also put forward the view that the benefits derived from WTO facilitated free trade are not shared equally. This criticism is usually supported by historical accounts of the outcomes of negotiations and/or data showing that the gap between the rich and the poor continues to widen, especially in China and India, where economic inequality is growing even though economic growth is

very high. In addition, WTO approaches aiming to reduce trade barriers can harm developing countries. Trade liberalization that is too early without any prominent domestic barriers is feared to trap the developing economies in the primary sector, which often does not require skilled labour. And when these developing countries decide to advance their economy utilizing industrialization, the premature domestic industry cannot immediately skyrocket as expected, making it difficult to compete with other countries whose industries are more advanced

Criticism in pandemic

the organization deliberately kept a low profile during the COVID-19 pandemic, staying largely silent over the export restrictions on medical equipment. At a virtual meeting of all WTO members on 14 May 2020

Impact

Studies show that the WTO boosted trade. Research shows that in the absence of the WTO, the average country would face an increase in tariffs on their exports by 32 percentage points. The dispute settlement mechanism in the WTO is one way in which trade is increased.

According to a 2017 study in the Journal of International Economic Law, "nearly all recent [preferential trade agreements (PTAs) reference the WTO explicitly, often dozens of times across multiple chapters. Likewise, in many of these same PTAs we find that substantial portions of treaty language—sometimes the majority of a chapter—is copied verbatim from a WTO agreement... the presence of the WTO in PTAs has increased over time



The headquarters of the World Trade Organization in Geneva, Switzerland.

The impact of COVID-19 on international trade:

- COVID-19 had negative effects on the trade of importing and exporting countries.
- These effects have been insignificant since July 2020.

- The harmful trade effects of COVID-19 have been accommodated since its first wave.
- COVID-19 has had heterogenous trade effects across industries.

explore monthly data on worldwide trade from January to August in 2019 and 2020.

Specifically, our study data include the exports of 34 countries to 173 countries. We estimated the gravity equation by employing various variables as a proxy for the COVID-19 damage.

Regarding COVID-19 damages for an importing country, the trade effect will mainly come from the decrease in aggregate demand in that country, accompanied by an increase in the port and terminal handling costs. A citywide/nationwide lockdown reduces people's earnings from work and leads to a drop in aggregate demand

Foreign trade of India

India exports approximately 7500 commodities to about 190 countries, and imports around 6000 commodities from 140 countries. India exported US\$318.2 billion and imported \$462.9 billion worth of commodities in 2014.

The Government of India's Economic Survey 2017–18 noted that five states — Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Telangana — accounted for 70% of India's total exports. It was the first time that the survey included international export data for states. The survey found a high correlation between a state's Gross State Domestic Product (GSDP) per capita and its share of total exports. With a high GSDP per capita but low export share, Kerala was the only major outlier because the state's GSDP per capita was heavily influenced by remittances.

The survey found that the largest firms in India contributed to a smaller percentage of exports when compared to countries like Brazil, Germany, Mexico, and the United States. The top 1% of India's companies accounted for 38% of total exports.

Impact of COVID-19 on International Trade in India

According to the World Trade Statistical Review 2019, India is one of the developing economies in Asia whose role in international trade has been increasing in the global value chain. But the impact of COVID-19 on trade in India is estimated to be 348 million dollars and India falls under the category of 15 most-affected economies of the world as per the United Nations Report. Since International trade has curtailed, its great time to encourage domestic products and producers and boost domestic production, by implementing the theory of protectionism.

Name: Hazrat Khan Khaksar

Class: tyBBA

Div.: -B-

Roll No: 144

Sub: International Relations

Topic: WHO

What is IR?

International Relations is concerned with relations across boundaries of nation-states. It addresses international political economy, global governance, intercultural relations, national and ethnic identities, foreign policy analysis, development studies, environment, international security, diplomacy, terrorism, media, social movements and more. It is a multidisciplinary field that does not restrict students to one approach and employs a variety of methods including discourse analysis, statistics and comparative and historical analysis.



INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IS AN INCREASINGLY RELEVANT FIELD OF STUDY

International Relations is becoming increasingly relevant as the world grows more and more interconnected through trade and commerce, migration, the internet and through social media, and concerns about pressing global environmental problems.

A globalized world calls for academics and professionals trained to comprehend these complex interactions - promoting understanding and crafting policy and business solutions to meet the challenges of today and the future. International Relations offers a comprehensive and adaptable toolkit particularly well suited to employment in a rapidly changing world.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AT SF STATE

The Department of International Relations in the College of Liberal & Creative Arts explores the interrelations of the world's primary political institutions, nation-states. As the world is changing, so is the field of International Relations. Increasingly, International Relations at SF State also focuses on multinational corporations, international governmental and non-governmental organizations and social movements. Our curriculum is under constant review to reflect these global and regional trends.

Our students study specific countries and geographic regions and their interconnections through political treaties, trade, migration, cultural and ethnic affinities, shared social, economic, and ideological goals, hierarchies of power and wealth and other factors. We train students in different theoretical approaches and empower them to make their own methodological choices.

Studying IR at SF State is a step out into the world



Whether you are looking to start or develop your professional career, enter academia, or simply gain understanding of a globalized world – International Relations at San Francisco State will provide you with a solid platform of critical knowledge and skills. We offer a wide selection of courses, taught by a diverse faculty with expertise in the most pressing issues and dynamic world regions today.

Our alumni can be found across the world in non-profit, private and government positions. These include the U.S. Department of State and other countries' foreign ministries, the City of San Francisco and other local governments, U.S. intelligence agencies, non-profit organizations in the areas of international development, human rights, international labor, environment, and international migration as well in business. A significant number of our graduate students also pursue further professional or doctoral studies at high-ranking academic institutions around the world.

What Does the World Health Organization Do?

The World Health Organization describes its job as "the global guardian of health."

It is now possibly facing the most devastating global health threat in its 72-year history: the coronavirus pandemic. WHO is devoting hundreds of millions of dollars and an all-hands-on-deck approach to the effort to vanquish the virus.

And it is being accused of failing to uphold its mission.

On April 14, President Trump put a temporary halt on U.S. funding for the agency, pending an investigation to see if WHO is "severely mismanaging and covering up the spread of the coronavirus."

On May 18, Trump sent a letter to the agency's director-general, Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus, vowing to end U.S. funding for and participation in the world body if WHO fails to "commit to major substantive improvements in the next 30 days."

Here's a look at the agency at the eye of the storm.

How did it start?



The newly inaugurated World Health Organization building in Geneva in May 1966.

AP Photo/Photo Press Bilderdienst

As World War II was winding down, countries came together to form the United Nations and [voted to create](#) a global health agency as a U.N. arm.

Article continues after sponsor message

And so in 1948 the World Health Organization was founded for "the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health." As a specialized agency of the U.N., WHO has as its directive "to act as the directing and coordinating authority on international health work," according to [the agency's constitution](#).

WHO replaced several [regional health authorities](#) that had been established in Europe and the Americas in the early 1900s to help prevent the spread of diseases such as [smallpox and typhus](#). WHO started with [55 member states](#) and has now grown to include 194 member states and two associate members (Puerto Rico and Tokelau).

The member states form the [World Health Assembly](#), which sets WHO policy, approves and supervises its budget, and elects a director-general to lead WHO for five-year terms. Its budget is set for two-year periods and stood at \$6.3 billion for 2018 and 2019. The money comes from dues and voluntary contributions from member states as well as money from nonprofit groups such as the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (which is also a funder of NPR and this blog) and Rotary International.

For its COVID-19 response, WHO initially requested [\\$675 million](#) from donors and plans to significantly increase the amount to fund its services providing "advice, supplies and leadership" in the pandemic.

WHO has a staff of 7,000 that includes scientists, medical doctors and public health specialists, as well as experts in economics, statistics and emergency relief. The agency is headquartered in Geneva and has offices in more than 150 countries around the world.

The current director-general is [Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus](#), a former minister of health in Ethiopia. He is WHO's first leader from Africa and its first director-general who is not a physician — Tedros has a Ph.D. in community health. He started his term in 2017.

What is WHO's mission?



At a [press conference on April 22](#), Michael Ryan, director of WHO's Health Emergencies program, summed up the organization's overarching mission: "The mandate we have [is] to establish global standards and to give strong advice to countries regarding rational public health measures."

To achieve these goals, WHO does not typically give out grants or loans or send doctors and others from its staff to countries to provide hands-on medical treatments.

Rather, "what it does do is get on the ground to provide direction, advice, help trace disease outbreaks and provide additional support when needed," says [Jennifer Kates](#), director of global health and HIV policy at the Kaiser Family Foundation.

One of WHO's primary roles is to provide countries with science-based recommendations for health policy, which are often published on its website. "There will be guidelines on what kind of essential medicines there should be, what kind of essential diagnostics there should be, what might be the regimens to use in relation to HIV in different countries, taking into account the resources available," says [Rifat Atun](#), professor of global health systems at Harvard University, "Countries are not under any obligation legally to follow these guidelines, but many do in relation to epidemics."

WHO is governed by its member states — it does not have legal authority to enter countries without permission or to force countries to take its advice.

For instance, in February, WHO sent international experts to China on a "[joint mission](#)" with Chinese researchers to look into the steps the country was taking to prevent and control the spread of COVID-19. WHO emphasized that the mission was agreed to by both parties, and that the [members were invited](#) by both WHO and China.

"The power that we have is the power to persuade through science, persuade through evidence, persuade by demonstrating what other countries are doing and showcasing good examples of good practice," Ryan said on April 22. "Beyond that, WHO has no power to enforce, no power to put any form of pressure on the country to change what is their sovereign will."

What is WHO's role in the COVID-19 pandemic?

Under the [International Health Regulations](#), a global legal agreement revised in 2005 and signed by all WHO members, countries are required to report to WHO any disease outbreaks that are unexpected or of unknown cause and have significant risk of international spread.

China reported a cluster of pneumonia cases to WHO on Dec. 31, 2019. "Based on the [International Health Regulations], what is expected from WHO is declaring the Public Health Emergency of International Concern as early as possible," Tedros said on April 22.

That PHEIC designation is an official alert that triggers a set of responses. WHO can help guide the country and gauge whether its response is effective. And it can bring in international assistance for training, surveillance and other measures. But all of this can only be done "at the request of a State Party."

Timing is tricky. "It's partly a technical decision. It's partly a political decision," Atun says. "If you act too early, you may contain the epidemic but people may say, 'There was no need [to act so early].' But if you act too late countries will say, 'You are too late and we're now facing the consequences.'"

WHO declared the coronavirus a PHEIC [on Jan. 30](#), when there were no reported deaths outside of China but a sharp increase in the number of countries reporting cases.

"Looking back, I think we declared the emergency at the right time, and when the world had enough time to respond," Tedros said on April 22.

Weeks later, in its role as an international standard-bearer, WHO officially [named the disease](#) COVID-19.

In the months since, WHO has requested information that countries are bound to provide under international health regulations — for instance, explanations of why travel bans are needed to stop disease spread. WHO has also asked countries — including China — for timely and accurate outbreak data that they're required to provide under the international health regulations.

Drawing from publications and discussions with researchers globally, WHO has published reams of COVID-related public health advice on topics ranging from [diagnostic tests](#) and the [public use of masks](#) to how religious leaders can assess the risks of holding social and religious [gatherings during Ramadan](#) and how countries can manage risks as they [lift their lockdowns](#). The agency has also developed [online courses](#) to train health care workers to diagnose and treat COVID-19 patients.

WHO has sent more than 70 teams of response coordinators, epidemiologists and other advisers into countries to help guide COVID-19 responses. It is also raising money for and organizing a global [COVID-19 supply chain](#) to get diagnostic tests, medical equipment and aid workers to places that need them. "We estimate this supply chain may need to cover more than 30% of the world's needs in the acute phase of the pandemic," Tedros said at a press conference [April 10](#), calling on donors to support the initiative.

And the agency is helping to organize global research into treatment drugs and potential [coronavirus vaccines](#). In February, WHO brought medical doctors, virologists, modelers and epidemiologists together in a global research forum to establish a unified set of [priorities and timelines](#) for COVID-19 research. On April 24, WHO announced a [pledge campaign](#) for global collaboration asking researchers, donors and manufacturers to agree to work together and commit to equitable distribution of vaccines and medicines.

Performance over the years

WHO's handling of the SARS (severe acute respiratory syndrome) outbreak in 2003 was considered a success. "WHO acted fairly quickly and issued guidance to restrict travel. The epidemic did not extend to all countries in the world," Atun says. Effects of the SARS outbreak were concentrated in Asia; 8,000 people were sickened, and around 800 died before the epidemic ended in 2004.

But the concerns raised over WHO's current performance are not the first criticisms for a WHO response to a health emergency.

In the 2009 H1N1 swine flu pandemic, WHO received mixed reviews. In post-pandemic analysis requested by WHO, an [international committee found](#) that, while WHO provided useful guidance to countries on how to slow pandemic flu transmission and helped monitor the virus's spread, its messaging around the severity of the pandemic was unclear and its failure to coordinate effective vaccine distribution led to countries receiving them too late to be truly helpful.

And the WHO response to the 2014 Ebola outbreak in West Africa was widely panned. "[In] the Ebola outbreak, the WHO was criticized for not responding quickly enough in declaring a public health emergency of international concern," says [Raphael Lencucha](#), a global health researcher at McGill University. WHO initially dismissed the scale of the problem, then lacked the staff and funds to lead an effective response, NPR [reported in 2015](#).

"[Back then,] the focus was on the WHO in responding in a timely way," Lencucha says. "And in the case of COVID, similar criticisms are being waged."

Now, U.S. officials say WHO was too trusting of China in the beginning stages of the COVID-19 pandemic and slow to sound the alarm. On April 15, [President Trump](#) said the organization's earlier "objections" to travel bans from China was "a horrible, tragic mistake" that resulted in "quickly unleashing the contagion around the world." Secretary of State Mike Pompeo says China withheld timely information about the outbreak from WHO, which [means to him](#) that "the World Health Organization's regulatory arm clearly failed during this pandemic."

WHO officials say they welcome "after-action" assessments of their performance in emergencies. "We do them for every outbreak response and I'll look forward ... to look and see where we can learn to do better, where we can improve our response," WHO official Michael Ryan said on [April 15](#).

THANK YOU

UNICEF

UNICEF works in over 190 countries and territories to save children's lives, to defend their rights, and to help them fulfil their potential, from early childhood through adolescence. And we never give up.

Every child has the right to grow up in a safe and inclusive environment

UNICEF works with partners around the world to promote policies and expand access to services that protect all children.

UNICEF, also United Nations Children's Fund, is a United Nations agency responsible for providing humanitarian and developmental aid to children worldwide. The agency is among the most widespread and recognizable social welfare organizations in the world, with a presence in 192 countries and territories. UNICEF's activities include providing immunizations and disease prevention, administering treatment for children and mothers with HIV, enhancing childhood and maternal nutrition, improving sanitation, promoting education, and providing emergency relief in response to disasters.

UNICEF is the successor of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), created on December 11, 1946, in New York, by the U.N. Relief Rehabilitation Administration to provide immediate relief to children and mothers affected by World War II. The same year, the U.N. General Assembly established UNICEF to further institutionalize post-war relief work. In 1950, its mandate was extended to address the long-term needs of children and women, particularly in developing countries. In 1953, the organization became a permanent part of the United Nations System, and its name was subsequently changed to its current form, though it retains the original acronym.

UNICEF relies entirely on voluntary contributions from governments and private donors. Its total income as of 2018 was \$5.2 billion, of which two-thirds came from governments; private groups and individuals contributed the rest through national committees. It is governed by a 36-member executive board that establishes policies, approves programs, and oversees administrative and financial plans. The board is made up of government representatives elected by the United Nations Economic and Social Council, usually for three-year terms.

UNICEF's programs emphasize developing community-level services to promote the health and well-being of children. Most of its work is in the field, with a network that includes 150 country offices, headquarters and other facilities and 34 "national committees" that carry out its mission through programs developed with host governments. Seven regional offices provide technical assistance to country offices as needed, while its Supply Division—based in Copenhagen and New York—helps provide over \$3 billion in critical aid and services.



Flag of UNICEF

In 2018, UNICEF assisted in the birth of 27 million babies, administered pentavalent vaccines to an estimated 65.5 million children, provided education for 12 million children, treated four million children with severe acute malnutrition, and responded to 285 humanitarian emergencies in 90 countries. UNICEF has received recognition for its work, including the Nobel Peace Prize in 1965, the Indira Gandhi Prize in 1989 and the Princess of Asturias Award in 2006. During the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic, UNICEF, along with the World Health Organization and other agencies, published guidance about healthy parenting.

Governance



UNICEF-care tent in [Sudan](#)

UNICEF relies on country offices to help carry out its work through a unique program of cooperation developed with the host government. The programs last five years and seek to develop practical strategies for fulfilling and protecting the rights of children and women. Regional offices guide this work and provide technical assistance to country offices as needed. Overall management and administration of the organization take place at its headquarters in New York City.

Guiding and monitoring all of UNICEF's work is an executive board made up of 36 members who are government representatives. The board establishes policies, approves programs and decides on administrative and financial plans and budgets. Its work is coordinated by the bureau, comprising the president and four vice-presidents, each officer representing one of the five regional groups. These five officers are elected by the executive board annually from among its members, with the presidency rotating among the regional groups on an annual basis. As a matter of custom, permanent members of the Security Council do not serve as officers of the executive board.

The office of the secretary of the executive board helps maintain an effective relationship between the executive board and the UNICEF secretariat, and organizes field visits by board members.



UNICEF *School in a box* contains basic educational items for one teacher and 40 students

UNICEF Regional Offices

The following countries are home to UNICEF Regional Offices.^[14]

- The Americas and Caribbean Regional Office, Panama_City, Panama
- Europe and Central Asia Regional Office, Geneva, Switzerland
- East Asia and the Pacific Regional Office, Bangkok, Thailand
- Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office, Nairobi, Kenya
- Middle East and North Africa Regional Office, Amman, Jordan
- South Asia Regional Office, Kathmandu, Nepal
- West and Central Africa Regional Office, Senegal

UNICEF national committees

There are national committees in 36 developed countries, each established as an independent local non-governmental organization. Their primary function is to raise funds from the private sector, as UNICEF is entirely dependent on voluntary contributions. National committees collectively account for about one-third of the agency's annual income, including from corporations, civil society organizations, around six million individual donors worldwide.

Promotion and fundraising

In the United States, Nepal and some other countries, UNICEF is known for its "Trick-Or-Treat for UNICEF" program in which children collect money for UNICEF from the houses they trick-or-treat on Halloween night, sometimes instead of candy. The program was discontinued in Canada in 2006.

UNICEF is present in 191 countries and territories around the world, but not involved in nine others (Bahamas, Brunei, Cyprus, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Malta, Mauritius, Monaco, Singapore, and Taiwan).

Many people in developed countries first hear about UNICEF's work through the activities of one of the 36 national committees for UNICEF. These non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are primarily responsible for fundraising, selling UNICEF greeting cards and products, creating private and public partnerships, advocating for children's rights, and providing other support. The US Fund for UNICEF is the oldest of the national committees, founded in 1947.

On 19 April 2007, Grand Duchess Maria Teresa of Luxembourg was appointed UNICEF Eminent Advocate for Children, in which role she has visited Brazil (2007), China (2008), and Burundi (2009).

In 2009, the British retailer Tesco used "Change for Good" as advertising, which is trademarked by UNICEF for charity usage but not for commercial or retail use. This prompted the agency to say, "it is the first time in Unicef's history that a commercial entity has purposely set out to capitalize on one of our campaigns and subsequently damage an income stream which several of our programs for children are dependent on". They went on to call on the public "who have children's welfare at heart, to consider carefully who they support when making consumer choices".^{[23][24]} "Change for Good" is also supported by Australian airline [Qantas](#), relying on passengers to fundraise via a given envelope since 1991, and has raised over \$36 million, with over 19,500 kg of coins every year.^[25] [Frequent flyers](#) can also redeem their mile points to donate.^[26] Norman Gillespie, UNICEF Australia's chief executive, said "If every Qantas passenger traveling domestically gave us just a few of their forgotten coins each time they traveled it would make little difference to their day, but a world of difference in saving children's lives."^[27]

Sponsorship^[edit]



[Lionel Messi](#) wearing a Barcelona shirt with the UNICEF logo in 2007

In 2003, UNICEF sponsored Italian football club [Piacenza Calcio 1919](#) until 2008.

On 7 September 2006, an agreement between UNICEF and the Spanish Catalan [association football](#) club [FC Barcelona](#) was reached whereby the club would donate €1.5 million per year to the organization for five years. As part of the agreement, FC Barcelona would wear the UNICEF logo on the front of their uniforms in the colour yellow (as seen in the picture on the right of Lionel Messi).^[28] This was the first time a football club sponsored an organization rather than the other way around. It was also the first time in FC Barcelona's history that they have had another organization's name across the front of their uniform. In 2016, the team signed a new four-year sponsorship deal with UNICEF guaranteeing the organization £1.58 million per year and free advertising.^[29]

In January 2007 UNICEF struck a partnership with Canada's national [tent pegging](#) team. The team was officially re-flagged as "UNICEF Team Canada", and its riders wear UNICEF's logo in competition, and team members promote and raise funds for UNICEF's campaign against childhood HIV-AIDS.^[30] When the team became the 2008 tent pegging world champions, UNICEF's flag was raised alongside the Canadian flag at the games, the first time in the history of international Grand Prix equestrian competition that a non-state flag has flown over the medal podium.^[31]

The Swedish club [Hammarby IF](#) followed the Spanish and Canadian lead on 14 April 2007,^[32] also raising funds for UNICEF and displaying the UNICEF name on their sportswear. The Danish football club [Brøndby IF](#) participated in a similar arrangement from 2008 to 2013.^[33]

In 2007, NASCAR driver [Jacques Villeneuve](#) has occasionally placed the UNICEF logo on the #27 [Bill Davis Racing pickup truck](#) in the [NASCAR Craftsman Truck Series](#).^[34]

Australian [A-League](#) club [Sydney FC](#) announced they would also enter into a partnership with UNICEF raising funds for children in the [Asia-Pacific region](#), and would also display the UNICEF logo for the remainder of the [2011-12 A-League](#) season.^[35]

In [Botswana](#), UNICEF has funded the development of new state-of-the-art HIV/AIDS education for every schoolchild in Botswana from nonprofit organization [TeachAIDS](#).^[36]

UNICEF announced a landmark partnership with [Scottish](#) club [Rangers F.C.](#) UNICEF partnered with the Rangers Charity Foundation and pledged to raise £300,000 by 2011.^[37]

In 2010, UNICEF created a partnership with [Phi Iota Alpha](#), making them the first Greek Lettered Organization UNICEF has ever worked with. In 2011, Phi Iota Alpha raised over \$20,000 for the Tap Project and the Trick or Treats for UNICEF Campaign.

In 2013, they agreed a contract with Greek association football champions [Olympiacos F.C.](#) who will show the organization's logo on the front of their shirts.

UNICEF Kid Power^[edit]

Main article: [UNICEF Kid Power](#)

Started in 2015, Kid Power is a division of UNICEF that was created as an effort to involve kids in helping other kids in need. UNICEF Kid Power developed the world's first Wearable for Good,^[38] called Kid Power Bands,^[39] which is a kids' fitness tracker bracelet that connects to a smartphone app. The app lets users complete missions, which counts total steps and awards points. The points then unlock funding from partners, which is then used by UNICEF to deliver lifesaving packets of therapeutic food to severely malnourished children around the world.

Trick-or-Treat UNICEF box^[edit]

Main article: [Trick-or-Treat for UNICEF](#)

Since 1950, when a group of children in [Philadelphia](#), [Pennsylvania](#), donated \$17 which they received on Halloween to help post-World War II victims, the Trick-or-Treat UNICEF box has become a tradition in [North America](#) during the fall.^[40] These small orange boxes are handed to children at schools and other locations before 31 October. As of 2012, the Trick-or-Treat for UNICEF campaign has collected approximately [C\\$](#)91 million in [Canada](#) and over [US\\$](#)167 million in the U.S.^[41]

Cartoons for Children's Rights^[edit]

Main article: [Cartoons for Children's Rights](#)

In 1994, UNICEF held a summit encouraging animation studios around the world to create individual animated spots demonstrating the international rights of children. [Cartoons for Children's Rights](#) is the collection of animated shorts based on UNICEF's [Convention on the Rights of the Child](#).

Corporate partnership^[edit]

To raise money to support its Education and Literacy Programs, UNICEF collaborates with companies worldwide – international as well as small- and medium-sized businesses.

Since 2004, the organization has been supported by [Montblanc](#), working collaboratively to help the world's children getting better access to education.^[42]

According to *Vaccine News Daily*, [Merck & Co.](#) partnered with UNICEF in June 2013 to decrease maternal mortality, [HIV](#) and [tuberculosis](#) prevalence in [South Africa](#). Merck's program "Merck for Mothers" will give US\$500 million worldwide for programs that improve health for expectant mothers and their children.^[43]

In May 2010, [Crucell N.V.](#) announced an additional US\$110 million award from UNICEF to supply its [pentavalent](#) pediatric vaccine [Quinvaxem](#) to the developing world.^[44]

Corporate Social Responsibility^[edit]

UNICEF works directly with companies to improve their business practices, bringing them in line with obligations under [international law](#), and ensuring that they respect children's rights in the realms of the marketplace, workplace, and the community. In 2012, UNICEF worked with Save the Children and The [United Nations Global Compact](#) to develop the Children's Rights and Business Principles and now these guidelines form the basis of UNICEF's advice to companies. UNICEF works with companies seeking to improve their [social sustainability](#) by guiding them through a due diligence process where issues throughout their supply chain, such as [child labour](#), can be identified and actions to ratify them are put in place.^[45]

Girl Star[\[edit\]](#)

The [Girl Star](#)^[46] project is a series of films which documents stories of girls from the most disadvantaged communities across five northern states in India who, through via education, have managed to break socio-economic constraints to make a success of their lives and become self-sufficient. These young women have grown to become role models in their communities, inspiring younger girls to go to school and continue their education. They have selected professions from the most conventional such as teaching and nursing to the most unconventional like archery, bee-keeping, [scrap management](#)^[clarification needed], often entering what has traditionally been a man's domain.

Kids United[\[edit\]](#)

Main article: [Kids United](#)

[Kids United](#), succeeded by [Kids United Nouvelle Génération](#) (Kids United New Generation), is a [French](#) musical group consisting of five children born between 2000 and 2009 (six children when the group was originally formed). [Erza Muqoli](#) was a founding member. It was created to support UNICEF campaigns and is sponsored by [Hélène Ségara](#) and [Corneille](#), two [francophone](#) singers. The first album, [Un monde meilleur](#) (A better world), was launched on Universal Children's Day in 2015 and received gold certification in [France](#). The second album, [Tout le bonheur du monde](#) (All the happiness in the world), was released in 2016 and was certified 2x platinum. The group released its third album in 2017, [Forever United](#). After becoming [Kids United Nouvelle Génération](#), it released its fourth album in 2018 [Au bout de nos rêves](#) (At the end of our dreams), and its fifth album in 2019, [L'hymne de la vie](#) (The hymn of life). The group remains active and has achieved great success within Francophonic countries.

U-report[\[edit\]](#)

[U-Report](#) is a free SMS social monitoring tool and real-time information system for community participation, designed to strengthen community-led development, citizen engagement, and positive change. SMS polls and alerts are sent out to U-reporters and real-time response information is collected. Results and ideas are shared back with the community. Issues polled include among others health, education, water, sanitation and hygiene, youth unemployment, HIV/ AIDS, disease outbreaks; social welfare sectors. The initiative is currently operational in 41 countries and covers more than 3 million people.

Rugby League World Cup 2021[\[edit\]](#)

On the 19th June 2019 the [2021 Rugby League World Cup \(England\)](#) announced that UNICEF would become the official tournament charity.^{[47][48]} The announcement was made at [Mansion House, London](#)^[49] as part of a launch event for the [Rugby League World Cup](#) legacy program called 'Inspired by RLWC2021'. The partnership aims to use the power of sport to raise awareness and funds for UNICEF's work protecting children in danger around the world.

In addition to the general promotion of the charity at matches and events, the 2021 Rugby League World Cup Chief Executive has also stated that there will be an officially designated "UNICEF" game at some point during the Men's World Cup.

Celebrity ambassadors[\[edit\]](#)

Main article: [List of UNICEF Goodwill Ambassadors](#)

UNICEF Ambassadors are leaders in the entertainment industry, representing the fields of film, television, music, sports and beyond. They help raise awareness of the needs of children, and use their talent and status to fundraise, advocate, and educate on behalf of UNICEF.^[50]

Facilities^[edit]



One of the gates to the old UNICEF World Warehouse



The UNICEF research centre in [Florence](#)


UNICEF World Warehouse^[edit]

The old UNICEF World Warehouse is a large facility in [Denmark](#), which hosts UNICEF deliverable goods as well as co-hosts emergency goods for [United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees](#) (UNHCR) and the [International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies](#) (IFRC). Until 2012 the facilities was a 25,000m² warehouse at [Marmormolen](#) in Copenhagen. With construction of a 45,000m² [UN City](#) that is to house all UN activities in Copenhagen under one roof,^[51] the warehouse service has been relocated to outer parts of the [Freeport of Copenhagen](#). The facility houses the UNICEF Supply Division which manages strategic hubs in [Dubai](#), [Douala](#), and [Colón](#).^[5] The warehouse contains a variety of items, e.g., [food supplements](#), [water purification tablets](#), [dietary](#) and [vitamin supplements](#), and the "School in a box" (illustrated above).

UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre^[edit]

The UNICEF [Innocenti](#) Research Centre in [Florence, Italy](#), was established in 1988. The centre, formally known as the International Child Development Centres, has as its prime objectives to improve international understanding of issues relating to children's rights, to promote economic policies that advance the cause of children, and to help facilitate the full implementation of the United Nations [Convention on the Rights of the Child](#) in industrialized and developing countries.

The program for 2006–2008 was approved by UNICEF Executive Board in September 2005.



This section needs to be **updated**. Please update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. *(August 2015)*

It reaffirms the centre's academic freedom and the focus of IRC's research on knowledge gaps, emerging questions and sensitive issues which are relevant to the realization of children's rights, in developing and industrialized countries. It capitalizes on IRC's role as an interface between UNICEF field experience, international experts, research networks and policy makers and is

designed to strengthen the centre's institutional collaboration with regional academic and policy institutions, pursuing the following goals:

- Generation and communication of strategic and influential knowledge on issues affecting children and the realization of their rights;
- Knowledge exchange and brokering;
- Support to UNICEF's advocacy, policy's and program development in support of the Millennium Agenda
- Securing and strengthening the centre's institutional and financial basis.

Three interrelated strategies guide the achievement of these goals:

- Evidence-based analysis drawing on quantitative and qualitative information, the application of appropriate methodologies, and the development of recommendations to assess and inform advocacy and policy action.
- Enhanced partnerships with research and policy institutions and development actors, globally and at regional level, in developing and industrialized countries.
- Communication and leveraging of research findings and recommendations to support policy development and advocacy initiatives through strategic dissemination of studies and contribution to relevant events and fora.^[52]

Position on ethical themes^[edit]

UNICEF's programmatic objectives include the promotion of safe [abortions](#)^[53] and education in [family planning](#) and in the use of [contraception](#).^{[54][55]}

In a joint declaration of 2011,^[56] UNICEF argued the need to combat the spread of selective abortion, through plans that favored, inter alia, the use of safe abortion services and family planning programs in order to decrease the use of abortion.

In 2013, together with WHO, it published an integrated plan of guidelines for the prevention of infant mortality caused by pneumonia and diarrhea, including, among the recommended strategies for promoting the health of women and children, access to safe abortion.^[57]

UNICEF has adopted the ABC strategy ("abstinence, be faithful and consistent condom use") promoted in various international AIDS prevention interventions.^[58] The strategy was later updated as the "**ABC to Z** model", to include **D**elaying and **V**oluntary **C**ounseling & **T**esting.^[59]

In 1996 the [Vatican](#) withdrew its symbolic contribution to UNICEF on the occasion of the publication by UNICEF of a manual on emergency operations for refugee populations which supported the spread of [emergency contraceptive practices](#).^{[60][61][62]}

Despite this, on several occasions senior UNICEF officials have denied that the organization promoted abortion or family planning methods.^{[63][64]}

UNICEF also supports the adoption by states of laws that guarantee [LGBT couples](#) and their children the legal recognition of their status, as these rules would help ensure the best interests of children.^[65]

Controversies^[edit]

Adoption program^[edit]

UNICEF has a policy preferring orphanages only be used as temporary accommodation for children when there is no alternative. UNICEF has historically opposed the creation of large-scale, permanent orphanages for children, preferring instead to find children places in their (extended) families and communities, wherever possible. This has led UNICEF to be skeptical of international adoption efforts as a solution to child care problems in developing countries; UNICEF has preferred to see children cared for in their birth countries rather than be adopted by foreign parents.^{[66][67]}

A 2015 article in [U.S. News & World Report](#) magazine asserted UNICEF's intervention that on giving large cash payments to developing countries can lead to a cessation of international adoptions until all of its recommendations are in place, and have even labelled UNICEF a "villain" for the extent of its negative impact on orphans.^[68] [Elizabeth Bartholet](#) and Paulo Barrozo have written in this context, encouraging adoption protocols to take on a more child-centric viewpoint.^[citation needed]

Child mortality^[edit]

One concern is that the child [mortality rate](#) has not decreased in some areas as rapidly as had been planned, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, where in 2013 "the region still has the highest child mortality rate: 92 deaths per 1000 live births".^[69] and that "Globally, nearly half of under-five deaths are attributable to undernutrition."

