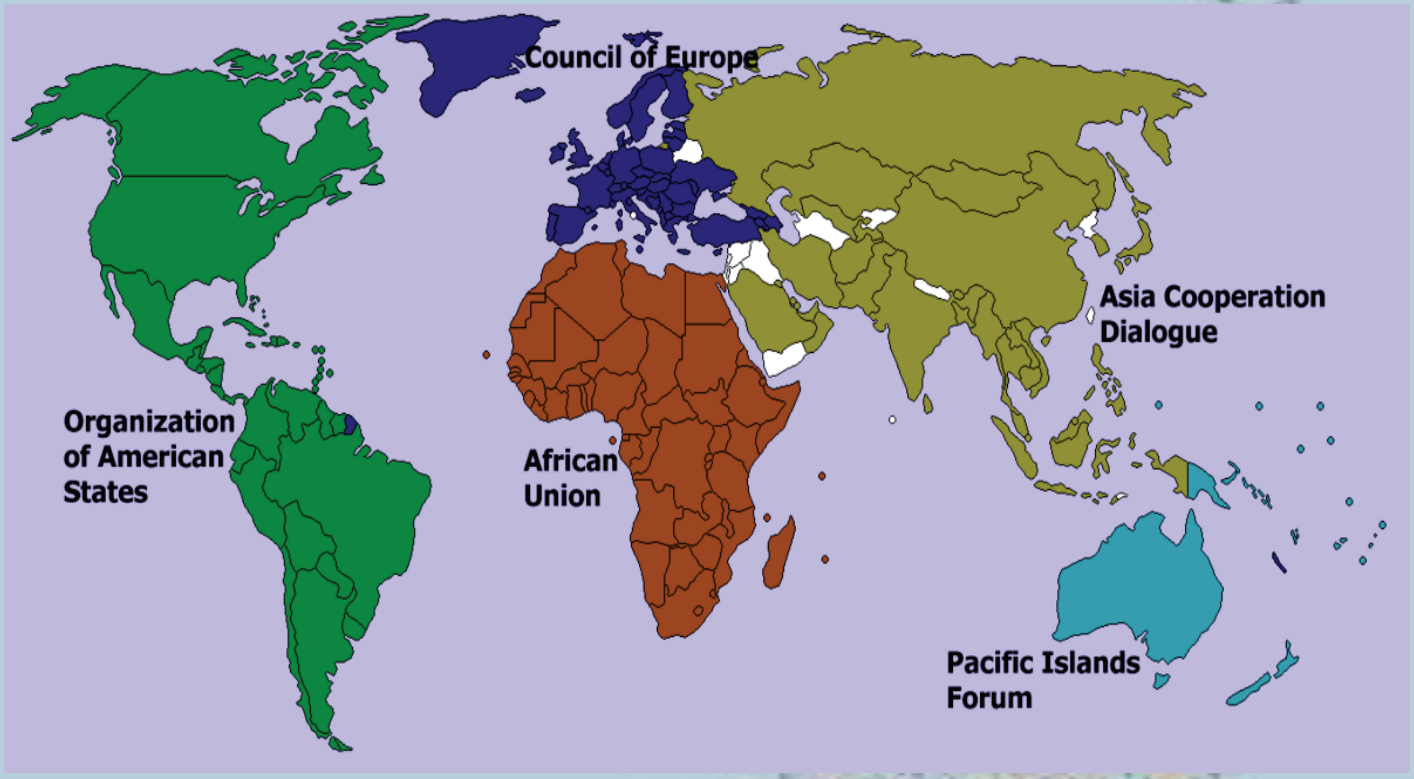
INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Level: BS

Course Code: 9579



Department of Politics and International Relations
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Study Guide

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PREFACE

This study guide, International and Regional Organizations, has been developed with the aim of supporting undergraduate students pursuing studies in International Relations, Political Science, and related fields. It provides a comprehensive overview of the institutional frameworks through which states cooperate, resolve conflicts, and address global challenges. By examining both regional groupings and global organizations, this volume equips students with the historical and theoretical grounding necessary to understand institutionalized cooperation in world politics.

The modern era has witnessed the rapid growth of international and regional organizations such as the United Nations, European Union, African Union, ASEAN, and others. These institutions embody the evolving principles of multilateralism, collective security, economic integration, and humanitarian cooperation. By exploring their origins, structures, mandates, and effectiveness, this study guide enables students to critically assess how international organizations contribute to the governance of global affairs.

Understanding regional and international organizations is essential for appreciating the mechanisms of diplomacy, conflict resolution, and global governance. From the League of Nations to the creation of the United Nations, and from regional security pacts to trade and development organizations, this book situates institutional evolution within the broader trajectory of world politics.

The structure of the book is designed for clarity and pedagogical accessibility. Each chapter focuses on a particular type of organization—universal, regional, political, security, or economic—while situating them in historical, theoretical, and practical contexts. Comparative perspectives highlight both the strengths and limitations of institutionalized cooperation.

The central objective of this uphle task is to cultivate among students a critical and historically informed perspective on the role of organizations in managing interdependence and promoting peace and development. By engaging with this material, learners will gain a deeper appreciation of how institutions shape state behavior and global outcomes.

It is my sincere hope that this study guide will serve as a valuable academic resource and an intellectual guide for students as they explore the study of regional and international organizations.

Prof, Dr. Nasir Mahmood
Vice Chancellor

FOREWARD

Regional and International Organizations have become central actors in global politics, providing frameworks for cooperation, conflict management, and development. They address common challenges such as peace, security, trade, and human rights, while also reflecting the diversity of interests among states and societies.

This book, International and Regional Organizations, offers a clear and structured introduction to the role and significance of these institutions. It covers their historical evolution, theoretical foundations, and practical functions, alongside case studies of both regional bodies like the European Union and ASEAN, and global institutions such as the United Nations, WTO, and IMF.

By combining theory with real-world examples, the book aims to help students and readers understand how these organizations shape international relations and contribute to global governance. It is hoped that this work will serve as a useful resource for those seeking to comprehend the dynamics of cooperation in an interconnected world.

Prof. Dr Abdul Aziz Sahir
Dean/Chairman

INTRODUCTION

Regional and international organisations (IOs) are structured entities formed by states to facilitate cooperation, promote economic development, ensure security, and address global challenges. These organisations serve as platforms for dialogue, policymaking, and conflict resolution in an increasingly interconnected world. This book is structured to explore IOs in-depth, covering their historical evolution, structural frameworks, and contemporary relevance. It examines the role of both global and regional organisations in governance, peacekeeping, economic development, and human rights protection.

Each unit delves into specific themes, providing readers with a foundational understanding of key issues:

Unit 1: Introduction to Regional and International Organizations

This unit introduces the concept of international organisations, defining them as treaty-based entities with distinct legal personalities. It explores their emergence in the 19th century and examines their role in global governance, differentiating them from alliances and federations.

Unit 2: The United Nations System

This unit traces the evolution of the UN, highlighting its origins from the League of Nations to its current role as the world's most significant intergovernmental organisation. It discusses the UN's structure, functions, and key organs, including the Security Council, General Assembly, and Secretariat.

Unit 3: Regional Organizations and Their Role in Global Governance

Focusing on regional organisations, this unit examines entities such as the European Union, the African Union, ASEAN, and OAS. It explores their contributions to regional stability, economic development, and diplomatic engagement.

Unit 4: International Financial Institutions

This unit discusses the role of international financial institutions such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and regional development

banks. It explores their impact on global economic stability, financial assistance, and development programs.

Unit 5: Regional Security Organizations

Security remains a core function of many IOs. This unit analyses the efforts of regional security organisations such as NATO, ECOWAS, and the African Standby Force in addressing regional conflicts, peacekeeping, and defence cooperation.

Unit 6: Specialized Agencies

This unit explores the functions and roles of specialised agencies under the UN system, such as UNESCO, WHO, ILO, and FAO. It examines their contributions to education, health, labour, and food security on a global scale.

Unit 7: Global Governance

This unit delves into global governance, analysing how international organisations, states, and non-state actors interact to address global challenges such as climate change, human rights, and economic inequality.

Unit 8: International Law and Organizations

International law governs the relations between states and international actors. This unit explores the role of organisations such as the International Court of Justice (ICJ), the International Criminal Court (ICC), and human rights tribunals in enforcing legal frameworks and promoting global justice.

Unit 9: Case Studies – European Union and Africa

This unit provides an in-depth examination of the European Union and regional organisations in Africa, analysing their structures, achievements, and challenges. Case studies illustrate their role in economic integration, peacekeeping, and political cooperation.

This book provides a well-rounded perspective on their critical role in world affairs by examining international organisations' historical foundations, structural

dynamics, and contemporary challenges. Whether you are studying international relations, political science, or global studies, this book offers essential insights into international cooperation and governance mechanisms.

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I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to Prof. Dr. Abdul Aziz Sahir, Dean of FSS&H, for allowing me the opportunity to pursue this work. Special thanks to Jamal Afsar for his timely guidance and support. I dedicate this book to my friends and family, whose encouragement made this journey possible.

Saran Qadeer
Course Coordinator

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UNIT # 1

INTRODUCTION TO REGIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

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Reviewed By:

Dr. Muhammad Fahim Khan

INTRODUCTION

This unit delves into the intriguing concept of international organisations (IOs), defining them as entities established by states through treaties with distinct constitutions and organs. These organisations possess international legal personalities, allowing them to create treaties and operate independently from their member states. The chapter highlights the tension between the sovereignty of member states and the autonomy of IOs, a key aspect that aims to facilitate rational governance and collective decision-making. It emphasises that IOs represent a form of global governance where states collaborate for mutual benefits while retaining significant sovereignty.

The unit also traces the historical evolution of international organisations, noting their emergence in the 19th century as tools for fostering interdependence in an increasingly industrialised and interconnected world. It distinguishes IOs from other entities like alliances, federations, and informal gatherings by underscoring their structured, treaty-based framework. Additionally, it examines the modern role of IOs in promoting international cooperation and addressing global issues, contrasting this with earlier, more limited perceptions of their function

OBJECTIVES:
• **The pivotal role of IOs in addressing and overcoming global challenges.**

Fun Fact

The OAS was established to promote peace and security in the Americas and foster economic development and cooperation among its member states. It has played a significant role in addressing political and economic challenges in the region, making it a key example of the role of regional organisations in global governance.

An international organisation (IO) was defined by Sir Gerald G. Fitzmaurice in 1956 as "a collective of States established by treaty, with a constitution and common organs, having a personality distinct from that of its member-States, and being a subject of international law with treaty-making capacity" (Report on the Law of Treaties, 1956 vol II UNYBILC 108). Fitzmaurice was serving as Rapporteur of the International Law Commission (ILC). These four components of an IO are now widely acknowledged: (I) A treaty serves as the formal basis for the organisation; (ii) States, along with other subjects like other IOs, make up its membership; (iii) The organisation has its own organs and organisational structure, separate from that of its Member States; and (iv) It has some international legal personality. Only gradually has the final component been acknowledged. The inherent implied legal capacity of such an international body was long disregarded. The organisation's institutional structure and the fact that it brings together states (an intergovernmental organisation) are the most important of these four components. When it comes to international organisations like the United Nations, the eternal struggle is between the two extremes of member states' desires to exert maximum control over the creature they helped create and the organisation's desire for some degree of autonomy so that it can rationally and effectively achieve its shared goals. Thus, an IO is a type of global governance in which the States maintain significant sovereignty. 2 So, four more comparable entities in contemporary international law can be distinguished from an IO. Because it lacks permanent organs to bridge the time between its meetings, this conference is more than just a gathering of politicians; it meets and then dissolves (for more on this, see Conferences and Congresses, International). A plenary organ (assembly) of states makes it distinct from the -> International Court of Justice (ICJ), which is an international body. Since treaty-based alliances rely solely on normative duties and direct consultation between the parties involved, this is not one of those. Without an international institutional framework, it continues to flounder. Finally, it's not a federation of states; more accurately, it's a federation of states with specific requirements. In this case, making a difference is trickier. A federation is a collection of states operating under a single constitution, ostensibly working together to control the passing and enforcement of laws across a broad range of subjects. The modern understanding of an IO is that it avoids domestic legislative matters and does not pretend to be a state; however, all IOs are a kind of

confederation of states where each member state maintains its sovereignty but gives it up to a lesser degree to achieve common goals. For ages, people have failed to recognise the phenomena of I Os as distinct from that of (con)federations of states. ·We no longer use the term "confederation" when referring to contemporary IOs because of the change in their roles. In contrast to more traditional confederations of states, which focus on domestic issues like security and defence, the more modern concept of "I 0" emphasises the global roles played by such organisations, which work to foster cooperation among states and the greater good of the international community. Because of this practical consideration, the ideal component of IO is the organisation of the international community and the provision of means of collaboration among States.



The modern meaning of the term "international organisation" is somewhat narrow, having originated around the end of the nineteenth century. It implied the ideal pursuit of a more reasonable global organisation in a federation that might end global anarchy, legitimise international law, and guarantee global justice and peace. Therefore, at the outset of coining the term '10,' the Scherms for politically ordering the world were casual. J. Lorirner appears to have used the term in a 1871 book; for more, see H. Wehberg's "Die Diskreditierung der Idee der Internationalen Organisation" (1948). International law, because it lacked institutional sanction from a higher authority, was not positive, according to Lorirner, who was influenced by the school of law of Pufendorf, Thornasius, and Burlarnaqui. As a result, international anarchy reigned. It was necessary for international law to become positive law to bring attention to this unfortunate situation. It needed the backing and assurance of an authority higher than the individual states—specifically, a global federal organisation—before it could make that monumental leap and become a binding statute. The term "IO" was

used again after the Hague Conferences, which profoundly impacted progressive international attorneys. For example, in Walther Schücking's essay "Organization International," which is a translation of the German title "Die Organisation der Welt," the phrase was employed. After WWI ended and the League of Nations and its affiliated agencies were established, the modern meaning of the term "IO" began to gain traction (Potter, 1945). The idea's previous connotation of a global organisation to stop worldwide anarchy has faded. It solidified with the newly established institutional frameworks, primarily through the League of Nations' crucial character. Nonetheless, a preeminent authority on the topic framed the issue of IO in 1938 through the lenses of global summits, advancements in arbitration and international law, and "international federation" (Porter [1938]). So, his approach to the subject was big and traditional. The previous and broader meaning of institutional IOs was eradicated from public consciousness by establishing the United Nations (UN) system, which firmly established the current understanding of IOs.

The global and regional versions of the original I Os were developed in the 1800s. In other words, they primarily served technical purposes and had nothing to do with politics. International unions and organisations were able to take root in the nineteenth century because it provided the first nearly perfect setting and foundational circumstances for their establishment. The globe was fragmented into numerous states, yet interdependencies were expanding at a dizzying rate, forcing everyone to pull together. Also present was an understanding of the importance of working together and a sense of solidarity and reliance. Industrialisation and technological progress in the modern era created these factual and material interdependencies. Along with these societal shifts came a dramatic rise in population, an explosion in transportation technology, and an exponential rise in the demand for raw commodities. Because of these changes, trade exploded, which ushered in a new era of monetary and economic interdependence. That is why there has to be a standardisation of measurement and communication systems, an end to the quick spread of disease, etc. The inadequacy of traditional conferences, lacking institutional frameworks to manage shared problems with the necessary day-to-day continuity to ensure efficiency, became widely apparent due to these urgent demands for cooperation and standard policies. Two sorts of technical international organisations, administrative unions and fluvial commissions, emerged swiftly due to these technical solidarities.

1.1 Historical Perspective

It is necessary to define international organisations before comprehending their establishment and purpose. Sovereign states come together to join international

organisations to work together on subjects that they all agree upon. The topics that can be reached can span from the most basic, such as cooperation in cultural affairs, tourism, health, education, and technology, to the most complex, like security, trade and commerce. States are eager to work together in all these spheres of interaction because they stand to gain so much from doing so, and progress would be impossible without it. To rephrase, for nations to reap the advantages of any endeavour, there must be a universally accepted mechanism for doing so, and the universally accepted mechanism is to establish international organisations to facilitate the attainment of these objectives. As a result, nations form international organisations to work together on any topic where they see mutual advantage. Institutions holding members together by a formal agreement, having activity in numerous states, and drawing membership from at least three states are how the Encyclopaedia Britannica describes international organisations. So, it's clear that 1) members, 2) activities, and 3) a formal agreement are the three requirements for an organisation to be formed.

Traditionally, the leading player in international politics has been the sovereign state. Since they are foundational to the current international system based on states, this condition is relevant even today. The states are the leading players and those accountable for all the visible events. However, another mechanism has been developed to limit the state's role and behaviour—international institutions—established to act on the state's behalf and impose these constraints.

Remember that collaboration between nations has been minimal ever since the Treaty of Westphalia was signed in 1648, marking the foundation of the nation-state system. There was less of an incentive for governments to cooperate and more room for competition once they gained the ability to act independently. During this time, states rarely had cordial relations with one another due to the high frequency of conflicts and wars. However, as the Industrial Revolution progressed and new facets emerged, like trade, communications, and travel, governments were increasingly forced to collaborate and adhere to standards and regulations. Therefore, it was considered crucial for countries to have close contact with one another. This necessity arose in the late 19th and early 20th centuries when several significant powers—including France, Germany, Britain, and Austria—took it upon themselves to coordinate and determine global affairs. That system—the Concert of Europe—marked the birth or development of contemporary international institutions.

The 1814–1815 Congress of Vienna, an international diplomatic meeting to rebuild the political order of Europe following the fall of the French Emperor Napoleon, is an early and notable example of an international organisation. At the

Westphalia treaty, which ended the Thirty Years' War in Europe in 1648, states opted to preserve their sovereignty and became the primary decision-makers.

Established in 1865 by a convention establishing a permanent secretariat and a worldwide membership, the International Telecommunication Union is the first and oldest international organisation. After World War I, the primary goal of the first international organisation to address a wide range of concerns, the League of Nations, was to keep the peace. It was established on January 10, 1920. The United Nations adopted this paradigm following WWII. At the end of the United Nations Conference on International Organization in San Francisco on June 26, 1945, this was signed and enacted on October 24, 1945. The most prominent intergovernmental organisation (IGO) is the United Nations, which runs several departments and agencies, including the UN Security Council (UNSC), UNGA, ICJ, UNSA, UNTC, and ECOSOC.

1.2 League of Nations

The Allied nations that emerged victorious from World War I proposed the formation of the League of Nations on January 10, 1920, as a means of fostering international collaboration. With the passage of time and the apparent inevitability of further pain and devastation during modern conflicts, the public's need for a solution to the horrific losses in World War I intensified. The desire was so strong that the language of the League of Nations Covenant was agreed upon unanimously within a few weeks after the Paris Peace Conference began in January 1919. Despite the League's failure to meet its founders' expectations, its establishment was a watershed moment in global diplomacy. Following the transfer of authority to the newly formed United Nations, the League was officially disbanded on April 19, 1946. The core principle of the movement was that aggressive war is wrong because it harms the entire human race, not just the people directly affected. Therefore, every state must do all it can to stop it; aggression will be less likely if everyone knows they will do what's necessary. Philosophers and moralists may have written such assertions, but they had never before reached the level of actual politics. Both statesmen and lawyers operated on the assumption that sovereign states' rights,

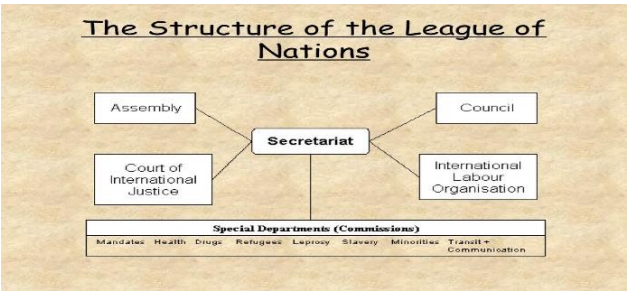
Fun Fact

The League of Nations' official language was the "Nansen International Office for Refugees Language," named after Fridtjof Nansen, a key figure in its refugee relief efforts. This unique document system provided "Nansen Passports," the first internationally recognised travel documents for stateless refugees, helping thousands of displaced people in the 1920s and 1930s.

including the ability to wage war whenever they saw fit, could not be evaluated or curtailed by any natural or supreme law. The League of Nations inherited many features from preexisting organisations or long-standing suggestions to improve past diplomatic practices. However, the demands of World War I gave rise to the idea of collective security. Among the many items on the agenda for the peace conference was the formation of a permanent international peacekeeping organisation. This was one of the primary issues that U.S. President Woodrow Wilson wanted the conference to address immediately. The subject had been examined extensively during the war years, which is mainly why the work moved significantly faster than territorial and military settlement. Many ideas and recommendations had been set up by unofficial groups in the US, UK, France, and a few neutral countries, drawing on the work of earlier intellectuals.

The Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907 featured lengthy discussions on how governments may settle their conflicts by legal procedures or, failing that, through third-party arbitration. Lawyers had spent years formulating these proposals. Although numerous arbitration treaties were inked between individual governments, they all had restrictions preventing them from being used for more severe issues; the 1907 conference failed to establish an international court. Nevertheless, the general principle of arbitration—which, in common parlance, encompassed both juridical settlement and mediation—had already gained public acceptance and was implicit in the Covenant, even though diplomats maintained a free hand for as long as possible.

The expansion of international bureaus in the nineteenth century, including the International Institute of Agriculture, the Universal Postal Union, and countless others, was another trend that impacted the planners of the plan. These organisations were established to address specific areas of study where cooperation between nations was necessary. Within their minimal scope, they were highly effective despite their lack of political function or influence. It was determined that comparable international administrative entities might be usefully entrusted with more social and economic life areas, where collaboration between nations became increasingly important with each passing year.



During the war, joint Allied commissions oversaw transportation, commerce, and raw material procurement; these commissions grew into strong administrative entities, lending credence to these notions. After welcoming neutral and adversary states to their councils, planners began to wonder if these groups had what it took to become global hubs for collaboration. Plans developed during the conflict were partially influenced by these broad proposals: collective security, arbitration, economic and social cooperation, reduction of weaponry, and open diplomacy. Right from the start, the idea that they could only be put into action by establishing a massive international body with the authority to implement them was put up. The term "League of Nations" had already become commonplace among the various interest groups pondering the structure of future peacekeeping operations by the spring of 1915. Over time, their views gained recognition and backing from influential figures, including former US President William H. Taft and British nobles Sir Edward Grey and Lord Robert Cecil. Meeting places were the United States' League to Enforce Peace and Britain's League of Nations organisations. Both major parties in the 1916 presidential race wanted the United States to join a future league. A few months later, the US was officially at war, and as Wilson began his second term in office, he naturally assumed the leading voice for the Allies, given his stature as head of the world's leading power. His historic Fourteen Points, which outlined American war objectives in January 1918, included a request to establish "a general association of nations...affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small States alike." Over time, every ally saw the Fourteen Points as a genuine declaration of their war objectives. What had appeared to be little more than a utopian dream became the formal and official goal of the Allies, who would soon be victorious in only a few months.

Washington, where Wilson and his confidential advisor Edward M. House were working on their suggestions, received reports from special committees that the French and British governments had constituted to create blueprints for the new organisation. South African statesman Jan Smuts also made a significant contribution in December 1918 with the publication of the League of Nations: A Practical Suggestion. According to Smuts, the League should not be seen as just a diplomatic buffer against conflict but rather as "a great organ of the ordinary peaceful life of civilisation...woven into the very texture of our political system." He said that the League's ability to prevent war would ultimately be determined by how much it did during times of peace. This was a fresh perspective on the League of Nations' true essence to many of his colleagues.

1.2.1 SUMMARY:

Foundation	January 10, 1920
Headquarter	Geneva, Switzerland**.**
Core Objectives	• Maintaining world peace. • Improve global welfare
Main Bodies	The Assembly, The Council, The Secretariat, The Permanent Court of International Justice, Various Committees and Agencies.
Key Initiatives	• Mandate System • Combatting Diseases and Improving Health • Protection of Minorities and Refugees
Achievements	• Resolution of Territorial Disputes • Support for Refugees and Stateless Persons • Campaign Against Slavery and Human Trafficking
Challenges and Criticism	• Absence of Major Powers • Requirement for Unanimous Decisions • Lack of Enforcement Mechanisms

1.3 Multilateralism

An "institutionalised collective action by an inclusively determined set of independent states" is one broad definition of multilateralism; another is a "persistent set of rules that constrain activity, shape expectations and prescribe roles," as Robert O. Keohane puts it.1 John G. Ruggie writes, "Multilateralism is an institutional form that coordinates relations among three or more states based on generalised principles of conduct..."2. Looking at multilateral arrangements from a historical perspective, the minimal requirement—the number of club members—is quite relevant. Several states, especially those in Europe, were interested in increasing cooperation, which led to the emergence of multilateral agreements, regimes, and organisations in the 19th century. These institutions play an essential role today despite the failures and tragedies of the violent first half of the so-called "short century" (20th). When studying multilateralism, scholars have had to contend with realism and neo-realist theoretical critiques emphasising state rivalry, conflict, protectionism, and anarchy. In what ways does the pursuit of national interests interact with international cooperation? Some realists go so far as to advocate for dyadic collaboration.

Fun Fact

The term "multilateralism" became widely popular only after World War II, but its roots date back centuries. One of the earliest examples of multilateral diplomacy was the 1648 Treaty of Westphalia, which established principles of state sovereignty and cooperation between multiple states—setting the foundation for modern international relations!

There are two main points that detractors of the realist approach bring up: a) under specific circumstances, the theory of the state of nature and game theory both view an autonomous state's rational self-interest as a sufficient basis for a contractual relationship with one or more other states. This could explain bilateral cooperation through repeated game theory, side payments, and long-term negotiation. But other requirements besides self-interest must be met for multilateral arrangements to be strengthened: a level of reciprocal trust and reputation, the backing of domestic economic and non-economic demands, ideas, and shared goals of states; in certain instances, a shared perception of external threats; extended cooperation between states based on mid- to long-term promises rather than specific short-term gains; states' goodwill, including the acceptance of limited or shared national sovereignty; and finally, multilateral arrangements must be strengthened. An example of the classical security dilemma is the multilateral arrangement. Collective security, security with others rather than against them, and the indivisibility of peace are the foundational ideas that can lead humanity out of anarchy. Not only does this apply to the United Nations, but it also applies to security communities like the European Union and MERCOSUR. Even in the NATO alliance, the "all for one" guiding idea is essential.

Anarchy can be avoided by studying the evolution of multilateralism, which starts with bilateral agreements and progresses to a more structured multilateral framework of international interactions. A multipolar power balance cannot coexist with anarchy in its historical manifestations. Institutionalised and informal multilateralism are possible only on political or legal grounds. The goal of multipolar nations can be cooperation and convergence or be rooted in competing state interests. Stability and/or peace were shared goals in specific multipolar systems. As a first step away from anarchy, one may construct a "security complex" that includes adversaries, rival alliances, and even rival security complexes, such as the North-East Asian Security Complex and the growing East Asia Security Complex3. The European Concert in the 19th Century exemplified the use of conference diplomacy to control wars between states. Even in his

reactionary view, Metternich saw the European Concert as a vehicle for peace and stability. The multipolar balance of power in Europe did provide a foundation for the creation of the initial civilian multilateral agreements during the Belle Époque, which lasted from 1871 to 1914. From an outside perspective, especially that of China, the European Concert at the turn of the twentieth century appears to have been the birthplace of imperialism and colonialism in Asia, Africa, and the Americas, including China. This is something that we are well aware of. On the other hand, the "Belle Époque" was a time of liberal peace and stability in Europe for forty-five years, when the first multilateral agreements about mail, measurements, weights, etc. were established, and when the United Kingdom was the dominant power in liberalising multilateral trade. Throughout these decades, numerous domestic political arenas were characterised by the political conflict between imperialists and liberal multilateralists. We believe this European multilateral legacy was significant and remains relevant, notwithstanding the failure of this tendency towards civilising sovereignty during the "Thirty Years War" (1914–1945). While there is some debate over the origins and evolution of multipolarism in Europe, it is undeniable that the United States exerted significant pressure on Europe to revive its multilateralism after World War II through the Marshall Plan and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) , as the previous European state system had failed. Overall, the present-day routine multilateral intergovernmental relations, the regimes that differentiate the EU cooperation system among member states (the European Council and the Council of Ministers), are also the product of a longue durée process that arose over several centuries before the stability era of American hegemony. The post-hegemonic expansion and consolidation of European regional multilateralism heightens the necessity for this type of long-term strategy.

As a result of the domestic codification of universally restricting standards making its way from the national to the international level, complementary views also imply that multilateral cooperation emerged in Europe in the middle of the nineteenth century. The international system in the 19th and early 20th centuries was diverse and pluralistic, but it ended at the same time as the two world wars, in what I. Wallerstein terms the European "Second Thirty Years' War." This was true regardless of whether the British or multipolar European states led the system. After World War II, the bipolar clash and the multipolar balance of power in Europe took precedence, and multilateralism became an instrumental tool. However, multilateralism manifests the civilised tendencies of state-to-state relations, with more civil and sequential exchanges taking place. Although we

have demonstrated a connection between multipolarism and unilateralism in modern European history, the two ideas are still separate and even contradictory. Multilateralism and multipolarism oppose an anarchical international system and unipolar/unilateralism, respectively. Unlike strict interpretations of the balance of power, multilateral cooperation is firmly ingrained in European culture and can be seen as a way to put the political ideal of state collaboration into practice. Our firm belief is that the claimed European interest in post-war reconstruction, diplomatic conflict prevention and crisis management, global multilateral cooperation, and the distinctive European "tradition of making a political analysis of conflict, pragmatically looking for compromises" can be explained mainly by these historical roots and the connection between internal experience.

1.4 Challenges

Since the Cold War ended, the multilateral system has faced increasing difficulties.

Some nations, like Iran, China, and India, have begun to doubt the United Nations' usefulness as a result of the United States' growing economic and military dominance. Some internationalists, like Kofi Annan, the former UN secretary-general, have long held that the US is more likely to act independently when domestic policies have global ramifications. It all started in October 1999 when President Bill Clinton's Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty, signed in September 1996, was refused ratification by the United States Senate. U.S. opposition to several multilateral accords occurred during the Bush administration, including the Kyoto Protocol, the International Criminal Court, the Ottawa Treaty against anti-personnel land mines, and a proposed protocol to guarantee adherence by States to the Biological Weapons Convention. The United States also withdrew from the Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty, which had been signed by the Soviet Union and the Richard Nixon administration in 1972, during the administration of George W. Bush.

The United States' vested interest in bilateral alliances as control mechanisms may account for these difficulties. However, liberal institutionalists would contend that central states may ultimately choose a multilateral alliance. Instead of seeing their influence diminished in a multilateral arena, major countries might increase their capacity to manage minor nations and maximise their leverage by forming a succession of bilateral agreements with friends. One may argue that the Bush administration had similar motives for favouring bilateralism over multilateralism or even unilateralism. The Obama administration maximised the United States'

ability to accomplish its goals through intense one-on-one partnerships with carefully selected countries rather than relying on multilateral efforts.

Concerns regarding individual nations' autonomy provide yet another obstacle to multilateralism as a means of global governance. The "ultimate locus of authoritative decision-making regarding most facets of public and private life" continues to be nation-states, even though their sovereignty in international affairs is being eroded. For Hoffman, nations are "unlikely to embrace abstract obligations that clash with concrete calculations of national interest."

Despite not being inherently incompatible with more significant accords, regional arrangements like the European Union and NAFTA challenge global multilateralism, especially in trade. When the United States, the pioneer of post-war economic multilateralism, was unhappy with the results of multilateral forums, it resorted to unilateral action. It began negotiating trade and other issues separately. Abandoning multilateralism would have been costly for all nations, but the United States, the most powerful nation, would have had the least to lose. The weakest nations, on the other hand, would have had the most to lose. Populism in Europe, like in the United States, has been an obstacle to multilateralism in the last several years. The fact that Euroskeptic parties have done well in direct elections to the European Parliament lends credence to this assertion.

There have been achievements, but multilateralism now faces problems that undermine global governance and make it harder to tackle important issues.

The multilateral system faces significant difficulties, such as:

Increasing nationalism and isolationism: Multilateralism faces threats from rising nationalist ideologies and unilateralism in several countries. Collective attempts to tackle critical challenges like climate change, trade, and security may be impeded if these tendencies weaken global governance.

Problems on a global scale: The globe is confronted with a growing number of interrelated problems that demand concerted international action, such as the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, environmental changes, economic uncertainty, and technological upheavals.

Inadequate finance prevents many multinational organisations from adequately addressing global challenges.

There have been demands for change so that multilateral organisations can better reflect the world as it is now in terms of power dynamics and reality.

Upholding the fundamental principles of multilateralism—inclusivity, equality, and cooperation—while adjusting to a changing global context is crucial to the movement's future. Addressing global concerns and achieving the SDGs requires multilateral collaboration in our ever-more-interconnected society.

1.5 types of international organizations

Various types of international organisations have emerged in modern times. They can be sorted according to the tasks they're meant to complete. We may now categorise global organisations into four distinct groups.

Universal or multi-function: Organizations that serve multiple purposes are what the name implies. Among their many potential roles are those in politics, finance, security, culture, society, commerce, healthcare, and more. Furthermore, they are not limited to a specific region. They can be created by any coalition of states from around the globe. There is no cap on the number of countries that can be members of these groups. It can be constituted by the majority of the world's nations or by two or more states with the explicit goal of executing all functions. The function must have more than one purpose to meet this criterion. This type does not take into account factors like membership or geographic area. Hence, they are categorised as organisations serving a wide range of purposes. The United Nations is one such example; it serves as a platform for cooperation between member states and has the support of the vast majority of the world's countries. Similar to the United Nations, the Organization of American States and the Organization of African Unity (now the African Union) are examples of regional organisations with limited membership compared to the UN. One kind of organisation is the specialised or functional one. Some examples of this type include the World Trade Organization (WTO), which focuses solely on trade; ECOWAS, which primarily deals with economic matters; NATO, which handles both defense and security; the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which deals with both economics and money; and many more. This categorisation focuses on the organisation's intended functions rather than its members. Hence, the geographical reach of the organisation is irrelevant. Membership in NATO is skewed toward Europe, ECOWAS is skewed toward West African states, and membership in the IMF and WTO is essentially global. Groups that focus on non-state issues: A non-governmental international organisation is defined as "any international organisation that is not established using inter-governmental agreements," as stated by the United Nations Economic and Social Council. There is a difference between IGOs and INGOs, NGOs, or international non-

governmental organisations. This type of organisation is non-profit, as the name implies. It forms when two or more people engage in worldwide exchanges and agree to formalise their interactions into a continuous structure to pursue common goals. Members of the government can also be members of a non-governmental group. In such an instance, it is not an NGO but a hybrid NGO. Transnational Organizations (TNOs) are another name for this type of group. There are typically two types of TNOs. This group consists entirely of non-governmental entities and is the International Non-governmental Organization. These groups often hail from multiple countries yet share the same goals. This hybrid international organisation has governmental and non-governmental representatives; examples include the International Olympic Committee, the Salvation Army, the International Red Cross Society, the World Council of Churches, and the International Olympic Committee. Classifying such a hybrid organisation as an international governmental organisation (IGO) is appropriate if it was formed through an agreement or treaty between states. Governing bodies, trade unions, and business executives have a voice in the International Labor Organization (ILO). There is no one parent organisation for hybrid NGOs; they comprise members from different backgrounds. A good illustration of this is the International Council of Scientific Unions, which includes representatives from national research councils, governments, scientific academies, and international scientific unions. The third category of transnational organisations is the Transnational Governmental Organization (TGO), distinct from the first two. These regimes' primary foreign policy apparatus does not oversee the relations between governmental actors, which is the result. The International Union of Local Authorities (IULA) unites EU member states' municipal governments; the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES) facilitates collaboration among national marine research facilities; the International Police Organization (IPO); Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), etc., are a few examples of formalised organisations that exist alongside more informal ones. Later on, we shall go into a more detailed discussion on NGOs.

