



TOPIC AREA A: THE PROTECTION OF CIVILIANS IN MODERN WARFARE

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In times of war, the boundaries between morality and depravity can be unclear. What is justified in one situation is not necessarily legitimate in another. In the history of modern warfare, targeting civilians has often been considered an effective strategy to catalyze the end of war and thus also ending the further loss of human life in the long-term. For instance, during World War II, the Germans launched the Blitz, a campaign of sustained strategic bombing against the United Kingdom intended to damage infrastructure and morale, killing up to 43,000 civilians and wounding as many as 139,000. The loss of civilian life was viewed as a regrettable, yet acceptable and even inevitable, product of war.

Recognizing the need to protect civilians, after World War II, countries converged to reaffirm and expand the three previously developed Geneva Conventions, treaties instituted in 1864, 1906, and 1929 to formalize the protocol for the treatment of victims of war in international law. Thus, the Fourth Geneva Convention was established in 1949, more clearly defining the rights and protections afforded to all parties affected by war, including civilians. Civilians were defined as "all persons not belonging to the following categories: (a) Members of the regular armed forces or of other corps formed with the object of taking part in active hostilities, together with their auxiliary or complementary organizations; (b) Persons who do not belong to the forces or corps referred to above, but nevertheless take part in active hostilities." The Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Times of War expounded and formalized the traditional immunities guaranteed to civilians in and around war zones. Countries ratified this Convention, albeit to varying degrees. In the same year, the United Nations inaugurated its Declaration of Human Rights, which contributed to the sanctification of the human rights of civilians.

However, in contemporary warfare, war operations continue to undermine civilian safety, often to a greater extent than in the past. While World War II motivated the creation of international treaties protecting civilian rights, it also marked the beginning of the development of modern weaponry that destabilized the principle of noncombatant immunity. Blitzkrieg bombings in both Axis and Allied nations, atomic bombings in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, extermination camps in Nazi territory, and firestorms in Hamburg and Dresden all began a trend of anonymous mass killings of civilians.

In many modern war zones, the status of the civilian has been reduced to a hostage in political and military conflicts whose fate rests in the hands of political leaders and military strategists. "Massive retaliation" and "counterinsurgency" often involve tactics aimed at assaulting civilian populations. With technological advancements in biochemical and other types of warfare, humanitarian law protecting of civilians in warfare is becoming increasingly challenging to enforce. Moreover, violence against civilians has often proven to be counterproductive, as in the War of Afghanistan, during which civilian attacks have instigated outrage and galvanized support for retaliatory armed conflict. In total, approximately 43 million to 54 million noncombatants died from war-related causes in the twentieth century, comprising between 50 and 62 percent of total deaths from warfare.

Attacks on civilians in warfare thus pose a grave moral dilemma that has yet to be addressed, and draw attention to the most important threats to international security in the world today. The committee should work to resolve the security and humanitarian issues generated by civilian attacks. How have technological advancements transformed the

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impact of war on civilians? How should the Geneva Conventions be better enforced to protect the lives of civilians? How can we address international security situations which threaten civilians, given modern warfare tools that facilitate remote attacks on civilians?

These questions should spur discussions and solutions concerning the protection of civilians in armed conflict.

HISTORY OF THE PROBLEM

PRIMITIVE AND ANCIENT WARFARE

The principle of civilian or noncombatant immunity had its origins in early civilizations. While stealing from and killing strangers was considered acceptable to the prehistoric human, since strangers were essentially viewed as enemies threatening his survival, the transformation of hunter-gatherer societies into agricultural societies mitigated the brutality of primitive warfare. As historic man became more adept at maintaining constant food supplies and defensible settlements, he tended to enslave, rather than slaughter, women and children of enemy groups, a humanitarian advance. However, while institutionalized slavery may have spared many victims of war from immediate death, it exploited innocent noncombatants for economic purposes against their will.

As some of the first cities of Western civilization, the Greek polis and the Roman urbs, were created, the need for institutionalized defence systems began to emerge. Thus, an unprecedented distinction between the soldier and the civilian was made. Philosophers, poets, and priests were among those civilians who condemned the mass murder and mistreatment of their ilk in times of war. Greek philosopher Zeno of Citium founded the Stoic school of philosophy, which was centered on the idea of homonoia, or “brotherhood,” which asserted that all men are brothers, for they share reason and thus a common humanity. Meanwhile, Alexander the Great pioneered a practice of accommodating, rather than destroying, the empires that he conquered, as exemplified by his marriage of 10,000 of his Macedonian troops to Persian women in Susa in 324 B.C. These two developments planted the seeds for the theory and practice of noncombatant immunity.

“JUST” MEDIEVAL WARFARE

Serving as a cornerstone of international law governing conduct during war, the notion of “just war” was born out of the writings of St. Augustine, Bishop of Hippo, in the late fourth and early fifth centuries. In his most famous work, *City of God*, which he began writing in 413 A.D., Augustine maintained that a soldier should be allowed to kill only in a just war, that is a conflict intended to reinstall justice with the ultimate objective of peace, as long as the killing itself is not motivated by personal vengeance. These new qualifications on the taking of life in war laid the foundations for the modern definition of the civilian, a noncombatant who is entitled to special protection because of his or her non-responsibility. Gradually, this concept of the civilian came into vogue, making it increasingly taboo to take advantage of unarmed women, children, and aged through slaughter or enslavement.

By the fourteenth century, this restriction on the conduct of war became solidified by Neapolitan secular jurist Lucas de Penna, who, under the influence of Augustinian ethics of war, emphasized that soldiers should not murder, rob, rape, or in any way attempt to hold civilians responsible for a war in which they were not participants. Instead, they should treat civilians as humanely as they would in peacetime, lest they be punished. His influence, along with the pragmatics

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of being unable to afford to fight expansive feudal wars, popularized humanitarian treatment of civilians among medieval polities. While civilians were still vulnerable to pillaging, killing, and other forms of exploitation in times of war, the proliferation of the principle of noncombatant immunity helped to mitigate their plight.

FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN INTERNATIONAL LAW

Recognized as the father of modern international law, seventeenth-century Dutch secular jurist Hugo Grotius played an integral role in secularizing just war theory and popularizing the principle of civilian protection. Influenced by sixteenth-century Spanish jurist Francisco de Vitoria, who stated that “the innocent may not be slain by intent, when it is possible to distinguish them from the guilty,” “the killing of the innocent being forbidden by natural law,” Grotius argued that civilians were innocent persons who should be spared death and abuse in the bidding of mercy and justice. Eighteenth-century Swiss diplomat Emmerich von Vattel expanded upon this tenet, arguing that civilians should be actively protected in practice, not just valued in theory.

