

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL



Table of Content

Welcome Note	2
Introduction	3-4
History of the Committee	5-6

Topic 1: Question of the rehabilitation of child soldiers

Topic Statement	7-12
History of the Issue	13-18
UN Actions	19 - 21
Bloc Positions	22-24

Topic 2: Striking a balance between Censorship and Freedom of Expression in the light of New Media.

Topic Statement	25
Types of Censorship	26-28
Conflicts	29-30
Case Studies	31-33
Current issues	34-36
<u>Links for both the topics</u>	36-38

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

Dear Delegates,

I would like to extend a very warm welcome to the 1st inter-school session of Cambridge Model United Nations!

My name is Maryam Ahmed, and I'll be your Director for the HRC.

Over the weekend, we will be simulating the UNHRC in discussion of two vital topics that impact virtually every nation on the planet: the *QUESTION OF REHABILITATION OF CHILD SOLDIERS* and *STRIKING A BALANCE BETWEEN CENSORSHIP AND FREEDOM OF SPEECH IN LIGHT OF NEW MEDIA*.

The military use of children is a complex issue, currently affecting more than a million children in countries around the globe. It not only bolsters violence, but also violates several human rights. The world is inhabited by people of many different culture, religions and race, who have their own policies concerning freedom of expression. In the era of interdependent borderless cyber world, there must be a balance between the censorship and freedom of expression since both are indispensable for a democratic society.

While both issues have been regularly addressed at various international forums, much effort is needed to resolve these issues. Though, approaching these topics will be challenging, I have confidence that this session will be fruitful in resolving several ambiguities through synergetic collaboration across blocs to form a consensus.

I hope this guide will be useful to get you acquainted with the fundamentals of both topics, however, try to seek supplementary detail information about your countries.

Please do not hesitate to email me with any queries or concerns you may have about the conference, the committee, the topics, or just to introduce yourselves! I wish you the best of luck in preparing and researching for CAMUN 2012.

Looking forward to meeting you all this April!

Warmest regards,



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HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

INTRODUCTION

Topic 1: Question of the rehabilitation of child soldiers.

Amnesty International reports that 350,000 children under the age of eighteen are serving in direct combat action. In over twenty countries, more than 1.1 million children under the age of fifteen are used as porters, slaves, guards, spies and land mine testers. Robbed of an education and thus the hope for a better future, these children grow into adults that perpetuate the cycle of violence in war-torn countries. Grippled in a society of perpetual conflict, the only adults that they can trust to provide food, water, and shelter are military, paramilitary, and guerilla soldiers. They are often forced to kill their family members and commit devastating atrocities such as forced labour, rape, and torture. Clearly, the physical, psychological, and social damage can be insurmountable. While this is certainly a pressing security issue, it is above all a moral one. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child explicitly bans the use of child soldiers but this practice continues to be rampant. The abuse of these children's rights needs to be addressed by the international community immediately in the light of a growing number of international civil conflicts in the post-Cold War era.

Topic 2: Striking a balance between Censorship and Freedom of Expression in the light of New Media.

For several years, the UN General Assembly and the former Commission on Human Rights, endeavoured to draw on international human rights instruments to promote a common understanding of the principles, norms, standards and values that are the basis of democracy, with a view to guiding Member States in developing domestic democratic traditions and institutions, and in meeting their commitments to human rights, democracy and development. This led to the articulation of several landmark resolutions of the former Commission on Human Rights. In 2000, the Commission recommended a series of important legislative, institutional and practical measures to consolidate democracy (resolution 2000/47); and in 2002, the Commission declared the following as essential elements of democracy:

- Respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms
- Freedom of association
- Freedom of expression and opinion
- Access to power and its exercise in accordance with the rule of law
- The holding of periodic free and fair elections by universal suffrage and by secret ballot as the expression of the will of the people
- A pluralistic system of political parties and organizations
- The separation of powers
- The independence of the judiciary
- Transparency and accountability in public administration
- Free, independent and pluralistic media

HISTORY OF THE COMMITTEE

From the ashes of World War II, the United Nations was created in 1945 to provide a platform for dialogue between countries in order to prevent future wars. A year later, the UN Commission for Human Rights (UNCHR) was formed under the Economic and Social Council and given the task of promoting and protecting human rights around the world. In 2006, the General Assembly voted overwhelmingly to replace UNCHR with the United Nations Human Rights Council (UNHRC) through resolution A/RES/60/251, as UNCHR was heavily criticized for allowing countries with poor human rights records to become members. To prevent the same criticism, UNHRC members can now be removed by the General Assembly (on a 2/3 vote) for “gross and systemic” violations of human rights. UNHRC is an inter-governmental subsidiary body of the General Assembly comprising 47 member states with three-year terms, working closely with the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) to strengthen the promotion and protection of human rights around the world. One year after holding its first meeting in Geneva, Switzerland, UNHRC bolstered its mandate by adopting an institution building-package with three key elements:

- The Universal Periodic Review (UPR), during which each of the UN’s 192 member nations will receive human rights reviews by an HRC Working Group once every four years, based on reports from the nation, the United Nations, and any relevant stakeholders such as non-governmental organizations (NGOs);
- An Advisory Committee that serves as UNHRC’s think tank, producing expertise and advice on thematic human rights issues;

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

- A Complaints Procedure that allows individuals and organizations to bring accounts of human rights violation to the attention of the Council, which will then be collated into reports on gross and reliably attested violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms for the Council to review.

Aside from performing reviews of nations' human rights statuses and receiving complaints from individuals and organizations, UNHRC also issues resolutions on human rights violations around the globe. UNHRC can also establish High-Level Commissions of Inquiry to probe allegations of systematic human rights abuse.

Despite the conflict and political finger-pointing, UNHRC has been successful in many areas of human rights protection in the past. It has adopted resolutions in opposition to the "defamation of religion," as well as expressed concerns in the linkage between human rights and climate change through Resolution 10/4. HRC has sent fact-finding missions to various member states to find out about human rights situations on the ground and report back to the Council. It has established Working Groups in the lesser-discussed areas of enforced disappearance, indigenous peoples, right to development, arbitrary detention, and the use of mercenaries, among others, to delve deeper into unaccounted issues that nevertheless deserve international attention and mitigation.

Topic 1: Question of the rehabilitation of child soldiers.