Multinational Corporations: These groups operate from around the globe and are primarily concerned with making a profit. Multinational corporations (MNCs) like the Scandinavian Airlines System don't fit neatly into the category of international organisations, but they do operate in compliance with agreements made between multiple countries. We cannot ignore them in any manner because of their enormous impact on global politics, which is unrelated to this. Another possibility is for multiple MNCs to band together to establish an international

non-governmental organisation (NGO), such as a user group formed for the express goal of advocacy, marketing, or education. The International Marine Forum of Oil Companies is one example, as is the International Chamber of Shipping.

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. **Define "international organisation" and provide three examples.**
2. **What are the primary purposes of regional organisations?**
3. **How do international organisations contribute to global governance?**
4. **What are the challenges facing international organisations in the 21st century?**
5. **How do regional and international organisations interact and influence each other?**

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UNIT # 2

THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM

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INTRODUCTION

This unit delves into the historical evolution and structure of the United Nations (UN), tracing its roots to earlier efforts like the League of Nations and initiatives inspired by prominent figures such as Woodrow Wilson during and after World War I. The League of Nations, despite its pioneering approach, faced numerous challenges, including the absence of the United States as a member and its ineffectiveness in preventing conflicts like the Second Italo-Ethiopian War and the Japanese invasion of Manchuria.

The unit emphasises the critical milestones that led to the establishment of the UN. These include the Paris Peace Conference and the San Francisco Conference, where the United Nations Charter was finalised in 1945. The UN emerged as a comprehensive international organisation to ensure global peace, promote social and economic welfare, and address the concerns of colonial territories and regional defence arrangements.

The unit highlights the structural features of the UN, such as the Security Council and the General Assembly. It examines the compromises between the powerful nations' dominance and member states' equality. The UN Charter is presented as a cornerstone document fostering international cooperation in an increasingly interconnected world.

OBJECTIVES:
➢ **To explore the history, structure, and role of the United Nations (UN), highlighting its origins, key milestones, and contributions to global peace and cooperation.**
➢ **The unit aims to explain the UN's core functions and its impact on international relations and global governance.**

2.1 Historical Context.

Many groups came together in the century before the United Nations was established to help those who had been victims of war and other forms of violence. One of these was the International Committee of the Red Cross.

Several prominent figures, notably Woodrow Wilson of the United States, called for a global organisation to ensure peace during World War I. As a formal step toward ending the war, the Allies convened at the Paris Peace Conference to negotiate the conditions of an official truce. The US never joined the League of Nations despite its approval and launch of operations. After 42 nations accepted the League of Nations Covenant in 1919, it officially began on 10 January 1920. In its executive capacity, the League Council oversaw the operations of the Assembly. At its inception, the UK, France, Italy, and Japan were its four permanent members.



In the 1920s, the League had mixed results; in the 1930s, it was ineffectual, failing to respond to the Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1933. Forty nations allowed Japan to withdraw from Manchuria, but the country chose to remain in the League and vote against the withdrawal. In 1936, Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie I appealed for international action in Geneva but was unsuccessful. Similarly, proposals for economic sanctions against Italy were unsuccessful, and

the world community did nothing to end the Second Italo-Ethiopian War. Italy and other nations left the League.

At the United Nations Conference on International Organization (UNCIO) in San Francisco on April 25, 1945, the Yalta Conference's revisions to the Dumbarton Oaks recommendations served as the basis for the talks that led to the final United Nations Charter. Fifty nations from all over the globe sent delegates to the San Francisco conference. Among them were nine from Europe, twenty-one from the Americas, seven from the Middle East, two from East Asia, and three from Africa. The Soviet Union, the Ukrainian and Belorussian Soviet Socialist Republics, and five from the British Commonwealth were also represented. Poland was granted permission to become an original member of the United Nations despite not being present at the meeting. The permanent members of the Security Council retain the right to veto, but any member of the General Assembly can bring up topics for discussion. In addition to the organisation's role in promoting social and economic welfare, the distribution of trusteeships and the status of colonial areas, regional and arrangements, and the equality of states versus the dominance of Great Powers were other political issues resolved through compromise. The United Nations Charter was approved and issued on June 26, 1945, after being signed by all members present and accounted for.

2.1.1 Declarations by the Allies of World War II (1941–1944)

The Declaration of St. James's Palace, which took place on 12 June 1941 at the Inter-Allied Conference in London, was the initial event that led to the formation of the United Nations. In August 1941, the Atlantic Charter, outlining post-war world objectives, was produced by British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and American President Franklin D. Roosevelt. Eight exiled governments from countries occupied by the Axis powers, along with the Soviet Union and Free French Forces representatives, met at the Inter-Allied Council in London on 24 September 1941 and unanimously decided to follow the joint policy principles proposed by the United States and Britain. In December 1941, Roosevelt and Churchill held the Arcadia Conference at the White House.

Fun Fact

The Declaration by the United Nations, signed on January 1, 1942, by 26 Allied nations during World War II, was the first time the term "United Nations" was officially used. This declaration laid the groundwork for creating the modern United Nations in 1945! It pledged the signatories to continue fighting the Axis Powers and not to make separate peace agreements.

The phrase "United Nations" was first used by Roosevelt to characterise the Allied

countries, and he is regarded as a founder of the UN. Noting that Lord Byron had used it, Churchill adopted it. On December 29, 1941, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Harry Hopkins penned the United Nations Declaration. It took Soviet proposals into account but left France out. After Roosevelt insisted, Stalin agreed to a provision for religious freedom, a significant change from the Atlantic Charter.

In the United Nations Declaration, Roosevelt's concept of the "Four Powers"—the US, UK, USSR, and China—emerged, representing the four principal Allied countries. In addition to Roosevelt, Churchill, Maxim Litvinov (former Soviet foreign minister), T. V. Soong (prime minister of China), and Churchill, twenty-two additional nations' delegates signed the "Declaration by United Nations" the following day, which was New Year's Day 1942. The Allies' official moniker during the conflict was the United Nations. A nation could only become a member when it had proclaimed war on the Axis powers and signed the Declaration of War.

"At the earliest possible date of a general international organisation" was one of the goals stated in the Four Power Declaration on Comprehensive Security, one of the Moscow Declarations that came out of the 1938 Moscow Conference. An alternative to the League of Nations was being considered, and this was the initial public announcement of it. Shortly after, at the Tehran Conference, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Soviet leader Joseph Stalin gathered to examine the possibility of an international organisation following the war. From September 21st through October 7th, 1944, at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, representatives from the Allied Big Four negotiated and formed the new worldwide organisation. They agreed on the new group's goals, organisational structure, and operational details. The final resolution of these concerns required the February 1945 Yalta conference and additional negotiations with the Soviet Union.

2.2 Founding (1945)

The United Nations Declaration gained 21 more signatories as of 1 March 1945. On 25 April 1945, after months of preparation, the United Nations Conference on International Organizations was inaugurated in San Francisco. Representatives from fifty different countries' governments and several NGOs were there. The plenary meetings were presided over by the Big Four delegations. Churchill had already pleaded with Roosevelt to restore France to its position as a leading power following the August 1944 liberation of Paris. The 50 member states' delegates met for two months to finalise the UN Charter, which was ratified on June 26, 1945. After the United States, the United Kingdom, France, the Soviet Union, China—the five permanent members of the Security Council—and most of the other 46 states ratified the Charter, the United States formally came into existence on 24 October 1945. Beginning in January 1946, the General Assembly and the Security Council convened in London. Fifty-one states were represented at these

early sessions. Russian forces in Iranian Azerbaijan and British military in Greece were among the immediately debated topics. British diplomat Gladwyn Jebb filled the position of interim secretary-general. The United Nations General Assembly chose New York City as the site of the UN headquarters. The building's construction started on September 14, 1948, and ended on October 9, 1952. Lie, a Norwegian diplomat, was the first person chosen for the position of Secretary-General of the United Nations.

2.3 Cold War (1947–1991)

Despite peacekeeping being the United Nations' principal purpose, the Cold War schism between the US and the USSR frequently immobilised the organisation, limiting its intervention to crises far outside the Cold War era. On July 7, 1950, while the Soviet Union was not present, the Security Council approved a resolution authorising a US-led coalition to oppose North Korea's invasion of South Korea. On July 27, 1953, the Korean Armistice Agreement was signed. These two events stand out as exceptions. The General Assembly passed resolution 181, proposing to divide Palestine into two states and subject Jerusalem to a unique international rule, on November 29, 1947. After a Palestinian civil war broke out as a result of the plan's failure, the state of Israel was established. The United Nations Security Council decided that "an armistice shall be established in all sectors of Palestine" after UN diplomat Ralph Bunche mediated a ceasefire in the ensuing conflict two years later. Despite the establishment of the first United Nations peacekeeping force on November 7, 1956, to resolve the Suez Crisis, the organisation was powerless to prevent the simultaneous invasion of Hungary by the Soviet Union after the country's revolution.

Fun Fact

During the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union indirectly competed in nearly every sphere—including space. The Space Race led to bizarre competitions, such as the Soviets sending the first living beings (Laika the dog) into orbit in 1957 and the U.S. responding by putting golf on the Moon when astronaut Alan Shepard hit a golf ball during the Apollo 14 mission in 1971!

The United Nations Operation in the Congo (UNOC) was the most significant military force the UN had in its early decades, founded on 14 July 1960. Its goal was to restore control of Katanga to the Democratic Republic of the Congo by 11 May 1964 and bring order to the region. Legendary UN secretary-general Dag Hammarskjöld died in a jet crash while on her way to visit rebel leader Moise Tshombe during the conflict. The Nobel Peace Prize was bestowed upon him months later after his death. Cyprus

became one of the longest-running UN peacekeeping deployments in 1964 when U Thant, who succeeded Hammarskjöld, sent the UN Peacekeeping Force there.

As decolonisation spread, a flood of newly independent states caused the UN's membership to skyrocket in the 1960s. Sixteen of the seventeen new member states that joined the United Nations in 1960 were located in Africa. Despite American resistance, numerous Third World nations rallied behind the People's Republic of China on 25 October 1971, and the People's Republic of China, not the Republic of China (or Taiwan), was granted the Chinese seat on the Security Council. Many took the vote as an indication that the United States' clout inside the group was declining. For a short period, Algeria was the undisputed head of the Group of 77, an alliance of developing nations that emerged to become the United Nations. The Soviet Union and several developing world countries passed a resolution condemning Zionism as racism on November 10, 1975, despite strong resistance from the United States and Israel. Shortly after the Cold War ended, the resolution was revoked on December 16, 1991. After failing to mediate crises in the Middle East, Vietnam, and Kashmir and seeing an influx of people from the Third World, the United Nations focused more on its secondary objectives of promoting economic development and cultural exchange. Social and economic development received a substantially more significant portion of the United Nations budget by the 1970s than peacekeeping operations.

2.4 Post-Cold War (1991–present)

In the years following the Cold War, the United Nations peacekeeping responsibilities grew substantially; in only five years, the organisation accomplished more than in the preceding forty. There was a tenfold increase in the expenditure for peacekeeping operations and a twofold increase in the number of resolutions passed by the Security Council between 1988 and 2000. The United Nations has successfully ended the Salvadoran Civil War, established a peacekeeping operation in Namibia, and supervised the holding of democratic elections in South Africa and Cambodia after the fall of apartheid and the Khmer Rouge, respectively. Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1991, but a coalition led by the United States was able to repel the attack. In light of the subsequent more problematic missions, UN undersecretary-general Brian Urquhart (who served from 1971 to 1985) subsequently characterised the expectations generated by these triumphs as a "false renaissance" for the organisation.

Some have accused the United Nations of corruption and inefficiency since the late Cold War era. In 1984, due to accusations of mismanagement, the United States was the first country to cut off funding to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The United Kingdom and Singapore followed suit. The Boutros ,whil serving as secretary-general from

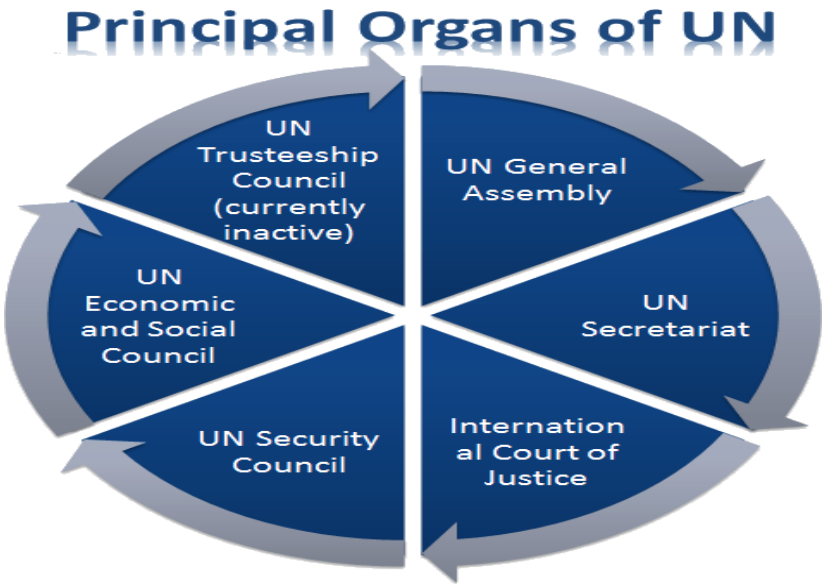
1992 to 1996, Boutros-Ghali began restructuring, resulting in a smaller Secretariat. Kofi Annan's successor pushed for additional management reforms in response to US threats to withhold UN dues.

Even though the primary purpose of the United Nations Charter was to prohibit aggression between states, the organisation encountered several grave crises in Somalia, Haiti, Mozambique, and the former Yugoslavia in the early 1990s. Following American withdrawal due to fatalities in the Battle of Mogadishu, the United Nations mission in Somalia was generally perceived as a failure. Amid ethnic cleansing, the United Nations mission to Bosnia was universally criticised for being unsure of what to do. The Rwandan genocide in 1994 went unaddressed by the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda because the Security Council could not reach a consensus.

There was a marked increase in the range of UN-authorized international interventions between the late 1990s and the early 2000s. The United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244 authorised the NATO-led Kosovo Force in 1999. A British military incursion augmented the United Nations' presence in the Sierra Leone Civil War. In 2001, NATO oversaw the invasion of Afghanistan. The United States attacked Iraq in 2003 without first obtaining authorisation from the UN Security Council, which led to renewed scepticism about the UN's efficacy.

The United Nations deployed peacekeepers to crises, including the Kivu War in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the War in Darfur in Sudan, as well as observers and chemical weapons inspectors to the Syrian Civil War during the tenure of the eighth Secretary-general Ban Ki-moon. A United Nations internal investigation into the organisation's response to the 2009 Sri Lankan civil war's last stages found it experienced a "systemic failure" in 2013. The 2010 Haitian earthquake killed 101 people, the most significant casualty toll in the organisation's history. In 2011, NATO nations intervened in the First Libyan Civil War by the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1973.

In 2000, the United Nations convened the Millennium Summit to deliberate its role in the new millennium. All member states adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) during the three-day summit, the biggest gathering of world leaders in history. These goals aim to accomplish worldwide development in public health, gender equality, and poverty reduction. Finally, there was a lack of consistency in the progress towards these targets, as in 2015. At its 2005 World Summit, the United Nations reiterated its commitment to advancing global security, human rights, peacekeeping, and development. In 2015, a new set of global development objectives called the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) replaced the Millennium Development Goals.



Beyond tackling global concerns, the United Nations has aimed to strengthen its democratic legitimacy and accountability by increasing its engagement with civil society and cultivating a constituency worldwide. The group's first public discussion between candidates for secretary-general took place in 2016 to increase transparency. António Guterres, a diplomat from Portugal and a former United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, became the ninth secretary-general on January 1, 2017. The prioritisation of diplomacy as a means of conflict prevention, the enhancement of peacekeeping operations, and the simplification of the organisation to better meet the diverse and ever-changing demands of the international community are all important objectives that Guterres has outlined for his administration.

To "jointly accelerate" the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the United Nations and the World Economic Forum signed a Strategic Partnership Framework on 13 June 2019.

2.5 Structure

A vast web of organisations and entities comprises the UN System, of which the United Nations is just one component. The United Nations Secretariat, the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, and the International Court of Justice are the five principal organs of the organisation that the UN Charter formed. The independence of Palau, the last remaining UN trustee territory, on 1 November 1994 caused the Trusteeship Council, the sixth principal entity, to discontinue its functions.

While the International Court of Justice is in The Hague, four key organs are housed in the main UN Headquarters in New York City. While specific United Nations organisations are located in different parts of the globe, the most significant agencies are housed in the United Nations offices in Nairobi, Vienna, and Geneva. Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish are the six official languages of the United Nations, utilised in multilateral meetings and documents. The United Nations and its agencies are exempt from the laws of the countries in which they operate, according to the United Nations Convention on Privileges and Immunities, to protect their independence from host and member nations.

2.6 General Assembly

The United Nations' principal assembly for deliberation is the General Assembly. This body, which includes all UN member states, meets yearly in the General Assembly Hall for regular sessions and can also be called upon for emergency sessions. The member nations elect a president and twenty-one vice presidents to head the assembly on a rotating geographical basis. Eleven nations' delegates met in London's Methodist Central Hall on January 10, 1946, for the first session. Significant problems, including budgetary concerns, admission of new members, and peace and security, require a two-thirds majority of those present and voting in the General Assembly. A simple majority vote is sufficient to decide any other question. One vote for each member. Aside from approving financial matters, members are not legally obligated to follow resolutions. Except for issues about peace and security, which the Security Council is considering, the Assembly has the authority to offer recommendations on any subject falling within the purview of the United Nations.

2.7 Security Council

The responsibility of ensuring international stability rests with the Security Council. The Security Council, in contrast to other UN organs, has the authority to adopt binding decisions that member states have decided to implement, as stated in Charter Article 25. The United Nations Security Council uses "resolutions" to describe its decisions.

Eleven non-permanent members (currently Ecuador, Guyana, Japan, Malta, Mozambique, the Republic of Korea, Sierra Leone, Slovenia, and Switzerland) and five permanent members (China, France, Russia, the UK, and the US) make up the fifteen-member Security Council. A member of the five permanent members can prevent the approval of a resolution by using their veto power, although they cannot participate in debates. The General Assembly elects five members annually from each region to fill the ten temporary seats for terms of

two years. The Security Council's presidency changes hands monthly in alphabetical order.

2.8 UN Secretariat

The United Nations Secretariat is responsible for the day-to-day running and maintenance of the UN system. Under its leadership, the deputy secretary-general assists the secretary-general, and tens of thousands of international civil servants worldwide comprise the organisation. One of the Secretariat's primary responsibilities is to fulfill directives from various UN entities, such as the Security Council, the General Assembly, and the Economic and Social Council. Another duty is to provide the necessary information and meeting facilities to UN bodies. The United Nations chief and official spokesman is the Secretary-General. The United Nations Charter defines the role of the organisation's chief administrative officer. According to Article 99 of the charter, the Secretary-General has the authority to bring "any matter which in their opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security" to the attention of the Security Council. Secretaries-general have interpreted this provision since Trygve Lie as providing extensive authority to act globally. Over time, the position has taken on a dual function, serving as the UN organisation's administrator, diplomat, and mediator to resolve conflicts and reach agreements among member states on global concerns. The Security Council recommends candidates for Secretary-General to the General Assembly, who then make the appointment subject to the veto power of the permanent members of the Council. While there are no hard and fast rules regarding the position's eligibility, the customary practice calls for a maximum of two five-year terms. After Ban Ki-moon stepped down in 2017, the position was filled by António Guterres of Portugal.

2.9 International Court of Justice

The principal judicial organ of the United Nations is the International Court of Justice (ICJ), commonly called the World Court. It is the sole primary organ not situated in New York City; it once served as the Permanent Court of International Justice and now occupies the Peace Palace in The Hague, Netherlands, the body's former headquarters. The ICJ mostly resolves disputes between states. War crimes, invasions of sovereignty, and ethnic cleansing are some of the topics they have heard about. Other UN organs can also request advisory opinions from the court on questions of international law. Since the ICJ Statute is an essential component of the UN Charter, all member nations are parties, and even non-members can become parties. Decisions and advisory opinions issued by the ICJ are sources of international law and are obligatory on all parties. The fifteen judges of the court are elected to nine-year terms by the state legislature. All

sitting judges must hail from distinct countries.

2.10 Economic and Social Council

With the help of the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) promotes international cooperation and development in economics and society. It is the most significant and complicated UN body, whose principal purpose is to provide a forum for global issues. As an advisory body to its member states, the ECOSOC collects data, conducts studies, and offers recommendations. Several sub-organizations dealing with specific issues carry out the bulk of their operations. Among these are the United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, the United Nations Forum on Forests, the United Nations Statistical Commission, and the Commission on Sustainable Development. The former advises UN agencies on indigenous peoples, while the latter promotes and coordinates sustainable forest management. The former also combines the efforts of UN agencies and NGOs working towards sustainable development. ECOSOC can also grant consultative status to non-governmental organisations (NGOs). About 5,600 entities hold this classification as of April 2021.

2.11 Specialised Agencies

To carry out its responsibilities, each of the United Nations' principal organs is authorised by the UN Charter to create several specialised agencies. A specialised agency is an independent entity that collaborates with the UN and other specialised agencies via the ESC's coordination mechanisms. Each was integrated into the UN system under UN Charter Article 57 through an agreement with the UN. The fifteen specialised agencies carry out various tasks, from easing international travel to combating pandemics and fostering economic development.

2.12 Funds, Programmes, and Other Bodies

Numerous funds, programs, research and training institutes, and other subsidiary agencies comprise the United Nations system; each is autonomous and governed individually. Organisations like the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and the World Trade Organization (WTO) run separately from the United Nations but have official collaboration agreements. They each have their budgets, focus areas, and governance systems. The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (WFP) helps to combat hunger and malnutrition, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) safeguards displaced people and those at risk of persecution, and the United Nations Anti-AIDS Agency (UNAIDS) fights the spread of HIV/AIDS.

2.13 Functions

2.13.1 Maintenance of International Peace and Security

Keeping the peace on a global scale is the primary goal of the UN. The Security Council may mediate, arbitrate, negotiate, or mediate a peaceful settlement of conflicts as outlined in Chapter 6 of the Charter. If the Security Council believes a dispute or other situation threatens international peace and security, it may investigate the matter. When parties cannot resolve their disagreement amicably, the council may suggest settlement terms or adjustments to existing procedures.

Chapter 7 of the Charter gives the power to the Security Council to order coercive measures, such as economic, diplomatic, and military sanctions or the use of armed force, when attempts at a peaceful resolution have failed. This power is based on the goal of collective security, which is to prevent aggression against one member by resisting it with resistance from all members. Nevertheless, the Cold War saw minimal implementation of such sanctions because the Security Council could not reach a consensus on the aggressors due to the strained relations between the US and the USSR. Preventive diplomacy and peacekeeping were the significant tools used to keep the peace and provide safety. Post-Cold War years saw a surge in requests for the United Nations to intervene in peacekeeping and related matters, as well as the emergence of new dangers to global stability, such as the spread of HIV/AIDS and acts of international terrorism.

Despite the Security Council's preeminence, the UN Charter allows the General Assembly and non-member states to have a say in security matters. Any state, UN member or not, has the right to bring any matter that threatens international peace and security to the notice of the General Assembly or the Security Council. "Make recommendations about any such questions to the state or states concerned or to the Security Council or both." The General Assembly is given the power to "discuss any questions relating to maintaining international peace and security" in the Charter. The General Assembly is not to make any recommendations regarding any dispute or situation while the Security Council is exercising its functions assigned to it in the present Charter, unless the Security Council requests it, which limits this authorisation. Despite this, the General Assembly empowered itself to address peace-threatening situations if the Security Council could not do so due to a permanent member's veto in November 1950's "Uniting for Peace" resolution. The General Assembly is granted a broad secondary role under these laws; nonetheless, the Security Council has the authority to adopt decisions binding on all members, while the General Assembly is limited to making recommendations.

2.13.2 Peacekeeping, Peacemaking , and Peacebuilding

Observing ceasefires in Palestine and Kashmir was the initial use of international armed forces in 1948. While the United Nations Charter does not explicitly address the employment of peacekeeping forces, the practice was codified in 1956 during the Suez Crisis between Egypt, Israel, France, and the United Kingdom. These forces served as a buffer between warring countries until troop withdrawals and discussions could occur. While there are many different kinds of peacekeeping missions, they all have specific characteristics, such as a focus on nonviolence, the participation of armed forces from many nations, and the fact that these forces report to the United Nations Security Council. The Nobel Peace Prize was bestowed upon the United Nations Peacekeeping Forces in 1988.

Known as "first-generation" or "classic" peacekeeping, it was employed during the Cold War in conflicts from decolonisation in Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. The United Nations conducted thirteen peacekeeping missions from 1948 to 1988, with neutral nations other than the permanent members of the Security Council—typically Sweden, Norway, Finland, Canada, Ireland, and Italy—often contributing lightly armed troops. Participating troops, known as the "Blue Helmets," were authorised to use force solely in self-defense during these missions. All warring factions, the Security Council, and the nations that provided troops approved and supported the missions.

Peacekeeping became increasingly tricky once the Cold War ended. Various political and social goals were advanced by "second-generation" peacekeeping in response to internal order collapsing and civilian populations suffering. The second generation of peacekeeping differs from the first in that it frequently incorporates civilian specialists, aid workers, and military personnel. Soldiers on certain second-generation operations are given the green light to use force for reasons other than self-defense, another distinction between this generation and the first. However, there has been much debate about employing troops in second-generation peacekeeping missions because their goals can be vague and hard to define.

The permanent members of the Security Council and other nations from both the developed and developing worlds sent troops on second-generation peacekeeping missions in the 1990s. These missions included Cambodia (1991–1993), the former Yugoslavia (1992–1995), Somalia (1992–1995), and other locations. The Security Council established "safe areas" in the former Yugoslav province of Bosnia and Herzegovina to shield the Muslim Bosniak people from Serbian aggression, and UN forces were given the green light to protect these areas militarily. Whenever the United Nations saw a danger to international peace and security, it would intervene, occasionally taking a stance in internal conflicts and putting its neutrality at risk. More than 30 peacekeeping operations were approved

between 1988 and 2000, with a peak deployment of over 80,000 troops representing 77 countries in 1993. These forces were stationed on missions all across the globe. United Nations spending on peacekeeping operations surpassed $2 billion annually in the early 2000s.

After the Cold War, the United Nations mandate was significantly broadened to encompass not only conventional peacekeeping and preventative diplomacy but also peacemaking and peacebuilding. Former United Nations Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali wrote both An Agenda for Peace (1992) and Supplement to an Agenda for Peace (1995), and they detailed these supplementary roles. Some countries that have had UN personnel oversee their elections since 1990 include Nicaragua, Eritrea, and Cambodia. El Salvador, Angola, and Western Sahara have all had peace negotiations sponsored, while Somalia has received food aid. There has been fresh debate on the role of UN forces in refugee resettlement following their involvement in Yugoslavia during that country's violent and lengthy collapse. Established in 1992, the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) manages mine-clearing operations under UN auspices and offers administrative and technical assistance for political and humanitarian missions.

The United Nations' peacekeeping, peacemaking, and peace-building operations have encountered significant budgetary and logistical challenges. The expenses and controversy surrounding missions have grown substantially due to their increasing number. The United Nations does pay member states for the equipment they use, but many have failed to pay their dues; thus, the reimbursements have been restricted.

2.13.3 Sanctions and Military Action

By signing the Charter, every member state commits to making its military troops and facilities available to the Security Council so that it might impose military penalties on those who violate international peace and security. However, no accords were reached to implement this step during the Cold War. The idea of establishing permanent United Nations forces was reintroduced after the Cold War ended.

There were only two occasions during the Cold War when all five permanent members of the UN Security Council supported invoking the provisions of Chapter 7 of the UN Charter—in 1966 against Southern Rhodesia and in 1977 against South Africa. The United States secured a resolution from the Security Council authorising the use of force to aid South Korea and repel North Korean forces after fighting broke out between the two Koreas in June 1950. The United States resolution was not vetoed because the Soviet Union was amid a boycott of the Security Council over its decision not to seat the People's Republic of China.

For this reason, a multinational army spearheaded by the United States fought under the auspices of the United Nations until a truce was declared on July 27, 1953.

In the aftermath of Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in August 1990, the Security Council once again decided to deploy UN combat forces to repel an aggressor. The council authorised member nations to employ "all necessary means" to restore "peace and security" to Kuwait after condemning the invasion and imposing economic penalties on Iraq. The six-week Persian Gulf War that ensued ended when Iraq withdrew from Kuwait by United Nations resolutions. The United Nations kept an eye on Iraq to make sure it was following its resolutions, which included the one demanding that the country get rid of its WMD. The Security Council formed a United Nations Special Mission (UNSCOM) to monitor and assess how well Iraq has adhered to the cease-fire terms to ensure compliance with this resolution. On occasion, though, the US did continue to bomb Iraqi weapons installations, claiming that Iraq had violated "no-fly" zones in the country's north and south, that Iraqi radar had targeted U.S. military aircraft, and that Iraq had obstructed UNSCOM inspection efforts.

Many questioned whether the principles and needs of collective security could ever be met without the influence of the most powerful nations and the United States' disproportionate role in launching and directing UN operations in Korea in 1950 and the Persian Gulf in 1990–1991. Whether the United States could conduct military operations in the name of collective security without the explicit consent and collaboration of the UN and whether the raids were justified under prior UN Security Council resolutions, were further points of contention when the bombing of Iraq persisted after the Gulf War. At the same time, some in the military and Congress were against sending American soldiers to fight under UN command, saying that doing so violated American sovereignty. Others in the US and Western Europe wanted the US and its allies to be more closely integrated with UN military operations.

A thorough evaluation of UN Peace Operations was conducted to evaluate the organisation's enlarged function in maintaining global stability and security via mediation of disputes, peacekeeping, peacebuilding, and enforcement measures. Improving the UN's ability to carry out a broad range of operations was emphasised in the 2000 Brahimi Report, officially the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations Report. The UN should staff its headquarters with trained military professionals who can use advanced information technologies and plan operations with a UN team that includes political, development, and human rights experts. It should also maintain brigade-size forces of 5,000 troops ready to deploy in 30 to 90 days. These are just a few of the numerous recommendations made in the report.

2.13.4 Arms Control and Disarmament

The founders of the United Nations had the lofty goal of bringing about a reduction in weaponry through the establishment and preservation of international peace and security. To that aim, the Charter grants the General Assembly the authority to study and propose disarmament and arms control principles to the member states and the Security Council. The Charter tasks the Security Council with developing strategies for disarmament and armaments control. The United Nations has helped facilitate the drafting of multiple international treaties aimed at controlling and disarming weapons, although the goal of doing so has proven elusive.

The creation and use of the atomic bomb during World War II unleashed great destructive force. In 1946, the General Assembly established the Atomic Energy Commission to help explore urgent ways to manage atomic energy and reduce the number of atomic weapons. The US-backed Baruch Plan would have banned the use of the Security Council's veto over commission decisions and called for the destruction of nuclear weapons stocks subject to international oversight. The Soviet Union's goal in presenting the Gromyko Plan was to guarantee stockpile destruction before committing to an international supervision mechanism. They also aimed to maintain their veto power over the commission. Nuclear arms and energy control on a global scale could not be resolved due to the divergent viewpoints of the two nuclear powers.

Disagreement between the Western powers and the Soviet Union halted efforts to address conventional armaments in 1947, even though the Security Council had established the commission. Consequently, a new Disarmament Commission was established in 1952 by a decision of the General Assembly, which succeeded both previous committees. This commission, which included Canada and the other members of the Security Council, was tasked with developing recommendations to control, limit, and balance the reduction of all armed forces and armaments; eradicate all WMD; and guarantee that nuclear energy is used exclusively for peaceful purposes and under international supervision. The International Atomic Energy Agency was founded in 1957 to encourage the peaceful utilisation of atomic energy following five years of intense effort with minimal success.

The United Nations Charter, international law, and human decency all forbid the employment of nuclear or thermonuclear weapons, according to a 1961 resolution passed by the General Assembly. The US, UK, and Soviet Union signed the Nuclear Test-Ban Treaty two years later, on August 5, 1963. Submarine, planetary, and atmospheric nuclear testing and explosions were all outlawed under the pact, which over 150 states eventually signed on to. The General Assembly passed a treaty in 1966 that recognised space as a sacred realm and forbade the use of

space for any purpose other than peaceful ones, including the implantation of nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons in Earth's orbit, the Moon, or any other celestial body.

The Assembly approved the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons in June 1968. It prohibited the transfer of nuclear weapons from nuclear to non-nuclear powers, obligated non-nuclear powers that had signed the treaty to refrain from developing or deploying nuclear weapons in return for technically assisted nuclear power for "peaceful purposes," and committed nuclear powers to disarmament efforts. Despite the treaty's significant commitment to controlling the proliferation of nuclear weapons, many "near-nuclear" states (such as South Africa, Brazil, Egypt, Israel, and China) and significant nuclear powers (such as France and China) failed to ratify it for many years after it went into effect in 1970. In the early 1990s, a few of these states became treaty signatories. In 1991, South Africa became the first signatory. In 1992, France and China followed suit.