At the same time, Europe was entering the intellectual period of the Enlightenment, during which pacifism and noncombatant protection were promoted for ideological, political, social, and technological reasons. Starting from the end of the Thirty Years’ War in 1658 with the ratification of the Peace of Westphalia, European wars for over the next two centuries were fought with relative respect for civilian life. The Peace of Westphalia, which was arrived at by all chief European powers, except for England and Poland, the result of the first modern European congress and arguably the first modern, positive international law.

At the conclusion of one of the first modern wars, the American Civil War, the first military code regulating military conduct was issued in 1863. The code, entitled General Orders, Number 100, Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field, was written by future history and law professor Francis Lieber who was commissioned by Union General H. W. Halleck in 1862. Its influence was felt worldwide. The Prussian government adapted it for its armies during the Franco-Prussian war, as did the English and French regimes soon afterwards. The most notable contribution the code made, however, was its impact on the development of the Hague Conventions.

The Hague Conventions of 1899 held at the behest of Russia’s Tsar Nicholas II, and those of 1907 held at the will of the United States, were ground-breaking treatises in the landscape of civilian protection. They were the first protocols outlining the norms of international warfare created by the world’s major powers. These norms governed all facets of international law such as, the declaration of war, the rights of neutral countries, and, most relevant here, the rights of civilians.

TWENTIETH CENTURY AND BEYOND

Advancements in modern warfare made the twentieth century an extremely bloody one for civilians. According to political science professor Alexander B. Downes, government-sanctioned civilian victimization in twentieth-century warfare fell under three main categories. The first, indiscriminate targeting, included the German “Blitz” on Britain in World War II, US bombing of North Vietnam in the Vietnam War, and Boer and African civilian deaths in concentration camps in the Second Anglo-Boer War. This type of indiscriminate targeting aimed to undermine the morale of enemy nations by systematically bombing or starving

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Cover of General Order Number 100 civilians populations without regard for specific civilian groups. The second, intentional civilian killings, included the British blockade of Germany in World War I, British bombing of Germany and US firebombing of Japan in World War II, and Bulgarian, Greek, Serbian, and Turkish massacres in the Balkan Wars. Intentional civilian killing is similar to indiscriminate civilian killing, but with more selectivity in the civilian groups or regions targeted. The third, collateral damage, included civilian deaths inflicted by US bombing of Iraq in the Persian Gulf War and Serbia in the Kosovo War. Deaths as collateral damage are the unintentional, and often perceived as inevitable, byproducts of war.

After Great Britain and the Boer Republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State went to war on October 11, 1899, the British government instated a policy of containing Boer and native African civilians in concentration camps, resulting in nearly twenty-eight thousand Boer civilian deaths, seventy-nine percent of which were of children under the age of sixteen, and up to forty-six thousand African civilian fatalities, due to overcrowded conditions and scarcities of food and water.

During World War I, the Allied blockade of the Central Powers led to mass malnutrition and disease, in part causing the almost one million deaths among German and Austrian-Hungarian civilians. On March 1, 1915, the British and French governments declared their intention to extend the naval blockade of the Central Powers to restrict their ability to import food for its people. As a result, German civilians in urban centres experienced an average weight loss of twenty percent, fatalities from tuberculosis increased by sixty-eight percent between 1914 and 1917, and malnutrition caused approximately thirty-nine percent of children to acquire rickets.

In World War II, Allied strategic bombing killed 300,000 German civilians and around 900,000 Japanese civilians, which was intended to undermine the morale of the enemy civilian population at the expense of human lives. The U.S. Army Air Forces launched seventy attacks on German urban centres, deliberating targeting areas with high concentrations of civilians. Moreover, under U.S. General Curtis LeMay, commander of Twenty-first Bomber Command based in the Marianas Islands, launched Operation Meetinghouse on March 9, 1945, beginning a ten-day campaign to destroy Japan's four largest cities, Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, and Kobe by firebombing. The raid killed almost eight-eight thousand citizens and left another more than one million homeless in Tokyo alone. In total, the campaign burned out 31.9 square miles. Meanwhile, the Nazis massacred six million Jews and millions of others in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, as well as dropped 54,420 tons of bombs on Britain between September 7, 1940 and May 10, 1941 to demoralize the British civilian population in the Blitz.

The staggering civilian death tolls and suffering during World War II motivated belligerent countries to come together and create the Geneva Conventions, a set of four treaties and three supplementary protocols governing the humanitarian treatment of victims of war, including civilians. The Fourth Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War was integral to setting out ethical treatment of civilians.

Nevertheless, violations of civilian rights persisted. Despite the recognition of the immunity of the civilian population in American military policy in the Vietnam War, the ordinary combat soldier was trained to kill the enemy, without clear instruction on how to deal with civilians. In guerrilla warfare, the average soldier often struggled to determine if he should leave a presumably harmless enemy civilian alone, or should kill said civilian as a preemptive measure in case he or she was a guerrilla. This proliferation of guerilla warfare increased the difficulty of protecting civilians in war, since the

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separation of insurgents from civilians entailed either killing some or all of the civilians, or displacing them from their homes.

Furthermore, civil wars caused numerous civilian deaths worldwide, in countries including Guatemala (1966-85), Nigeria (1967-70), Ethiopia (1974-91), and Angola (1975-2002).

CURRENT SITUATION

While there are already international law and documents, such as the Hague Conventions, the Geneva Conventions, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, that govern the treatment of civilians in warfare, in reality, civilian casualties continue to occur at a high frequency. While killing innocent civilians is widely considered morally wrong, as upheld by the UN Convention of Human Rights, and often even counterproductive, since such a strategy can strengthen the enemy population's desire to fight, civilian victimization, both through killing and other forms of exploitation, continues to plague countries worldwide.

What are the main failings of the current system? That is, what are the reasons for these discrepancies between international law venerating civilian immunity and civilian protection in actual warfare?

The main issue is that the nature of modern warfare often makes it difficult to ensure civilian immunity. As militaries continue to use modern weapons that have the power to obliterate noncombatants as easily as combatants, military necessity continues to be prioritized over civilian immunity. The increasingly popular tactic of using armed unmanned aerial vehicles, or drones, in recent Middle Eastern conflicts has caused civilian casualty rates to increase steadily without international media attention.

The advent of drones came with experimentations with pilotless aircraft in World War I, in hopes of minimizing deaths of military personnel in targeted attacks, often on civilians. Their development continued during World War II and beyond, escalating during the 1980s. As many as fifty countries are currently developing drone technology, such as the United States, Russia, China, India, Pakistan, and Iran. They have been recently used, for instance, by the United States in Iraq, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Yemen, Libya, Somalia, and the Philippines, by the United Kingdom in Afghanistan, and by Israel in Syria, Lebanon, Sudan, and Palestine. In nine years, the United States has expanded its drone fleet thirteen-fold and spends at least US\$5 billion on its drone program each year.