Every child has the right to go to school and to live free from violence.

It's bad enough that children's lives are torn apart by wars they didn't start. But when they're forced into fighting in the conflict themselves, it causes psychological and physical damage that can often never be repaired.

Definition of 'Child Soldiers': Any child – boy or girl – under 18 years of age, who is part of any kind of regular or irregular armed force or armed group in any capacity, including, but not limited to: cooks, porters, messengers, and anyone accompanying such groups other than family members. It includes girls and boys recruited for forced sexual purposes and/or forced marriage. The definition does not only refer to a child who is carrying, or has carried, weapons.

Definition of 'Rehabilitation of Child Soldiers': Restoring former or current child soldiers in a useful and safe place in society.

Key facts and statistics about child soldiers

- There are an estimated 300,000 child soldiers in the world today.
- It is estimated that 40% of all child soldiers are girls. They are often used as 'wives' of the male combatants.
- Many rebel groups use child soldiers to fight the government, but some governments also use child soldiers in armed conflict.
- Not all children take part in active combat. Some are also used as porters, cooks and spies.
- As part of their recruitment, children are sometimes forced to kill or maim a family member - thus breaking the bonds with their community and making it difficult for them to return home.

Why use children as soldiers?

Children are used as soldiers because they are easier to brainwash. They don't eat much food, don't need paying much and have an underdeveloped sense of danger so are easier to send into the line of fire.

As children make up the majority demographic in many conflict-affected countries, there's a constant supply of potential recruits. Due to their size and 'expendability', children are often sent into battle as scouts or decoys, or sent in the first wave to draw the enemy's fire.

What are the effects on children?

The effects on children are felt long after their physical scars have healed and their drug dependencies overcome. Being a child soldier can damage them for life. Even when they're set free or escape, many children can't go back home to their families and communities because they've been ostracized from them. They may have been forced to kill a family member or neighbour just so they can never go back. Many girls have babies from their time in the rebel groups and their communities/families don't accept them home. Most have missed out on school - sometimes for many years. Without an education they have very little future prospects and sometimes return to the rebel groups as they have simply no other way of feeding themselves.

How do child soldiers get recruited? Some are abducted from their homes and forced to become soldiers. A village may be forced to provide a certain number of children as soldiers in exchange for staying safe from attack. Some children are volunteered by their parents due to extreme poverty and hunger at home.

SETTING THE SCENE

In the last decade of warfare, more than two million children have been killed, a rate of more than 500 a day, or one every three minutes. Of these two million deaths, tens of thousands are caused directly by fighting from bullets, bombs, landmines, machetes, knives, grenades, and other weapons. Over the same period of time, half a million children from 87 countries have been recruited by government forces or armed groups, resulting in significant numbers of child soldiers across every continent with the exception of Antarctica. Every year, 300,000 children are coerced or induced to take up arms for various causes, ranging from civil war, rebellion, revolt, and insurrection to bandit or guerilla warfare. This number has grown significantly from 200,000 in 1988. Child soldiers are currently serving in over 36 major wars. Another 8,000-10,000 die annually because of landmines. According to statistics from a situation update report submitted to the Conflict Study Center in 2009, 80% of conflicts involving child soldiers include combatants under the age of 15, with some as young as seven or eight, and 40% of all child soldiers are girls.

With the breakdown of many cultural barriers opposing the use of child soldiers, such victims are now found globally, with particular prevalence in the regions of Africa, Asia, and Latin America; they are also now emerging in the Middle East. As recently as 2005, reports surfaced that the Taliban were using up to 8,000 children in armed conflict in Afghanistan. Approximately 120,000 of the 300,000 child soldiers are found in Africa, followed by the Asia-Pacific region at a distant second with 75,000. Additionally, Africa has the highest rate of growth in child soldier usage.

Though much of existing literature implies that the explosion in non-state actor recruitment of child soldiers is responsible for the dramatic increase in victims, state recruitment remains high in several conflicts. For example, the Sudanese civil war of 1993-2002 started with child soldier use between rebel and government forces at a ratio of 64:36 respectively, but ended with a ratio of 24:76.

The geographic and historical prevalence of child soldier usage can be explained by the various advantages these young combatants confer on a state or non-state armed group. Compared to adults, children are much easier to capture, train, and handle. With the advent and proliferation of small arms, technological barriers to operation of weaponry by children were removed. Small weapons are light and cheap—weighing as little as seven pounds and costing roughly US\$6—and are also easily assembled, loaded, and fired; they can be used by children as young as ten years old. Children are also valuable as “cannon fodder,” sent to distract or divert the enemy when weapons are low. Both state and non-state actors require strict obedience and discipline from their soldiers. Young, impressionable, and eager to please, children are often attractive recruits because of their loyalty. Children are also more readily available for unpaid service via easy capture, as well as harder to spot and kill by the enemy. Some commanders also believe they are more efficient fighters, benefiting from the hesitancy shown by enemies who are unsure or unwilling to harm children in the opposition. For these reasons, child soldiers are frequently coerced, abducted, or forcibly recruited into service.

On the contrary, many child soldiers are pulled into military service and are compelled to volunteer for a variety of reasons, including political beliefs,

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

religious obligations, family affiliations, and survival. In a time of conflict and war, families may offer their children as soldiers in order to gain physical and economic security. Or, children orphaned by the war or its accompanying diseases may enlist just to have a steady source of food, clothing, and shelter. Children may also join an armed military group due to peer pressure or an urge to avenge abuses and atrocities they themselves have experienced during civil conflict. Traditionally, a majority of children enlisting for political or religious reasons fall into non-state groups, while those seeking economic security will tend to enlist in state armies.

Regardless of whether the child was forced or volunteered, military service is a violation of children's rights as outlined in several international documents. Article 38 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) obligates State parties to "take all feasible measures to ensure that persons who have not attained the age of fifteen years do not take a direct part in hostilities" and to "ensure protection and care of children who are affected by armed conflict." Article 39 further requires State Parties to promote recovery and reintegration of children affected by armed conflict. In addition, the Convention requires State parties to take effective measures to abolish social practices that are prejudicial to children's health, which as the UN argues, would "necessarily include practices that put children in harm's way in the context of armed conflict." The 1998 Rome Statue of the International Criminal Court classifies the use of children under 15 by armed groups in intentional attacks as war crimes. All these documents agree that the core rights of the child include the right to education, play and recreation, and love and care. Even if they are trained and indoctrinated by their armed recruiters, these children do not experience a holistic education that allows them

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

to become sufficiently prepared to make their own decisions in life. An armed existence not only necessarily robs them of their right to recreation but also affects their view on their own rights to relaxation and leisure later on in life. Often physically separated from their families, child soldiers are stripped of their right to familial love and care.