In 2005, [Richard Horton](#) editor-in-chief of [The Lancet](#), editorialized that "over 60% of these deaths were and remain preventable" and that the coverage levels for these interventions are "appalling low in the 42 countries that account for 90% of child deaths".^[70]

A \$27 million UNICEF program in [West Africa](#) in 2001–2005 which was meant to decrease child deaths from disease has been deemed a failure, according to a study that found higher survival rates of children in some regions that weren't included in that program.^[71]

Critics argue that UNICEF's focus on rights rather than safety and survival is idealistic, and that by focusing on politicized [children's rights](#) instead of mere child survival, UNICEF has contributed indirectly to the [child mortality](#) crisis.^[72]

NSA surveillance

Documents released by [Edward Snowden](#) in December 2013 showed that "UNICEF" was among the surveillance targets of British and American intelligence agencies.^[73]

Funding of UK food charities

In December 2020 UNICEF made funding available to feed children in UK for first time as part of its Food Power for Generation COVID initiative. UNICEF pledged £25,000 to School Food Matters a south London charity, to help feed children over the Christmas holidays. A partnership of Devon charities had also been given £24,000 to help feed 120 families over the winter of 2020. UNICEF said it was helping children in the UK because of an increase in food poverty in Britain, caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. It estimates there are children going hungry in a fifth of households. Anna Kettley, from UNICEF said "We are one of the richest countries in the world and we should not have to be relying on food banks or food aid." Labour MP Zarah Sultana in the House of Commons said, "For the first time ever, UNICEF, the UN agency responsible for providing humanitarian aid to children, is having to feed working-class kids in the UK but while children go hungry, a wealthy few enjoy obscene riches." In response, [Jacob Rees-Mogg](#), Tory MP and Leader of the House of Commons said, "I think it is a real scandal that UNICEF should be playing politics in this way when it is meant to be looking after people in the poorest, the most deprived, countries of the world where people are starving, where there are famines and where there are civil wars, and they make cheap political points of this kind, giving, I think, 25,000 to one council. It is a political stunt of the lowest order. UNICEF should be ashamed of itself." Chris Forster, from Transforming Plymouth Together, one of the Devon charities to benefit from UNICEF donations, said, "We had one family as part of the deliveries last week literally in tears with gratitude because their cupboard was bare." One unidentified Plymouth mum-of-three said: "I obviously would never see my children go without so there have been two or three days where I just haven't eaten at all. The Scottish National Party MP, Tommy Sheppard said, "It is astonishing that these comments are coming from the same government that had to be publicly shamed into following Scotland's lead and providing free school meals for children over the holidays." LBC reported that the UN humanitarian aid agency are providing over £700,000 to feed hungry children in the UK.

Name: Ahmad Zia Bohani

assignment: international
Realation

class: TYbba(ca)

Topic : (WTO)

Roll no: 02

History, introduce, Rules and impact of world trade organizations (WTO)

introduction of world trade organization.

The world trade organization (WTO) is the only international dealing with the global rules of trade between organization nations.

Its main function is ensure that trade flows as smoothly, predictably and freely as possible.

There are a number of ways looking at the world Trade organization.

it is organization for for trade opening it is forum for government to negotiate trade agreement
it is place for them to settle trade disputes.
It operates a system of rules. Essentially

The (WTO) is place where member governments try to sort out + trade Problems they face with each other

The (WTO) is run by it is member governments.
All major decisions are made by the membership as a whole, either by minister (who usually meet at least once every two year)
or by ambassador or delegates (who meet regularly in Geneva).

The (wto) organization agreements are lengthy and complex because they are legal text covering a wide range of activities. But a number of simple fundamental principle run throughout all of these document, these principle are foundation of the multiretral trading system.

The world trade organization is the international organization whose primary propuse is open trade for the benefits of all.

from the early days of the silk road to the creation of Genral Agreement on tariffs and trade (GATT) and the of (wto) trade has deplayed an important role is supporting economic development and promoting Peacefull rialation among nations.

The page traces the history of trade from its early roots to the present day

there are a number of way looking at the (wto) it is an organization for liberalizing trade. it is a forum for government to negotiate trade agreement it is a place for them to settle trade disputes.

it operate system of trade rule (but it is not super man Just in case any one through it could solve or ease all the world problems.

Esentially (wto) is place where member governments

History of (WTO)

History of world trade organization began life on 1 January 1995, but its trading system is half a century world older. Since 1948 the general agreement on tariffs and trade (GATT) had provided the rules for system.

The second (WTO) ministerial meeting held in Geneva in May 1998 include a celebration of the 50th anniversary of the system.

The (WTO) is the most important international organization that govern world trade decisions are made by the member countries it has 151 member and 31 observer government (most with which have applied for membership,

and member represent over 95% of world trade the highest-level decisions are made at the ministerial conference, which is the meeting of trade minister from member countries.

The ministerial conference must meet at least every two year.

The general Council is the body of national representative that over the day to day operation of (WTO)

the general council meet approximately monthly it also meet two other capacities.

it review national trade policy and oversees

Assisting of the member is (WTO) secretariat that members about (635) and is located in Geneva Switzerland the top official of the secretariat is director-general-pascal Lamy of France whose three year term began on September of 2005

The agreement Administered by (WTO) cover a broad range of goods and services trade and apply to virtually all government practices that directly for example: Tariffs, subsidies, government procurement and trade related intellectual property right. The (WTO) right agreement are based on principle of non-discriminatory treatment among countries some exception however such as preferential treatment for development countries, are allowed. Other basic principle of (WTO) are open information on rule and regulation, negotiated limits on trade barriers and settlement of disputes under specific procedure.

The 110th Congress may examine the relationship between the United States and in the WTO in two ways Congress may consider implementing legislation for a potential Doha round agreement. US Trade Promotion Authority (TPA) expired on July 1, 2007, however Congress may extend or reauthorize (TPA) to consider such an agreement.

What (WTO) can do for countries and people?

In this part of our topic I will mention some work that WTO can do

- * cut living cost and raise living cost standards
- * settle disputes and reduce trade tensions.
- * stimulate economic growth and employment
- * cut the cost business internationally
- * encourage good governance
- * Help countries develop
- * give the weak a stronger voice
- * support the environment and health
- * contribute to peace and stability
- * be effective without hitting the headlines

The (WTO) agreement covers goods, services and intellectual property, they spell out the principle of liberalization and the permitted exception. they include individual countries

- The world trade organization has six key objectives
1. to set and enforce rules for international trade.
 2. to provide a forum for negotiating and monitoring further trade organization.
 3. to resolve trade disputes.
 4. to increase the transparency of decision making processes.
 5. to cooperate with other major international economic

The world trade organization came into being in 1995 one of the youngest of the international organization the WTO is the successor to the general agreement on Tariff and trade established on the wake of the second world war.

So while the (WTO) is relatively young the multilateral trading system that was originally set up under the GATT is over 70 year old.

The past 70 year has seen an exceptional growth in world trade. merchandise export have grown on average by 6% annually. This growth on trade has been a powerful engine for over all economic expansion and on average trade has grown.

Benefits of (WTO) on the entire world

World trade organization have some advantage and also some disadvantage for economic that I will discuss on that in these section of my topic:

- * Free trade cuts the cost of living
- * It provides more choice of products and qualities
- * Trade raises incomes
- * Trade stimulates economic growth
- * The basic principle make life more efficient
- * Government are shielded from lobbying
- * The system encourages good government
- * The system help promote peace
- * Government are shielded from lobbying
- * The system encourages good government

This top issue and line that I write:

It was advantage of (WTO)

and in the next page I will write disadvantage

'bad effect and disadvantage of world Trade organization are as below.

- * free trade may prevent developing economies their infant industry, if a developing economy was trying to diversify their economy to develop a new manufacturing industry they may be unable to do it without some tariff protection.
- * Difficulty of making progress. (wto) trade deals have been quite difficult to form consensus. various round have taken many years to slowly progress it result in country seeking alternative such as (TIIP) or local bilateral deals.
- * (wto) trade deals still encompass a lot of protectionism in are like agriculture, protectionist tariff which primarily benefit richer nations, such as au and us.
- * (wto) is implement strong defense of 'Tariff Tripps the related intellectual property' right this allow firms to implement patent and copy right.
- * (wto) has rules to which favour multinationals for example most favoured nation principle means country should trade without discrimination.
- in response to this wto will say the free trade has been an important engine of growth for developing country in Asia. Although there may be some short

There are new focus on late on the trade organization (WTO) and its rules for international trade. lengthy preparation for the organization's 11th ministerial conference on December 2017 has led to call from the business world to expand and update WTO rules.

Business are turning to (WTO) as growth in global trade of goods and services slowed to between 1.9 and 2.5 percent in 2016 with the world bank characterized as "the lowest growth in trade volume since the great recession of 2008-2009". At the same time success has shifted away from regional trade negotiation.

The low growth in global trade appears to be structural as well as cyclical. According to the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) while slow global economic growth has certainly contributed to slowdown in international growth.

National policy are also contributing government all across the world have become more innovative in protecting domestic business.

Against competition from abroad said the (ICC) citing a new trade local content requirement as one barrier of growing concern. What is needed now is liberalization that raises the underlying protection for growth.

P145

The (WTO) is the forum where 164 member nations negotiate global trade rules. Primarily through multi-year rounds of multilateral negotiation such as the Doha Round, and settle disputes over tariff and non-tariff trade barriers.

Although the Doha Round has degree on for year 15 years.

The WTO did recently ratify an important global agreement on trade facilitation aiming to reduce cross border administrative burdens.

The Doha round is the latest round of trade negotiations among the WTO member ships. Its aim is to achieve major reforms of international trading system through the introduction of lower trade barriers and revised trade rules.

The work program cover about 20 area of trade. The round is also known semi-officially as the 'Doha Development Agenda' as a fundamental objective is to improve the trading prospect of development country.

The round is officially launched as the WTO's forth ministerial conferences in Doha, Qatar in November 2001. The Doha ministerial Declaration provided the mandate for the negotiations including on agriculture, services and intellectual property.

* Benefits of world trade organization and impact of that on economy

* Disputes are handled constructively

* Rules make it easier for all

* world trade organization based on rule not on power

* free trade cuts the cost of living provides.

* more choice of product and quality.

* Trade stimulates economic growth

* Trade raises of economic country and its people

* Basic principle make life more efficient

* Government shielded from lobbying

* system encourage good governance

* system encourage good governance

The World trade organization essentially an alternative dispute or mediation entity that spread the entitrade among nation. It's main focuses on to provide open line of communication rules of nation concerning on trade.

125
The WTO's global system lowers trade barriers through negotiation and applies the principle of non-discrimination. The result is reduced cost of production (because inputs used in production are cheaper) and reduced price of finished goods and services and ultimately a lower cost of living.

The low growth in global trade appears to be structural as well as cyclical. According to the International Chamber of Commerce, while slow global economic growth has certainly contributed to the slowdown in international trade growth.

National policies are also contributing. Governments all across the world have become more innovative in protecting domestic business against competition from abroad.

said the ITC citing the new trade in local content requirement as one barrier of growing concern. What is needed now is new liberalization that raises the underlying potential for growth.

There is renewed focus on trade of the world. Trade organization and its role for organization trade.

Lengthy preparation for the organization 11th ministerial conference on December 2017 has led to call from the business.

P.S
5

Rule and Responsibility of world trade organization on covid-19 situation. Specially in india

In october 2020 Indian and south African submitted a proposal suggesting a waiver for all (world trade organization) members on the implementation of certain provisions of the agreement in relation to prevention, containment or treatment of covid.

The proposed relaxation in the norm of agreement are aimed as ensuring quick and affordable access to vaccin and medicines for development country

The US Administration is backed the initiative by India and south Africa at the wto to temporarily waive patent rules on covid vaccin.

The wto has changed its position within the world trade organization and we have a new situation and that mean we have to wait and see what the swiss government will decide

based on new situation The decision will be taken in Berne and we have to wait for that

Switzerland ambassador In India have interview on friday. He also noted that switzerland are independent voice and position within (wto)

P14c

What is role of world trade organization for removing poverty.

on this subject the WTO has a key role to play. An example of the fight of the WTO against poverty is to protect a multilaterally negotiated visa scheme that allowed expanded entry into advanced nation of mix of skilled workers from developing nation.

The world trade organization are successful because it is architects subjugated international economic integration to the need and demands of national economic management and democratic politics.

This would preserve some limits on integration while crafting better global rule handle the integration that can be achieved.

what we know about the winner and loser during last two global centuries, including aspect almost always ignored in modern debate how price of consumption goods on the expenditure side are affected and how the economic position of poor is influenced. It also report to response of the winner to the loser.

complaint some consolation to the loser take the form of anti global policy manifested by immigration restriction in the high wage country and trade restriction pretty much everywhere.

INTERNATIONAL RELATION ASSIGNMENT



WORLD TRADE
ORGANIZATION



Name : Kajal Jadhav

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Roll no : 266



WORLD TRADE

ORGANIZATION

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the only international organization 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. There are a number of ways of looking at the World Trade Organization. It is an organization for trade opening. It is a forum for governments to negotiate trade agreements. It is a place for the WTO to settle trade disputes. It operates a system of trade rules. It helps developing countries build their trade capacity. Essentially, the WTO is a place where member governments try to sort out the trade problems they face with each other.

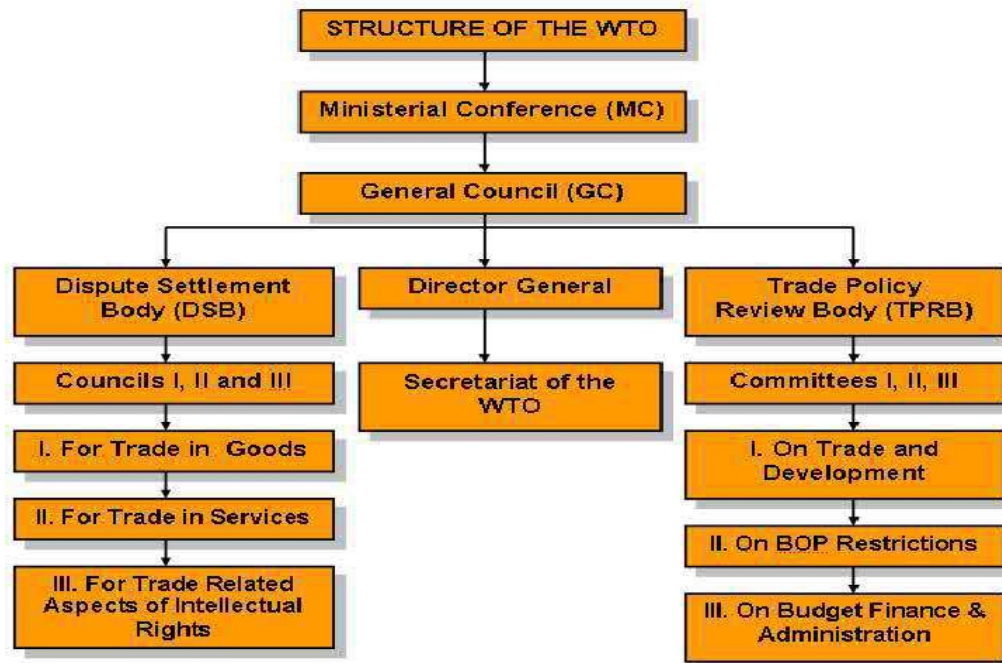
The goal of (WTO) is to improve the welfare of the peoples of the member countries

Functions

The WTO's overriding objective is to help trade flow smoothly, freely and predictably. It does this by:

- administering trade agreements
- acting as a forum for trade negotiations
- settling trade disputes
- reviewing national trade policies
- building the trade capacity of developing economies

- cooperating with other international organizations
- **The Organizational structure of the WTO:**



The WTO has 164 members, accounting for 98% of world trade. A total of 25 countries are negotiating membership.

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, the GATT. The WTO's agreements have been ratified in all members' parliaments.

The WTO's top level decision-making body is the Ministerial Conference, which meets usually every two years.

Below this is the General Council (normally ambassadors and heads of delegation based in Geneva but sometimes officials sent from members' capitals) which meets several times a year in the Geneva headquarters.

The General Council also meets as the Trade Policy Review Body and the Dispute Settlement Body.

At the next level, the Goods Council, Services Council and Intellectual Property (TRIPS) Council report to the General Council.

Numerous specialized committees, working groups and working parties deal with the individual agreements and other areas, such as the environment, development, membership applications and regional trade agreements.

Trade negotiations

The World Trade Organization came into being in 1995. One of the youngest of the international organizations, the WTO is the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) established in the wake of the Second World War.



So while the WTO is relatively young, the multilateral trading system that was originally set up under the GATT is over 70 years old.

The past 70 years have seen an exceptional growth in world trade. Merchandise exports have grown on average by 6% annually. This growth in trade has been a powerful engine for overall economic expansion and on average trade has grown by 1.5 times more than the global economy each year. Total exports in 2019 were 250 times the level of 1948. The GATT and the WTO have helped to create a strong and prosperous trading system contributing to unprecedented growth.

The system was developed through a series of trade negotiations, or rounds, held under the GATT. The first rounds dealt mainly with tariff reductions but later negotiations included other areas such as anti-dumping and non-tariff measures. The 1986-94 round – the Uruguay Round – led to the WTO’s creation.

The negotiations did not end there. In 1997, an agreement was reached on telecommunications services, with 69 governments agreeing to wide-ranging liberalization measures that went beyond those agreed in the Uruguay Round.



In the same year, 40 governments successfully concluded negotiations for tariff-free trade in information technology products, and 70 members concluded a financial services deal covering more than 95% of trade in banking, insurance, securities and financial information.

In 2000, new talks started on agriculture and services. These were incorporated into a broader work programme, the Doha Development Agenda, launched at the fourth WTO Ministerial Conference in Doha, Qatar, in November 2001.

The new work programme included negotiations and other work on non-agricultural tariffs, trade and the environment, WTO rules on anti-dumping and subsidies, trade facilitation, transparency in government procurement, intellectual property and a range of issues raised by developing economies as difficulties they face in implementing WTO agreements.

Negotiations on these and other topics have resulted in major updates to the WTO rulebook in recent years. A revised Government Procurement Agreement – adopted at the WTO’s 8th Ministerial Conference in 2011

– expanded the coverage of the original agreement by an estimated US\$ 100 billion a year.

At the 9th Ministerial Conference in Bali in 2013, WTO members struck the Agreement on Trade Facilitation, which aims to reduce border delays by slashing red tape.

When fully implemented, this Agreement – the first multilateral accord reached at the WTO – will cut trade costs by more than 14% and will lift global exports by as much as US\$ 1 trillion per year.

The expansion of the Information Technology agreement – concluded at the 10th ministerial conference in Nairobi in 2015 – eliminated tariffs on an additional 200 IT products valued at over US\$ 1.3 trillion per year. Another outcome of the conference was a decision to abolish agricultural export subsidies, fulfilling one of the key targets of the UN Sustainable Development Goal on “Zero hunger”.



Most recently, an amendment to the WTO’s Intellectual Property Agreement entered into force in 2017, easing poor economies’ access to affordable medicines. The same year saw the Trade Facilitation Agreement enter into force.

WTO agreements

How can you ensure that trade is as fair as possible, and as open as is practical? By negotiating rules and abiding by them.

The WTO’s rules – the agreements – are the result of negotiations between the members. The current set is largely the outcome of the



1986- 94 Uruguay Round negotiations, which included a major revision of the original General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

The Uruguay Round created new rules for dealing with trade in services and intellectual property and new procedures for dispute settlement. The complete set runs to some 30,000 pages consisting of about 30 agreements and separate commitments (called schedules) made by individual members in specific areas, such as lower tariffs and services market-opening.

Through these agreements, WTO members operate a non-discriminatory trading system that spells out their rights and their obligations. Each member receives guarantees that its exports will be treated fairly and consistently in other members' markets. Each promises to do the same for imports into its own market. The system also gives developing economies some flexibility in implementing their commitments.

Goods

It all began with trade in goods. From 1947 to 1994, the GATT was the forum for negotiating lower tariffs and other trade barriers; the text of the GATT spelt out important rules, particularly non- discrimination. Since 1995, the Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the WTO and its annexes (including the updated GATT) has become the WTO's umbrella agreement. It has annexes dealing with specific sectors relating to goods, such as agriculture, and with specific issues such as product standards, subsidies and actions taken against dumping. A recent significant addition was the Trade Facilitation Agreement, which entered into force in 2017.

Services

Banks, insurance firms, telecommunications companies, tour operators, hotel chains and transport companies looking to do business abroad enjoy the same principles of more open trade that originally only applied to trade in goods. These principles appear in the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). WTO members have also made individual commitments under the GATS stating which of their service sectors they are willing to open to foreign competition, and how open those markets are.

Intellectual property

The WTO's Intellectual Property Agreement contains rules for trade in ideas and creativity. 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.

Dispute settlement

The WTO's procedure for resolving trade conflicts under the Dispute Settlement Understanding is vital for enforcing the rules and therefore for ensuring that trade flows smoothly. Governments bring disputes to the WTO if they think their rights under the WTO agreements are being infringed. Judgements by specially appointed independent experts are based on interpretations of the agreements and individual members' commitments. The system encourages members to settle their differences through consultation with each other. If this proves to be unsuccessful, they can follow a 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. Confidence in the system is borne out by the number of cases brought to the WTO – more than 500 cases since the WTO was established compared with the 300 disputes dealt with during the entire life of the GATT (1947-94).

Trade monitoring

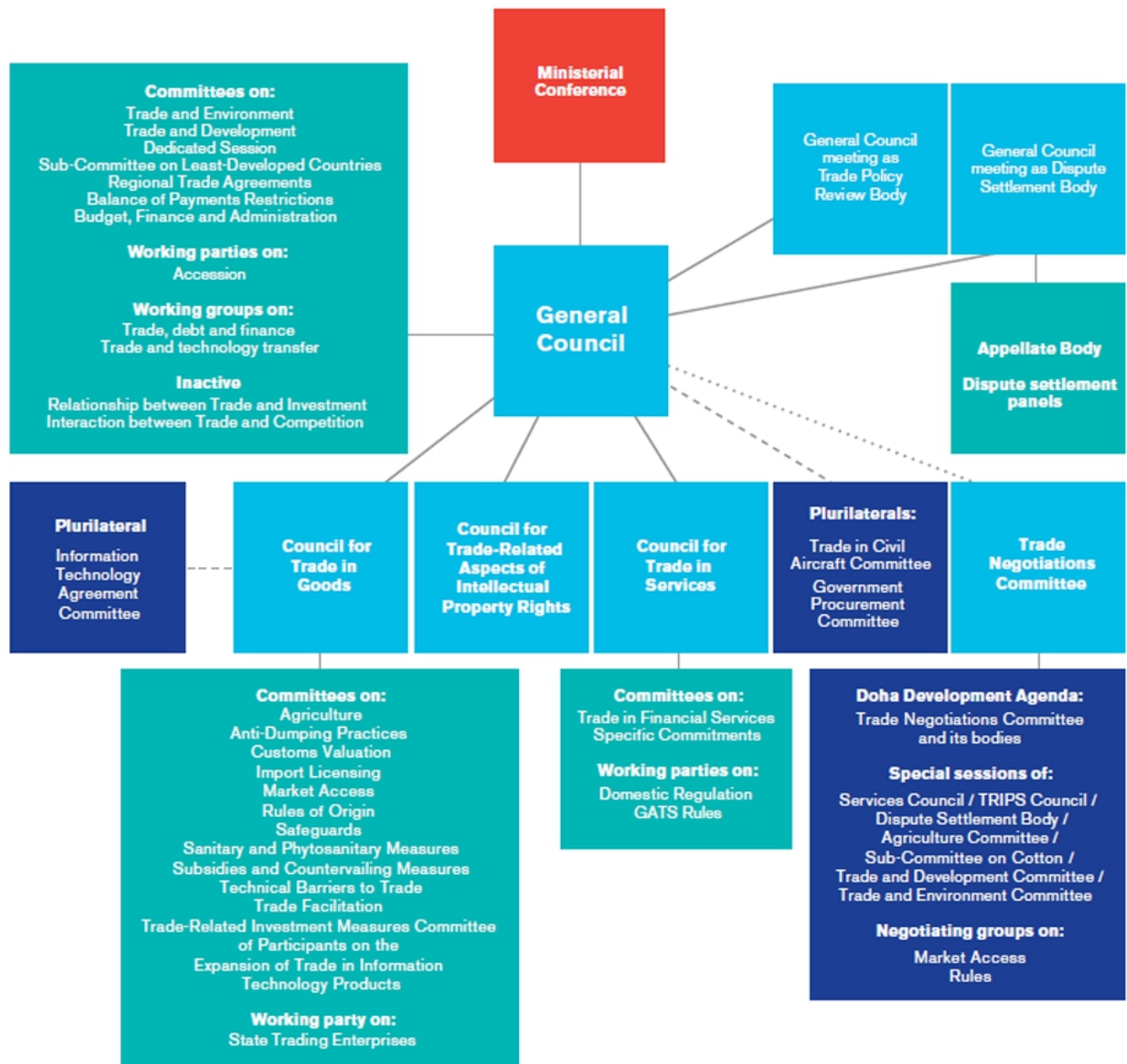
The WTO's Trade Policy Review Mechanism is designed to improve transparency, to create a greater understanding of the trade policies adopted by WTO members and to assess their impact. Many members see the reviews as constructive feedback on their policies. All WTO members must undergo periodic scrutiny, each review containing reports by the member concerned and the WTO Secretariat. In addition, the WTO undertakes regular monitoring of global trade measures. Initially launched in the wake of the financial crisis of 2008, this global trade monitoring exercise has become a regular function of the WTO, with the aim of highlighting WTO members' implementation of both trade-facilitating and trade-restricting measures.

WTO Secretariat

The WTO Secretariat, based in Geneva, has around 620 staff and is headed by a Director- General. It does not have branch offices outside Geneva. Since decisions are taken by the WTO's members, the Secretariat does not itself have a decision-making role.

The Secretariat's main duties are to supply technical support for the various councils/ committees and the ministerial conferences, to provide technical assistance for developing economies, to analyse world trade and to explain WTO activities 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. The annual budget contributed by members is roughly 197 million Swiss francs.



Building trade capacity in developing economies

Over three-quarters of WTO members are developing or least-developed economies. All WTO agreements contain special provisions for them, including longer time periods to implement commitments, measures to increase their trading opportunities and support to help th infrastructure needed to participate in world trade.



A WTO Committee on Trade and Development looks at developing economies' special needs. Its responsibility includes the implementation of the WTO agreements, technical cooperation and the increased participation of developing economies in the global trading system.

The Aid for Trade initiative, launched by WTO members in 2005, is designed to help developing economies build trade capacity, enhance their infrastructure and improve their ability to benefit from trade-opening opportunities. So far, over US\$ 400 billion has been disbursed to support Aid for Trade projects. A Global Review of the initiative is held every two years at the WTO's headquarters.



The Enhanced Integrated Framework (EIF) is the only multilateral partnership dedicated exclusively to assisting least developed countries (LDCs) in their use of trade as an engine for growth, sustainable development and poverty reduction. The EIF partnership of

51 countries, 24 donors and eight partner agencies, including the WTO, works closely with governments, development organizations, civil society and academia. The EIF has invested in over 170 projects, with US\$ 220 million committed to supporting the poorest countries in the world.

Another partnership supported by the WTO is the Standards and Trade Development Facility (STDF), set up to help developing economies meet international standards for food safety, plant and animal health and access global markets. The WTO houses the Secretariat and manages the STDF trust fund, which has provided financing of over US\$ 50 million to support projects in low-income economies.

Technical assistance and training

The WTO organizes hundreds of technical cooperation missions to developing economies annually. It also holds many trade policy courses each year in Geneva for government officials. Regional seminars are held regularly in all regions of the world, with a special emphasis on African countries. E-learning courses are also available. In 2019, some 22800 participants benefited from WTO training aimed at improving understanding of WTO agreements and global trade rules.



Achievements of WTO:

Membership of the WTO: 162 members (as of 31 December 2015)
Bangladesh become of WTO science 1995.

The WTO's achievements are wide-ranging. Global trade barriers are historically low, the WTO's dispute settlement mechanism ensures international trade rules are respected, and participation in an open, increasingly integrated and rules-based world trading system has become all but universal, with 33 new members, including China and Russia, joining since 1995.

WTO members have also made important progress in areas of trade opening. The “Bali Package” of 2013 resulted in the landmark Trade Facilitation Agreement, which, in simplifying and speeding up global customs procedures, could see average trade costs fall significantly. More recently, at the Ministerial Conference in Nairobi, 50-plus WTO members reached agreement on an expanded Information Technology Agreement that aims to eliminate tariffs on over 200 technology products, representing trade of US\$ 1.3 trillion per annum. Also in Nairobi, trade ministers agreed to abolish export subsidies for farm exports as part of a “Nairobi Package”. WTO Director-General Roberto Azevêdo hailed the result as the “most significant outcome on agriculture” in the organization’s history. The overall effect of increasing WTO membership over the past 20 years has been to boost growth, increase stability in the global economy and strengthen the organization. The current 162 WTO members – soon to be 164 with the incorporation of Afghanistan and Liberia – are home to more than 7 billion people and account for nearly 96 per cent of the global economy and 98 percent of world trade. Trade volumes have increased two-and-a-half times since 1995, with the developing world’s share rising from 27 per cent to over 43 per cent today. Average applied tariffs have been cut in half – to less than 8 per cent from 15 per cent. Today, almost 60 per cent of world trade flows tariff free, while another fifth is subject to tariffs of under 5 per cent. And while industrialized countries dominated the WTO’s predecessor, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), developing countries play a key role in managing the WTO, shaping its agenda and negotiating its agreements.

Agriculture in the WTO

Agriculture has traditionally benefited from special arrangements which sheltered it from the full impact of GATT disciplines. Even today, in the WTO agricultural policies are covered by a separate agreement that, to a degree, still shelters it from generally applicable rules.



A variety of political, social, economic and cultural arguments are used to justify this special treatment. The main justification is the need to guarantee, over time, stable food supplies in a world of fluctuating harvests and potential famines.

The scope of the traditional agricultural “exception” was to some extent limited by the Uruguay Round agreements; WTO Members agreed upon a set of principles and disciplines that were designed to help liberalize international trade in agricultural products.

The Uruguay Round achieved two things in relation to agriculture. It introduced specific disciplines on market access, domestic support and export subsidies. At the same time it took away the “fig leaf” behind which agriculture had been hiding from the full force of general GATT disciplines.

This Module examines each of the three disciplines in turn and the other provisions of the Agreement on Agriculture. Other WTO agreements also discipline trade in agricultural products. Those with the biggest impact on trade in agricultural products are: the GATT 1994; the Agreement on Safeguards or the Safeguards Agreement; the Agreement on Import Licensing Procedures or the Import Licensing Agreement; the Agreement on the Application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures or the SPS Agreement; the Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade or the TBT Agreement and, the Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights or the TRIPs Agreement.

The Agreement on Agriculture

The Agreement on Agriculture is one of the key agreements within the WTO system. Its importance is reflected by its presence as the first Agreement annexed to the Marrakesh Agreement establishing the WTO. The Agreement on Agriculture is fairly short, with only 21 Articles and 5 Annexes. The 21 Articles are rather surprisingly divided into 13 Chapters. This form of the Agreement on Agriculture probably reflects the sensitivity of the sector and the difficulty in achieving agreement among WTO Members. The definition of agricultural product covers not only basic agricultural products such as wheat, milk and live animals, but the products derived from them such as bread, butter, oil and meat, as well as all processed agricultural products such as chocolate, yoghurt and sausages. The coverage also includes wines, spirits and tobacco products, fibers such as cotton, wool and silk, and raw animal skins destined for leather production.

The Agreement on Agriculture has three pillars—domestic support, market access, and export subsidies.

I. Domestic support

The first pillar of the Agreement on Agriculture is "domestic support". The WTO Agreement on Agriculture negotiated in the Uruguay Round (1986–1994) includes the classification of subsidies into "boxes" depending on their effects on production and trade: amber (most directly linked to production levels), blue (production-limiting programs that still distort trade), and green (minimal distortion). While payments in the amber box had to be reduced, those in the green box were exempt from reduction commitments. Detailed rules for green box payments are set out in Annex 2 of the AOA. However, all must comply with the "fundamental requirement" in paragraph 1, to cause not more than minimal distortion of trade or production, and must be provided through a government-funded program that does not involve transfers from consumers or price support to producers.

The Agreement on Agriculture's domestic support system currently allows Europe and the United States to spend \$380 billion a year on agricultural subsidies. The World Bank dismissed the EU and the United States' argument that small farmers needed protection, noting that more than half of the EU's Common Agricultural Policy subsidies go to 1% of producers while in the United States 70% of subsidies go to 10% of its producers, mainly agribusinesses. These subsidies end up flooding global markets with below-cost commodities, depressing prices, and undercutting producers in poor countries, a practice known as dumping.

II. Market access

Market access refers to the reduction of tariff (or non-tariff) barriers to trade by WTO members. The 1995 Agreement on Agriculture required tariff reductions of:

36% average reduction by developed countries, with a minimum per-tariff line reduction of 15% over six years.

24% average reduction by developing countries with a minimum per-tariff line reduction of 10% over ten years.

Least developed countries (LDCs) were exempt from tariff reductions, but they either had to convert non-tariff barriers to tariffs—a process called tariffication—or "bind" their tariffs, creating a ceiling that could not be increased in future.

III. Export subsidies

Export subsidies are the third pillar. The 1995 Agreement on Agriculture required developed countries to reduce export subsidies by at least 36% (by value) or by 21% (by volume) over six years. For developing countries, the required cuts were 14% (by volume) and 24% (by value) over ten years.

Conclusion:

WTO (World Trade Organization) work as an international business catalyst. It has significant importance on business dealings and negotiations. The world business becomes more easier due to WTO activities. It has great contribution in the world economy.



Deccan Education Society
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Course :INTERNATIONAL RELATION (IR)

Topic : The United Nation Organization(UNO)

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Introduction

The United Nations (UN) is an international organization founded in 1945. It is currently made up of 193 Member State .Its mission and work guided by the purposes and principles contained in its founding Charter and implemented by its various organs and specialised agencies. Its activities include maintaining international peace and security, protecting human rights, delivering humanitarian aid, promoting sustainable development and upholding international law.

History of UN Foundation

In 1899, the International Peace Conference was held in The Hague to elaborate instruments for settling crises peacefully, preventing wars and codifying rules of warfare. It adopted the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes and established the Permanent Court of Arbitration, which began work in 1902. This court was the forerunner of UN International Court of Justice. The forerunner of the United Nations was the League of Nations, an organization conceived in circumstances of the First World War, and established in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles "to promote international cooperation and to achieve peace and security."