While the United States administration and that of many other countries argue that the collateral damage caused by drone strikes is low, the Bureau of Investigative Journalism in the United Kingdom reported that civilian casualties resulted from about one-fifth of United States CIA counter terrorism drone attacks in Pakistan since the drone war began in Pakistan in 2004, killing anywhere between 386 to 775 civilians. Likewise, according to University of Massachusetts political scientist Avery Plaw, four studies of deaths caused by CIA drones in Pakistan determined that the proportion of civilian deaths were four, six, seventeen, and twenty percent. In conventional military conflicts in the previous two decades, Plaw estimated that the proportion of civilian deaths ranged from approximately thirty-three to eighty percent.

On the other hand, the Bureau of Investigative Journalism found that the proportion of civilian deaths caused by the CIA decreased from twenty-eight percent in 2008 to sixteen percent in 2011 since the use of drones. The ethics of

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drones and other uses of military robots have come under question, with some experts arguing that drones could encourage the killing of civilians by making the process more detached, while others contend that drones in fact bring military operators into more intimate contact with the victims of airstrikes through close video streaming and can be effective when the mission is just.

In any case, robotics has changed the landscape of modern warfare. Whether military necessity makes it acceptable to use drones to reduce the probability of killing civilians in the long term should be discussed. The challenge is for global political leaders who officiate military actions to come together and determine to what extent military necessity should come at the jeopardy of civilian protection. This ongoing struggle should form the basis of the priority of any committee convening to address the issue of civilian rights in war.

Furthermore, the intersection of human rights and humanitarian law with regards to civilian rights in armed conflict remains unclear under the United Nations' multilateral agreement, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). Traditionally, human rights law was upheld in peace, whereas humanitarian law was upheld in war. However, International Court of Justice proceedings, human rights tribunals, scholarly works, and the intricacies of modern warfare have made the distinction between human rights and humanitarian law application unclear.

Exemplifying this issue was a case in Iraq, where a group of British soldiers shot and killed an Iraqi in Basra on 24 March 2003 after the man refused to stop throwing rocks at them while they were guarding a checkpoint, an act for which the British Attorney General did not charge them given that he felt that they were acting in self-defence. As defined by international law and international security associate fellow Charles Garraway, this instance was a classic example of human rights law, yet as a use of force during armed conflict, the soldiers may have needed to be held to a higher legal standard of human rights under humanitarian law. While soldiers have a responsibility to adhere to international laws governing military conduct, it is the responsibility of their respective nations to come together and ensure that these international standards are clearly outlined for soldiers.

Several experts have endorsed the expansion of human rights law to cover more aspects of armed conflict; however, at the same time, humanitarian law was developed with an understanding of the unique practical realities of war. Countries, such as the United States, have reinforced that human rights treaties are not applicable to situations of armed conflict, which fall solely under the jurisdiction of humanitarian law. The potential overlap between human rights and humanitarian law should thus be further explored and clarified, particularly in the context of recent and ongoing wars, such as the War in Afghanistan and in neighbouring Pakistan, factional fighting in Libya, and insurgencies in Yemen.

THE WAR IN AFGHANISTAN

According to the United Nations, thus far, the 2012 Afghan civilian death toll has decreased by 36 percent from the previous year's death toll. Senior United Nations envoy for Afghanistan Jan Kubis reported that 579 civilians were killed from January to April of 2012, compared to 898 in the same period in 2011. However, there continues to be ambiguity over how drone targets are selected or reviewed, and innocent civilians continue to be killed or injured by drone attacks, a consequence that must be further examined.

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FACTIONAL FIGHTING IN LIBYA

Since foreign states became involved in the civil conflict in Libya, drone warfare saw a rise in the region. In April 2011, United States President Obama authorized the use of unmanned Predator drones in Libya to bolster existing NATO air strikes, under the United Nations Security Council resolution that permits air strikes to protect the overall civilian population. Whether the use of drones against civilians could count as justified under this resolution should be determined.

INSURGENCIES IN YEMEN

The United States drone doctrine in Yemen has minimized the overall casualty rates and contributed to the decrease in and, in some regions, complete elimination of deaths caused by friendly fire. Nevertheless, it cannot be overlooked that along with the 132 militants killed in Yemen in 2012 alone, in part due to the use of drones, the United States drone policy has also killed over 300 civilians in Yemen, Afghanistan, and Pakistan combined as of June 2012. The benefits of using drones to reduce casualties, at the risk of collateral damage, should be explored.

The three principal international documents relating to the humanitarian treatment of civilians during modern warfare are the Hague Conventions (First Hague Convention, 1899; Second Hague Convention, 1907), the Geneva Conventions (Fourth Geneva Convention, 1949), and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966).

The Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907 were spearheaded before the formation of the United Nations in 1945. These conventions were among the first formal treaties outlining laws of war in the framework of secular international law. Among its subjects was the treatment of civilians. The first Hague conference was proposed by Russian Tsar Nicholas II in 1898 and held in 1899. The resulting First Hague Convention dealt with such topics as the peaceful settlement of international disputes, the laws and customs of war on land, and the prohibition of specific modern technologies such as projectiles and explosives launched from balloons and chemical warfare. This was followed by the Second Hague Convention in 1907 at the suggestion of President Theodore Roosevelt, further elaborating on the law and customs of war on land and related issues of warfare.

Whereas the Hague Conventions pertained primarily to the use of weaponry in warfare, the Geneva Conventions created under the United Nations focused on the impact of war on people. In particular, the Fourth Geneva Convention of 1949 delineated the terms for protecting civilians in times of war, according to their nationality and geographical location. As civilians' lives get more dangerous, because of the enemy's military control, legal protections for civilians increase as well. For instance, civilian located in their nation's territory occupied by the enemy military and subject to internment are given the most protection. This ranked system of protection is unique to humanitarian law, a system that cannot be found under human rights law.

Under the Geneva Conventions, acts of violence against the civilian population are strictly forbidden. Expanding upon the Articles 26 and 27 relating to sieges and bombardments of towns in the Second Hague Conventions of 1907, the Geneva Conventions dictate that militaries should take all precautions necessary to avoid harming civilians in military operations. Violating these rules would result in punishment in the spirit of the Geneva Conventions.

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Although relating more to times of peace than directly to war conduct, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) of 1966 was a significant international treaty adopted by the United Nations affirmed the rights of civilians, such as their rights to life (under Article 6) and security (under Article 9). In this way, the ICCPR formed an integral component of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and the International Bill of Human Rights.