In addition to conventional WMD, the United Nations has been actively working to eradicate various types of WMD in various settings. A convention prohibiting the submerged storage of nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1970. Even though many states have never acceded to it, a convention that the Assembly ratified in 1971 and took effect in 1975, banned the manufacture, storage, and use of biological weapons. A resolution requiring states to provide information on significant international arms transactions was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1991 regarding the registration of conventional weapons. Fewer than half of the UN members provided the necessary data in the registry's early years; by 2000, nearly three-quarters of nations submitted yearly reports. With its call for the elimination of all chemical weapon stocks within a decade and its prohibition on their development, manufacturing, and use, the Chemical Weapons Convention was opened for signing in 1993. A treaty that forbade the use, stockpiling, production, transfer, and destruction of antipersonnel land mines was ratified two years after the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty, which forbade the testing of nuclear weapons, was signed in 1996. Neither treaty has yet been enforced. Despite mounting international pressure, the US remained uncommitted to the test moratorium and land mine accords.

It is in Geneva that numerous disarmament negotiations have taken place. There have been several committees tasked with disarmament negotiations: the Ten-Nation Committee on Disarmament (1960), the Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament (1962–68), the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament (1969–78), and the Disarmament Commission (1979–), which continues to this day with over 65 member nations. Despite the lack of concrete agreements

reached during the three disarmament-focused special sessions of the General Assembly, the matter has garnered significant public attention. Limits on bacteriologic, chemical, nuclear, and poisonous weapons have been considerably reduced in other forums.

2.14 Critiques:

Many people have issues with the United Nations (UN) and its policies, philosophy, administration, ability to enforce decisions, and ideological bias, among other things.

Arguments against the UN often centre on its supposed ineffectiveness in preventing or resolving conflicts (ranging from social disputes to full-scale wars), antisemitism, appeasement, collusion, promotion of globalism, inactivity, abuse of power by nations controlling the UN General Assembly, corruption, and resource mismanagement.

It is believed that the United Nations has failed on multiple occasions in its efforts to avert wars and uphold its charter.

2.14.1 Moral Relativism

From its early days of moral clarity to its current stance on controversial topics like terrorism and genocide, the organisation has displayed a continual lack of clarity in its moral stance. At the time of the book's publication, only 75 out of 184 member states "were free democracies, according to Freedom House." This is in stark contrast to the original goal of the UN, which was to bring together nations that had declared war on at least one of the Axis powers of WWII and could effectively oppose war. Gold claims that the modern UN has become overly diluted since its founding. Additionally, he asserted that this made the United Nations more accommodating to the demands of autocratic governments.

2.14.2Threat to National Sovereignty

Some think the United Nations is evil because it promotes globalism and could harm national sovereignty. One American group that opposed the UN from the start was the John Birch Society. The "Get US Out!" campaign asserted in 1959 that the "Real nature of [the] UN is to build a One World Government," which was one of the earliest public endeavours of the Society. Years after that, the JBS kept fighting against American membership in the UN. It was French President Charles de Gaulle who infamously referred to the United Nations as "le machine" ("the thing"). He advocated for bilateral defense treaties instead of relying on a global security alliance, which he saw as ineffective in preserving international peace.

Debates surrounding population control and abortion

Some conservatives in the United States have claimed that the UN Population Fund has funded government initiatives that encourage coercive sterilisations and forced abortions. Congressional action in 1985 authorised the president to withhold federal funds from any program that they determined to involve "coercive abortion or involuntary sterilisation" in reaction to these claims. The Mexico City policy has been in effect since its adoption, and every Republican president (Reagan, H.W. Bush, W. Bush, and Trump) has continued to withhold funds from the UNFPA.

2.15 Reforms:

As a representation of the global power structure in 1945, the permanent membership of the UN Security Council is a topic of much discussion regarding restructuring the UN. For a more balanced representation on the council, several groups and individuals have proposed adding additional permanent members, such as the G4 nations, the Uniting for Consensus group, and former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan. These additional members include Brazil, Germany, India, and Japan.

On a different level, some who advocate for UN reform want to see the UN Secretariat—often known as "the bureaucracy"—reformed so that it is more open, responsible, and efficient. They also want the Secretary-General elected directly by the people, similar to a presidential system.

The United Nations (UN) is often cited as an example of an entity that has to be "more democratic" to foster real global democracy. This calls into question the very foundations of the United Nations. Instead of being a global government, the United Nations is a platform where independent nations can discuss global concerns and agree on standard policies. Under direct democracy, the people of democracies around the world would elect the United Nations Secretary-General (a form of world presidential), as well as members of the General Assembly (similar to how many systems assign specific responsibilities to representatives at the local, state, and national levels) and the International Court of Justice. For positions as consequential as an empowered World Court, some have advocated a hybrid model of direct and indirect democracy in which national governments can officially recognise widespread desire.

2.15 Short Summary:

Foundation and Purpose	Established on October 24, 1945, the United Nations (UN) was created to maintain global peace, enhance security, and encourage cooperation among nations.
Headquarters	The UN is headquartered in New York City, USA.
Principal Organs	• General Assembly • Security Council • Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) • International Court of Justice (ICJ) • UN Secretariat • Trusteeship Council
Current Secretary-General	António Guterres of Portugal currently serves as the UN Secretary-General.
Specialized Agencies and Programs	The UN oversees numerous agencies and initiatives such as the World Health Organization (WHO), UNESCO, UNDP, UNHCR, and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).
Key Achievements	• Facilitating peace negotiations in conflict zones. • Defending and promoting human rights and providing humanitarian assistance • Contributing to the eradication of diseases. • Delivering aid during natural disasters, conflicts, and food crises.

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. **What are the primary purposes of the United Nations as outlined in the UN Charter?**
2. **Describe the functions of the Security Council and the General Assembly.**
3. **What are the main challenges facing the UN in the 21st century?**
4. **How do the specialised agencies contribute to the work of the UN system?**
5. **What are the potential reforms that could strengthen the effectiveness of the UN?**

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Unit # 3

REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

This unit examines regional organisations' evolution, structure, and functions, emphasising their growing role in international relations. Regional organisations emerged as a response to the increasing interdependence of states, driven by industrialisation, trade, and the need for collaboration in addressing shared challenges such as economic integration, security, and standardisation of communication systems.

The unit explores the motivations behind their formation, including fostering economic growth, maintaining peace, and promoting regional solidarity. It also highlights the diversity of regional organisations, ranging from political and economic unions like the European Union to security-focused alliances such as ASEAN. The importance of balancing regional needs with global responsibilities is discussed, showcasing how regional organisations contribute to and complement global governance frameworks.

By addressing historical examples and contemporary relevance, the unit underscores the significance of these organisations in promoting cooperation and addressing issues that transcend national borders

OBJECTIVES:
➢ **To examine regional organisations' development, structure, and functions, focusing on their role in promoting regional cooperation in economic integration, security, and social development.**
➢ **The unit explores how regional organisations complement global governance frameworks.**

3.1 European Union:

A political and economic superstate consisting of 27 member nations primarily situated in Europe, the European Union (EU) is a transnational organisation. More than 449 million people live in the Union, covering an area of 4,233,255 km2 (1,634,469 sq mi). The European Union (EU) is a unique political organisation that combines the features of a federation and a confederation.

The European Union (EU) countries made up 5.8% of the global population in 2020. They produced a nominal GDP of around $16.6 trillion in 2022, or about a sixth of the world's total nominal GDP. In addition, the UNDP reports that, except for Bulgaria, every member state of the European Union has a very high Human Development Index. An internal single market based on a common legal framework and legislation applies in all member states in those areas, and only in those matters where the states have agreed to act as one, was made possible by the Customs Union, its cornerstone. Enacting laws in justice and home affairs, maintaining standard policies on trade, agriculture, fisheries, and regional development, and ensuring the free movement of people, goods, services, and money inside the internal market are the fundamental goals of EU policy.

Fun Fact

Did you know the European Union (EU) started as a simple economic agreement between six countries in 1957, known as the European Economic Community (EEC)? Over the decades, it evolved into the EU, a political and economic union of 27 countries, with its currency, the euro, used by 19 member states. Today, it's one of the world's most integrated and influential regional organisations!

Travel within the Schengen Area is no longer subject to passport controls. Twenty member states of the European Union that have fully adopted the monetary and economic union and use the euro constitute the eurozone. A new role for the union in military and international relations has emerged through the Common Foreign and Security Policy. The country has diplomatic missions all around the globe and is a member of several international organisations, including the UN, WTO, G7, and G20. Some researchers dub the European Union a rising superpower due to its global influence.

The European Union (EU) and its inhabitants were born with the Maastricht Treaty in 1993, and they became a distinct legal entity upon the Treaty of Lisbon's 2009 entry into force. Its roots can be found in the treaties that established the Western Union, the International Authority for the Ruhr, the European Coal and Steel Community, the European Economic Community, and the European Atomic Energy Community, as well as in the founding of modern European integration in

1948 among the Inner Six states (Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and West Germany). These progressively merged entities, like their formal successor, the European Union, expanded in size and influence due to the admission of 22 more states between 1973 and 2013. The European Union was granted the Nobel Peace Prize in 2012. With the departure of the UK in 2020, 10 more nations are actively seeking or in negotiations to become members of the European Union.

3.2 Asean

Ten Southeast Asian nations have formed the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), an economic and political union. Its member states' combined population and land area exceed 600 million people and 4.5 million km2 (1.7 million sq mi).In 2022, the bloc's GDP was over US$10.2 trillion, or about 6.5% of the world's GDP, when adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP). Among ASEAN's members are some of the world's most rapidly expanding economies, and the organisation is crucial to East Asian regionalism. The main goals of ASEAN, according to the organisation, consist of "to accelerate economic growth, social progress and cultural development in the region", as well as "to promote regional peace and stability through abiding respect for justice and the rule of law in the relationship among countries in the region and adherence to the principles of the United Nations Charter." In recent years, the bloc's goals have expanded beyond the social and economic realms.

Fun Fact
It holds an annual "ASEAN Day" on August 8th to celebrate its founding in 1967. The day highlights the organisation's achievements in promoting regional peace, security, and economic cooperation.

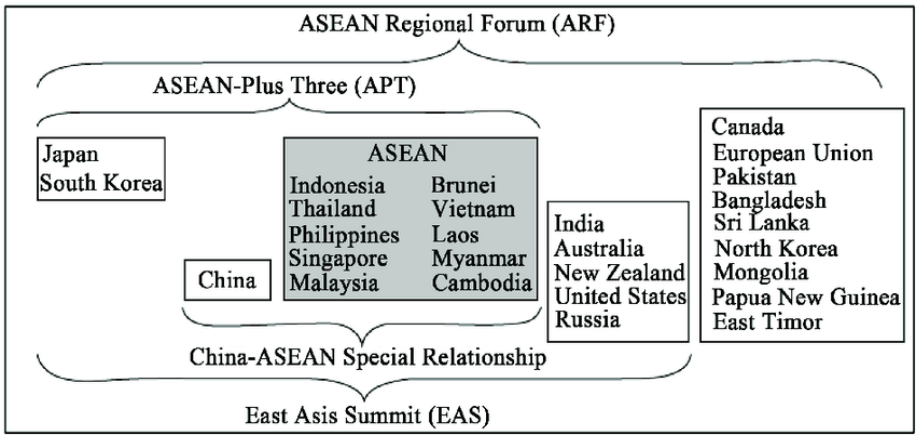
From the Asia-Pacific area and beyond, ASEAN collaborates with other global organisations. It has strong ties to the United Nations, Shanghai Cooperation Organization, PA, GCC, MERCOSUR, CELAC, and ECO. Additionally, it serves as a hub for diplomatic missions around the globe, fostering a vast web of connections that is generally considered the most essential platform for collaboration in the area.[18] Thanks to its success, APEC and RCEP, two of the biggest trading blocs ever, have emerged. Joined by the Philippines, Malaysia, and Thailand on July 31, 1961, the Association of Southeast Asia (ASA) was the forerunner of ASEAN. On August 8, 1967, the ASEAN Declaration was signed by the foreign ministers of five countries: Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand, officially creating ASEAN. The Declaration states that the objectives of ASEAN include fostering regional peace, accelerating economic, social, and cultural development within

the region, working together on issues of common interest, increasing knowledge about Southeast Asia, and fostering strong partnerships with other international organisations. In 1954, as an extension of the "containment" policy, the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia formed the South East Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) with several Southeast Asian allies to establish an Eastern equivalent of NATO. These events also prompted the earlier foundation of the organisation. On the other hand, the ASEAN group's local member states became more cohesive in the mid-1970s, when the power dynamic shifted due to the Vietnam War's end in April 1975, the Fall of Saigon, and the demise of SEATO. An agreement on multiple industrial projects, a Treaty of Amity and Cooperation, and a Declaration of Concord resulted from the 1976 ASEAN summit in Bali, Indonesia. After the Cold War ended, ASEAN member states could assert more political autonomy within the area. By the 1990s, ASEAN had become a prominent regional commerce and security discussion player. With the signing of the Southeast Asian Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone Treaty on December 15, 1995, the region of Southeast Asia was officially designated as a zone free of nuclear weapons. After every member state accepted the treaty except for one, it went into force on March 28, 1997. It effectively banned all nuclear weapons in the region after the Philippines ratified it on 21 June 2001, making it fully operational.

3.3 Asean Regional Forum:

3.3.1 The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

Pakistan's trade volume with ASEAN hit a record high of US$11 billion in 2022, making ASEAN a significant trading partner of Pakistan. In contrast to its $8.8 billion in imports, Pakistan sent $3 billion in exports to the ASEAN nations. The five ASEAN nations—Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, and Vietnam—account for 90% of Pakistan's commerce. Over the years, Pakistan has served as an ASEAN Sectoral Dialogue Partner. In 1999, during the First Meeting of the ASEAN-Pakistan Joint Sectoral Cooperation Committee (APJSCC) in Bali, Indonesia, the sectoral dialogue relations between Pakistan and ASEAN were formalised. Reviewing and setting the agenda for cooperation in agreed sectors is the job of APJSCC, an institutional body. Relations between Pakistan and ASEAN have grown steadily stronger. Economic cooperation, Food and Agriculture, Science and Technology, Information and Communication Technology, Tourism, Disaster Management, Culture, Human Resource Development, Connectivity, Narrowing the Development Gap, and initiatives for ASEAN integration are some of the additional areas where the two countries have agreed to increase their cooperation as of March 2019.



Several joint initiatives between Pakistan and ASEAN have been put into action. In 1994, Pakistan contributed $1 million to launch the ASEAN-Pakistan Cooperation Fund (APCF). The Fund funds cooperation initiatives and activities. Through its Pakistan Technical Assistance Program (PTAP), Pakistan provides thirteen annual seats to students from ASEAN countries pursuing degrees in engineering, BDS/MBBS, and other related professions.

3.3.2 Asean Regional Forum (ARF)

A vital venue for security discourse in Asia, the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) has been around since 1994 and supplements several bilateral alliances and discussions. The platform allows members to address current security concerns in the region and work together to find solutions through confidence-building and preventive diplomacy. The goal is to make the region more secure. On July 2, 2004, in Jakarta, Pakistan became the newest signatory to the Southeast Asian Treaty of Amity and Cooperation. Also, that day, Pakistan was admitted as the ASEAN Regional Forum's (ARF) 24th participant. Among the Sectoral Dialogue Partners, Pakistan is an ARF member that has actively participated in several ARF-sponsored events and gatherings. The ARF Heads of Defense Universities and Institutes Meeting was held in Pakistan in 2021.

3.4 Summary:

Foundation	Formed on August 8, 1967, in Bangkok, Thailand.
Headquarter	Based in Jakarta, Indonesia.
Member States	Comprises Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam.
Core Objectives	• Strengthen regional peace and security.

	• Enhance economic integration, social development, and cultural cooperation. • Promote free trade and investment within the region.
Main Bodies	ASEAN Summit: The Top decision-making body, involving heads of state.
Ministerial Councils	Oversee various sectors (economic, political-security, socio-cultural).
ASEAN Secretariat	Implements decisions and coordinates ASEAN's activities; led by the Secretary-General.
Key Initiatives	• ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) • ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) • ASEAN Charter
Achievements	• Created a unified economic community (AEC) to increase market access and competitiveness. • Promoted peaceful conflict resolution in the region. • Strengthened collaboration in disaster response, education, and public health.
Challenges and Criticism	• Diverse political systems and economic disparities among members. • Criticized for a non-interference policy, which limits action on human rights or internal conflicts. • Struggles with consensus-building due to differing national interests.

3.5 OIC:

The 57 member states that comprise the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) span four continents and place it second only to the United Nations in terms of size among intergovernmental organisations. To defend and advance Muslim interests in economic, social, and political spheres, the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) serves as a unified front. The OIC's Institutions carry out programs. Its main office is located in the city of Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Fun Fact
OIC (Organization of Islamic Cooperation): The second-largest intergovernmental organisation after the United Nations, with 57 member states! The OIC promotes solidarity among Muslim-majority countries and addresses issues like human rights, peace, and development across the Islamic world.

ISLAMIC SUMMIT

Membership in the Islamic Summit ranges from kings and heads of state to ministers and cabinet members, and it serves as the highest level of leadership within the OIC. Every three years, it meets to discuss and decide on policies, give direction on achieving goals, and address other matters that the Ummah and Member States have in common.

Short Summary:

Foundation	Established on September 25, 1969.
Headquarter	The Headquarter is based in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia
Member States	Comprises 57 state members, including 48 Muslim-majority countries and 9 non-Muslim-majority countries.
Main Objectives	• Promote Islamic Solidarity • Safeguard the Interests of Muslims • Promote Peace and Security
Key Structures	• Islamic Summit • Council of Foreign Ministers • General Secretariat • Standing Committees
Achievements	• Humanitarian and Development Assistance • Mediation and Conflict Resolution in countries like Afghanistan and Sudan. • Support for the Palestine cause
Challenges and Criticism	• Lack of Unity Among Member States • Ineffectiveness in Conflict Resolution • Overreliance on a Few Powerful States

3.6 COUNCIL OF FOREIGN MINISTERS (CFM)

At its annual meeting, the Council of Foreign Ministers reviews the progress made in implementing the decisions and resolutions passed at earlier Islamic Summits and Councils of Foreign Ministers, deliberates on issues of common interest in implementing the OIC's goals and general policy, and adopts decisions and resolutions on these topics. After reviewing the program, the CFM gives its approval.

3.7 General Secretariat

As the executive arm of the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC), the General Secretariat is responsible for carrying out the will of the various OIC committees that make decisions. The Secretary-General is in charge of it. Some of the divisions that make up the General Secretariat and help the OIC run well daily are: The following departments are involved: a) Palestine and Al-Quds Affairs, b) Political Affairs and Muslim Minorities, c) Economic Affairs, d) Science and Technology (including Environment, Health and Higher Education), e) International Cooperation and Humanitarian Affairs (ICHAD), f) Administration and Finance, g) Directorate of Culture and Social and Family Affairs, h) Department of Legal Affairs, i) Department of Public Information and Communications, j)Department of Information Technology, k) Department of Conference, and l) Department of Protocol and Public Relations.

Affiliated Institutions: Institutions from Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) member nations are welcome to apply for membership, and the Council of Foreign Ministers might approve their request for observer status. The Secretariat General's budget does not affect the spending of connected institutions, in contrast to the budgets of subsidiary organs. Voluntary aid is available from Member States and subsidiary and specialised organs.

Specialised Institutions Decisions made by the Council of Foreign Ministers or Islamic Summits lead to the establishment of specialised institutions. The budgets of the specialised organs are approved by their respective governing bodies and are separate from the budget of the OIC Secretariat General.

Islamic Cooperation and the Problem of Muslim Minorities Claiming to have been eager to do all in its power to protect the rights of Muslim minorities in non-member States and to oppose their persecution since its inception, the OIC has pledged to do just that. The OIC framework has a non-functional Directorate of Muslim Minorities Communities. When it comes to helping out Muslim minority communities, the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) says they have a hand. "Indeed, they have helped with the endeavours to better the economic and social circumstances of these Muslim communities through funding development projects and humanitarian aid," according to the Islamic Solidarity Fund (ISF) and the Islamic Development Bank (IDB). Additionally, the study "Muslim Communities in non-Member States of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation 2020" provides insight into the many initiatives carried out by the OIC to support and care for Muslim communities.

3.7 SAARC

South Asian states are geographically and politically united under the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). The following countries are part of it: Afghanistan, Bhutan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, and the Maldives. In 2021, SAARC accounted for 3% of the Earth's surface, 21% of the human population, and 5.21% (or $4.47 trillion) of the world's GDP. On 8 December 1985, SAARC was established in Dhaka. Kathmandu, Nepal, is home to its secretariat. Regional integration and economic development are the goals of the group. In 2006, it established the South Asian Free Trade Area. In addition to its established connections with international organisations like the EU, SAARC's status as an observer at the UN ensures that the organisation's diplomatic relationships remain strong. However, the organisation was suspended for a long time due to the geopolitical rivalry between Pakistan and India, as well as the situation in Afghanistan. Currently, India cooperates with its eastern neighbours through BIMSTEC.

3.7.1 Objectives

According to the Association's Charter, its goals are as follows: to accelerate economic growth, social progress, and cultural development in the region; to promote the welfare of the people of South Asia and to improve their quality of life; and to provide all individuals with the opportunity to live in dignity and to realise their full potential. To encourage and support South Asian nations' growing capacity for selective self-sufficiency; To help people in these regions learn to trust one another and empathise with their struggles. The goals of this grouping are as follows: to encourage constructive cooperation and mutual aid in the areas of economics, social work, culture, and technology; to forge closer ties with other developing nations; to work together more effectively in international forums to address issues of common interest; and to work in tandem with regional and international groups that share their goals.

3.7.2 Principles of SAARC

All member states are respected for their independence, sovereignty, territorial integrity, and political equality. Among its goals is the prevention of meddling in domestic affairs—teamwork for the advantage of both parties. There must be a quorum of all eight members for any decision to be made unanimously. We must set aside all bilateral matters and focus on multilateral concerns involving multiple nations, free from the bias of bilateral issues.

3.7.3 SAARC Specialized Bodies

SAARC Development Fund (SDF): Its principal focus is collaboration on social sector projects (such as development, poverty reduction, etc.). Members of the Member States' Ministries of Finance comprise the SDF board. The governing body of SDF, which consists of the finance ministers of MSs, is responsible for monitoring the board's operations. The South Asian University. One such international institution is India's South Asian University (SAU). The SAU's degree and certificate offerings are on par with those of the nation's top universities and colleges.

South Asian Regional Standards Organization The South Asian Regional Standards Organization (SARSO) and its headquarters are in Dhaka, Bangladesh. To create unified standards for the area to ease intra-regional trade and gain access to the global market, it was set up to accomplish and improve coordination and collaboration among SAARC member nations in standardisation and conformity assessment domains. SAARC Court for Arbitration. The purpose of this regional intergovernmental organisation (with headquarters in Pakistan) is to facilitate the speedy and equitable resolution of commercial, industrial, trade, banking, investment, and any other disputes that may arise between the member states and their citizens

Fun Fact
SAARC (South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation): It was founded in 1985 with just eight members—Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. Despite the region's political differences, SAARC aims to promote regional cooperation in economic development, education, and cultural exchange. **4o mini**

SAARC Achievements

Free Trade Area (FTA): SAARC is a relatively young organisation in international politics. The member nations have formed a Free Trade Area (FTA), leading to increased intra-member trade and reduced trade deficit for specific states.

In 1995, the South Asia Preferential Trading Agreement (SAPTA) was enacted to enhance trade among the member nations.

The South American Free Trade Agreement (SAFTA) is limited to trade in goods and does not cover services such as IT. According to a negotiated agreement, all traded items will have their customs taxes reduced to zero by 2016. Service Trade

Agreement among SAARC Member States (SATIS): SATIS liberalises service trade in the same way as GATS, plus the 'positive list' strategy. An energy reserve in Pakistan, a food bank in India, and a SAARC university are all worthy goals.

In addition to the persistent issues plaguing South Asian nations, the SAARC member states also deal with internal strife. Since its creation in 1985, SAARC has been consumed by disputes between Pakistan and India, which have hindered economic growth and collective independence. Both nations have weakened the union to the point where members trade less and more through bilateral agreements. Growth disparities in South Asia have consequently been expanding at an alarming rate.

3.7.4 Summary:

Foundation and Purpose	Established on December 8, 1985, in Dhaka, Bangladesh.
Headquarter	Located in Kathmandu, Nepal.
Member States	Includes Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, the Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka.
Main Objectives	• Foster regional integration and cooperation in areas such as agriculture, education, health, environment, and culture. • Promote peace, stability, and economic development within the South Asian region.
Key Bodies	• Summit Meetings • Council of Ministers • Standing Committee • Secretariat
Specialized Bodies and Centres	SAARC has established specialized centres and regional programs focused on areas like agriculture, disaster management, energy, and

	human resources.
Achievements	• Initiated SAFTA (South Asian Free Trade Area) to boost intra-regional trade. • Launched cooperation in climate change, poverty alleviation, and healthcare. • Enhanced cultural exchange and educational collaboration among member nations.
Challenges and Criticism	• Political tensions, especially between India and Pakistan, often hinder progress. • Lack of effective enforcement mechanisms and slow implementation of decisions. • Limited intra-regional trade compared to other regional blocs.

3.8 ECO

The leaders of Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey established the Economic Cooperation Organization (ECO) in 1985 in Tehran as an international body focusing on economics and politics in Eurasia. Opportunities for trade and investment can be discussed, and methods for better development can be laid out on this platform. The United Nations Charter establishes the ECO as an ad hoc organisation. The third goal is to follow in the footsteps of the European Union and create a unified market for all products and services. Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, and Uzbekistan were all admitted to the Eurasian Community in 1992 following the breakup of the Soviet Union.

Bilateral agreements and arbitration procedures between individual and fully sovereign member nations constitute the bulk of the ECO's present framework. That is why the ECO is comparable to ASEAN; both organisations facilitate trade among independent member states through their respective bureaucracies and offices. In this part of the border region between Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, and

Kyrgyzstan lies the Ferghana Valley, an agriculturally linked region that has long allowed trade and joint agricultural output. Implementing Pakistan's free trade agreements with Afghanistan and Iran is now underway.

Along with the Pakistan-Turkey FTA, there were plans to sign a free trade agreement between Iran and Turkey in 2017. With the help of the Afghanistan-Pakistan Transit Trade Agreement, Central Asian countries can trade goods and services with one another more easily. In addition to the multi-modal transport pact between the Central Asian governments known as the Ashgabat Accord. The members intend to continue working together by constructing gas pipelines between Iran and Pakistan and Turkmenistan, Afghanistan, and Pakistan. There are now two pipelines in operation: the projected Persian Pipeline and the Tarbuz–Ankara pipeline. Adding to this is the transit of gas and oil from Central Asian nations like Turkmenistan and Kazakhstan to fuel industrialisation in countries like Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey, among others. Pakistan intends to diversify its gas and oil supply by looking to the Central Asian republics, particularly Azerbaijan, for petroleum import contracts. Pakistan is home to the ECO Science Foundation, while Turkey is home to the ECO Educational Institute and the ECO Trade and Development Bank. Iran is home to the ECO Secretariat and ECO Cultural Institute.

To the Economic Cooperation Organization (ECO), 2015 was pivotal. The fifteenth meeting of the Council of Ministers, which took place in Astana, Republic of Kazakhstan, on October 1, 2005, was the last gathering before the implementation of Vision 2015. By the year's conclusion, 2015 had passed, and the geo-strategic environment that had inspired Vision 2015 had transformed.

Fun Fact

ECO (Economic Cooperation Organization): The ECO was established in 1985 and includes 10 member countries from Central Asia, the Caucasus, and the Middle East. It focuses on promoting economic cooperation and development in the region, and interestingly, it was initially formed as a successor to the regional cooperation between Iran, Pakistan, and Turkey, which had been established in 1964.

The global economy was hit particularly hard in 2007 and 2009, with some comparing it to the Great Depression in the 1930s. The Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP) and the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) are two examples of regional economic integration initiatives. Because non-member developing nations' exports tend to fall with the blocs, these efforts towards regional economic integration pose a danger to them. The ECO had to set its goals and strategy for the next decade in the face of this shifting global climate. The global and regional

issues necessitated a fresh course of action for ECO. The "ECO Vision 2025" was the vehicle for this. A Vision Conference was convened in December 2015, including brainstorming sessions. A Vision Statement was formulated during this Conference. Over the following few months, the ECO Secretary General presided over multiple sessions. The fundamental principles, areas of collaboration (priority areas), methods for execution, review, and financing framework were all determined during these meetings. This was further discussed at the special session on Vision that preceded the ECO Regional Planning Council's (RPC) 27th Meeting in December 2016.

3.8.1 Core Principles and Cooperation Areas

"Sustainability," "Integration," and "Conducive Environment" are the three pillars upon which the "ECO Vision 2025" grows. These six priority areas of cooperation are the centre of this vision:

1. Commercial Activity

2. Mobility and Networking

3. Power Travel and Tourism

4. Productivity and Growth in the Economy

5. Tourism

6. Environmental and Social Welfare

The policy climate, strategic goals, and anticipated results of each of the aforementioned areas of cooperation are unique. The overarching goals that will be accomplished are laid forth in the Strategic Objectives. An enabling environment must be established to achieve the Strategic Objectives, and the Policy Environment lays out the steps to do just that. To measure the success of the Vision's execution, we will look at the Expected Outcomes, which are the precise steps that will be taken to achieve the Strategic Objectives.

Short Summary:

Foundation	Founded in 1985
Headquarter	Located in Tehran, Iran
Member States	The member states include: Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Iran, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan
Main Objectives	• Promote Economic Cooperation • Improve Infrastructure and Connectivity

	• Achieve Sustainable Development
Key Structures	• Council of Ministers • Council of Permanent Representatives (CPR) • Regional Institutions and Agencies • Secretariat
Achievements	• ECO Trade Agreement (ECOTA) • Regional Infrastructure Projects • Energy Cooperation Initiatives
Challenges and Criticism	• Political Tensions Among Members • Inefficient Implementation of Agreements • Lack of Institutional Capacity and Visibility

3.9 SCO

China and Russia formed the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) in 2001 to coordinate Eurasia's political, economic, and military efforts. Reaching about 42% of the global population and around 24% of the earth's surface (65% of Eurasia), it is the most prominent regional organisation globally by both geographical reach and population. They make up around 36% of the world's GDP when adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP), while their combined nominal GDP accounts for about 23% till 2024. In 1996, the People's Republic of China, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, and Tajikistan founded the Shanghai Five. The Shanghai Five was succeeded by the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO). A new organisation with more substantial political and economic ties was announced in June 2001 in Shanghai by the leaders of these nations and Uzbekistan. It grew to eight states in June 2017 when it partnered with Pakistan and India. Both Iran and Belarus became members in July 2023 and 2024, respectively. Several nations participate as either observers or dialogue partners. The Heads of State Council (HSC) meets annually to rule the SCO and make the highest-level decisions. There is also the Regional Anti-Terrorist Structure (RATS) inside the group.

3.9.1 Summary:

Foundation	Established on June 15, 2001, in Shanghai, China.
Headquarter	Secretariat is based in Beijing, China.
Member States	Includes China, Russia, India, Pakistan, Kazakhstan,

	Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and newer members like Iran.
Main Objectives	• Combat terrorism, extremism, and separatism. • Strengthen regional peace, economic ties, and multilateral cooperation. • Promote energy, transport, and trade collaboration.
Key Structures	• Heads of State Council: Supreme decision-making body. • Council of Foreign Ministers and Secretariat: Handle day-to-day operations and diplomatic coordination. • Regional Anti-Terrorist Structure (RATS): Based in Tashkent, it focuses on security cooperation.
Achievements	• Increased security coordination in Central Asia. • Expanded cooperation in energy, connectivity, and education. • Provided a platform for dialogue among major powers like China, Russia, and India.
Challenges and Criticism	• Geopolitical rivalries among key members can hinder unity. • Limited effectiveness in economic integration compared to other regional blocs. • Critics argue it leans more towards security cooperation than economic development.

3.9.2 The Shanghai Five

When the presidents of China, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, and Tajikistan signed the Treaty on Deepening Military Trust in Border Regions in Shanghai on April 26, 1996, it formed the Shanghai Five group. These same nations met in Moscow, Russia, on April 24, 1997, to sign the Treaty on the Reduction of Military Forces in Border Regions. Presidents Boris Yeltsin of Russia and Jiang Zemin of China signed a proclamation regarding a "multipolar world" on May 20, 1997. Almaty, Kazakhstan, hosted the 1998 Shanghai Five conference; Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan, 1999; and Dushanbe, Tajikistan, 2000. At the summit in Dushanbe, participants pledged to "oppose intervention in other countries' internal affairs on the grounds of 'humanitarianism' and 'protecting human rights;' and support the efforts of one another in safeguarding the five countries' national independence, sovereignty, territorial integrity, and social stability." Rapid settlement of border

disputes, consensus on troop deployments along borders, and mitigation of security concerns were all facilitated under the Shanghai Five framework.

The association was formalised in 2001 when the 12th yearly summit was held in Shanghai again. Uzbekistan was first admitted to the Shanghai Five mechanism among the five member nations. By signing the Declaration of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization on June 15, 2001, all six heads of state acknowledged the Shanghai Five Mechanism's accomplishments and expressed their desire to elevate its collaboration. The Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) expanded swiftly between 2001 and 2008, forming many permanent entities and ad hoc efforts to address economic and security concerns. The SCO Charter, which outlined the organisation's goals, principles, structures, and methods of operation, was signed by the chiefs of state of the member states during a summit in Saint Petersburg, Russia, in June 2002. Its effective date was September 19, 2003. "The leaders of the states sitting at this negotiation table are representatives of half of humanity," Nursultan Nazarbayev, president of Kazakhstan, greeted the guests at the first-ever Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) summit in July 2005 in Astana, Kazakhstan. Representatives from Pakistan, India, Iran, Mongolia, and Iran attended the summit. In 2007, the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) convened regular meetings of members' security, defense, foreign affairs, economic, cultural, banking, and other relevant officials. It launched over twenty large-scale transportation, energy, and telecommunications projects.

India and Pakistan were admitted as full members of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) in July 2015 in Ufa, Russia. Both parties initiated their membership in the SCO in June 2016 in Tashkent by signing a memorandum of commitment. Pakistan and India formally became full members of the SCO in June 2017 during a summit in Kazakhstan.