The International Labour Organization (ILO) was also created in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles as an affiliated agency of the League. The name "United Nations", coined by United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt. A document called The Declaration by United Nations was signed in 1942 by 26 nations, pledging their Governments to continue fighting together against the Axis Powers (Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis) and bound them against making a separate peace. United Nations Conference on International Organization (1945) Conference held in San Francisco (USA), was attended by representatives of 50 countries and signed the United Nations Charter. The UN Charter of 1945 is the foundational treaty of the United Nations, as an inter-governmental organization.

Components

1. General Assembly

The General Assembly is the main deliberative, policymaking and representative organ of the UN. All 193 Member States of the UN are represented in the General Assembly, making it the only UN body with universal representation. Each year, in September, the full UN membership meets in the General Assembly Hall in New York for the annual General Assembly session, and general debate, which many heads of state attend and address. Decisions on important questions, such as those on peace and security, admission of new members and budgetary matters, require a two-thirds majority of the General Assembly.

Decisions on other questions are by simple majority. The President of the General Assembly is elected each year by assembly to serve a one-year term of office. 6 Main Committees: Draft resolutions can be prepared for the General Assembly by its six main committees: (1) First Committee (Disarmament and International Security), (2) Second Committee (Economic and Financial), (3) Third Committee (Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural), (4) Fourth Committee (Special Political and Decolonization), (5) Fifth Committee (Administrative and Budgetary), (6) Sixth Committee (Legal). Each Member State may be represented by one person on each Main Committee and on any other committee that may be established upon which all Member States have the right to be represented. Member States may also assign advisers, technical advisers, experts or persons of similar status to these committees.

Other Committees:

General Committee: It meets periodically throughout each session to review the progress of the General Assembly and its committees and to make recommendations for furthering such progress. It is composed of the President of the General Assembly and 21 Vice-Presidents of the Assembly and the Chairmen of the six Main Committees. The five permanent members of the Security Council serve as Vice-Presidents, as well. Credentials Committee: It is mandated to examine the credentials of representatives of Member States and to report to the General Assembly.

2. Security Council

It has primary responsibility, under the UN Charter, for the maintenance of international peace and security. The Security Council is made up of fifteen member states, consisting of five permanent members—China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States—and ten non-permanent members elected for two-year terms by the General Assembly on a regional basis. "Veto power" refers to the power of the permanent member to veto (Reject) any resolution of Security Council. The unconditional veto possessed by the five governments has been seen as the most undemocratic character of the UN. Critics also claim that veto power is the main cause for international inaction on war crimes and crimes against humanity. However, the United States refused to join the United Nations in 1945 unless it was given a veto. The absence of the United States from the League of Nations contributed to its ineffectiveness. Supporters of the veto power regard it as a promoter of international stability, a check against military interventions, and a critical safeguard against U.S. domination.

3. Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

It is the principal body for coordination, policy review, policy dialogue and recommendations on economic, social and environmental issues, as well as implementation of internationally agreed development goals. It has 54 Members, elected by the General Assembly for overlapping three-year terms. It is the United Nations' central platform for reflection, debate, and innovative thinking on sustainable development. Each year, ECOSOC structures its work around an annual theme of global importance to sustainable development. This ensures focused attention, among ECOSOC's array of partners, and throughout the UN development system. It coordinates the work of the 14 UN specialized agencies, ten functional commissions and five regional commissions, receives reports from nine UN funds and programmes and issues policy recommendations to the UN system and to Member States.

4. Trusteeship Council

It was established in 1945 by the UN Charter, under Chapter XIII. Trust territory is a non-self-governing territory placed under an administrative authority by the Trusteeship Council of the United Nations. A League of Nations mandate was a legal status for certain territories transferred from the control of one country to another following World War I, or the legal instruments that contained the internationally agreed-upon terms for administering the territory on behalf of the League of Nations.

United Nations trust territories were the successors of the remaining League of Nations mandates, and came into being when the League of Nations ceased to exist in 1946. It had to provide international supervision for 11 Trust Territories that had been placed under the administration of seven Member States, and ensure that adequate steps were taken to prepare the Territories for self-government and independence. By 1994, all Trust Territories had attained self-government or independence. The Trusteeship Council suspended operation on 1 November 1994.

5. International Court of Justice (ICJ)

The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. It was established in June 1945 by the Charter of the United Nations and began work in April 1946. The ICJ is the successor of the Permanent Court of International Justice (PCIJ), which was established by the League of Nations in 1920.

6. Secretariat

The Secretariat comprises the Secretary-General and tens of thousands of international UN staff members who carry out the day-to-day work of the UN as mandated by the General Assembly and the Organization's other principal organs. The Secretary-General is chief administrative officer of the Organization, appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council for a five- year, renewable term. UN staff members are recruited internationally and locally, and work in duty stations and on peacekeeping missions all around the world.

Funds and Programmes

UNICEF

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), originally known as the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, was created by the United Nations General Assembly in 1946, to provide emergency food and healthcare to children and mothers in countries that had been devastated by World War II.

In 1950, UNICEF's mandate was extended to address the long-term needs of children and women in developing countries everywhere.

In 1953, it became a permanent part of the United Nations System, and the words "international" and "emergency" were dropped from the organization's name, though it retained the original acronym, "UNICEF".

Executive Board: A 36-member board establishes policies, approves programs and oversees administrative and financial plans. The members are government representatives who are elected by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), usually for three-year terms.

UNICEF relies on contributions from governments and private donors.

UNICEF's Supply Division is based in Copenhagen (Denmark) and serves as the primary point of distribution for such essential items as vaccines, antiretroviral medicines for children and mothers with HIV, nutritional supplements, emergency shelters, family reunification, and educational supplies.

UNFPA

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), formerly the United Nations Fund for Population Activities, is the United Nations sexual and reproductive health agency.

Its mission is to deliver a world where every pregnancy is wanted, 'every childbirth is safe' and every young person's potential is fulfilled.

In 2018, UNFPA launched efforts to achieve three transformative results, ambitions that promise to change the world for every man, woman and young person:

Ending unmet need for family planning

Ending preventable maternal death

Ending gender-based violence and harmful practices

UNDP

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the UN's global development network.

UNDP was established in 1965 by the General Assembly of the United Nations. It provides expert advice, training and grants support to developing countries, with increasing emphasis on assistance to the least developed countries.

The UNDP Executive Board is made up of representatives from 36 countries around the world who serve on a rotating basis.

It is funded entirely by voluntary contributions from member nations.

UNDP is central to the United Nations Sustainable Development Group (UNSDG), a network that spans 165 countries and unites the 40 UN funds, programmes, specialized agencies and other bodies working to advance the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

UNEP

The United Nations Environment Programme (UN Environment) is a global environmental authority that sets the global environmental agenda, promotes the coherent implementation of the environmental dimension of sustainable development within the United Nations system.

It was founded by UN General Assembly as a result of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm Conference) in June 1972.

UNEP and World Meteorological Organization (WMO) established Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1988 to assess climate change based on the latest science.

Since its founding, the UNEP has played a key role for the development of multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs). The secretariats for the following nine MEAs are currently hosted by UNEP:

Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)

Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS)

Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone

Basel Convention on the Control of Trans-boundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal

Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants

Rotterdam Convention on the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in International Trade

UN-Habitat

United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) is the United Nations programme working towards a better urban future.

Its mission is to promote socially and environmentally sustainable human settlements development and the achievement of adequate shelter for all.

It was established in 1978 as an outcome of the First **UN Conference on Human Settlements and Sustainable Urban Development (Habitat I)** in Vancouver, Canada, in 1976.

2nd United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) in Istanbul, Turkey, in 1996, set the twin goals of the Habitat Agenda:

Adequate shelter for all

Development of sustainable human settlements in an urbanizing world.

3rd United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development (Habitat III) was held in 2016 in Quito, Ecuador. It elaborated on **Goal-11 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG): "Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable.**

WFP

World Food Programme (WFP) is the leading humanitarian organization saving lives and changing lives, delivering food assistance in emergencies and working with communities to improve nutrition and build resilience.

The WFP was established in 1963 by the **FAO (The Food and Agriculture Organization)** and the **United Nations General Assembly**.

UN Specialized Agencies

The UN specialized agencies are autonomous organizations working with the United Nations. All were brought into relationship with the UN through negotiated agreements.

Some existed even before the First World War. Some were **associated with the League of Nations**. Others were created almost simultaneously with the UN. Others were created by the UN to meet **emerging needs**.

Articles 57 and 63 of UN Charter provides provision of creating specialised agencies.

FAO

In 1945, Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) was created In Quebec City, Canada, by the first session of the newly created United Nations.

FAO is a specialized agency of the United Nations that leads international efforts to defeat hunger.

FAO is also a source of knowledge and information, and helps developing countries in transition modernize and improve agriculture, forestry and fisheries practices, ensuring good nutrition and food security for all.

ICAO

Under **Chicago Convention**, the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) was established in 1944, as a UN specialized agency. It manages the administration and governance of the Convention on International Civil Aviation (Chicago Convention).

It provides the principles and techniques of international air navigation and fosters the planning and development of international air transport to ensure safe and orderly growth.

IFAD

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) was established as an **international financial institution** in 1977 through United Nations General Assembly Resolution as one of the major outcomes of the **1974–World Food Conference**.

This conference was organized by the United Nations in response to the food crises of the early 1970s, when global food shortages were causing widespread famine and malnutrition, primarily in the Sahelian countries of Africa. It was realized that food insecurity and famine were not so much failures in food production but structural problems relating to poverty.

ILO

The International Labour Organization (ILO) is a United Nations agency whose mandate is to advance social justice and promote decent work by setting international labour standards.

It sets international labour standards, promotes rights at work and encourages decent employment opportunities, the enhancement of social protection and the strengthening of dialogue on work-related issues.

As an agency of the League of Nations, it was created in **1919**, as part of the **Treaty of Versailles** that ended World War I.

9 International Labour Conventions and 10 Recommendations which dealt with hours of work in industry, unemployment, maternity protection, night work for women, minimum age, and night work for young persons in industry were adopted in less than two years (by 1922).

By signing of the United Nation agreement whereby the ILO became the **first United Nations specialized agency** in 1946.

The Organization won the Nobel Peace Prize on its 50th anniversary in 1969 for pursuing decent work and justice for workers.

In 1980, the ILO played a major role in the emancipation of Poland from dictatorship by giving its full support to the legitimacy of the Solidarnosc Union, based on respect for Convention No. 87 on freedom of association, which Poland had ratified in 1957.

It emphasised that the future of work is not predetermined: Decent work for all is possible but societies have to make it happen. It is precisely with this imperative that the ILO established its **Global Commission on the Future of Work** as part of its initiative to mark its centenary in 2019.

Its job is to undertake an in-depth examination of the future of work that can provide the analytical basis for the delivery of social justice in the 21st century.

IMF

UN Monetary and Financial Conference (1944, also called **Bretton Woods Conference**), Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, United States was held to regulate the international monetary and financial order after the conclusion of World War II.

It resulted in foundation of International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1945.

World Bank

UN Monetary and Financial Conference (1944, also called **Bretton Woods Conference**), was held to regulate the international monetary and financial

order after the conclusion of World War II. It resulted in foundation of IBRD in 1945. IBRD is the founding institution of World Bank

IMO

The International Maritime Organization (IMO) – is the United Nations specialized agency with responsibility for the safety and security of shipping and the prevention of marine and atmospheric pollution by ships.

ITU

International Telecommunication Union (ITU) is a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) that is responsible for issues that concern information and communication technologies (ICT). It is the oldest among all the specialised agencies of UN.

It was founded in 1865 and based in Geneva, Switzerland. It works on the principle of **international cooperation** between governments (Member States) and the private sector (Sector Members, Associates and Academia).

ITU is the premier global forum through which parties work towards consensus on a wide range of issues affecting the future direction of the ICT industry.

It allocates global radio spectrum and satellite orbits, develop the technical standards that ensure networks and technologies seamlessly interconnect, and strive to improve access to ICTs to underserved communities worldwide.

UNESCO

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was founded in 1945 to develop the “intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind” as a means of building lasting peace. It is located in Paris (France).

In this spirit, UNESCO develops educational tools to help people live as global citizens free of hate and intolerance.

By promoting cultural heritage and the equal dignity of all cultures, UNESCO strengthens bonds among nations.

UNIDO

United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) promotes industrial development for **poverty reduction, inclusive globalisation and environmental sustainability**.

WHO

The World Health Organization (WHO) is the United Nations’ specialized agency for health.

It was established in 1948, and is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland.

It is an inter-governmental organization and works in collaboration with its Member States usually through the Ministries of Health.

The World Health Organization (WHO) is responsible for

- providing leadership on global health matters,
- shaping the health research agenda,
- setting norms and standards,
- providing evidence-based policy options,
- providing technical support to countries,
- and monitoring and assessing health trends.

UNCTAD

UNCTAD supports developing countries to access the benefits of a globalized economy more fairly and effectively. It helps to use trade, investment, finance, and technology as vehicles for inclusive and sustainable development.

UNODC

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is a global leader in the fight against illicit drugs and international crime.

It was **established in 1997** through a **merger** between the United Nations Drug Control Programme and the Centre for International Crime Prevention.

UNODC is mandated to assist Member States in their struggle against illicit drugs, crime and terrorism.

UNHCR

The office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was created in 1950, during the aftermath of the Second World War, to help millions of Europeans who had fled or lost their homes.

In 1954, UNHCR won the **Nobel Peace Prize** for its work in Europe.

The start of the 21st century has seen UNHCR help with major refugee crises in Africa, the Middle East and Asia.

It also uses its expertise to help many internally displaced by conflict and expanded its role in helping stateless people.

ESCAP

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) is the main economic and social development centre of the UN in the region, headquartered in Bangkok (Thailand) in 1947.

It responds to the development needs and priorities of the region through its convening authority, economic and social analysis, normative standard-setting and technical assistance.

UN Contribution to World

Peace and Security

Maintaining Peace and Security: By sending peacekeeping and observer missions to the world's trouble spots over the past six decades, the United Nations has been able to restore calm, allowing many countries to recover from conflict.

Preventing Nuclear Proliferation: For over the five decades, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) has served as the world's nuclear inspector. IAEA experts work to verify that safeguarded nuclear material is used only for peaceful purposes. To date, the Agency has safeguards agreements with more than 180 States.

Supporting Disarmament: UN treaties are the legal backbone of disarmament efforts:

the Chemical Weapons Convention-1997 has been ratified by 190 States,

the Mine-Ban Convention-1997 by 162,

and the Arms Trade Treaty-2014 by 69.

At the local level, UN peacekeepers often work to implement disarmament agreements between warring parties.

Preventing genocide: The United Nations brought about the first-ever treaty to combat genocide—acts committed with the intent to destroy a national, ethnical, racial or religious group.

The 1948 Genocide Convention has been ratified by 146 States, which commits to prevent and punish actions of genocide in war and in peacetime. The UN tribunals for Yugoslavia and Rwanda, as well as UN-supported courts in Cambodia, have put would-be genocide perpetrators on notice that such crimes would no longer be tolerated.

India's contribution to UN

India was one of the original members of the League of Nations. As a signatory of the Treaty of Versailles-1919, India was granted automatic entry to the League of Nations.

India was represented by her Secretary of State, Edwin Samuel Montagu; the Maharaja of Bikaner Sir Ganga Singh; Satyendra Prasanno Sinha, Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for India.

India was among the original members of the United Nations that signed the Declaration by United Nations at Washington, D.C. in 1944. This declaration

became the basis of the United Nations (UN), which was formalized in the United Nations Charter signed by 50 countries in 1945.

By 1946, India had started raising concerns regarding colonialism, apartheid and racial discrimination.

India was among the most outspoken critics of apartheid and racial discrimination (discriminatory treatment of Indians in the Union of South Africa) in South Africa, being the first country to have raised the issue in the UN in 1946.

India took an active part in Drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights-1948.

Its experience with the UN had not always been positive. On Kashmir issue, Nehru's faith in the UN and adherence to its principles proved costly as UN that was packed with pro-Pakistani partisan powers.

Vijaya Lakshmi Pandit was elected the first woman President of the UN General Assembly in 1953.

India's status as a founding member of the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) and the Group of 77 (G-77) cemented its position within the UN system as a leading advocate of the concerns and aspirations of developing countries and the creation of a more equitable international economic and political order.

It involved in conflict with China (1962), two wars (1965, 1971) with Pakistan and entered a period of political instability, economic stagnation, food shortages and near-famine conditions.

India's role diminished in the UN which came both as a result of its image and a deliberate decision by the post-Nehru political leadership to adopt a low profile at the UN and speak only on vital Indian interests.

India has been a member of the UN Security Council for seven terms (a total of 14 years), with the most recent being the 2011–12 term.

India is a member of G4 (Brazil, Germany, India and Japan), a group of nations who back each other in seeking a permanent seat on the Security Council and advocate in favour of the reformation of the UNSC.

The Russian Federation, United States, United Kingdom and France support India and the other G4 countries gaining permanent seats.

India is also part of the G-77.

The Group of 77 (G-77) was established on 15 June 1964 by seventy-seven developing countries signatories of the "Joint Declaration of the Seventy-Seven Developing Countries".

It is designed to promote its members' collective economic interests and create an enhanced joint negotiating capacity in the United Nations.

Because of the historical significance, the name G-77 has been kept despite the group's growth to include more than 130 countries.

UN peacekeeping missions: From protecting civilians, disarming ex-combatants and helping countries transition from conflict to peace, India has served the cause of peace.

At present (2019), India is the third largest troop contributor with 6593 personnel deployed with UN Peacekeeping Missions (Lebanon, Congo, Sudan and South Sudan, Golan Heights, Ivory Coast, Haiti, Liberia).

India has suffered the highest number of fatalities (164 out of close to 3,800 personnel) among countries that have sent forces to the United Nations peacekeeping mission since 1948.

Mahatma Gandhi has had a lasting influence on the United Nations. His ideals of non-violence deeply influenced the United Nations at the time of its inception.

In 2007, the United Nations declared 2nd October, Mahatma's Gandhi's birthday, as the International day of non-violence.

In 2014, the UN General Assembly adopted a resolution commemorating 21 June as the International Yoga Day.

It recognises the holistic benefits of this timeless practice and its inherent compatibility with the principles and values of the United Nations.

Plea for International Equality Day: In 2016, with focus on combating inequalities to achieve Sustainable Development Goals, B. R. Ambedkar's birth anniversary was observed at the United Nations for the first time. India has made a plea to declare April 14 as International Equality Day.

UN Challenges & Reforms

UN Administrative & Financial-Resources Challenges

Development Reform: Sustainable Development Goals (Agenda 2030) will require bold changes to the UN Development System (UNDS) for the emergence of a new generation of country teams, centred on a strategic UN Development Assistance Framework and led by an impartial, independent and empowered resident coordinator.

Management Reform: To confront global challenges and to remain relevant in a fast-changing world, United Nations must empower managers and staff, simplifies processes, increases accountability and transparency and improves on the delivery of our mandates.

There are concerns for improving efficiency, avoidance of duplication, and the minimization of waste in the functioning of the entire UN system.

Financial Resources: Contributions of the Member States should have, as their fundamental underpinning, the capacity to pay principle.

The Member States should pay their contributions unconditionally, in full and on time, as delays in payments have caused an unprecedented financial crisis in the UN system.

Financial reforms hold the key to the future of the world body. Without sufficient resources, the UN's activities and role would suffer.

Conclusion

Despite having many short-comings, UN has played a crucial role making this human society more civil, more peaceful & secure in comparison to time of its origin at 2nd World War.

United Nations, being the world's largest democratic body of all nations, its responsibility towards humanity is very high in terms of building democratic society, economic development of people living in acute poverty, & preserving the Earth's Ecosystem in concern with Climate Change.

International relation assignment

Topic -  THE WORLD BANK



Name – Pranav Gholap

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About World Bank

The **World Bank** is an international financial institution that provides loans and grants to the governments of low- and middle-income countries for the purpose of pursuing capital projects.

The world has its headquarters situated in Washington DC and has more than 10000 staff all over the world.

The World Bank is like a cooperative, made up of 189 member countries. These member countries, or shareholders, are represented by a Board of Governors, who are the ultimate policymakers at the World Bank. Generally, the governors are member countries' ministers of finance or ministers of development. They meet once a year at the Annual Meetings of the Boards of Governors of the World Bank Group and the International Monetary Fund.

The governors delegate specific duties to 25 Executive Directors, who work on-site at the Bank. The five largest shareholders appoint an executive director, while other member countries are represented by elected executive directors.

- The World Bank Group President chairs meetings of the Boards of Directors and is responsible for overall management of the Bank. The President is selected by the Board of Executive Directors for a five-year, renewable term.
- The Executive Directors make up the Boards of Directors of the World Bank. They normally meet at least twice a week to oversee the Bank's business, including approval of loans and guarantees, new policies, the administrative budget, country assistance strategies and borrowing and financial decisions.

The World Bank operates day-to-day under the leadership and direction of the president, management and senior staff, and the vice presidents

in charge of Global Practices, Cross-Cutting Solutions Areas, regions, and functions.

Member Countries

The organizations that make up the World Bank Group are owned by the governments of member nations, which have the ultimate decision-making power within the organizations on all matters, including policy, financial or membership issues.

Member countries govern the World Bank Group through the Boards of Governors and the Boards of Executive Directors. These bodies make all major decisions for the organizations.

To become a member of the Bank, under the IBRD Articles of Agreement, a country must first join the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Membership in IDA, IFC and MIGA are conditional on membership in IBRD.

In tandem with the IMF, and in consultation with other World Bank Group staff, the Corporate Secretariat Vice Presidency coordinates the process for new membership and maintains the information relating to the status of membership which includes the membership lists.

Boards of Directors

The World Bank Group Boards of Directors refers to four separate Boards of Directors, namely the Board of the **International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)**, the **International Development Agency (IDA)**, the **International Finance Corporation (IFC)** and the **Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)**.

Each Board is responsible for the general operations of their respective organization. The Executive Directors as individuals cannot exercise any power nor commit or represent the Bank unless specifically authorized by the Board of Directors to do so. Executive Directors are appointed or elected by the Governors. Separate elections are held for the Bank and MIGA Board of Directors. Bank Executive Directors serve ex-officio as Directors for IFC and IDA. The current Boards of the World Bank Group consist of 25 Directors*. In line with the Bank's Articles, the Executive Directors select the World Bank President, who is the Chairman of the Board of Directors. The President is the presiding officer, and ordinarily has no vote except a deciding vote in case of an equally divided Board.

Voting Powers

The voting power of each Member country is based on the number of shares it holds. Shares are allocated differently in each organization, resulting in different voting powers.

The Corporate Secretariat is responsible for coordinating the process of membership as well as assisting members to complete their subscriptions to their allocated shares under periodic capital increases in **IBRD, IDA, IFC, and MIGA**. It provides advice on the procedures for subscribing to additional shares as authorized under resolutions approved by the Boards of Governors, including required documentation and capital subscriptions payments.

Functions of the World Bank

It helps the war-devasted countries by granting them loans for reconstruction.

Thus, they provide extensive experience and the financial resources of the bank help the poor countries increase their economic growth, reducing poverty and a better standard of living.

Also, it helps the underdeveloped countries by granting development loans.

So, it also provides loans to various governments for irrigation, agriculture, water supply, health, education, etc.

It promotes foreign investments to other organizations by guaranteeing the loans.

Also, the world bank provides economic, monetary, and technical advice to the member countries for any of their projects.

Thus, it encourages the development of of-industries in underdeveloped countries by introducing the various economic reforms.

This includes providing long term capital to its member nations for economic development and reconstruction.

Thus, it helps in inducing long term capital for improving the balance of payments and thereby balancing international trade.

Also, it helps by providing guarantees against loads granted to large and small units and other projects for the member nations.

So, it ensures that the development projects are implemented. Thus, it brings a sense of transparency for a nation from war-time to a peaceful economy.

Also, it promotes the capital investment for member nations by providing a guarantee for capital investment and loans.

So, if the capital investment is not available than it provides the guarantee and then IBRD provides loans for promotional activities on specific conditions.

World Bank Group Strategy

The World Bank Group has developed a new Strategy focusing on the ambitious goals of ending extreme poverty and promoting shared prosperity in a sustainable manner. It is committed to helping countries reach these goals with proven solutions that integrate the WBG's development knowledge and financial services.

The WBG will expand and strengthen its partnerships, especially within the private sector, to help align a global effort to sustainably meet the two goals. To better meet the growing needs of its clients, the WBG will collaborate more fully to leverage the strengths of its agencies in helping to overcome the greatest development challenges facing its client countries.

There are four boards of world bank group they are as follow –

- The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)
- The International Development Association (IDA)
- The International Finance Corporation (IFC)
- The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)

INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) is a global development cooperative owned by 189 member countries. As the largest development bank in the world, it supports the World Bank Group's mission by providing loans, guarantees, risk management products, and advisory services to middle-income and creditworthy low-income countries, as well as by coordinating responses to regional and global challenges.

Created in 1944 to help Europe rebuild after World War II, IBRD joins with IDA, our fund for the poorest countries, to form the World Bank. They work closely with all institutions of the World Bank Group and the public and private sectors in developing countries to reduce poverty and build shared prosperity.

International Development Agency (IDA)

The International Development Association (IDA) is the part of the World Bank that helps the world's poorest countries. Overseen by 173 shareholder nations, IDA aims to reduce poverty by providing zero to low-interest loans (called "credits") and grants for programs that boost economic growth, reduce inequalities, and improve people's living conditions.

IDA complements the World Bank's original lending arm—the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD). IBRD was established to function as a self-sustaining business and provides loans and advice to middle-income and credit-worthy poor countries. IBRD and IDA share the same staff and headquarters and evaluate projects with the same rigorous standards.

IDA is one of the largest sources of assistance for the world's 74 poorest countries and is the single largest source of donor funds for basic social services in these countries. IDA lends money on concessional terms. This means that IDA credits have a zero or very low interest charge and repayments are stretched over 30 to 40 years, including a 5- to 10-year

grace period. IDA also provides grants to countries at risk of debt distress.

International Finance Corporation (IFC)

The International Finance Corporation (IFC) is an international financial institution that offers investment, advisory, and asset-management services to encourage private-sector development in less developed countries. The IFC is a member of the World Bank Group and is headquartered in Washington, D.C. in the United States.

It was established in 1956, as the private-sector arm of the World Bank Group, to advance economic development by investing in for-profit and commercial projects for poverty reduction and promoting development. The IFC's stated aim is to create opportunities for people to escape poverty and achieve better living standards by mobilizing financial resources for private enterprise, promoting accessible and competitive markets, supporting businesses and other private-sector entities, and creating jobs and delivering necessary services to those who are poverty stricken or otherwise vulnerable.

Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)

The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) is a member of the World Bank Group. Our mandate is to promote cross-border investment in developing countries by providing guarantees (political risk insurance and credit enhancement) to investors and lenders.

Our guarantees protect investments against non-commercial risks and can help investors obtain access to funding sources with improved financial terms and conditions. The Agency derives its unique strength from the World Bank Group and from its structure as an international organization whose shareholders include most countries of the world. This enables us to provide an umbrella of deterrence against government actions that could disrupt projects, and assist in the resolution of disputes between investors and governments. We also add value through our ability to offer clients extensive knowledge of emerging markets and of international best practice in environmental and social management.

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**INVESTMENT
DISPUTES**

Secretary-General

Meg Kinnear

Deputy Secretary-General

Gonzalo Flores

Deputy Secretary-General

Martina Polasek

*Thank
you*

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS ASSIGNMENT

TRADE POLICY

A Trade policy (also referred to as a commercial policy or international trade policy) is a government's policy governing international trade. Commercial policy is an all-encompassing term that is used to cover topics which involve international trade. Trade policy is often described in terms of a scale between the extremes of free trade (no restrictions on trade) on one side and protectionism (high restrictions to protect local producers) on the other. A common commercial policy can sometimes be agreed by treaty within a customs union. A nation's commercial policy will include and take into account the policies adopted by that nation's government while negotiating international trade. There are several factors that can have an impact on a nation's commercial policy, all of which can have an impact on international trade policies.

➤ Types and aspects of Trade policy

• REGIONAL TRADE AGREEMENT

Regional Trade Agreement (RTA) are trade policies and agreements that are crafted by the nations in a region for the purposes of increasing international trade in the area. RTAs have been described by supporters as a means of increasing free trade with the goal of eventually merging into larger, either bilateral or multilateral, trade deals. The more relatively local area of RTAs are useful in resolving trade issues as well without causing gridlock in other trade agreements. Critics of RTAs say that they are a hindrance to the negotiation of trade because they can be lopsided or unfairly beneficial to one side over the other sides, particularly if some of the participants are nations that are still in development. In 2000, China signed the Bangkok agreement with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) to reduce tariffs in the region. The signing of the agreement also began the push for a formal Free Trade Agreement between China and ASEAN. However, strained relations between China

and other Asian nations such as Japan have prevented the same level of regional FTAs to be put in place with Northeast Asia.

- **Bilateral Free Trade Agreements**

When two countries enter into a bilateral trade agreement, they are essentially giving one another special deals and favourable treatment in the arrangements. These privileges can include lowering tariffs on each other's goods and services. Experts who support such free trade agreements argue that these deals help to increase competition and offers larger markets that businesses can reach out to. Critics of bilateral agreements claim that a larger nation, such as the United States, can use these agreements to unfairly push smaller states into much harsher workloads than the World Trade Organization already requires. Relations between the European Union and South Korea have led to both parties signing several bilateral agreements regarding trade policy. In 2009, South Korea and the EU signed the EU-Korea Free Trade Agreement. The signing of the agreement created an FTA that is second only to NAFTA in size. The agreement held the benefits of increased free trade between the participants in the FTA as well as increased challenge to the United States.

- **Preferential Trade Agreements**

Preferential agreements are trade deals that involve nations making deals with specific countries that can aid the interests of one another as opposed to the non-discriminatory deals that are pushed by the WTO. Nations have increasingly preferred such deals since the 1950s as they are quicker to show gains for the parties involved in the agreements. A common argument that has been made is that it allows businesses to open up markets that would otherwise be considered closed and therefore falls into the free trade idea that most countries will push for. Countries that have similar levels of GDP and a higher scope in their economies as well as their relative position to one another and the rest of the world are more likely to have preferential trade agreements. PTAs can also be applied to regional areas with unions such as NAFTA, the European Union, and ASEAN being examples of regional PTAs.

➤ **Ways in which commercial policy is affected**

- **Tariffs**

Trade tariffs are taxes that are placed on the import of foreign goods. Tariffs increase the price of imports and are usually levied onto the country the goods are being imported from. Governments will use tariffs as a way to promote competition within their own country with businesses of the foreign country that wishes to sell their goods or services. In some instances, a country's government will use them as a means of protectionism for their own interests. In modern history, generally starting at the mid-20th century, the use of tariffs has been largely diminished in favour of the rise of international trade. Beginning in 2017, the Trump administration began to impose tariffs on several of nations that were involved in trade deals with the United States. The countries targeted by the Trump Tariffs then retaliated with their own tariffs on American goods.

Import Quotas

Import quotas are the limitations of the amount of goods that can be imported into the country from foreign businesses. Generally, an import quota is set for a specific period of time with one year being the most common metric. Some versions of the quotas limit the quantity of specific goods being imported into a country while other versions place the limit on the value of those goods. The objectives of quotas can include: the protections of a nations interests, ensuring a balance of trade so as not to create deficits, retaliation to restrictive trade policies of other countries that do business on the international playing field.

FREE TRADE

Free trade is a trade policy that does not restrict imports or exports. It can also be understood as the free market idea applied to international trade. In government, free trade is predominantly advocated by political parties that hold liberal economic positions while economically left wing and nationalist political parties generally support protectionism, the opposite of free trade.

Most nations are today members of the World Trade Organization multilateral trade agreements. Free trade was best exemplified by the unilateral stance of Great Britain who reduced regulations and duties on imports and exports from the mid-nineteenth century to the 1920s. An alternative approach, of creating free trade areas between groups of countries by agreement, such as that of the European Economic Area and the Mercosur open markets, creates a protectionist barrier between that free trade area and the rest of the world. Most governments still impose some protectionist policies that are intended to support local employment, such as applying tariffs to imports or subsidies to exports. Governments may also restrict free trade to limit exports of natural resources. Other barriers that may hinder trade include import quotas, taxes and non-tariff barriers, such as regulatory legislation.

FEATURES

- **Trade of goods without taxes (including tariffs) or other trade barriers (e.g. quotas on imports or subsidies for producers).**
- **Trade in services without taxes or other trade barriers.**
- **The absence of "trade-distorting" policies (such as taxes, subsidies, regulations, or laws) that give some firms, households, or factors of production an advantage over others.**
- **Unregulated access to markets.**
- **Unregulated access to market information.**
- **Inability of firms to distort markets through government-imposed monopoly or oligopoly power.**
- **Trade agreements which encourage free trade.**

➤ Advantages

1. Increased efficiency

The good thing about a free trade area is that it encourages competition, which consequently increases a country's efficiency, in order to be on par with its competitors. Products and services then become of better quality at a lower cost.

2. Specialization of countries

When there is intense competition, countries will tend to produce the products or goods that they are most efficient at. Efficient use of resources means maximizing profit.

3. No monopoly

When there is free trade, and tariffs and quotas are eliminated, monopolies are also eliminated because more players can come in and join the market.

4. Lowered prices

When there is competition, especially on a global level, prices will surely go down, allowing consumers to enjoy a higher purchasing power.

5. Increased variety

With imports becoming available at a lower cost, consumers gain access to a variety of products that are inexpensive.

6. Innovation- Competitive Nature

7. Better utilization of resources

8. Technological development

9. Improves International Relations

10. Increase in factor income

11. Economies of scale

12. Wider access to market

13. Increase in employment generation; Increase in standard of living

14 .Better skills

➤ DISADVANTAGES

1. Threat to intellectual property

When imports are freely traded, domestic producers are often able to copy the products and sell them as knock-offs without fear of any legal repercussions. Therefore, unless the FTA includes provisions for intellectual property laws and enforcement there are no protections for exporting companies.