PROPOSED SOLUTIONS

As described above, the question of the effective protection of civilians in modern warfare can be broken down into numerous subsidiary issues. The flaws of the current system of enforcing international law to protect civilians in armed conflict relate primarily to the difficulties of enforcement, especially given the ever-evolving body of war weapons and the varying types of warfare, from multilateral guerrilla wars to charged civil wars. The increased use of drones, and the dilemma of balancing military necessity and noncombatant immunity, has been a growing concern that should be addressed.

Moreover, there is an increasing challenge to reconciling human rights and humanitarian law in times of war, when human rights law is deviating from its original aim to define the maintenance of human rights exclusively in times of peace. Therefore, proposed solutions should centre on both the issues outlined above, focusing on improving the enforcement and, where necessary, expansion of existing international law relating to the humanitarian treatment of civilians in war. These solutions should take into account the diverse and constantly changing landscape of modern warfare.

BLOC POSITIONS

Bloc positions have not played a significant role in the formation of international frameworks for protecting civilians in warfare. Nevertheless, there have been divisions over specific humanitarian questions, most notably the legitimacy of drone warfare. While currently only eleven countries, the United States, the United Kingdom, Israel, Iran, Russia, India, France, Germany, Italy, China, and Turkey, have established national drone programs using a combined total of fifty-six types of drones, several other nations have voiced their opposition against drone warfare. For example, the government of Pakistan, which has been subjected to numerous drone strikes in recent years, has publicly condemned these drone attacks, though Pakistan's Army Chief Ashfaq Parvez Kayani allegedly requested Americans to increase drone strikes in 2008. Debates among different countries, those possessing or interested in possessing and those not possessing or condemning drones, should be examined. Other debates over conduct in war should also be explored.

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TOPIC AREA B: MEASURES TO PROTECT AND PROMOTE THE RIGHTS OF CHILDREN LIVING AND WORKING ON THE STREETS

INTRODUCTION

Since the universal declaration of human rights, over sixty-years ago, many things in the world have changed for the better. However some things are still to be changed or improved. This is why the nations of today's world are all working together to help improve lives; not only ours, but also the lives of future generations and especially the lives of children.

The exact number of street children is almost impossible to quantify, but it is likely to number in the tens of millions or higher, some estimates place the figure as high as 100 million. It is likely that the numbers are increasing as the global population grows and as urbanization continues apace: 6 out of 10 urban dwellers were expected to be children less than 18 years of age by the year of 2005. Children living on the streets often live from begging, prostitution or stealing, and have no shelter but are sleeping on streets or in market places. Many street children live in awful circumstances and are being abused. They are often prosecuted by the police and imprisoned.

Ms. Maala M'jid (UN Human Rights Council) made on 9 march 2011 a distinction between a street child and a child in the street; the street child is living in the street all the time, while the child in the streets keeps in some way of contact with his or her family at home.

In this research report, delegates of the Human Rights Commission will be informed in detail about the issue of: "Measures to protect and promote the rights of children living and working on the streets" while also gaining other essential background information regarding the subject of children who are working and/or living on the street.

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Street children

Street children are children who are defined as much (a) because of abuse, poverty, neglect, community upheaval or any other reason they have left their homes, family or community and are now working, begging and/or living on

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the streets, or (b) because of inadequate care, are now working and begging on the streets but are returning home, often every day, after night.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948. It outlines the basic rights for all humans such as the rights to life, liberty, equality, justice, education and security. While it does not contain any legally binding clauses that have to be embraced by all member states, it has long been recognized as a fundamental foundation of the international human rights laws.

The Declaration of the Rights of the Child

The declaration of the Rights of the Child was adopted by the General Assembly on 20 November 1989. On September 2, 1990 it became international law. The Convention consists of 54 articles that address the basic human rights children are entitled to, such as but not limited to: the right to survival, to develop to the fullest, to be protected from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation, and to participate fully in a family, cultural and social life.

International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights

The International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights is a treaty adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 16, 1966. It commits all signatories to work towards granting social, economic, and cultural rights to individuals. Such rights include the right to education, the right to health, and the right to a normal standard of living.

LEDCs and MEDCs

These are terms used to describe a country's level of development. The criteria for such a classification is debatable, but a generalization is usually made on the basis of a metric such as the Human Development Index. Less economically developed countries (LEDCs) are ones with a low human development index rating while more economically developed countries have a high rating.

NGO

NGO is an abbreviation of the definition 'None-Governmental-Organization'. A NGO is a legally constituted organization created by a group of persons who operate independently from any government. In cases in which a NGO is funded partially or totally by any government, the NGO maintains its status as a non-governmental organ by excluding government representatives from membership in the organization itself. Examples of NGOs are for example UNICEF, Greenpeace, IMF and FAO.

GENERAL OVERVIEW

As stated in the introduction the number of street children is almost impossible to count. The number of children living on the streets has increased over the past years.

Article 9 of the declaration of the rights of the child states:

"The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic, in any form. The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or

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education, or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.”

There are no official signatories of the declaration and it is not legally binding to any state, however, the General Assembly has agreed that the declaration "constitutes an obligation" for the members of the "international community" to protect and preserve the rights of its citizenry. It is a child's right to be protected against such things as neglect, cruelty and exploitation.

ISSUE

Street children are a large concern in today's world, these children living and/or working on the streets are not being looked after and do not get the specific, if any, care they need. Far worse is the fact that many of these children are being abused and some even killed, and that there is no one to protect them, even if it is their right, since they 'belong' to no one. Street children and children living on the streets have rights, like any other child, however these rights are often ignored because of the lack of a responsible parent or care taker.

Street children are also easy targets. They are young, small, poor, not aware of their rights and often have no family members or care takers who will protect them. It does not require much time or effort to, for example, detain and beat a child to extract a confession, and the children are unlikely to register formal complaints.

DAILY LIFE OF A CHILD LIVING ON THE STREETS

The life of a street child or a child that is living on the streets is a tough life. The children's ages vary from ages 5 to 17. Living on the street is a very difficult life for every other person, however for a child in that age category, to live and probably work on the street is even tougher. They have to take care of everything themselves and there is no certainty of having the luxury of eating every day. They do not possess the strength and knowledge to create a better life for themselves, because they are simply too young.

To ensure themselves of nutrition on a regular basis many of them start begging for food or steal. Labour is in most cases is illegal and therefore assigned to a naïve child, that is not able to oversee of working in an illegal environment. Particularly, if the child is a girl, many of them will turn to become a prostitute, since it is a job many are willing to pay for.

As mentioned before, most of the things children do for food or shelter, such as the prostitution, are illegal. This means that they can easily be prosecuted by the police and imprisoned, again without anyone coming to their defence.

MAJOR RISK TO NATIONS

Street children are a risk to nations. Since there is an increasing number of children who start living on the streets, and hence do not attend school this way, causes this particular group not to receive any form of education whatsoever. This means that these children will not learn how to live 'normal' lives, function normal in today's society, and go to work or have a (legal) job. Therefore they will not - in a further stage of their lives - be able to help 'building and innovating' their country, pay taxes, and pass down information to the next generation. For every

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nation this means a loss of knowledge and workforce, and is therefore a risk.