3.9.3 Significance of the SCO

The six member states of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO)—Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Russia—combine to cover about 60% of Eurasia and 25% of the global population.7 A contact group of Sri Lanka, Belarus, Turkey, and observer nations, Pakistan, India, and Iran, undoubtedly raises the organisation's visibility. Consequently, SCO has become a significant platform for discussing various economic, political, and security issues. Respect for each other's independence and sovereignty, territorial integrity, non-interference in internal affairs, non-use of force against each other, and settlement of conflicts through discussions are all essential parts of the SCO charter that contribute to a peaceful region.8 The increasing energy demand worldwide has helped SCO quickly expand its operations, thanks to its vast fossil

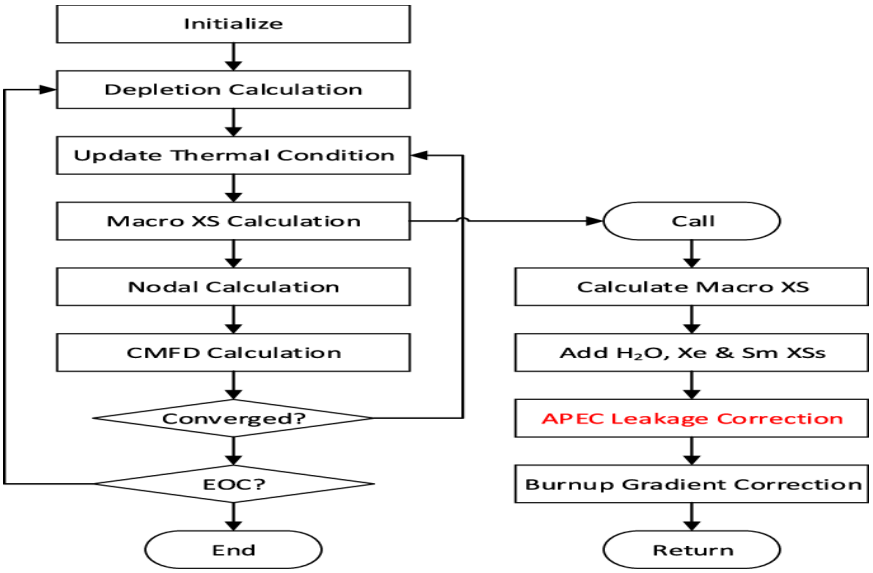
fuel deposits. The Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO) brings together Kazakhstan and Tajikistan, two of the world's most prominent energy producers, with China, the world's second-largest energy consumer.

3.9.4 Achievements of the SCO

The SCO has effectively developed a plan to foster domestic stability and regional security. Countering transnational and intraregional threats, including narcotics and weapons trafficking, organised crime, and terrorism, is central to the Shanghai Cooperation Organization's (SCO) security paradigm 10. To be more effective in their fight against extremism, separatism, and terrorism, the alliance frequently conducts joint air, naval, and ground exercises. All member states show solidarity by participating in these military exercises, a precursor to a full-scale invasion.

3.10 APEC:

Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (Promoting free trade throughout the Asia-Pacific region, APEC is an intergovernmental conference comprising 21 member economies. In 1989, APEC was established in response to the increasing interdependence of Asia-Pacific economies and the emergence of regional trade blocs worldwide. Its goal was to expand markets for agricultural products and raw materials beyond Europe, building upon the success of ASEAN's post-ministerial conferences that had begun in the mid-1980s. With its headquarters in Singapore, APEC is a prominent multilateral bloc that has been around for a long time and is widely regarded as one of the most influential forums in the Asia-Pacific area.



An annual APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting is attended by the heads of government of all APEC members except Taiwan, which is represented by a ministerial-level official representing it as its economic leader. Every year, a different member economy takes turns hosting the summit, and one well-known custom is that the heads of state who attend dress in the national attire of the country hosting the gathering. A trio of regional secretariats—one from the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, the Pacific Economic Cooperation Council, and the Pacific Islands Forum—comprises the official observers of APEC. By G20 regulations, the economy designated as APEC's Host Economy of the Year is initially invited to send a delegate to G20 summits.

Initiated in the mid-1980s, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) post-ministerial conferences proved the practicality and benefit of frequent meetings between developed and developing country ministers. This proved to be the initial inspiration for APEC. Twelve members (six from ASEAN and six from its dialogue partners) could participate in the post-ministerial conferences by 1986. Bob Hawke, the prime minister of Australia, came to believe in the need for regional cooperation on economic issues due to these developments. Pacific Rim nations should work together economically more effectively, Bob Hawke said in January 1989. As a result, in November, Australian Foreign Affairs Minister Gareth Evans presided over the inaugural APEC conference in Canberra, the capital of Australia. Twelve nations' ministers gathered for the meeting, which ended with plans to return to Singapore and South Korea for future annual gatherings. Ten months later, delegates from twelve different Asia-Pacific economies got together to form APEC in Canberra, Australia. To ensure the organisation's smooth operation, the APEC Secretariat was set up and is headquartered in Singapore. Bogor Goals, set by APEC leaders during their 1994 conference in Bogor, Indonesia, sought to achieve free and open trade and investment in the Asia-Pacific region by 2020 for emerging nations and by 2010 for industrialised economies. In 1996, at the APEC Ministerial Meeting in Osaka, Japan, in November 1995, the decision was made to form the APEC Business Advisory Council (ABAC), consisting of three business executives from each member country.

Launched in April 2001 as the Joint Oil Data Exercise, which in 2005 evolved into the Joint Organizations Data Initiative (JODI), APEC worked with five other international organisations—Eurostat, the International Energy Agency, the Organization of the Latin American Energy Exporting Countries (OLADE), the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries, and the United Nations Statistics Division—to conduct the Joint Oil Data Exercise.

There are twenty-one member nations in APEC at the moment. In contrast to

sovereign states, each member must be an autonomous economic entity to be eligible for membership. Therefore, instead of "member countries," APEC calls its member economies. Taiwan, officially the Republic of China (now known as "Chinese Taipei"), the People's Republic of China (for more on this, see Cross-Strait relations), and Hong Kong, a former British colony that is now a Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China, are all members of the forum thanks to this criterion. ASEAN, the Pacific Islands Forum, and the Pacific Economic Cooperation Council are the three official observers of APEC.

APEC has always been at the forefront of regional reform efforts to make business easier. Costs associated with conducting business inside the area fell by 6 percent between 2002 and 2006, largely thanks to the APEC Trade Facilitation Action Plan (TFAPI). The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (APEC) predicts that, from 2007 to 2010, the cost of doing business will decrease by an additional 5%. So, a fresh Trade Facilitation Action Plan has been given the green light. The World Bank's Trade Costs and Facilitation Project released a research brief in 2008 stating that for APEC to achieve its Bogor Goal ambitions, there must be more openness in the region's trade system. One of the tangible steps to ease business is the APEC Business Travel Card, which allows for visa-free business travel within the region. The circle was completed when Russia joined the initiative in May 2010

3.10.1 Summary:

Foundation and Purpose	Founded in 1989 in response to growing interdependence among Asia-Pacific economies.
Headquarters	APEC does not have a permanent headquarters; the APEC Secretariat is based in Singapore.
Member Economies	Includes 21 economies, such as the USA, China, Japan, Russia, Canada, Australia, and ASEAN members like Indonesia, Malaysia, and the Philippines.
Main Objectives	• Enhance economic cooperation, reduce trade barriers, and improve investment flows. • Build a dynamic and sustainable regional economy.
Key Mechanisms	Annual APEC Summit: Attended by leaders of member economies.

	Working Groups: Focus on areas like trade, investment, small businesses, health, energy, and technology.
Achievements	Boosted regional trade liberalization and economic integration. Promoted digital economy cooperation, capacity building, and inclusive growth. Contributed to disaster resilience, pandemic response, and women's economic empowerment.
Challenges and Criticism	• Non-binding nature of its decisions limits enforcement. • Wide economic disparities and political tensions among members. • Criticized for slow progress in deep economic reforms.

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. What are the different types of regional organisations?
2. What are the main objectives of regional integration?
3. Discuss the challenges and benefits of regionalism.
4. Analyze the role of the European Union in the context of regional integration.
5. How do regional organisations interact with the United Nations system?

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UNIT # 4

INTERNATIONAL FINANCIAL INSTITUTES

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INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces the role and structure of international financial institutions (IFIs), focusing on their purpose in fostering global economic stability and development. Institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank are presented as pivotal players in addressing economic challenges such as balance-of-payments crises, poverty alleviation, and sustainable growth.

The *unit o*utlines the IMF's evolution since its establishment at the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944. Initially aimed at maintaining stable exchange rates and providing short-term capital, the IMF has expanded its role, now functioning as a crisis manager and a global financial governor. The World Bank, on the other hand, emphasises poverty reduction and development, financing projects that address critical issues like infrastructure, education, and environmental sustainability.

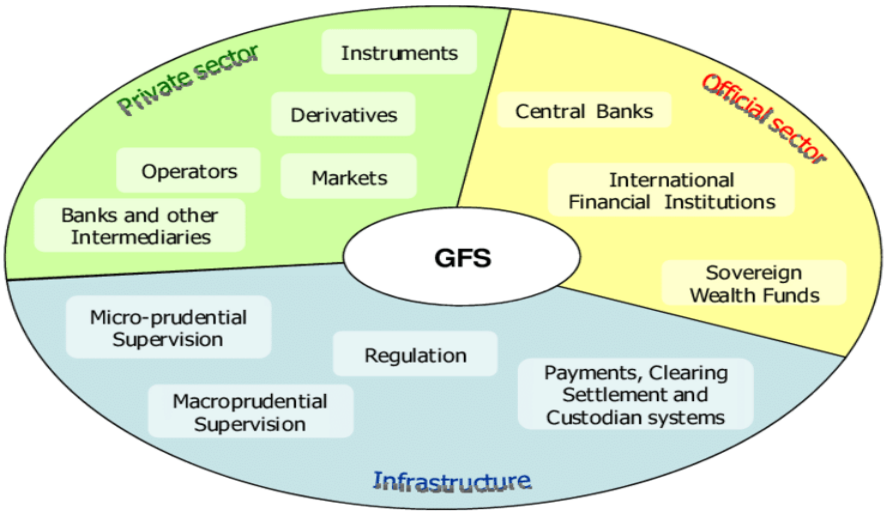
This unit also explores the mechanisms these institutions operate, including lending programs and policy recommendations, while highlighting their controversies and challenges, such as criticism over structural adjustment programs and their impact on developing nat

OBJECTIVES:

- **To introduce international financial institutions (IFIs) such as the IMF and World Bank, explaining their role in fostering global economic stability, development and crisis management.**
- **The unit examines the functions, evolution, and challenges IFIs face in addressing global economic issues.**

4.1 IMF:

With headquarters in Washington, D.C., the International Monetary Fund (IMF) is a big UN financial agency and an international financial organisation supported by 191 member nations. It is a prominent advocate for stable currency rates and



the world's lender of last resort for national governments. It aims to create high employment and sustainable economic growth, ease international trade, secure financial stability, foster global monetary cooperation, and decrease worldwide poverty. In July 1944, at the Bretton Woods Conference, the International Monetary Fund was established to reestablish the international monetary system following World War II. Its primary proponents were Harry Dexter White and John Maynard Keynes, and it began with 29 member nations. The primary goal of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in its early years was to help the industrialised world establish stable exchange rates. In today's world, it's crucial to handle international financial crises and balance of payments issues. Countries can borrow money from a pool if they have balance of payments issues; this happens through a quota system. In addition to monitoring the economy of its member nations and collecting and analysing economic data, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) uses the fund to help stabilise and develop its member nations ' economies. Since 1 October 2019, Bulgarian economist Kristalina Georgieva has served as the chairman and managing director (MD) of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). With effect from January 21, 2022, Indian-American economist Gita Gopinath was promoted from chief economist to first deputy managing director. Chief economist Pierre-Olivier Gourinchas was appointed on January 24, 2022.

4.1.1 Functions

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) aims to promote global economic growth and stability by lending money and offering policy assistance to its members. It collaborates with emerging nations to alleviate poverty and attain macroeconomic stability. One reason is that many nations lack adequate access to financial markets, and another is that private international capital markets do not always function smoothly. Official funding is justified by these market flaws and balance-of-payments financing. Many countries would have to take steps with negative economic repercussions to fix huge external payment imbalances without it. The Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility is one of the alternative funding sources offered by the International Monetary Fund.

In its original form, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) was charged with three primary purposes: monitoring bilateral fixed exchange rate agreements, which helped national governments better control their currency rates and put economic growth at the forefront of policymaking, and providing short-term capital to help balance payments and forestall the global spread of economic crises.

Fun Fact
IMF (International Monetary Fund): The IMF was created in 1944 during the Bretton Woods Conference. Its first loan was given to France in 1947 to help rebuild after World War II. Today, the IMF plays a crucial role in stabilising the global economy, providing financial assistance to needy countries, and offering policy advice to maintain economic stability.

So that the global economy might recover from WWII and the Great Depression, as well as finance development and infrastructure projects.

After 1971, the floating exchange rates significantly changed the role of the IMF. To ascertain if economic policy or volatility caused a lack of capital, the focus turned to studying the economic policies of nations with IMF loan agreements. Additionally, the IMF investigated potential government policies that may guarantee economic revival. The International Monetary Fund's primary goal was to forestall the globalisation of financial crises like the ones that hit Mexico in 1982 and Brazil in 1987, as well as the Asian financial crisis of 1997 and the Russian financial crisis of 1998. Particularly for middle-income nations susceptible to large capital outflows, promoting and implementing a strategy that decreases the frequency of crises among emerging market nations posed a problem. Their role shifted from regulating exchange rates only to tracking the macroeconomic performance of all member nations. The International Monetary

Fund (IMF) is far more involved because it oversees economic policy, not just exchange rates.

On top of that, the principle of conditionality, established by the IMF in the 1950s, allows them to negotiate terms on loans and financing. Through the Extended Credit Facility (ECF), the Standby Credit Facility (SCF), and the Rapid Credit Facility (RCF), low-income nations can borrow money at a reduced interest rate for a set length of time. The Flexible Credit Line (FCL), the Precautionary and Liquidity Line (PLL), the Extended Fund Facility, and the Stand-By Arrangements (SBA) are the primary channels by which low-interest, non-concessional loans are made available. When a member country's balance of payments is in jeopardy, the International Monetary Fund can step in with emergency funding through the Rapid Financing Instrument (RFI).

It is constantly evolving, the most crucial aspect of the IMF's financial structure. Without this, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) cannot adapt to the demands of a dynamic global financial and economic system. To adapt to shifting global economic conditions and the unique needs of its members, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has, throughout the years, implemented and modified several lending facilities and policy adjustments.3 When their necessity diminished or disappeared, it ceased or altered such adjustments. • From 1945 to 1960, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) helped ease trade and payment limitations imposed before and during the war, and it also supported the transition to convertibility among member states for current payments. During this time, the United States Marshall Plan essentially became the primary funding source of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). When the Bretton Woods fixed exchange rate system was under pressure from 1961 to 1970, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) created the special drawing right (SDR) as a supplementary reserve asset and established a standing borrowing arrangement with its most prominent creditor members to help fund crises. Between 1971 and 1980, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) increased its financing and created new lending facilities financed by borrowed funds in response to the two global oil crises. The International Monetary Fund also began providing concessional loans to its weakest members throughout this decade.

4.1.2 Current Financial Structure and Lending Mechanisms of the IMF

One unifying goal of the three main ways the International Monetary Fund (IMF) lends money to its members is the distribution of reserve currencies. Most of the funding for the IMF's normal and concessional loan operations comes from essential lines of credit called "arrangements" with the organisation. The bulk of

the International Monetary Fund's loan is contingent upon the borrower meeting specific goals related to economic stabilisation and structural reform that have been mutually agreed upon. By distributing SDRs to members, the IMF can also establish international reserve assets that members can utilise to borrow foreign currency from one another. Although the market determines an interest rate, using SDRs is unconditional. It provides a brief overview of the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) financial structure and references to the sections of this brochure that go into detail about the three funding channels, as well as a chapter concerning the protections for IMF funds. The brochure has a chronological and institutional structure.

4.1.3 Summary:

Foundation	Established in 1944, began operation on December 27, 1945
Headquarter	Located in Washington, D.C., United States
Member States	Total Members: 190
Main Objectives	• Ensure Global Financial Stability • Facilitate International Trade • Provide Financial Assistance
Key Structures	• Board of Governors • Executive Board • Managing Director • Departments and Country Desks
Achievements	• Crisis Response & Bailouts • Poverty Reduction Programs • Global Economic Surveillance
Challenges and Criticism	• Overreliance on Austerity • Unequal Voting Power • Failure to Predict Crises

4.2 World Bank

Governments in low- and middle-income countries can apply for loans and grants from the World Bank, an international financial institution, to help them grow their economies. Two of the five international institutions owned by the World Bank Group—the International Development Association (IDA) and the

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)—combine to form the World Bank. At the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944, it was founded with the International Monetary Fund. Its first loan to France in 1947 came after a sluggish start. Its initial years were mainly devoted to repairing Europe. Loans to poorer nations became its primary focus over time. Refocusing its development assistance efforts in the 1970s, the World Bank rethought its role in alleviating poverty. It has extended credit to environmental and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) for the past three decades. Social and environmental protections inform its lending practices. A president, twenty-five executive directors, and twenty-nine different vice presidents make up the World Bank's executive team as of 2022. There are 189 member countries of the IBRD and 174 member countries of the IDA. The United States, Japan, China, Germany, and the United Kingdom cast the most votes. To alleviate poverty, the bank lends money to emerging nations.



The bank is contributing to efforts to combat climate change by participating in several international partnerships and programs. Publications from the World Bank are housed in an Open Knowledge Repository. With 12,300 full-time employees and operations in 145 countries, the World Bank's total commitments in 2020 were USD 77.1 billion. As a result of their breadth and depth, World Bank initiatives are interconnected with the majority of the Sustainable Development Goals; these include constructing schools, combating diseases, supplying water and power, and protecting the environment. Several people believe that the World Bank is helping fuel inflation and hurting economic growth. The management and reaction of the bank during the COVID-19 outbreak have also come under fire. In contrast to his predecessor, David Malpass, current president Ajay Banga is well-known for advocating climate action (beginning in 2023).

In addition to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank was established at the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944. Historically, Americans have held the position of president of the World Bank. The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund collaborate closely from their headquarters in Washington, D.C.

Where the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund were founded—the Gold Room at the Mount Washington Hotel

The United States and the United Kingdom were the most potent countries participating in the Bretton Woods Conference, and their presence and influence greatly impacted the deliberations. The World Bank was established for low-income nations that did not have the financial wherewithal to secure short-term loans from commercial lenders. In addition to making loans, the bank may propose policy changes for those who take them out.

The bank got off to a sluggish start in its early years due to underfunding and leadership conflicts between its president and the US executive director. In 1947, when the Marshall Plan was implemented, numerous European nations started getting assistance from different sources. The World Bank turned its attention away from European friends in the face of this rivalry. Until 1968, the organisation's loans were meant to fund the building of ports, highways, and power plants, among other infrastructure projects, so that the borrowing countries could eventually pay them back. Soft loans were provided to developing nations by the International Development Association, established in 1960 (as opposed to SUNFED, a UN fund).

Before 1974, World Bank loans for development and rehabilitation were smaller. Everyone on staff understood how important it was to make customers trust the bank. Due to the prevailing fiscal conservatism, loan applications were subject to stringent requirements.

France was the pioneer recipient of a loan from the World Bank in 1947. John McCloy, the bank's president, then picked France instead of Poland and Chile. The loan was subject to stringent conditions and was for $250 million, half of the amount asked. France was obligated to prioritise repaying its debt to the World Bank over other governments and to create a balanced budget. The French government could meet all the restrictions because World Bank employees watched the money like hawks. Also, the U.S. Department of State informed the French government that it needed to purge its ranks of Communist Party members before approving the loan. The so-called tripartite administration, which consisted of a communist coalition, was toppled by the French government when it complied. The French loan was authorised in a matter of hours.

From 1974 to 1980, the bank's primary focus was on addressing the fundamental needs of individuals in developing nations. Expansion of loan targets beyond infrastructure into social services and other industries led to a dramatic increase in the amount and quantity of loans given to borrowers.

These shifts occurred because Lyndon B. Johnson appointed Robert McNamara president in 1968.McNamara pleaded with bank treasurer Eugene Rotberg to diversify the finances away from the northern banks, which had been the mainstays. Rotberg raised the bank's available capital via the international bond market. The quick increase in emerging nations' debt was one effect of the era of lending to alleviate poverty. The developing world's debt increased by 20% annually between 1976 and 1980.

The World Bank Administrative Tribunal was established in 1980 to determine cases where employees claim that the World Bank Group violated their employment or appointment contracts.

In 1980, Alden W. Clausen, whom U.S. President Jimmy Carter had nominated, succeeded McNamara. After reorganising McNamara's personnel, Clausen developed a new focus for the objective. His 1982 appointment of Anne Krueger to the position of chief economist at the bank after Hollis B. Chenery exemplified this shift in his priorities. Krueger famously called the governments of developing nations "rent-seeking states" and criticised development funds.

In the 1980s, the bank prioritised structural adjustment measures to simplify developing nations' economies and loans to pay off their debt. A UNICEF assessment from the late 1980s showed that the World Bank's structural adjustment projects caused "decreased health, nutritional and educational levels for tens of millions of children in Asia, Latin America and Africa."

4.2.1 Short Summary:

Foundation	Established in 1944, began operation in 1946
Headquarter	Located in Washington, D.C., United States
Member States	Total Members: 189 countries
Main Objectives	• Reduce Global Poverty • Promote Sustainable Development • Provide Financial and Technical Assistance

Key Structures	• IBRD (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development) • IDA (International Development Association) • IFC (International Finance Corporation) • MIGA (Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency) • ICSID (International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes)
Achievements	• Global Development Financing • Post-Conflict Reconstruction • Support During COVID-19
Challenges and Criticism	• Environmental and Social Impacts • Debt Sustainability Concerns Western Dominance

4.3 WTO:



The World Trade Organization (WTO) regulates and facilitates worldwide trade as an intergovernmental organisation with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. In conjunction with the United Nations System, the organisation is utilised by governments to create, update, and implement regulations that control international trade. One hundred sixty-six member countries comprise the World Trade Organization (WTO); they account for more than 98% of world trade and GDP.

By providing a structure for the negotiation of trade agreements—which typically seek to decrease or eliminate tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions—and having them ratified by the legislatures of member states, the World Trade Organization (WTO) facilitates trade in goods, services, and intellectual property among participating nations. Additionally, it oversees the independent dispute resolution process, which helps parties resolve problems that arise from trade and ensures that everyone stays on their end of the deal. While environmental preservation,

national security, and other critical objectives are exempt from the organisation's ban on trade partner discrimination, there are exceptions.

Fun Fact
WTO (World Trade Organization): The WTO was established in 1995 and is the only global international organisation dealing with trade rules between nations. Interestingly, it replaced the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which had been in place since 1948, making it the successor to a decades-old system that aimed to reduce trade barriers and foster global economic cooperation.

Following the 1994 Marrakesh Agreement, it formally replaced the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) set up in 1948 and began operations on 1 January 1995. All members comprise the Ministerial Conference, the highest decision-making body; it typically meets twice a year and prioritises consensus in all decisions. An all-member body known as the General Council runs the organisation daily. The Director-General and his four deputies oversee a Secretariat of more than 600 people who offer professional, technical, and administrative assistance. Contributions from members are calculated by their percentage of international trade and amount to about 220 million USD for the World Trade Organization's annual budget.

According to studies, the WTO has expanded trade and lowered trade obstacles. It has also impacted trade agreements; most PTAs include direct references to the WTO, and some even copy and paste whole sections from WTO accords. The World Trade Organization accords were mentioned as tools for decreasing inequality in UN Sustainable Development Goal 10. Some people think that free trade, which the World Trade Organization promotes, does not benefit everyone equally.

A multilateral treaty of 23 nations, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), was ratified in 1947 following the conclusion of World War II. This followed the establishment of other multilateral institutions devoted to international economic cooperation, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (founded 1944-1945) and the World Bank (founded 1944). The United States and other signatories did not ratify the establishment treaty, so the International Trade Organization (ITO) never got off the ground. As a result, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) gradually became the de facto international body.

The year 1995 saw the establishment of the World Trade Organization. The World Trade Organization (WTO) is one of the more recent international organisations. It succeeded the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), set up after

WWII. In contrast to the very young World Trade Organization, the original multilateral trading system established by the GATT is more than seventy-five years old. Global trade has grown at a remarkable rate during the last 75 years. The yearly growth rate for merchandise exports has been 6%. The rise of commerce has been a driving force behind the general expansion of the economy, with annual growth in trade being 1.5 times higher than that of the world economy on average. There was a 250-fold increase in total exports from 1948 to 2022. An exceptionally robust trading system, made possible in large part by the GATT and the WTO, has enabled previously unseen levels of economic expansion. The GATT facilitated several trade talks that resulted in the system's development. Tariff reductions were the primary focus of the early rounds of negotiations, but anti-dumping and non-tariff measures were also considered in subsequent rounds. A multilateral trade agreement (WTO) was negotiated during the Uruguay Round (1986–1994). That was hardly the last point of discussion. With 69 states committing to extensive liberalisation steps that exceeded those in the Uruguay Round, a telecommunications agreement was established in 1997. In the same year, discussions for tariff-free trade in IT products were successfully finished by 40 governments. At the same time, 70 members reached an agreement in the financial services sector, encompassing almost 95% of trade in banking, insurance, securities, and financial data. Agricultural and service-related discussions recommenced in the year 2000. These were part of a more extensive set of goals and objectives called the Doha Development Agenda, unveiled in November 2001 during the fourth World Trade Organization Ministerial Conference in Doha, Qatar.

Negotiations and other activities about non-agricultural tariffs, environmental trade policy, World Trade Organization regulations regarding anti-dumping and subsidies, trade facilitation, intellectual property, government procurement transparency, and various issues brought up by developing economies as challenges in executing WTO agreements were all part of the new work program. Significant revisions to the WTO rulebook have been produced via negotiations on these and other subjects. Adopted at the 8th Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization in 2011, an amended Government Procurement Agreement increased the previous agreement's coverage by an estimated US$100 billion annually. Aiming to decrease border delays by reducing red tape, the Agreement on Trade Facilitation was negotiated by WTO members at the 9th Ministerial Conference in Bali in 2013. This Agreement, the first international pact agreed at the WTO, will reduce trade costs by over 14% and increase world exports by up to US$1 trillion annually when fully implemented. An additional 200 IT items valued at about US$1.3 trillion per year had tariffs reduced due to the Information Technology Agreement's enlargement, which was finalised during the 10th Ministerial Conference in Nairobi in 2015. Removing subsidies for

agricultural exports was another result of the Conference, bringing us closer to the "Zero Hunger" Sustainable Development Goals from the United Nations. In 2017, an update was made to the WTO's Intellectual Property Agreement, which means that developing economies now have easier access to cheaper medications. The Trade Facilitation Agreement also went into effect that year. A historic Agreement on Fisheries Subsidies and global responses to the food crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic were adopted at the 12th Ministerial Conference in June 2022.

4.3.1 WTO Agreements

Through the process of establishing and adhering to regulations. Members of the World Trade Organization negotiated the rules, or agreements, that govern the organisation. The present set is mainly derived from the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), significantly revised during the 1986–1994 Uruguay Round discussions. New protocols for resolving disputes and regulations governing the exchange of services and intellectual property were established during the Uruguay Round. The collection is around 30,000 pages long and includes 30 agreements and individual pledges (called schedules) from members in various areas, including reduced tariffs and opening the services market. World Trade Organization (WTO) members run a non-discriminatory trading system defined by these accords. The promise of uniform and equitable treatment of exports from one member in the markets of another member is a benefit to all members. They all say they will handle imports into their respective markets equally. Developing economies are also granted considerable leeway within the system to fulfil their promises.

4.3.2 Goods

The first step was the exchange of products. From 1947 until 1994, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was a platform for negotiating reduced tariffs and other trade obstacles. The GATT text outlined significant rules, including non-discrimination. An enabling agreement for the World Trade Organization (WTO) has been the Marrakesh Agreement, which established the WTO and its annexes (including the revised GATT) in 1995. Product standards, subsidies, and anti-dumping measures are some topics covered in its appendices, covering industries like agriculture. The Trade Facilitation Agreement was a significant development that came into effect in 2017.

4.3.3 Services

When doing business internationally, financial institutions, insurance agencies, telecoms, tour operators, hotel chains, and transportation corporations benefit from the same principles of more unrestrained commerce that were once

exclusively applicable to goods trade. The GATS, or General Agreement on Trade in Services, contains these principles. Individual members of the WTO have also pledged under the GATS to open up some service sectors to foreign competition, specifying the extent to which they are willing to do so.

4.3.4 Intellectual Property

The World Trade Organization's Intellectual Property Agreement outlines regulations for exchanging inventions and creative works. The regulations outline the correct procedures for safeguarding "intellectual property" in the context of trade, which includes copyrights, patents, trademarks, geographical names used to identify items, industrial designs, and confidential information like trade secrets.

4.3.5 Dispute Settlement

The enforcement of the rules and, by extension, the smooth flow of trade depend on the World Trade Organization's (WTO) process for settling trade disputes under the Dispute Settlement Understanding. If a government feels that its rights under the WTO accords are being violated, it can submit a dispute to the WTO. Based on their interpretations of the agreements and the pledges made by each member, specially chosen independent experts reach their judgments. Members are encouraged to resolve their issues through mutual consultation per the system's guidelines. If that doesn't work, they can go through a series of steps that could lead to a decision from an expert panel and an opportunity to challenge the decision legally. The high volume of cases handled by the WTO since its establishment (over 600 cases compared to 300 disputes handled throughout the GATT's lifetime of 1947–1994) is evidence of the system's reliability.

4.3.6 Trade Monitoring

The Trade Policy Review Mechanism of the World Trade Organization aims to increase openness and clarify and evaluate the effects of trade policies enacted by WTO members. In the eyes of many members, the assessments serve as helpful criticism of their policies. The World Trade Organization Secretariat and the member states must submit reports during periodic reviews of all WTO members. The World Trade Organization also routinely tracks international trade policies. This global trade monitoring exercise has become a regular function of the WTO, initially undertaken in the aftermath of the 2008 financial crisis. Its objective is to highlight the implementation of trade-facilitating and trade-restricting measures by WTO members.

4.3.7 Functions

The primary goal of the World Trade Organization is to facilitate predictable and

orderly trade and assist its members in using trade to improve people's standard of living. It accomplishes this by serving as a venue for trade negotiations and overseeing trade agreements. Resolve commercial disagreements, Analyse national trade policies, strengthen emerging nations' trade capabilities and collaborate with other international organisations.

4.3.8 Structure

In all, 98% of global trade is accounted for by the 164 members of the WTO. A group of twenty-five nations is discussing membership—the whole membership votes on the matter. Usually, everyone agrees on this. All WTO members of parliament have accepted the agreements. The Ministerial Conference is the highest decision-making body of the WTO; it convenes approximately every two years. Following this is the General Council, which meets many times a year in the Geneva headquarters. It consists of ambassadors or heads of delegation based in Geneva, but occasionally officials dispatched from a member's government. In addition to resolving disputes, the General Council reviews trade policies. Councils dealing with goods, services, and intellectual property (TRIPS) all report to the General Council, the next tier of councils. Environment, development, membership applications, and regional trade agreements are the only topics covered by the many specialised committees, working groups, and parties that handle the specific agreements.

4.3.9 Summary:

Foundation	Established on 1 January 1995, succeeding the GATT
Headquarter	Geneva, Switzerland
Member States	164 members (as of 2025)
Main Objectives	• To Promote fair international trade through rules and regulations • To Ensure that trade is flowing smoothly, and freely across the globe • To Settle trade disputes among member countries
Key Structures	• Ministerial Conference • General Council • Council for Trade in Goods • Council for Trade in Services • Council for TRIPS • Dispute Settlement Body (DSB) • Trade Policy Review Body (TPRB)

	• WTO Secretariat
Achievements	• Successfully reduced global tariffs. • Established a strong dispute resolution mechanism used by many countries • Facilitated global trade liberalization and economic integration
Challenges and Criticism	• Slow and ineffective decision-making due to consensus-based processes • Fails to adequately address environmental and labour concerns in trade policies • Biased in favour of developed nations, marginalizing poorer economies

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. What are the main objectives of International Financial Institutions?
2. Describe the role of the World Bank Group in promoting development.
3. What are the main functions of the International Monetary Fund?
4. Discuss the criticisms of International Financial Institutions.
5. How can International Financial Institutions be made more effective and equitable?

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UNIT # 5

REGIONAL SECURITY ORGANISATION

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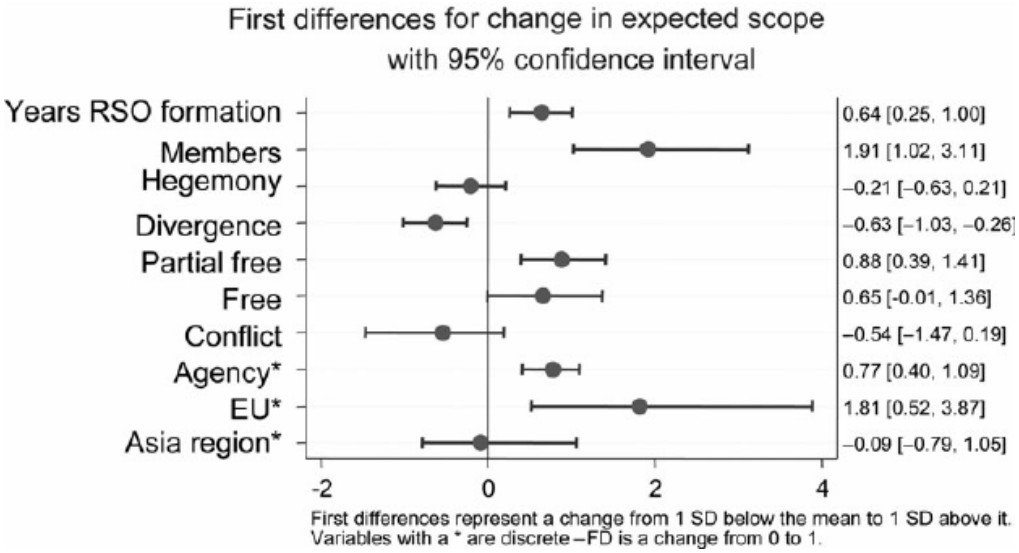
INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses the evolution and role of regional security organisations in maintaining peace and security across different regions. It highlights how these organisations, such as NATO, the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF), and the African Union's Peace and Security Council (PSC), have developed frameworks and mechanisms to address regional conflicts and enhance security collaboration among member states.