2. Unhealthy working conditions

Outsourcing jobs in developing countries can become a trend with a free trade area. Because many countries lack labour protection laws, workers may be forced to work in unhealthy and substandard work environments.

3. Less tax revenue

Since member countries are no longer subject to import taxes, they need to think of ways to compensate for the reduced tax revenue.

4. Dumping

5. Adverse effect on domestic industries

6. Toxic and Dangerous cheap imports

7. Power trends to get concentrated in the hands of few countries

8. Lop sided development

9. Dependence on imports may increase and economic dependence

10. Exploitation of natural resources

11. Adverse effects on the culture of the culture

PROTECTIONISM

Protectionism is the economic policy of restricting imports from other countries through methods such as tariffs on imported goods, import quotas, and a variety of other government regulations. Proponents argue that protectionist policies shield the producers, businesses, and workers of the import-competing sector in the country from foreign competitors. However, they also reduce trade and adversely affect consumers in general (by raising the cost of imported goods), and harm the producers and

workers in export sectors, both in the country implementing protectionist policies and in the countries protected against.

There is a consensus among economists that protectionism has a negative effect on economic growth and economic welfare, while free trade, deregulation, and the reduction of trade barriers has a significantly positive effect on economic growth. Some scholars have implicated protectionism as the cause of some economic crises, most notably the Great Depression. Although trade liberalization can sometimes result in large and unequally distributed losses and gains, and can, in the short run, cause significant economic dislocation of workers in import-competing sectors, free trade has advantages of lowering costs of goods and services for both producers and consumers.

FEATURES

The main protection by means of tariff to non-tariff measures. The formation of the international trade and tariff negotiations in a series of resolutions, greatly reducing the general level of tariffs, so countries in favour of non-tariff measures to impose protectionist policies. These measures are flexible, concealment, restrictive, more than half of total world trade by various non-tariff restrictions. The protection policy of products targeted more and stronger, such as for industrial products to limit and reduce and reduce, but for the protection of agricultural products rarely loose, for industrial products in different commodities restrictions also have very big difference. To distinguish between the implementation of protection policies for countries and regions to strengthen. Generally a country is always directed at their own direct, powerful competitor to strengthen protectionist policies, while others are appropriate to relax. Most countries in the world are based on its own national conditions and situation of the competitors, respectively by free trade and protectionism, in order to protect the sustainable development of its economy, enhance its trade protectionism.

➤ ADVANTAGES

- 1. More growth opportunities: Protectionism provides local industries with growth opportunities until they can compete against more experienced firms in the international market**
- 2. Lower imports: Protectionist policies help reduce import levels and allow the country to increase its trade balance.**
- 3. More jobs: Higher employment rates result when domestic firms boost their workforce**
- 4. Higher GDP: Protectionist policies tend to boost the economy's GDP due to a rise in domestic production**
- 5. Increase in Production; Increase in GDP**
- 6. Prevent Dumping**
- 7. An instrument for retaliation**
- 8. Tax Revenue – Imports on Crude Oil**
- 9. Diversification**
- 10. Infant industries argument**
- 12. Preventing outflow of foreign exchange reserves**
- 13. BOP – BOP can improve by putting restriction on goods**

➤ DISADVANTAGES

- 1. Stagnation of technological advancements: As domestic producers don't need to worry about foreign competition, they have no incentive to innovate or spend resources on research and development (R&D) of new products.**
- 2. Limited choices for consumers: Consumers have access to fewer goods in the market as a result of limitations on foreign goods.**
- 3. Increase in prices (due to lack of competition): Consumers will need to pay more without seeing any significant improvement in the product.**
- 4. Economic isolation: It often leads to political and cultural isolation, which, in turn, leads to even more economic isolation.**

5. Trade War – Tendency trade war due to retaliation
6. Growth of monopolistic tendencies
7. Less competitiveness leads to lesser efficiency
8. Lesser Innovation
9. Breeds corruption
10. Uneconomic utilization of resources

INSTRUMENTS THAT ARE USED FOR RETALIATION

➤ TARIFF BARRIERS

- **Specific Duty:** Specific duty is based on the physical characteristics of goods. When a fixed sum of money, keeping in view the weight or measurement of a commodity, is levied as tariff, it is known as specific duty. For instance, a fixed sum of import duty may be levied on the import of every barrel of oil, irrespective of quality and value. It discourages cheap imports. Specific duties are easy to administer as they do not involve the problem of determining the value of imported goods. However, a specific duty cannot be levied on certain articles like works of art. For instance, a painting cannot be taxed on the basis of its weight and size.
- **Ad valorem Duty:** These duties are imposed “according to value.” When a fixed per cent of value of a commodity is added as a tariff it is known as ad valorem duty. It ignores the consideration of weight, size or volume of commodity. The imposition of ad valorem duty is more justified in case of those goods whose values cannot be determined on the basis of their physical and chemical characteristics, such as costly works of art, rare manuscripts, etc. In practice, this type of duty is mostly levied on majority of items.
- **Combined or Compound Duty:** It is a combination of the specific duty and ad valorem duty on a single product. For instance, there can be a combined duty when 10% of value (ad valorem) and Re 1/-

on every meter of cloth is charged as duty. Thus, in this case, both duties are charged together.

- **Sliding Scale Duty:** The import duties which vary with the prices of commodities are called sliding scale duties. Historically, these duties are confined to agricultural products, as their prices frequently vary, mostly due to natural factors. These are also called as seasonal duties.
- **Countervailing Duty:** It is imposed on certain imports where products are subsidised by exporting governments. As a result of government subsidy, imports become cheaper than domestic goods. To nullify the effect of subsidy, this duty is imposed in addition to normal duties.
- **Revenue Tariff:** A tariff which is designed to provide revenue to the home government is called revenue tariff. Generally, a tariff is imposed with a view of earning revenue by imposing duty on consumer goods, particularly, on luxury goods whose demand from the rich is inelastic.
- **Protective Tariff:** In order to protect domestic industries from stiff competition of imported goods, protective tariff is levied on imports. Normally, a very high duty is imposed, so as to either discourage imports or to make the imports more expensive as that of domestic products.
- **Single Column Tariff:** A single column tariff has a uniform rate levied on all imported commodities and is also known as a uni-linear tariff system.

- **Double Column Tariff:** A Double Column Tariff is a tariff system which has two different duty rates for a particular product. Here, the import tax on the product depends on the country of its origin. The rate is assessed by the importing country's trade relationship with the exporting country.
- **Retaliatory tariff:** Retaliatory tariff is a tariff imposed to pressure another country into removing its own tariffs or making trade concessions.

➤ NON- TARIFF BARRIERS

A non-tariff barrier is any barrier other than a tariff, which raises an obstacle to free flow of goods in overseas markets. Non-tariff barriers, do not affect the price of the imported goods, but only the quantity of imports.

- **Import Quota:** Certain specified quantity of imports is allowed at duty free or at a reduced rate of import duty. Additional imports beyond the specified quantity are permitted only at increased rate of duty. A tariff quota, therefore, combines the features of a tariff and an import quota.
- **Product Standards:** Most developed countries impose product standards for imported items. If the imported items do not conform to established standards, the imports are not allowed. For instance, the pharmaceutical products must conform to pharmacopoeia standards.
- **Anti-dumping Duty:** At times, exporters attempt to capture foreign markets by selling goods at rock-bottom prices, such practice is called dumping. As a result of dumping, domestic industries find it difficult to compete with imported goods. To offset anti-dumping effects, duties are levied in addition to normal duties.
- **Voluntary export restraint:** A voluntary export restraint (VER) is a trade restriction on the quantity of a good that an exporting

country is allowed to export to another country. This limit is self-imposed by the exporting country. VERs are considered non-tariff barriers, which are restrictive trade barriers—such as quotas and embargoes.

- **Export Subsidy: Export subsidy is a government policy to encourage export of goods and discourage sale of goods on the domestic market through direct payments, low-cost loans, tax relief for exporters, or government-financed international advertising.**

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION



International
Labour
Organization



BRIHAN MAHARASHTRA COLLEGE OF COMMERCE

Deccan Education Society

ACADEMIC Year: 2020-2021

SUBJECT: INTERNATIONAL Relations COURSE

Topic: INTERNATIONAL LABOUR organizations (ILO)

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“The failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labour is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries.”

ILO Constitution

The International Labour Organization (ILO) is built on the constitutional principle that universal and lasting peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice.

The ILO has generated such hallmarks of industrial society as the eight-hour working day, maternity protection, child-labour laws, and a range of policies which promote workplace safety and peaceful industrial relations.

The ILO is the international institutional framework which

makes it possible to address such issues – and to find solutions allowing working conditions to improve everywhere. No country or industry could have afforded to introduce any of these in the absence of similar and simultaneous action by its competitors.

Origins of the ILO

The International Labour Organization emerged with the League of Nations from the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. It was founded to give expression to the growing concern for social reform after World War I, and the conviction that any reform had to be conducted at an international level. After World War II, a dynamic restatement and enlargement of the ILO's basic goals and principles was made in the Declaration of Philadelphia. The Declaration

anticipated postwar growth in national independence, and heralded the birth of large-scale technical cooperation with the developing world.

In 1946, the ILO became the first specialized agency associated with the newly formed United Nations Organization. On its 50th anniversary in 1969, it was awarded the Nobel peace prize.

The first International Labour Conference was held in Washington in October-November 1919. Six Conventions and six Recommendations were adopted (including Convention No.1 on the duration of the work day).

How the ILO works

The ILO has a tripartite structure unique in the United Nations, in which employers' and workers' representatives – the “social partners” of the economy – have an equal voice with those of governments in shaping its policies and programmes.

The ILO also encourages this tripartism within its member States by promoting a “social dialogue” between trade unions and employers in formulating, and where appropriate, implementing national policy on social, economic, and many other issues.

Minimum international labour standards and the broad policies of the ILO are set by the International Labour Conference, which meets annually. Every two years, the

Conference adopts the ILO's biennial work programme and budget, which is financed by member States.

The Conference also provides an international forum for discussion of world labour and social problems.

Each member country has the right to send four delegates to the Conference, two from the government and one each representing workers and employers. These delegates are free to speak and vote independently.

Between annual sessions of the Conference, the work of the ILO is guided by the Governing Body of 28 government members and 14 worker and 14 employer members.

The ILO secretariat, operational headquarters, research centre and publishing house, are based in the

What the ILO does?

The ILO has four principal strategic objectives:

- *To promote and realize standards, and fundamental principles and rights at work.*
- *To create greater opportunities for women and men to secure decent employment.*
- *To enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection for all.*
- *To strengthen tripartism and social dialogue.*

Objectives:

These objectives are realized in a number of ways:

1. Formulation of international policies and programmes to promote basic human rights, improve working and living conditions, and enhance employment opportunities.

2. Creation of international labour standards – backed by a unique system to supervise their application – to serve as guidelines for national authorities in putting these policies into action.

3. An extensive programme of international technical cooperation, formulated and implemented in an active partnership with constituents, to help countries in making these policies effective in practice.

Policies

and Programmes:

Declaration of Philadelphia

In 1944, the International Labour Conference met in Philadelphia, USA, and adopted the Declaration of Philadelphia. This redefined the aims and purpose of the ILO by adopting the following principles:

- Labour is not a commodity.***
- Freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustained progress.***
- Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere.***
- All human beings, irrespective of race, creed, or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual***

development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security, and of equal opportunity

Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work

In 1998, the International Labour Conference adopted the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, which reaffirmed the commitment of the international community to “respect, to promote and to realize in good faith” the rights of workers and employers to freedom of association and the effective right to collective bargaining.

It also commits member States to work towards the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour, the effective abolition of child labour, and the elimination of discrimination

International

Labour Standards:

ILO Conventions and Recommendations

One of the ILO's original and most important functions is the adoption by the tripartite International Labour Conference (employers, workers and governments) of Conventions and Recommendations which set international standards. Through ratifications by member States, these Conventions create binding obligations to implement their provisions.

Recommendations provide guidance on policy, legislation, and practice.

Since 1919, Conventions and Recommendations have been adopted covering practically all

issues relating to the world of work.

These include certain basic human rights (notably freedom of association, the right to organize and bargain collectively, the abolition of forced labour and child labour, and the elimination of discrimination in employment), labour administration, industrial relations, employment policy, working conditions, social security, occupational safety and health, employment of women, and employment of special categories such as migrant workers and seafarers.

Each member State is required to submit all Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference to the competent national authorities for a decision on action to be taken.

Key ILO Conventions

No. 29

Forced Labour Convention (1930)

Requires the suppression of forced or compulsory labour in all its forms.

Certain exceptions are permitted, such as military service, properly supervised

convict labour, and emergencies such as wars, fires, earthquakes.

No. 87

Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention (1948)

Establishes the right of all workers and employers to form and join

organizations of their own choosing without prior authorization, and lays

down a series of guarantees for the free functioning of organizations

without interference by public authorities.

No. 98

Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention (1949)

Provides for protection against anti-union discrimination, for protection

of workers' and employers' organizations against acts of interference by

each other, and for measures to promote collective bargaining.

No. 100

Equal Remuneration Convention (1951)

Calls for equal pay and benefits for men and women for work of equal value.

No. 105

Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (1957)

Prohibits the use of any form of forced or compulsory labour as a means of

political coercion or education, punishment for the expression of political or

ideological views, workforce mobilization, labour discipline, punishment for participation in strikes, or discrimination.

No. 111

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (1958)

Calls for a national policy to eliminate discrimination in access to employment,

training, and working conditions, on grounds of race, colour, sex, religion,

political opinion, national extraction or social origin, and to promote equality

of opportunity and treatment.

No. 138

Minimum Age Convention (1973)

Aims at the abolition of child labour, stipulating that the minimum age

for admission to employment shall not be less than the age of completion

of compulsory schooling.

No. 182

Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (1999)

***Calls for immediate and effective measures to secure
the prohibition and***

***elimination of the worst forms of child labour which
include slavery and similar***

Focus on child labour

***Child labour is a pressing social,
economic and human rights issue.***

***As many as 250 million children
worldwide are thought to be working,
deprived of adequate education,
good health, and basic freedoms.***

***Individual children pay the highest
price, but countries suffer as well.***

***Ending child labour is a goal in itself;
but it is also a powerful way of
promoting economic and human
development.***

The ILO Minimum Age Convention,

1973 (No. 138), containing the principle of the effective abolition of child labour, is strengthened by adoption of a new Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), calling for immediate measures to eliminate as a matter of urgency all of the worst forms of child labour – ranging from slavery and compulsory labour to use of a child in any illicit activity, and any work which is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children. As the world has awakened to the abuses of child labour, the movement against it has evolved into a global cause virtually unprecedented in its pace and intensity. It is a movement which transcends political boundaries, languages, cultures and

spiritual traditions. Every segment of civil society – governments, employers, trade unions, NGOs, and religious organizations .

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on significant social and economic trends.

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Assignment

International Relations (ECC)

-Aachal Jaju & Amartya Zilpe
TY BBA IB

International Labour Organisation

“The failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labour is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries.”

-ILO Constitution

The International Labour Organization (ILO) is built on the constitutional principle that universal and lasting peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice.

The ILO has generated such hallmarks of industrial society as the eight-hour working day, maternity protection, child-labour laws, and a range of policies which promote workplace safety and peaceful industrial relations.

The ILO is the international institutional framework which makes it possible to address such issues – and to find solutions allowing working conditions to improve everywhere. No country or industry could have afforded to introduce any of these in the absence of similar and simultaneous action by its competitors.

The International Labour Office is headed by a Director-General appointed by the Governing Body. Since 1919, the ILO has been led by:

Albert Thomas of France (1919-1932),
Harold Butler of the United Kingdom (1932-1938),
John Winant of the United States (1939-1941),
Edward Phelan of Ireland (1941-1948),
David Morse of the United States (1948-1970),
Wilfred Jenks of the United Kingdom (1970-1973),
Francis Blanchard of France (1973-1989),
Michel Hansenne of Belgium (1989-1999),
and since March 1999 by Juan Somavia of Chile.

Origins of the ILO

The International Labour Organization emerged with the League of Nations from the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. It was founded to give expression to the growing concern for social reform after World War I, and the conviction that any reform had to be conducted at an international level.

After World War II, a dynamic restatement and enlargement of the ILO's basic goals and principles was made in the Declaration of Philadelphia. The Declaration anticipated postwar growth in national independence, and heralded the birth of large-scale technical cooperation with the developing world.

In 1946, the ILO became the first specialized agency associated with the newly formed United Nations Organization. On its 50th anniversary in 1969, it was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize

How the ILO works

The ILO has a tripartite structure unique in the United Nations, in which employers' and workers' representatives – the “social partners” of the economy – have an equal voice with those of governments in shaping its policies and programmes.

The ILO also encourages this tripartism within its member States by promoting a “social dialogue” between trade unions and employers in formulating, and where appropriate, implementing national policy on social, economic, and many other issues.

Minimum international labour standards and the broad policies of the ILO are set by the International Labour Conference, which meets annually. Every two years, the Conference adopts the ILO's biennial work programme and budget, which is financed by member States.

The Conference also provides an international forum for discussion of world labour and social problems. Each member country has the right to send four delegates to the Conference, two from the government and one each representing workers and employers. These delegates are free to speak and vote independently. Between annual sessions of the Conference, the work of

the ILO is guided by the Governing Body of 28 government members and 14 worker and 14 employer members.

The ILO secretariat, operational headquarters, research centre and publishing house, are based in the International Labour Office, Geneva. Administration and management are decentralized in regional, area, and branch offices in more than 40 countries.

The work of the Governing Body and of the Office is aided by tripartite committees covering major industries. It is also supported by committees of experts on such matters as vocational training, management development, occupational safety and health, industrial relations, workers' education, and special problems of women and young workers.

Regional meetings of the ILO member States are held periodically to examine matters of special interest to the regions concerned.

What the ILO does

The ILO has four principal strategic objectives:

- To promote and realize standards, fundamental principles and rights at work.
- To create greater opportunities for people to secure decent employment.
- To enhance the coverage and effectiveness of social protection for all.
- To strengthen tripartism and social dialogue.

These objectives are realized in a number of ways:

1. Formulation of international policies and programmes to promote basic human rights, improve working and living conditions, and enhance employment opportunities.
2. Creation of international labour standards – backed by a unique system to supervise their application – to serve as guidelines for national authorities in putting these policies into action.
3. An extensive programme of international technical cooperation, formulated and implemented in an active partnership with constituents, to help countries in making these policies effective in practice.

4. Training, education, research, and publishing activities to help advance all of these efforts.

Policies and Programmes

Declaration of Philadelphia

In 1944, the International Labour Conference met in Philadelphia, USA, and adopted the Declaration of Philadelphia. This redefined the aims and purpose of the ILO by adopting the following principles:

- Labour is not a commodity.
- Freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustained progress.
- Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere.
- All human beings, irrespective of race, creed, or sex, have the right to pursue both their material wellbeing and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security, and of equal opportunity

Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work

In 1998, the International Labour Conference adopted the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, which reaffirmed the commitment of the international community to “respect, to promote and to realize in good faith” the rights of workers and employers to freedom of association and the effective right to collective bargaining. It also commits member States to work towards the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour, the effective abolition of child labour, and the elimination of discrimination in employment and occupation. The Declaration emphasizes that all member States have an obligation to respect the fundamental principles involved, whether or not they have ratified the relevant Conventions.

International Labour Standards

ILO Conventions and Recommendations

One of the ILO's original and most important functions is the adoption by the tripartite International Labour Conference (employers, workers and governments) of Conventions and Recommendations which set international standards. Through ratifications by member States, these Conventions create binding obligations to implement their provisions. Recommendations provide guidance on policy, legislation, and practice.

Since 1919, Conventions and Recommendations have been adopted covering practically all issues relating to the world of work.

These include certain basic human rights (notably freedom of association, the right to organize and bargain collectively, the abolition of forced labour and child labour, and the elimination of discrimination in employment), labour administration, industrial relations, employment policy, working conditions, social security, occupational safety and health, employment of women, and employment of special categories such as migrant workers and seafarers.

Each member State is required to submit all conventions and recommendations adopted by the Conference to the competent national authorities for a decision on action to be taken.

The ratifications of these Conventions have continued to increase in number. The ILO has established a supervisory procedure to ensure their application in law and practice, which is the most advanced of all such international procedures. It is based on objective evaluation by independent experts of the manner in which obligations are complied with, and on examination of cases by the ILO tripartite bodies. There is a special procedure to investigate complaints of infringement of freedom of association.

Key ILO Conventions

No. 29

Forced Labour Convention (1930)

Requires the suppression of forced or compulsory labour in all its forms. Certain exceptions are permitted, such as military service, properly supervised convict labour, and emergencies such as wars, fires, earthquakes.

No. 87

Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention (1948)

Establishes the right of all workers and employers to form and join organizations of their own choosing without prior authorization, and lays down a series of guarantees for the free functioning of organizations without interference by public authorities.

No. 98

Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention (1949)

Provides for protection against anti-union discrimination, for protection of workers' and employers' organizations against acts of interference by each other, and for measures to promote collective bargaining.

No. 100

Equal Remuneration Convention (1951)

Calls for equal pay and benefits for men and women for work of equal value.

No. 105

Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (1957)

Prohibits the use of any form of forced or compulsory labour as a means of political coercion or education, punishment for the expression of political or ideological views, workforce mobilization, labour discipline, punishment for participation in strikes, or discrimination.

No. 111

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (1958)

Calls for a national policy to eliminate discrimination in access to employment, training, and working conditions, on grounds of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin, and to promote equality of opportunity and treatment.

No. 138

Minimum Age Convention (1973)

Aims at the abolition of child labour, stipulating that the minimum age for admission to employment shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling.

No. 182

Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (1999)

Calls for immediate and effective measures to secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour which include slavery and similar practices, forced recruitment for use in armed conflict, use in prostitution and pornography, any illicit activity, as well as work which is likely to harm the health, safety, and morals of children.

Focus on child labour

Child labour is a pressing social, economic and human rights issue. As many as 250 million children worldwide are thought to be working, deprived of adequate education, good health, and basic freedoms. Individual children pay the highest price, but countries suffer as well. Ending child labour is a goal in itself; but it is also a powerful way of promoting economic and human development.

The ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), containing the principle of the effective abolition of child labour, is strengthened by adoption of a new Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), calling for immediate measures to eliminate as a matter of urgency all of the worst forms of child labour – ranging from slavery and compulsory labour to use of a child in any illicit activity, and any work which is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

As the world has awakened to the abuses of child labour, the movement against it has evolved into a global cause virtually unprecedented in its pace and intensity. It is a movement which transcends political boundaries, languages, cultures and spiritual traditions. Every segment of civil society – governments, employers, trade unions, NGOs, and religious organizations – has joined together to declare that exploitative child labour must end.

The International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) currently manages over 1,000 programmes worldwide promoting alternatives to child labour.

Gender and Jobs

Gender equality is a key element of the ILO agenda of Decent Work for All Women and Men. Gender equality, along with development, is one of the two cross-cutting issues of the four strategic objectives of the Decent Work agenda.

The ILO's approach to gender equality is to mainstream gender concerns in all its policies and programmes.

Women have transformed the labour markets of the world. In some cases, they have succeeded in obtaining greater opportunities and economic autonomy. Yet, gender inequalities still permeate every aspect of the employment problem. Women still form the majority of unpaid, atypical, or discouraged workers in most Countries.

The ILO is committed to an integrated policy on women and work. This involves a number of responses, including:

- The International Programme on More and Better Jobs for Women. This programme promotes more jobs for women through employment creation, training, entrepreneurship development, improvement in access to the labour market, and equality of opportunity. It promotes better jobs through equal pay, occupational desegregation, health and safety, improved working conditions for non-standard employment, social security, family-friendly workplaces, and protection for vulnerable workers.
- The Capacity-building Programme on Gender, Poverty and Employment. This programme focuses on enhancing women's access to quality jobs, strengthening their bargaining and negotiating power, and providing innovative ways of increasing social protection, especially in the informal sector.

Decent employment and income

Productive, freely-chosen employment is at the core of the ILO's mandate. Without productive employment, achieving decent living standards, social and economic development, and personal fulfilment remain illusory. Globalization has brought both prosperity and inequalities, testing the limits of our collective responsibility. Even so, the Organization remains committed to achieving full employment worldwide.

The ILO's mission is to help people around the world find decent work – in conditions of freedom, equity, security, and human dignity. It does this through permanent contact with workers, employers, and governments – the ILO's constituents – helping forge new and innovative employment, labour market, and training policies.

Concern for the social costs of globalization increases the need for better international coordination of macroeconomics policies which can diminish its harmful consequences. The ILO is committed to providing research, analysis, and advice to its constituents, as well as to such stakeholders as banking, investment, trade and enterprise development specialists, and business managers, on how to create decent work. This includes promoting small enterprises, microfinance, and effective training systems.

ILO employment objectives include:

- Equipping constituents to analyse economic and labour market developments, and elaborate and negotiate effective employment promotion policies and programmes on the global and regional level
- Boosting employment through small enterprise development
- Helping women get more and better jobs
- Effectively implementing policies and programmes upgrading informal sector activities
- Advising in the transition from centrally planned to market economies, particularly with respect to employment, labour market, and human resource policies
- Adopting or strengthening targeted programmes enabling groups such as young workers, the disabled, migrants, and indigenous populations to find decent employment

The focus on small enterprises is a key element in the ILO approach to job creation, an important aspect of which concerns enterprise restructuring.

Technical Cooperation

Since the early 1950s, the ILO has been providing technical cooperation to countries on all continents and at all stages of economic development. In the last decade, an average of some US\$130 million was spent annually on technical cooperation projects. The projects are implemented through close cooperation between recipient countries, donors, and the ILO, which maintains a network of area and regional offices worldwide.

The overall purpose of ILO technical cooperation is the implementation of the Decent Work agenda at a national level, assisting constituents to make this concept a reality for all men and women. An extensive network of offices throughout Africa, Asia, Latin America, Central and Eastern Europe and the Middle East provides technical guidance on policy issues, and assistance in the design and implementation of development programmes.

Wide-ranging programmes

Training entrepreneurs in small business administration, strengthening social security systems, assisting in the reintegration of ex-combatants into the national economy, assisting trade unions in occupational safety and health, setting up cooperatives in rural areas, working with governments to revise labour laws. These are just a few examples of the ILO's vast range of technical cooperation programmes operating in some 140 countries and territories.

The focus of these programmes is on the areas covered by the ILO's four strategic objectives: the promotion of fundamental principles and rights at work, employment, social protection, and the strengthening of tripartism and social dialogue.

Within this framework, the major portion of ILO technical cooperation is in the areas of development policies and programmes for poverty alleviation through job creation, and enterprise and cooperative development.

Particular attention is being paid to capacity-building and strengthening of the programmes' constituents, in particular of workers' and employers' organizations, and to the mainstreaming of gender. The protection of workers at the workplace and the development of social security systems are other areas of assistance.

The ILO's adoption of the Declaration of Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work has given a new impetus to the technical cooperation programmes in standards-related areas such as the promotion of freedom of association, social dialogue and collective bargaining, and to activities leading to the eradication of child labour – especially in its worst forms.

Training, Education, Research, Publishing

International Training Centre

With its large residential training facility located in Turin, Italy, the International Training Centre provides a wide variety of programmes in areas of priority concern to the ILO and the United Nations system at large.

Designed to support economic and social development of member States and their constituents, the Centre seeks to assemble, package and deliver the best thinking, practice and experience concerning fundamental principles and rights at work, employment and income opportunities for women and men, social protection for all, management of the development process, tripartism, and social dialogue.

It offers training/learning opportunities and related services to decision makers, managers, practitioners and trainers from governments, workers' organizations, employers' organizations and their partner institutions. It has partnerships with regional and national training institutions and its services are available to the United Nations system as a whole, including ILO staff.

To date, over 90,000 women and men from 170 nations have benefited from its services since it opened in 1965. The annual number of activities exceeds 300 standard courses, customized learning events, comprehensive training projects, advisory services, and training material design and production.

Around half the activities take place on-campus and the rest in the field.

Besides group training, the Centre organizes, on request, learning programmes for individuals who are placed in public and private institutions and organizations. Increasingly, it uses information technology, including the Internet, to offer distance learning and tutoring Services.

International Institute for Labour Studies

The ILO International Institute for Labour Studies in Geneva promotes policy research and public discussion on emerging issues of concern to the ILO and its constituents – labour, business and government.

The organizing theme of the Institute's programmes is the notion of "decent work". The Institute's programmes seek to contribute to the development of the analytical and empirical foundations of decent work and a broader understanding of the policy instruments necessary to implement it in practice.

The Institute provides three major facilities:

- A global forum on social policy, enabling governments, business and labour to interact informally with the academic community and other opinion-makers.
- International research programmes and networks linking academics with business, labour, and government practitioners, to explore emerging policy issues of potential relevance for the ILO and contribute to policy formulation.
- Educational programmes to assist trade unions, employers' organizations and labour administrations in developing their institutional capacities for research, analysis, and policy formulation in the economic and social fields.

The Institute's means of action include: research, social policy forums, public lectures, courses and seminars, internship programmes, a visiting scholar programme, the Phelan Fellowship programme, and publications. It also organizes the Social Policy Lectures, endowed by the ILO's Nobel Peace Prize, and held, by rotation, in major universities of the world.

ILO Publications

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Library and Information Services

Most of the ILO's information services are based on an information network connected to the ILO Library in Geneva. The network seeks to enhance the capacity of ILO constituents, ILO staff and ILO partner institutions to make effective use of the ILO's information resources.

The ILO Library offers an information consultancy service and provides access to a multilingual collection of over one million books, reports, journals, legal texts, statistical publications, and electronic information sources on all aspects of the world of work. It produces LABORDOC, a unique database providing worldwide coverage of social and labour affairs, which is available via the Internet, provides information research services, and develops projects and training courses for labour information specialists.

In addition to the ILO Library, the ILO information network includes several specialized information centres in Geneva, three regional documentation centres in Abidjan, Bangkok, and Lima, and other centres in ILO offices worldwide. The statistical, legislative, and other departments also participate in the dissemination of information through the network.

Current State

In June 2019, more than 6000 delegates celebrated the centenary of the International Labour Organization (ILO) on the occasion of the 108th International Labour Conference (ILC) in Geneva. A broad range of heads of state and high level representatives were among the congratulatory who conveyed to the plenary their affirmation of ILO's main objective. An objective which is in a nutshell captured by the first sentence of the preamble of the Constitution of the ILO: "universal and lasting peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice".

More than appropriate for this solemn occasion, the ILC adopted – as the first international instruments on this subject – a Convention and a Recommendation to combat violence and harassment in the workplace. Both instruments are the outcome of consultations not only among government representatives. With tripartism being one of the ILO's core features, employers' and workers' representatives also had a seat at the negotiating table. The compromises that were made by the tripartite constituents are therefore reflected in the new ILO standards. Most prominently, the constituents could not agree on a list of particularly vulnerable groups. In addition, no explicit reference is being made to LGBTI persons, migrant workers are only mentioned in the Recommendation. The adoption of the instruments nevertheless is a laudable affirmation of the ILO's remaining capability to create international norms which address current socio-political issues.

Despite the frequent criticism as “toothless tiger”, the ILO has shown a good deal of persistence and ability to evolve in the face of challenges since its foundation. The Declaration of Philadelphia, which was adopted 1944 and later incorporated in the Constitution of the ILO, articulated (as the first international instrument to do so) the principle of equality and non-discrimination in the midst of World War II. After the failure of the inclusion of a social clause in the multilateral trade framework, the ILO spoke out for fundamental principles and rights at work and formulated the Decent Work Agenda. The core labour standards, which are based on these measures, have since then been included in, for instance, the UN Global Compact, the EU’s Generalised Scheme of Preferences and several bi- and plurilateral trade agreements.

Yet today – just like other inter- and supranational organizations – the ILO not only faces challenges from the outside but also from within. For many years now, the supervisory system of the ILO is at the centre of criticism. Initially, it was primarily employer representatives who questioned the mandate of the ILO’s Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR) to interpret ILO conventions (see the articles of Waas and Bellace in the forthcoming issue of *Archiv des Völkerrechts*). Based on the annual report of the CEACR, a list of 24 cases of serious violations of international labour standards is discussed each year by the Committee on the Application of Standards (CAS) during the ILC. Members of the CAS are government, employers’ and workers’ representatives of the 187 ILO member states. Although the matter was not finally resolved, the social partners found at least a basis for resuming the supervision of ILO conventions within CAS.

This year, the criticism came from another side. During the discussions in the CAS, certain government representatives voiced their dissatisfaction with the supervisory procedure in a way which seems more radical than usual for governments under scrutiny by the CAS. The government representative of Brazil even went so far as to indicate that “[s]hould this undesirable situation remain unchanged, Brazil reserves the right to consider all available options” (ILC 2019, Report of the Committee on the Application of Standards, Part One, at para 350). Against this critique by government actors, not only the representatives for the EU and the Group of Industrialized Market Economy Countries (IMEC) countries declared their commitment to the ILO’s supervisory mechanism (*ibid*, at paras. 490 et seq.

and 494 et seq.). But also the group of employers joined hands with the workers' side in affirming this commitment (ibid., at paras. 507 et seq.)

With a view to the arduous negotiating process and the wording of the ILO Centenary Declaration for the Future of Work, which was also adopted at the past ILC, this might be somewhat reassuring. In contrast to the previous drafts, the text of the declaration shows certain deficits: It is deplorable, for example, that the assurance that “work is undertaken in such manner as to safeguard the environmental sustainability of the planet” which was included in an early draft (not available online) did not make it in the final text. The focus has shifted to “ensuring a just transition to a future of work that contributes to sustainable development in its economic, social and environmental dimensions” (section II A (i) of the Centenary Declaration). Furthermore, the Declaration does not – as intended in a previous version – explicitly declare occupational safety and health a fundamental principle and right at work, which would have created a fifth core labour standard. The statement in respect of the ILO's responsibility in the field of labour migration is also weaker than the one included in the draft texts.