VICTIMS

The victims in this situation are the children. The figure of street children might be as high as 100 million worldwide. Most of the street children come from families who live in poverty, they do not have the money to take care of their children and therefore abandon them, neglect, or in some cases, even abuse them. These children have an absolute uncertainty of a happy and healthy life, they do not have a bright and clear future ahead of them, because of the circumstances they were born in, they are helpless and do not acquire the resources to ask or cry for help.

MAJOR COUNTRIES AND ORGANIZATIONS INVOLVED

UNESCO

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is an United Nations organization, founded 16 November 1945. One of the goals of UNESCO is giving education.

“For the millions of children worldwide who live on the streets, education is the most effective method of reintegration into society”, according to the organization. UNESCO’s work in this field has the two-fold objective of developing basic education for street children and of preventing children from ending up on the streets.

UNICEF

The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, is an organization of the UN founded after World War II, in 1946. UNICEF is very active in areas of armed conflict and helps those people who are in need. Some things UNICEF does are: providing food, clothing and health care to those who need it. UNICEF aims to help all children who are living and or working on the streets and provide them with adequate care and education.

UNCRC

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, is the most internationally accepted convention on human rights as it has been ratified by all but two countries in the world: Somalia and the United States. The UNCRC defines children as human beings who have their own rights. It also offers a vision of the child as an individual as well as a member of a family and community; with their own rights and responsibilities.

UNODC

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, is a global leader in the fight against drugs, international crime and terrorism. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime was set up in 1997, combining the United Nations Centre for International Crime Prevention and the United Nations International Drug Control Program. Now they also have put their interest in the wellbeing of children who work and/or live on the street. They want to help the children through education, and protect them from drug use and sexual transmittable diseases such as HIV/AIDS.

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TIMELINE OF EVENTS

<i>Date</i>	<i>Event</i>
December 10, 1948	Universal Declaration of Human Rights was accepted by the General Assembly
December 10, 1959	Universal Declaration of the right of the Child was accepted by the General Assembly, and recognizes the right to be protected against cruel acts or exploitation and is not obliged to do work, in article 9.
December 16, 1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly.
December, 1982	Child Survival and Development Revolution - The 'revolution' is based on four simple, low-cost techniques: growth monitoring, oral rehydration therapy, breastfeeding and immunization and was created by UNICEF. Their goal was to save the lives of millions of children each year.
December, 1982	Child Survival and Development Revolution - The 'revolution' is based on four simple, low-cost techniques: growth monitoring, oral rehydration therapy, breastfeeding and immunization and was created by UNICEF. Their goal was to save the lives of millions of children each year.
November 20, 1989	Youth Justice Coalition produced report " <i>Kids in Justice: a blueprint for the 90s</i> " with over 200 recommendations relating to the failure to address social and economic dimensions of juvenile crime; inadequate legal frameworks, and high level of violence and abuse from police officers.
1990	Youth Justice Coalition produced report " <i>Kids in Justice: a blueprint for the 90s</i> " with over 200 recommendations relating to the failure to address social and economic dimensions of juvenile crime; inadequate legal frameworks, and high level of violence and abuse from police officers.
1990	UN released <i>Minimum Rules for Non-Custodial Measures</i> (Tokyo Rules).
1990	UN released <i>Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency</i> (Riyadh Guidelines).
1990	UN released <i>Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency</i> (Riyadh Guidelines).
1990	UN released <i>Rules for the Protection of Children Deprived of their Liberty</i> .
1998	United Nations Security Council debates on children and conflict.
1998	United Nations Security Council debates on children and conflict.
2009	The APPG (All Party Parliamentary Groups) on Street Children exist to "work to protect the rights of children worldwide and to raise the various issues they face, particularly the ones street children face."
2010	Child Protection and the MDGs - Every child report 'Protect for the Future', In a new report charities, including CSC, are calling on to various world leaders to put the right to care and protection alongside the right to survival, health and education in an effort to

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	improve the lives of millions of street children worldwide.
2011	Roundtable discussion for Ambassadors, A roundtable discussion for Ambassadors to reflect on the outcomes of the United Nations Human Rights Council debate and follow up from the resolution.
March 2011	UN resolution on the rights of children who work and/or live on the street.

RELEVANT UN TREATIES AND EVENTS

- Plight of street children – Resolution, 18/December/1992, **(A/RES/47/126)**
- The plight of street children –improved resolution of the one from 1992, 23/December/1994, **(A/RES/49/212)**
- Rights of the child – Resolution adopted by Human Rights Counsel, 18/April/2011, **(A/HRC/RES/16/12)**
- Summary of the full-day meeting on the rights of the child: Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 12/May/2011 **(A/HRC/17/46)**
- A day of general discussion within the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child was held in *September 2000*, focusing on 'State Violence against Children'.
- In *September 2005*, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child held another day of general discussion, articulating strategy for helping 'Children without Parental Care'.

PREVIOUS ATTEMPTS TO SOLVE THE ISSUE

Street children have just recently become a point of attention in our world, and every country or nation handles the issue differently. Although there are two fine UN resolutions, there has not yet been done a lot about the issue, the process of coming to a permanent solution of the problem is still in progress.

SOCIAL PROGRAMS AND SHELTERS

There are some small programs and projects regarding street children, and their families. These programs make sure children get at least the basic health care, food, shelter and some education they need. The programs ensure appropriate care and protection for those children who work and/or live on the streets without any parental contact or supervision, such as including through measures to support their sustainable reintegration into their family and

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community and, when family reintegration is not possible appropriate, they will through a case-by-case approach provide alternative care that is appropriate and in the best interests of the child.

Though these programs and projects are a great way to help children, it is not enough. These programs are very expensive, and need good and experienced people to work with the children. So far there are not many programs like this, simply because of a lack of money, and the right people to lead such a project. Besides the lack of money the fact that programs like these are on a very small basis is a pity, though small projects are helping children they hardly help reducing the number of children who work and/or live on the street.

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

As mentioned before in the report, human poverty is one of the foremost causes that drive children to the streets. Therefore funding and poverty reduction seem to be the logical steps to be taken, to solve this issue. Though the necessity of funding and poverty reduction programs through ecologically sustainable means is rather large, it might not be the perfect solution. Only tackling the problem of human poverty and how to resolve it will prove to be insufficient; families of children who work and/or live on the street might use the money they get for themselves and still send out their children to the streets, to work and bring in more money; but mostly because of the fact that this is a multi-faceted and multi-layered problem, seeing as reasons of street children also vary from poverty to abuse or simply the lacking of parental supervision.

