United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

Chairs:
Derek Velez
Caitlin Fukumoto

Letter from the Chairs

Dear Delegates,

We would like to welcome you to the 2021 MIT Model United Nations Conference and, in particular, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). We are excited about the topics we have prepared this year and to see what you come up with to address each of them in committee.

Now we would like to introduce ourselves as your chairs: Derek Velez is originally from Puerto Rico but has lived in Miami, Florida for 13 years and is currently a junior at MIT. He is pursuing a double major in computer science and atmospheric science. He joined Model UN senior year of high school and attended a couple conferences. He highly enjoyed attending the conferences and decided last year to join MITMUNC. This will be Derek's second time chairing for MITMUNC and he is excited to do so again, though virtually this time.

Caitlin Fukumoto grew up in Los Angeles, California but currently lives in the Dallas, Texas area. She is a first-year at MIT considering majoring in urban studies and planning. Caitlin first got involved with Model UN her sophomore year of high school and enjoyed all of the conferences she got to attend as a delegate, achieving recognition at two. This is Caitlin's first time chairing and she is excited to do it for MITMUNC and learn what the conference is all about.

Please make sure you submit your Position Papers here: https://forms.gle/d8exr5XhZ9CnuhJN8 . We are honored to be your chairs for MITMUNC 2021. UNESCO is about building peace through international cooperation, so with the information we have prepared in this guide as a jumping off point, we are looking forward to helping you model just that (and hopefully have fun in the process).

All the best,

Derek and Caitlin, UNESCO Chairs

mitmunc-unesco@mit.edu

Topic 1: Protection of Cultural Heritage Amid Armed Conflict

Introduction

Throughout recorded history, sacking and looting by a victorious army was commonplace, often even considered the right of said army. After the Siege of Jerusalem in the year 70 CE, Rome financed the building of the Flavian Amphitheatre, also known as the Colosseum, with their spoils from the Jewish Wars. The collections of European museums, such as the British Museum and the Louvre, were acquired through the looting of other countries in the aftermaths of countless foreign wars. In this pre-modern era, plundering was a way for soldiers to supplement their income and military leaders to display their triumph. This idea of "to the victor go the spoils" created a tie between war and the destruction or theft of cultural property.

While sacking is no longer understood in the same context, cultural artifacts are still often casualties of armed conflict. In some cases, the destruction of artifacts is a matter of collateral damage. In others, historic buildings and monuments are made the direct targets of military objectives. Beyond attacking the artifact itself, such objectives represent violence against the identity of those for whom the artifact holds meaning and the prospects of any post-conflict reconciliation or peacebuilding. The destruction of cultural artifacts may also generate more violence, preying on those who may seek retribution.

At a UN meeting in 2017, UNESCO General-Director Irina Bokova declared attacks on cultural heritage to be acts of "cultural cleansing." However, this was not a novel idea; efforts to regulate wartime actions and protect cultural heritage are millennia old. Since Sun Tzu wrote "The Art of War" in the sixth century BCE, there has been a camp of military theorists arguing that the destruction of cultural heritage in war is bad practice. This was notably reiterated by Carl von

Clausewitz in the 19th century and actually acted upon by the Monuments, Fine Arts, and Archives program, or the Monuments Men, during the Second World War. The MFAA was established in 1943 and worked to safeguard historical and cultural art and monuments from danger, namely Nazi looting.

The MFAA disbanded after the war, perhaps under the assumption that each country would then establish its own unit. Instead, the response to the destruction of cultural property throughout the Second World War came in the form of the 1954 Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict. Signed by 133 states, the Hague Convention perpetuated the idea that cultural property protection (CPP) is a matter of international importance and responsibility. It remains the primary international legislation regarding the protection of cultural heritage.

However, since the Hague Convention, there have still been numerous instances of destruction of cultural artifacts or monuments. Cultural sites were deliberately targeted in the Yugoslav Wars of the 1990s in connection to ethnic cleaning efforts. In 2001, the Taliban blew up Buddhist monumental statues from the sixth century in Afghanistan. Between 2015 and 2016, ISIS militants in Palmyra, Syria destroyed temples to Mesopotamian gods and the Roman Arch of Triumph, all well over a millennia old.

While 133 states signed the 1954 Hague treaty, a lack of commitment to the actual requirements and suggestions of the Convention may be responsible in part for the continual destruction of cultural and historical property. One facet of the issue is that countries aren't investing in safeguarding measures such as identifying sites needing to be protected in the case of armed conflict. Another is a related lack of military awareness. The Convention mandates CPP training for combatants, instructions for how to operate in protected areas, but few armed forces

have followed through. By some estimations, cultural property is now being destroyed at a greater rate than ever before.