Not only does armed conflict violate children's rights, but it also severely impacts children physically, psychologically, and socially. War has a vastly more detrimental impact on children than on adults, as it strips away the traditional protection of family, society, and law that children rely on during peacetime. The physical drains in a child soldier's life include: taxing and strenuous activities such as carrying heavy objects and traveling far distances; exposure to harsh conditions and the elements; hunger; and lack of sleep and rest. Meanwhile, psychological stresses from family separation, military involvement, becoming wounded, witnessing deaths, torture, and constant worry have long-lasting consequences. As child soldiers, living in a dangerous and suspenseful environment induces much stress on mental health, causing former child soldiers to report episodes of paranoia that still afflict them long after their days on the battlefield are over. Reports of former child soldiers suffering from alcoholism, emotional disturbance, and criminality are not uncommon. Further symptoms range from introversion and isolation to depression, headaches, and phobias. When children are forced to train in preparation for a kill, they tend to become more antagonized and emotionally distraught than their adult counterparts. These psychological symptoms are compounded by poverty and create far more serious, long-lasting consequences on the child's overall mental health than those a child experiencing regular Post- Traumatic Stress Disorder in a western

context would encounter. The life of a child soldier is also particularly difficult for girls, who often suffer from horrendous crimes like rape and sexual assault, in addition to menstruation in unsanitary conditions, limited freedom of movement, and disproportionate physical demands from adults that tend to ignore their gender. They are generally assigned more non-combative duties and have less ability to advance through the military ranks than their male counterparts.

The military use of children afflicts an entire society by perpetuating violence and hindering development. It has long been understood that socialization of violence in youth creates a generation of violent adults that perpetuate the instability in a nation. Loss of childhood innocence and education, as well as the horrific experience of being forced from their homes and into combat, cut deep into children's psyche. The results of this can be loss of trust, aggressive behavior, and tendency toward revenge, which can manifest in another cycle of violence. Exposure to violence and experience with firearms severely shifts the psychological make-up of child soldiers from children raised under a less harsh social environment. Once a nation's children have learned to accept violence as a fact of life and comfortably use firearms for security and power, the foundations of a violent society have been laid and will be difficult to eradicate.

History of the Problem

EARLY EXAMPLES

The earliest examples of the military use of children go back to the wars of antiquity. Children living in the Mediterranean basin were frequently employed as aides, charioteers, and armour bearers. Their use was detailed in the Literature, Egyptian Art, and Greek Mythology. Though Ancient Roman practice forbade the

use of youths under age 16, young boys were still often found on the battlefield in various conquests in the Roman Kingdom, which lasted from 753 to 509 BC. The Spartans of Ancient Greece, as a very militarized society prominent from 546 to 371 BC, separated boys from their families to undergo military training at the age of seven. Centuries later, medieval Europe in the 1200s and 1300s continued these earlier practices by hiring thousands of boys as young as twelve to become “squires.” Though these youths rarely saw combat action, they tragically were sold into slavery when wars abated.

19TH CENTURY

The 19th century witnessed a more systematic recruitment, training, and indoctrination of youths by various military leaders to advance their ambitions. French Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte practiced routine and systematic recruiting of boys around age fifteen during the early 1800s. Napoleon’s armies swelled with youths as young as twelve, and the young navy cadets were called “powder monkeys.” Similarly, in 1827, Tsar Nicholas II of Russia put forth an annual conscription quota for males aged 12-25, requiring them to serve for 25 years. Recruits under the age of 18 were placed into special training as “Cantonists” until 18, when they were considered battle-ready. After being dispatched to the battalions where they would receive training, many would die en route due to torture or starvation.

Other examples of 19th century child soldier use did not stem from ambitious dictators, but rather the legitimate desire to defend or maintain one’s homeland. In 1861, US President Abraham Lincoln allowed soldiers under age 18 to enlist in the Union Army during the American Civil War. During its attempted unification in the early 19th century, Nepal did not have any systematically organized state

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

armed forces in the battlefields. Overwhelmed by the huge and well-equipped British army, all local people (including children, women, and the elderly) in war zones served as irregular battalions in the defense of Nepal.

20TH CENTURY

The practice of child soldiering skyrocketed in the 20th century. The most memorable example of child soldier usage in the past century was the Hitler Jugend (Youth) in the closing days of World War II (1939-1945), where 1,000 children aged 10-18 were responsible for combat and various support services. Remnants of the organization at the close of the war were mowed down by Russian forces, though the survivors were not prosecuted by the international community. During China's Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), Mao Ze Dong utilized children for revolutionary purposes. Red Guards aged eight to fifteen were responsible for the most heinous acts, including the capture, torture, and murder of adult civilians deemed "enemies of the revolution." In addition, African independence movements were accomplished with the aid of child soldiers. In particular, Angola and Mozambique enlisted several children in the 1970s to achieve colonial independence.

Since the end of the Cold War, a rise in intrastate conflict has resulted in warfare impacting children in unprecedented ways. Many young teens fought in the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) in the war for independence against the Serbs in 1997-98. Many children went on to join other Albanian rebel groups, serving in both the Liberation Army of Presevo and the Albanian National Liberation Army. The Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) of Uganda—a sectarian religious and military group operating in northern Uganda— frequently abducts children from villages and forces them into conscription to engage in armed rebellion against the

national government. Reports from former child soldiers reveal shocking living conditions, sexual exploitation, and general squalidness.

The civil war in Sierra Leone lasted from 1991-2001 and resulted in the forced recruitment of 15,000-22,000 children from their villages, who were then funnelled into military conscription; about half were between the ages of 8 and 14.⁴⁶ The few that voluntarily joined rebel forces spoke frequently of the need to seek revenge for lost parents or environmental destruction; those who joined government forces spoke of honour and defense of their homeland. After the conflict abated, short-term Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR) programs were implemented, but long-term problems in education still persist and need to be addressed.⁴⁸ Additionally, Sierra Leone's fractured family system due to the war would require ex-child combatants to reintegrate into society without a "home" or a "family" to return to.