The unit examines these organisations' legal and political foundations, highlighting their conflict prevention, management, and resolution efforts. It also explores each organisation's unique features, such as NATO's military alliance model, the ARF's emphasis on preventive diplomacy, and the African Union's mandate for peace enforcement through the AUPSC.

Key challenges these organisations face, including limited resources, political will, and legal complexities, are also analysed. The unit emphasises the importance of fostering cooperation between regional security organisations and global entities like the United Nations to address evolving security threats effectively.

OBJECTIVES:
❖ **This study aims to analyse the role of regional security organisations in maintaining peace and security in their respective regions, exploring their frameworks, mechanisms, and challenges.**
❖ **The unit emphasises the collaboration between regional and global organisations in addressing security threats.**



5.1 NATO

Following WWII, the Cold War polarised Europe along political and ideological lines, cutting the continent in half. The Soviet Union eventually came to dominate Eastern Europe. To prevent the Soviet Union from trying to expand its influence beyond Eastern Europe, twelve countries from both sides of the Atlantic Ocean came together in 1949 to establish NATO, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. The Marshall Plan, which ran from 1947 to 1952, helped stabilise the economy of Western Europe.

Fun Fact

NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization): NATO was formed in 1949 as a collective defence alliance. It's famous Article 5 states that an attack on one member is considered an attack on all. Interestingly, this article was only invoked after the September 11 attacks in 2001, when NATO members stood in solidarity with the United States.

A political and military alliance, NATO's mission was to ensure the safety of its member states in the face of attack and to foster an atmosphere conducive to the spread of democracy and economic prosperity. "Two halves of the same walnut" were the Marshall Plan and NATO, according to former US President Harry S. Truman. In the case of a military attack on any member of NATO, the original members—the United States, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United Kingdom—promised to defend each other. So, to fulfil their promise of mutual defence, NATO member nations stepped up their efforts to build the necessary military infrastructure. Still, NATO

was and is a politically-led organisation that looks out for its members' best interests. The Alliance might prove that political and military pressure against Western Europe would fail by tying North America to the defence of that region. At the same time, it would lay the groundwork to stop the rise of radical nationalism in Europe. The Alliance was more than useful regarding all of these things. North American military stationed in Europe at the behest of European governments deterred potential threats or political pressure on partner nations. In addition, friends turned into foes over time. The Federal Republic of Germany joined the Alliance in 1952, Greece and Turkey in 1952, and Spain in 1982. The Alliance was important in defending Western European and North American freedom and attaining unparalleled stability. Indeed, NATO's security has been dubbed the "oxygen of prosperity" that established the framework for economic integration and collaboration throughout Europe. It was also a precondition for the Cold War's demise and the early 1990s partition of Europe. Throughout the Cold War, the Soviet Union's presence defined NATO's mission and responsibilities. After Eastern European nations gained their independence, they pushed for the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact, which led to the Soviet Union's downfall in the early 1990s. Some observers felt that NATO was unnecessary once old enemies vanished and that future investments in the military and defence budgets should be drastically cut. However, expectations of a peace dividend were too optimistic, even after the Soviet Union collapsed. Even though there were no longer any overt military threats after the Cold War's conclusion, it was immediately clear that instability had grown in certain regions of Europe. Many regional wars erupted in the former Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, frequently stoked by religious and ethnic tensions, and threatened to expand across the area. Quickly realising that their dedication to collective defence and the cooperation fostered by NATO remained the best assurance for their safety, NATO countries acted accordingly. Even if a military invasion is highly unlikely, new political and military cooperation types are necessary to address emerging threats like ethnic conflicts and promote peace and safety across Europe. In pursuit of this objective, over the last decade, NATO has transformed from a strictly defensive alliance into the focal point of a partnership of nations working together in the broader security arena. Beginning in 1990 with the formation of the North Atlantic Cooperation Council (now called the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council) and continuing through the Partnership for Peace, regular contacts were established with countries that had been members of the Warsaw Pact and the newly independent republics of the former Soviet Union. In light of the altered security environment in Europe, NATO likewise experienced a period of profound internal transformation. Specifically, it started revamping its armed forces and organisational structures to work with its new Partner nations on crisis management, peacekeeping, and peace-support missions. Alliance military

activities to monitor and execute UN resolutions about the former Yugoslavia had begun well before this procedure was finished. After the Dayton Agreement, which ended the Bosnia and Herzegovina War in 1995, was signed, NATO played a crucial role by forming the Stabilization Force (SFOR) and the Implementation Force (IFOR) to make sure the agreement was carried out and to lay the groundwork for future peace. After some time had passed, in 1999, the Alliance took action in Kosovo by initiating an air campaign against the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Their goal was to stop the gross human rights violations committed against the Kosovar Albanians and to stop the conflict from spreading in the area. Overall, NATO has launched several new programs to tackle emerging security threats. The Defense Capabilities Initiative (DCI), the European Security and Defense Identity within the Alliance (ESDI), and the establishment of a Weapons of Mass Destruction Centre are among the most important. The centre's goal is to enhance the Alliance's response to and prevention of the threat brought by weapons of mass destruction. Allies must maintain interoperability and upgrade and modernise their capabilities to meet emerging security concerns; this is the goal of the Defense Capabilities Initiative. As part of DCI, Allies are putting their attention where it will do the most good for ongoing and future operations: logistical support, command and control, and mobility of forces. For the European Allies to take on more responsibility in the realm of security and defence, ESDI aims to fortify the European side of the Alliance. If the European Allies were to tap into NATO's resources, they could launch operations even while the Alliance isn't actively involved militarily. For instance, the European Union may spearhead such initiatives. NATO and the EU are finalising the necessary arrangements to make this a reality. Improving the European Union's position will lead to a more equitable division of security duties between the two coasts of the Atlantic, resulting in a transatlantic relationship that is more suited to the challenges of the modern day.

5.1.1 Works

The consensus-based decision-making process is an essential component of NATO's success. All members must approve every decision, and there is no way to vote. It is not uncommon for significant decisions to necessitate lengthy consultations and debates. The two main benefits of this system outweigh its apparent slowness and complexity. Firstly, it respects the sovereignty and independence of each member country. Secondly, when a decision is made, all member countries fully support and commit to implementing it. Each member country has an ambassador-level permanent representative and a national delegation of diplomats and advisors who serve on the North Atlantic Council, NATO's highest decision-making body. Every week, the Council gathers at the ambassadorial level for a meeting. At the level of defence and foreign ministers,

as well as, on occasion, heads of state and government, the Council meets regularly. Many planning groups and committees have been formed to assist the North Atlantic Council. Furthermore, these groups convene at varying levels, sometimes in member nations and others in NATO's political headquarters in Brussels. The Secretary General of NATO is selected for about four years and heads the organisation. He represents one of the member nations as a senior foreign official. Meetings of the North Atlantic Council and other significant NATO bodies are chaired by the Secretary-General, who also assists in developing consensus among member nations. He oversees the Alliance's day-to-day operations with the help of a global workforce. NATO is not a sovereign nation with its military forces. Before being assigned duties ranging from collective defence to new ones like peacekeeping and peace support, the majority of NATO forces are entirely under the command and authority of the member states. It is the responsibility of NATO's political and military organisations to ensure that national forces have the necessary political authority, joint military planning, and organisational arrangements for joint command, control, training, and exercises to accomplish these responsibilities.

A key objective of NATO's restructuring has been to enhance stability and security by fostering understanding and confidence with its former enemies through cooperation and discussion. In 1991, the North Atlantic Cooperation Council was formed, marking an initial move in this regard. This became the primary venue for dialogue and collaboration amongst non-NATO member states when the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council was rechristened. The Partnership for Peace was established by NATO in 1994. Helping member nations reorganise their militaries so they can better serve a democratic society is the primary goal of this massive effort. It provides chances for collaboration in many different areas, adapted to the specific requirements of each country, and participants can pick and choose what they want from the program based on their security needs. Workshops, seminars, and training courses sit alongside military drills and exercises. More openness and accountability on the part of the military to the people is a priority. Participating nations in peacekeeping operations, including the Stabilization Force (SFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Kosovo Force (KFOR), have greatly benefited from the knowledge and skills acquired via Partnership for Peace. Additionally, NATO and Ukraine formally established their bilateral partnership in 1997, while NATO and Russia did the same. To better coordinate and address security issues regularly, NATO formed the NATO-Ukraine Commission and the NATO-Russia Permanent Joint Council. Meetings like these cover a broad spectrum of issues, from environmental preservation and civic emergency preparation to crisis management and the non-proliferation of WMDs to peacekeeping in the Balkans. Countries and partner nations have participated in NATO peacekeeping operations in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The

Russian Federation withdrew from the NATO-Russia Permanent Joint Council in 1999 as a result of vehement disagreements over NATO's choice to use military force to avert a humanitarian disaster in Kosovo. However, as the situation passed, Russia agreed to send troops to KFOR. Additionally, KFOR has received support from Ukrainian forces. Russia and NATO recommenced consultations and cooperation in 2000 under the auspices of the Permanent Joint Council.

5.1.2 NATO ENLARGEMENT

A handful of Eastern European nations began to express their desire to join the North Atlantic Alliance in the early 1990s after concluding that doing so would best serve their future security affairs. The number of member states increased to nineteen in March 1999 when the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland, all once Partner countries, were asked to start accession procedures and eventually became members. There is no danger to any nation from NATO enlargement; instead, it is an effort to strengthen Europe's security and stability. The Alliance's vow to keep its forces and nuclear weapons off the newly admitted members' soil made this point crystal clear. There would be more than just these three new members joining NATO, according to NATO leaders at their April 1999 summit in Washington. At the North Atlantic Council Summit Conference 2002, decisions on additional membership invites are anticipated. The member states of NATO have consistently said that growing the alliance is not the end goal but rather a strategy to increase the reach and protection of NATO's security measures. So,



new members must help ensure the safety of all member nations and reap the benefits of membership. A Membership Action Plan was introduced by NATO in 1999 to assist partner countries interested in getting ready for membership. The

strategy is based on what the three newest members have learned as they have prepared to become Alliance members. Their respective Partnership for Peace programs focuson matters of membership and provide prospective members with practicalguidance and support. Likewise, prospective members are anticipated to accomplish specific political objectives, such as the democratic regulation of their military forces, the peaceful settlement of territorial disputes, and the observance of democratic processes and the rule of law. Although there is no assurance of future participation, the plan does assist nations in preparing their militaries for the duties and responsibilities that come with being an Alliance member.

5.1.3 INTO THE FUTURE

The NATO reform is far from finished. To better respond to emerging security threats in the Euro-Atlantic region, NATO is constantly evolving and reforming. The fundamental foundations of NATO, which include the idea that nations can only guarantee their security via cooperation and, most importantly, that North America and Europe form a distinct community with shared values and interests, will remain unchanged despite these ongoing changes. In keeping with these guiding principles, NATO will remain an indispensable crisis manager and a rock-solid foundation for security cooperation in the Euro-Atlantic region.

Foundation	4 April 1949 (by the North Atlantic Treaty or Washington Treaty)
Headquarter	Brussels, Belgium
Member States	32 members (as of 2025)
Main Objectives	• Ensure collective defence and mutual protection among member states (Article 5) • Promote democratic values and political-military cooperation • Maintain peace and security in the North Atlantic area through deterrence and defense
Key Structures	• North Atlantic Council (NAC) • Military Committee • International Staff & International Military Staff • Allied Command Transformation (ACT)
Achievements	• Prevented direct military conflict in Europe during the Cold War

	• Conducted successful peacekeeping missions (e.g., Balkans, Afghanistan) • Strengthened military and strategic cooperation among transatlantic allies
Challenges and Criticism	• Burden-sharing disputes among members, especially over defence spending • Criticized for expansion toward Eastern Europe, provoking geopolitical tensions • Limited effectiveness in handling new threats like cyber warfare and terrorism

1.3 The ASEAN Regional Forum:

5.3.1 History

Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand were the five founding members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), formally created in Bangkok on August 8, 1967. On 8 January 1984, Brunei Darussalam became a member; on 28 July 1995, Vietnam; on 23 July 1997, Laos and Myanmar; and on 30 April 1999, Cambodia. To strengthen cooperative ties with States in the Asia Pacific region, the ASEAN Heads of State and Government declared in 1992 that ASEAN should intensify its external discussions on political and security topics. During the 26th ASEAN Ministerial Meeting and Post Ministerial Conference, which took place two years later, the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) was established. Contributing significantly to confidence-building and preventive diplomacy in the Asia-Pacific region, the ARF aims to promote constructive communication and consultation on political and security matters of shared interest and concern. Since its establishment over 30 years ago, no conflict among ASEAN members has erupted into armed combat, thanks to political engagement and confidence-building.

5.3.2 Developments:

Brunei Darussalam hosted the 2015 ASEAN Defense Ministers' Meeting Plus (ADMM-Plus) Maritime Security and Counter-Terrorism Exercise Initial Planning Conference (IPC) on February 3, 2015. Attendees at the conference received an outline of the day's activities and upcoming events in Singapore and Brunei Darussalam. May 2016 is the planned date of the exercise. Taking place in China from May 14th to the 15th, the 13th ARF Inter-sessional Meeting addressed

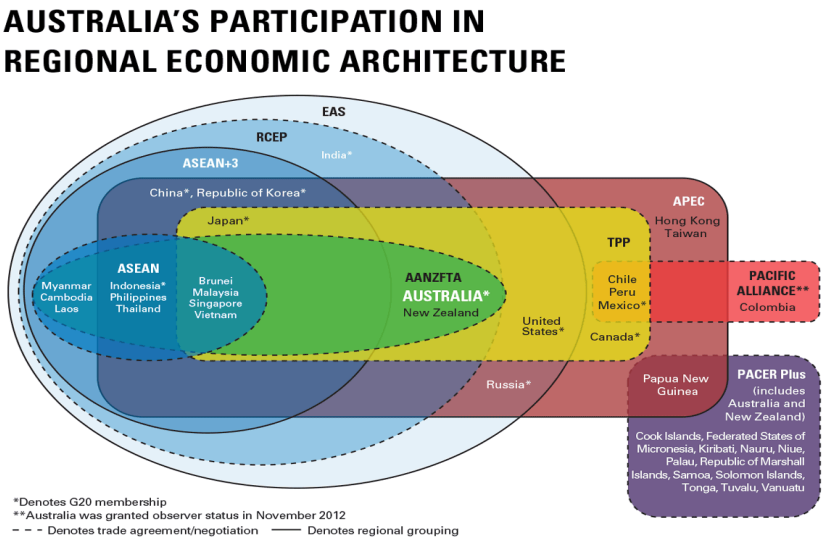
transnational crime and counter-terrorism. Participants voiced their opinions on topics such as cybercrime and anti-terrorism. In addition, they went over the preliminary 2015–2016 work plan.

Fun Fact
ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF): Established in 1994, the ARF is the only regional security dialogue forum in Asia-Pacific that includes both ASEAN members and major powers like the U.S., China, and Russia. It aims to foster dialogue and cooperation on political and security issues in the region, promoting confidence-building measures and conflict prevention.

The 8th Annual ARF Meeting of Experts and Eminent Persons (EEPs) occurred in Kuala Lumpur from February 17th to the 18th, 2014. Issues about the Korean Peninsula, the East and South China Seas, and the ARF Preventive Diplomacy Work Plan were the primary topics of discussion during the conference. A meeting of the Defense Officials Dialogue (DOD)/ARF Inter-Sessional Support Group on Confidence Building Measures and Preventive Diplomacy was held in Brussels, Belgium, on 8-9 April by the European Union. The EU and Myanmar shared the role of meeting chair. Topics covered in the discussion included counter-terrorism efforts, cyber-security, and non-proliferation. Taking place in Bali, Indonesia, from 14 to 16 April, was the 12th Annual ARF Inter-Sessional Meeting on Counter-Terrorism and Transnational Crime. The discussion covered the topics of drugs, counterterrorism, and the past ARF work plan. The military's responsibilities were emphasised in the Dialogue. There was a 6th Annual ARF Inter-Sessional Meeting on Disarmament and Non-Proliferation in Tokyo, Japan, from July 8th to the 9th. The CTBT was promoted, regional TCBMs were discussed, WMD study groups reported, and other pertinent disarmament and security matters were on the approved agenda. The participating parties reaffirmed their commitment to the NPT's three tenets and looked forward to the 2015 NPT Review Conference. Several governments, the US emphasised, remained non-compliant, threatening the international non-proliferation framework. Concerning the reduction of nuclear dangers, Japan discussed the significance of the ARF and confidence-building. The other powers backed talks on disarmament and non-proliferation of nuclear weapons. Nay Pyi Taw, Myanmar, played host to the 21st ASEAN Regional Forum on August 10th, with Union Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of the Union of Myanmar, H.E. U Wunna Maung Lwin, serving as chairman. The Chairman emphasised both domestic and global concerns in his remarks.

5.2.4 Australia was a Founding Member of the ARF.

The ARF policy is overseen by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, which consults with the Department of Defense and other pertinent agencies. Disaster Relief, Maritime Security, Counter-Terrorism and Transnational Crime, Non-Proliferation and Disarmament, and Information and Communications Technology (ICT) Security are the five areas of focus of the ARF. When the ARF first began, Australia was among the many countries participating in its talks and events. This work has encompassed, in recent years:



I assisted the ARF in pursuing preventative diplomacy instruments, including playing a pivotal role in developing the ARF Work Plan for Preventive Diplomacy.

New Zealand and the Philippines co-chair the ARF Non-Proliferation and Disarmament workstream for 2025–2027.

Co-hosting the ARF Workshop on Law of the Sea—Dispute Settlement in the Law of the Sea (18 July 2024, virtual) with Indonesia!

Giving a presentation on the National Survey of Implementation of United Nations recommendations on responsible use of ICTs by states within the framework of international security at the 6th ISM on ICT Security (24 April 2024, virtual).

Conducting the 4th and 5th ARF Workshop on Implementing UNCLOS and other international instruments to address emerging maritime issues (30 November 2022 and 9 November 2023, Hanoi/hybrid) in collaboration with Vietnam, Canada, New Zealand, and the EU.

Leading the 2nd ARF Workshop on Nuclear Risk Reduction (22-23 March 2023, Brisbane) in collaboration with the Philippines and serving as the host.

In 2021 and 2022, Indonesia and the Republic of Korea will co-chair the ARF ICT work stream.

For 2018–2021, you will serve as one of three ARF Maritime Security Work Stream co-chairs with the European Union and Vietnam. We can highlight Australia's accomplishments: - Organized and co-chaired an ARF workshop on Dispute Resolution and Law of the Sea (27-28 February 2020, Dili) with Malaysia and Timor-Leste. - Collaborated with Vietnam and the EU on four ARF workshops on Enhancing Regional Maritime Law Enforcement Cooperation (18-19 January 2018 in Nha Trang, 12-13 March 2019 in Da Nang, Vietnam, 16-17 March 2021, also held virtually, and 6-7 April 2022, also held virtually).

Joined forces with Vietnam and the European Union to co-chair the 2022 International Symposium on Maritime Security (ISM) on 12 May, which was held virtually. Additionally, I co-chaired two workshops with Vietnam on 26-27 February 2019 in Nha Trang, Vietnam, on implementing UNCLOS and other legal instruments to address emerging maritime issues. On 1-2 June 2021, I co-chaired a workshop on the Law of the Sea and Fisheries, held virtually with Indonesia and India on 7-8 December 2021.

Australia was one of several countries that co-sponsored a statement by the ASEAN Regional Forum's foreign ministers in 2023 commemorating the forum's 30th anniversary.

Promoting the Youth, Peace, and Security Agenda was the subject of an ARF Foreign Ministers' declaration in 2021, which Australia co-sponsored.

Australia co-sponsored the 2020 ARF Foreign Ministers' Statements on the Treatment of Children Recruited by or Associated with Terrorist Groups and Enhancing Cooperation to Prevent and Respond to Infectious Disease Outbreaks.

Australia was one of several countries that co-sponsored the 2019 ARF Foreign Ministers' declarations on Women, Peace, and Security, as well as Preventing and Countering Terrorism and Violent Extremism Conducive to Terrorism.

5.3.5 ARF Meetings and Processes

Five separate work streams host ISMs, workshops, and other events during the year between sessions. Priority areas and co-chairs for each stream's multi-year work plan are identified. Officials from the ARF at the working level gather annually for the Inter-Sessional Support Group (ISG). In 2020–21, Australia and Brunei co-chaired the ISG for the last time. The primary purpose of the ISG, which is held around one month before the ARF Senior Officials Meeting (SOM), is to review and propose new work plans, activities, CBMs, and preventative diplomacy measures. These items are subsequently sent to the SOM for additional deliberation. During the ISG, the co-chairs of ARF events and activities from the previous inter-sessional year might summarise the main points covered and the results achieved.

An essential part of running the ARF process is the SOM, the central meeting that prepares everything for the ARF Ministerial Meeting. The SOM's primary roles are to approve the ARF's agenda for the next inter-sessional year, review the ARF's proposed ministerial statements, address institutional concerns, and facilitate senior-level discussions on regional security challenges. At the end of the ARF year, there is the annual ARF for foreign ministers, which is co-located with the PMC of ASEAN and the FMM of the East Asia Summit. The ASEAN chair doubles as the ARF chair. Every year, one of the 10 ASEAN member states takes turns becoming chair. The most crucial formal document is the ARF Chair's Statement when the ARF Ministerial Meeting ends. As a comprehensive framework for the five work streams of the forum, the ARF Hanoi Plan of Action II (2020-25) was endorsed by the Ministers at the 2020 summit.

On July 27, 2024, Vientiane hosted the most recent ARF Ministerial Meeting. The Russian invasion of Ukraine, the crisis in Myanmar, the humanitarian catastrophe in Gaza, the Korean Peninsula, and the South China Sea were among the regional concerns, and ARF work streams were the primary topics of discussion at the meeting.

The ARF chair is currently in Laos. In 2025, Malaysia will preside over the ARF.

Peace and prosperity have never been seen in the Asia-Pacific region before. The guns are practically silent, which hasn't happened in a hundred years or more. More regional states are discussing how they may collaborate on political and security issues more openly. Regarding global economic growth, the Asia-Pacific area is also the most active. This area is quickly becoming the economic epicentre of the globe. Maintaining and improving this prosperity and peace is the ASEAN Regional Forum's primary (ARF) objective. 2. The task at hand is not simple. Tragic conflicts from the twentieth century have occurred in this area. Large and

small countries live side by side in this astonishingly diversified region. In terms of maturity, they are very different. We must overcome disparities in history, religion, ethnicity, and culture. Cooperation is not deeply ingrained in many regions of the region. 3. In the ARF, ASEAN plays a crucial role. In the most varied area of the Asia-Pacific, it has proven time and time again that it can improve regional collaboration. As a result, cooperative practices have grown, and the Asia-Pacific area has been more actively encouraged to work together. The current favourable atmosphere in the area is mainly attributable to the yearly ASEAN Ministerial Meetings. If the entire Asia-Pacific region could achieve the same level of success that ASEAN has in promoting peace and prosperity among its members, it would be a tremendous step forward. 4. While ASEAN has committed to being the ARF's principal driver, everyone involved must do their part for the initiative to succeed. At all times, ASEAN must consider the feelings and opinions of everyone involved in the ARF.

5.3.6 The Challenges

If the ARF is serious about maintaining and improving regional peace and prosperity, it must objectively analyse the area's most pressing issues. The first thing it needs to do is recognise that when the economy is growing rapidly, there are usually significant changes in power dynamics. Divorce may result from this. To maintain calm, the ARF will need to oversee these changes expertly. Additionally, the area is very varied. When it comes to matters of security, the ARF should make an effort to reach a consensus by acknowledging and accepting that there are diverse perspectives. Thirdly, there are still lingering territorial and other disputes in the area. A fire started by any of these might derail efforts to keep calm and restore prosperity to the area. Defusing these possible crises will be an ongoing process for the ARF. Attempting to address these issues immediately would be foolish for an immature and vulnerable process like the ARF. We need an evolutionary strategy that is slow but steady. There are three possible phases for this evolution: The First step is spreading Measures to Instill Confidence, and the Second Stage is building Preventive Diplomacy Mechanisms. The third stage is to create methods for resolving conflicts. "The need to develop a more predictable and constructive pattern of relations for the Asia-Pacific region" was the consensus among the attending ministers at the inaugural ARF Ministerial Meeting in Bangkok in July 1994. Since this is the ARF's first year in operation, its primary goal should be to build confidence and trust among its members to create a peaceful and prosperous environment in the region. The ARF may use two supplementary strategies to promote confidence-building actions. The first strategy is based on what has worked for ASEAN and can be replicated by the ARF. Without implementing explicit confidence-building measures, ASEAN has achieved conditions that are similar to those envisioned in the Declaration of the

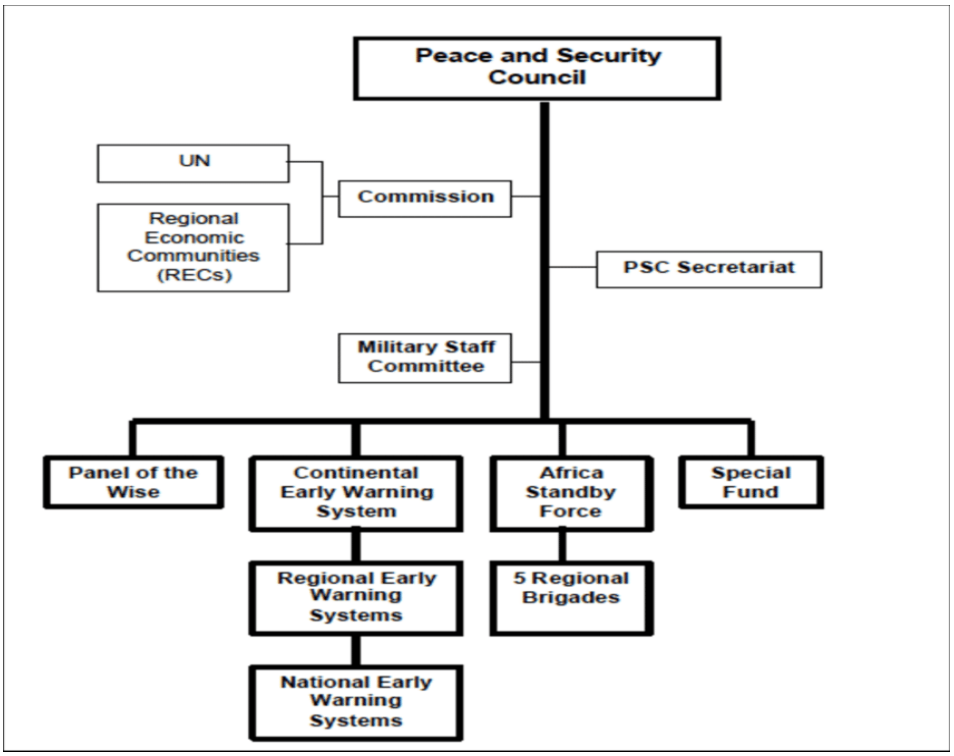
Zone of Peace, Freedom and Neutrality (ZOPFAN), which include reducing tensions among member states, promoting cooperation within the region, and creating an environment that is favourable to peace and prosperity. A significant factor in improving security in the area is the Southeast Asia Nuclear Weapons-Free Zone (SEANFWZ), a central tenet of the Zero Weapons Policy Area Network (ZOPFAN). Consistent high-level visits among ASEAN member states have greatly improved the organisation's long-standing consensus and consultation processes (musyawarah and mufakat). This schedule of frequent visits has evolved into a route for preventative diplomacy. The ASEAN model has some validity in the Asian environment. Building confidence and trust among neighbouring states is emphasised. 9 The Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia (TAC) of 1976 codifies the ideals of good neighbourliness, as outlined in the ZOPFAN concept. By inviting ARF participants to become members of the TAC, we can concretely increase the scope of the ASEAN experience. It is essential that the inaugural ARF meeting in Bangkok decided to "endorse the purposes and principles of ASEAN Treaty of Amity and Cooperation in Southeast Asia as a code of conduct governing relations between states and a unique diplomatic instrument for regional confidence-building, preventive diplomacy, and political and security cooperation." 10. The second strategy involves putting in place tangible steps to boost confidence. At its inaugural meeting in Bangkok, the ARF charged Brunei Darussalam, which would go on to become its chairman, to review all of the proposals put up by ARF members and any other applicable internationally acknowledged standards, principles, or practices. The ASEAN nations have compiled two sets of confidence-building actions following lengthy discussions. The first set of recommendations (Annex A) outlines potential next steps that ARF members can take. Second, in Annex B, you'll find a list of potential further proposals that the Track Two process and the ARF participants can look into in the near and distant future. Potential preventative diplomatic actions and others are included in these lists. 11. The ARF would be wise to proceed along two tracks, considering the sensitive nature of many topics under consideration. Governments will be responsible for carrying out Track One action. Organisations like ASEAN-ISIS and CSCAP, as well as key institutes and non-governmental organisations in the area, will be responsible for carrying out Track Two initiatives. Track Two initiatives may centre on the ARF's pressing issues to the greatest extent feasible if they are to have any real impact. The two tracks would be a massive boon to regional confidence-building efforts. In due time, the people participating in these Track Two events should begin to feel more connected to one another.

5.3.6 Organisation of ARF Activities

Each year, immediately following the ASEAN Ministerial Meeting, the ARF Ministerial Meeting will be held in a capital city within the ASEAN. At the helm of the gathering will be the host nation. During the ARF's intersessional Track One activities, the newly elected ASEAN Standing Committee Chairman will chair. As the primary liaison between Track One and Track Two, the current Chairman of Track One activities is responsible for informing the ARF of all Track Two events. There would be no institutionalisation in the initial phase of the ARF. Also, there's no need to set up a Secretariat anytime soon. To keep ARF operations going, ASEAN will store all of the relevant papers and information and offer any other assistance that may be required. Members, observers, and consultative and conversation partners of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) make up the ARF. To join the ARF, one must first apply to the chairperson, who will subsequently confer with the other members of the ARF. Conventional wisdom within ASEAN will serve as the basis for the ARF meeting rules of procedure. After thorough and thoughtful discussions, decisions should be reached by consensus. There will be no voting. As is customary in ASEAN, the secretarial assistance and coordination of ARF activities will be handled by the Chairman of the ASEAN Standing Committee. Additionally, everyone involved in the ARF should be able to move at their own speed. "Too fast for those who want to go slow and not too slow for those who want to go fast" is the motto that the ARF should live by.

5.3.7 Peace and Security Council of the African Union

One body within the African Union responsible for carrying out union decisions is the Peace and Security Council (PSC). The UN Security Council inspires the structure in specific ways. Collaborating with other APSA pillars, the PSC promotes "peace, security and stability in Africa," and it is also the primary pillar of the APSA. Achieving "prevention, management and resolution of conflicts" is the PSC's stated mission. Subsidiary groups like the Military Staff Committee and the Committee of Experts are involved in accomplishing these aims. The African Union Executive Council and the Assembly of the African Union endorse candidates for membership based on several factors, including a country's ability to financially and militarily support the union, its political will, and its diplomatic presence in Addis Ababa. The goal is to ensure that the membership is representative of Africa's regions.



Fifteen nations comprise the council; five serve three-year terms, and ten serve two-year terms. When countries' terms expire, they are automatically re-eligible.

The founding members of what is now known as the African Union (AU) opted to engage in "preventive diplomacy" rather than active peacekeeping missions in the early 1990s.However, the wars in Burundi and Rwanda caused them to reconsider their positions.

5.3.8 Historical Background

Following a 1995 conference in Addis Ababa, members of the Organization of African Unity began to back the deployment of peacekeeping missions. Still, the Organization of African Unity emphasised preventative diplomacy and thought the UN should be primarily responsible for coordinating peacekeeping missions. Instead of the United Nations mediating later conflicts in Africa, African institutions took the lead. For instance, economists from West African states worked to resolve conflicts in Sierra Leone and Liberia. Similarly, the Southern African Development Community dealt with the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Lesotho's problems.

Some questioned the OAU's efficacy because of these sub-regional bodies' significant role in resolving regional crises. Members sought to change the OAU's

emphasis on meetings based on agreement rather than action on the ground because they were concerned that conflict players present at these meetings would influence their decisions. Similarly, productive discussion was hindered by the OAU's size, consensus decision-making, and absence of defined processes. However, the non-interventionist principles of the OAU also placed limitations on on-the-ground operations; these principles stipulated that domestic military intervention could only occur with the state's approval.

As a result, the African Union was established in 2001 during an OAU Assembly session to reform the OAU's procedures. A centralised decision-making body with clear regulations, a reduced membership of fifteen states to ease decision-making, decision-making based on majority rather than consensus, and practical alternatives to propose military intervention to the African Union Assembly were all features of the new African Union. The Protocol Concerning the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council laid out the norms for this decision-making body, which was later renamed the Peace and Security Council after much controversy.