Key Terms and Subtopics

Looting/Sacking/Plundering

Defined as stealing goods or destroying a captured town, building, or other place, typically using force and during a war, riot, or other time of civil disorder.

Military Targets

According to the laws and customs of war, legitimate targets of attack in an armed conflict include military objectives. Specifically, military objectives are objects which make an effective contribution to military action. By definition, the destruction, capture, or neutralization of a military objective offers a definite military advantage (that should also be proportional to the loss or damage caused by the attack). Attacks on civilian persons and objects are prohibited.

Cultural Cleansing

Defined as the deliberate and systematic destruction of a group and their cultural heritage. It has the intention of eliminating a people as well as all physical evidence of them. The UN uses cultural cleansing as a risk factor for impending genocide, crimes against humanity, and war crimes. Cultural cleansing is both a crime and a prerequisite of other crimes.
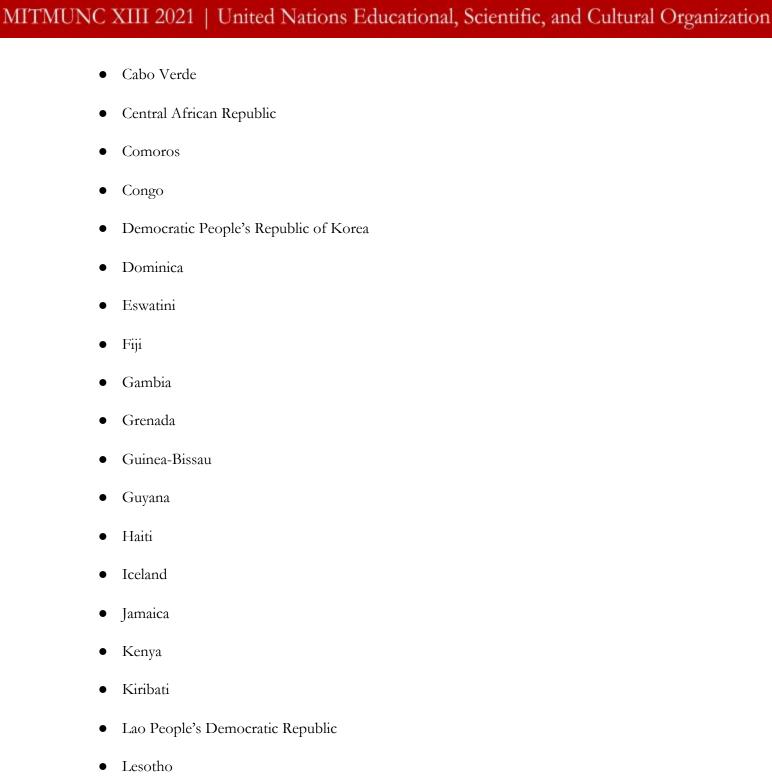
Previous Attempts to Address the Issue (non comprehensive)

- Lieber Code (United States, 1863)

- Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907

- Fourth Geneva Convention (1949)

- Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict

  (1954)

  - First Protocol to the Hague Convention (1954)

  - Second Protocol to the Hague Convention (1999)

- International Committee of the Blue Shield (est. 1996)

- Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (1998)

- Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003)

- United Nations Security Council Resolution 2347 (2017)

Bloc Positions

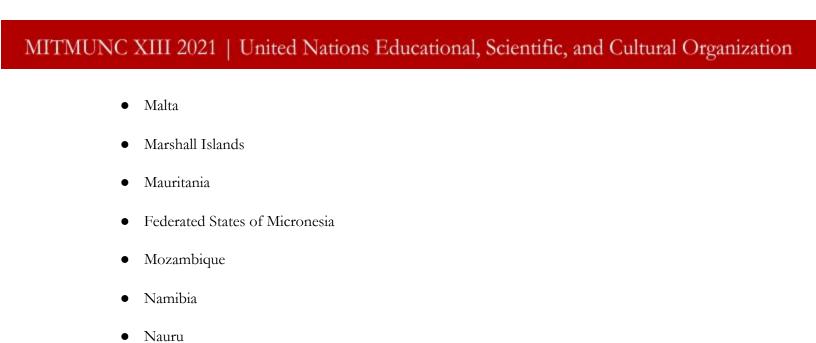The following is a list of UN Member States that have not signed the 1954 Hague Convention:

- Algeria

- Andorra

- Antigua and Barbuda

- Bahamas

- Belize

- Bhutan

- Brunei Darussalam

- Burundi

- Cabo Verde

- Central African Republic

- Comoros

- Congo

- Democratic People's Republic of Korea

- Dominica

- Eswatini

- Fiji

- Gambia

- Grenada

- Guinea-Bissau

- Guyana

- Haiti

- Iceland

- Jamaica

- Kenya

- Kiribati

- Lao People's Democratic Republic

- Lesotho

- Liberia

- Malawi

- Maldives

- Malta

- Marshall Islands

- Mauritania

- Federated States of Micronesia

- Mozambique

- Namibia

- Nauru

- Nepal

- Palau

- Papua New Guinea

- Philippines

- Republic of Korea

- St. Kitts and Nevis

- St. Lucia

- St. Vincent and the Grenadines

- Samoa

- São Tomé and Príncipe

- Sierra Leone

- Singapore

- Solomon Islands

- Somalia

- South Sudan

- Suriname

- Timor-Leste

- Tonga

- Trinidad and Tobago

- Tuvalu

- Uganda

- United Arab Emirates

- Vanuatu

- Vietnam

- Zambia

Meanwhile, in 2017, a coalition formed with the stated purpose of protecting ancient heritage sites from destruction, generally by extremist groups. This coalition consisted of Bolivia, China, Egypt, Greece, India, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Mexico, and Peru.

The same year, Francois Hollande of France announced at a conference that a separate group of countries had pledged donations to UNESCO for the purpose of defending cultural heritage in war zones. These countries included France, Saudi Arabia, UAE, Kuwait, Luxembourg, Morocco, and Switzerland with more expected to lend their support later on (Suggested Reading #4).

Suggested Reading

1. http://www.unesco.org/new/en/culture/themes/armed-conflict-and-heritage/convention-and-protocols/1954-hague-convention/

2. https://www.heritageinwar.com/single-post/2019/02/07/The-challenges-of-protecting-cultural-heritage-in-armed-conflict

3. https://blogs.getty.edu/iris/our-responsibility-to-protect-cultural-heritage-in-conflict-zones/

4. https://news.artnet.com/art-world/unesco-raises-75-cultural-heritage-sites-898307

Citations

"1954 Hague Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict."

Armed Conflict and Heritage,

www.unesco.org/new/en/culture/themes/armed-conflict-and-heritage/convention-and-protocols/1954-hague-convention/ .

"About Us - History." *Blue Shield International*, The Blue Shield, theblueshield.org/about-us/history/.

Chainoglou, Kalliopi. "The Protection of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Armed Conflict: Dissolving

the Boundaries Between the Existing Legal Regimes?" *Santander Art & Culture Law Review*,

University of Macedonia, 3 July 2018,

www.ejournals.eu/SAACLR/2017/2-2017/art/12051/.

"The Challenges of Protecting Cultural Heritage in Armed Conflict." *Heritage in War*, The Blue

Shield, 12 Feb. 2019,

www.heritageinwar.com/single-post/2019/02/07/The-challenges-of-protecting-cultural-heritage-in-armed-conflict .

"Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict. The Hague, 14

May 1954." *Treaties, States Parties and Commentaries*, International Committee of the Red Cross,

ihl-databases.icrc.org/applic/ihl/ihl.nsf/States.xsp?xp_viewStates=XPages_NORMStatesParties&xp_treatySelected=400.

"Cultural Cleansing." *Antiquities Coalition*, Avada, 20 Dec. 2014,

taskforce.theantiquitiescoalition.org/cultural-cleansing-crime/.

Cuno, James. "Our Responsibility to Protect Cultural Heritage in Conflict Zones." *Getty*, J. Paul

Getty Trust, 9 Jan. 2018,

blogs.getty.edu/iris/our-responsibility-to-protect-cultural-heritage-in-conflict-zones/.

Katz, Brigit. "Ancient City of Palmyra, Gravely Damaged by ISIS, May Reopen Next Year."

Smithsonian Magazine, Smithsonian Institution, 29 Aug. 2018,

www.smithsonianmag.com/smart-news/ancient-city-palmyra-gravely-damaged-isis-may-reo

pen-next-year-1-180970160/ .

Kinsella, Eileen. "10 Nations Band Together to Protect Cultural Heritage Sites Under Threat."

