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Preparation Paper

Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ)

**“Combating Organized Crime Networks:
Drug Trafficking and Trafficking in Small Arms and Light Weapons”**

Introduction of the VIMUN 2006 CCPCJ-Team:

Welcome to the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ). We, the Chairteam of this year's VIMUN CCPCJ simulation, are greatly looking forward to meeting you in August and to spending some interesting and exciting days with you. We would like to introduce ourselves to you briefly:

Chairperson: Noële Crossley

Hello, my name is Noële Crossley, I am 22 years of age, I am Austrian/British and I was born and raised in Vienna. I am currently studying political science at the University of Vienna and I am working on my thesis which deals with the United Nations. I participated in the VIMUN 2004 as a delegate of France in the UNIDO Committee and I was appointed Best Speaker of that committee. I had a great time at that conference and so I decided to take part in the Harvard National Model United Nations 2005 and the Geneva International Model United Nations 2005. After all of these great experiences I wanted to try something new and so I am chairing the CCPCJ at the VIMUN 2006 – I am looking forward to it very much and I am sure we will have a fabulous time!

Co-Chairperson: Moritz Haller

My name is Moritz Haller, 24 years old and born in Vienna. I will be co-chair of the CCPCJ committee dealing with the international problems concerning terrorism, drugs and trafficking, proliferation of small arms and organized crime. At this time I am enrolled in a Masters degree program in the fields of political science, history, and law at the University of Vienna. It is a great challenge for us all to search for new solutions to unresolved, very difficult and complicated problems. For young international delegates, the Model United Nations can be a testing ground for future challenges, a wonderful opportunity to meet and work with students from all over the world on a professional level and most important of all, the chance of learning how to build a positive future through the process of peaceful negotiation. *No foreign policy - no matter how ingenious - has any chance of success if it is born in the minds of a few and carried in the hearts of none.* (Henry Kissinger)

Usher: Bo Korbelius

Hi! My name is Bo Korbelius and I am twenty years old. When I came from China I was just ten. In 2005 I finished the grammar school in Vienna. Now I study political science and sinology at the Vienna University. This is the first time that I will be participating at such an exciting event as the VIMUN, where I am Usher in the CCPCJ. I am very interested in current international affairs. So I often discuss social topics with people and I like hearing different points of views. Especially I like exchanging with people from other countries. The world is becoming smaller and smaller. In this respect I would like to meet you all at the VIMUN 2006: Let us contribute to a better understanding among people!

Honorable Delegates, Honorable Observers!

As a delegate preparing for the debate you should not limit your knowledge to the brief outline we will be providing below. This preparation paper is meant to provide you with some basic information about the subject under discussion, and to guide you through the course of carrying out your research. We would like to encourage you not to limit your research to using books, periodicals, and websites, but also to gain some first hand information by contacting any institutions relevant to the topic and your position.

During committee sessions you will be expected to represent the official position of your country concerning the topic under discussion. In case your country's position is not entirely clear in all areas of the issue, you will be required to improvise by deducing a logical position for your country from the country's past decisions in international affairs.

Having said this, we are looking forward to hearing your diverse contributions to the debate and we are confident that your preparations will lead to a fruitful conference – and possibly even a promising resolution on the topic. We are sure that this year's simulation of the CCPCJ will be an interesting and enriching experience for every participant. Once again, you are warmly welcomed to the CCPCJ.

Yours sincerely,

Noële Crossley

Moritz Haller

Bo Korbelius

Background Information on the CCPCJ

The Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice is part of the United Nations Organization – it forms a subsidiary body of the Economic and Social Council. It is one of ten functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council. It was founded in 1992 and replaced the former Committee on Crime Prevention and Control, which had existed since 1971, but had had a more technical scope.