However, as was the case with the Violence and Harassment Convention and Recommendation, at times it was not clear whether the Declaration could be finalised. The adoption of the Declaration therefore shows that the tripartite constituents are still able to find common ground. As the Global Commission on the Future of Work puts it in its report: “New forces are transforming the world of work. The transitions involved call for decisive action.” (at p. 10). The past ILC revealed once again the difficulties to act decisively with not only 187 member states but them being represented by three different groups of actors. Yet tripartism and social dialogue has also been the ILO's strength over the past 100 years. Regarding the ILO's objective to foster social justice, this strength is once again to be tested in these disruptive times.

Criticisms

Back in 1919, the ILO's unique tripartite structure, still present today, brought together governments, workers and employers with ambitious aims: to create a framework of worker rights, protection against exploitation and slavery, and to ensure the freedom to form unions.

One hundred years on, in a world of complex supply chains, insecure jobs, increasing global deregulation of the labour market and millions of people stuck in forced labour in factories, farms and fishing boats, is the ILO still relevant?

For Sandrine Kott, professor of European contemporary history at the University of Geneva, the organisation still plays an important lead role defending social justice in the world of work.

“But its weakness is that this discourse is not dominant right now, especially since the mid-1970s. It's an organisation of regulation and not one of deregulation,” she said.

“The ILO does what it can in a world that is clearly not very favourable to it. One day it may have more influence, but right now it cannot change the world.”

Over the past 100 years, the ILO has adopted almost 200 international labour standards on issues ranging from the eight-hour day to domestic workers. Beyond policy, its work focuses on technical cooperation, research and compiling reliable data and statistics on labour and social questions.

Yet since its birth, the ILO has been criticized for being slow, bureaucratic, and lacking teeth and the capacity to follow through on the ground.

“There's an issue in terms of application and a contradiction with certain governments voting for a convention in Geneva and then not putting that into practice back home,” said Philip Jennings, former general secretary of UNI Global Union, the global trade union for the services sector.

He added that the business community was often ignorant of international labour standards and the scope of the ILO's work such as efforts to improve supply chains.

“But the ILO is the only part of the UN where you have a tripartite structure and a supervisory network where we can bring governments to account and have a dialogue with governments to improve their behaviour,” he said.

Swiss ambassador Jean-Jacques Elmiger admits the ILO is not perfect, but insists the agency promotes fundamental values and gets results.

“It is not just the regulatory role which is central, but what the ILO can do with these labour standards. Implementation is very important, and we have good examples where ILO standards played a central role, like with the issue of forced labour in Myanmar.”

In 2000, the ILO initiated a major campaign to combat forced labour in the southeast Asian state via official complaints to the government and trade union action; other UN agencies joined later. In 2012, the ILO lifted punitive restrictions on Myanmar in response to a new law on trade unions and a joint action plan to end forced labour by 2015.

The ILO has championed “decent work”, which has become a strategic goal since the 2008 global financial and economic crisis and integrated into one of the 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Elmiger said it was imperative for the ILO to continue decent work as a long-term political objective. But he said it faced a number of important ongoing challenges, especially relating to occupational safety and health.

“Lots of countries have good legislation to protect workers but the implementation is not optimal, and the ILO needs to play a role here,” said the Swiss ambassador. “It needs to get more involved in the real implementation of legislation, not just monitoring the situation and publishing recommendations to governments but more technical cooperation on the ground with the local authorities and social partners.”

To mark the official start of the centenary celebrations in 2019, the ILO published a report on the future of work drawn up after a 15-month consultation that presents a “human-centred” agenda for the coming years based on investing in people’s capabilities, institutions of work and decent and sustainable work.

The report has ten recommendations including more investment in lifelong learning, a guaranteed social protection and a universal labour guarantee that enshrines an adequate living wage, maximum limits on working hours, and protection of safety and health at work.



WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION

NAME:
AMAR B. PATIL

ROLL NUMBER: 169

CLASS: TY BBA (B)

- **WTO:**

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the only global international organization dealing with the rules of trade between nations. At its heart are the WTO agreements, negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world's trading nations and ratified in their parliaments. The goal is to help producers of goods and services, exporters, and importers conduct their business. As of 2021, the WTO has 164 member countries, with Liberia and Afghanistan the most recent members, having joined in July 2016, and 23 "observer" countries. However, the institution is under considerable pressure. Negotiations on a comprehensive development agenda have foundered due to disagreements over agricultural subsidies and intellectual property rights, while members have increasingly turned to separate bilateral and regional free trade agreements to advance their trade interests. More recently, the COVID-19 pandemic has caused a sharp decline in international trade and created uncertainty about the future of global supply chains. Former U.S. President Donald J. Trump criticized the WTO for what he saw as its weakness in confronting China's trade abuses and constraints on U.S. sovereignty. His administration intentionally crippled the organization's appeals body, ensuring that its decisions cannot be enforced and placing the future of global trade rules into doubt. President Joe Biden has signalled that he will take a less combative approach to reforming the WTO, though there are concerns about the trade body on both sides of the aisle.

- **Understanding WTO**

The WTO is essentially an alternative dispute or mediation entity that upholds the international rules of trade among nations. The organization provides a platform that allows member governments to negotiate and resolve trade issues with other members. The WTO's main focus is to provide open lines of communication concerning trade between its members.

For example, the WTO has lowered trade barriers and increased trade among member countries. On the other hand, it has also maintained trade barriers when it makes sense to do so in the global context. Therefore, the WTO attempts to provide negotiation mediation that benefits the global economy.

Once negotiations are complete and an agreement is in place, the WTO then offers to interpret that agreement in the event of a future dispute. All WTO agreements include a settlement process, whereby the organization legally conducts neutral conflict resolution.

On February 15, 2021 the WTO's General Council selected two-time Nigerian finance minister Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala as its director-general. She is the first woman and the first African to be selected for the position. She took office on March 1, 2021 and her term will end in August 2025. No negotiation, mediation, or resolution would be possible without the foundational WTO agreements. These agreements set the legal ground-rules for international commerce that the WTO oversees. They bind a country's government to a set of constraints that must be observed when setting future trade policies. These agreements protect producers, importers, and exporters while encouraging world governments to meet specific social and environmental standards.

What is the WTO?

The WTO is responsible for overseeing the rules of international trade. It facilitates trade negotiations among its 164 members, up from 123 in 1994. The organization also monitors the implementation of trade agreements, produces research on global trade and economic policy, and serves as a forum for settling trade disputes between countries.

Established in 1995 and based in Geneva, Switzerland, the WTO is the successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), a group founded in 1948 whose rules created the modern multilateral trading system. WTO decision-making happens at the Ministerial Conference, generally held every two years. There have been eleven such meetings since the inaugural conference in Singapore in 1996; the twelfth was scheduled to take place in June 2020 in Kazakhstan, but has been postponed due to the pandemic. With a few exceptions, agreements reached at these conferences are made by consensus, meaning that all members must agree, and decisions are binding. WTO rules are enforced by individual members, who can impose retaliatory trade sanctions on states that break them.

While the specifics of the WTO's trade rules are hashed out in negotiations, the organization is based on several founding principles. The most basic is a commitment to openness, meaning reducing tariffs as well as limiting quotas, subsidies, and other barriers to trade. Another central plank is non-discrimination, in which WTO members must treat trade with all other members equally. The WTO also seeks transparency and predictability in trade-related regulations and promotes international standards to give citizens, companies, and investors stability. Additionally, the organization is committed, in principle, to giving less-developed countries greater flexibility and accommodations to help them adjust to new rules.

The WTO director general is the organization's administrative head, overseeing the WTO secretariat and its roughly seven hundred staff. While the director general helps set the tone and direction of the organization, the office "traditionally has wielded little power over matters of policy" because of the WTO's consensus process, writes CFR's Jennifer Hillman.

In February 2021, WTO members confirmed Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala of Nigeria as director general following a protracted selection process. She is the first woman and first African to lead the organization. While the majority of WTO members backed Okonjo-Iweala, the Trump administration threw its support behind South Korean candidate Yoo Myung-hee, blocking a consensus pick. After Trump left office, Yoo withdrew from the race for director general, and the Biden administration announced its support for Okonjo-Iweala.

- **What They Do**

The WTO is run by its member governments. All major decisions are made by the membership as a whole, either by ministers (who usually meet at least once every two years) or by their ambassadors or delegates (who meet regularly in Geneva).

- **What They Stand For**

The WTO agreements are lengthy and complex because they are legal texts covering a wide range of activities. But a number of simple, fundamental principles run throughout all of these documents. These principles are the foundation of the multilateral trading system.

- **What Is Their Mission**

The purpose of the **WTO** is to ensure global trade commences smoothly, freely, and predictably. The **WTO** creates and embodies the ground rules for global trade among member nations, offering a system for international commerce.

- **How does the WTO deal with conflicts?**

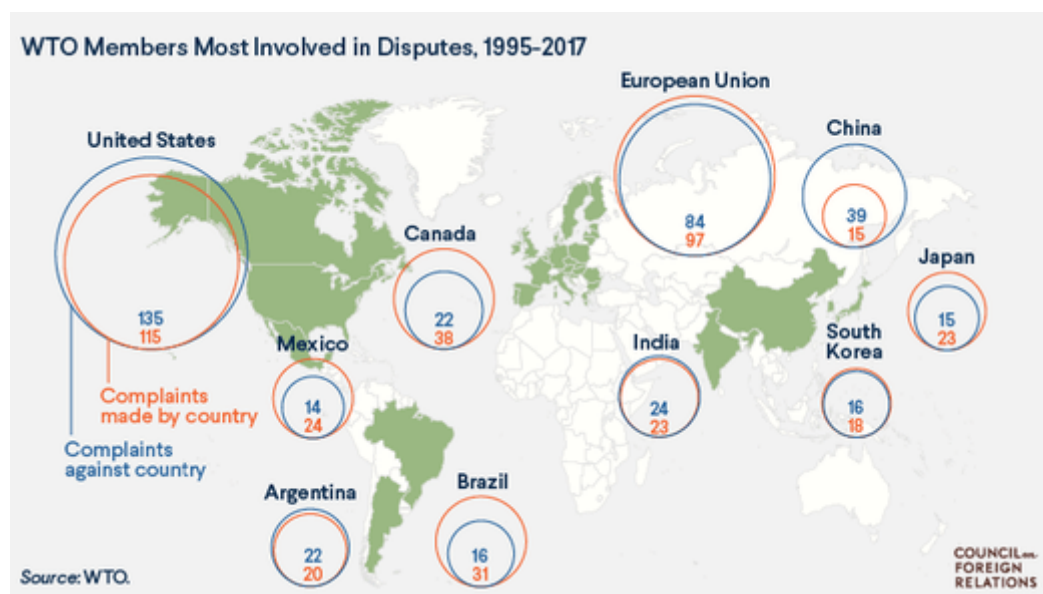
- The WTO's trade dispute mechanism has been used extensively over the past two decades, helping to avoid unilateral responses to disputes and potential trade wars. Since 1995, members have filed more than five hundred disputes with the WTO. Most of these are settled in consultations or by agreement before advancing to litigation.
- Upon joining, all members agree to a dispute settlement mechanism, in which WTO-appointed trade experts can render binding judgments. When one member files a complaint against another, the countries must first attempt to resolve the issue through consultation, and only if that fails is a panel chosen by the WTO's Dispute Settlement Body to hear the case. A panel's recommendations, if not overturned on appeal, must be implemented by the offending country. If the country fails to respond, the plaintiff can then take targeted retaliatory measures, such as blocking imports or raising tariffs.
- The United States is the most active participant in the system, having filed 124 complaints and served as defendant in 156 cases. China has become a particular target for U.S. policymakers, who have increasingly used the WTO process to challenge Chinese government support for domestic industries, restrictions on imports, abuse of intellectual property, and other state-led trade policies. Between 2009 and 2017, under President Barack Obama, the United States brought twenty-five cases to the WTO, more than any other country in that period; sixteen of those targeted China. The Obama administration won seven of its WTO cases against China, including ones that challenged Chinese agricultural and aircraft subsidies and steel import duties; several others are ongoing.

- **Advantages and Disadvantages of the World Trade Organization (WTO)**

The history of international trade has been a battle between protectionism and free trade, and the WTO has fuelled globalization with both positive and adverse effects. The organization's efforts have increased global trade expansion, but a side effect has been a negative impact on local communities and human rights.

Proponents of the WTO, particularly multinational corporations (MNCs), believe that the organization is beneficial to business, seeing the stimulation of free trade and a decline in trade disputes as beneficial to the global economy. Sceptics believe that the WTO undermines the principles of organic democracy and widens the international wealth gap. They point to the decline in domestic industries and increasing foreign influence as negative impacts on the world economy.

As part of his broader attempts to renegotiate U.S. international trade deals, when he was in office, President Trump threatened to withdraw from the WTO, calling it a "disaster." A U.S. withdrawal from the WTO could have disrupted trillions of dollars in global trade, however, he didn't withdraw from it during this time in office.



President Trump denounced China's trade practices, and his administration's 2018 report on trade with China [PDF] maintained that the WTO is incapable of dealing with the problem. So, Trump sidestepped the WTO system. He applied tariffs targeting overproduction of steel and aluminium by China and other countries based on a little-used national security law, and took further measures to retaliate against China, imposing tariffs on hundreds of billions of dollars' worth of Chinese goods. CFR's Edward Alden called Trump's willingness to bypass the WTO the death of the institution.

The appeals system is now at a breaking point after years of U.S. pressure. The Obama administration drew criticism from many members for a May 2016 decision to block the reappointment of a South Korean judge to the WTO's Appellate Body, the first time any country blocked the appointment of another country's judge. Trump continued to block new appointments, and on December 10, 2019, the Appellate Body became unable to hear appeals since the terms of two more judges expired and the number of active judges fell to one. Seven judges normally serve on the body and a minimum of three is required to review new appeals. The Biden administration has so far maintained the block on new appointments, citing the presidential transition.

The United States had long expressed dissatisfaction with the Appellate Body's claim that it may establish legally binding precedents through its rulings, which critics charge exceeds the WTO's original mandate and infringes on U.S. sovereignty. "The Appellate Body routinely issued rulings that made it harder for states to combat unfair trade practices and safeguard jobs," former U.S. Trade Representative Robert Lighthizer wrote in Foreign Affairs. For Trump, the hope was that by crippling the body, Washington would be able to directly challenge Beijing and others allegedly engaged in unfair trade practices.

What are the criticisms of the WTO?

Criticisms of the organization vary. Farmers and labour groups accuse the WTO of focusing too narrowly on corporate interests, environmentalists worry about deregulation, and U.S. policymakers allege that the institution has failed to handle Chinese abuses. The primary concerns include:

Intellectual property. The WTO's intellectual property agreement, Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS), draws criticism from experts who have argued that WTO rules on drug patents have limited access to medicines in poorer countries. The WTO says that enforcing patent protections is central to expanding global trade. A group of emerging economies, led by India and South Africa, have proposed TRIPS waivers for COVID-19 vaccines and treatments, but the move is opposed by some wealthier countries, including the United States.

Sovereignty and regulation. Other critics say WTO rules overrule national sovereignty, and in doing so erode environmental and labour protections. Environmental groups have criticized WTO decisions on genetically modified foods, as well as recent rulings against what the WTO considers discriminatory environmental labelling, as in the case of U.S. dolphin-safe labelling. Labour unions in the United States argue that the WTO is inadequate for protecting U.S.

wages from being undercut by unfair labour practices abroad, alleging, for instance, that China violates basic workers' rights to lower the cost of its exports. Developing countries counter that attempts to address labour standards at the WTO are a form of protectionism in disguise.

Trump was a vociferous critic of Chinese state-led development policy.

Import competition. Some economists argue that by promoting imports and encouraging firms to move their operations abroad, WTO-led tariff reductions hurt U.S. jobs and wages. The Economic Policy Institute's Robert E. Scott and Will Kimball estimated in 2014 that China's entrance into the WTO in 2001 led to the loss of more than three million U.S. jobs, as U.S. firms were forced to compete with China's much cheaper imports. Other estimates find [PDF] a smaller but still substantial loss of around two million jobs, though some experts contend that technological changes, not China, were responsible for those losses. Trade proponents including Dartmouth College economist Douglas Irwin say that increased trade with China benefited the U.S. economy by lowering prices, increasing productivity, and expanding exports. Some analysts claim that most of the consumer benefits that came with China's accession went to poor and middle-class Americans.

Response to China. Trump was a vociferous critic of Chinese state-led development policy, arguing that while the United States has adhered to global trade rules, other countries primarily China have gained an advantage by ignoring them. CFR's Alden says that Washington and its allies "did too little for too long," failing to confront China's abuses at the WTO. Biden has also called for an "aggressive" response to Chinese trade practices, but has also pledged to take a more multilateral approach by working with traditional U.S. allies including the European Union and Japan.

- **Their History**

World Trade Organization (WTO), international organization established to supervise and liberalize world trade. The WTO is the successor to the General

Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) be replaced by a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) to be called the International Trade Organization (ITO). Although the ITO never materialized, the GATT proved remarkably successful in liberalizing world trade over the next five decades. By the late 1980s there were calls for a stronger multilateral organization to monitor trade and resolve trade disputes. Following the completion of the Uruguay Round (1986–94) of multilateral trade negotiations, the WTO began operations on January 1, 1995. The WTO precursor General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), was established by a multilateral treaty of 23 countries in 1947 after World War II in the wake of other new multilateral institutions dedicated to international economic cooperation such as the World Bank (founded 1944) and the International Monetary Fund (founded 1944 or 1945). A comparable international institution for trade, named the International Trade Organization never started as the U.S. and other signatories did not ratify the establishment treaty, and so GATT slowly became a de facto international organization.

• Origins

The ITO was initially envisaged, along with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, as one of the key pillars of post-World War II reconstruction and economic development. In Havana in 1948, the UN Conference on Trade and Employment concluded a draft charter for the ITO, known as the Havana Charter, which would have created extensive rules governing trade, investment, services, and business and employment practices. However, the United States failed to ratify the agreement. Meanwhile, an agreement to phase out the use of import quotas and to reduce tariffs on merchandise trade, negotiated by 23 countries in Geneva in 1947, came into force as the GATT on January 1, 1948.

Although the GATT was expected to be provisional, it was the only major agreement governing international trade until the creation of the WTO. The GATT system evolved over 47 years to become a de facto global trade organization that eventually involved approximately 130 countries. Through various negotiating rounds, the GATT was extended or modified by numerous supplementary codes and arrangements, interpretations, waivers, reports by dispute-settlement panels, and decisions of its council. During negotiations ending in 1994, the original GATT and all changes to it introduced prior to the Uruguay Round were renamed GATT 1947. This set of agreements was distinguished from GATT 1994, which comprises the modifications and clarifications negotiated during the Uruguay Round (referred to as “Understandings”) plus a dozen other multilateral agreements on merchandise trade. GATT 1994 became an integral part of the agreement that established the WTO. Other core components include the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), which attempted to supervise and liberalize trade; the

Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS), which sought to improve protection of intellectual property across borders; the Understanding on Rules and Procedures Governing the Settlement of Disputes, which established rules for resolving conflicts between members; the Trade Policy Review Mechanism, which documented national trade policies and assessed their conformity with WTO rules; and four plurilateral agreements, signed by only a subset of the WTO membership, on civil aircraft, government procurement, dairy products, and bovine meat (though the latter two were terminated at the end of 1997 with the creation of related WTO committees). These agreements were signed in Marrakech, Morocco, in April 1994, and, following their ratification, the contracting parties to the GATT treaty became charter members of the WTO. By the 2020s the WTO had more than 160 members.

• Objectives and Operation

The WTO has six key objectives:

- (1) to set and enforce rules for international trade.
- (2) to provide a forum for negotiating and monitoring further trade liberalization.
- (3) to resolve trade disputes.
- (4) to increase the transparency of decision-making processes.
- (5) to cooperate with other major international economic institutions involved in global economic management.
- (6) to help developing countries benefit fully from the global trading system.

Although shared by the GATT, in practice these goals have been pursued more comprehensively by the WTO. For example, whereas the GATT focused almost exclusively on goods—though much of agriculture and textiles were excluded the WTO encompasses all goods, services, and intellectual property, as well as some investment policies. In addition, the permanent WTO Secretariat, which replaced the interim GATT Secretariat, has strengthened and formalized mechanisms for reviewing trade policies and settling disputes. Because many more products are covered under the WTO than under the GATT and because the number of member countries and the extent of their participation has grown steadily the combined share of international trade of WTO members now exceeds 90 percent of the global total open access to markets has increased substantially. The rules embodied in both the GATT and the WTO serve at least three purposes. First, they attempt to protect the interests of small and weak countries against discriminatory trade practices of large and powerful countries. The WTO's most favoured nation and national treatment articles stipulate that each WTO member must grant equal market access to all other

members and that both domestic and foreign suppliers must be treated equally. Second, the rules require members to limit trade only through tariffs and to provide market access not less favourable than that specified in their schedules (i.e., the commitments that they agreed to when they were granted WTO membership or subsequently). Third, the rules are designed to help governments resist lobbying efforts by domestic interest groups seeking special favours. Although some exceptions to the rules have been made, their presence and replication in the core WTO agreements were intended to ensure that the worst excesses would be avoided. By thus bringing greater certainty and predictability to international markets, it was thought, the WTO would enhance economic welfare and reduce political tensions.

- **Resolution of trade disputes**

The GATT provided an avenue for resolving trade disputes, a role that was strengthened substantially under the WTO. Members are committed not to take unilateral action against other members. Instead, they are expected to seek recourse through the WTO's dispute-settlement system and to abide by its rules and findings. The procedures for dispute resolution under the GATT have been automated and greatly streamlined, and the timetable has been tightened.

Dispute resolution begins with bilateral consultations through the mediation, or "good offices," of the director-general. If this fails, an independent panel is created to hear the dispute. The panel submits a private draft report to the parties for comment, after which it may revise the report before releasing it to the full WTO membership. Unlike the IMF and the World Bank, both of which use weighted voting, each WTO member has only one vote. As in the earlier GATT system, however, most decisions are made by consensus. Unless one or both of the parties files a notice of appeal or the WTO members reject the report, it is automatically adopted and legally binding after 60 days. The process is supposed to be completed within nine months, and, if an appeal is lodged, the WTO Appellate Body hears and rules on any claim of legal error within 60 days. Appellate rulings are automatically adopted unless a consensus exists among members against doing so.

- **Trade-policy reviews**

The WTO also seeks to increase awareness of the extent and effects of trade-distorting policies, a goal that it accomplishes through annual notification requirements and through a policy-review mechanism. Notices of all changes in members' trade and trade-related policies must be published and made accessible to their trading partners. For many developing countries and countries whose economies were formerly centrally planned, this requirement was a major step toward more transparent governance. The WTO reviews the trade policies of the world's four largest traders (the European Union, the United States, Japan, and China) once every two years, the policies of the 16 next largest traders once every four years, and the policies of all other traders once every six or more years. After extensive consultations with the

member country under review, the WTO Secretariat publishes its review together with a companion report by the country's government. The process thus monitors the extent to which members are meeting their commitments and provides information on newly opened markets. It also provides a firmer basis for subsequent trade negotiations and the resolution of trade disputes.

What are the alternatives to the WTO system?

Even with Doha stalled, WTO talks have continued through what are known as plurilateral negotiations, or agreements among subsets of WTO members. Plurilateral deals are easier to negotiate, as they are narrower in focus and not all members are bound by their terms.

At the 2015 Nairobi talks, for instance, fifty-three WTO members concluded an expansion of the Information Technology Agreement, or ITA, which reduces trade tariffs on a raft of IT products. The agreement means that more than 97 percent of all global IT trade is now covered by WTO rules. A major plurilateral agreement in progress is the Trade in Services Agreement (TiSA), under negotiation since 2013 [PDF] among twenty-three members, including the United States and European Union (EU) but excluding China. TiSA's backers hope to use the talks to further the WTO's liberalization of the global services trade, the rules for which haven't been updated since 1995.

In 2012, nineteen members agreed to update the Government Procurement Agreement (GPA), which seeks to further open government procurement markets. And in 2014, fourteen members, including the United States, China, the EU, and Japan, opened negotiations on a proposed Environmental Goods Agreement (EGA), which would liberalize trade in environmental products, such as wind turbines and solar panels. In 2019, a group of more than seventy countries, including those in the EGA negotiations, launched talks for an agreement on e-commerce, an increasingly important trade issue.

Many countries have also turned to bilateral free trade agreements (FTAs) or larger regional ones. The Obama administration pushed for so-called megaregional deals, such as the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) and the U.S.-EU Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership (TTIP). But Trump voiced deep scepticism about multilateralism, preferring to deal with trading partners on a bilateral basis. He withdrew from the TPP immediately upon taking office, and the remaining members completed the deal without the United States. As U.S. allies advanced FTAs without him, Trump pursued unilateral measures to

confront China and other countries on trade, raising serious doubts about the future of the WTO.

CFR's Hillman says that one of the immediate tasks facing Biden is salvaging a WTO that is in crisis, beginning with its Appellate Body impasse. The Biden administration, Hillman predicts, "will at least make an effort to try to bring about a reformed, revitalized, reinvigorated World Trade Organization."

- **Whose WTO is it anyway?**

The WTO is 'member-driven', with decisions taken by consensus among all member governments.

The WTO is run by its member governments. All major decisions are made by the membership as a whole, either by ministers (who meet at least once every two years) or by their ambassadors or delegates (who meet regularly in Geneva). Decisions are normally taken by consensus.

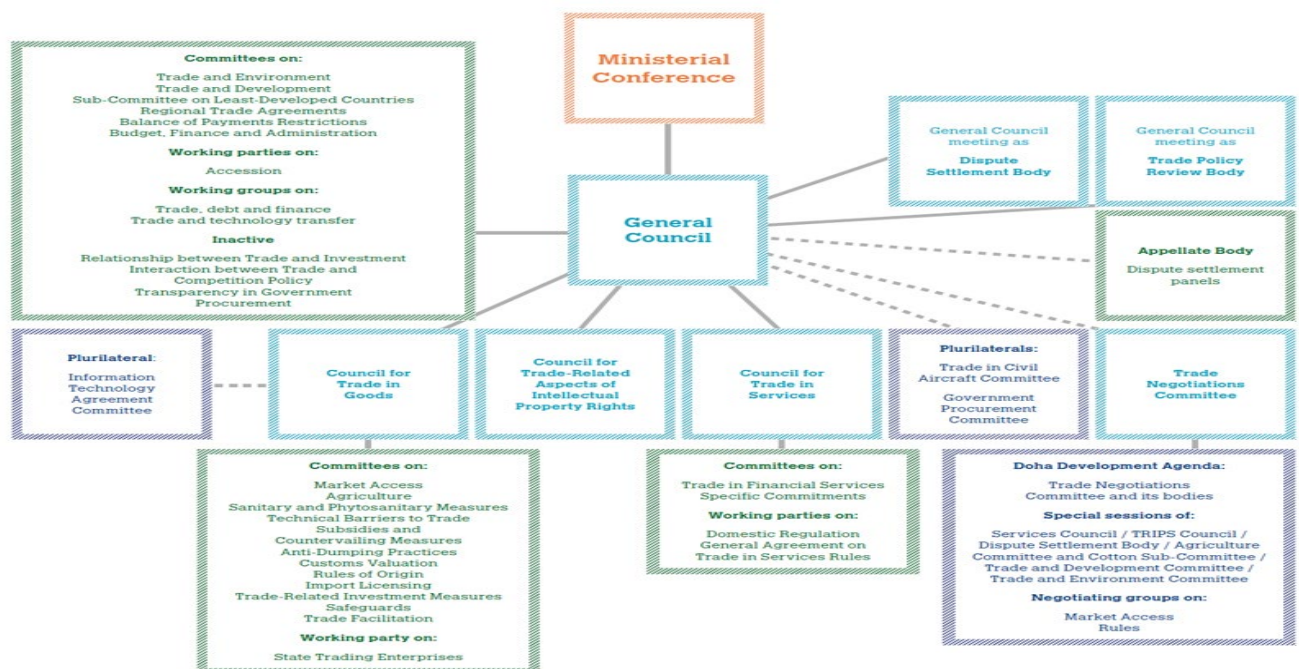
In this respect, the WTO is different from some other international organizations such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. In the WTO, power is not delegated to a board of directors or the organization's head.

When WTO rules impose disciplines on countries' policies, that is the outcome of negotiations among WTO members. The rules are enforced by the members themselves under agreed procedures that they negotiated, including the possibility of trade sanctions. But those sanctions are imposed by member countries, and authorized by the membership as a whole. This is quite different from other agencies whose bureaucracies can, for example, influence a country's policy by threatening to withhold credit.

Reaching decisions by consensus among some 150 members can be difficult. Its main advantage is that decisions made this way are more acceptable to all members. And despite the difficulty, some remarkable agreements have been reached. Nevertheless, proposals for the creation of a smaller executive body perhaps like a board of directors each representing different groups of countries are heard periodically. But for now, the WTO is a member-driven, consensus-based organization.

Highest authority: The Ministerial Conference

So, the WTO belongs to its members. The countries make their decisions through various councils and committees, whose membership consists of all WTO members. Topmost is the ministerial conference which has to meet at least once every two years. The Ministerial Conference can take decisions on all matters under any of the multilateral trade agreements.



- **Assessment**

The pace of international economic integration via the GATT and WTO rounds of multilateral trade negotiations has been slower and less comprehensive than some members would prefer. Some have suggested that there should be additional integration among subgroups of (often neighbouring) member economies e.g., those party to the European Union, the North American Free Trade Agreement (superseded by the United States-Mexico-Canada Agreement, signed in 2018) and the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation for political, military, or other reasons. Notwithstanding the most-favoured-nation clauses in the agreements establishing the

WTO, the organization does allow such preferential integration under certain conditions. Even though many such integration agreements arguably do not involve “substantially all trade” the WTO’s main condition there has been little conflict over the formation of free-trade areas and customs unions. The most common omissions from such agreements are politically sensitive sectors such as agriculture.

Beginning in the late 1990s, the WTO was the target of fierce criticism. Opponents of economic globalization (see anti-globalization), and in particular those opposed to the growing power of multinational corporations, argued that the WTO infringes upon national sovereignty and promotes the interests of large corporations at the expense of smaller local firms struggling to cope with import competition. Environmental and labour groups (especially those from wealthier countries) have claimed that trade liberalization leads to environmental damage and harms the interests of low-skilled unionized workers. Protests by these and other groups at WTO ministerial meetings such as the 1999 demonstrations in Seattle, Washington, U.S., which involved approximately 50,000 people became larger and more frequent, in part because the development of the Internet and social media made large-scale organizing and collective action easier. In response to such criticism, supporters of the WTO claimed that regulating trade is not an efficient way to protect the environment and labour rights. Meanwhile, some WTO members, especially developing countries, resisted attempts to adopt rules that would allow for sanctions against countries that failed to meet strict environmental and labour standards, arguing that they would amount to veiled protectionism.

Despite these criticisms, however, WTO admission remained attractive for non-members, as evidenced by the increase in the number of members after 1995. Most significantly, China entered the WTO in 2001 after years of accession negotiations. The conditions for Chinese membership were in some ways more restrictive than those for developing countries, reflecting the concerns of some WTO members that the admission of such a large and still somewhat planned economy might have an overall negative effect on free trade.

- **The WTO building: Centre William Rappard**

Centre William Rappard, the home of the World Trade Organization. Bearing witness to over 90 years of international cooperation, the Centre William Rappard (CWR) was conceived as part of the effort after World War I to create a League of Nations and other institutions that would encourage multilateral cooperation and the peaceful resolution of conflicts.



Procurement at the WTO

The WTO Procurement Section is responsible for obtaining, in a timely and cost-effective manner, goods and services which meet the needs of the organization. These goods and services include, among others, informatics software and hardware, security products and services, reprographic and publishing equipment and material, various consulting services, as well as goods and services related to the functioning of the WTO buildings in Geneva.

Throughout the entire procurement process, WTO applies the following principles:

- a. Efficient and effective use of the Organization's resources
- b. Non-discriminatory, fair, impartial and open competition
- c. Transparency
- d. Best value for money
- e. Accountability
- f. Integrity
- g. Respect for the Organization's Regulations and Rules.

• Business opportunities / Vendor registration

Suppliers interested in business opportunities with the WTO are invited to consult our tenders published on the United Nations Global Marketplace (UNGM).

The WTO encourages potential vendor to register at the basic level through the UNGM.

The system provides registered companies with secure access to information enabling them to participate in WTO tenders such as Expression of Interest (EOI), Request for Quotation (RFQ), Invitation to Bid (ITB) and Request for Proposal (RFP).

- **Gifts and hospitality**

The WTO applies a "zero tolerance" policy to the staff involved in the procurement activities and expects suppliers not to offer any type of gift, favour or hospitality.

GENERAL TERMS AND CONDITIONS

CONFIDENTIALITY, NAME, INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY AND TAX-EXEMPT STATUS OF THE WTO:

- **Confidentiality**

1. All drawings, photographs, plans, manuscripts, files, reports, recommendations, notes, documents and other data or information, in whatever form, received from the WTO by the Contractor or prepared or discussed jointly by the WTO and the Contractor, members of its staff or outside contractors in connection with this contract which are not in the public domain at the time that this contract is concluded (the "Confidential Information") shall be treated with the utmost confidentiality by the Contractor, who undertakes not to reveal either their existence or their content to third parties throughout the term of this contract and for an unlimited period of time thereafter, unless it be with the prior written authorization of the WTO.
2. The Contractor undertakes to communicate the Confidential Information only to the members of its staff and outside contractors directly involved in the management of this contract and only insofar as absolutely necessary to ensure that this contract is properly performed. The names of the Contractor's employees and outside contractors with access to the Confidential Information shall, at the request of the WTO, be communicated to the latter in writing.
3. The Contractor undertakes to return, at the end of this contract or in the event of its being terminated, all the documents that constitute Confidential Information. The Contractor shall confirm, in writing, that it has not retained any copies of the said documents.
4. The Contractor shall take the measures necessary to ensure that the members of its staff and outside contractors fulfil the Contractor's confidentiality obligations as if they were parties to this contract, even after they cease to be employed by the Contractor. In particular, the Contractor undertakes to have the confidentiality clause annexed to this contract signed

by all those involved, directly or indirectly, in the performance of this contract. The Contractor undertakes to have the confidentiality clause respected or to seek compensation for any breach of that clause by any legal means at its disposal, whether or not the WTO so requests. If its confidentiality obligations are breached by a member of its staff or by an outside contractor, the Contractor shall immediately inform the WTO thereof.