Artnet

News, 25 Apr. 2017,

news.artnet.com/art-world/ten-nations-cultural-heritage-protection-936116.

Kinsella, Eileen. "UNESCO Raises $75.5 Million to Defend Cultural Heritage in War Zones." *Artnet*

News, 21 Mar. 2017,

news.artnet.com/art-world/unesco-raises-75-cultural-heritage-sites-898307.

"Looting." *Wikipedia*, Wikimedia Foundation, 15 Nov. 2020, 17:07,

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Looting#In_armed_conflict.

"Monuments, Fine Arts, and Archives Program." *Wikipedia*, Wikimedia Foundation, 21 Nov. 2020,

01:50, en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monuments,_Fine_Arts,_and_Archives_program.

Postiglione, Luigi. "The Protection of Cultural Heritage during Armed Conflicts." *Army War College*,

1 Apr. 2017, publications.armywarcollege.edu/pubs/3482.pdf.

Rogers. "What Is a Legitimate Military Target?" *CambridgeCore*, Cambridge University Press, July

2009,

www.cambridge.org/core/books/international-conflict-and-security-law/what-is-a-legitimat

e-military-target/10B830FEDF15B7F6234E8BFD27C1BE80.

"Siege of Jerusalem (70 CE)." *Wikipedia*, Wikimedia Foundation, 29 Nov. 2020, 10:54,

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Siege_of_Jerusalem_(70_CE).

Stone, Peter. "Destroying Cultural Heritage Is an Attack on Humanity's Past and Present - It Must

Be Prevented." *The Conversation*, 10 Jan. 2020, 04:13,

theconversation.com/destroying-cultural-heritage-is-an-attack-on-humanitys-past-and-prese

nt-it-must-be-prevented-129412.

"Yugoslav Wars." *Wikipedia*, Wikimedia Foundation, 28 Nov. 2020, 06:02,

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yugoslav_Wars.

Topic 2: Open Access to Scientific Research

Introduction

In general, open access is defined as freely accessible information that anyone can read and use for the development of scientific knowledge without any costs and with proper credit to the original author/s. Open access allows students, other researchers, and the general public access to current research and information, allowing them to freely further upon it. This leads to more innovation, greater scientific and societal advancements, and a reduction in educational, economical, and social disparities. As of 2020, over 15,000 journals containing more than 5 million scholarly research articles were listed on the Directory of Open Access Journals. It is currently estimated that up to 50% of the scholarly research and literature published is available online under an open access structure. However, it is debated that this is not enough, particularly given with the spread of COVID-19 across the world.

Given how crucial the distribution of accurate and relevant information with regards to COVID-19 is in saving lives, there have been many advances in open access policies. Publishing scientific research and data with regards to the pandemic can lead to crucial medical findings, effective policy measures, and a better societal understanding of COVID-19. Nonetheless, there still remain many barriers to surpass before all scientific research is openly accessible. In order for work to be published as open access, the author must take on the responsibilities of depositing their scientific findings in open access repositories, publishing in open access journals, and securing funds to cover financial costs of making their work openly accessible. The lack of a peer-review process for certain open access journals also raises quality concerns of the work being published. Lastly, questions on how open access journals can operate without a paid subscription-based model to access content raises financial feasibility concerns. However, UNESCO has been dedicated to

assisting Member States and institutions to help them develop their open access policies and ensure that scientific information is readily available.

Existing Frameworks

Article 27 of the *Universal Declaration on Human Rights* outlines a right to "freely participate in the cultural life of the community (...) and share in scientific advancement and its benefits". However, it also recognizes a right to the protection of authorship. These two rights also resonated in Article 15 of the *International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights*, published in 1966, which called upon Member States to take the necessary steps to allow the diffusion of culture and science. UNESCO's Constitution specifically highlights its objective to assist in the spread of knowledge through the exchange of publications and enabling people's access to them. In 1974, UNESCO outlined the important role that science and research play in society and formally recognized that open sharing of scientific data enhances scientific cooperation and lies at the core of the scientific process in its *Recommendation on the Status of Scientific Researchers*. This was further clarified in 1999 with UNESCO's Declaration on Science and the Use of Scientific Knowledge, which called for the adoption of full and open access to scientific knowledge while recognizing that intellectual property rights must be respected. In 2003, the first World Summit on the Information Society adopted the Geneva Declaration of Principles and the Geneva Plan of Action which define a common goal for a modern information society where advances in technology and the removal of access barriers would allow for unparalleled access to information for everyone.