The CCPCJ is based at the United Nations Headquarters in Vienna and goes into session once a year. The Commission is comprised of 40 Member States, which rotate yearly. Its primary obligation is to initiate international action to combat national and international crime, such as terrorism, trafficking of human beings, money laundering, corruption, and the like. Furthermore, the Commission works to improve the efficiency and fairness of the criminal justice system, both on national and international levels. Specific issues are chosen from this broad range of topics to be discussed at the Commission's annual meetings. At these meetings draft resolutions are drawn up for the Economic and Social Council.

These resolutions eventually direct the work of the Vienna-based Centre for International Crime Prevention (CICP). The CICP employs about 15 professional staff members. It is a part of the United Nations Organization for Drugs and Crime (UNODC), which has its headquarters in Vienna and about 500 staff members worldwide. The UNODC belongs to the Secretariat of the United Nations.

The CICP deals with crime prevention, criminal justice, as well as criminal law reform. The centre cooperates with a network of international and regional institutions as well as with Member States in order to strengthen the rule of law, to promote stable and viable criminal justice systems, as well as to combat the growing threat of trans-national organized crime. It helps countries to formulate, ratify, and implement international law conventions and protocols. More than 100 countries have relied on its criminal justice standards and norms for the formulation of national legislation and policies in matters of crime prevention and criminal justice, leading to a common basis in the fight against international crime.

An Introduction to the Topic

Whereas drugs are produced mainly in the South (South America and Southeast Asia) and consumed mainly in the North (United States and Western Europe), it is the opposite with small arms, which are produced in the North and are mostly employed in conflict areas in the developing world, particularly in Africa. Whereas the trading of drugs has been banned (due to many initiatives from Western countries), the same does not apply to the trade in small arms, on which the international community has laid restrictions in various agreements, but which has not been prohibited in general. This makes the proliferation of small arms more difficult to combat compared to the illicit trading in drugs. Small arms perpetuate conflicts and make them worse, and many countries of the South are suffering from conflicts. This is why it is in their interest to achieve further restrictions in the trading of small arms and light weapons.

Drug Trafficking

A Definition of Drugs and Drug Trafficking

There are four general types of drugs: sedative-hypnotics (for example mandrax), stimulants (for example cocaine), hallucinogens (for example LSD), and cannabis. The production and trade in narcotics is one of the world's largest and most lucrative industries. According to estimates, the annual value of the global trade in illegal drugs is expected to be approximately 400 billion US dollars. The market for these substances is located mainly in economically developed countries. However, drug dependence in economically less developed countries is increasing, and since drug consumption by large groups of the population can have a serious impact on the local economy this is especially bitter for these countries.

How Drug Trafficking Works

The marketing of drugs conforms to the laws of supply and demand: as demand in economically developed countries increases, production in economically less developed countries expands. Due to a high rate of drug consumption in economically developed countries (the main markets being the United States of America and countries of the European Union) these countries have been burdened with many of the

negative side effects of the demand side of this phenomenon, including an increase in crime and pressure on health and welfare resources. The main producers are Afghanistan (producing heroin) and Colombia (producing mainly cocaine, although the production of heroin is on the rise). The main organized drug cartels deal with the most compact (and therefore most easy to smuggle) and profitable substances, like cocaine, heroin, MDMA (ecstasy), and methamphetamine.