However, referring to the financial issue, a possible solution would be to create a system that provides families a more financially independent position. A decent step to ensure this might be micro financing. Depending on the country in which these families and children live they can go to a bank or a microcredit organization. Through loans with low interest rates, people and the parents of street children, who live in poverty and bad circumstances can have the chance to found their own businesses and thus, would refrain from sending their children to the streets, and would refrain children from running away from home, because this would become a nicer place.

Furthermore, sufficient data on street children and children who are working on the streets, which often lacks or is not complete in many countries, is needed. More information on children who work and/or live on the street helps plan efficient legislations, projects, and programs since it helps us learn which areas need more focus and which strategies work better for different regions, situations and countries. Surveys conducted should be uniform for all countries so that consistent and comparable data can be collected and exchanged between countries.

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TOPIC C: Development of sustainable tourism

Introduction

Nowadays global economists predict that there is a continuing increase international tourism.

Depending on the location the growth of tourism ranges between 3 and 6% annually. Tourism used to be a luxury that only the mega-rich could afford, as the world continues to develop, the amount of people travelling will continue to increase astronomically. In 2011, for instance, 983 million people travelled internationally. While this is extremely positive for the slumping global economy, it is also potentially

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disastrous to the environment. Since most hotels and businesses are primarily concerned with short-term profit margins and not with long-term sustainability, tourism is one of the primary causes of the destruction of our habitat.

Out of the three sectors of industry, tourism is classified as a service industry. As tourism develops in a country it will supply jobs; in numerous LEDCs (Less Economically Developed Countries), tourism can regularly turn out to be the major employer and supply of income. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), Travel & Tourism supports 255 million jobs and generates 9% of global GDP. Not only does tourism create jobs in the tertiary sector, but also it makes use of the multiplier effect and it helps promote growth in the primary and secondary sectors of industry. Tourism is one of the fastest growing and largest industries and the nonstop growth will result in an inordinate stress on the remaining biologically varied habitations and indigenous principles, which are frequently used in order to support tourism. It is one of the most potentially damaging industries ecologically. For instance, the average luxury hotel room uses 1800 litres of water per person per night. To put this into context, a village of 700 people uses 500 litres per month.

Tourists, who encourage sustainable tourism, are often sensitive to these threats and so they look for a method to protect tourist destinations, in addition to protecting tourism as an industry. The impact of tourism can be reduced by sustainable tourists by notifying themselves of the economy, politics, and culture of the societies visited. Also the sustainable tourists foresee and value local expectations, assumptions and cultures as well as contributing to intercultural perception and patience. The sustainable tourists also support the honesty of the local customs by supporting businesses that preserve the cultural tradition and habitual principles. It has also been seen that the sustainable tourists conserve resources by looking for businesses that are environmentally cognizant, and by using the smallest amount possible of non-renewable resources.

Gradually, more destinations and tourism businesses are supporting and following a responsible tourism as a way towards sustainable tourism. Sustainable tourism and responsible tourism have an identical goal which is sustainable development. So the supports for responsible tourism are the same as the supports of sustainable tourism which are social justice, environmental integrity and economic development. The chief distinction between the two is that in responsible tourism organizations, businesses, and individuals are asked to take responsibility for their actions and the impacts of their actions. This weighted modification has taken place due to various stakeholders make inadequate progress towards realizing that sustainable tourism has been made since the Earth Summit in Rio. This is to a degree as everyone has been expectant others to perform in a sustainable manner. The importance on responsibility in responsible tourism means that everyone involved in tourism such as government, product owners and operators, transport operators, community services, NGOs and CBOs, tourists, local communities, and industry associations are liable for attaining the goals of responsible tourism.

Definition of Key Terms

Sustainable tourism

The development of a region's tourism industry in such a way as to not damage or deplete the resources and attractions that makes the region attractive to tourists.

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Development

The process of economic and social transformation that is based on complex cultural and environmental factors and their interactions.

Domestic tourism

Visit by a resident to another place in his or her own country.

Inbound tourism

Visit to a certain country by non-residents of that country.

Outbound tourism

Residents of a certain country visiting destinations in another country

Attractions

A pull factor that draws tourists to an area. It can be natural or man-made.

Amenities

Something that conduces comfort, enjoyment, or convenience. For example, accommodation and food.

Money spinner

A project that generates a continuous flow of money.

LEDC (Less Economically Developed Countries)

A country with low levels of economic development is known as a LEDC. Indicators of lack of development include high birth, death, and infant mortality rates, 50% and over of the workforce in agriculture industries, low literacy rates, GDP per capita below \$1000, low levels of nutrition and low level of electricity consumption per head.

Multiplier effect

The extension of the monetary supply of a country as an outcome from banks being able to loan.

The magnitude of the multiplier effect depends on the proportion of deposits that banks are required to hold as insurance. So it is the money used to generate more money and is calculated by dividing total bank deposits by the reserve requirement.

Ecosystem

An ecosystem is an organic atmosphere containing all the organisms living in a particular area in addition to all the physical and a-biotic constituents of the atmosphere with which the organisms act together, such as soil, air, sunlight and water.

Westernisation

Westernisation refers to the process when societies adopt the Western culture in terms of technology, lifestyle, industry, religion, diet, philosophy, law, language or values. It has been speeding up influence across the world in the last century. The negative aspect of Westernisation is that the native culture is destroyed, adapted, modified, and/or dominated.



Background information

Key issues due to tourism that can be solved with the development of sustainable tourism

Social issues

The communications between visitor and host are complicated and so may involve pressure and amendments for both people and communities that will increase as demand for tourist provision and amenities increase. At least, the presence of visitors means the hosts encounter someone from a different place. For countries in the developed world this can be a considerable shock. In less developed countries the shock can lead to a threat. Friction will occur when large numbers of tourists with an entirely different classification of values arrive and then commence behaving in a method that is offensive to the host country. By doing so these tourists risk arrest and imprisonment. In addition, there will be problems regarding drunkenness, increased crime, drug taking and rudeness. These overwhelm many of the larger resorts in Europe, North America and Australia. Many societies could come to a decision that they were better off before the visitors arrived.

The development of tourism on a specific country could mean more jobs for the residents but it can also take away the jobs the locals already had. For example, the development of tourism on Zanzibar was small scale but currently the tourism industry is developing rapidly. For the population of Zanzibar that live s mainly on the coast, the development of tourism will mean a loss of fishing stocks as well as access to the beach area as a resource. In 1990 the east coast of Zanzibar there were no hotels and so no more than several small fishing communities lived by the coast. By 1997 however, there were 80 hotels, many of which had guaranteed admittance to the shore. The tourists and their free time activities, such as surfing and snorkelling, came ahead of the access for the local society to earn a living. This therefore, would leave the locals in a worse stage before the tourist industry was set up.