In order to promote open access, UNESCO formalized its operational strategy on open access. In 2011, it formally outlined the three core areas of its work on the topic in the *Strategy on UNESCO's Contribution to the Promotion of Open Access to Scientific Information*. These three core areas include the provision of policy advice to decision-makers, capacity building support for

organizations, and serving as a clearing-house on open access codes of practices and resources. It also adopted an updated *Recommendation on Science and Scientific Researchers*, in 2017, which calls upon its Member States, institutions, and scientists to promote open access to scientific research. However, there still is not a universally accepted set of overarching norms and requirements when it comes to open science. In 2015, UNESCO at least 10 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) set out in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development require frequent scientific input for which open access is critical. The international community has also recognized the importance of open access for the achievement of the SDGs. For example, SDG 3, which refers to good health and well-being, requires Member States to promote access to findings from medical journals that can help inform policy and strategic decisions on the part of governments which could save lives. This is especially imperative during global pandemics, such as the one currently being experienced.

Open Access and COVID-19

The United Nations responded to COVID-19 by detailing strategic response plans to both contain the spread of the virus and mitigate the socio-economic effects of the pandemic. UNESCO promoted open access to information relevant to the pandemic. It has specifically been focused on open education resources by informing the public on distance learning solutions and open access national learning platforms. Through doing this, UNESCO is addressing the issue of school closures, which have affected upwards of 90% of the total enrolled learners. Nonetheless, UNESCO's response in relation to the pandemic and the promotion of open access has been aimed at greater scientific cooperation, the sharing of effective containment policies, and providing the general public with information on COVID-19. During this pandemic, open access could be crucial in effectively containing and treating COVID-19 as it allows fast access to scientific research, accelerating the rate at which medical findings occur. In order to promote open access, many

institutional and private stakeholders of intellectual property have joined the Open COVID Pledge, a commitment to share scientific knowledge regarding COVID-19. However, less than a third of published articles on COVID-19 are openly accessible and many of those which are currently openly accessible will likely become enclosed behind a paywall in the near future. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), this shows how imperative it is to establish long-term solutions for issues regarding the financial feasibility of open access.

In a meeting on COVID-19, UNESCO called on Member States to adopt Open Science principles for their national research programs and 122 Member States reiterated this call. The meeting demonstrates that the pandemic has emphasized the importance of open access, showing its necessity for effective knowledge sharing and multidisciplinary work. Lastly, UNESCO co-initiated the COVID-19 Universal Research Gateway (CURE), which provides access to journals, datasets, and repositories regarding the COVID-19 pandemic in order to facilitate knowledge exchange. It also provides COVID-19 case numbers, mortalities, and recoveries, as well as COVID-19 related news reports from Member States. This allows for transparency and enables the public to inform themselves on how the pandemic has progressed in other countries. However, this platform has unreliable accessibility due to a lack of adequate digital infrastructure. Also, many of the journals available through CURE are also openly available on the WHO's Global Research Database, which has a more intuitive user-design. This shows that there must be further coordination between initiatives being taken.

Guiding Questions

1. What are some other potential barriers that may hinder the adoption of open access policies?
2. How can UNESCO best facilitate discussions and work towards finding solutions to the barriers discussed above and those that you may have thought of?

3. What role should UNESCO play in global crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, in relation to open access of information and research on these crises?

4. What partnerships or collaborations within the UN System and International Community would best benefit UNESCO in achieving its goal of promoting open access?

5. How could your country best promote open access to science and research within your borders (if this is something your country wants)?

Sources

Foxall K., & A. Nailor. (2016). Sustainability in Open Access Publishing: The Ecancer Case Study. Learned Publishing. https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1002/leap.1023

Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development. (2020). Why Open Science is critical to combatting COVID-19.
http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policyresponses/why-open-science-is-critical-to-combatting-covid-19-cd6ab2f9/

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (n.d.). Open Access to Scientific Information and Research.
http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/CI/CI/images/GOAP/3544.11_CI_E_Open%20Ac cess%20brochure.indd.pdf

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2012). Policy Guidelines for the Development and Promotion of Open Access.
https://en.unesco.org/open-access/sites/open-access/files/215863e.pdf

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2015). Concepts of Openness

and Open Access. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000232207

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2020). Open Access to facilitate

research and information on COVID-19.

https://en.unesco.org/covid19/communicationinformationresponse/opensolutions