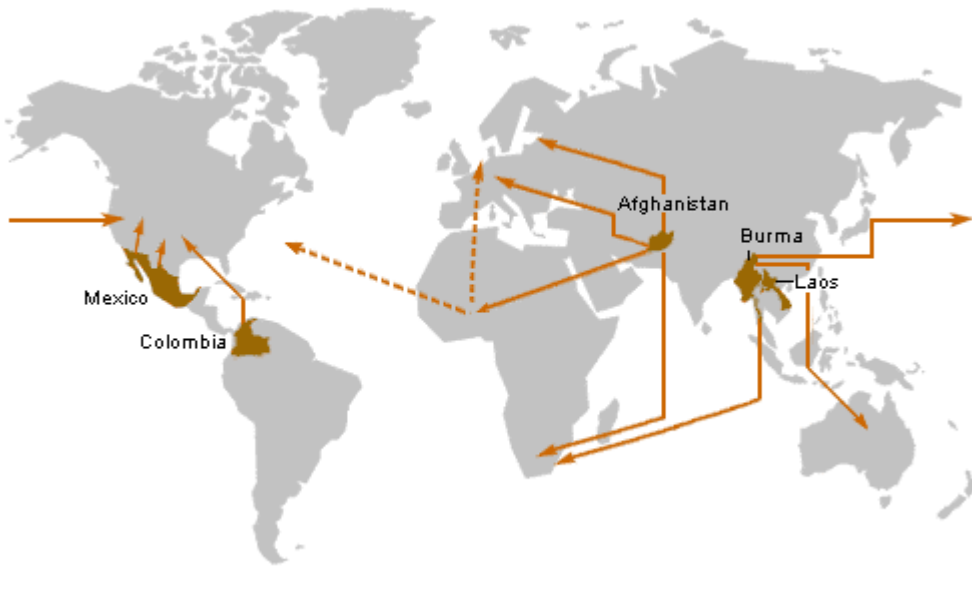
There are two methods of crossing borders with illegal drugs. 1) Border checks can be avoided by using small ships or aircrafts, or by taking hidden overland routes. Another possibility is 2) for the smuggling person to submit to a border check but to hide the drugs in their vehicle between other merchandise, in luggage, in underwear, or even inside the body. A "mule" is someone who takes the drugs across the border. This can be a lower-echelon criminal or an unknowing person in whose luggage or vehicle drugs have been placed.

There are two main types of distribution: distribution through a hierarchy or through the so-called hub-and-spoke method. In a hierarchical arrangement the manufacturer has his own men transport, store, and distribute the drugs. In the hub-and-spoke arrangement the manufacturer uses local gangs or other criminal organizations to transport, store, and distribute the drugs.

Major Drug Production Areas and Delivery Routes

The production of heroin is confined to three regions: the "Golden Crescent" of Asia (Pakistan, Afghanistan, Iran), the "Golden Triangle" of Southeast Asia (Thailand, Burma, Laos), and Mexico. The production of cocaine is spread over two regions: the coca bush is grown in the Andes region of Bolivia and Peru and processed into refined cocaine in Colombia. Marijuana, the third of the three primary drug types, is produced in different regions of the world, but mostly in Mexico, Columbia, Jamaica, and South Africa.

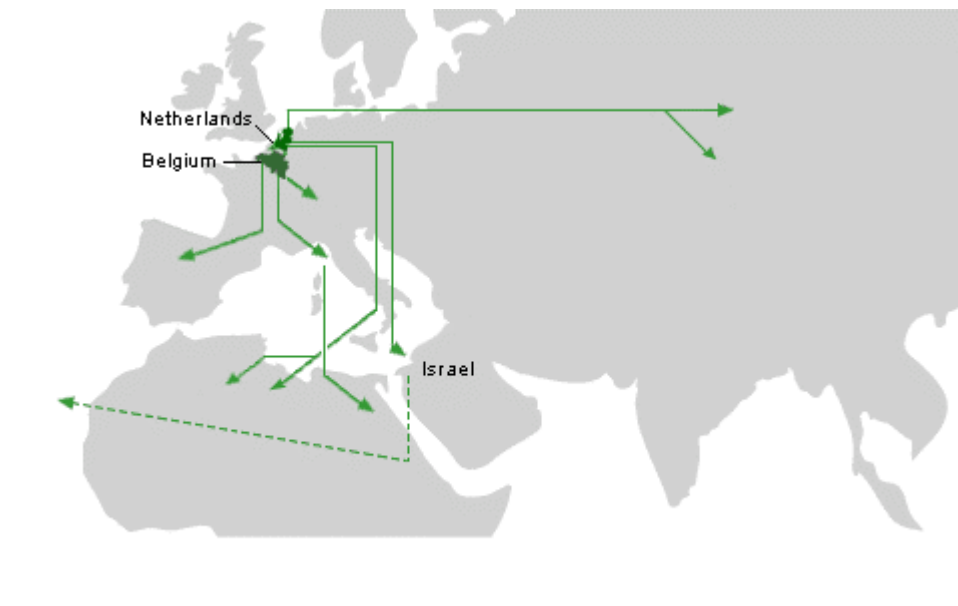
Routes for the trafficking of heroin:



Routes for the trafficking of cocaine:



Routes for the trafficking of XTC:



Trafficking in Small Arms and Light Weapons

A Definition of Small Arms and Light Weapons

The term “small arms and light weapons” refers to weapons that can be carried by a single person (small arms) or operated by a small group of people (light weapons). The term is sometimes shortened to “SALW”, or simply “small arms”, even though this is less accurate. The term “small arms” covers a wide range of weapons: pistols, machine guns, other firearms, grenades, portable anti-tank systems, and mortars. The term “light weapons” refers to larger weapons such as medium and heavy machine guns, small mortars, recoilless rifles, or rocket launchers. In any case, SALW are not devices such as large mortars, howitzers, cannons, vehicles, or other pieces of large equipment. For further information, please refer to the UN’s Report of the Panel of Government Experts on Small Arms.

A Historical Approach to the Trafficking in Small Arms and Light Weapons

In order to understand how networks of organized crime and the trafficking of small arms and light weapons work and what can be done to fight them, it is necessary to consider how conflicts have changed since the end of the Cold War. Today there are no longer two blocs threatening each other with complete destruction. Today's conflicts are intra-state conflicts, often ethnic or religious in nature, and fought with small arms and light weapons. Many weapons from the Cold War have been made obsolete by new supplies and are now being sold legally or illegally. Sometimes they are traded for other commodities like drugs. These weapons supply warring parties today and, in certain conflicts, up to 80 percent of the casualties are attributable to the use of small arms and light weapons.

Although the types of conflict have changed, the trafficking businesses built during the Cold War have remained active since then. Today these pipelines for the supply of small arms are not used to provide satellites of the United States or the Soviet Union with weapons, but they arm sanctioned governments or rebel groups, and the brokers involved in this trade have begun to diversify their trade to include drugs and other items. In addition, there are more than 300 businesses in over 50 countries which are involved in either the production or the export of small arms. The weapons produced and exported legally may also end up on the black market.

Today, the trafficking of small arms is a trans-national phenomenon, making it an international problem. The illicit trading of small arms is a business which has become global like many others. To give an example: a flight originating in Belgium may deliver weapons from former Soviet Union countries to a conflict area such as Congo or Colombia.

The line between the legal and the illegal trading of arms is often blurred, due to the lack of clear international criteria and controls. There are approximately 639 million small arms in circulation around the world. The total value of the global small arms market is estimated to be approximately 4 billion USD annually. The annual value of the global black market for small arms is estimated to be around 1 billion USD.

How Trafficking in Small Arms and Light Weapons Works

By making inaccurate declarations on cargo documents – false bills of loading, or incomplete manifests – traffickers succeed in shipping small arms across borders. A dealer may for example declare to be carrying agricultural machinery, when in fact he is transferring his merchandise. Another possibility to trick customs is to state a legitimate destination and deliver the items to another place instead (fake end-use certificates). Dealers also operate with false identities and under dummy firms. Those involved in the shipping of the items state that they are shipping companies and as such they are not liable if the goods they are transporting or the terms under which they are transporting them are not legal. Another possibility is to transport the weapons along routes passing countries which are known to look the other way in exchange for money or a share of the weapons.

What makes it even more difficult to monitor the shipping of goods is that the freighting industry is growing more and more complex. Regulation is becoming more difficult as the number of international mergers and cooperation is rising. New forms of business are also more difficult to control, such as leasing, chartering, franchising, and the offshore registration of companies, fleets, and crews.