Gender issues

Since tourism is an activity that involves both men and women, there is unavoidably a gender perspective to tourism as participants and providers. The holiday brochures featuring beachwear females to sell their location strengthen the typecast of the female as a sex representation whilst it is suggested that numerous heritage sites encourage the perception of the male as a dominant aggressor. The reality is generally one of completion of the traditional roles available to their gender intended for the people working in tourism. It is also evident that most surveys of tourist employment show that women are more likely to be engaged in part-time, low-paid, and part-time work. On the other hand men are found in the professional roles. In Cornwall, there were surveys that showed that most worker in hotels were women, with one child or more, in addition to happy to be able to work part-time hours as a waitress or receptionist. In many LEDCs it is strongly considered that tourism created a damaging effect on traditional values. Areas close to North America, such as Barbados and the West Indies, are aware of the fact that the arrival of vast numbers of single men and women looking for casual sexual encounters has led to a damaged courtship and marital patterns of the local population. Also due to the casual sexual encounters, there has been a spread of AIDs all the way through these holiday islands which is a growing problem. Furthermore, the guests have initiated riotous beliefs that are counter to traditional values.

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Community issues

Tourism as an industry takes costs as well as benefits to the area in to which it is presented. Some costs or benefits are directly noticeable whilst some costs or benefits are less obvious. The attitude of the host population which can vary from hostility to kindness, determines the quality of the holiday for a tourist. So this is why many political authorities such governments or town councils and city halls enthusiastically stimulate tourism as a 'money-spinner'. A considerable number of people living in an area attractive to tourists gain financially, but this can lead to the political authorities stimulating tourism rather than caring for the locals and dispute can occur between the locals and the political authorities.

Economic issues

Economic issues arise because the tourism resorts are frequently owned by large Western companies and most of the time the profits earned from tourism goes directly into the bank accounts of these companies. Moreover, the well-paid managerial positions are often held by foreigners, and the wages given to local hotel employees are usually very low. By purchasing souvenirs, food and other goods from local people it is possible to help spread the benefits of tourism but most of the time tourism results in very little money entering the local economy and only benefits the higher ranked foreigners from the Western companies. Also it is possible for a country to become too reliable on tourism and if there is a change in taste of the consumers or a natural disaster hits the country, the country will have a hard time to re-establish the economically active areas.

Environmental issues

One of the biggest problems of tourism is the environmental problems caused by the tourists. Each tourist has an impact on the places he or she visits. Tourists can destroy what they value the most, through littering, graffiti and vandalism. Merely the absolute number of tourists in a beautiful area can be a form of pollution. The accommodation, transportation and litter products will additionally degrade the environment and devastate it for others, both for the present and the future.

Cultural issues

The result of commercialisation could lead to pseudo-cultural activities to entertain tourists. This may perhaps cause the disappearance or the dilution of the native traditions in an area. Furthermore, mass tourism could generate antagonism from local population who are apprehensive for traditional values. Good examples of these traditional values include religion and clothing. Finally, tourism may bring a westernisation of culture, food and drink such as Coca Cola and McDonalds.

Major Countries and Organizations Involved

UNDP (United Nations Development Programme)

As the United Nations' global development system, the UNDP supports amendments and connects countries to information, understanding, and resources in order to assist people construct a better life. In addition, the UNDP works worldwide to aid countries achieve the Millennium Development Goals. One of the goals of the UNDP is 'Protecting the environment'. The UNDP have their country teams in 135 developing countries and they hope to fortify national ability to deal with the environment in a sustainable method to press forward poverty reduction efforts.

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EU (European Union)

Through ECHO (European Commission's Directorate-General for Humanitarian Aid), the EU has guaranteed its help for various sustainable aid agendas by providing funding. As one of the world's major donors, the EU actively supports sustainable tourism and continuously aids countries in difficulties.

NORAD (Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation)

The Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation has its task to certify efficient and successful foreign aid in addition to quality declaration and evaluation. Another aim of the NORAD is to authorize recipient countries to attain their own development goals.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization)

The UNWTO is most important global organization in the field of tourism in addition it is also a focused organization in the United Nations. It serves as an international forum for tourism policy issues and a sensible source of tourism knowledge. The UNWTO has a decisive and central role in encouraging the development of a universally accessible, sustainable, and accountable tourism by paying thorough attentions to the interests of developing countries.

Relevant UN Treaties and Events

- Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, 20 December 2010 (A/RES/65/148)
- Promotion of ecotourism for poverty eradication and environment protection, 20 December 2010 (A/RES/65/173)
- Establishment of an intergovernmental tourism organization, 05 December 1969 (A/RES/2529)
- Co-operation between the United Nations and the World Tourism Organisation, 14 December 1971 (A/RES/2802)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1977 (A/RES/32/157)
- Agreement on Co-operation and Relationships between the United Nations and the World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1977 (A/RES/32/156)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1978 (A/RES/33/122)
- World Tourism Organization, 14 December 1979 (A/RES/34/134)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 November 1981 (A/RES/36/41)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1983 (A/RES/38/146)
- World Tourism Organization, 17 December 1985 (A/RES/40/172)
- World Tourism Organization, 11 December 1987 (A/RES/42/167)
- International Year of Ecotourism 2002, 15 December 1998 (A/RES/53/200)
- Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, 21 December 2001 (A/RES/56/212)
- Agreement between the United Nations and the World Tourism Organization, 23 December 2003 (A/RES/58/232)
- Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, 22 December 2005 (A/RES/60/190)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1978 (A/RES/33/122)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1978 (A/RES/33/122)
- World Tourism Organization, 19 December 1978 (A/RES/33/122)

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- **1990:** The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) is established, whose aim includes promoting sustainable tourism
- **1998:** The General Assembly declares 2002 as the International Year of Ecotourism in resolution A/RES/53/200
- **1999:** The United Nations adopts the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (GCET); Article 3 of which discusses sustainable tourism
- **2001:** The UN Division for Sustainable Development (DSD) reviews the issue of sustainable tourism
- **2002:** The World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg takes place, addressing sustainable tourism in Chapter IV, paragraph 43
- **2004:** The World Committee on Tourism Ethics is established, whose goal is to evaluate, promote and monitor the practice of the GCET worldwide

Previous Attempts to solve the Issue

The development of a sustainable tourism is gradually in the process of being established and becoming more known to the global world. It has been recent years that countries start to care more for the tourist sites and so there are not a lot of previous attempts that have successfully solved this issue.

The example of a previous attempt to solve this issue would be the sustainable tourism in Maldives.