As the first regional collective security system to cover the entire African continent, the AUPSC Protocol, which establishes the Peace and Security Council of the African Union, is expected to enter into force in 2004. 2 Additionally, it will play an essential role in the regional human rights framework for Africa. One of three African mechanisms set up to manage conflicts through military intervention is the AUPSC. The other two are the SADC Organ on Politics, Defense and Security Cooperation and the ECOWAS Mechanism, which form the Economic Community of West African States. 3 To implement and ensure compliance with various OAU resolutions, declarations, and conventions concerning development, stability, peace, and security, the AUPSC will serve as both a framework and an enforcement tool. In Durban, South Africa, during the First Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the African Union, the AUPSC Protocol was ratified on July 9, 2002. 10 By Article 5(2) of the Constitutive Act of the African Union (Constitutive Act), it was established "to serve as a standing decision-making organ for the prevention, management and resolution of conflicts" and "a collective security and early-warning arrangement to facilitate timely and efficient response to conflict and crises in Africa." 12 Key provisions in the Constitutive Act will be codified, structured, and operationalised by the AUPSC Protocol. These provisions include: "Article 3(f)" regarding the promotion of "peace, security, and stability on the continent;" "Article 4(h)" regarding the right of the AU to "intervene in a Member State under a decision of the Assembly in respect of grave circumstances, namely: war crimes, genocide, and crimes against humanity;" and "Article 40)" regarding the right of the AU member states to "request intervention from the Union to restore peace and security." Together, the

AUPSC Protocol and NEPAD's Peace and Security and Democracy and Political Governance programs will strengthen the African Union's (AU) commitment to "manage all aspects of conflict" by implementing measures such as "peacemaking, peacekeeping and peace enforcement." Successive resolutions and judgments of the OAU MCPMR and affiliated centres will be superseded by the AUPSC, which will replace the Cairo Declaration, as stated in Article 22 of the AUPSC Protocol. 1 7 As soon as it takes effect, the AUPSC Protocol will give the African Union (AU) unprecedented peacemaking capabilities, which will have far-reaching consequences for the organisation's capacity to avoid, manage, and resolve conflicts. African nations have never had the political will or ability to effectively handle internal and international conflicts. The Organization of African Unity (OAU), the preeminent political body on the African continent, was a prime example of this. According to Robert Rotberg, there doesn't appear to be "sufficiently strong political will in Africa, either at the OAU or the subregional levels, to direct the generals and their soldiers" to bring about peace while civilian-led governments are in charge.18 The most daring interventions have been ordered by tyrannical heads of power who had complete control over the political system. Examples include the 1979 overthrow of Uganda's dictatorship by Tanzanian president Julius Nyerere and the 1990 and 1997,19, respectively, interventions in Liberia and Sierra Leone by former Nigerian head of state General Sani Abacha. Due to the absence of a strong political determination and an efficient system for peace and security across the continent, numerous minor and avoidable conflicts have intensified into lengthy and severe ones, impacting entire regions. Within and across governments, a pattern of savage and uncontrolled violence has emerged over the past two decades, spanning from the Great Lakes and the Horn of Africa to the Mano River region in West Africa. 20 For geopolitical and economic benefit, major Cold War patron states and multinational corporations have instigated, manipulated, intensified, and exploited conflicts in Africa. However, African elites often lack the political will to implement tangible solutions to end these conflicts. Neither the political will nor the means were within the OAU to manage the situation effectively. "The OAU has not had any military capability, nor has it had any effective early warning or early action capacity," Rotberg says.

5.4 KEY PROVISIONS IN THE PROTOCOL

We must look at its wording to know how well the Protocol works in Africa's political, economic, and legal climate. It is worth considering the AUPSC's character, which has been tasked with maintaining peace, security, and stability over a continent of about one billion people, as it has just been adopted, and the AU leaders will likely take some time to contemplate adopting another security framework. This section provides an overview of the AUPSC and closely

examines its primary goals, members, powers, procedures, and organs. Examining the Protocol's connection to the OAU MCPMR is necessary before delving into its essential aspects.

Fun Fact
Key provisions in protocols (like international agreements or treaties): One of the most important aspects is the concept of "ratification." after negotiations, countries must formally approve the provisions in their legal systems before they become binding. Interestingly, some protocols have a "sunset clause," which means they automatically expire after a certain period unless extended or renewed by the parties involved, helping ensure they remain relevant to evolving circumstances.

Criticism

In Article 16, the PSC Protocol states that the AU has "the primary responsibility for promoting peace, security and stability in Africa." In contrast, in Article 17, the UN Security Council "has the primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security." This disambiguation over the "primary legal authority" to use military force has been a point of contention among some AU members. "[Some African] leaders have shown themselves willing to push the frontiers of collective stability and security to the limit without any regard for legal niceties such as the authorisation of the [United Nations] Security Council," asserted Ben Kioko, the legal counsel to the African Union. The African Union (AU) pledged in a 2005 meeting agenda to seek Security Council approval before launching military interventions, demonstrating that AU members recognised the Council's authority over the use of force. Within the PSC, some believe it should expand its purview to include unconventional security concerns like illness and climate change in addition to the more conventional military ones.

On the other hand, many doubt the integrity of the PSC protocol and the political resolve of AU members to intervene militarily in situations of widespread human rights violations without the permission of other members. In addition, the PSC counts on regional entities to provide operational funding or troops, but many of these groups do not have what is needed.

Some have pointed out that the Assembly of the African Union Heads of State failed to adequately assess the prospective members' adherence to the PSC membership requirements when electing members to the Council, which allowed members who were actively violating human rights within their borders or actively disobeying AU decisions to be admitted to the Council.

5.4.1Short Summary:

Foundation	8 August 1967 (Bangkok Declaration)
Headquarter	Jakarta, Indonesia
Member States	10 members (Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam)
Main Objectives	• Promote economic growth, social progress, and cultural development in the region • Maintain regional peace, security, and political stability • Enhance collaboration and mutual assistance among member states
Key Structures	• ASEAN Summit • ASEAN Ministerial Meetings • ASEAN Secretariat • Committee of Permanent Representatives (CPR)
Achievements	• Maintained political stability and prevented major regional conflicts • Enhanced cooperation on disaster relief, education, and health • Enhance collaboration and mutual assistance among member states
Challenges and Criticism	• Weak enforcement mechanisms and a lack of binding agreements • Struggles with internal disagreements and varying political systems • Criticized for inaction on human rights violations (e.g., Myanmar crisis)

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. **What are the main functions of Regional Security Organizations?**
2. **Discuss the challenges faced by RSOs in maintaining regional security.**
3. **Analyze the role of NATO in contemporary international security.**
4. **How do RSOs interact with the United Nations system?**
5. **What are the prospects for regional security cooperation in an increasingly interconnected world?**

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UNIT # 6

SPECIALISED AGENCIES

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INTRODUCTION

This unit delves into the role and importance of specialised agencies within the international organisational framework, particularly those working in association with the United Nations. These independent agencies handle specific international issues such as health, education, labour, and economic development. Examples include the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

The unit explores the foundational goals of these agencies, including promoting global standards, offering technical assistance, and fostering international cooperation in their respective domains. It highlights how these agencies collaborate with member states, regional organisations, and other entities to address global challenges like poverty alleviation, disease eradication, and economic stabilisation.

Additionally, the unit emphasises the autonomy of these agencies in carrying out their mandates while maintaining a collaborative relationship with the UN system. Challenges such as limited resources, political pressures, and coordination issues among agencies are also discussed, illustrating the complexities of international governance.

OBJECTIVES:
❖ **To delve into the role of specialised agencies within the UN system, focusing on their autonomous work in areas such as health education and economic development.**
❖ **The unit explains how these agencies contribute to international cooperation and address global challenges while facing their own internal and external challenges.**



6.1 World Health Organization (WHO)

In 1948, the United Nations established the World Health Organization (WHO) as its specialised body for health. Its main office is in the city of Geneva, Switzerland. The organisation has 194 member states, 150 national offices, and six regional offices. The member states of this intergovernmental organisation typically collaborate through their respective ministries of health. The World Health Organization (WHO) is an international health agency that acts as a leader in various domains, including but not limited to establishing norms and standards, articulating policy alternatives based on evidence, providing technical assistance to nations, and monitoring and assessing health trends. It went live on April 7, 1948, and is the current World Health Day celebration day.

6.2 OBJECTIVES

Taking on the role of global health coordinator and director. The goal is to form and sustain fruitful partnerships with relevant international organisations, including the UN, specialised agencies, national health departments, professional associations, and others. To aid governments in improving healthcare services when requested to do so. It is essential to foster collaboration across scientific and professional organisations to enhance health.

6.2.1 Governance World Health Assembly

A representative from each Member state serves on the Health Assembly. 1/9 No Member may appoint more than three delegates to represent them, with one serving as chief delegate. Ideally, these delegates will represent the Member's national health administration, but they are selected from among those most qualified based on their technical ability in the health field. There are both yearly and special sessions of the Health Assembly.

Fun Fact
World Health Organization (WHO): The WHO was founded in 1948 and has its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. Interestingly, the organisation's first World Health Assembly set the goal to eradicate smallpox, successfully achieved in 1980, making it the first disease to be eradicated globally through a coordinated health effort.

Functions

The Health Assembly decides on organisational policy. In addition to reviewing and approving the budget, it oversees the organisation's financial policies. If the Organization and the UN agree, it will report to the Economic and Social Council.

6.2.3 The Secretariat

In addition to the Director-General, the Secretariat includes any administrative and technical personnel the Organization may deem necessary. Following the Board's nomination, the Health Assembly appoints the Director-General for a term(s) that the Health Assembly decides upon. Affiliate and Member Status: Anyone who is already a UN member can apply to join the organisation. The Health Assembly has the authority to admit as Associate Members any territory or group of territories that are not accountable for their foreign policy.

6.2.4 WHO's Contribution to the World

The main points of contact for governments with the WHO are the national offices. In addition to relaying government requests and requirements to higher levels of the WHO, they offer technical support on health concerns, communicate pertinent global standards and guidelines, and more. When reports of disease outbreaks occur outside the country, they notify and follow up with the host country's authorities. Other UN agency offices in the country receive their public health advice and recommendations from them. The World Health Organization (WHO) works in tandem with a wide range of partners, including national governments, other UN agencies, private companies, NGOs, and donors.

All countries, even the most developed ones, benefit from the WHO's global health efforts. For instance, all nations have profited from contributing to the World Health Organization's programs by promoting better and cheaper ways to manage tuberculosis and eradicate smallpox. According to the organisation, everyone should have access to the inoculation that protects children from whooping cough, diphtheria, measles, poliomyelitis, tetanus, TB, and tuberculosis. The World Health Organization (WHO) is spearheading an international effort in partnership with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) to ensure that all children have access to adequate vaccinations. In its first ten years of operation (1948–1958), the World Health Organization (WHO) paid close attention to a handful of infectious diseases that killed millions of people in poor nations. Malaria, yellow fever, TB, and genital infections were among them. Maternal and child health services, environmental sanitation (particularly access to potable water), and vaccine and medicine uniformity were all important. Over several years, the WHO and other UN organisations became very close collaborators. Several former African colonies achieved national liberation and became voting members of the Organization at this time (1958–68). A considerable crisis occurred in 1960 when practically all foreign physicians left the newly formed Democratic Republic of the Congo. Together with the worldwide Red Cross, the World Health Organization (WHO) hired 200 doctors and other medical professionals and launched a fellowship program to help hundreds of Congolese "medical assistants" get the medical training they needed to practice independently. During this time, the WHO implemented fellowships for health personnel development in nearly every country. To combat onchocerciasis ("river blindness") and schistosomiasis, the World Health Organization (WHO) in the 1960s encouraged and even partnered with the global chemical sector to create new pesticides. A significant achievement of the late 1950s was the proof that tuberculosis could be successfully treated without the costly care of a sanatorium. An essential contribution of the WHO to international health communications was the seemingly insignificant standardisation of disease and cause of death nomenclature.

During the third decade of the WHO's existence (1968–1978), the world achieved the remarkable triumph of smallpox eradication. Still affecting 10–15 million people in 1967, smallpox remained an endemic disease in 31 nations. Public health workers from each impacted nation worked under the World Health Organization's (WHO) guidance, which also served as their inspiration and coordinator. This triumph, which transcended numerous national animosities and mistrusts, saved millions of dollars around the globe. More children should be vaccinated against six once-devastating diseases: tuberculosis (with the BCG vaccine), diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough, measles, and poliomyelitis, thanks to the momentum of this massive campaign. During this time, the World Health

Organization (WHO) promoted global research and development on human reproduction, eventually entering the family planning field after a lengthy delay due to political reasons. The fight against leprosy and malaria also received a boost. Traditional birth attendants in India and "barefoot doctors" in China are two examples of the auxiliary health staff that the World Health Organization advocated for. Rather than preparing doctors for mostly urban medical practice, most developing nations would have been better off investing in this type of training. The major world meeting of WHO and UNICEF in Alma Ata, a city in the Asian region of the Soviet Union, ushered in the fourth decade (1978–88). In response to an overemphasis on high-tech solutions, the Alma Ata summit reaffirmed the superiority of preventative and curative primary health care as the cornerstone of sound national health policy. Community involvement, proper technology, and intersectoral collaboration were the cornerstones of this approach, which became the backbone of global health policy. Three decades after its inception, 134 member-states of the World Health Organization (WHO) reaffirmed their dedication to equality, as encapsulated in the motto "Health for All." The goals of the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (1981–1990), declared by the United Nations General Assembly in 1980 and endorsed by the World Health Organization (WHO), were clean drinking water and adequate excreta disposal for everybody. During this time, instead of relying on the thousands of brand-name products marketed on global markets, every nation was urged to compile a list of "essential drugs" that could be used in all public facilities. There was much buzz about the World Health Organization's (WHO) statement that condemned the marketing of artificial infant formula in poor nations. Another significant step forward, based on fundamental concepts, was the global control of infantile diarrhoea with oral rehydration therapy.

Computer systems: Surprisingly, no worldwide public health notification or surveillance systems were in place during the 1995 Ebola epidemic in the Congo, which lasted three months without the World Health Organization's knowledge. Therefore, in 1997, the World Health Organization (WHO) and Canada launched the Global Public Health Intelligence Network (GPHIN), which used online data to alert authorities to possible epidemics. To enhance this (GPHIN), the World Health Organization (WHO) launched the Global Outbreak Alert Response Network (GOARN) in 2000 to assess occurrences as soon as they were identified. With the help of GOARN, 120 networks and institutes could pool their resources—including data, labs, expertise, and experience—to respond rapidly to emergencies. The World Health Organization reports that most of the 500,000 maternal deaths that occur annually are avoidable if people practice good hygiene during childbirth and have access to family planning services, which help reduce the need for unsafe abortions. The World Health Organization has also ramped up its fight against cancer, which is claiming the lives of just as many people in

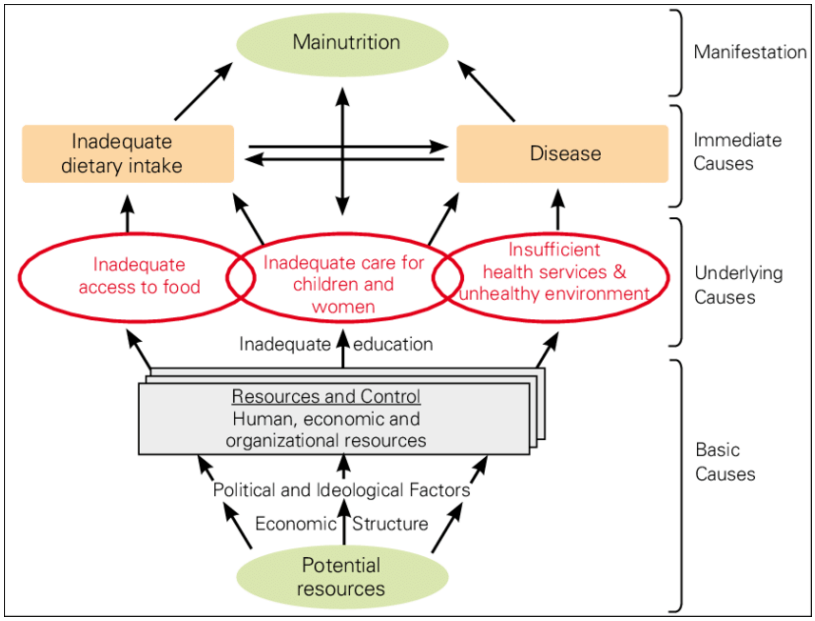
economically weak nations as in rich ones. In every country, the World Health Organization is fighting tobacco, the leading preventable cause of death for both men and women. World Health Organization (WHO) health education programs aim to spread the basic norms of healthy eating, regular exercise, not smoking, moderate alcohol consumption, and clean working environments to all people. Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) has become a global epidemic, adding another obstacle to the World Health Organization's (WHO) rising global attempts to contain this deadly STD. More people living with HIV will know their status and be able to obtain treatment if self-testing is introduced, according to the World Health Organization (WHO).

Short Summary:

Foundation	7 April 1948
Headquarter	Geneva, Switzerland
Member States	194 (as of 2025)
Main Objectives	• Promote and protect global health and well-being • Coordinate international health responses and disease control • Set health standards and support research and healthcare systems
Key Structures	• World Health Assembly • Executive Board • WHO Secretariat
Achievements	• Led global eradication of smallpox • Coordinated response to major health crises (e.g., COVID-19, Ebola) • Developed International Health Regulations (IHR) for global preparedness
Challenges and Criticism	• Criticized for slow response to some health emergencies • Limited funding and overdependence on voluntary contributions • Politicization and influence by powerful member states

6.3 United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF)

As a specialised UN agency, the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) supports national initiatives that enhance children's health, nutrition, education, and welfare.



UNICEF conceptual framework

6..4 History

To aid children impacted by WWII, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration established UNICEF in 1946 as the International Children's Emergency Fund (ICEF). Since its incorporation into the UN in 1953, UNICEF has been there. Despite being known simply as UNICEF, the organisation's full name is the United Nations Children's Fund. Advocating to protect children's rights, help them satisfy their fundamental requirements, and expand their opportunities to attain their full potential are all mandated by the United Nations General Assembly. The 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child serves as the guiding document for UNICEF. It hopes to solidify children's rights as universally applicable norms of conduct and long-lasting ethical principles. Laureate of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1965 for his work on "promoting brotherhood among the nations." Established in the City of New York. Its seven regional offices allow it to operate in more than ninety-nine nations and territories.

6.5 Scope of Work

Following 1950, UNICEF shifted its focus to more comprehensive initiatives to

enhance children's well-being, focusing on developing nations and responding to emergencies. Its focus widened to include the plight of women and mothers in underdeveloped countries. For instance, its "Women in Development Programme" debuted that year. Launched in 1982, UNICEF's new children's health program prioritised growth monitoring, oral rehydration therapy, breastfeeding promotion, and immunisation. Development and Nutrition for Children; Education; Environment for Children; Polio Eradication; Health for Children and Reproductive Health; HIV/AIDS and Children; Social Policy, Planning, Monitoring, and Evaluation; Partnerships and Advocacy; Communication for Behavior Change; and Emergency Preparedness and Response are all parts of UNICEF's work. To aid nations, especially those in development, UNICEF rallies political will and financial resources. Disabled children, as well as children affected by war, natural disasters, severe poverty, and all types of abuse and exploitation, are among the most vulnerable children that UNICEF works to safeguard. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) collaborates with other organisations to help achieve the global community's sustainable human development goals. As stated in the UN Charter, achieving the goals of world peace and social progress is essential.

6.5.1 Structure

Thirty-six members serve on UNICEF's Executive Board, elected by the UN Economic and Social Council every three years. 2/5 Located in the following nations are UNICEF Regional Offices. The Regional Office for the Americas and the Caribbean is in Panama City, Panama. The regional offices for Europe, Central Asia, East Asia and the Pacific are in Geneva, Switzerland; Bangkok, Thailand; and Nairobi, Kenya, while the regional offices for Eastern and Southern Africa are in Nairobi. Regional Office for the Middle East and North Africa, Amman, Jordan; Regional Office for West and Central Africa, Dakar, Senegal; South Asia, Kathmandu, Nepal. A certain number of seats are reserved on the Executive Board for each of the regions that UNICEF serves. This ensures that every region is adequately represented. A total of 36 national committees have been established worldwide by non-governmental groups to raise awareness and funds for children's rights.

6.5.2 Funding

The national committees are a distinctive aspect of UNICEF and vital to its worldwide organisation. As the public face and devoted voice of UNICEF, the National Committees exert tremendous effort to garner private sector donations, advance children's rights, and ensure that children at risk of poverty, natural catastrophes, war, abuse, or exploitation receive global attention. One-third of UNICEF's yearly revenue comes from the National Committees, and all the

money goes toward funding the organisation through voluntary contributions. More than 6 million individuals across the globe have contributed to this, in addition to corporations and civil society organisations. On matters about children's rights, it also unites numerous diverse parties, including the media, governmental officials at the federal, state, and regional levels, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), corporations, educational institutions, youth groups, and the general public.

6.6 UNICEF Child Protection Programme

A child's right to live, grow, and develop includes protection from harm, including abuse, exploitation, and violence. The 2008-approved UNICEF Child Protection Strategy (CPS) outlines the organisation's dedication to safeguarding children in any setting, including times of crisis. It rests on two primary tenets: 1) bolstering systems for the protection of children, which encompass legislation, rules, regulations, and services in all areas of society, particularly those dealing with social welfare, education, health, security, and justice; and 2) encouraging societal transformation that leads to better safeguards for children against exploitation, abuse, and violence. In formulating our stance, we have relied on our Core Corporate Commitments, multiple international human rights accords, the Millennium Declaration, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. With national and international partners, including businesses and civil society, UNICEF fights for and supports policies that provide children with a safe environment. To help families, communities, and nations combat child abuse, exploitation, and neglect, protective social practices, national child protection systems, and children's agencies, in conjunction with intense supervision and monitoring, are essential components of a safe environment.

Child Protection's Crucial Aspects Worldwide, children are victims of human rights breaches that go unacknowledged and unreported, even though they pose enormous challenges to children's well-being. Death, poor physical and mental health, HIV/AIDS infection, educational issues, displacement, homelessness, vagrancy, and becoming impoverished parents later in life are among the risks that children who experience violence, exploitation, abuse, or neglect face.

6.7 Recent activities

UNICEF's efforts to end harmful traditional practices, such as female genital mutilation and child marriage, are ongoing. Combating female genital mutilation is the focus of fifteen country offices, most of which are located in Egypt, the Horn of Africa, and West Africa. Additionally, in nine countries, UNICEF is actively working to raise awareness and advocate against child marriage. In the battle against HIV/AIDS, gender has shown to be both an ally and an adversary. It

has now come to light that the most vulnerable demographic is young women and girls. Field offices are more and more reporting the inclusion of gender considerations in the fight against HIV/AIDS. Through youth-led participatory approaches, a groundbreaking multi-country project spearheaded by UNICEF Headquarters is illuminating strategies to lessen the vulnerability of young women. One more program out of headquarters will employ a way to help men and boys in five test nations lessen women's and girls' susceptibility. Seven nations—Bolivia, India, Indonesia, Jamaica, Mali, Morocco, and Nepal—were studied as part of UNICEF's Integrated Early Child Development (IECD) program to gain a better grasp on the problem of early gender socialisation. To improve the gender socialisation issue in IECD programs supported by UNICEF, a set of suggestions will be developed using these case studies. The lack of human and financial resources continues to be a problem for UNICEF and its partners in numerous countries, despite numerous country offices reporting on attempts to mainstream a gender perspective and promote women's and girls' rights in programs. Effective programming to achieve women's and girls' rights and gender equality still faces the fundamental hurdle of a lack of sex-disaggregated data, particularly in terms of analysis and the utilisation of the results in programming.

Foundation	11 December 1946
Headquarter	New York City, United States
Member States	Operates in over 190 countries and territories
Main Objectives	• Protect and promote the rights and well-being of every child • Provide emergency aid and long-term support in health, education, and nutrition • Advocate for children's rights and equity worldwide
Key Structures	• Executive Board • UNICEF Headquarters • Country Offices and Regional Offices
Achievements	• Major role in reducing child mortality globally • Vaccinated millions of children through global immunization campaigns • Improved access to education, clean water, and sanitation for vulnerable children
Challenges and	• Funding shortages and reliance on voluntary

Criticism	donations • Operational difficulties in conflict zones and politically sensitive areas • Criticized for partnerships with controversial private sector entities

6.7 UNHCR

In 1950, in response to the plight of the millions of post-war refugees, the United Nations General Assembly founded the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Since then, UNHCR has helped alleviate refugee crises on every continent, garnering two Nobel Peace Prizes (in 1954 and 1981) while it has done so. International protection, or preventing the return of refugees to their home country and ensuring the respect of their human rights, is now the UNHCR's primary mission

Fun Fact

UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees): The UNHCR was established in 1950 to help refugees after World War II. Since then, it has helped millions of displaced people worldwide. One interesting fact is that UNHCR's logo features a blue triangle, symbolising protection and a globe, representing the organisation's mission to provide care and support to refugees worldwide.

Protecting the 1951 Convention and its 1967 Protocol is the responsibility of UNHCR. As the Convention outlines, signatory states must work with UNHCR to guarantee the protection of refugees' rights. Among them are THE 1951 CONVENTION AND THE UNHCR. A person has the right not to be refouled or sent back to a country where they could face persecution again. The guarantee of equal treatment in the provision of protection. Because people fleeing persecution can't always leave their nation and enter another country in a usual manner, they should not be punished for unlawfully entering or being present in the country where refuge is sought. The guarantee of not being forcibly removed from one's country unless forced to do so to preserve public safety or national security; The right to a minimum standard of living, which would encompass the following: the ability to move around freely, an education, a job or self-employment, access to public relief and assistance, including health facilities, the ability to buy and sell property, and the right to obtain identification and travel documents. Additionally, Convention-signing states must help refugees reunite with their families and lower administrative and

legal hurdles to citizenship to make it easier for refugees to become naturalised citizens.

The current global rate of forced displacement is at an all-time high, with 65.6 million people displaced from their homes. Nearly 22.5 million people have fled their homes, with more than 50% of that figure being minors. Our work at UNHCR is more crucial than ever before in a world where conflicts and persecution force over 20 people to from their homes every minute. Furthermore, ten million people do not have a nationality and so are unable to exercise fundamental rights like those to an adequate education, healthcare, job, or mobility. From bustling metropolises to outposts in hostile regions, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) employs nearly 11,000 people in 130 nations across Europe, the Americas, Asia, the Pacific, Africa, and the Middle East. Geneva is home to the UNHCR headquarters, where slightly more than 7% of the staff is based. The most vulnerable displaced people are being helped by an incredible 87% of the staff who are based in the field. Along with host governments, UNHCR monitors refugee arrivals to ensure the 1951 Refugee Convention is respected.

The nomination of Sadruddin Aga Khan, the UN High Commissioner at the time, as coordinator of the humanitarian assistance for Cyprus was announced by then-Secretary General Kurt Waldheim on 20 August 1974. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Sadruddin Aga Khan, visits Kythrea during his assignment in Cyprus. The High Commissioner and two UNHCR staff members arrived on the island a few days after the appointment to assess immediate aid needs. The requirements were stated in September 1974 by Y. Nagata on behalf of the UNHCR. Emergency housing, food, and household and community equipment costs totalling $22 million were initially requested in September by the High Commissioner. The overall value of contributions reached $23.4 million by December 1974, surpassing the $22 million target. Over eighty-three million dollars in humanitarian relief was distributed to the displaced inhabitants of both communities in just the first three years of the UNHCR's emergency mission in Cyprus. The United States government was the primary funding source for the aid programs, while the European Economic Community contributed food supplies. In its humanitarian aid to displaced Cypriots, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) first provided emergency aid, then moved on to bolstering institutions and infrastructure (like schools and hospitals) that had become overburdened due to population movements. Ultimately, the UNHCR shifted its focus to bi-communal projects to facilitate communication and dialogue between the two communities to build trust and confidence. As a result of a decrease in the demand for relief aid, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) transferred responsibility for development projects to other UN

agencies in 1998. More and more boats carrying migrants and asylum seekers began to dock on the island in 1998. Since the war in the former Yugoslavia began, the number of people seeking asylum has also risen dramatically. As the island lacked national asylum laws and the necessary institutional procedures and ability, the UNHCR stepped in to register and process asylum-seekers as they arrived. Over time, the government also began to build its refugee protection system's capacity, processes, and legal framework to meet international standards. After adopting its first national refugee legislation and asylum procedures in 2000 with UNHCR's technical help, the Republic of Cyprus assumed responsibility for asylum adjudication in 2002, paving the way for EU entry.

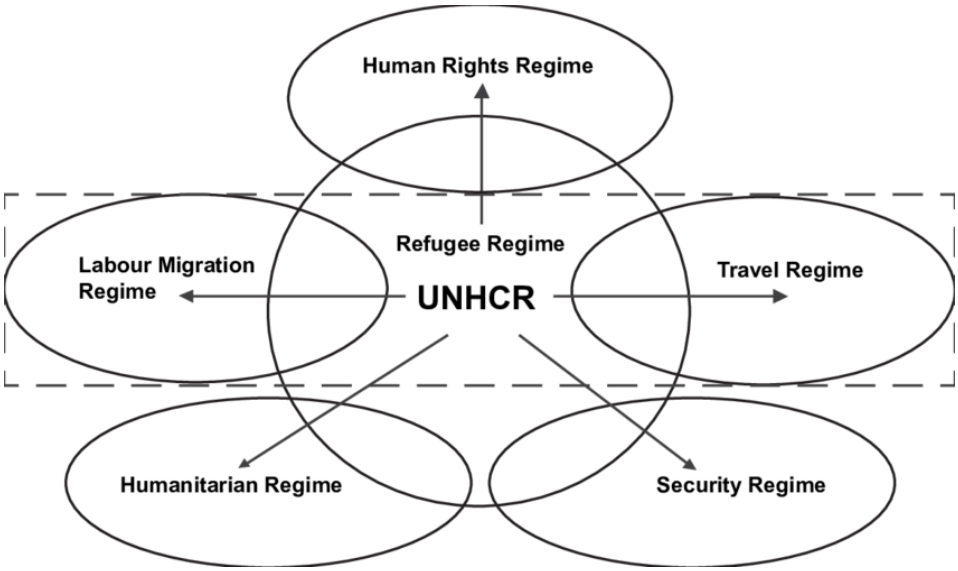
6.8 PRESENT FOCUS

As it is, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) is primarily concerned with helping the Cypriot government bring its asylum laws, processes, and capacities up to international standards. For this to happen, we need to fix the loopholes and shortcomings in our national asylum laws and practices, build protections into our migration management policies, reform our procedures for determining refugee status so they're fairer and more efficient, and establish programs to help refugees find a long-term solution through local integration. Among the many things the UNHCR does to reach these goals are asylum procedures, reception conditions, and detention; it is essential to monitor and promote respect for refugee rights and treatment standards. • ensuring that laws about refugees and asylum seekers align with international and EU standards by offering professional advice and comments on pertinent draft laws. Providing the authorities with legal counsel, technical aid, and other types of support to help them improve the processes they use to determine refugee status and make good decisions. • Keeping an eye on things and speaking up to make sure that separated and unaccompanied kids can get the help they need through the national child protection system, including safe and prompt identification; registration and paperwork; legal representation and guardianship; proper care and supervision; tracing and reunion with family. A best-interest assessment is at the heart of these measures. Refugee rights, asylum-seeker reception conditions, long-term solutions, and child protection are all fundamental protection concerns that must be addressed through training for critical government and civil society partners. Advocating for naturalisation, long-term residency permits, and family reunification can help refugees integrate into Cypriot society and its economy, culture, and social fabric. • Working to have the United Nations statelessness protocols ratified. • Media work, school activities, unique campaigns, seminars, and constituency-building to strengthen and spread public information, education, awareness-raising, and sensitisation initiatives. The preservation of refugees

through enhancing collaborations with non-governmental organisations and other members of civil society.

6.8.1 Better Reception Conditions for Asylum-seekers

It is of direct concern to UNHCR to address the reception of those who may be refugees and their living conditions. Humane, rights-respecting treatment that guarantees a life of viability and dignity for asylum-seekers in all situations should be the fundamental purpose of any fair and effective reception policy. The foundation of this strategy should be the belief that asylum-seekers can and will take charge of their own lives and help with the costs of their reception if given the chance to learn the language, acquire new skills, and find gainful jobs. In addition to considering the urgent material needs of asylum-seekers, UNHCR believes that the government's reception policy should be evaluated by looking at the real opportunities it presents for the future, whether that's for the successful integration of refugees or the return and reintegration of those who were unsuccessful.



6.8.2 Meeting Specific Needs

In general, asylum-seekers and refugees have unique requirements for the following populations: girls and boys in danger, including separated or unaccompanied children; people with significant health issues; people who require special protection due to legal or physical reasons; women living alone or in households where a woman is the primary breadwinner; people who are elderly or disabled; people who identify as members of diverse sexual orientations or gender identities; and people with disabilities. It is critical to routinely identify

these people as soon as they arrive, assess their particular needs, and react swiftly and appropriately to meet them. For instance, in Kofinou, we must ensure that services and infrastructure are physically accessible for people with limited mobility. We also need to set up systems to prevent and respond to violence, exploitation, and abuse. People with specific needs should be able to access information about programs that pertain to them, and we should process their housing needs, registration, and refugee status determination more quickly. Certain groups or individuals may have increased protection risks if their needs are not recognised early.

6.8.3 The Protection of Refugee Women

One of UNHCR's primary functions is to ensure the safety of female refugees. It is a double whammy for most women to be a refugee, as becoming a refugee is already a terrible experience. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) aspires to collaborate closely with the government to address the unique challenges faced by women as refugees. By empowering themselves, these women will overcome obstacles to education and employment, gain access to opportunities, and improve their and their families' lives. Within the broader context of gender equality, mainstreaming and empowerment, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) continues to prioritise the prevention of all types of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) as well as the response to the needs of survivors. For this reason, it is necessary to implement concerted outreach programs aimed at educating and empowering refugees and asylum seekers to combat sexual and gender-based violence. Equal measures must be taken to enhance the ability of national and local response systems to safeguard and uphold the rights of female and female-headed refugees.

6.8.4 The Integration of Refugees

As a result of their experiences and the circumstances surrounding their forced migration, refugees, in contrast to migrants, frequently have unique requirements that must be satisfied to facilitate their assimilation into the host community. They are both incredibly robust and one of society's most vulnerable groups. Recognising the unique needs of refugees, especially vulnerable populations like women and children, is crucial for effective national integration policies and practices.

6.8.5 Family Reunification

It is common for people seeking refuge from persecution to reach their host country alone without their families. Their closest family members can apply to join them once they are recognised as refugees. However, because of regulations and practices that prevent or delay family reunions, they often stay apart for

extended periods or forever. When a parent or spouse is given asylum in one nation, the remaining family members, who may be in a war zone or a refugee camp, face an even more significant threat of persecution as a result of any delays. The mental toll of long separations is substantial as well. Children are particularly vulnerable to the devastating effects of extended family separation.

6.8.6 Short Summar:

Foundation	14 December 1950
Headquarter	Geneva, Switzerland
Member States	Not a membership-based agency; it works in over 135 countries with support from UN member states
Main Objectives	• Protect the rights and well-being of refugees, asylum seekers, and stateless persons • Assist in the voluntary repatriation, resettlement, or local integration of displaced people • Advocate for durable solutions to forced displacement globally
Key Structures	• UN High Commissioner • Executive Committee • Field and Regional Offices
Achievements	• Provided shelter, food, and protection to millions of refugees globally • Played a major role in resolving refugee crises (e.g., post-WWII Europe, Syrian conflict) • Supported the development of international refugee law and the 1951 Refugee Convention
Challenges and Criticism	• Faces chronic underfunding and resource limitations • Struggles with access in conflict zones and areas with restrictive governments • Criticized for slow responses and bureaucratic delays in emergency situations

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. **What are the key functions of Specialized Agencies within the UN system?**
2. **Describe the World Health Organization's (WHO) role in addressing global health challenges.**
3. **How does the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) contribute to the well-being of children worldwide?**
4. **What challenges do Specialized Agencies face the challenges in achieving their mandates?**
5. **How can the effectiveness of Specialized Agencies be improved?**

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Unit # 7

GLOBAL GOVERNANCE

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INTRODUCTION

This unit explores the concept and evolution of global governance, emphasising its growing importance in a highly interconnected world. It defines global governance as a framework for coordinating and managing transnational challenges—ranging from climate change to economic crises—that require collective action by states, international organisations, corporations, and civil society.