The Sudanese civil war was also fraught with the forced recruitment of child soldiers by both government forces and the Sudan People Liberation Army (SPLA). Government forces, in addition to training youth in only 14 days to prepare them for combat on the front lines, engaged in the practice of selling child slaves from marginalized areas in the southern part of Sudan. Many of these Sudanese child soldiers are orphaned and elected to join in the fighting to satisfy their basic needs and to avenge the deaths of their parents, who were often killed in front of them by the enemy.

INTERNATIONAL ATTEMPTS TO MITIGATE CHILD SOLDIER USE

The Geneva Conventions of 1949 were the first step towards the protection of civilians and other special groups during times of armed conflict. The original Geneva Convention had four Parts; in particular, Part III described the special

category of “protected persons” in time of war, though the definition of “children” varies. In 1977, the two additional Protocols to the original four Conventions were drafted. Protocol I applied to the protection of victims of international armed conflicts, reaffirming the original Geneva Convention while clarifying certain provisions based on developments in modern international warfare. Protocol II applied to victims of internal armed conflict, taking the original Convention beyond the quite limiting scope of wars of “international character,” as conflicts were originally defined. Specifically, Article 77 states that all Parties shall “take all feasible measures in order that children who have not attained the age of 15 years do not take a direct part in hostilities.” Additionally, if a child is captured in war, “they shall continue to benefit from the special protection accorded by this Article.”

In the 1980s, children became increasingly victimized by armed conflict, and thus, legislation that dealt explicitly with the problem became necessary. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) makes children’s best interest a primary consideration for all government bodies. An almost universally accepted human rights instrument, the CRC is ratified by all states except for the United States and Somalia. Its most relevant article to the case of the military use of children is article 38(2) which reads: “States Parties shall take all feasible measures to ensure that persons who have not attained the age of 15 years do not take a direct part in hostilities.” Many states have taken this provision further by ratifying the convention under the proviso that the mandatory minimum age should be 18.

In 1998, significant advances were achieved when the International Criminal Court declared that the use of children under 15 in military conflict a war crime

under its Rome Statute. In this treaty, the delegates agree to prohibit not only children's direct participation in warfare, but also their active participation in military activities such as sabotage, reconnaissance, spying and the use of children as decoys, messengers, or at security (military) checkpoints. It also prohibits the use of children in direct support of efforts to carry supplies to the front line and defines sexual slavery as a crime against humanity. A year later, the International Labour Organization Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (1999) prohibited forced or compulsory recruitment of children under 18 for use in combat. Article 3(a) defines the worst forms of child labor as "all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labor, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict." The African Union followed suit with its African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1999), which prohibits recruitment or participation in direct hostilities of anyone under 18. It is the only regional treaty in the world that deals with the issue of child soldiers.

With the turn of the century, even greater efforts were channeled by international bodies and states to address this increasingly visible issue. In 2000, the International Conference on War Affected Children: From Words to Action was held in Winnipeg, Canada—a powerful gathering of interested individuals, relevant organizations, and former child soldiers that resulted in several strong outcomes. Subsequently, the Optional Protocol to the CRC on the use of child volunteers by state actors (2000) was drafted. It sets the minimum age for compulsory recruitment or direct participation in hostilities at 18; calls upon States parties to raise the age for voluntary recruitment and to provide special

protections and safeguards for those under 18; categorically prohibits armed groups from recruiting or using in hostilities anyone under 18; and calls upon States parties to provide technical cooperation and financial assistance to help prevent child recruitment and deployment, and to improve the rehabilitation and social reintegration of former child soldiers.

Additionally, there are several movements led by non-governmental organizations (NGO) and the general public aimed at pressuring international bodies and states to act upon the existing legal framework for protecting children's rights. Red Hand Day (February 12th) is an annual commemoration day for current and former child soldiers. The Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers and other organizations frequently organize mass demonstration activities, such as a walk to symbolize the distance child soldiers walk daily, or a 25-hour silence to mark the 25th year of the Uganda conflict. Increasingly, these movements are driven by youth, for youth, and champion former child soldiers as their spokespersons and advocates.

ACTIONS TAKEN BY THE UN

The U.N. has taken many steps to protect the rights of children affected by armed conflict. To date, 72 nations have ratified the Optional Protocol of the Convention on the Rights of the Child on children involved in armed conflict, a document that establishes 18 as the minimum age of conscription into the military and requires that members of the military under age 18 be kept out of hostilities by "all feasible measures". This Protocol also requires governments to provide programs for the "psychological recovery and social reintegration" of former child soldiers, where necessary.

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

Disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) intervention programs are intended to bring security and stability to a region after a conflict. The three phases of DDR programs are sequentially imperative. First, Disarmament requires that combatants are stripped of their weapons, and DDR programs often utilize a trade-in system, such as weapons for cash. Demobilization constitutes the assembly and registration of ex-combatants, orienting former soldiers on the value of the DDR program, and transporting ex-combatants to desired locations at a time that is in-sync with civilian life, such as crop and school cycles. Finally, reintegration ensures social and economic assimilation through the personal empowerment of and financial incentives to ex-combatants.

In the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations has proclaimed that childhood is entitled to special care and assistance.

The need to extend particular care to children have been stated in the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1924 and in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child adopted by the General Assembly on 20 November 1959 and recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and in the statutes and relevant instruments of specialized agencies and international organizations concerned with the welfare of children.

The Declaration of the Rights of the Child indicated that, "the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity, needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth".

Sudan- In March 2001, over 2,500 child soldiers were released. They spent four months in U.N. camps receiving education, and medical and psychological care.

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

Uganda- Since 1986, 15,000 children have been abducted by the Lord's Resistance Army, an opposition group to the Ugandan government. Operation Iron Fist was launched by the Ugandan government in an effort to abolish the LRA; however, the policy merely pushed the LRA underground and in doing so, misplaced thousands of Ugandans. In 2003, the International Rescue Committee was able to successfully **reunite** over 1,500 former child soldiers with their families.

Sierra Leone- 10,000 children have been known to have fought in Sierra Leonean armed forces. In the 1990's the "child armies" established a notorious reputation for brutality. In the summer of 2001, the Revolutionary United Front rebels released 600 child soldiers. The International Rescue Committee provided education, skills training, **and psychosocial care to 100 of them**. In 2002, a Sierra Leonean entrepreneur began a program to teach former child soldiers computer and programming skills.