The question arises of when a transfer of small arms is legal and when it is not. As a general rule one can say that a transfer is legal when it adheres to international law as well as the laws of exporting and importing states. In an illicit transfer international or national laws, or both, are broken. This distinction seems clear theoretically, but in practice there is room for uncertainty. In some instances there are legal exceptions which are exploited, in other cases transfers may be legal in that they do not break international or national laws on the regulation of small arms transfers, but they may intervene with humanitarian or human rights laws.

When small arms are moved from legal to illicit markets however, this is termed an act of "diversion". Those involved in the distribution of the weapons may deliberately become involved in a diversion, or they may become involved without being aware of it. In most cases, however, knowing actors affiliated with a government make a diversion possible. There are nine ways in which small arms can be diverted:

- 1) States, companies, or individuals can violate embargoes or sanctions.
- 2) Corrupt government officials accept bribes and provide licences, or customs officials may look the other way for cash.

- 3) The management of weapons arsenals may provide insufficient security and this can lead to theft and looting.
- 4) During periods of instability certain groups may raid government arsenals.
- 5) Small arms that are lost from government or military stocks are rarely recovered and make their way into illicit trafficking networks.
- 6) Soldiers may sell or give away their weapons in cases where there are surplus weapons in insecure stockpiles and when they receive inadequate payment or are sympathetic to a certain group.
- 7) Small arms are stolen from private owners and are traded illegally.
- 8) In places without restrictions as to quantity, a private person may buy a given amount of small arms and resell them on the black market.
- 9) Although "craft production", individuals or groups making their own weapons for sale on the black market, contribute only a small fraction of the world's illicit arms trade, it can have a serious impact on the stability of a region.

Once small arms have entered the black market they are difficult to track and recover. On the black market they flow into a network of illegal commodities: drugs, jewels, art, or even human beings, amongst others. Although the illicit trade of small arms is often the core business of a network, most dealers are not specialized in dealing with weapons only – they are active in various underground activities. Networks of organized crime do not stay within their national borders; they operate internationally with individual members located in different countries.

The Threat Emanating from Small Arms and Light Weapons

Small arms can be weapons of mass destruction, as they kill thousands of people around the world each year. This is more than the casualty count from conventional weapons like tanks, bomber jets, or warships. Small arms are relatively cheap, widely available, easily portable, easily concealable, very durable, lethal, and so simple to operate that a child as young as eight years of age can carry and use them. For these reasons small arms are particularly susceptible to trafficking.

Due to their durability, small arms are often used over and over again in different conflict areas. Small arms are sometimes used to force families and entire villages to flee their homes. Even if the small arms remaining after a conflict are not reused for military purposes they may make it more difficult to enforce the law and this may disrupt humanitarian aid and economic development, discourage foreign investment, and generally reduce the prospects of economic development in post-conflict zones. The proliferation of small arms also causes lawlessness, which in turn provides a basis for terrorist activities.

The Link between Drug Trafficking and Trafficking in Small Arms

In principle, the two phenomena are independent of each other and their existence must not correlate in any way. However, it has been found that in times of instability and crisis, when a weak government has no control over the proceedings of a state, these two phenomena may become connected to each other, causing arms and drugs to be passed along the same routes, but in opposite directions. The same operators, middlemen and carriers are involved. The revenues from the sale of drugs are invested into the purchase of arms, ammunition, and other military equipment. This explains why 95% of the opium produced globally comes from countries suffering from a conflict. Six ways in which drug and small arms trafficking may become interlinked have been identified:

- 1) Criminal organizations, small smuggling operations that are based in a community as well as large, well-organized groups, are often involved in both the illicit trading of weapons and the trading of illegal drugs. They deal in both commodities in order to diversify their trade – in some instances these criminal groups also control the production of the products.
- 2) Peasants who feel threatened due to a political crisis may begin to cultivate drug-related crops in order to be able to acquire weapons by buying them with the profit made in this way or by trading what they have produced.
- 3) Guerrilla or rebel movements in need of financial resources may cultivate or trade in drugs to acquire weapons. There are various examples: in Peru, the guerrilla movement provides protection for peasant farmers in exchange for coca. In the Afghanistan War of the 1980s Afghan rebels produced heroin on a large scale in order to be able to finance their arms purchases.
- 4) It has been claimed that certain states are involved in the production and trafficking of drugs in order to finance the acquisition of military equipment. There are speculations that Pakistan's military arsenal was financed from sales revenues derived from heroin trafficking organized by Pakistani

military intelligence. In Panama, in exchange for millions of dollars from drug barons, the leader of the military dictatorship, Noriega, permitted Panama's airport to be used for smuggling operations and the banking system to be used for the laundering of illicit profits.

- 5) Drug lords, due to their occupation, lead a dangerous life. They use weapons to secure themselves and their business from assaults by rival gangs or security forces. They also use arms to facilitate access to resources and markets. In Colombia for instance, criminal organizations have even established private armies, equipped with sophisticated weapons.
- 6) Finally, individual drug addicts may resort to violence in order to be able to finance their drug consumption, and therefore acquire a weapon. This is particularly common in urban settings.

Drug Trafficking and Trafficking in Small Arms by Region

Central and South America

About 90 percent of the cocaine consumed in the United States and a vast part of cocaine consumed in European countries come from Colombia. Colombia is also an important supplier of heroin to the U.S. market. Terrorist organizations control the coca and poppy production in large areas of Colombia, and largely finance themselves through the production, manufacture and marketing of coca and opium products. One of the most powerful narco-terrorist groups, the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC), receives about \$300 million annually from drugs.

Together with the United States, the Government of Colombia has developed a strategy to reduce the production of illegal drugs. This is known as part of Plan Colombia. There is a two-track approach to counter-narcotics in Plan Colombia. A voluntary eradication program is offered to all farmers who grow coca on small individual plots. If they agree to eradicate their coca crop, the government will provide them with recompensation. At the same time the Anti-Drug Police has been spraying large industrial coca plantations and destroying cocaine laboratories. Military protection is required because both guerrillas and paramilitaries fire from the ground at spraying aircrafts and hinder the police from entering certain areas. The spraying campaign has been moderately successful so far but the coca production is shifting to Indian reservations or deep into the rainforest.

According to the United Nations Drug Control Project (UNDCP), the implementation of Plan Colombia is already increasing the price of the raw material used to make cocaine. Given the eradication of crops in Colombia, the logical move for narco-traffickers is to go across the border. Fear is growing in Peru that the country could regain its title of being the world's largest cocaine supplier. The national drug control commission (DEVIDA) coordinates drug control activities in demand of reduction and alternative development and also plans illicit crop eradication and other law enforcement measures. Traditional Peruvian coca growers complain that coca eradication projects condemn them to poverty. The mountainous soil is often not suited to substitutes like coffee or bananas and the infrastructure required does not exist to get them to the market or there is simply no demand.

Southern Africa

In Southern Africa drugs and small arms are spreading quickly. Most of the weapons in circulation are those left over from conflicts in Mozambique and Angola, but stolen or lost weapons are also traded. The weapons in circulation have made the situation in this area worse by increasing the crime rate as well as encouraging armed violence. Concerning the illicit drug trade, Southern Africa is a large producer of cannabis and a major transshipment point in the international drugs trade. Both of these phenomena have a negative impact on the development of the region as they threaten the consolidation of democracy and security there.

The region of Southern Africa is a main producer of marijuana. The leading suppliers are South Africa, Malawi, and Zambia. In South Africa mandrax is also produced. It is either immediately manufactured in tablet form in the Durban area or shipped to Maputo, Mozambique for manufacture. Because of their poorly policed borders, ports, and airports countries in this region have become major transshipment points in the trafficking of heroin and cocaine. The most prominent entrance points for traffickers from the Middle East and Southeast Asia are Tanzania and Mozambique. It has also been found that drug syndicates based in Nigeria ship large amounts of cocaine to Southern Africa.