The tourism in Maldives has developed rapidly since the building of the first resort in 1972. In 1970 President Gayoom explored plans and schemes to develop tourism as a sustainable and practicable industry. The majority of the local people were consulted about these schemes and because of this the impact of tourism in the Maldives did not have the effect that it had in other LEDCs such as Peru and Zanzibar. Guidelines were laid down which had to be fulfilled before any resort could be built. As a result Maldives was able to ensure sustainable development in comparison to other LEDCs.

However, the Guidelines laid by the governments were only possible to be met because Maldives was classified as the world's 29 least developed countries by the UN in 1990. Therefore, there has been much aid given to the islands in order to help them achieve sustainable tourism. The islands have also been given continuous aid by EU (European Union) and individual countries like Norway and Japan.

From 1981, the islands have received \$3.75 million in aid from the EU. This additional fund allowed Maldives to develop a sustainable tourism but also contributed for the improvements in other industries such as fishing. Without the funding however, the Maldives would not have had the framework to successfully carry out the Guidelines set by the President Gayoom and thus shows a funding NGO is necessary in order to develop a sustainable tourism.

Possible Solutions

Sustainable tourism is basically about making a positive difference to the people and environment of destinations travelled by tourists. In order to effectively carry out sustainable tourism, an effort from both stakeholders are required. The tourists can do the following in order to develop sustainable tourism. Firstly they should respect the local cultures and the natural environment. Disputes are not necessary when the

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locals are respected. Secondly, the tourists need to become acquainted with the fact that water and energy are valuable resources that have to be used carefully and in calculated amounts. Also helping out with the protection of endangered wildlife as well as helping to preserve the cultural and natural tradition of the places that are visited would add to the development of sustainable tourism. Thirdly, the tourists can look after and improve favourite destinations for the future enjoyment of tourists and local residents. This will allow a closer relationship between the tourists and the locals which can result in the future tourists receiving more warmth and hospitality by the local residents. Finally buying domestically produced souvenirs or locally made souvenirs will help the locals economically.

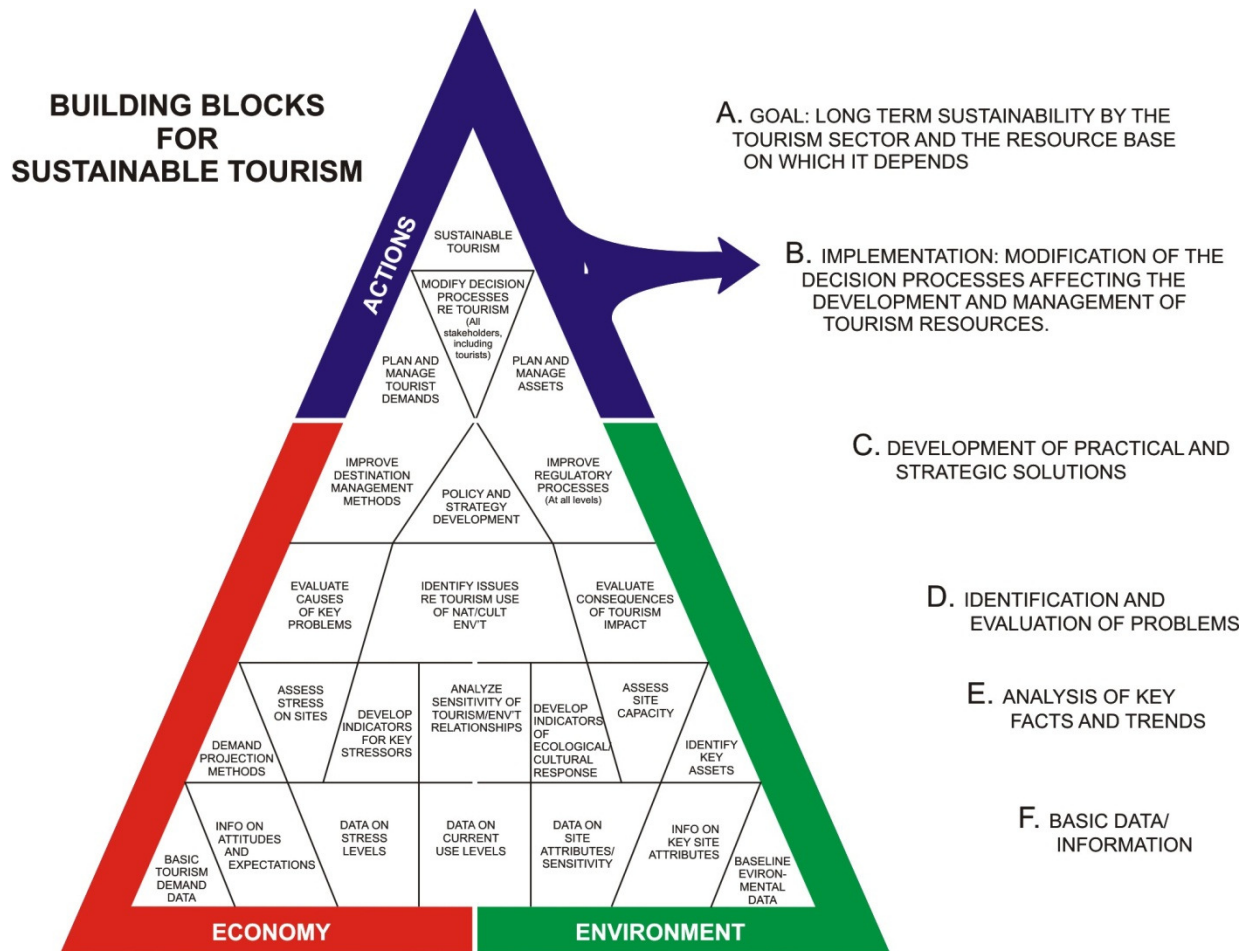
The holidaymakers and the government of a holiday destination can do the following in order to develop a sustainable tourism. They can promote eating at local bars and cafes to the locals. This will help the locals receive a higher income. Secondly, the holidaymakers can go on expeditions that employ local drivers and guide rather than employing a foreign guide. Thirdly, the use of more transportation such as bicycles and public transport which will create less carbon dioxide emission and create less pollution. Holiday resorts should have incinerators to deal with non-biodegradable waste and so the government could provide funding for incinerators. In addition many resorts are now recycling water for use in gardens which will put less stress on finding fresh water. Solar hot water systems should be constructed in any areas where the resources for producing electricity are in short supply.

With the rising question over climate change, and the urge to decrease carbon emissions, sustainable tourism allows the tourists to have an opportunity to make an optimistic distinction at any time they travel. By carrying out simple acts, it is achievable to defend the natural environment and give the maximum advantage to the communities who live in the places that are frequently visited by tourists.

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Other possible solutions are outlined in the chart below:



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<http://ethics.unwto.org/en/content/global-code-ethics-tourism>

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The homepage of the World Travel and Tourism Council:
<http://www.wttc.org/>