The unit traces the historical origins of global governance, noting its roots in international relations and its theoretical divergence from state-centric models. It highlights the increasing role of non-state actors, such as multinational corporations and NGOs, in shaping policies and addressing global issues, thereby challenging traditional notions of state sovereignty.

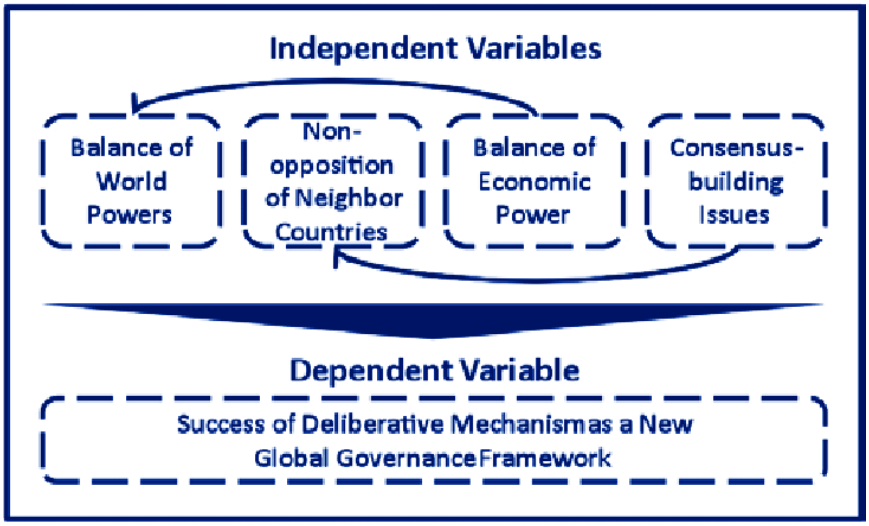
Key discussions include the impact of globalisation on national decision-making processes, the integration of market and civil society actors, and the tension between democratic principles and market-oriented approaches. It also examines the critical role of international organisations like the UN and IMF in facilitating governance while acknowledging the challenges posed by nationalism, resource inequality, and geopolitical divides.

The unit underscores the urgent need for inclusive and cooperative mechanisms to address the complexities of the 21st century, advocating for a balance between state and non-state actor influence in global decision-making.

OBJECTIVES:
To explore the concept of global governance, its historical development, and its evolving role in managing transnational issues such as climate change and economic crises.
The unit discusses the increasing involvement of non-state actors and highlights the challenges and opportunities in creating inclusive and cooperative global governance mechanisms.

7.1 THE EVOLUTION OF GLOBAL GOVERNANCE

The term "global governance" has grown in popularity and use over the past decade, but its precise definition has been murky at best. Even though global governance theory arose to counteract the state-centric research and theory that had long ruled the field of international relations, conventional wisdom continues to place too much emphasis on the part played by non-state actors. To understand why nonstate entities' current challenges to state sovereignty are not new or should be seen as a sign that the state is no longer the primary governing institution in international affairs, one must look at the idea of global governance within a broader historical context.



States, corporations, and civil society organisations must agree on crucial global agenda issues if global governance is to advance in the 21st century. As a result of globalisation, the complex and ever-evolving dynamic between market actors, institutions and nations should be the subject of future studies on global governance. Everyone involved in studying and implementing global governance strategies should pay more attention to the conflicts that arise when democratic principles and market principles are not fully satisfied and how these conflicts impact the worldwide management of human affairs. There has been a marked shift in the relative strength of democracies and markets in many nations. As the interwar era demonstrated, it would only take a swing in the opposite direction for global government to be redefined.

7.2 What Is Global Governance?

Modern discussions on global governance have their roots in and continue to be situated within the field of international relations. Before the 1970s, most research

in international relations (IR) focused on the actions and interactions of independent states. According to Robert Keohane, they are "mere instruments of governments, and therefore unimportant in their own right." This view was shared by the expanding body of literature on international institutions that emerged after World War II.

Fun Fact

Global governance refers to how international affairs are managed through cooperation among states, organisations, and institutions. One interesting aspect is that it's not just about governments—civil society, businesses, and individuals all play roles in shaping global policies. In some ways, we're all part of the global governance system, even if we don't realise it!

According to realist theory, which was popular at the time, nations are the sole major players in international politics; they operate in unison, and the safety of their militaries takes precedence over all else. Many academics have pointed out the far-reaching consequences of the globalisation of trade and have stated that international relations are becoming an ever-more-important element in international politics, going beyond the boundaries of individual nations. By establishing a clear analytical divide between governmental and nongovernmental activity, this trend in IR helped pave the way for future research on global governance by allowing scholars to compare and contrast the two and their respective impacts more easily. Efforts at policy coordination may arise as a result of transnational activity, according to Keohane and Nye. This could lead to more bureaucratic contact among governmental sub-units and, in a multilateral context, give international organisations a chance to make a big splash in global politics. While transnational studies did much to promote the rigorous examination of nonstate actors in international politics, developments in the early 1970s exposed the postwar emphasis on formal institutions and multilateral agreements as an exaggeration. It became intellectually challenging to reconcile formal institutional frameworks with actual international politics as the gap between them widened. The United States' (US) 1971 unilateral decision to float the dollar and exit from the gold-dollar exchange system ended two decades of stable monetary ties under the Bretton Woods institutions. Outside official international institutions, the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) rose to power. It demonstrated its ability to ignore multilateral accords about the price and availability of oil. While everyone knew that world affairs were "organised" then, it became clear that the postwar focus on formal organisations and treaties—particularly the UN and the institutions established at Bretton Woods—had been overstated. The study of international organisations did, however, contribute significantly to IR as a whole. While liberals were

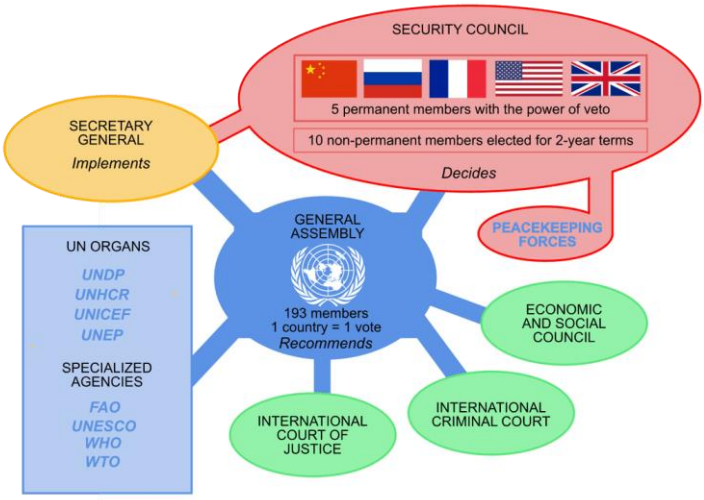
successful in disproving the realist view that states were the sole major players in international politics, it was also evident that states were still the most critical players overall. This difference goes beyond mere semantics and explains most of the research on nonstate players, patterns of nonstate action, and the interplay between state and non-state actors that has taken place over the last 30 years.

A growing number of academics have turned their focus to studying international regimes, or what Krasner calls "implicit or explicit principles, norms, rules, and decision-making procedures around which actors' expectations converge in a given area of international relations," to expand upon previous work on transnationalism and supranational organisations. He defines a regime as a set of principles and guidelines for how governments should act. The circumstances behind regimes' establishment, maintenance, and demise have been the subject of substantial written work. Most theories hold that regimes are established by diplomacy between sovereign states, each acting in its self-interest to maximise utility. To rephrase, states establish regimes hoping to reap the benefits of consistent collaboration. Because the costs of conflict outside the regime outweigh the benefits of an imperfect condition inside, many governments choose to engage in imperfect regimes. Even though they disagree with the trade regime in many ways, developing nations prefer to be part of the World Trade Organization rather than try to do business independently. Consequently, international organisation studies reached a new juncture with the advent of research into international regimes. Fortunately, studies of international regimes have mostly ignored the distributive effects of conduct in favour of examining the causes and processes of their creation and transformation and the behavioural effects of laws and norms. On top of that, the constructivist school of thinking prompted researchers to examine the subjective significance of rules and norms as they pertained to international regimes and international relations in general. In particular, explanations of international cooperation and studies of international regimes became inextricably bound together by the mid-1980s. Nevertheless, the examination of international regimes persisted in a state-centric perspective, even as IR attempted to transcend its fixation on studying interstate relations. Scholars have endeavoured to construct global governance theory to move beyond the ontologically limited scope of the state as an analytical unit in international relations. Published as Governance Without Government, the groundbreaking work of James Rosenau and Ernst-Otto Czempiel contested the idea that governance is synonymous with governmental actions. Although states are the primary focus of serious studies of global governance, non-state entities like multinational companies, NGOs, and international organisations are given a crucial analytical role. It is widely acknowledged that governments continue to wield considerable influence over the global system, with some holding more sway than others. However, the complex interplay between states, markets, and

civil society organisations is causing a transformation in state power. The influence of globalisation on national sovereignty is a crucial aspect of global governance. A large body of work on states conceives of sovereignty as the capacity of states to regulate actions both inside and outside their borders. "States do not simply have ultimate authority over things political; they have the authority to relegate activities, issues and practices to the economic, social, cultural and scientific realms of authority," Janice Thompson argues, building on her earlier work on the concept of "meta-political authority" to define sovereignty in terms of authority. Furthermore, most works on international relations centre on the actions of nations, NGOs, and IGs rather than corporations and their impact on global economic policy and other international concerns. Still, more and more writers are trying to make sense of the rise of private-sector players in global politics. The presence of "private authority" has been mentioned by several. Private power, which suggests influence, should not be confused with private authority. In contrast to public authority, private authority rests on the fulcrum of both legitimacy and power. Therefore, "shared authority" between state and non-state actors can be added to private authority over a specific political, economic, or social function or process. States may even have "ultimate authority," as Thompson claims. Private authority exists when states seek advice or defer to private-sector actors when formulating public policies or manipulating markets to achieve desired results. Governments have, on the assumption that it is justified, complied with normative demands for private actors to carry out public functions, and there is abundant historical evidence of this. The banking and financial industry is one where private power is most obvious. The role of commercial banks in rescheduling government debt has been crucial in the past. Furthermore, state actions frequently establish the market as the supreme authority. Hall and Biesteker assert that "when state leaders proclaim that 'the forces of the global market' give them little room for manoeuvre or independent policy choice," what they really mean is that they are "creating the authority of the market" rather than "ceding claims of authority to the market." Keep in mind that private power does not always pose a threat to public policy or political authority. On the contrary, it frequently bolsters governmental initiatives in several spheres of economic governance. Global governance and its challenges to state sovereignty from nonstate actors are not new, nor are they portending the end of the state as the primary human institution for governing affairs. This can only be understood by looking at global governance through a longer historical lens. The dynamics between states and markets and other nonstate actors at the start of the 21st century are strikingly similar to those in the 1920s when private experts and international business people stepped up to the plate to propose and build new international institutions to serve the public good.

7.3 Role, International, Organizations, and Global Governance

In the early years of its nearly seventy-year existence, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) was a submissive observer and faithful agent inside the framework of global finance. The International Monetary Fund's (IMF) responsibility as crisis manager has grown since the global debt crisis, the Soviet Union's demise and the financial crisis in Europe began. In addition, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has further entrenched its authority and sway in overseeing the international economy in response to the ongoing political and economic crises. During this time of upheaval and change, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) became responsible for providing economic policy standards and balancing adjustment and finance. Since its inception, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has taken on the formidable responsibility of global governance and its original mission of assisting post-WWII developed nations in stabilising their exchange rate and international payment systems. After the 2008 financial crisis, when global financial institutions collapsed, global markets fell for a long time. National governments bailed out banks and companies—a move that was both popular and controversial—the International Monetary Fund (IMF) shifted from being an international organisation (its role as a lender of last resort) to a global financial governor (its ability to govern the world economy). This was necessary to coordinate global economic reform, stabilising currency markets and boosting global macroeconomic growth. Looking back, this new era of the Fund's history will undoubtedly be remembered for significant criticism and its crucial role as a crisis manager who set new standards. The future of the



The course will heavily influence the fund and its place in the global financial

architecture, if the G20 decides to take the organisation.

A higher level of living for all people is the overarching goal of all forms of government. However, differences in opinion on what development goals to aim for and how to get there continue to plague political discourse. Various definitions of development and approaches to achieving it are naturally reflected in the discourses on development within the international (intergovernmental) global governance framework.

As lenders, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund are involved. Because of this, they are in a far better position to negotiate favourable terms with nations that seek loans. Trade disputes can be resolved through the World Trade Organization's Dispute Settlement Body (DSB). Members can file complaints to seek compensation for economic losses caused by another member's failure to comply with the WTO Agreements. A key limitation of this enforcement method is its effect on trade obligations made by WTO Members.

The enforcement agencies inside the UN system are feeble and lack the authority to compel its members to comply. Deliberatory diplomacy is thus the only option for the United Nations. Consequently, its reaction to the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the World Trade Organization (WTO) is still precarious. For example, consider the West Bank's policy requiring SAPs as a loan condition. Some developing nations refer to the 1980s as the "lost decade" because of the food protests that broke out in response to SAPs. With no authority to challenge the implementation of SAPs as a political concept of development, the ILO at the time advocated for safety nets wherever feasible.

I suggest delving further into the ongoing conversation surrounding UN reform and potentially establishing a more robust UNIFEM. While most UN agencies do include gender considerations in their work, there is still a long way to go. The United Nations (UN) might better incorporate a gender perspective into its programs—from peacekeeping and humanitarian aid to conflict resolution and peacekeeping—and national policies if it prioritised gender budgeting and women's rights.

At the same time, the World Trade Organization promotes a rules-based trading regime that must be put into practice within the framework of preexisting Poverty Reduction Programs, the needs of which exceed both the trade rules and the WTO's promises. The aforementioned groups include most of the world's governments as members. Instead of leading to growth on the ground, this policy confusion has caused local-level policy activities to be inconsistent.Among the

most erroneous assumptions made by neoliberal development theorists was that the WTO Agreements would have no discernible impact on women or girls. This would be in keeping with the theory that development would inevitably have a domino effect on a global to a national scale. The evidence does not support the premise that women would automatically profit from global economic development at the national and local levels, just like any other citizen (referred to as a consumer in this approach). The evidence supports the view held by civil society organisations, including IGTN, that this methodology is ineffective from

both a development and gender perspective.

"Global governance" describes the new worldwide system that has emerged to control and coordinate monetary, social, political, and ecological interactions. With the rise of supranational and international organisations, global governance has emerged in international relations. The growing political, economic, and social interconnectedness justifies the necessity of a new kind of government. The "bonding" (in a broad sense) and relationships between nations have grown stronger, prompting states to work together more and establish "bodies" or "tools" to address shared concerns and meet the demands brought about by the volatility of international relations, including but not limited to economic, financial, and environmental issues. A regulatory framework that protects the interests of natural persons and the globe is urgently needed due to the globalisation of economies, the planet, and corporations. To maintain effective rule-making, cooperation, and coordination, international organisations are crucial to the dynamics of international relations. Understanding the difference between general international and supranational organisations, often called regional international organisations, is crucial since we deal with two distinct realities. There has been a dramatic growth in global organisations in the decades following WWII. These organisations sprang up all over the place in the decades following World War II due to the proliferation of economic fields, regions, and markets, as well as the necessity of working together to address economic issues that were eitherdomestic or global in nature.

Fun Fact

One of the significant challenges is the issue of "global public goods," like climate change or pandemic response, which require cooperation across borders. Interestingly, while no single country can solve these problems alone, global governance frameworks like the Paris Agreement or the World Health Organization try to tackle them. However, reaching a consensus is often tricky due to differing national interests and priorities!

7.3.1 Challenges in Global Governance

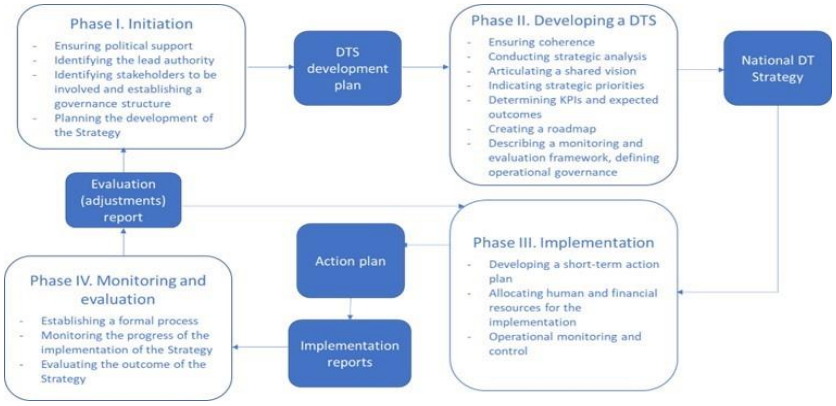
There has been an ongoing process of reform at the United Nations since its inception in 1946, with each stage reflecting the refocused goals of the membership. During the decolonisation era, there was a once-in-a-generation chance for the UN to meet the requirements of newly independent states in Asia and Africa. There was a 118 per cent increase in UN membership in the twenty years after its inception.

A more robust United Nations organisation is required to address socioeconomic growth, as the rise of new states has demonstrated. Several organisations, funds, programs, and agencies were set up to accommodate the enlarged membership. Founded in 1966, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the backbone of the UN's development policy. In 1965, the United Nations Industrial Training Program (UNITAR) was founded to assist the newly admitted Member States overcome the obstacles they would face as an organisation. A new era for the Organization began with the Cold War's conclusion. The Security Council launched several new UN peacekeeping missions in Africa and Europe in the early 1990s. Massive peacekeeping operations were thrust upon the United Nations out of the blue, putting its managerial, budgetary, and administrative capacities to the test. In 1992, the UN Security Council resolved to reevaluate its approach and prioritise eliminating non-military factors contributing to instability after realising that peacekeeping operations had limitations and that the lack of armed conflicts alone could not guarantee safety. It singled out the environmental, social, humanitarian, and economic spheres as possible trouble spots. A new paradigm for restoring calm after violent conflicts emerged. Secretary-General Kofi Annan initiated several reforms towards the end of 1997 to make the United Nations more coherent and better able to address the growing number of issues related to human rights, humanitarian aid, and socioeconomic development. Two thousand world leaders established the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). With the creation of the Global Compact, a forum was established to encourage private companies to adhere to universally recognised standards concerning labour, anti-corruption, human rights, and the environment. In 2005, at the World Summit, world leaders reiterated the necessity for a strong multilateral system. They agreed to work together to address growing problems in development, collective security, human rights, and the rule of law. This marked the beginning of a new reform period. The Peacebuilding Commission and the UN Human Rights Council were both formed. To coordinate the efforts of all UN Funds and Programs related to development, humanitarian aid, and environmental protection, the UN established Delivering as One in 2007. On a separate front, critics have been arguing for the Security Council's overhaul since 1993. Major

donors like Japan and Germany were joined by smaller ones like the African Group, Brazil, and India, demanding that the USCR be reformed. Adding more members to the UN Security Council is a contentious topic. Also, proposals have been made to reinvigorate the General Assembly's operations. The membership also demanded several management and secretariat improvements to fortify the Organization. The United Nations unified its efforts to empower women under Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon by creating UN Women. The UN's program for disarmament and non-proliferation was also revitalised. A strong system of accountability has been established, emphasising honesty and openness.

7.3.2 Challenges

The United Nations will celebrate 75 years in 2020. Although most people think the Organization is more important than ever to keep the globe safe, they have different ideas about how it should carry out its mission. Reform does not stand alone. This procedure allows the members to examine the organisation's plans and goals. The alliance among the founding members of the United Nations was founded on the ashes of the two global wars that had come before it, which had killed an estimated 80 million people. Over the years, the United Nations has grown into a complicated network of agencies and programs charged by its members with finding solutions to global, seemingly intractable challenges. A growing number of international treaties have been ratified. Despite increased global connectivity, global unity remains elusive, and the United Nations faces many new difficulties daily. Along with globalisation has come decentralisation. Every member state of the United Nations has its own unique set of priorities and interests. States' functions have changed as well. The work of private companies, NGOs, and civil society organisations affects fundamental national goals and transcends national borders. An expanding network of NGOs now augments governments. A few individuals' fortunes exceed the gross domestic product of numerous member states. A further difficulty for the UN system is the proliferation of regional and international organisations that have emerged independently of the UN system. Some states believe these other institutions are better suited to address specific global issues. Amidst ongoing financial crises and a worldwide redistribution of poverty and exclusion, the United Nations continues to function in an uncertain economic climate. In recent years, there has been consistent economic growth in many Least Developed Countries (LDCs). Official Development Assistance (ODA)



Became less necessary as a result. Nevertheless, disparities in wealth and income continue to this day, even in nations with middle or high incomes. Reimagining the worldwide agenda for development is daunting for the United Nations. Maintaining the reform process to mobilise fresh resources and establish frameworks for cross-sector and cross-border international collaboration is critical. If the UN wants to continue existing, reform is essential.

7.3.3 Global Governance: Some Preliminary Considerations

One such proposal that garnered widespread attention in political and scholarly circles is the notion of global government. The number of international summits and gatherings of heads of state has steadily increased since the 1990s. They proved that world politics had evolved qualitatively. Changes are occurring in the relative weight of nation-states and international efforts. On the global stage, things are happening through entities other than states. They are becoming more important politically and economically. Many entities with diverse and frequently non-profit missions participate in international politics, including transnational companies, international civil society, and non-governmental organisations. Global megatrends today encompass various political, economic, social, ecological, and cultural changes. The interconnectedness of processes and their mutual effects is what this phenomenon's "global nature" alludes to. Transcending boundaries and continents, these changes impact not only individuals and cultures but also the future of all humanity. These days, demographics are one of the most critical variables in determining international safety. Projection of demographic changes on an international or continental scale is not feasible owing to significant variations in population growth, density, age structure, or the quantity of accessible resources across individual economies. Nonetheless, global demographic issues in this or any other area affect everyone. There were one billion people on Earth in 1800, and experts predict the number will rise from 6.5 billion in 2005 to 9.1 billion in 2050.

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. **Define global governance and explain its key characteristics.**
2. **What are global governance's main challenges in the 21st century?**
3. **Discuss the role of different actors in global governance.**
4. **How can global governance be made more effective and legitimate?**
5. **What are the prospects for global governance in an increasingly interconnected world?**

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UNIT: 8

International Law and Organization

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INTRODUCTION

This unit examines the intricate relationship between international law and international organisations, emphasising how these two domains intersect and influence one another. It begins by outlining the sources and principles of international law, such as treaties, customs, and general principles recognised by states. These foundational elements serve as the legal backbone of interactions between states and their obligations within international organisations.

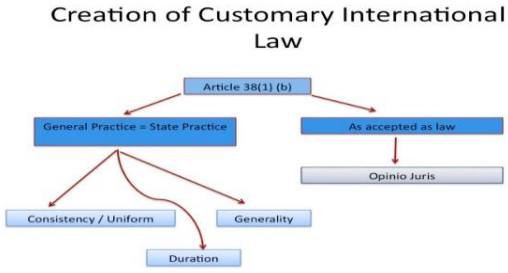
The unit highlights the role of international organisations in shaping and enforcing international law. It describes how organisations like the United Nations, the International Court of Justice (ICJ), and other tribunals contribute to developing legal norms, mediating disputes, and ensuring state compliance. Furthermore, it examines the contribution of international organisations to customary international law, as their resolutions, practices, and decisions often influence global standards.

Additionally, the unit addresses challenges such as balancing state sovereignty with the growing authority of international organisations and the evolving nature of international law in a globalised world. The critical role of these organisations as platforms for cooperation, governance, and the promotion of a rules-based international order is emphasised.

OBJECTIVES:
❖ **To examine the relationship between international law and international organisations, focusing on how IOs contribute to the development and enforcement of international law.**
❖ **The unit also explores the challenges of balancing state sovereignty with the growing authority of IOs in shaping legal norms and resolving disputes.**

8.1 Sources and Principles of International Law

Careful consideration is required because these are more challenging questions than one would anticipate. Trying to apply concepts from one law system to another, such as national law, in a radically different international law setting is perilous. No such thing as a "Code of International Law" exists. Parliament and any semblance of legislation do not exist in international law. International courts and tribunals, such as the International Court of Justice, rely heavily on state assent to exercise their jurisdiction and do not have the same mandatory authority as national courts. The 192 member states comprising the international community work together to create international law, essentially a decentralised process. According to Article 38 of the ICJ Statute, five places can be found: As a supplementary method for establishing norms of international law, (a) State treaties, (b) State practice-based customary international law; (c) Universally accepted principles of law; and, finally: (d) The opinions of judges and "the most highly qualified publicists" in their published works.



8.2 Customary International Law

Since customary law is the first and only source that produces norms that all states must adhere to, it is a good place to begin. There is no codified source for customary law. The requirement that states provide immunity to a visiting head of state is an example of a customary law rule that is believed to include two components. To begin, it must be standard practice for states to grant immunity to visiting heads of state; that is, states must consistently do this. Second, there must be "opinio juris," commonly translated as "a belief in legal obligation." In other words, states must grant immunity because they believe it is their legal duty. According to the International Court of Justice (ICJ): "The acts in question must not only constitute a settled practice but also be conducted in a manner that suggests the belief that this practice is made obligatory by the presence of a rule requiring it." The relevant states must believe they are complying with a binding legal requirement.

Fun Fact
Customary international law consists of evolved practices accepted as binding, even without written agreements. One interesting point is that customary law can be more flexible than treaties, as it adapts to the changing needs of the international community while maintaining foundational principles, like prohibiting genocide or piracy.

Treaties

The second primary source of law is treaties, which can be agreements, conventions, exchanges of notes, protocols, or simply a formal document between two or more states or between states and an international body. Rather than being a source of law in and of itself, a treaty creates legal obligations. It is entirely up to the State to decide whether to become a treaty party; signing up is not mandatory. Only States that become parties to a treaty can be held legally responsible. For what reasons are the states that have joined a treaty legally obligated to uphold it? All states must uphold their treaties according to a rule of customary international law called pacta sunt servanda. Treaties are more appropriately characterised as sources of legal obligation for that reason. However, as binding declarations of customary law, many treaties also hold great significance. Many believe that the unwritten principles of customary law can be codified in a freely negotiated treaty amongst many states. This is the case when the goal of a treaty provision is to codify preexisting laws. For example, consider the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties. Even though less than half of the world's states are party to it, every court that has looked into the issue has interpreted its primary provisions as a codification of customary law, meaning that they apply to all states regardless of whether they participate in the Convention. Theoretically, when a treaty clause is used to codify a rule of customary law, the original practice and opinio juris are considered the source of law, with the treaty provision serving only as proof. However, reasoning fails to consider that putting an unwritten rule into paper alters that rule. From that point forward, the written provision will be the primary source of information, and arguments on the rule's scope will centre on interpreting the text rather than analysing the practice itself. In addition, a treaty provision might become customary law if established in practice, even if its original intention was not to codify but to change the rule. Examples include those involving the North Sea Continental Shelf in 1969: 'Although the passage of only a brief period does not automatically preclude the formation of a new rule of customary international law based on an earlier conventional rule. However, for this to happen, there must have been widespread and nearly uniform practice within that period, including among states whose interests are particularly affected.' Additionally, the practice must have occurred in a way that indicates a general recognition that a rule of law or legal obligation is at play. A significant

aspect of state practice occurs when many states agree upon a treaty clause. It doesn't take much for a treaty provision to become customary international law if additional states, including those that weren't originally parties, go on to implement it. Given this fact, some authors have drawn a line between treaties that include agreements between parties, known as "traités contracts," and treatés lois, which create laws. I think it just adds more confusion than help. The parties to any treaty are entering into a legally binding contract. However, there are a few that impact the general law as well. The most significant changes to international law after 1945 occurred due to the passage of multiple treaties about various domains of international law, including war, terrorism, diplomacy, and treaty-making.

8.3 General Principles

The most significant sources of international law are treaties and customs, but the others listed in Article 38 of the ICJ Statute should not be disregarded either. Case decisions rarely refer to the third source, consisting of generally accepted law principles recognised by civilised nations. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) or another international tribunal will typically use them when it wishes to embrace a well-recognized notion in national law, like the legal personality of corporations (e.g., in the Barcelona Traction Co. case (1970)). However, international law rarely fully embraces a legal notion from a specific state's legal system; instead, it seeks a principle acknowledged in some way by numerous national legal systems.

8.4 Judicial Decisions

Judicial decisions are mentioned as a secondary way for determining rules of law in Article 38(1)(d). Unlike common law jurisdictions, the concept of binding precedent does not exist in international law. In fact, according to the ICJ Statute, a ruling from the Court is only binding on the parties involved in the specific case in which it was issued, and even then, only about that case (Article 59). Ignoring that "subsidiary" does not imply insignificance would be a mistake because the ICJ regularly looks to its previous rulings, and most international courts use prior cases to inform the substance of international law. International and domestic court rulings are treated similarly under Article 38(1)(d). The former is usually seen as the more credible proof of international law in most subjects, except laws more frequently dealt with by national courts, like sovereign immunity. Court rulings, however, constitute an element of a state's practice and may, thus, have an immediate impact on the development of customary international law.

8.4 Writings

It is risky to take a single passage from a book or article and assume it represents the content of international law without further evidence, because international lawyers' writings can be persuasive guides to the content of international law. Still, they cannot create laws on their own.

8.5 Other Sources.

Critics often point out that Article 38 of the Statute does not provide an exhaustive list of sources. Specifically, the actions of the various UN organs are absent. Even while their acts may fit more snugly within the framework of Article 38 than is often thought, their impact on international law is undeniable today. Resolutions passed by the UN General Assembly do not have the force of law and cannot be used to commit member states to any particular course of action. Nonetheless, the legislative process is significantly impacted by a number of those resolutions. The Assembly recommended the Convention against Torture to the Member States as part of the treaty-making process, including resolutions that attach treaty texts negotiated within the United Nations framework. Even though the treaty establishes the legal duty (and only for those States that voluntarily become parties to it), the role of the United Nations in drafting that treaty is crucial. Furthermore, as previously stated, the stances that states adopt within the UN are an element of their overall policy. A string of widely accepted resolutions representing a principle of international law can significantly impact the evolution of customary international law, provided that this does not conflict with other actions taken by states. An example is the analysis of the nuclear weapons resolutions in the Advisory Opinion on Nuclear Weapons (1996).

8.5 THE ROLE OF THE INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS AND INTERNATIONAL LAW

There have been many debates concerning international organisations' legal character and definition, even though they have been involved in international law relations for over a century. One way of looking at international organisations is as an unchecked power structure that allows states to hide behind their facade. At the same time, another is an open forum where nations can be seen as still participating in the global legal system. This is the context in which Lorenzo Gasbarri aims to analyse "The Concept of an International Organization in International Law," continuing a scholarly movement toward theories of international organisations. "To identify the concept of an international organisation in international law" (6), not "to build a constraining framework to delineate the boundaries of this social phenomenon" through a definition of international organisations based on their essential characteristics. In his

Fun Fact
The role of international organisations and international law: International organisations, like the UN or the WTO, help create and enforce laws that govern cross-border issues, from trade to human rights. Interestingly, while not always enforceable in the same way as domestic law, international law often relies on "soft power"—like diplomacy and economic influence—to encourage compliance from nations!

introductory remarks, he states that a lack of consensus on the meaning of "international organisation" has resulted in arbitrary and self-serving decisions.