Small arms have a longer life span than drugs, since they can be reused over and over again. This is why a South-South dynamic has developed, where drugs produced in developing countries are traded for small arms originating from a conflict area of the same or another developing country. Small arms are transported along the eastern coastline of Africa, a shipping route which has remained in use since the days of the Cold War. These weapons perpetuate conflicts in the area. There are national regulations in the region to license small arms, but these regulations are ineffective and can be circumvented easily.

Central, Southern and Southeastern Asia

The UNODC has a regional drug control portfolio in Central Asia. This is one of its largest, totalling around 40 million USD per year, and it is continuing to expand. As the Central Asia Regional Information and Coordination Centre (CARICC) reported at the International Conference on Counter Narcotics at the second meeting of the Central and South Asia Counter Narcotics Security Working Group (CSACNSWG) from 15–17 May 2006, drug addiction continues to increase in Central Asian countries. Among these countries Kazakhstan has the highest rate of cannabis seizures. The six nations Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia and Tajikistan support joint projects, which endeavour to block illegal drug smuggling from Afghanistan to Europe and Africa. Afghanistan has the highest drug consumption in the world, and neighbouring countries are trying to reduce the smuggling of drugs at common borders.

In Kyrgyzstan, the link between drug and arms trafficking is particularly prominent: heroin is produced in Afghanistan (Afghanistan is the world's largest supplier of heroin) and on the route to Russia and Western Russia, some of these drugs are exchanged for weapons in Kyrgyzstan. Local businessmen acquire arms in order to protect themselves from looting, violence, and illegal property seizure. The weapons they acquire are weapons that have been diverted from security forces or military arsenals which are not being administered properly.

A major drug producing area in Asia is the "Golden Triangle" of Burma, Thailand, and Laos. India is the largest producer of acetic anhydride, the main substance required in the production of heroin. This is why this region is now sometimes termed the "Golden Hexagon". Revolutionary groups in the north-eastern region of India are trained by Burmese rebel groups in exchange for protection and support of their drug production and trafficking activities. Some of the rebel groups in India have now begun trafficking drugs themselves, and today this business plays an important role in the financing of these groups.

Organizations Dealing with Drug Trafficking and Trafficking in Small Arms

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) fights against illicit drugs and international crime, and is the United Nations' leading programme on terrorism. UNODC works to strengthen international action against drug production, and to reduce trafficking and drug-related crime. UNODC works to establish adequate frameworks for drug control through implementation of international drug control conventions. UNODC also works on sustainable alternatives for farmers and others involved in drug production. The yearly *World Drug Report* provides a comprehensive international overview of illicit drug trends. UNODC assists with training in a number of countries to better cope with organized crime, money laundering and corruption. UNODC also works closely with NGO's and other civil society groups across the world.

The United Nations Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) aims to strengthen international action against the production and trafficking of drugs. The UNDCP is part of UNODC.

The Organization of American States (OAS) is involved in two efforts to tackle the illicit trading of arms in the western hemisphere. The Inter-American Drug Abuse Control Commission (CICAD) provides assistance to OAS Member States on legal development, institution building, and information exchange. As part of its legal development programme, CICAD is drafting model regulations to standardize and periodically revise laws, regulations, administrative procedures and the means of applying them in order to eliminate the illicit manufacturing and trafficking in small arms, ammunition, explosives and other related material. In a second and more recent initiative, the OAS drafted a convention against the illicit manufacturing and trafficking of firearms. The treaty urges Member States to adopt legal or other measures necessary to "prevent, combat or eradicate" the illicit production and transfer of firearms and ammunition. The Inter-American Convention Against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Ammunition, Explosives, and Other Related Materials led to a consensus about what kinds of arms are to be considered illegal for international trade, and set rules for the notification of arms shipments for both sending and receiving countries, including an

annual assessment of efforts by each state party to the convention on progress in curtailing illicit arms trafficking.