5. Subject to the provisions of this article, the Contractor may retain documents it has produced under this contract which do not form part of the Confidential Information. 6. The obligations for which this article provides shall not lapse when, for whatever reason, this contract expires.

- **Use of the name, logo or official seal of the WTO**

1. The Contractor, members of its staff and its outside contractors may not use for advertising purposes, or otherwise make public, the fact that they are performing or have performed services for, or supplied products to, the WTO, except with the latter's prior agreement in writing; moreover, they may not use the name, logo or official seal of the WTO or the acronym "WTO" to make it known to third parties that they are performing or have performed services for, or supplied products to, the WTO. The Contractor shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that its staff members and outside contractors abide by this provision.

2. The obligations for which this article provides shall not lapse when, for whatever reason, this contract expires.

3. Intellectual property rights

1. Unless otherwise arranged between the parties in writing, the WTO shall have the benefit of all intellectual property rights applicable with respect to any product or service developed within the framework of this contract. The intellectual property rights exercised by the Contractor at the time of entering into this contract shall not be affected by the present provision.

- **Tax exempt status**

1. Under Article 9 of the Headquarters Agreement concluded between the WTO and the Swiss Confederation, the WTO is exempt from indirect federal, cantonal and communal taxes in Switzerland and, in particular, from value-added tax (VAT) with respect to all purchases of goods for its official use and all services provided for its official use. Moreover, by virtue of Article VIII, paragraph 4, of the Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization, in its other Members the WTO benefits from a tax exemption similar to that stipulated in the 1947 Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the Specialized Agencies. Consequently, services and/or products supplied by the Contractor under the terms of this contract shall be invoiced net of any tax or excise duty. By paying the amount, exclusive of tax,

invoiced by the Contractor, the WTO will discharge in full its obligations under this contract.

2. If the tax authorities should refuse to recognize the tax-exempt status of the WTO, the Contractor shall immediately consult the WTO for the purpose of agreeing upon a mutually acceptable procedure.

LIABILITY AND INSURANCE

• Liability of the Contractor

1. Any act or omission on the part of the Contractor, members of its staff or its subcontractors that constitutes a breach, intentional or through negligence, of this contract or causes injury of any kind to the WTO outside the application of this contract shall render the Contractor liable to the WTO.
2. Within this context, the Contractor undertakes, more particularly:
 - (a) To fulfil its obligations under this contract competently, diligently and efficiently, and in conformity with the norms applicable and generally accepted professional, administrative and financial practice;
 - (b) to act at all times in such a way as to protect, and not thwart, the interests of the WTO;
 - (c) not to make use of subcontractors or independent providers in connection with this contract without the prior authorization, in writing, of the WTO;
 - (d) in performing this contract, to comply with the law and all regulatory measures applicable to its branch of activity and to take all appropriate steps to ensure that its employees and subcontractors do likewise. In particular, the Contractor shall be responsible for obtaining the visas, authorizations and permits needed in order for its personnel to reside or enter and work in the territory within which this contract is to be performed. The Contractor undertakes to pay, when due, the wages (less any withholding tax) of its employees, together with any related social security or occupational insurance contributions (employee's share/employer's share);
 - (e) to follow the orders, directives and instructions of the WTO. In particular, it shall be for the WTO to judge and determine, in each set of circumstances, how and for how long personnel assigned by the Contractor to the performance of this contract shall be deployed on WTO premises.
3. The Contractor shall also be liable for the additional costs incurred by the WTO as a result of any failure or delay, imputable to the Contractor, in the fulfilment of its obligations under this contract, including any failure or delay resulting from an interruption in supplies to the Contractor or from industrial action by the employees of the Contractor or its subcontractors. In this respect,

at the request of the WTO, the Contractor shall draw up and, if necessary, regularly update, in cooperation with the WTO, an emergency plan that enables the Contractor to continue to perform this contract in full, without interruption or with the minimum of disruption, in the event of industrial action by its personnel or any other contingency that might affect the availability of the personnel normally assigned by the Contractor to the performance of this contract.

- **Exemption of the Contractor from liability**

1. The Contractor shall not be rendered liable if the act or omission that could render it liable within the meaning of the previous provision is due to: (a) Causes exclusively imputable to the WTO; (b) a cause beyond the control of the Contractor, its governing bodies or members of its staff and involving no fault or negligence on their part; (c) a case of unforeseeable and irresistible events that constitute a state of force majeure, unless the purpose of this contract is to prevent, reduce the effect of, or respond to the consequences of such cases of force majeure.

- **Indemnification of the WTO**

The Contractor undertakes to indemnify the WTO for any expense, damage or loss (including the fees of any lawyers hired as a consequence thereof) that the latter might suffer by reason of an act or omission under provision C.1.

- **Insurance**

1. The Contractor shall take out the necessary insurance policies and provide for their renewal. The Contractor shall, in particular, take out general liability insurance for a total amount corresponding to the coverage usually applicable by event in the professional field of work of the Contractor, in the same professional sector and for the same type of contract in the country (ies) where this contract is implemented and covering death and injury and damage to persons and property, when such liability is the result of acts or omissions imputable to the Contractor, to members of its staff or to its outside contractors in relation to this contract.
2. At the request of the WTO, the Contractor shall supply a copy of the insurance policies. The Contractor shall give the WTO the right to contact the Contractor's insurers at any time for the purpose of verifying that insurance premiums are regularly paid. In the event of delay in the payment of insurance premiums, the WTO may substitute itself for the Contractor. The overdue premiums thus paid by the WTO shall then be deducted from the remuneration owed by the WTO to the Contractor.

3. It shall be for the Contractor to take out any life, health, accident or travel insurance or any other insurance that may be necessary or desirable for members of its staff or subcontractors providing goods or services under this contract. The WTO refuses to accept any responsibility in this regard.
4. If so required by a change in circumstances, the Parties agree to consider any other form of cover on a mutually acceptable basis.

SPECIFIC GROUNDS FOR SUSPENSION OR TERMINATION

- **Bankruptcy of the Contractor**

1. If the Contractor is declared bankrupt, becomes insolvent, or forms the subject of a stay of bankruptcy, a winding-up procedure or any other similar proceedings, if the Contractor's management changes as a result of its insolvency, or if the Contractor is taken over by or merges with another enterprise, the WTO may, without prejudice to any other right or remedy, terminate this contract with immediate effect by notifying the Contractor of its decision to terminate the contract in writing. Failing that, this contract shall be binding on any successor to the Contractor that assumes its right.
2. Force majeure and other situations beyond the control of the Parties 1. In the event of force majeure or other situations that lie beyond the control of the Parties, are irresistible, do not result from their own negligence and prevent the normal performance of this contract, the Parties may agree to modify or temporarily suspend the supplies or services for which this contract provides.

FINAL PROVISIONS

- **Languages to be used in communications**

1. The Contractor undertakes to use only French or English in all its written communications addressed to the WTO in connection with the fulfilment of its obligations under this contract, for all documents that it delivers or prepares within the context of its obligations, as well as in any oral communication with the WTO.

- **Amendment of this contract**

1. This contract may be amended by the Parties at any time by mutual agreement.
2. The validity and enforceability of any amendment to this contract shall be conditional upon the prior approval of the Parties, in writing, drawn up in the form of an addendum to this contract duly signed by the Parties.
3. Any amendment to this contract shall be valid only for the future, unless otherwise agreed by the Parties.

- **Termination**

1. Either party may terminate this contract for any reason whatsoever, without having to indemnify the other party and by giving the other party, in writing, a notice proportional to the duration of this contract as defined in the latter. The contractual clauses applicable to the liquidation of this contract as well to the liquidation of rights and settlement of disputes shall remain in force for as long as necessary.

2. The previous paragraph notwithstanding, in the event of a serious failure by the Contractor to fulfil the obligations defined in this contract, the WTO may terminate this contract without notice or with a notice that it will deem appropriate under the circumstances.

3. In the event of termination based on a serious failure by the Contractor, the WTO shall have the right to demand compensation from the Contractor for the consequential damage.

4. In the event of this contract being terminated, for any reason whatsoever:

(a) The WTO shall make any payments that may be owed to the Contractor up to the effective date of termination in relation to deliveries of goods or services under this contract;

(b) the Contractor shall complete any services, deliveries or installations in progress and, in any event, take all appropriate measures to prevent the loss or deterioration of goods or any other damage to the WTO;

(c) the Contractor shall collaborate fully with the WTO with a view to enabling this contract to be taken over, if necessary, by another provider of goods or services under good conditions.

- **Interpretation and arbitration**

1. The terms of this contract shall be interpreted on the basis of their ordinary meaning, irrespective of any reference to a domestic legal system, having regard to the international legal personality of the WTO and the privileges and immunities it enjoys under Article VIII of the Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization and Articles 2 and 8 of the Headquarters Agreement between the Swiss Confederation and the WTO. Reference shall be made to the law of the place of performance of the contract only if and strictly to the extent that (i) the terms of this contract are ambiguous or unintelligible or (ii) the sole arbitrator establishes the existence of a gap or omission in this contract.

2. Any dispute, difference of opinion or complaint relating to this contract, its performance or the termination or invalidity thereof shall be settled by arbitration

in accordance with the Arbitration Rules of the United Nations Commission on International Trade Law (UNCITRAL) in force as of the date of this contract. The arbitral tribunal shall be composed of a sole arbitrator. The sole arbitrator shall be appointed by the Secretary-General of the Permanent Court of Arbitration unless the Parties agree on the name of an arbitrator within one month of resorting to arbitration. The arbitration shall take place in Geneva (Switzerland) and the language of the procedure shall be English. The arbitral award shall be final and may not be appealed before national courts for any reason whatsoever.

- **Privileges and immunities**

1. None of the provisions of this contract or of the annexed or mentioned documents shall imply or be construed to imply a waiver by the WTO, even temporary, partial or implicit, of its privileges and immunities under Article VIII of the Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization (1994) and the Headquarters Agreement of 2 June 1995 concluded with the Swiss Confederation. 2. In applying this contract, the Contractor, the members of its staff and its outside contractors may in no circumstances invoke an employment relationship with the WTO or the status of WTO official. In the performance of this contract, the Contractor, the members of its staff and its outside contractors shall not enjoy any of the privileges or immunities of the WTO.

- **Annexes**

1. The annexes to this contract shall form an integral part thereof. In case of conflict between a provision of this contract and a provision of an annexed document, the provision of this contract shall prevail.

- **Audits and investigations**

1. The terms and conditions of this contract and their implementation may form the subject of audit procedures or investigations carried out by the competent authorities of the WTO or by external authorities. At the request of the WTO, the Contractor shall cooperate fully with these procedures.

PAYMENT TERMS

1. WTO's normal terms are payment by bank transfer within thirty days of receipt of invoice in good order. Invoices are to be sent to the address indicated in the purchase order.

2. As part of the WTO contribution to the international fight against money laundering, the invoice shall not be paid to anyone except the contractor. The contractor may also be required to provide evidence that the bank account to which the transfer will be made is actually the contractor's bank account.

WTO Annual Report 2020

2019: A Snapshot

○ January:

General Council appoints facilitator to try to help WTO members resolve differences on functioning of Appellate Body. DG Azevêdo attends World Economic Forum in Davos.

○ February:

DG Azevêdo attends first International Food Safety Conference in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Ambassador Sunanta Kangvalkulkij (Thailand) appointed as Chair of General Council.

○ March:

South Sudan starts WTO membership negotiations.

○ April:

WTO hosts International Forum on Food Safety and Trade

○ May:

Australia becomes newest member of WTO Agreement on Government Procurement. DG Azevêdo announces new fund to help LDCs participate in fisheries subsidies talks. UN Secretary-General António Guterres addresses WTO General Council. WTO hosts Trade Dialogues event with consumer groups.

○ June:

WTO welcomes close to 3,000 visitors to its Open Day. DG Azevêdo welcomes G20 leaders' renewed call for WTO reform at summit in Osaka, Japan.

○ July:

WTO hosts Global Review of Aid for Trade.

○ **August:**

At G7 Summit in Biarritz, DG Azevêdo discusses “fighting inequalities” with world leaders

○ **September:**

DG Azevêdo attends event in Montevideo to mark 25th anniversary of conclusion of Uruguay Round.

○ **October:**

Chancellor Merkel, DG Azevêdo and other agency heads discuss challenges of multilateralism in Berlin. WTO hosts World Cotton Day. WTO’s Public Forum welcomes over 2,500 participants to talk about “Trading Forward: Adapting to a Changing World”. WTO-WHO-WIPO Symposium looks at challenges and opportunities of cutting-edge health technologies.

○ **November:**

DG Azevêdo and President Xi participate in opening ceremony of China International Import Expo in Shanghai. Conference marks 30 years of the WTO’s Trade Policy Review Mechanism.

○ **December:**

Kazakhstan submits application to join Government Procurement Agreement. WTO members agree to extend e-commerce, non-violation moratoriums. DG Azevêdo pledges to launch high-level consultations on resolving Appellate Body impasse.

A YEAR REVIEW:

- WTO members sought to move trade negotiations forward in advance of the 12th Ministerial Conference, originally scheduled for June 2020 in Nur-Sultan, Kazakhstan. Fisheries subsidies and agriculture were the most active areas of negotiation. A number of members declared WTO reform a priority for the organization.
- Discussions on reform focused on strengthening the work of WTO committees and increasing transparency, improving the dispute settlement system and addressing the functioning of the Appellate Body, and improving negotiating work so that the WTO can continue to deliver new agreements with economic impact.
- The General Council appointed Ambassador David Walker (New Zealand) as a facilitator charged with helping WTO members find a solution on improving the functioning of the Appellate Body. However, there was no consensus on the

resulting set of proposals, and in December, DG Azevêdo announced he would launch high-level consultations to find a way forward on maintaining a two-step review process for the settlement of trade disputes.

THANK YOU



REGIONAL TRADE BLOCS

Name: Samidha Raghuwir.

Class: TYB.com

Division: A

Roll no.: 96

Academic Year: 2020-21

Regional trade blocs

A trading bloc is a formal agreement between two or more regional countries that remove trade barriers between the countries in the agreement while keeping trade barriers for other countries. Regional Trade Blocs or Regional Trade Agreements (or Free Trade Agreements) are a type of regional intergovernmental arrangement, where the participating countries agree to reduce or eliminate barriers to trade like tariffs and non-tariff barriers. The RTBs are thus historically known for promoting trade within a region by reducing or eliminating tariff among the member countries.

Over the last few decades, international trade liberalisations are taking place in a serious manner through the formation of RTBs. They are getting wide attention because of many important international developments. First, now the world is trying hard to escape from the ongoing great recession phase. Second is the failure of the WTO to take further liberalisation measures on the trade liberalisation front.

While the formation of trade blocs, such as the European Union and NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement), has led to trade creation between members, by the same token it is also harder for countries outside the bloc to trade, leading to what is called trade diversion, where a company that otherwise might have got the business in that country is prevented from doing so because of a trading bloc and the barriers in place for non-member countries.

NAFTA (USMCA)

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) was a treaty between Canada, Mexico, and the United States that eliminated most tariffs between the countries. It was replaced by the United States-Mexico-Canada Agreement (USMCA) on July 1, 2020.

History

It took three U.S. presidents to put NAFTA together. President Ronald Reagan kicked it off during his 1979 announcement of his bid for the presidency. He wanted to unify the North American market to better compete.

In 1984, Congress passed the Trade and Tariff Act, which gave the president fast-track authority to negotiate free trade agreements. It permitted Congress only the ability to approve or disapprove and it couldn't change negotiating points.

In 1992, President George H.W. Bush signed NAFTA shortly before he left office. It then went back to the legislatures of all three countries for ratification. In 1993, President Bill Clinton signed it.¹⁴ NAFTA went into effect on January 1, 1994.

What Is the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)?

- NAFTA was the world's largest free trade agreement when it was established on Jan. 1, 1994.
- NAFTA was the first time two developed nations signed a trade agreement with an emerging market country.
- Through NAFTA, the three signatories agreed to remove trade barriers between them. By eliminating tariffs, NAFTA increased investment opportunities.

How the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) Worked

NAFTA accomplished six things for the participating countries. First, NAFTA granted most-favoured-nation status to all co-signers. That means each country treated the other two fairly and couldn't give better treatment to domestic investors than foreign ones. They also couldn't offer a better deal to investors from non-NAFTA countries and they had to offer federal contracts to businesses in all three NAFTA countries.

Second, NAFTA eliminated many tariffs on imports and exports between the three countries. Tariffs are taxes used to make foreign goods more expensive. NAFTA created specific rules to regulate trade in farm products, automobiles, and clothing.

Third, exporters were required to get Certificates of Origin to waive tariffs. That meant the export had to originate in the United States, Canada, or Mexico. A product made in Peru but shipped from Mexico would still pay a duty when it entered the United States or Canada.

Fourth, NAFTA established procedures to resolve trade disputes. Parties would start with a formal discussion, followed by a discussion at a Free Trade Commission meeting if needed. If the disagreement wasn't resolved, a panel reviewed the dispute. The process helped all parties avoid costly lawsuits in local courts and helped them interpret NAFTA's complex rules and procedures. These trade dispute protections applied to investors as well.

Fifth, all NAFTA countries were required to respect patents, trademarks, and copyrights. At the same time, the agreement ensured that these intellectual property rights didn't interfere with trade.

Sixth, the agreement allowed business travellers easy access throughout all three countries.

Pros

NAFTA had three significant advantages. U.S. grocery prices were lower due to tariff-free imports from Mexico. Imported oil from both Canada and Mexico has prevented higher gas prices. NAFTA also increased trade and economic growth for all three countries.

NAFTA increased the competitiveness of these three countries in the global marketplace. It allowed them to better compete with China and the European Union. By per capita GDP on a purchasing power parity basis, China is now the world's largest economy, having surpassed the United States in 2014.

Cons

Critics point to three main disadvantages of NAFTA. First, some argue that it sent many U.S. manufacturing jobs to lower-cost Mexico. Second, U.S. workers who kept jobs in those industries had to accept lower wages. Third, Mexico's workers suffered exploitation in its maquiladora programs. A maquiladora is a low-cost, U.S.-owned manufacturing operation or factory operating in Mexico, typically near the Mexico-U.S. border.

Notable Happenings

On November 30, 2018, the United States, Mexico, and Canada renegotiated NAFTA. The new deal is called the United States-Mexico-Canada Agreement (USMCA). The implementation act passed the House in December 2019, the Senate in January 2020, and signed by President Trump on Jan. 29, 2020. It was ratified in Mexico in June 2019 and in Canada in March 2020. The USMCA went into force on July 1, 2020

Problems with NAFTA

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) was replaced by the United States-Mexico-Canada (USMCA) agreement as of July 1, 2020. While it accomplished some good things for the economy, NAFTA also had six major weaknesses. These disadvantages had a negative impact on both American and Mexican workers and even the environment.

1.U.S. Jobs Were Lost

Since labour is cheaper in Mexico, many manufacturing industries withdrew part of their production from the high-cost United States. Between 1994 and 2010, the U.S. trade deficits with Mexico total \$97.2 billion. In the same period, 682,900 U.S. jobs went to Mexico. But 116,400 of those jobs were displaced after 2007, meaning the 2008 financial crisis may have played a role.

Almost 80% of the losses were in manufacturing. The hardest-hit states were California, New York, Michigan, and Texas. They had high concentrations of the industries that moved plants to Mexico. These industries included motor vehicles, textiles, computers, and electrical appliances.

2.U.S. Wages Were Suppressed

Not all companies in these industries moved to Mexico, but some used the threat of moving as leverage against union-organizing drives. When workers had to choose between joining the union and losing the factory, workers chose the plant. Without union support, the workers had little bargaining power. That suppressed wage growth.

According to Kate Bronfenbrenner of Cornell University, many companies in industries that were moving to Mexico used the threat of closing the factory. Between 1993 and 1999, 64% of U.S. manufacturing firms in those industries used that threat. By 1999, the rate had grown to 71%.

3.Mexico's Farmers Were Put Out Of Business

Thanks to NAFTA, Mexico lost nearly 1.3 million farm jobs from 1994 to 2004. The 2002 Farm Bill subsidized U.S. agribusiness by as much as 40% of net farm income. When NAFTA removed trade tariffs, companies exported corn and other grains to Mexico below cost. Rural Mexican farmers could not compete.

At the same time, Mexico reduced its subsidies to farmers from 33.2% of total farm income in 1990 to 13.2% in 2001. Most of those subsidies went to Mexico's large farms. These changes meant many small Mexican farmers were put out of business by highly subsidized American farmers.

4.Maquiladora Workers Were Exploited

NAFTA expanded the maquiladora program by removing tariffs. This program allows United States-owned companies to employ Mexican workers near the border. They cheaply assemble products for export back into the United States. The program grew to employ 30% of Mexico's labour force. These worksites were known for abusing worker rights, with reports of workdays lasting 12 hours or more and women being subjected to pregnancy test when they applied for jobs.

5.Mexico's Environment Deteriorated

In response to NAFTA's competitive pressure, Mexican agribusiness used more fertilizers and other chemicals, costing \$36 billion per year in pollution. Rural farmers expanded into marginal land, resulting in deforestation at a rate of 630,000 hectares per year.

6.NAFTA Called for Free U.S. Access for Mexican Trucks

Another harmful agreement within NAFTA was never implemented. NAFTA would have allowed trucks from Mexico to travel within the United States beyond the current 20-mile commercial zone limit. The Department of Transportation (DOT) was set up a demonstration project to review the practicality of this. In 2009, the House of Representatives terminated this project, prohibiting the DOT from implementing it without Congressional approval.

Congress worried that Mexican trucks would have presented a road hazard because they are not subject to the same safety standards as U.S. trucks. U.S. truckers' organizations and companies opposed it because they would have lost business. Currently, Mexican trucks must stop at the commercial zone limit (usually no more than 20 miles in) and have their goods transferred to U.S. trucks.

There was also a question of reciprocity. The NAFTA agreement would have allowed unlimited access for U.S. vehicles throughout Mexico. A similar arrangement works well between the U.S. and its other NAFTA partner, Canada. However, Mexican trucks can be significantly heavier than American trucks, and many use a heavy-duty walking-beam suspension system, potentially making them more damaging to American roads.¹⁶

USMCA

Partially because of these disadvantages, the United States, Mexico, and Canada began renegotiating NAFTA on August 16, 2017. Negotiations between the three countries concluded on September 30, 2018. The new deal is called the United States-Mexico-Canada Agreement.¹⁷ The U.S. Congress finished passing the agreement on Jan. 16, 2020, and two weeks later President Donald Trump signed off on it. The agreement officially took the place of NAFTA on July 1, 2020.

The Trump administration wanted to lower the trade deficit between the United States and Mexico. The USMCA changes NAFTA in six areas. The most important change is that auto companies must now manufacture at least 75% of the car's components in the USMCA's trade zone

European Union

The European Union is a unified trade and monetary body of 27 member countries. It eliminates all border controls between members. The open border allows the free flow of goods and people. There may be police checks, based on police information and experience, that are not equivalent to border checks.

Any product manufactured in one EU country can be sold to any other member without tariffs or duties. Practitioners of most services, such as law, medicine, tourism, banking, and insurance, can operate a business in all member countries.

History

In 1950, the concept of a European trade area was first established. The European Coal and Steel Community had six founding members: Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands.

In 1957, the Treaty of Rome established a common market. It eliminated customs duties in 1968. It put in place standard policies, particularly in trade and agriculture. In 1973, the ECSC added Denmark, Ireland, and the United Kingdom. It created its first Parliament in 1979. Greece joined in 1981, followed by Spain and Portugal in 1986.

In 1993, the Treaty of Maastricht established the European Union common market. Two years later, the EU added Austria, Sweden, and Finland. In 2004, twelve more countries joined: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia. Bulgaria and Romania joined in 2007.

In 2009, the Treaty of Lisbon increased the powers of the European Parliament. It gave the EU the legal authority to negotiate and sign international treaties. It increased EU powers, border control, immigration, judicial cooperation in civil and criminal matters, and police cooperation. It abandoned the idea of a European Constitution. European law is still established by international treaties.

Purpose

The EU's purpose is to be more competitive in the global marketplace. At the same time, it must balance the needs of its independent fiscal and political members.

Its 27 member countries are Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden.

How It Is Governed

Three bodies run the EU. The EU Council represents national governments. The Parliament is elected by the people. The European Commission is the EU staff. They make sure all members act consistently in regional, agricultural, and social policies. Contributions of 120 billion euros a year from member states fund the EU.

Here's how the three bodies uphold the laws governing the EU. These are spelled out in a series of treaties and supporting regulations:

1. The European Commission proposes new legislation. The commissioners serve a five-year term.
2. The European Parliament gets the first read of all laws the Commission proposes. Its members are elected every five years.
3. The European Council gets the second read on all laws and can accept the Parliament's position, thus adopting the law. The council is made up of the Union's 27 heads of state, plus a president.

Currency

The euro is the common currency for the EU area. It is the second most commonly held currency in the world, after the U.S. dollar. It replaced the Italian lira, the French franc, and the German Deutschmark, among others.

The value of the euro is free-floating instead of a fixed exchange rate. As a result, foreign exchange traders determine its value each day. The most widely-watched value is how much the euro's value is compared to the U.S. dollar. The dollar is the unofficial world currency.

The Difference Between the Eurozone and the EU

The eurozone consists of all countries that use the euro. All EU members pledge to convert to the euro, but only 19 have so far. They are Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Spain.

The European Central Bank is the EU's central bank. It sets monetary policy and manages bank lending rates and foreign exchange reserves. Its target inflation rate is less than 2%.

The Schengen Area

The Schengen Area guarantees free movement to those legally residing within its boundaries. Residents and visitors can cross borders without getting visas or showing their passports.²

In total, there are 26 members of the Schengen Area. They are Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland.

One EU country, Ireland has declined the Schengen benefits. Four non-EU countries, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Switzerland have adopted the Schengen Agreement. Three territories are special members of the EU and part of the Schengen Area: the Azores, Madeira, and the Canary Islands. Three countries have open borders with the Schengen Area: Monaco, San Marino, and Vatican City.

This chart shows which countries are members of the EU, the eurozone, and the Schengen Area:

Countries	EU Member	Schengen	Euro
Austria, Belgium, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes
Czech Republic, Denmark, Hungary, Poland, Sweden	Yes	Yes	No
Ireland	Yes	No	Yes
Bulgaria, Croatia, Romania	Yes	Pending	No
Cyprus	Yes	Pending	Yes
Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Switzerland	No	Yes	No
United Kingdom	No	No	No

Economy

The EU's trade structure has propelled it to become the world's second-largest economy after China. In 2018, its gross domestic product was \$22 trillion, while China's was \$25.3 trillion.

These measurements use purchasing power parity to account for the discrepancy between each country's standard of living. The United States was third, producing \$20.5 trillion.

The EU's top three exports in 2018 were petroleum, medication, and automobiles; while its top imports are petroleum, communications equipment, and natural gas. Its top export partner is the United States and its top import partner is China

SAARC

The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) was established with the signing of the SAARC Charter in Dhaka on 8 December 1985. The idea of regional cooperation in South Asia was first raised in November 1980. After consultations, the foreign secretaries of the seven founding countries—Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka—met for the first time in Colombo in April 1981. Afghanistan became the newest member of SAARC at the 13th annual summit in 2005. The Headquarters and Secretariat of the Association are at Kathmandu, Nepal

Historical background

The idea of regional cooperation in South Asia was first initiated in May 1980. The Foreign Secretaries of the then seven countries met for the first time in Colombo in April 1981. Five key areas for regional cooperation were identified and with time other important areas were added later.

The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation was set up when its Charter was formally adopted on 8 December 1985 by the Heads of State or Government of India, Bangladesh, Maldives, Bhutan, Nepal, Sri Lanka, and Pakistan.

SAARC comprises the following member states:

1. Afghanistan
2. Bangladesh
3. Bhutan
4. India
5. Maldives
6. Nepal
7. Pakistan
8. Sri Lanka

SAARC – Observer States

1. Australia
2. China
3. European union
4. Iran
5. Japan
6. Mauritius
7. United States
8. Korea

Areas of Cooperation

- Human Resource Development and Tourism

- Agriculture and Rural Development
- Environment, Natural Disasters and Biotechnology
- Economic, Trade and Finance
- Social Affairs
- Information and Poverty Alleviation
- Energy, Transport, Science and Technology
- Education, Security and Culture and Others

The Objectives of the SAARC

- To promote the welfare of the people of South Asia and to improve their quality of life.
- To accelerate economic growth, social progress and cultural development in the region and to provide all individuals the opportunity to live in dignity and to realize their full potentials.
- To promote and strengthen collective self-reliance among the countries of South Asia.
- To contribute to mutual trust, understanding and appreciation of one another's problems.
- To promote active collaboration and mutual assistance in the economic, social, cultural, technical and scientific fields.
- To strengthen cooperation with other developing countries.
- To strengthen cooperation among themselves in international forums on matters of common interests; and
- To cooperate with international and regional organizations with similar aims and purposes.

Structure

SAARC has the following structure:

1. Council – It is the apex policy-making body. The council is represented by government heads of the respective member countries.
2. Council of Ministers – The Council of Ministers comprises the foreign ministers and they meet generally two times annually. Principal Organs
3. Meeting of Heads of State or Government
4. Meetings are held at the Summit level, usually on an annual basis.
5. Standing Committee of Foreign Secretaries

6. The Committee provides overall monitoring and coordination, determines priorities, mobilizes resources, and approves projects and financing.
7. Secretariat
8. The SAARC Secretariat was established in Kathmandu on 16 January 1987. Its role is to coordinate and monitor the implementation of SAARC activities, service the meetings of the association and serve as a channel of communication between SAARC and other international organizations.
9. The Secretariat comprises the secretary-general, seven directors, and the general services staff. The secretary-general is appointed by the Council of Ministers on the principle of rotation, for a non-renewable tenure of three years.

Functions

Council of Ministers

1. Policy formulation
2. Reviewing the progress of regional cooperation
3. Identifying newer areas of cooperation, and
4. Setting up additional mechanisms as required

Standing Committee

It comprises the foreign secretariat of the member countries. The major functions of the standing committee are stated below:

1. To monitor and coordinate the programs
2. To deal with modalities of financing
3. To mobilize cooperation within and outside the region

Programming Committee

It comprises senior officials of the member governments. The major functions of this committee are as follows:

1. Finalizing the annual meet schedule
2. Budget scrutinization
3. External activities assigned by the standing committee

Technical Committee

It consists of representatives of the member nations. The major functions of the committee are as follows:

1. To formulate projects and monitor the same
2. To submit reports

Secretariat

It is headed by the Secretary-general appointed by the Council of Ministers. The main functions of the Secretariat are as follows:

1. Coordination and execution of activities conducted by SAARC
2. Monitoring the SAARC meetings
3. Work as a communication link between SAARC and other international summits and forums.

Principles

Cooperation within the framework of the SAARC shall be based on:

- Respect for the principles of sovereign equality, territorial integrity, political independence, non-interference in the internal affairs of other States and mutual benefit.
- Such cooperation shall not be a substitute for bilateral and multilateral cooperation but shall complement them.
- Such cooperation shall not be inconsistent with bilateral and multilateral obligations.

Specialized Bodies

The specialized bodies are created by the member states and their structure is different from the regional centres. The management is taken care of by the representatives of the member states, ministry of foreign affairs of the host government.

The different SAARC specialized bodies are given below:

1. SAARC Arbitration Council (SARCO) – Pakistan
2. SAARC Development Fund (SDF) – Bhutan
3. South Asian University (SAU) – India
4. South Asian Regional Standards Organization (SARSO) – Dhaka

The detailed description of SAARC specialized bodies is given below-

1.SAARC Arbitration Council (SARCO)

It is an inter-governmental body having its office in Pakistan is mandated to provide a legal framework/forum within the region for fair and efficient settlement of commercial, industrial, trade, banking, investment and such other disputes, as may be referred to it by the member states and their people.

2.SAARC Development Fund (SDF)

Its primary objective is the funding of project-based collaboration in social sectors such as poverty alleviation, development, etc. SDF is governed by a Board consisting of representatives from the Ministry of Finance of the Member States. The Governing Council of SDF (Finance Ministers of MSs) oversees the functioning of the Board.

3.South Asian Regional Standards Organization

South Asian Regional Standards Organization (SARSO) has its Secretariat at Dhaka, Bangladesh. It was established to achieve and enhance coordination and cooperation among SAARC member states in the fields of standardization and conformity assessment and is aimed to develop harmonized Standards for the region to facilitate intra-regional trade and to have access in the global market.

4.South Asian University

South Asian University (SAU) is an international university, located in India. Degrees and Certificates awarded by the SAU are at par with the respective Degrees and Certificates awarded by the National Universities/ Institutions.

Importance

- SAARC comprises 3% of the world's area, 21% of the world's population and 3.8% (US\$2.9 trillion) of the global economy.
- Creating synergies: It is the world's most densely populated region and one of the most fertile areas. SAARC countries have common tradition, dress, food and culture and political aspects thereby synergizing their actions.
- Common solutions: All the SAARC countries have common problems and issues like poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, natural disasters, internal conflicts, industrial and technological backwardness, low GDP and poor socio-economic condition and uplift their living standards thereby creating common areas of development and progress having common solutions.

Achievements

- Free Trade Area (FTA): SAARC is comparatively a new organization in the global arena. The member countries have established a Free Trade Area (FTA) which will increase their internal trade and lessen the trade gap of some states considerably.
- SAPTA: South Asia Preferential Trading Agreement for promoting trade amongst the member countries came into effect in 1995.
- SAFTA: A Free Trade Agreement confined to goods, but excluding all services like information technology. Agreement was signed to reduce customs duties of all traded goods to zero by the year 2016.
- SAARC Agreement on Trade in Services (SATIS): SATIS is following the GATS-plus 'positive list' approach for trade in services liberalization.
- SAARC University: Establish a SAARC university in India, a food bank and also an energy reserve in Pakistan.

Significance for India

- Neighbourhood first: Primacy to the country's immediate neighbours.