For instance, in the Kadi instances, the ECfFI cited the EC's open and transparent image. At the same time, the ECoJ presented the EC as an independent legal order immune to the UN Charter's prejudicial effects. In the first section of his book, Gasbarri lays out the "Four Concepts of an International Organization" (functionalism, constitutionalism, informalism, and exceptionalism) that he uses to build his idea of an intergovernmental organisation. While readers well-versed in constitutionalism and functionalism will find little new to learn, the author draws on the International Law Commission's (ILC) comments on the Articles on Responsibility of International Organizations (ARIO) to develop informalism and exceptionalism (8). To be more specific, the International Law Commission (ILC) offered four distinct descriptions of the 'rules of the organisation,' namely, internal law, hybrid law, and international law, implying that international organisations might be classified as closed, semi-closed, or open entities. In Unit 2, we look at "Functionalism," the conventional wisdom about international organisations and how nations established them to carry out certain, limited tasks outlined in their founding documents. Thus, functionalism views international organisations as agents for the member nations. The fact that the organisation's regulations are based on international law is a major implication of this perspective, which means that the member states are still visible behind the organisation's "crystalline transparency" veil. According to Gasbarri, "relevant as a matter of international law" is the behaviour of member nations. According to Santi Romano's "Institutionalism," the word "relevant" in this sense indicates that one institution (in this case, the international legal system) may influence the presence, nature, and effectiveness of another. Scholarship is still heavily skewed toward functionalism despite its clear limitations in understanding why international organisations go beyond what is stated and mandated in their instruments. Gasbarri examines "Constitutionalism" in Chapter 3 and suggests it might offer such an answer. According to constitutionalists, the organisation's laws are only its internal regulations. Consequently, treaty law, international liability law, and international organisations' legal systems are distinct. When member states act to further the organisation's goals, they become its agents and vanish behind its impenetrable veil. Nevertheless, constitutionalism, similar to functionalism, does

have its limits. In danger of ignoring the function of other subjects of international law—namely, the member states—within the organisation, constitutionalism merely considers the internal aspect of international organisations. The (uncountable) number of academics and professionals who have taken constitutionalist stances toward international organisations may find Gasbarri's judgment that constitutionalism has received little scholarly and practical backing surprising. Naturally, such methods have always existed in the background of functionalism. However, the author admits that these theories have a lot of weight and relevance when explaining how international organisations deal with parties outside their legal jurisdiction. Perhaps the author's thesis in Part II is the true culprit behind the book's apparent sharp contrast between functionalism and constitutionalism. The different understandings of international organisations can be brought together by considering them as "dual entities," as Gasbarri suggests in that place. 'Informalism' provides an intriguing summary of alternative, less conventional efforts to understand international organisations in Chapter 4. “Informalism” encompasses all the 'theories that frame the legislation created by international organisations in shades of normativity, under which the crisp barrier between law and non-law blurs in the proliferation of soft norms,” says Gasbarri. Recent research on the "so-called IN-LAW" is examined in this chapter; these studies "are obsessed by the question of whether it is international law or not". Compared to the more rigid frameworks of functionalism and constitutionalism, informalism creates a less clear picture of the interplay between state behaviour and the application of international law. The 'grey zone' schools of thought, including IN-LAW and other informal methods like GAL and those about the exercise of international public power, do not permit the construction of a 'clear line' between law and non-law. Some may argue that Gasbarri's broad definition of "informalism" fails to adequately distinguish between the numerous schools of thought within the informalist movement. However, it shows that, contrary to Gasbarri's understanding, informalism would make it hard to interpret international organisations as legal systems. Rather than "seeing any normative consequence in terms of the belonging of a norm to a legal system," the strength of these more informal perspectives is their depiction of international organisations as platforms for global governance. The final idea, "exceptionalism," is discussed in Chapter 5. It is founded on the idea that certain international organisations claim to be "radically different from their peers". The European Union (EU) and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) are the two "exceptional" international organisations covered in this chapter. The European Union asserts its uniqueness through its supranational integration. In contrast, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) stands out from other global bodies in terms of the political, as opposed to the legal, character of its regulations. The exceptionalist view holds that the member states are either agents (the EU) or third parties (the OSCE), that the organisation's rules are either EU or international law, that the degree to which the organisation is autonomous is debatable, and that the conduct in question has any

bearing on the international legal order. Similar to informal approaches, exceptionalism leads to the legal systems of those organisations being hybrid, meaning that the norms are not clearly defined as having a legal or non-legal character. When discussing the Al-Dulimi case in Chapter 6, "Interim Conclusions," Gasbarri uses the four ideas to "expose the false dichotomies that led to the proliferation of the different perspectives". Different people indeed have different ideas about what international organisations are and how they work, and these ideas influence judicial reasoning in some way. The ECtHR determined that Switzerland had violated its ECHR commitments in the Al-Dulimi case. However, it did not rule on whether or not this would conflict with decisions made by the United Nations Security Council. Chapter 6's discussion by Gasbarri sheds light on the logical flaws in the decisions made by the ECtHR and other international tribunals, which "deal with international organisations only to find ways to avoid ruling on their responsibility". But one can't help but question if Gasbarri hasn't exaggerated the many different ways international organisations are envisioned. 'Excellent' institutions such as the EU or OSCE could be defined in constitutional or functional terms, respectively, and informal alternatives within the 'global administrative space' could have constitutional aspirations. The "either/or paradigm" that pertains to international organisations is primarily based on a debate between functionalism and constitutionalism; Gasbarri's view of "international organisation" as two distinct entities is an attempt to counter this. Numerous aspects impact international law. There has been a dramatic increase in the number, size, and variety of IOs, all of which hold greater sway than ever before in the international community and the international legal order, thanks to the progress of economic integration and legal globalisation. There is a direct correlation between the growth of IOs and the increasing visibility of the impact of international law on IOs, since IO activities touch every facet of international society. Even though the IOs have not created customary international law, their decisions and declarations have altered its historical development for the better. Many international organisations' charters and bylaws reflect universally accepted ideals and provisions that have evolved into widely accepted practices. Numerous experts in this area agree that IOs contribute positively to the development of customary international law and that evidence of IO practice can be utilised to establish customary international law. Though this study will primarily concentrate on the topic of which IO acts have contributed to the development of customary international law, few academics have thoroughly investigated the role of IOs in the construction of customary international law. The primary and representative IOs are subjectively examined in this study using the literature analysis method. In a way, this study will bring more attention to the good impact of IOs on the evolution of international law by raising awareness of their importance.

An international custom is a recognised standard of conduct whose legal ramifications are acknowledged and which most international subjects have

adopted through continuous practice. According to the International Law Commission, recognising norms of conduct between states and opinions expressed by jurists are necessary components of customary international law. According to the international community, technological facilitation, the expansion of the powerful, and military competition are the three main ways states build customary international law. Also acknowledged is the role of IOs in determining what constitutes customary international law. Here, citing the UN and the EU as instances, the author will discuss how IGOs have affected customary international law.

A key finding of the aforementioned research is the significance of IOs in the evolution of international law. International governmental organisations (IGOs) are essential in determining and enforcing state practice when determining what constitutes customary international law. As standalone legal players on the global stage, they can also help shape the evolution of customary international law. To help solve global challenges, NGOs play an essential role in international lawmaking, judicial work, and law enforcement. More open, transparent, and equitable developments in international law and the international order have resulted from the combined efforts of governmental and non-governmental groups. As the global community and contemporary international law progress, IOs play a more critical role in making and enforcing international law. It will be easier to see how international law is increasingly shaping and bolstering the growth of IOs. There are certain limits to the author's analysis because it primarily aims to analyse the positive elements of IOs and how they impact international law. Some IOs' legal status is murky, the system isn't fully functional, and standards aren't in place or standardised. IOs and international law advancement cannot be fostered in such an environment. For IOs to effectively exercise their independence and impartiality, the international community must increasingly acknowledge and support their role in international law. As a result, the author intends to conduct more in-depth studies of the topic in future studies by concentrating on this facet of the challenges IOs encounter in advocating for the formation of international law. To conclude, the author maintains that all nations should encourage IO cooperation, help IOs assume a more prominent role in international law, and work together to advance global governance and international law in the direction of a community of human destiny.

8.6 International Court of Justice and Other Tribunals

After taking stock of where things stand concerning the mandatory authority of arbitral tribunals and international courts, Believing that abandoning the use of force in international relations must be accompanied by the maintenance of justice through submission to law through acceptance of international courts and arbitral tribunals, as well as a more widespread acceptance of compulsory jurisdiction, it

is concerning that the development of such jurisdiction is currently falling far short of what is needed for the satisfactory administration of international justice. Article 36, paragraph 2 of the Statute of the International Court of Justice, must continue to be an effective means of progressively more general acceptance of the Court's compulsory jurisdiction, as confidence is a key factor in the broader acceptance of international jurisdiction. Recalling the Resolutions concerning the principle of compulsory jurisdiction adopted by the Institute in 1877, 1904, 1921, 1936, 1937, 1954, 1956 and 1957, and enumerated in the Annex to the present Resolution, and in particular the voeu concerning the reservation in respect of matters of domestic jurisdiction adopted at Aix-en-Provence in 1954 and the Resolution concerning a model clause conferring compulsory jurisdiction on the International Court of Justice for inclusion in conventions adopted at Granada in 1956 ; In an international community the members of which have renounced recourse to force and undertaken by the Charter of the United Nations to settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered, recourse to the International Court of Justice or to another international court or arbitral tribunal constitutes a standard method of settlement of legal disputes as defined in Article 36, paragraph 2, of the Statute of the International Court of Justice. Therefore, taking a case to the ICJ or any other international court or arbitral tribunal will never be seen as hostile against the respondent state. 2. States' assurances that they will submit to the jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice must be genuine and not empty rhetoric. Expressly, states that agree to the Court's mandatory jurisdiction under Article 36, paragraph 2 of the Statute should precisely state their acceptance while respecting the Court's authority to resolve disputes related to its jurisdiction as outlined in the Statute. States should not be able to avoid being subject to international jurisdiction. Given the rulings and opinions in the Norwegian Loans and Interchange Cases and the risk that other states may use these reservations against them, states should withdraw their reservations regarding matters essentially within their domestic jurisdiction or matters that fall under their own government's purview. This is by Article 36, paragraph 2 of the Statute of the International Court of Justice. Declarations accepting the jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice by Article 36, paragraph 2, of the Statute of the Court should, in principle, remain valid for at least five years to preserve the efficacy of the engagements undertaken. Additionally, these declarations should state that they will automatically be renewed tacitly for a new period of at least five years every time they expire unless a denunciation notice is given at least twelve months before the current period's expiration. To ensure that general conventions are implemented, keeping and expanding the practice of adding a binding clause is a good idea. This clause can be based on the provisions of the 1956 Resolution that established a model clause that gave the International Court of Justice compulsory jurisdiction over conventions adopted by the Institute. It lets parties to the convention unilaterally take it to the International Court of Justice, another international court, or an arbitral tribunal if they can't

resolve their dispute internally. For the sake of global economic development, it would be ideal if all development agreements, whether between states or between states and international organisations or public corporations, included a provision granting mandatory jurisdiction over any dispute over the interpretation or implementation of the agreements to the International Court of Justice (to the extent permitted by the Court's statute) or another suitable international court or arbitral tribunal. While private parties may have access to international remedies, it would benefit certain economic and financial agreements between states to include a general provision for compulsory jurisdiction.

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. **What are the primary sources of international law?**
2. **Explain the relationship between international law and international organisations.**
3. **Discuss the challenges of enforcing international law.**
4. **How does international law contribute to global governance?**
5. **What are the prospects for developing and enforcing international law in the 21st century?**

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UNIT# 9

CASE STUDIES

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INTRODUCTION

In a rapidly changing world, regional organisations are increasingly called upon to address conflicts and crises that have far-reaching consequences beyond their borders. These organisations navigate the complexities of diplomacy, security, and humanitarian intervention through their collective efforts. This unit examines three pivotal case studies where regional bodies have played a significant role in responding to crises: the European Union's handling of the "European Refugee Crisis," ASEAN's stance on the South China Sea dispute, and the African Union's engagement in the Libyan Civil War. The “European Refugee Crisis” highlighted the EU’s struggle to coordinate a unified response to the arrival of millions of refugees, primarily from conflict zones in Syria, Iraq, and Afghanistan. The crisis exposed the EU's political, economic, and social divides, forcing member states to grapple with solidarity, sovereignty, and security questions.

Similarly, the South China Sea dispute represents a complex geopolitical challenge for ASEAN. The ongoing territorial claims by China and other regional powers have created tension within the bloc, compelling ASEAN to carefully navigate its relationships with member states and external actors while striving to uphold international law and regional stability. The African Union's involvement in the Libyan Civil War provides another lens through which to assess the role of regional organisations in conflict management. The collapse of the Libyan state following the NATO intervention in 2011 left a power vacuum that led to years of civil strife. The AU’s response focused on mediation, peacekeeping, and attempts to forge a political resolution in the face of continuing instability. Each case study offers a unique perspective on regional organisations' challenges and limitations in responding to complex crises. This unit will critically assess their actions, explore the underlying geopolitical dynamics, and evaluate the effectiveness of these responses in promoting peace, security, and regional stability.

OBJECTIVES:
• **Analyze the responses of the EU, ASEAN, and AU to the European Refugee Crisis, the South China Sea dispute, and the Libyan Civil War.**
• **Assess the effectiveness of regional cooperation and strategies employed in managing these crises.**
• **Explore the geopolitical dynamics influencing each regional organisation’s response.**
• **Identify key challenges in regional conflict management, including political unity and resource allocation.**
• **Provide comparative insights into the role of regional organisations in global peace and security.**

9.1 The EU's Response to the "European Refugee Crisis"

The influx of refugees into Europe in 2015 and 2016 was the greatest since WWII. Compared to 625,000 in 2014, over 1.2 million asylum applicants filed claims in the EU in each of these years (Eurostat 2017a). The increased applications triggered the subsequent crisis because they exposed the Common European Asylum System's (CEAS) ongoing dysfunctions and weaknesses. Therefore, describing the "European refugee crisis" as a crisis affecting the CEAS may be more accurate. The Dublin Rules and other EU regulations established this system with uniform distribution criteria and protection measures in 2012. Still, it has been painfully apparent that nothing has been done to put it into practice since late summer 2015. Since the Dublin system collapsed, border countries have sending asylum seekers to more conventional host nations in Northern and Western Europe. These countries are responsible for any asylum seeker entering the Schengen area through their territory. Some Member States were antagonistic to the notion of responsibility sharing, while states with low numbers of asylum claims were reluctant to implement such a system. Germany, Austria, and Sweden, among others, temporarily suspended the Schengen system and closed their external borders after initially accepting refugees. Although this step was by EU legislation, it stoked the fires of the crisis by casting doubt on freedom of movement, a cornerstone of European unity. Furthermore, the European Union's (EU) reputation as an advocate for human rights has been tarnished by the deaths of thousands of migrants at its external frontiers and by specific actions taken to restrict the entry of refugees to Europe. The issue has been highly politicised and has received substantial media attention; this, together with the emergence of populist parties, has put a lot of pressure on EU institutions and member states to find solutions. This crisis and its aftermath and the trauma in the Eurozone might severely harm the larger objective of EU integration. Given the nearly twenty years of EU collaboration on refugee policies, it is perplexing that there is no coordinated response during crises. This compels us to assess and question the level of integration in this policy area. To assess the Union's efficacy and the implications for future collaboration, this chapter summarises the background and progression of events that precipitated the crisis. It also analyses the actions the EU and its member states took in reaction to it.

9.1.1 The Development of the 'European Refugee Crisis'

Civil wars, prolonged conflicts, terrorist attacks, worsening internal security, and rising poverty have all contributed to the large-scale exodus of civilians from several nations in recent years. This phenomenon is prevalent in Southern Asia, Africa, and Middle Eastern regions. Because of this, a phenomenon known as

mixed-motive migration has emerged, in which people migrate for both political and economic reasons. However, according to Eurostat 2017b, the nations most affected by war—including Syria, Afghanistan, and Iraq—represented the biggest group of immigrants entering the European Union. Rising migration from Syria and its neighbouring countries, as well as the European Union, is mainly attributable to the ongoing civil conflict in the country, which has displaced more than 5 million people as of 2017 (UNHCR 2017). Due to a lack of fundamental and financial resources in the camps, a worsening of their security situation, and rising tensions within their populations, neighbouring states like Turkey, Jordan, and Lebanon, where a large refugee population fled, progressively struggled with and resisted the tasks of hosting and integration. Despite being temporarily housed in their region of origin, many people continued their journey towards Europe because the international community did not respond effectively to improve the situation in those camps and because they did not see a chance to be resettled to another country or use other legal entrance methods. Even in the years leading up to 2015, there were warning signs of an impending European crisis. The number of shipwrecks and fatalities caused by migrants crossing the Mediterranean has increased dramatically, paralleling the steady increase in migrant landings in Europe. While the Italian government took action by launching "Mare Nostrum" in 2013 to improve upon earlier search and rescue operations in the region, the EU operation "Triton," which was significantly smaller, succeeded it the following year. A significant spike beginning in the spring of 2015 encouraged Italy and Greece, the countries of initial entry, to forego complete migrant registration, allowing more people to sneak by and reach northern destinations. According to Menéndez (2016), the Dublin system "collapsed under its weight" due to its inherent ineffectiveness and the fact that it slowed down procedures by imposing new administrative costs. In August 2015, the German government unilaterally suspended the implementation of the Dublin regulation for Syrians. This allowed them to be admitted into the national asylum system regardless of their first country of entry since the routes were increasingly moving to the Western Balkans and Eastern Mediterranean (Hanewinkel 2015, 3; Pastore and Henry 2016, 53). There was also mounting evidence that asylum seekers in Hungary were systematically detained and subjected to degrading treatment.

9.1.2 The EU's Response to the Crisis

During the height of the crisis in May 2015, the European Commission unveiled its "European Agenda on Migration" in the space between two emergency sessions of the European Council (2015a). Efforts to address the Mediterranean issue and improve the administration of EU migration policy were detailed by the

Commission in that document. The European Commission proposed extensive priority steps in September 2015 after adopting the first "implementation package" on 27 May 2015 (European Commission 2015b). In anticipation of the 14 December 2017 European Council migration conference, the Commission (2017f) refilled its initial approach with a roadmap outlining specific goals and a timeline to attain a complete asylum policy after working on the agenda for 2.5 years. The initiatives suggested since May 2015 are detailed below, with an assessment of their current status and execution and, to a lesser degree, their suitability. The following study sorts measures according to the dimension they address, in line with the European Commission's (2017f, 2) observation that "only a comprehensive approach works," calling for integrating various international and external policy tools. Although the measures are organised into different categories, it is essential to remember that they are often interrelated and should be evaluated in context. These metrics are the centre of attention in the following analysis: (1) regions of origin and transit to receive trust funds,

(2) hotspots and emergency assistance for affected Member States,

(3) resettlement and other legal entry methods,

(4) the reform of the CEAS,

(5) border controls to combat smuggling and trafficking,

(6) return and readmission,

(7) the statement between the EU and Turkey,

(8) additional cooperation with third countries, and (9) hotspots and emergency assistance for Member States. Greece and Italy use what is referred to as the "hotspot approach." To back them up, it plans to send out Migration Management Support Teams to focus on five main areas: making sure migrants who aren't eligible for international protection can be effectively returned, making sure borders are well-managed, creating functional hotspots, and making sure there's enough capacity to receive them (European Commission 2015a; Statewatch 2015). European Union (EU) agencies Europol, Eurojust, Frontex, and the European Asylum Support Office (EASO) work with national and regional governments to carry out these missions. At the same time, other Member States must provide the necessary resources to back up these Migration Management Support Teams, including enough specialists and equipment. Asylum seekers' registration, identification, fingerprinting, debriefing, and return operations are all

areas where the agencies' responsibilities are meant to complement one another. If Greece and Italy wanted to take advantage of the relocation program, they had to register migrants correctly according to the Eurodac rule, which was made easier by the construction of Hotspot facilities and the temporary relocation decisions of 2015. The hotspots have brought more excellent order and significantly improved the registration and fingerprinting rates after construction and deployment were significantly delayed. However, the hotspot approach has received much criticism. Most of it has focused on two main points: (1) the fact that there isn't a precise legal act or framework governing it, which puts refugees' fundamental rights at risk (Menéndez 2016, 408), and (2) the fact that it hasn't worked to alleviate the pressure from Greece and Italy as planned, which could be because the Member States haven't hired enough specialists for the Support Teams. Overall, the proposed budget for the period 2021–2027 by the European Commission plans to increase funding for migration and border management by 75% compared to the previous long-term period (European Commission 2017f, 8). The institution also wants to establish an Asylum and Migration Fund to fortify the CEAS, legal migration and integration, fight irregular migration, and make return and readmission more effective.

Refugees can avoid perilous sea routes or exposure to smugglers through the resettlement process, which entails admitting displaced people in need of protection from outside the EU to the Member States. The heads of state and government agreed upon a two-year European resettlement plan involving 20,000 people before transferring about 21,000 Syrians under the EU Turkey Statement in March 2019 (Council of the EU 2019b). More than 24,000 refugees have been granted shelter in Europe through this program since March 2019 (European Commission 2019e). However, nine Member States were still missing from the total number of contributors as of September 2017. According to the Council of the EU 2015a, every Member State and a few associated governments had voluntarily committed to resettling a certain number of displaced persons through national and international programs. Substantial variations in selection criteria, procedure time, and number of spots among Member States have resulted from this process. As a result, the EU's executive branch put forth a permanent framework and a standard protocol for resettlement in July 2016.

Given the EU's various internal and external policy actions, the overall reaction to the crisis may have been more extensive and profound than widely believed. Reasonable internal solutions, especially a long-term reorganisation of responsibilities among Member States, have failed to materialise since the problem has polarised the European Union and its societies. Despite a temporary decrease in migratory flows, many persons escaping persecution and violent

conflict are purposefully denied access to protection due to the increased securitisation and externalisation of responsibilities under international law. The European Union is essentially embracing and even encouraging the abuse, neglect, and exploitation of refugees by disregarding its worldwide responsibility in this manner. When you consider that only a tiny percentage of those who need resettlement receive it, the claims that "fighting irregular migration" will help you maintain control and protect refugees from traffickers and smugglers don't hold much water. Cooperation with home nations to build opportunities and security is an OK first step, but imposing more conditions on third countries to get them to help with readmission and "border management" is just a stall tactic. In general, humanitarian concerns have been overshadowed by security-oriented initiatives. Like previous Finnish and Croatian Council Presidencies, the Commission is expected to present its new Pact for Asylum and Migration in the spring of 2020. Consequently, the EU appears unprepared for another influx of refugees and other migrants as long as there is no just internal compromise based on solidarity and international responsibility. Despite ongoing legislative efforts, it is doubtful that a Common European Asylum System will significantly harmonise aspects such as the qualification, reception, redistribution, and procedures for asylum seekers and refugees across the EU. This is due to the Member States' ongoing reluctance to transfer sovereignty in this area, which makes it hard to see this kind of harmonisation happening anytime soon.

9.2 ASEAN’s Response to the South China Sea Dispute

A substantial amount of theoretical literature has been produced to explain the evolution of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), a remarkable development in Asian international relations studies since the Cold War ended. Consequently, scholars have argued about whether ASEAN constitutes a security community (Acharya, 2009a, 2009b, 2012; Emmerson, 2012; Khoo, 2015), pondered theoretically the relative importance of material and non-material factors in regional affairs, and pondered whether the state or region level of analysis is more valid.

Three competing theories come to mind when asked to explain ASEAN's stance on the South China Sea following the Cold War's conclusion. Among these approaches, the constructivist one has highlighted ASEAN's capacity to protect the idea of regional autonomy from outside forces. The realist school represents an alternative viewpoint. According to this theory, the capacity of ASEAN to protect regional autonomy from outside intrusion is severely constrained. A third perspective, linked to critical theory, differs from realists in assessing ASEAN's autonomy and finds it constrained. In this case, the results depend on the state's

internal conflict between sociopolitical forces. Our investigation will reveal that there are caveats to each of these theories. In this essay, we present a different perspective grounded in realist theory, where the independence of ASEAN is heavily reliant on the alignment of interests between ASEAN and an outside party. With its strategic location and wealth of natural resources, the South China Sea—which spans both the Pacific and Indian oceans and occupies a significant portion of Southeast Asia's maritime domain—is economically and militarily significant to nations worldwide. Peace, stability, marine security, and prosperity are universally shared interests and legitimate concerns, so it is important to see the South China Sea's territorial and maritime jurisdiction conflicts through this lens, even though they directly affect the claimant states. Peace, stability, and marine security in the region are in jeopardy due to the ongoing developments. In light of the recent downward trend in unilateral aggressive acts and the increasing likelihood of miscalculations, the prospect of confrontations in the South China Sea has never been more worrisome. Since there is an intimate connection between a peaceful Southeast Asia and a flourishing ASEAN, maintaining peace and stability in the South China Sea is paramount to ASEAN. The ASEAN Community initiative would collapse without maritime and land-based peace, essential for further regional integration. The South China Sea is also a measure of ASEAN's centrality because of the profound effects on the legitimacy of ASEAN-led standards and procedures, which form the backbone of the regional security architecture. As the geopolitical scene in the Asia-Pacific region evolves, one facet of ASEAN Centrality is the organisation's ability to manage regional flashpoints, particularly the disputes over the South China Sea. As part of its unwavering commitment to maintaining calm in the South China Sea, ASEAN has consistently advocated for the peaceful resolution of territorial disputes through negotiation and consensus rather than the use of force or threats of force, in line with international law, particularly the 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS). In 2012, ASEAN established six principles on the South China Sea, which solidified its stance on the matter. Based on the most basic principles of international relations, the Six Point Principles of ASEAN outline the framework within which ASEAN will continue to engage with China on the South China Sea issue. These frameworks address two critical areas: (i) the execution of the DOC and (ii) the pursuit of an early COC. The DOC lays forth the three cornerstones of maritime security, stability, and peace in the South China Sea, including eliminating conflict through nonviolent means in conformity with international law, particularly the 1982 UNCLOS. The DOC also establishes rules of conduct for all parties involved in the South China Sea, including refraining from actions that could further escalate tensions and disrupt the peace. Environmental protection, marine navigation and communication safety, search and rescue operations, and the fight against transnational crime are some maritime

functional areas where the DOC facilitates ASEAN-China joint projects and activities. Nevertheless, because international law, notably the 1982 UNCLOS, only permits the pursuit of joint cooperative operations in clearly recognised contested areas, the extent to which they have been implemented is severely constrained. Identifying contested regions for collaboration is becoming increasingly difficult because of the vague and wide-ranging character of certain territorial claims in the South China Sea, particularly the Nine-Dash Line. Currently, China and ASEAN are looking at more concrete ways to work together on issues that both sides find important. A variety of pre-harvest actions have been planned and are now being put into action. These include a tabletop exercise on joint search and rescue, hotline communications in response to maritime emergencies, and search and rescue between ASEAN member states and China. While the DOC has been put into action, ASEAN has been actively consulting with China on the COC since 2013. ASEAN and China conducted two COC discussions involving senior officials and three consultations involving working groups last year. Two further consultation rounds are scheduled for next month in Malaysia, increasing the frequency of the meeting. But what counts is the quality of the conversations. Up to this point, the procedure has taken precedence over the content. Although the First List of similarities has been developed and the Second List is in the works, gathering similarities must not overshadow the importance of having open and productive conversations about areas where the two sides continue to have differing opinions. In light of the ongoing grave and perilous situation at sea, ASEAN has emphasised time and time again that the two parties must agree on a specific date to begin meaningful discussions over the features and structure of the COC. Meanwhile, the misalignment between the diplomatic track and real progress is becoming more pronounced in the COC consultations and the DOC implementation. Even though the South China Sea has had the DOC for 13 years and COC consultations for 3, the waters surrounding it have never been truly calm. This is particularly true in recent years when incidents posing threats to maritime security, commercial activities, freedom of navigation, and peace and stability have occurred. For example, China has been placing an oil rig in an area that does not comply with international law, particularly UNCLOS. It has been heavily reclaimed and built on the features it occupies, suggesting that these facilities could be utilised for military purposes. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) has responded collectively to these worrying developments, demonstrating our solidarity and the strength of our resolve to protect the South China Sea from potential threats to maritime safety. For the first time since 1995, the foreign ministers of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) issued a joint statement last year in response to China's oil rig placement. The statement conveyed the ASEAN's deep concern over the situation and urged all parties involved to refrain from acting in a way

that could jeopardise regional peace and stability. Following reports from affected Member States regarding destabilising activities, massive reclamation and construction on occupied features, and the possibility of military use of these features' facilities, ASEAN Leaders voiced grave concerns at the 26th ASEAN Summit in April that these actions had eroded trust and confidence and could threaten stability, security, and peace in the South China Sea. The enormous construction and land reclamation projects disturb the regional power balance, alter the status quo, and complicate disputes by altering the features' characteristics. At the same time, they are creating a fait accompli while the COC process is still ongoing without a clear timeline. If the diplomatic track cannot address the situation promptly and effectively, these actions could make the COC useless and violate the DOC's rules, particularly Article 5, which deals with self-restraint and maintaining the status quo. This highlights the critical need for ASEAN and China to intensify their pursuit of the complete and effective implementation of the DOC. As Article 5 of the DOC outlines, this implementation should encompass concrete steps to foster collaboration and confidence and strict adherence to the guiding principles and standards. To promote actions in compliance with the DOC and avoid destabilising acts in violation of the DOC, such implementation should be undertaken in more specific and operational terms, such as producing the do's and don'ts lists. In light of the abovementioned events, discussions on the COC must be expedited to reach a swift resolution. The COC should serve as a comprehensive and legally enforceable document that regulates actions and behaviours in the South China Sea. Its goals include incident prevention, management, and resolution, as well as the promotion of an atmosphere conducive to the final and comprehensive resolution of disputes in this region. Since the DOC and the COC are complementary processes, they should advance in tandem. The DOC should serve as a foundation for the COC, which should thereafter receive more political backing and formal recognition.

9.3 AU's Response to the Libyan Civil War

The African Union's response to the crisis in Libya has been widely perceived in two ways. The first is to write off the group's reaction as typical of African organisations' notoriously political and ineffective practices, which many have done.1 The second is to see the African Union's stance as a sad but unavoidable consequence of the regional organisations' failure to secure the continent adequately. However, there appear to be three main flaws in the current legal evaluations of the African Union's reaction to the Libyan situation. First, when it comes to the Libyan situation, most people who criticise the African Union fail to understand the significant legal obstacles that shaped the organisation's norms of

involvement. While it is true that the AU's Constitutive Act grants the organisation the authority to enforce its rules in the event of serious international crimes committed within its member states, other legal systems do step in when the primary matter at hand in the member state goes beyond the limitations of one legal system, as was the case in Libya. Assuming the Union is willing to pursue that option, as many opponents had urged, the legality of an AU military intervention rests on the interaction between the several applicable legal frameworks in such scenarios. Civil unrest in Libya was a problem that the African Union (AU) said was unanticipated by its legal frameworks at the time, which hindered the Union and showed how unprepared it was to deal with unexpected events. This article will contend that the intricate web of legal requirements for an African Union military intervention in Libya, as outlined in the AU Constitutive Act, the African Charter on Democracy, Election, and Governance (ACDEG), and the Protocol on the Amendments to the Constitutive Act of the African Union3, is more nuanced and intricate than what has been pointed out in analytical commentary. Secondly, the AU's stance on the international community's duty to safeguard civilians, emphasised by both the AU and the UN during the Libyan conflict, has not been adequately examined from a legal perspective. The international community must help territorial states fulfil their primary obligations according to the responsibility to protect (R2P) doctrine. However, military force should be reserved for extreme cases after more peaceful alternatives have been exhausted. To clarify the confusion about the African Union's role in the Libyan conflict, it is essential to examine whether its approach to the country meets these criteria.4 Thirdly, there is no consensus among key NATO members - France, the United Kingdom, and the United States - and the African Union (AU) regarding the goal of the international community's response to the Libyan crisis, according to an analysis of the UN, NATO, and the AU's involvement in the country. The core mandate of the 1973 UN Security Council Resolution, which reads as follows: "to take all necessary measures... to protect civilians..." could be interpreted in different ways. Still, it does not endorse regime change. Therefore, the question of whether the resolution envisions the use of military force to protect the no-fly zone remains unanswered. It is intriguing to wonder if the African Union would have received a more sympathetic (or objective) assessment of its role in Libya if it had refrained from authorising or unambiguously supporting military action against Gaddafi, given the stance of the aforementioned NATO states toward the resolution's mandate. It is not the writer's position - and it would be ridiculously simplistic to claim - that if NATO and the UN had provided better diplomatic backing to the AU during Gaddafi's rule, the Gaddafi regime would have either stopped threatening its people or accepted stepping down. In contrast, this article argues that interpretations that fail to consider the African Union's (AU) stance against or

support the use of force against the Gaddafi dictatorship in Libya fail to grasp the gist. Regarding the African Union's (AU) response to the Libyan crisis, the issues at hand went beyond the oversimplified and myopic assumptions that the strategy the AU adopted was mainly influenced by the desire of African leaders to shield Gaddafi and their lack of resources. Strict evaluations like this are unfair to the African Union's efforts in Libya and lead to biased, ill-advised conclusions.

9.4 The Legal Impediments to the African Union Military Intervention in Libya

The African Union has unique rights as a regional entity recognised by the United Nations Charter (Chapter VIII). No other entity except regional organisations can be "utilised" for regional enforcement activities by the Security Council. However, with the Council's authorisation, regional organisations can also take regional enforcement action independently. When serious international crimes are committed, the African Union has an extra reason to intervene in its member states, according to the AU Act. The right of the Union to intervene in a Member State in response to serious situations, such as war crimes, genocide, and crimes against humanity, is proclaimed in Article 4(h) by the Assembly. This section has been the subject of several doctrinal disputes; some have argued that it pertains only to peacekeeping operations, while others contend it applies to enforcement action.7 Legal analysis cannot support such an interpretation. This article grants the AU the "right" to intervene. The AU doesn't need to request authorisation from the relevant State Party to exercise this right. Therefore, the Union could only use the right in cases where it would be legally unable to intervene without it. At their meeting of the Peace and Security Council (PSC) on February 23, 2011, the African Union initially addressed the situation in Libya.10 The Libyan government's reaction to the uprising had resulted in casualties, although none of the crimes listed in Article 4(h) had been perpetrated at that moment. Although it is tragic when lives are lost in any conflict or civil disturbance, it would be unprecedented to consider every death as a genocide, a crime against humanity, or even a war crime. This effort does not intend to analyse the components necessary to classify these crimes as international crimes. Although the African Union did not implement the regime, it seemed to ponder doing so when it took up the Libyan issue. This would be by the Lomé Declaration on the Unconstitutional Change of Government (Lomé Declaration on UCG).11 The AU Member States are prohibited from engaging in unconstitutional government changes, which is the most fundamental principle stated in the declaration. It is still unclear what aspect of the African Union's reaction to the situation in Libya its previous chairperson described as "creative," even if one disregards the organisation's clumsy efforts. Such a lofty description befits neither the African Union's (AU)

calling for a peaceful end to the conflict in the face of a grave emergency nor its denunciation of the Gaddafi regime's suppression of a popular demand for democracy. Assumed by African states under several international and African human rights treaties, brutal repressions of the African people by their governments are egregious breaches of human rights duties. Not only must the AU criticise such events, but it must also take steps to prevent and remedy them; this is its constitutional duty. The African Union (AU) is likewise obligated, by its several legislative systems, to mediate peaceful settlements of disputes among its member states. Criticising a repressive Member State and introducing discussions to end a crisis as "creative" is, thus, the African Union's (AU) cynical approach to protecting human rights in Africa.

The African Union's (AU) potential legal justification for a military intervention in Libya based on a "serious threat to legitimate order" needs some initial clarification. Even though it was updated and added "serious to a legitimate order" as a trigger for Article 4(h) in the AU Act, the Protocol has not yet come into force. Although the criterion could not have been applied to the Libyan situation in a legally sound manner, the AU may have invoked it in Libya using the same reasoning it used when applying the UCG before the principle's enshrinement in the Charter. Applying the "serious threat to legitimate order" standard to the Libyan situation would have been in line with the African Union's long-standing practice of using principles on which member states have reached a consensus, even in the absence of a codifying treaty, which it first established more than 20 years ago. Although any target state may have pursued a legal challenge, no Member State of the organisation has ever contested the validity of such principles in its previous applications. In Libya, the AU would have followed a long-standing practice that has become so common among its member states that it has become an unchangeable custom if it had applied the revised provision of Article 4(h) of its Act

Self-Assessment Questions:
1. What challenges did the EU face during the 2015 migration crisis?
2. Analyze the effectiveness of the EU's policy responses to the crisis.
3. Discuss the impact of the crisis on European integration.
4. What are the broader implications of the crisis for global migration governance?
5. How can the EU improve its response to future migration challenges?

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