Angola- over 7,000 children, including those from neighboring Namibia, were active soldiers in Angolan armed forces until the fighting ended in 2002. In 2003, the Angolan government, UNICEF, and community partners established a framework to provide former child soldiers **with physical rehabilitation, psychological recovery, and social reintegration**. The government has made plans to build thousands of new classrooms and has enacted goals to increase school attendance by 2015.

Afghanistan- UNICEF helped refurbish 200 schools, and in March 2002, over 1.5 million children enrolled for school. In early February 2004, UNICEF implemented a new reintegration program for 2,000 former child soldiers, and

has plans for 3,000 more by the year's end. The program will create a comprehensive care plan and information database, including psychological and medical treatment, for each soldier. UNICEF estimates a total of 8,000 child soldiers currently in Afghanistan.

BLOC POSITIONS

DEVELOPED NATIONS

This bloc of developed nations traditionally includes, but is not limited to, nations like the United States, Canada, the European Union, and Japan. Though these nations have all extensively used child soldiers in their collective histories, they have now effectively banned state and most of non-state recruitment within their territories. Nevertheless, legal issues abound on the topics of terrorism, torture (see case study #1), and recruitment. For example, poor regulation could result in the voluntary enlistment of 16 or 17 year olds before they are legally eligible to enlist, according to international standards. In addition, domestic civil liberty organizations within these nations have targeted national recruitment campaigns aimed at children, and take issue with the stationing of military recruitment officers in public schools for this purpose.

Far more can be done from this bloc of nations on an international scale to combat the recruitment of child soldiers. The United States, for instance, has yet to ratify the Convention on the Rights of the Child, resulting in the act having less force than it could in the international arena. Additionally, this bloc should look into using its economic leverage to sanction or cut off military support to nations that employ child soldiers in their state armies. As always, funding support for DDRR initiatives is always needed, and derives in large part from this bloc of

nations. Thus, they will always have significant sway over the direction and contents of DDRR policies.

AFRICA

Africa is considered the epicenter of child soldier usage. As mentioned above, 200,000 of the 300,000 global numbers of child soldiers serve in Africa, in state or non-state armed groups. The rate of increase in conscription is also highest in this continent. African child soldiers are so frequent because of the exacerbating circumstances of poverty, lack of education, disease, and frequent civil conflict. Any comprehensive resolution that deals with the issue of child soldiers must take into account the African experience and must address the social ills that exacerbate child soldier usage.

Despite its overwhelming challenges, Africa has made several strides in recent years to address and eradicate the problem. The African Union is the only regional organization that has drafted a convention on the rights of the child in armed conflict. The truth and reconciliation commissions of several former African conflicts have taken care to include the recruitment and usage of child soldiers as a war crime for which adults need to be accountable. However, Africa still faces several challenges that cannot adequately be addressed without the input and support of the international community.

CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA

The most notable uses of child soldiers in Central and South America are by non-state actors such as warlords, rebel groups, drug lords, and gangs. In a fractionalized region with very little central control racked by issues of illicit trade, children are frequently recruited as drug mules, suicide bombers, and combatants because adults correctly assume that governments, reluctant to

suspect or punish youths, will allow the rebel actions (illicit trade, terrorist attacks, etc.) to continue unhindered.

DDRR in these cases is especially precarious because communities have come to harbor immense distrust and displeasure for children, many of whom have killed women and the elderly on behalf of their organizations. Since voluntary recruitment is more frequent here than in Africa, communities are quick to write off child soldiers as innately violent and refuse to help them reintegrate into existing societal structures.

Thus, trust-building mechanisms are sorely needed in these regions by the governments in order to promote stabilization and development.

ASIA

The ongoing War on Terror has resulted in an increase in child soldier usage in the Middle East. Children are exhorted to carry out war and thus voluntarily sign up for suicide missions to bring glory to their families. As western troops are preparing for demobilization, they are starting to notice scores of child soldiers in the employment of Al Qaeda and other outlawed organizations. DDRR will be vitally important in this region moving forward. Especially important is the plight of female ex-child soldiers, many of whom have borne children as a result of rape. In the traditional social context, they are shunned from their families because of this “shame,” and thus, alternate methods of reintegration are needed for these girls, but may be difficult to secure

Child soldier usage in Central and East Asia was more prevalent historically, but abuse still occurs in these regions such as the Tamil Tigers’ usage of children in Sri Lanka.

Topic 2: Striking a balance between Censorship and Freedom of Expression in the light of New Media.

On 10 December 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to serve as a guideline to all future policies. In the preamble, the document states that the United Nations will dedicate itself to creating a “world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom and speech and belief and freedom from fear.” In Article 19, the document clearly addresses its views on censorship by stating that “everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.”

In April 2011, the UN allocated over \$2 million for 84 media development projects. Progressively, the UN is paying more attention to encouraging female journalists, training media specialists, improving efficiency of news transmission, and improving the quality of news. Most importantly, the UN promotes media independent of government and other decision-making institutions in order to establish democracy. These recent developments provide the groundwork for an in-depth examination of censorship movements present in many “closed” countries that reject the U.N.’s goals of expanding media.

While the United Nation clearly supports the freedom of expression, it has had an interesting relationship with censorship in the past. In January 2009, the United Nations tried to outlaw the criticism of Islam. This is mainly spurred by offensive Danish cartoons in 2005 which defamed the religion. Despite the opposition from many member states, the UN adopted this resolution. Such actions directly violate the United Nations’ objective of maintaining a freedom of expression across the world. This brings us to the question: Are there UN-acceptable forms of censorship? If so, what are the criteria to these acceptable forms of censorship?

In committee, delegates should examine the current censorship laws in their respective countries and its relationship to the UN’s future media development projects. Delegates should also re-examine past UN resolutions passed on

censorship and question the discrepancy in policies between the different resolutions.

WHAT IS CENSORSHIP?