- Geostrategic significance: Can counter China (OBOR initiative) through engaging Nepal, Bhutan, the Maldives and Sri Lanka in development process and economic cooperation.
- Regional stability: SAARC can help in creation of mutual trust and peace within the region.
- Global leadership role: It offers India a platform to showcase its leadership in the region by taking up extra responsibilities.
- Game changer for India's Act East Policy: by linking South Asian economies with South East Asian will bring further economic integration and prosperity to India mainly in the Services Sector.

Challenges

- Low frequency of meetings: More engagement is required by the member states and instead of meeting biennial meetings should be held annually.
- Broad area of cooperation leads to diversion of energy and resources.
- Limitation in SAFTA: The implementation of SAFTA has not been satisfactory a Free Trade Agreement confined to goods, excluding all services like information technology.
- Indo-Pak Relations: Escalated tension and conflict between India and Pakistan have severely hampered the prospects of SAARC.

Way Forward

- In a region increasingly targeted by Chinese investment and loans, SAARC could be a common platform to demand more sustainable alternatives for development, or to oppose trade tariffs together, or to demand better terms for South Asian labour around the world.
- SAARC, as an organisation, reflects the South Asian identity of the countries, historically and contemporarily. This is a naturally made geographical identity. Equally, there is a cultural, linguistic, religious and culinary affinity that defines South Asia.
- The potential of organisation to maintain peace and stability in the region should be explored by all the member countries.
- SAARC should be allowed to progress naturally and the people of South Asia, who make up a quarter of the world's population should be offered more people-to-people contact.



The Antarctic Treaty

The first arms control agreement established during the Cold War.

The primary purpose of the Antarctic Treaty

“In the interests of all mankind that **Antarctica** shall continue forever to be used exclusively for peaceful purposes and shall not become the scene or object of international discord.”

satyam chanana (Student)
TY-BBA(B)-113

The Antarctic Treaty

There are not many spots on the planet where there has never been war, where the climate is completely ensured, and where logical exploration has need. Yet, there is an entire landmass like this – it is the land the Antarctic Treaty parties call "... a characteristic save, given to harmony and science".

At the southern finish of our reality, the individuals who share the difficulties of distance and cold to visit the ice-bound landmass have fostered a practice of warm collaboration. Such participation, exceptional on this scale, is solidified by the Antarctic Treaty.

As a guest to Antarctica, you will be advantaged to enter this world. This record will reveal to you a little about the Antarctic Treaty, and why it is an interesting arrangement – for a novel spot.

Foundation

The Antarctic landmass is tremendous. It accepts the South Pole with perpetual ice and snow. It is enclosed by skimming boundaries of ice, blustery oceans, and horrifying climate. Its extraordinary elevation cools the air to limits, and its plummet to the ocean level across a moving ice sheet creates the world's most grounded winds. The cycling seasons uncover the tremendous regular powers of our planet. The encompassing oceans overflow with natural life. Furthermore, only 2% of this mainland is liberated from ice, permitting a little toehold for strong creatures and plants.

The climate and separation overwhelm all who visit. The disclosure and investigation of Antarctica was moulded by the mainland's distance and its remarkably unfriendly climate. These elements joined for quite a long time to get people far from everything except the subantarctic islands and parts of the Southern Ocean where whaling and fixing occurred. In human memorable terms, the land investigation of Antarctica is later, the vast majority of it being cultivated during the 20th century.

The improved innovation and information on the most recent 100 years permitted more noteworthy admittance to the mainland, empowering nitty gritty studying and research, and the continuous control of Antarctica by logical stations. By mid-century, lasting stations were being set up and arranging was in progress for the International Geophysical Year (IGY) in 1957-58, the first generous multi-country research program in Antarctica. By mid-century, regional positions had additionally been declared, however not concurred, making a strain that undermined future logical participation.

The IGY was perceived as vital to the logical comprehension of Antarctica. The twelve countries dynamic in Antarctica, nine of which made regional cases or maintained whatever authority is needed to do as such, concurred that their political and legitimate contrasts ought not meddle with the exploration program. The remarkable accomplishment of the IGY drove these countries to concur that serene logical collaboration in the Antarctic should proceed inconclusively. Arrangement of such an understanding, the Antarctic Treaty, initiated following the IGY.

The Antarctic Treaty

The Antarctic Treaty was endorsed in Washington on 1 December 1959 by the twelve countries that had been dynamic during the IGY (Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Chile, France, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, South Africa, United Kingdom, United States and USSR). The Treaty, which applies to the space south of 60° South scope, is shockingly short, however amazingly powerful. Through this arrangement, the nation's dynamic in Antarctica counsel on the employments of an entire mainland, with a responsibility that it ought not turn into the scene or object of global conflict. In its fourteen articles the Treaty:

specifies that Antarctica ought to be utilized solely for serene purposes, military exercises, for example, the foundation of army installations or weapons testing, are explicitly denied.

ensures proceeded with opportunity to lead logical examination, as appreciated during the IGY.

advances worldwide logical collaboration including the trading of exploration plans and faculty and necessitates that aftereffects of examination be made openly accessible.

saves the potential for power questions between Treaty parties by giving that no exercises will improve or reduce recently stated situations regarding regional cases, gives that no new or expanded cases can be made, and makes rules identifying with ward.

forbids atomic blasts and the removal of radioactive waste.

accommodates assessment by eyewitnesses, assigned by any gathering, of boats, stations, and hardware in Antarctica to guarantee the recognition of, and consistence with, the Treaty.

expects gatherings to give notification ahead of time of their campaigns; accommodates the gatherings to meet occasionally to talk about measures to additional the destinations of the Treaty; and

sets up a question settlement strategy and a system by which the Treaty can be adjusted.

The Treaty likewise gives that any individual from the United Nations can agree to it. The Treaty currently has 52 signatories, 28 are Consultative Parties based on being unique signatories or by leading generous examination there. Enrolment keeps on developing. A full rundown of the current gatherings to the Treaty shows up toward the finish of this record.

Since going into power on 23 June 1961, the Treaty has been perceived as quite possibly the best peaceful accords. Risky contrasts over regional cases have been adequately saved and as a demilitarization system it has been remarkably effective. The Treaty parties remain immovably dedicated to a framework that is as yet viable in securing their fundamental Antarctic interests. Science is continuing unhindered.

Since the principal Antarctic Treaty Consultative Meeting (ATCM) in 1961, the gatherings have met regularly, presently yearly, to talk about issues as different as logical collaboration, measures to ensure the climate, and operational issues – and they are focused on taking choices by agreement. This cycle has permitted the Antarctic Treaty to advance into a framework with various segments that meet the exceptional necessities of overseeing

exercises in the Antarctic, while securing public interests. This system is presently known by the more extensive title of the Antarctic Treaty System, which works under the umbrella of the yearly ATCM.

The Antarctic Treaty System

The Antarctic Treaty System includes the actual Treaty and various related arrangements. It additionally incorporates a scope of associations that add to crafted by the dynamic gatherings.

Notwithstanding the connected arrangements (portrayed underneath), the Treaty System incorporates the proposals, measures, choices, and goals of the Consultative Meetings identifying with issue, for example,

1. logical participation.
2. insurance of the Antarctic climate.
3. protection of plants and creatures.
4. protection of memorable locales.
5. assignment and the executives of ensured territories.
6. the executives of the travel industry.
7. data trade.
8. assortment of meteorological information.
9. hydrographic graphing.
10. strategic participation; and
11. interchanges and security.

The Treaty Parties have set up rules identifying with explicit issues. The improvement of these arrangements has permitted the execution, with more noteworthy exactness, of lawfully restricting arrangements for the guideline of exercises in Antarctica.

Related associations

Aside from the legitimate instruments and measures illustrated over, various particular bodies help the Treaty parties in the lead of their work. Explicit assignments might be coordinated to these bodies, or they might be welcome to give spectators or specialists to take part in Treaty gatherings.

The Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research (SCAR) organizes Antarctic exploration programs and supports logical collaboration. Through its different subordinate gatherings, it

can give master data on a scope of orders and on the logical ramifications of operational recommendations of the Treaty gatherings.

The Council of Managers of National Antarctic Programs involves the tops of every one of the public Antarctic working organizations. COMNAP meets yearly to trade strategic data, support participation and foster guidance to the Treaty parties on a scope of common-sense issue.

The Antarctic Treaty parties have likewise fostered a cosy relationship with natural between administrative and non-government associations that address the more extensive local area interests in preservation. Associations, for example, the International Union for the Conservation of Nature, the United Nations Environment Program and the Antarctic and Southern Ocean Coalition are likewise welcome to the Treaty gatherings as specialists.

Bodies with specialized aptitude applicable to the Treaty conversations additionally partake. They incorporate the International Hydrographic Organization, the World Meteorological Organization, and the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission.

The International Association of Antarctic Tour Operators is an industry body addressing the interests of the developing traveller exchange Antarctica. Many visit administrators are subsidiary with IAATO, which additionally gives specialists to the yearly Treaty gatherings.

The Treaty given that any gathering could require a survey meeting after the lapse of 30 years. No gathering has done as such. In 1991, on the 30th commemoration of the Treaty, the gatherings perceived the proceeding with strength and significance of the Treaty by embracing a revelation recording their assurance to keep up and fortify the Treaty and to secure Antarctica's natural and logical qualities.

Under the Treaty, each gathering has delighted in tranquil participation and opportunity of logical examination. That examination has contributed essentially to information on the Earth and is adding to the security of the worldwide climate. Natural observing in Antarctica has, for instance, prompted the disclosure of the occasional exhaustion of air ozone over the Antarctic.

As the Antarctic Treaty System matures it has become recognised as one of the most successful sets of international agreements, setting an example of peaceful cooperation for the rest of the world.

As an environmental regime it is unique – an entire continent, which is essentially undisturbed, will remain protected because of the commitment and cooperation of the Treaty parties.

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TOPIC – WORLD BANK



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About World Bank

The **World Bank** is an international financial institution that provides loans and grants to the governments of low- and middle-income countries for the purpose of pursuing capital projects.

The world has its headquarters situated in Washington DC and has more than 10000 staff all over the world.

The World Bank is like a cooperative, made up of 189 member countries. These member countries, or shareholders, are represented by a Board of Governors, who are the ultimate policymakers at the World Bank. Generally, the governors are member countries' ministers of finance or ministers of development. They meet once a year at the Annual Meetings of the Boards of Governors of the World Bank Group and the International Monetary Fund.

The governors delegate specific duties to 25 Executive Directors, who work on-site at the Bank. The five largest shareholders appoint an executive director, while other member countries are represented by elected executive directors.

The World Bank Group President chairs meetings of the Boards of Directors and is responsible for overall management of the Bank. The President is selected by the Board of Executive Directors for a five-year, renewable term.

The Executive Directors make up the Boards of Directors of the World Bank. They normally meet at least twice a week to oversee the Bank's business, including approval of loans and guarantees, new policies, the administrative budget, country assistance strategies and borrowing and financial decisions.

The World Bank operates day-to-day under the leadership and direction of the president, management and senior staff, and the vice presidents in charge of Global Practices, Cross-Cutting Solutions Areas, regions, and functions.

Member Countries

The organizations that make up the World Bank Group are owned by the governments of member nations, which have the ultimate decision-making power within the organizations on all matters, including policy, financial or membership issues.

Member countries govern the World Bank Group through the Boards of Governors and the Boards of Executive Directors. These bodies make all major decisions for the organizations.

To become a member of the Bank, under the IBRD Articles of Agreement, a country must first join the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Membership in IDA, IFC and MIGA are conditional on membership in IBRD.

In tandem with the IMF, and in consultation with other World Bank Group staff, the Corporate Secretariat Vice Presidency coordinates the process for new membership and maintains the information relating to the status of membership which includes the membership lists.

Boards of Directors

The World Bank Group Boards of Directors refers to four separate Boards of Directors, namely the Board of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the International Development Agency (IDA), the International Finance Corporation (IFC) and the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA).

Each Board is responsible for the general operations of their respective organization. The Executive Directors as individuals cannot exercise any power nor commit or represent the Bank unless specifically authorized by the Board of Directors to do so. Executive Directors are appointed or elected by the Governors. Separate elections are held for the Bank and MIGA Board of Directors. Bank Executive Directors serve ex-officio as Directors for IFC and IDA. The current Boards of the World Bank Group consist of 25 Directors*. In line with the Bank's Articles, the Executive Directors select the World Bank President, who is the Chairman of the Board of Directors. The President is the presiding officer, and ordinarily has no vote except a deciding vote in case of an equally divided Board.

Voting Powers

The voting power of each Member country is based on the number of shares it holds. Shares are allocated differently in each organization, resulting in different voting powers.

The Corporate Secretariat is responsible for coordinating the process of membership as well as assisting members to complete their subscriptions to their allocated shares under periodic capital increases in **IBRD, IDA, IFC, and MIGA**. It provides advice on the procedures for subscribing to additional shares as authorized under resolutions approved by the Boards of Governors, including required documentation and capital subscriptions payments.

Functions of the World Bank

It helps the war-devasted countries by granting them loans for reconstruction.

Thus, they provide extensive experience and the financial resources of the bank help the poor countries increase their economic growth, reducing poverty and a better standard of living.

Also, it helps the underdeveloped countries by granting development loans.

So, it also provides loans to various governments for irrigation, agriculture, water supply, health, education, etc.

It promotes foreign investments to other organizations by guaranteeing the loans.

Also, the world bank provides economic, monetary, and technical advice to the member countries for any of their projects.

Thus, it encourages the development of of-industries in underdeveloped countries by introducing the various economic reforms.

This includes providing long term capital to its member nations for economic development and reconstruction.

Thus, it helps in inducing long term capital for improving the balance of payments and thereby balancing international trade.

Also, it helps by providing guarantees against loads granted to large and small units and other projects for the member nations.

So, it ensures that the development projects are implemented. Thus, it brings a sense of transparency for a nation from war-time to a peaceful economy.

Also, it promotes the capital investment for member nations by providing a guarantee for capital investment and loans.

So, if the capital investment is not available than it provides the guarantee and then IBRD provides loans for promotional activities on specific conditions.

World Bank Group Strategy

The World Bank Group has developed a new Strategy focusing on the ambitious goals of ending extreme poverty and promoting shared prosperity in a sustainable manner. It is committed to helping countries reach these goals with proven solutions that integrate the WBG's development knowledge and financial services.

The WBG will expand and strengthen its partnerships, especially within the private sector, to help align a global effort to sustainably meet the two goals. To better meet the growing needs of its clients, the WBG will collaborate more fully to leverage the strengths of its agencies in helping to overcome the greatest development challenges facing its client countries.

There are four boards of world bank group they are as follow –

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)

The International Development Association (IDA)

The International Finance Corporation (IFC)

The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)

INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) is a global development cooperative owned by 189 member countries. As the largest development bank in the world, it supports the World Bank Group's mission by providing loans, guarantees, risk management products, and advisory services to middle-income and creditworthy low-income countries, as well as by coordinating responses to regional and global challenges.

Created in 1944 to help Europe rebuild after World War II, IBRD joins with IDA, our fund for the poorest countries, to form the World Bank. They work closely with all institutions of the World Bank Group and the public and private sectors in developing countries to reduce poverty and build shared prosperity.

International Development Agency (IDA)

The International Development Association (IDA) is the part of the World Bank that helps the world's poorest countries. Overseen by 173 shareholder nations, IDA aims to

reduce poverty by providing zero to low-interest loans (called “credits”) and grants for programs that boost economic growth, reduce inequalities, and improve people’s living conditions.

IDA complements the World Bank’s original lending arm—the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD). IBRD was established to function as a self-sustaining business and provides loans and advice to middle-income and credit-worthy poor countries. IBRD and IDA share the same staff and headquarters and evaluate projects with the same rigorous standards.

IDA is one of the largest sources of assistance for the world’s 74 poorest countries and is the single largest source of donor funds for basic social services in these countries. IDA lends money on concessional terms. This means that IDA credits have a zero or very low interest charge and repayments are stretched over 30 to 40 years, including a 5- to 10-year grace period. IDA also provides grants to countries at risk of debt distress.

International Finance Corporation (IFC)

The International Finance Corporation (IFC) is an international financial institution that offers investment, advisory, and asset-management services to encourage private-sector development in less developed countries. The IFC is a member of the World Bank Group and is headquartered in Washington, D.C. in the United States.

It was established in 1956, as the private-sector arm of the World Bank Group, to advance economic development by investing in for-profit and commercial projects for poverty reduction and promoting development. The IFC's stated aim is to create opportunities for people to escape poverty and achieve better living standards by mobilizing financial resources for private enterprise, promoting accessible and competitive markets, supporting businesses and other private-sector entities, and creating jobs and delivering necessary services to those who are poverty stricken or otherwise vulnerable.

Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA)

The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) is a member of the World Bank Group. Our mandate is to promote cross-border investment in developing countries by providing guarantees (political risk insurance and credit enhancement) to investors and lenders.

Our guarantees protect investments against non - commercial risks and can help investors obtain access to funding sources with improved financial terms and conditions. The Agency derives its unique strength from the World Bank Group and from its structure as an international organization whose shareholders include most countries of the world. This enables us to provide an umbrella of deterrence against government actions that could disrupt projects, and assist in the resolution of disputes between investors and governments. We also add value through our ability

to offer clients extensive knowledge of emerging markets and of international best practice in environmental and social management.

LEADERSHIP

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Vice President, Equity Mobilization Division (AMC)	<u>Ruth Horowitz</u>
Vice President, Partnerships, Communications, and Outreach	<u>Karin Finkelston</u>
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Vice President, Compliance Advisor/Ombudsman	Janine Ferretti
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Roll no.: 24

Subject: International Relations (Credit Course)

Topic: *United Nations*

Prior to the UN:

Prior to the establishment of the United Nations, the League of Nations existed as the premier organisation for international cooperation. Established in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles, the League of Nations was established to ensure international peace, security and cooperation between nations following the First World War. At its height, the League of Nations had 58 members. In the 1930s, its success waned as the Axis Powers (Germany, Italy, and Japan) gained influence, eventually leading to the start of World War II in 1939.

Founding of the United Nations:

The name “United Nations,” coined by United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt, was first used in the “Declaration by 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. The UN was founded following the Second World War, in 1945 when the Nations were drafted at the UN Conference on International Organisation in San Francisco, California. The Charter is the constituting instrument of the UN, setting out the rights and obligations of member states, and establishing the United Nations organs and - procedures. 50 nations and several non-governmental organisations attended and signed the Charter,

committing to maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations among nations and promoting social progress, better living standards and human rights. The UN officially came into existence on October 24, 1945 after ratification of the Charter. The day is now celebrated each year around the world as United Nations Day.

United Nations charter and structure:

The struggle for peace is an enduring one. More than a century ago, in 1899, the first International Peace Conference was held in The Hague to elaborate multilateral instruments for settling crises peacefully, preventing wars and codifying rules of warfare. It adopted the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes and established the Permanent Court of Arbitration, which began its work in 1902. Subsequently, in 1919, the League of Nations, conceived during the First World War, was established under the Treaty of Versailles “to promote international cooperation and to achieve peace and security”. While the League of Nations ceased activities after failing to prevent the Second World War, the need for peaceful resolution of conflicts through international collaboration and dialogue continued to grow. The term ‘United Nations’ was coined by United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt during the Second World War. It first appeared in the Declaration by United Nations of 1 January 1942, which put forth a pledge by 26 nations to fight together against the Axis powers. Following deliberations in 1944 by representatives from China, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States in Washington, D.C., delegates from 50 countries met the next year in San Francisco at the United Nations Conference on International Organization. There, with a firm commitment to end “the scourge of war”, they drew up the Charter of the United Nations, signed on 26 June 1945. (Poland, which was not represented at the Conference, signed the Charter later and so

became one of the original 51 member states.) Headquartered in New York, the United Nations officially came into existence on 24 October 1945 with the ratification of the Charter by China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, the United States and a majority of other signatories. In commemoration of this historic pledge for world peace, United Nations Day is celebrated on 24 October each year. Despite the sharp divisions from which it arose in the Second World War and those of the ensuing cold war that marked many of its deliberations, the UN continues to grow in remaining true to this pledge—one all the more relevant in the face of the tremendous global transformations that, at the beginning of the 21st century, are confronting the world and its peoples.

The charter of the United Nations:

The Charter of the United Nations (www.un.org/aboutun/charter) is the constitutive instrument of the UN, setting out the rights and obligations of member states, and establishing its principal organs and procedures. An international treaty, the Charter codifies basic tenets of international relations—from the sovereign equality of states to prohibition of the use of force in any manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations. The Charter consists of a Preamble and 111 articles grouped into 19 chapters. Of these, Chapter 1 sets forth the purposes and principles of the United Nations; Chapter 2 establishes the criteria for UN membership; Chapter 3 names the six principal UN organs; Chapters 4–15 define the functions and powers of these organs; Chapters 16–17 relate the United Nations to extant international law; and Chapters 18–19 define the amendment and ratification of the Charter.

Purposes and principles:

As set forth in the Charter, the purposes of the United Nations are:

- to maintain international peace and security;
- to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples;
- to cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these common ends. In turn, the United Nations acts in accordance with the following principles:
 - It is based on the sovereign equality of all its members;
 - All members are to fulfil in good faith their Charter obligations;
 - They are to settle their international disputes by peaceful means and without endangering international peace and security and justice;
 - They are to refrain from the threat or use of force against any other state;

Membership and official languages:

Membership in the United Nations is open to all peace-loving nations that accept the obligations of the Charter and are willing and able to carry out these obligations. The General Assembly admits new member states on the recommendation of the Security Council. The Charter provides for the suspension or expulsion of a member for violation of the principles of the Charter, but no such action has ever been taken. Under the Charter, the official languages of the United Nations are Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. Arabic was added as an

official language in 1973.

UN structure:

The Charter establishes six principal organs of the United Nations: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice and the Secretariat. The United Nations family, however, is much larger, encompassing 15 specialized agencies and numerous programmes and funds as well as other entities.

General assembly:

The General Assembly is the main deliberative organ of the United Nations. It is composed of representatives of all member states, each of which has one vote. Decisions on important questions (such as those on peace and security, admission of new members and budgetary matters) require a two-thirds majority. Decisions on other questions take place by simple majority.

Functions and powers:

Under the Charter, the functions and powers of the General Assembly include:

- considering and making recommendations on the principles of cooperation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and arms regulation;
- discussing any question relating to international peace and security and, except where a dispute or situation is being discussed by the Security Council, making recommendations on it;
- discussing and, with the same exception, making recommendations on any question within the scope of the Charter or affecting the powers and functions of any organ of the United Nations;

- initiating studies and making recommendations to promote international political cooperation, the development and codification of international law, the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, and international collaboration in the economic, social, cultural, educational and health fields;
- making recommendations for the peaceful settlement of any situation, regardless of origin, which might impair friendly relations among nations;
- receiving and considering reports from the Security Council and other United Nations organs;
- considering and approving the United Nations budget and apportioning the contributions among members;
- electing the non-permanent members of the Security Council, the members of the Economic and Social Council and additional members of the Trusteeship Council (when necessary); electing jointly with the Security Council the judges of the International Court of Justice; and, on the recommendation of the Security Council, appointing the Secretary-General.

Sessions:

The General Assembly's regular session begins each year on Tuesday in the third week of September, counting from the first week that contains at least one working day. The election of the President of the Assembly, as well as its 21 Vice-Presidents and the Chairpersons of its six main committees, takes place at least three months before the start of the regular session. To ensure equitable geographical representation, the presidency of the Assembly rotates each year among five groups of states: African, Asian, Eastern European, Latin American and Caribbean, and Western European and other states. In

addition, the Assembly may meet in special sessions at the request of the Security Council, of a majority of member states or of one member, if the majority of members concur. Emergency special sessions may be called within 24 hours of a request by the Security Council on the vote of any nine Council members, or by a majority of the members of the United Nations, or by one member if the majority of members concur. At the beginning of each regular session, the Assembly holds a general debate—often addressed by heads of state and government—in which member states express their views on the most pressing international issues. Year-round, the work of the United Nations derives largely from the mandates given by the General Assembly—that is to say, the will of the majority of the members as expressed in the resolutions and decisions adopted by the Assembly.

Security Council:

The Security Council of the United Nations—one of its key distinctions from the League of Nations being the ability to enforce its decisions—has primary responsibility, under the Charter, for the maintenance of international peace and security. It has 15 members: five permanent members (China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and the United States), and 10 members elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms. Each member has one vote. Decisions on procedural matters are made by an affirmative vote of at least 9 of the 15 members. Decisions on substantive matters require nine votes and the absence of a negative vote (veto) by any of the five permanent members. All five permanent members have exercised the right of veto at one time or another. If a permanent member does not fully agree with a proposed resolution but does not wish to cast a veto, it may choose to abstain, thus allowing the resolution to be adopted if it obtains the required number of nine favourable votes. The presidency

of the Council is held by each of the members in turn for one month, following alphabetical order.

The composition of the Council, as well as its procedures, are the subject of a working group of the General Assembly considering Security Council reform, especially the addition of permanent seats or enlarging non-permanent membership. At issue is the notion of the equitable representation of member states in addressing matters of global consequence. Seventy-three UN member states have never sat on the Council. All members of the United Nations, however, agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council. While other organs of the United Nations make recommendations to member states, only the Security Council has the power to make decisions that member states are then obligated to implement under the Charter.

Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC):

The Charter of the United Nations establishes the Economic and Social Council as the principal organ to coordinate the economic, social and related work of the United Nations and the specialized agencies and other bodies. The 54 members of the Council serve for three-year terms. Seats on the Council are allocated based on geographical representation, with 14 allocated to African states, 11 to Asian states, 6 to Eastern European states, 10 to Latin American and Caribbean states, and 13 to Western European and other states. Voting in the Council is by simple majority, with each member having one vote.

ECOSOC is tasked with:

- serving as the central forum for discussing international economic and social issues, and for formulating policy recommendations addressed to member states and the United Nations system;

- making or initiating studies and reports and making recommendations on international economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related matters;
- promoting respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- assisting in preparing and organizing major international conferences in the economic, social and related fields and promoting a coordinated follow-up to these conferences;
- coordinating the activities of the specialized agencies through consultations with and recommendations to them as well as to the General Assembly. Through its discussion of international economic and social issues and its policy recommendations, ECOSOC plays a key role in fostering international cooperation for development and in setting priorities for action throughout the UN system.

Relations with non-governmental organizations:

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are seen by the United Nations as important partners and valuable links to civil society. Consulted regularly on matters of mutual concern in policy and programme, NGOs in growing numbers around the world collaborate daily with the UN community to help achieve its objectives. Indeed, under the Charter of the United Nations, the Economic and Social Council may consult not only with member states, but also with NGOs concerned with matters within its competence. At the end of 2010, 3,051 NGOs had consultative status with the Council. The Council recognizes that these organizations should have the opportunity to express their views, and that they possess special experience or technical knowledge valuable for its work. The Council classifies NGOs into three categories: general organizations are those concerned with

most of the Council's activities; special organizations are those offering competence in particular areas corresponding to the concerns of the Council; and roster organizations are those that can contribute to the Council when consulted on an ad hoc basis. NGOs with consultative status may send observers to meetings of the Council and its subsidiary bodies and may submit written statements relevant to its work.

Trusteeship Council:

The Trusteeship Council (www.un.org/en/mainbodies/trusteeship) was originally established by the Charter to provide international supervision for 11 Trust Territories placed under the administration of seven member states, and to ensure that adequate steps were taken to prepare the Territories for self-government or independence. It carried out this work for forty-nine years. By a 1994 resolution, the Council amended its rules of procedure to drop the obligation to meet annually and agreed to meet as occasion required—by its decision or the decision of its President, or at the request of a majority of its members or the General Assembly or the Security Council. Subsequently, on 1 November 1994, the Trusteeship Council suspended operation following the independence of Palau, the last remaining UN trust territory, on 1 October of that year.

International court of justice:

The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. Located at The Hague (The Netherlands), it is the only one of the six principal organs not located in New York. The Court is charged with settling legal disputes between states and giving advisory opinions to the United Nations and its specialized agencies. The General Assembly and the Security Council can ask the Court for such an opinion on any legal question. Other organs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies, when authorized by the Assembly, can ask

for advisory opinions on legal questions within the scope of their activities. The Statute of the Court is an integral part of the Charter of the United Nations. The Court is open to all states that are parties to its Statute, which includes all members of the United Nations. Only states, however, may be parties in contentious cases before the Court and submit disputes to it. The Court is not open to private persons and entities or other international organizations. A civil tribunal, it does not have criminal jurisdiction to prosecute individuals.

Jurisdiction:

The Court's jurisdiction covers all questions referred to it by states and all matters provided for in the Charter or in international treaties and conventions. States may bind themselves in advance to accept the jurisdiction of the Court, either by signing a treaty or convention that provides for referral to the Court or by making a declaration to that effect. Such declarations accepting compulsory jurisdiction often contain reservations excluding certain classes of disputes. In accordance with its Statute, the Court decides disputes by applying the following: international conventions establishing rules expressly recognized by the contesting states; international custom, as evidence of a general practice accepted as law; the general principles of law recognized by nations; and judicial decisions and the teachings of the most qualified scholars of the various nations.

Membership:

The Court is composed of 15 judges elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council, voting independently. They are chosen on the basis of their qualifications. Care is taken to ensure that the principal legal systems of the world are represented in the Court. In 2010, the geographical distribution of judges was as follows: three from Africa, two from Latin America and the Caribbean, three from Asia, five from

Western Europe and other states, and two from Eastern Europe—corresponding to the current membership of the Security Council. 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. The Court also has a Chamber for Environmental Matters.

Secretariat:

The UN Secretariat—consisting of staff representing all nationalities working in duty stations around the world—carries out the diverse day-to-day work of the Organization. Calling upon some 44,000 staff members worldwide, the Secretariat services the other principal organs of the United Nations and administers the programmes and policies established by them. At its head is the Secretary-General, who is appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council for a renewable five-year term. The United Nations, while headquartered in New York, maintains a significant presence in Addis Ababa, Bangkok, Beirut, Geneva, Nairobi, Santiago de Chile and Vienna, and has other offices around the globe. The United Nations Office at Geneva (UNOG) (www.unog.ch) is a centre for conference diplomacy and a forum for disarmament and human rights. The United Nations Office at Vienna (UNOV) (www.unvienna.org) is the headquarters for activities in the fields of international drug abuse control, crime prevention and criminal justice, the peaceful uses of outer space and international trade law. The United Nations Office at Nairobi (UNON) (www.unon.org) is the headquarters for activities in the fields of environment and human settlements. The duties carried out by the Secretariat are as wide-ranging and varied as the manifold concerns and activities of the United Nations itself. These extend from administering peacekeeping operations, mediating international

disputes and organizing humanitarian relief programmes to surveying economic and social trends, preparing studies on human rights and sustainable development and laying the groundwork for international agreements. Secretariat staff also inform the world—the media, governments, NGOs, research and academic networks and the general public—about the work of the United Nations. They organize international conferences on issues of global significance; interpret speeches and translate documents into the Organization’s official languages; and establish clearing-houses of information, making possible international collaboration in all areas of science and technology, as well as cultural, economic and social activities. As international civil servants, staff members and the Secretary-General answer to the United Nations alone for their activities, not to any member state or other organization, even as they serve the community of nations. They pledge not to seek or receive instructions from any government or outside authority. In turn, under the Charter, each member state undertakes to respect the exclusively international character of the responsibilities of the Secretary-General and staff members, and to refrain from seeking to influence them improperly.

Secretary General:

The Executive Office of the Secretary-General, comprising the Secretary-General and his senior advisers, establishes general policies and provides overall guidance to the Organization. Equal parts diplomat and advocate, civil servant and chief executive officer, the Secretary-General is a symbol of UN ideals and a spokesperson for the interests of the world’s peoples, above all the poor and vulnerable. The eighth Secretary-General, Ban Ki-moon of the Republic of Korea, took office in 2007.

The Charter describes the Secretary-General as “chief administrative officer” of the Organization, who acts in that capacity and performs 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 might threaten the maintenance of international peace and security. These guidelines both define the functions and powers of the office and grant it considerable leeway for action. The Secretary-General would fail if he did not take careful account of the needs and concerns of individual member states, but he would also be remiss if he did not uphold the values and moral authority of the United Nations, and speak and act independently for peace—even at the risk of challenging or disagreeing with those same member states. This creative tension accompanies the Secretary-General throughout each day—in attendance at sessions of United Nations bodies as well as consultations with world leaders, government officials, civil society representatives, members of the private sector and private individuals—and drives the search for solutions to problems that acknowledge the perspective of individual member states in the context of the needs of the world at large. At the same time, the travels of the Secretary-General allow him to keep in touch with the citizens of member states and be informed at first-hand about how issues occupying the international agenda concretely affect the lives of people everywhere. The Secretary-General issues an annual report on the work of the Organization that appraises its activities and outlines future priorities. One of the most vital roles played by the Secretary-General, however, is the use of his good offices—steps taken publicly and in private, drawing upon his independence, impartiality and integrity—to prevent international disputes from arising, escalating or spreading.

Over the years, the good offices of the Secretary-General—including the work of his special and personal representatives and envoys—have proven beneficial in a wide range of situations, including those involving Cyprus, East Timor, Iraq, Libya, the Middle East, Nigeria and Western Sahara. Each Secretary-General defines his role within the context of his particular time in office. Overall, Ban Ki-moon's priorities include: climate change; disarmament; combating the global financial crisis and poverty; health; peace and security; women's rights and empowerment; protecting all the world's peoples from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity; and UN reform. With demands for UN peacekeeping having grown at an unprecedented rate in recent years, the Secretary-General proposed at the beginning of his term basic structural reforms to enable the Organization to keep pace. In response, the General Assembly approved the creation of a Department of Field Support to take over the day-to-day management of peacekeeping operations, leaving the Department of Peacekeeping Operations free to focus on overall strategy, planning and deployment.

INTERNATIONAL
RELATIONS
ASSIGNMENT

TOPIC : QUADRILATERAL
SECURITY DIALOGUE

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QUADRILATERAL SECURITY

DIALOGUE

- Indo-pacific - a maritime space stretches from the Indian ocean to the west pacific ocean comprises 24 countries. The countries in the indo-pacific region are Australia, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei, Cambodia, Fiji, India, Indonesia, Japan, Laos, Malaysia, the Maldives, Myanmar, Nepal, new Zealand, Papua, new guinea, the Philippines, Singapore, Srilanka, Taiwan, Thailand, Timor-Leste, the united states and Vietnam.