The U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) enforces the controlled substances laws and regulations of the United States. The DEA also works with foreign officials to collect and analyze drug intelligence information, and cooperates with foreign governments in programmes designed to reduce the availability of illicit drugs on the U.S. market through methods such as crop eradication.

EUROPOL was founded in 1992 and started limited operations in 1994 in the form of the **Europol Drugs Unit (EDU)**. Since 2002, the mandate of Europol has been extended to deal with all serious forms of international crime. Illicit drug trafficking is still one of the main issues. Europol facilitates the exchange of information, providing operational analysis, generating strategic reports and crime analysis and tries to harmonize investigative techniques within the Member States.

Past Initiatives to Combat Drug Trafficking and the Trafficking of Small Arms

Resolutions of the General Assembly:

A/RES/55/25 - UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

A/RES/55/64 - Strengthening of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme, in particular its technical cooperation capacity

A/RES/55/65 - International cooperation against the world drug problem

A/RES/55/255 - Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Their Parts and Components and Ammunition, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

A/RES/58/141 - International Cooperation Against the World Drug Problem

A/RES/59/163 - International Cooperation Against the World Drug Problem

Resolutions of the ECOSOC:

E/RES/2005/24 - Providing support to Afghanistan with a view to ensuring effective implementation of its Counter-Narcotic Implementation Plan

E/RES/2005/27 - International assistance to states affected by the transit of illicit drugs

Document of the CCPCJ:

E/CN.15/2005/3 - Report of the Secretary-General on the implementation of technical assistance projects in Africa by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

Resolution adopted by the General Assembly of the OAS:

AG/RES. 1445 (XXVII-O/97) - Inter-American Convention Against the Illicit Production of and Trafficking in Firearms, Ammunition, Explosives, and Other Related Materials

Points to Address in a Resolution

- How can Member States improve their national legislation against networks of organized crime and how can different national legislations be standardized?
- How could international cooperation in the transfer of information to combat organized crime be improved? How can the international community improve its coordination to combat networks of organized crime?
- What can be done to further enhance the effectiveness of measures against the smuggling and trafficking of illegal drugs?
- What would international eligibility requirements for the export of weapons include and how could these be implemented?
- How could regulations for small arms transfers be improved in order to make them less ambiguous and to ensure that they can not be circumvented?
- How can the Member States be convinced of the importance of stricter national legislation to increase control over weapons given to civilian or military individuals?
- How may states be convinced of the importance of adhering to international regulations and embargoes to protect conflict areas from negative influence? Should there be a punishment for violators? Would an arms embargo monitoring unit be a possible solution?
- How could an international system to mark and trace the production and flow of weapons be instituted? How can different marking systems be standardized?
- How could an international clearinghouse for the recovering and registering of illicit weapons be established?
- How could the impunity of arms brokers be ended? What would a set of common international laws to ensure the prosecution of arms brokers need to include?
- At the moment there are only local, ad-hoc programmes to ensure the security of national stockpiles. How could regular, international programmes be introduced?
- As a means to guard against diversion, there might be implemented a scheme to destruct surplus or obsolete weapons in national stockpiles. What would a programme to assist countries willing to destroy their surplus need to include? How could a system of financial and technical assistance for this cause be drawn up?
- How can organized crime networks be dismantled as a whole, rather than combating illicit trade by commodity?

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<http://www.dea.gov/agency/mission.htm>

<http://www.europol.eu.int/index.asp?page=facts>

<http://www.devida.gob.pe/index.asp>

<http://ciponline.org/colombia/aidtable.htm>

<http://www.colombiaemb.org/opencms/opencms/plancolombia/>

Some Sources for Further Research

The Homepage of the UNITED NATIONS

The Homepage of the ECOSOC

The Homepage of the UNODC

The Homepage of the CICP

The Homepage of INTERPOL

Resolutions adopted by the General Assembly can be accessed at <http://www.un.org/documents/resga.htm>

Resolutions adopted by the Economic and Social Council can be accessed at <http://www.un.org/esa/documents/ecosocmainres.htm>