Censorship is defined as “the suppression of speech or other public communication which may be considered objectionable, harmful, sensitive, or inconvenient to the general people as determined by a government, media outlet, or other controlling body.” Censorship can be dated back to the early Athens, where democracy first reigned. In Plato’s *The Republic*, censorship was hailed as a necessary tool to enforce the pillars of the current prevailing orthodoxy. It served to reinforce the power of the government and to stabilize the society by limiting an individual’s speech, dress, religious practice, and sexual expression. In Athens, officials would prohibit mothers and nurses from speaking ill in order to protect newborns and children from evil and Plato proposed that any religious observances that delineated from formal procedures be treated as crime in order to prevent heresy. Since the ancient times, censorship was a hallmark of political and social enforcement because it effectively eliminated taboos and enforced customs and laws.

While censorship is most commonly recognized as a tool utilized by governments to silence dissidents, there exists many forms of censorships employed for a variety of reasons. The following is a list of some justifications for censorship:

Moral censorship: The removal of material that is morally questionable such as pornography.

Military censorship: The removal of military intelligence information that is categorized as confidential. This was prevalent during two World Wars when post masters would go through soldier’s mail and blacken out any material deemed sensitive. Is it still in practice?

Political censorship: The withholding of information from the public by the government. This is prevalent in some member states where the government has a strong hold on all forms of media and limits the information that citizens have access to.

Religious censorship: The removal of material that is found disagreeable by a certain religion. Religious censorship can also take form in a dominant religion

placing limitations on a less-represented religion whose views question the beliefs of the dominant religion. Through this method, the dominant religion asserts its control over population and prevents the smaller religious from expanding too much.

Corporate censorship: The removal of material by corporate media outlets that portrays their business or partners in a negative light.

Not all forms of censorship are the same and not all forms of censorship are bad. Even in the most democratic countries, such as the United States, some forms of censorship exist in order to protect the family, religion, or the state. Also, not all censorship is imposed by a third-party. People self-censor all the time in order to conform to social norms and customs. Thus, one must recognize and understand that censorship is a necessary aspect of society that maintains peace and stability. The question arises only when governments overextend their powers and impinge on the individual's right to expression.

FORMS OF CENSORSHIP

Censorship exists in many forms, some more commonly used than others. The most common and documented usage of censorship is restricting the freedom of press. During post-World War II, the Soviet Union prevented the growth of independent journalism by requiring all media reports to be screened by the Communist Party before being released to the public. The Soviet Union newspaper *Pravda* held a monopoly and the Soviet Union prevented the influx of any foreign newspaper except those in favor of the Soviet regime. The Soviet Union even limited the possession of copy machines in fear of people mass producing illegal, anti-government works. Similarly, the People's Republic of China employs over 30,000 internet police to monitor and block internet web pages that go against the China's communist ideologies. In Cuba and Uruguay, possession of illegal books is considered a serious crime that can result in a conviction of treason.

During post-World War II era, aside from controlling writers and publishing companies in the states, the Eastern Bloc countries also altered weather reports to reflect the propaganda of the regime. For instance on May Day, the weather forecast will always report a high probability of the sun shining since any other reporting signals a bad omen. Also, in Romania, temperature report would be altered if temperatures ever fell below a point where work had to stop.

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

During wartime, it was not uncommon to censor communication between soldiers and families in order to ensure national security and prevent wartime intelligence to be leaked. During World War I, letters written by soldiers were be read by post masters in order to ensure that information about the war strategies itself was not being revealed. Sensitive information was blackened out before sending it to the respective families or letters were withheld to be sent at a later time when the sensitive information would be of no use to enemies. Britain, which employed this form of censorship, argued that this method prevented casualties on their end that may have resulted from information leaks.

Perhaps more applicable today is the prevalence of Internet censorship. Internet censorship may originate from the government or private organizations. While Internet censorship is largely similar to press censorship, the wide flexibility and reach of the Internet makes it harder to control. The permeable nature of the Internet crosses all national borders and thus residents of one country can access banned information hosted on servers in other countries. Thus, unless the government has total control over the Internet access, total censorship of online material is extremely difficult. Currently, the only method of Internet censorship is filtering and blocking all web pages that contain sensitive material since it is impossible for the countries to physically or legally remove websites. As a result, data haven sites have arisen to protect the freedom of speech by allowing individuals to post without divulging their identity. In addition, for every censored website, technologically proficient users have found a way to bypass the filtration system. Harvard University's Beckman Center for Internet and Society has reported that most censorship circumvention tools are developing faster than the government's censorship systems. Thus, at any time, about two percent of the entire population uses circumvention tools to bypass Internet filtration systems. Therefore, countries usually end up wasting valuable resources trying to maintain and update the censorship systems as others create counter programs to circumvent these systems.

In terms of education, many historical events, usually controversial military violence, have been removed from history books. This process, known as whitewashing, has been the center of many debates because this form of censorship directly targets the children of the population. Many people argue that eliminating this sensitive material removes the country's historical burden from the younger generation and threatens a repeat of history as the young fail to understand the social cost of their country's past actions. Some events that have been removed from textbooks include, but are not limited to, the Holocaust, the

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

Nanking Massacre, the Armenian genocide, and the Tiananmen Square protest. Additionally, some historical events have even lead to censorship laws. For instance, in Germany, the Hate Speech Law, makes it illegal to display the swastika or any worship to the Nazi regime. Even in plays or reenactment of World War II, actual emblems or swastikas are not permitted to be used.⁶⁵ In addition to altering history, schools have been known to limit education on the premise of inappropriate or controversial nature of the material. For instance, one of the most common forms of educational censorship comes in the form of book banning. The critically acclaimed *Fahrenheit 451* underwent approximately 75 separate edits before it was appropriate for most schools. In some parts of the United States, *Fahrenheit 451* still remains on the banned book list. Similarly, despite the widespread AIDS epidemic, some schools shy away from teaching such a sensitive topic because of parental objection. This leads to problems such as whether the parent's right supersedes the children's right to public safety information? While there does not exist a clear answer to this question, the courts have recognized legitimate parental concerns as a justifiable reason to pull students from safe sex education.

Other forms of censorship can be found in popular culture, maps, and pictures. Many popular culture censorships can be found in music that demonstrates racial profiling and/or contains references to violence, pornography, and other forbidden subjects. In maps, censorship or purposeful distortions of boundaries have been made as a military strategy to prevent other countries from familiarizing themselves with the terrain of a certain country. Similarly, distortion of land size has been made in order to overstate the size and importance of a certain country relative to other countries. In terms of pictures, many historical images have been altered in order to completely erase the existence of some event or insurgents. This serves as a constant reminder to the public of the consequences of rebelling against the state.