- one thing most of these countries have in common is dispute with china. Some countries have trade disputes and some countries have territorial disputes all with China.
- The dragon's designs have jeopardized the security in the indo-pacific. China has refused to respect internationally accepted maritime laws, challenged the rules-based order, claimed some islands and built artificial ones. Basically china has become a threat to peace in the indo-pacific and this is where the quad comes in. Its prime objective now is to contain china.



- The quad began as an ad-hoc grouping in the year 2004. This was after the Indian Ocean tsunami. More than two lakh people had died across 14 countries. It was one of the deadliest natural disasters in the history.



- India, the United States, Japan and Australia came together to form the tsunami core group. These four countries contributed over 40000 troops, humanitarian responders, dozens of helicopters, cargo ships and transport planes.
- The group of four worked toward tsunami relief and reconstruction. The group did not issue any communiqué or create a secretariat. When its purpose was solved the group

was dissolved. This new style of diplomacy impressed the world.



- In 2006, inspired by the success of the quadrilateral template, former president of Japan Shinzo Abe proposed an arc of freedom and prosperity. A group meant to promote freedom and the rule of law.



- Soon then Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh visited Tokyo. India and Japan issued a joint statement. The two countries expressed their eagerness to begin a dialogue with like-minded countries in the pacific region.



- In 2007 U.S vice president dick cheney signalled interest in a quad dialogue. In April 2007 shinzo abe visited India, one month later the first meeting of the initial quad was held. This was on the sidelines of the ASEAN regional forum in manila Philippines in September 2007. Japan and Australia joined the U.S-India Malabar exercises.



- China became uncomfortable. It began voicing concerns about the quad. It was being called an “Asian NATO”. Protests and hesitations followed. Soon the quad crumbled.



- One decade later in 2017 the stage was once again set for the quad to return. India and the U.S had signed the ‘Iemur India’ and Japan had signed the ‘civil nuclear cooperation agreement’, Japan had permanently joined the Malabar

exercises. Xi Jinping was in power and under him China was more aggressive than ever. It had engaged India in the Doklam standoff, ticked off Japan by increasing coast guard activity near the Senkaku islands, bribed several Australian politicians and was caught doing so.

- So in 2017 when Shinzo Abe returned to power, he wasted no time in calling for a Democratic Security Diamond aka Quad 2.0. Representatives from four countries met in Manila in November 2017. This time there was little hesitation in standing up to China. Foreign ministers of the Quad met thrice between 2019 and 2021.

- Then came the March 12th summit. The leadership of India, the United States, Japan and Australia met virtually. The agenda was development, COVID-19 vaccination, cooperation in the Indo-Pacific, climate change and technology and supply chain management. They even released a joint statement. This was a first. It was called the Spirit of Quad.



- Here's something interesting the document not for once mentions china. But it carefully outlines the group's plans of containing china together. it says- “we commit to promoting a free open rules-based order rooted in international law to advance security and prosperity and counter threats to both in the indo-pacific and beyond. We support the rule of law, freedom of navigation and over flight peaceful resolution of disputes, democratic values and territorial integrity.” every word points at china without mentioning it. The joint statement goes on to say “we are committed to leveraging our partnership to help the world's most dynamic region, respond to historic

crisis so that it may be the free, open, accessible, and diverse and thriving indo-pacific we all seek.



- Now the question is how do they take it beyond words? Will the quad be effective against Chinese aggression? Militarily speaking, it is far more powerful just look at the numbers- china's military personnel 3.36 million the quad 7.78 million. This is after taking into account the active personnel, the reserve and the paramilitary. If you consider just the active personnel -the numbers are china 2.19million the quad 2.93 million.

COUNTRIES	MILITARY PERSONNEL	ACTIVE MILITARY PERSONNEL
CHINA	3.36	2.19
QUAD	7.78	2.93

- But the war does not always have to be fought militarily. trade and commerce today is just as effective. Three out of four quad countries have already banned Chinese telecom giant Huawei from the 5g race. Huawei remember was supposed to be china's stairway to tech dominance. India has banned more than 220 Chinese apps. The ban on tik-tok alone is expected to cost china six billion dollars. These are small steps that have a big cumulative impact.



- Wars today do not necessarily involve the army. Wars can also be waged on a country's soft power. The quad knows this way too well, the four member countries decided to strike china's vaccine diplomacy. During the summit the quad members spoke about corona virus vaccines. They promised to deliver 1 billion doses to the indo-pacific by 2022.



- China wants to buy global support through vaccine diplomacy. The quad is countering that. They're pulling in America's technology, Japanese finance, India's production capacity and Australia's logistics capability. It is also focusing on new age technology
- What's in it for India? it can secure a permanent seat at the united nations security council with the help of the quad ,



- it can upgrade its defence manufacturing technology, become a major blue economy, seek economic cooperation, become *aatmanirbhar* and shape the changing world order.
- But India must keep in mind that its engagement in the quad does not jeopardize its standing in the BRICS or the SCO and china is a member of both these groupings.



- There are challenges before the quad too. It cannot reduce itself to being an anti-china grouping. The challenge before the quad is to get china to behave itself without fighting it militarily. Will it be able to do so? For now the members seem confident. Let's see what happens in future.

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Subject: International Relations

WHO (World Health Organization)

The World Health Organization (WHO) is a specialized agency of the United Nations responsible for international public health. The WHO Constitution, which establishes the agency's governing structure and principles, states its main objective as "the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health". It is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland, with six semi-autonomous regional offices and 150 field offices worldwide.

WHO: World Health Organization

WHO is the directing and coordinating authority for health within the United Nations system. It is responsible for providing leadership on global health matters, shaping the health research agenda, setting norms and standards, articulating evidence-based policy options, providing technical support to countries and monitoring and assessing health trends.

In the 21st century, health is a shared responsibility, involving equitable access to essential care and collective defense against transnational threats.

The WHO agenda

WHO operates in an increasingly complex and rapidly changing landscape. The boundaries of public health action have become blurred, extending into other sectors that influence health opportunities and outcomes. WHO responds to these challenges using a six-point agenda. The six points address two health objectives, two strategic needs, and two operational approaches. The overall performance of WHO will be measured by the impact of its work on women's health and health in Africa.

1. Promoting development

During the past decade, health has achieved unprecedented prominence as a key driver of socioeconomic progress, and more resources than ever are being invested in health. Yet poverty continues to contribute to poor health, and poor health anchors large populations in poverty. Health development is directed by the ethical principle of equity: Access to life-saving or health-promoting interventions should not be denied for unfair reasons, including those with economic or social roots. Commitment to this principle ensures that WHO activities aimed at health development give priority to health outcomes in poor, disadvantaged or vulnerable groups. Attainment of the health-related Millennium Development Goals, preventing and treating chronic diseases and addressing the neglected tropical diseases are the cornerstones of the health and development agenda.

2. Fostering health security

Shared vulnerability to health security threats demands collective action. One of the greatest threats to international health security arises from outbreaks of emerging and epidemic-prone diseases. Such outbreaks are occurring in increasing numbers, fueled by such factors as rapid urbanization, environmental mismanagement, the way food is produced and traded, and the way antibiotics are used and misused. The world's ability to defend itself collectively against outbreaks has been strengthened since June 2007, when the revised International Health Regulations came into force.

3. Strengthening health systems

For health improvement to operate as a poverty-reduction strategy, health services must reach poor and underserved populations. Health systems in many parts of the world are unable to do so, making the strengthening of health systems a high priority for WHO. Areas being addressed include the provision of adequate numbers of appropriately trained staff, sufficient financing, suitable

systems for collecting vital statistics, and access to appropriate technology including essential drugs.

4. Harnessing research, information and evidence

Evidence provides the foundation for setting priorities, defining strategies, and measuring results. WHO generates authoritative health information, in consultation with leading experts, to set norms and standards, articulate evidence-based policy options and monitor the evolving global health situation.

5. Enhancing partnerships

WHO carries out its work with the support and collaboration of many partners, including UN agencies and other international organizations, donors, civil society and the private sector. WHO uses the strategic power of evidence to encourage partners implementing programs within countries to align their activities with best technical guidelines and practices, as well as with the priorities established by countries.

6. Improving performance

WHO participates in ongoing reforms aimed at improving its efficiency and effectiveness, both at the international level and within countries. WHO aims to ensure that its strongest asset – its staff – works in an environment that is motivating and rewarding. WHO plans its budget and activities through results-based management, with clear expected results to measure performance at country, regional and international levels.

The role of WHO in public health

WHO fulfils its objectives through its core functions:

providing leadership on matters critical to health and engaging in partnerships where joint action is needed;

shaping the research agenda and stimulating the generation, translation and dissemination of valuable knowledge;

setting norms and standards and promoting and monitoring their implementation;

articulating ethical and evidence-based policy options;

providing technical support, catalyzing change, and building sustainable institutional capacity; and

monitoring the health situation and assessing health trends.

These core functions are set out in the 11th General Program of Work, which provides the framework for organization-wide program of work, budget, resources and results. Entitled "Engaging for health", it covers the 10-year period from 2006 to 2015.

WHO`s Mission

At a press conference on April 22, Michael Ryan, director of WHO's Health Emergencies program, summed up the organization's overarching mission: "The mandate we have [is] to establish global standards and to give strong advice to countries regarding rational public health measures."

To achieve these goals, WHO does not typically give out grants or loans or send doctors and others from its staff to countries to provide hands-on medical treatments.

Rather, "what it does do is get on the ground to provide direction, advice, help trace disease outbreaks and provide additional support when needed," says Jennifer Kates, director of global health and HIV policy at the Kaiser Family Foundation.

One of WHO's primary roles is to provide countries with science-based recommendations for health policy, which are often published on its website. "There will be guidelines on what kind of essential medicines there should be, what kind of essential diagnostics there should be, what might be the regimens to use in relation to HIV in different countries, taking into account the resources available," says Rifat Atun, professor of global health systems at Harvard University, "Countries are not under any obligation legally to follow these guidelines, but many do in relation to epidemics."

WHO is governed by its member states — it does not have legal authority to enter countries without permission or to force countries to take its advice.

For instance, in February, WHO sent international experts to China on a "joint mission" with Chinese researchers to look into the steps the country was taking to prevent and control the spread of COVID-19. WHO emphasized that the mission was agreed to by both parties, and that the members were invited by both WHO and China.

"The power that we have is the power to persuade through science, persuade through evidence, persuade by demonstrating what other countries are doing and showcasing good examples of good practice," Ryan said on April 22. "Beyond that, WHO has no power to enforce, no power to put any form of pressure on the country to change what is their sovereign will."

What is WHO's role in the COVID-19 pandemic?

Under the International Health Regulations, a global legal agreement revised in 2005 and signed by all WHO members, countries are required to report to WHO

any disease outbreaks that are unexpected or of unknown cause and have significant risk of international spread.

China reported a cluster of pneumonia cases to WHO on Dec. 31, 2019. "Based on the [International Health Regulations], what is expected from WHO is declaring the Public Health Emergency of International Concern as early as possible," Tedros said on April 22.

That PHEIC designation is an official alert that triggers a set of responses. WHO can help guide the country and gauge whether its response is effective. And it can bring in international assistance for training, surveillance and other measures. But all of this can only be done "at the request of a State Party."

Timing is tricky. "It's partly a technical decision. It's partly a political decision," Atun says. "If you act too early, you may contain the epidemic but people may say, 'There was no need [to act so early].' But if you act too late countries will say, 'You are too late and we're now facing the consequences.' "

WHO declared the coronavirus a PHEIC on Jan. 30, when there were no reported deaths outside of China but a sharp increase in the number of countries reporting cases.

"Looking back, I think we declared the emergency at the right time, and when the world had enough time to respond," Tedros said on April 22.

Weeks later, in its role as an international standard-bearer, WHO officially named the disease COVID-19.

The six Regional Offices are:

- Regional Office for Africa (AFRO), with headquarters in Brazzaville, Republic of Congo. AFRO includes most of Africa, with the exception of Egypt, Sudan, Tunisia, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, and Morocco, which belong to EMRO.
- Regional Office for Europe (EURO), with headquarters in Copenhagen, Denmark.
- Regional Office for South East Asia (SEARO), with headquarters in New Delhi, India. North Korea is served by SEARO.
- Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean (EMRO), with headquarters in Cairo, Egypt. EMRO includes the countries of Africa, and particularly in the Maghreb, that are not included in AFRO, as well as the countries of the Middle East, except for Israel.
- Regional Office for Western Pacific (WPRO), with headquarters in Manila, Philippines. WPRO covers all the Asian countries not served by SEARO and EMRO, and all the countries in Oceania. South Korea is served by WPRO.
- Regional Office for the Americas (AMRO), with headquarters in Washington, D.C., USA. It is better known as the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO). Since it predates the establishment of WHO, PAHO is by far the most autonomous of the six regional offices.

The World Health Organization operates 147 country and liaison offices in all its regions. The presence of a country office is generally motivated by a need stated by the member country. There will generally be one WHO country office in the capital, occasionally accompanied by satellite offices in the provinces or sub regions of the country in question.

Who funds it?

The WHO receives funding from its member states and from donors. Each member pays annual dues based on the country's population and income. Members can volunteer more funds, and these voluntary funds make up the bulk of the WHO's budget.

For 2020-2021, the WHO has a budget of more than \$4.8 billion. The United States is the largest donor in this budget, having pledged more than \$400 million a year, much of which is voluntary spending.

A State Department spokesperson told The Post that the United States has committed \$893 million to the WHO during its two-year funding period.

Functions of WHO:

- Providing leadership on matters critical to health and engaging in partnerships where joint action is needed;
- Shaping the research agenda and stimulating the generation, translation and dissemination of valuable knowledge;
- setting norms and standards and promoting and monitoring their implementation;
- Articulating ethical and evidence-based policy options;
- Providing technical support, catalyzing change, and building sustainable institutional capacity;
- Monitoring the health situation and addressing health trends

This set of functions, according to WHO are based on an analysis of WHO's comparative advantage as an actor in the international system. This advantage WHO believes, lies in the organization's "neutral status and near universal membership, its impartiality and its strong convening power." This set of functions and WHO's claims about its comparative advantage will be examined in greater detail later in this paper.

Two points become apparent from reading WHO's Eleventh General Program of Work 2006-2015, the first is that WHO is acutely aware of the challenges it faces if it is to remain a relevant actor in international health (a topic that will be returned to later in this paper) and second, the direction of WHO's work for this period is geared towards meeting the health related Millennium Development Goals. Both these points indicate that WHO is aware of the fact that it cannot function as an independent actor in the international system. Any action WHO takes must be informed by the actions of other actors in the international system and likewise WHO's actions impact upon the actions of other actors in the international system.

The Millennium Development Goals

Before examining WHO's role in maternal health it is important to understand how the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have come to play such a prominent role in shaping WHO's work. The MDGs came out of the United Nations Millennium Declaration which was endorsed by 189 countries in September 2000 and resolves to work towards combating poverty, ill health, discrimination and inequality, lack of education and environmental degradation.

WHO and Maternal Health

Following the preceding discussion of WHO's functions and Millennium Development Goals it is now possible to examine how WHO functions in the area of maternal health. This discussion will be framed around WHO's contribution to achieving MDG 5 which concerns improving maternal health. It will first examine exactly what maternal health is, before looking at how WHO functions in relation to maternal health at the international, regional and national levels.

Defining Maternal Health

The World Health Organization defines maternal health as referring to "the health of women during pregnancy, childbirth and the postpartum period." Maternal health is complex. There are a broad range of conditions, complications and circumstances that can negatively impact upon maternal health. Some of these are specific to pregnancy, childbirth and the postpartum period (the period immediately following pregnancy or childbirth, defined as being 42 days in length by the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD)). Others are either pre-existing conditions or conditions that are contracted during pregnancy, childbirth and the postpartum period that are exacerbated or complicated by pregnancy, childbirth or the postpartum period. Some conditions and complications are acute in nature and others chronic. Conditions and complications can affect physical health, mental health or both. Many conditions and complications are universal, affecting women worldwide. Others are common in the developing world and almost unheard of in the developed world. Certain conditions and complications of pregnancy are strongly

associated with cultural practices. The one fact that links all these conditions, complications and circumstances is that they are, almost without exception, preventable and/or treatable.



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WORLD TRADE ORGANIZATION

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the only global international organization dealing with the rules of trade between nations. At its heart are the WTO agreements, negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world's trading nations and ratified in their parliaments. The goal is to help producers of goods and services, exporters, and importers conduct their business.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is an intergovernmental organization that regulates and facilitates international trade between nations. It officially commenced operations on 1 January 1995, pursuant to the 1994 Marrakesh Agreement, thus replacing the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) that had been established in 1948. The WTO is the world's largest international economic organization, with 164 member states representing over 96% of global trade and global GDP.

The WTO facilitates trade in goods, services and intellectual property among participating countries by providing a framework for negotiating trade agreements, which usually aim to reduce or eliminate tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions; these agreements are signed by representatives of member governments and ratified by their legislatures. The WTO also administers independent dispute resolution for enforcing participants' adherence to trade agreements and resolving trade-related disputes.^[11] The organization prohibits discrimination between trading partners, but provides exceptions for environmental protection, national security, and other important goals.

The WTO is headquartered in Geneva, Switzerland. Its top decision making body is the Ministerial Conference, which is composed of all member states and usually convenes biannually; consensus is emphasized in all decisions. Day-to-day functions are handled by the General Council, made up of representatives from all members. A Secretariat of over 600 personnel, led by the Director-General and four deputies, provides administrative, professional, and technical services. The WTO's annual budget is roughly 220 million USD, which is contributed by members based on their proportion of international trade.

Studies show the WTO has boosted trade and reduced trade barriers. It has also influenced trade agreement generally; a 2017 analysis found that the vast majority of preferential trade agreements (PTAs) up to that point explicitly reference the WTO, with substantial portions of text copied from WTO agreements. Goal 10 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals also referenced WTO agreements as instruments of reducing inequality. However, critics contend that the benefits of WTO-facilitated free trade are not shared equally, citing the outcomes of negotiations and data showing a continually widening gap between rich and poor nations.

GATT Negotiations Before Uruguay

Seven rounds of negotiations occurred under GATT (1949 to 1979). The first real GATT trade rounds (1947 to 1960) concentrated on further reducing tariffs. Then the Kennedy Round in the mid-sixties brought about a GATT anti-dumping agreement and a section on development. The Tokyo Round during the seventies represented the first major attempt to tackle trade barriers that do not take the form of tariffs, and to improve the system, adopting a series of agreements on non-tariff barriers, which in some cases interpreted existing GATT rules, and in others broke entirely new ground. Because not all GATT members accepted these plurilateral agreements, they were often informally called "codes". (The Uruguay Round amended several of these codes and turned them into multilateral commitments accepted by all WTO members. Only four remained plurilateral (those on government procurement, bovine meat, civil aircraft, and dairy products), but in 1997 WTO members agreed to terminate the bovine meat and dairy agreements, leaving only two.) Despite attempts in the mid-1950s and 1960s to establish some form of institutional mechanism for international trade, the GATT continued to operate for almost half a century as a semi-institutionalized multilateral treaty régime on a provisional basis.

Uruguay Round: 1986–1994

Well before GATT's 40th anniversary, its members concluded that the GATT system was straining to adapt to a new globalizing world economy. In response to the problems identified in the 1982 Ministerial Declaration (structural deficiencies, spill-over impacts of certain countries' policies on world trade GATT could not manage, etc.), the eighth GATT round—known as the Uruguay Round—was launched in September 1986, in Punta del Este, Uruguay.

It was the biggest negotiating mandate on trade ever agreed: the talks aimed to extend the trading system into several new areas, notably trade in services and intellectual property, and to reform trade in the sensitive sectors of agriculture and textiles; all the original GATT articles were up for review. The Final Act concluding the Uruguay Round and officially establishing the WTO regime was signed 15 April 1994, during the ministerial meeting at Marrakesh, Morocco, and hence is known as the Marrakesh Agreement.

The GATT still exists as the WTO's umbrella treaty for trade in goods, updated as a result of the Uruguay Round negotiations (a distinction is made between GATT 1994, the updated parts of GATT, and GATT 1947, the original agreement which is still the heart of GATT 1994). GATT 1994 is not. However, the only legally binding agreement included via the Final Act at Marrakesh; a long list of about 60 agreements, annexes, decisions, and understandings was adopted. The agreements fall into six main parts:

- the Agreement Establishing the WTO
- the Multilateral Agreements on Trade in Goods
- the General Agreement on Trade in Services
- the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights
- dispute settlement
- reviews of governments' trade policies

In terms of the WTO's principle relating to tariff "ceiling-binding" (No. 3), the Uruguay Round has been successful in increasing binding commitments by both developed and developing countries, as may be seen in the percentages of tariffs bound before and after the 1986–1994 talks.

Ministerial conferences



The World Trade Organization Ministerial Conference of 1998, in the Palace of Nations (Geneva, Switzerland).

The highest decision-making body of the WTO, the Ministerial Conference, usually meets every two years. It brings together all members of the WTO, all of which are countries or customs unions. The Ministerial Conference can take decisions on all matters under any of the multilateral trade agreements. Some meetings, such as the inaugural ministerial conference in Singapore and the Cancun conference in 2003 involved arguments between developed and developing economies referred to as the "Singapore issues" such as agricultural subsidies; while others such as the Seattle conference in 1999 provoked large demonstrations. The fourth ministerial conference in Doha in 2001 approved China's entry to the WTO and launched the Doha Development Round which was supplemented by the sixth WTO ministerial conference (in Hong Kong) which agreed to phase out agricultural export subsidies and to adopt the European Union's Everything but Arms initiative to phase out tariffs for goods from the Least Developed Countries. At the sixth WTO Ministerial Conference of 2005 in December, WTO launched the Aid for Trade initiative and it is specifically to assist developing countries in trade as included in the Sustainable Development Goal 8 which is to increase aid for trade support and economic growth.

The Twelfth Ministerial Conference (MC12) was due to be held in Nur-Sultan, Kazakhstan, in June 2020 but was canceled because of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Doha Round (Doha Agenda): 2001–present

The WTO launched the current round of negotiations, the Doha Development Round, at the fourth ministerial conference in Doha, Qatar in November 2001. This was to be an ambitious effort to make globalization more inclusive and help the world's poor, particularly by slashing barriers and subsidies in farming. The initial agenda comprised both further trade liberalization and new rule-making, underpinned by commitments to strengthen substantial assistance to developing countries.

Progress stalled over differences between developed nations and the major developing countries on issues such as industrial tariffs and non-tariff barriers to trade particularly against and between the EU and the US over their maintenance of agricultural subsidies—seen to operate effectively as trade barriers. Repeated attempts to revive the talks proved unsuccessful, though the adoption of the Bali Ministerial Declaration in 2013 addressed bureaucratic barriers to commerce.

As of June 2012, the future of the Doha Round remained uncertain: the work programme lists 21 subjects in which the original deadline of 1 January 2005 was missed, and the round remains incomplete. The conflict between free trade on industrial goods and services but retention of protectionism on farm subsidies to domestic agricultural sectors (requested by developed countries) and the substantiation[jargon] of fair trade on agricultural products (requested by developing countries) remain the major obstacles. This impasse has made it impossible to launch new WTO negotiations beyond the Doha Development Round. As a result, there have been an increasing number of bilateral free trade agreements between governments. As of July 2012 there were various negotiation groups in the WTO system for the current stalemated agricultural trade negotiation.

Origin of World Trade Organisation

World Trade Organisation (WTO) was established on 1 Jan 1995. It is a successor to General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (**GATT**) which was in place since 1948.

Over the years GATT evolved through various rounds of negotiations.

The last GATT round was the Uruguay round which lasted from 1986 to 1994. This Uruguay round of negotiations led to the creation of WTO.

The WTO was established under the Marrakesh Agreement signed in the Uruguay round in 1994.

India is the founding member of WTO. China joined in 2001 and Russia in 2012.

As of 2017, WTO has 164 members and Afghanistan became the 164th member on 29 July 2016.

The core agreements of WTO are:

- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)
- General Agreement on Trade in services (GATS)
- The Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS),
- Dispute settlement
- Trade policy review.

Principles of the WTO agreements

Non-Discrimination– Non-Discrimination has two aspects:

Most favoured nation (MFN) and National Treatment. Under the MFN, all WTO member countries should be treated equally, without discrimination. For example- India decides to lower basic customs duty for imports of iron-ore from China. This favour will have to be extended to all other countries.

National treatment– Foreign goods and local goods must be treated equally.

Freer trade– All trade barriers should be lowered gradually through negotiations.

Predictability– There should be stability and predictability in the trade rules of a nation.

Promoting fair competition

Encourage development and economic reforms

WTO Agreements

The WTO's rules – the agreements – are the result of negotiations between the members. The current set is largely the outcome of the 1986- 94 Uruguay Round negotiations, which included a major revision of the original General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

The Uruguay Round created new rules for dealing with trade in services and intellectual property and new procedures for dispute settlement. The complete set runs to some 30,000 pages

consisting of about 30 agreements and separate commitments (called schedules) made by individual members in specific areas, such as lower tariffs and services market-opening.

Through these agreements, WTO members operate a non- discriminatory trading system that spells out their rights and their obligations. Each member receives guarantees that its exports will be treated fairly and consistently in other members' markets. Each promises to do the same for imports into its own market. The system also gives developing economies some flexibility in implementing their commitments.

Goods:

It all began with trade in goods. From 1947 to 1994, the GATT was the forum for negotiating lower tariffs and other trade barriers; the text of the GATT spelt out important rules, particularly non- discrimination. Since 1995, the Marrakesh Agreement Establishing the WTO and its annexes (including the updated GATT) has become the WTO's umbrella agreement. It has annexes dealing with specific sectors relating to goods, such as agriculture, and with specific issues such as product standards, subsidies and actions taken against dumping. A recent significant addition was the Trade Facilitation Agreement, which entered into force in 2017.

Services:

Banks, insurance firms, telecommunications companies, tour operators, hotel chains and transport companies looking to do business abroad enjoy the same principles of more open trade that originally only applied to trade in goods. These principles appear in the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS). WTO members have also made individual commitments under the GATS stating which of their service sectors they are willing to open to foreign competition, and how open those markets are.

Intellectual property:

The WTO's Intellectual Property Agreement contains rules for trade in ideas and creativity. 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.

Dispute settlement:

The WTO's procedure for resolving trade conflicts under the Dispute Settlement Understanding is vital for enforcing the rules and therefore for ensuring that trade flows smoothly. Governments bring disputes to the WTO if they think their rights under the WTO agreements are being infringed. Judgements by specially appointed independent experts are based on interpretations of the agreements and individual members' commitments. The system encourages members to settle their differences through consultation with each other. If this proves to be unsuccessful, they can follow a 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. Confidence in the system is borne out by the number of cases brought to the WTO – more than 500 cases since the WTO was established compared with the 300 disputes dealt with during the entire life of the GATT (1947-94).

Trade monitoring:

The WTO's Trade Policy Review Mechanism is designed to improve transparency, to create a greater understanding of the trade policies adopted by WTO members and to assess their impact. Many members see the reviews as constructive feedback on their policies. All WTO members must undergo periodic scrutiny, each review containing reports by the member concerned and the WTO Secretariat. In addition, the WTO undertakes regular monitoring of global trade measures. Initially launched in the wake of the financial crisis of 2008, this global trade monitoring exercise has become a regular function of the WTO, with the aim of highlighting WTO members' implementation of both trade- facilitating and trade-restricting measures.

World Trade Organization (WTO): Objectives and Functions

The Uruguay round of GATT (1986-93) gave birth to World Trade Organization. The members of GATT signed on an agreement of Uruguay round in April 1994 in Morocco for establishing a new organization named WTO.

It was officially constituted on January 1, 1995 which took the place of GATT as an effective formal, organization. GATT was an informal organization which regulated world trade since 1948.

Contrary to the temporary nature of GATT, WTO is a permanent organization which has been established on the basis of an international treaty approved by participating countries. It achieved the international status like IMF and IBRD, but it is not an agency of the United Nations Organization (UNO).

Structure:

The WTO has nearly 153 members accounting for over 97% of world trade. Around 30 others are negotiating membership. 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 WTO's top level decision-making body is the Ministerial Conferences which meets at least once in every two years. Below this is the General Council (normally ambassadors and heads of delegation in Geneva, but sometimes officials sent from members' capitals) which meets several times a year in the Geneva headquarters. The General Council also meets as the Trade Policy Review Body and the Disputes Settlement Body.

At the next level, the Goods Council, Services Council and Intellectual Property (TRIPs) Council report to the General Council. Numerous specialized committees, working groups and working parties deal with the individual agreements and other areas such as, the environment, development, membership applications and regional trade agreements.

Secretariat:

The WTO secretariat, based in Geneva, has around 600 staff and is headed by a Director-General. Its annual budget is roughly 160 million Swiss Francs. It does not have branch offices

outside Geneva. Since decisions are taken by the members themselves, the secretariat does not have the decision making the role that other international bureaucracies are given.

The secretariat's main duties to supply technical support for the various councils and committees and the ministerial conferences, to provide technical assistance for developing countries, to analyze 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.

Objectives:

The important objectives of WTO are:

1. To improve the standard of living of people in the member countries.
2. To ensure full employment and broad increase in effective demand.
3. To enlarge production and trade of goods.
4. To increase the trade of services.
5. To ensure optimum utilization of world resources.
6. To protect the environment.
7. To accept the concept of sustainable development.

Functions:

Among the various functions of the WTO, these are regarded by analysts as the most important:

- It oversees the implementation, administration and operation of the covered agreements (with the exception is that it does not enforce any agreements when China came into the WTO in Dec 2001)
- It provides a forum for negotiations and for settling disputes.

Other functions of WTO are discussed below:

1. To implement rules and provisions related to trade policy review mechanism.
2. To provide a platform to member countries to decide future strategies related to trade and tariff.

3. To provide facilities for implementation, administration and operation of multilateral and bilateral agreements of the world trade.
4. To administer the rules and processes related to dispute settlement.
5. To ensure the optimum use of world resources.
6. To assist international organizations such as, IMF and IBRD for establishing coherence in Universal Economic Policy determination.

ROLE OF WTO:

- The main goal of WTO is to help the trading industry to become smooth, fair, free and predictable. It was organized to become the administrator of multilateral trade and business agreements between its member nations. It supports all occurring negotiations for latest agreements for trade. WTO also tries to resolve trade disputes between member nations.
- Multi-lateral agreements are always made between several countries in the past. Because of this, such agreements become very difficult to negotiate but are so powerful and influential once all the parties agree and sign the multi-lateral agreement. WTO acts as the administrator. If there are unfair trade practices or dumping and there is complain filed, the staff of WTO are expected to investigate and check if there are violations based on the multi-lateral agreements.

THE RELEVANCE OF WTO:

- ✓ The basic principles make the system economically more efficient, and they cut costs.
- ✓ Trade stimulates economic growth and that can be good news for employment.
- ✓ Trade raises incomes.
- ✓ It gives consumers more choice and a broader range of qualities to choose from.

- ✓ Freer trade cuts the cost of living.
- ✓ A system based on rules rather than power makes life easier for all.
- ✓ The system allows disputes to be handled constructively.
- ✓ The system helps promote peace.

TRIMS , AND TRIPS OF WTO:

1) Agreement on Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMs)

- a. The Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) is an international agreement administered by the World Trade Organization (WTO) that sets down minimum standards for many forms of intellectual property (IP) regulation as applied to nationals of other WTO Members'
- b. The agreement on TRIMs provides that no contracting party shall apply any TRIM which is inconsistent with the WTO Articles.

2) Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS)

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- b. Specifies enforcement procedures, remedies, and dispute resolution procedures.
- c. TRIPS contains requirements that nations' laws must meet for copyright rights, including the rights of performers, producers of sound recordings and broadcasting organizations; geographical indications, including appellations of origin; industrial designs; integrated circuit layout-designs; patents; monopolies for the developers of new plant varieties; trademarks; trade dress; and undisclosed or confidential information.

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Members and observers

The WTO has 164 members and 25 observer governments. Liberia became the 163rd member on 14 July 2016, and Afghanistan became the 164th member on 29 July 2016. In addition to states, the European Union, and each EU country in its own right, is a member. WTO members do not have to be fully independent states; they need only be a customs territory with full autonomy in the conduct of their external commercial relations. Thus Hong Kong has been a member since 1995 (as "Hong Kong, China" since 1997) predating the People's Republic of China, which joined in 2001 after 15 years of negotiations. Taiwan acceded to the WTO in 2002 as the "Separate Customs Territory of Taiwan, Penghu, Kinmen and Matsu." The WTO Secretariat omits the official titles (such as Counsellor, First Secretary, Second Secretary and Third Secretary) of the members of Taiwan's Permanent Mission to the WTO, except for the titles of the Permanent Representative and the Deputy Permanent Representative.

As of 2007, WTO member states represented 96.4% of global trade and 96.7% of global GDP. Iran, followed by Algeria, are the economies with the largest GDP and trade outside the WTO, using 2005 data. With the exception of the Holy See, observers must start accession negotiations within five years of becoming observers. A number of international intergovernmental

organizations have also been granted observer status to WTO bodies. Ten UN members have no affiliation with the WTO.

Conclusion:

- ✚ The system helps promote peace, by handling Dispute of member countries. It provides free trade which cuts the costs of living and provides more choice of products and qualities and stimulates economic growth.
- ✚ The countries make their decisions through various councils and committees, whose membership consists of all WTO members.
- ✚ It is the place where the member country comes and talks together and shares their grievance in order to resolve their problem related to International trade.
- ✚ WTO deals with the special needs of developing countries as two thirds of the WTO members are developing countries and they play an increasingly important and active role in the WTO because of their numbers, because they are becoming more important in the global economy, and because they increasingly look to trade as a vital tool in their development efforts.
- ✚ The WTO agreements cover goods, services and intellectual property. They spell out the principles of liberalization, and the permitted exceptions. They 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. They prescribe special treatment for developing countries. They require governments to make their trade policies transparent