CONFLICT OVER CENSORSHIP

Regardless of the political regime, every country endorses some form of censorship. While the methodology and types of censorship differs vastly, most media censorship involves silencing taboo that may threaten the stability or influence of a government. While censorship often carries a negative connotation, it cannot be fully understood without clearly examining its pros and cons. The following is a list of reasons supporting stricter censorship laws:

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

1. Censorship limits the amount of violent and pornographic material available to underage minors. Studies have shown that exposure to violence makes children more prone to violence. Early encounter with sexual materials also has negative effects during adolescent development.
2. Censorship prevents propaganda and other potentially dangerous ideas from gaining traction and support in society.
3. Information can be dangerous if the wrong people access it; therefore, censorship limits access to sensitive material.
4. Censorship protects individual privacy.
5. Censorship prevents conflicts because materials found offensive to certain groups are automatically deleted before reaching the public.
6. Censorship helps ensure national security.
7. Censorship prevents negative foreign influences from penetrating into local culture.
8. Censorship preserves morals in society by limiting access to vulgar and obscene material.

On the other end of the same debate, too much censorship can limit one of our fundamental rights, freedom of speech and expression. Countless wars have been fought to prevent others from impinging on our self-expression. Thus, it would be counterintuitive to for us to allow a government that limits our freedom to speak and expression. The following lists some reasons against censorship:

1. Censorship limits freedom of speech and expression.
2. Censorship also discourages creativity.
3. Censorship is often used to hide government misdeeds from the public. Governments usually abuse censorship and use it to prevent reasonable criticism.
4. Sometimes underage censorship becomes too overbearing that children are not getting the information they need to lead healthy, productive lives. For instance, information on drugs and safe sex are sometimes withheld from minors on the premise of

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

protecting them from controversial material. But this over protectiveness can lead to negative health effects as children don't have necessary information on drug abuse and safe sex practices.

5. Censorship prevents necessary discussion about some taboo topics such as STDs.

6. Individuals, not the government or any other dictating body, should decide what they should know or not know. Censorship prevents this flow of information and puts the right to knowledge in the hands of a higher power, instead of the individual.

7. Censorship prevents the public from obtaining individual's criminal records, information that the public have the right to know.

Overall, censorship leads to ignorance. Ignorance makes people susceptible to being controlled by the governing body because it destroys all opposing parties.

CASE STUDIES

United States of America

The First Amendment, which guarantees freedom of speech and press, has been a cornerstone of American value and philosophy. But throughout history and even today, the United States government still censors some media outlets. The idea of "freedom of expression" came about in the John Peter Zenger case of 1734. Zenger published a newspaper that heavily criticized the royal governor of New York and was then taken to jail. His case led the way to the premise of the First Amendment.

While democracy and freedom of expression is the foundation of the American government, this freedom has been threatened multiple times throughout American history. Starting with the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798, writing or publishing materials that criticized the American government can result in up to two years of jail-time. Another set of Sedition Acts were passed then in 1917 to silence opponents of World War I. Similarly, during the American Civil War, the US postmasters prevented slavery abolition propaganda from entering the South. This was a large part of the anti-abolition movement that was launched by the South. In 1940 the Alien Registration Act made it a crime to plot and to discuss the deposing of the United States government. The Alien Registration Act also

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

required non-citizens to register with the government. This act was passed during the Red Scare when the United States government used this law to target many Communist and Fascist leaders residing in America. After World War II, the American government censored many articles describing the working of the atomic bomb. In 1950, thousands of *Scientific American* magazines were destroyed because it discussed thermonuclear fusion. In 1979, *The Progressive* was sued by the United States government for revealing too much about the hydrogen bomb. In terms of broadcasting, the Federal Communications Commission maintains a censored materials list that cannot be broadcasted on public television. Among the list of censored material is swearing; any broadcasts found airing shows that contain swear words is subject to a heavy fine.

People's Republic of China

Despite the role that China plays on the world stage, the Chinese government has kept a tight control on its media to prevent any challenges to its authority. Thousands of dissidents have been arrested for challenging China's censorship; as a result China currently has the largest prison for journalists. China's censorship grabbed headlines again with the controversial awarding of the 2010 Nobel Peace Prize to Liu Xiabo, a dissident that was imprisoned for years for challenging media censorship in China. Many companies such as Google and Yahoo continuously battled the Chinese government, to no avail, for media rights in China.

China's tight control over information flow can be seen in hundreds of government agencies employed to regulate and censor information that does not follow the Communist system. The Chinese government also utilizes many self-censorship methods to discourage citizens from challenging the Chinese censorship laws. For instance, journalists face demotion, dismissal, and prison-time for overstepping reporting boundaries. The tight internet regulation in China has led to the nickname "The Great Firewall of China". Countless websites are blocked and many search engines, such as Google, have to create separate search engines in order to fulfill the Chinese government's requests. In addition, many social media sites and blogging sites are also blocked in fear of condemnation and disturbance against the Chinese government.

Cuba

Perhaps one of the most highly censored countries, the Cuban people have basically no opportunity to access any information outside the government allotted information. Aside from holding the second largest prison for journalists, it is quite rare for Cubans to even have access to the Internet or mobile phones. Media is highly regulated by the Communist Party's *Department of Revolutionary Orientation* and direct communication mediums, such as mail and emails, are read by government workers before being sent to the receiving party.

In terms of Internet communication, denizens cannot access the Internet without a special permit. Once one obtains a permit, all Internet activity is tightly monitored. At Internet cafes, where the majority of Cubans use online services, the rates for Internet browsing are so high that it deters most of the population from ever surfing the web. Even if one can afford the high rates, every user has to provide their personal information before they can access use the computer. If the user tries to search a topic prohibited by the government, the browser will automatically close and a pop-up will alert the user that they've tried to access prohibited information. An alternative to using Internet cafes is to purchase a personal computer. But in Cuba, one cannot purchase a computer without the permission from the government. As a result, only 3.3 out of every 100 citizens own a computer and only 12% of the population have access to Internet. The majority of the population does not interact with computers during their lifetime.

In terms of media, Cubans cannot watch independent or foreign broadcasts. It is also illegal for Cubans to possess or read books, magazines, or newspaper that are not approved by the state. Lyrics to music are reviewed before being released to the public and access to capitalist music, such as jazz and rock, is heavily limited. In addition to media, Cuba also has the lowest subscription rates to mobile phones. Before 2008, mobile phones were banned for personal use.

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

CURRENT STATE OF GLOBAL CENSORSHIP

In 2006, the Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) rounded up the top most censored countries around the world. CPJ based their conclusions on the set of censorship laws, the criteria that all media must follow, the consequences of breaking these laws, the use of violence, and the obstruction of foreign journalists. The following are the top five most censored countries in the world.

North Korea

Their belief in the Confucian social order combined with their Stalinist government ideology makes North Korea the most censored government in the world. All radio, television, and newspaper are controlled by the government and all foreign correspondents are forbidden from entering the country without a formal letter of allowance. Daily, North Korean citizens get countless “Dear Leader” Kim Jong-il propaganda and as a result, Kim Jong-il is hailed as a god-like figure. In addition to pro-government propaganda, North Korea has used their complete media control to misinform their citizens. For instance, the government states that famine and poverty does not exist in North Korea when in actuality, it is a very real and major problem.

Burma

In Burma, the government owns all forms of media except for a few privately owned publications, which must submit all their materials for screening before publication. In 2005, the government extended its authority and gained control of the Internet as well. Anyone listening or watching unauthorized programs online will be sent to jail. Visas to Burma are usually rejected except in the case of special political events. In 1994, Burmese officers and police ransacked Ko Than Htay’s house without any search warrants. Later, when Htay returned home, he was arrested. Htay was not affiliated with any anti-government organizations but as the owner of a publishing company, he did show resistance to the government influence by removing all military emblems from the publications he sold. The cost of this small sign of resistance was 7 years of prison where Htay was tortured and endured many other forms of mistreatment.

Turkmenistan

In Turkmenistan, President Niyazov has created a cult where all his citizens has elevated the president to the status of god. Daily newspaper always features a centerpiece picture of the president on the front page and all major media stations only report on the good that Niyazov has given the country. The news fails to report on any other important issues such as famine, accidents, disease, and crime.

In these countries, the government essentially has complete control over all press and media but in some cases allow a few privately owned news outlets to operate granted that they follow all the regulations. These countries operate under a centralized power, usually in the form of a dictator, which has the final say on everything that is broadcasted to the public. Many times, these governments will abuse their powers and cover up any news that would reflect upon their leadership poorly, such as natural disasters and/or accidents. Ultimately, these lies that the countries produce keep their people unaware of the actual state of matters and as a result, hurt the overall welfare of the country.

THE UNITED NATION AND CENSORSHIP

The United Nations is known for their efforts in maintaining and regulating international human rights observance. An integral part of the human rights is the right to speech and press. When Sudan lifted newspaper censorship, the United Nations applauded the government's efforts for extending free press. Similarly, when the India began monitoring its social network sites, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon criticized India's censorship saying that it prevented public debate and open criticism.

While the United Nations recognized for advocating free press, recently, the United Nations has taken some questionable stances on censorship. In March 2008, the United Nations adopted a resolution proposed by the Organization of the Islamic Conference that banned defamation of religions. This resolution was prompted by the 2006 Danish cartoons that depicted Prophet Mohammed (P.B.U.H.) in an offensive manner. The resolution was opposed by the United States, most European nations, Japan, and many other nations. While the resolution will protect minorities from religious stereotyping, it severely limits

freedom of speech. Opponents of the resolution state that while it's understandable that others should not discriminate based on religious values, the United Nations should not have the right to censor criticisms of religions. Similarly, at the 2009 Internet Governance Forum, a meeting that openly discusses the direction of Internet public policy, a United Nations representative confiscated a poster referencing China's Internet censorship policies. The poster was created by the OpenNet Initiative, a Harvard University group that studies global Internet censorship. When the United Nations officials asked for the poster to be taken down because it was causing a disturbance for another UN member, the OpenNet Initiative refused. This led to the UN officials forcefully removing the poster. Although the United Nations' actions caused unrest among the other UN bodies, the poster was never put back up. Recently, the United Nations' action has led many to question the position that the UN takes on censorship and under what circumstances is censorship warranted.

Links for Topic 1

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/HRC/Pages/HRCIndex.aspx>

http://en.kindernothilfe.org/multimedia/de/KNH/Downloads/Material/Shadow+report+childsoldiers+2007+%28pdf_+845+KB%29.pdf

http://en.kindernothilfe.org/multimedia/de/KNH/Downloads/Fremdsprache_+Englisch/UN_Child+Rights+Convention+%28pdf_+114+KB%29.pdf

http://www.hhri.org/thematic/child_soldiers.html

[Convention on the Rights of the Child](#)

[Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child](#)

[Guide to the optional protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict](#)

[UN resolution 1261](#)

Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention

Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Children - Impact of Armed Conflict on Children

Children and Conflict in a Changing World

Documents – Secretary-General of Children and Armed Conflict

Child Soldiers - Global Report 2008

Child soldiers and Disarmament, Demobilization, Rehabilitation and Reintegration in West Africa

Child Soldiers in the Philippines

War-trauma and PTSD in former child soldiers, connected with openness to reconciliation

Mental States of Adolescents exposed to War in Uganda

When children affected by war go home - Lessons learned from Liberia

The Mental-Health Needs of Child Soldiers in Uganda: A Case Study of Structural Violence

The Psychological Impact of Political Violence on Children

The Voices of Girl Child Soldier

Psychological First Aid Field Operation Guide

Easy Prey: Child Soldiers in Liberia

HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

The Watchlist on Children and Armed Conflict

Child Soldier Relief

War Child International Network

The Child Rights Information Network CRIN

UN's webpage concerning children and armed conflict

<http://www.un.org/children/conflict/english/index.html>

Links for topic 2

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/HRC/Pages/HRCIndex.aspx>

<http://www.hrcr.org/docs/frenchdec.html>

<http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>

<http://www.freedomforum.org/packages/first/curricula/educationforfreedom/L04main.htm>

<http://www.guardian.co.uk/media/2006/feb/05/religion.news>

<http://www.article19.org/>

<http://www.seop.leeds.ac.uk/entries/freedom-speech/#HarPriFreSpe>

<http://www.chinaeclaw.com/english/showCategory.asp?Code=022>

<http://www.aclu.org/free-speech/freedom-expression>