

6 The International Labour Organization¹

The International Labour Organization (ILO) was founded in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles and became the first specialized agency of the UN in 1946. Today, there are 19 specialized agencies in the UN system. Many of these agencies make substantial and important contributions to the UN human rights system. While not all of these agencies are mentioned in this volume, several reasons exist for according the ILO a more extended treatment. The ILO is not only one of the oldest continuously existing international organizations, but since its founding it has operated according to a rights-based approach. Even though the ILO only explicitly conceptualized its work as *human rights* promotion in 1998, the ILO has set detailed, widely accepted standards on workers' rights and created an unusual highly participatory system of enforcement since its inception. The standard-setting work of the ILO has long been related to the UN human rights system. Many of the rights enshrined in the early ILO conventions provided language for the ICESCR and ICCPR, and the later conventions have likewise been elaborated upon through recent ILO conventions.

Growing concern over the impact of globalization and debates on trade and labor have drawn greater attention to the ILO in recent years. Protests over the launching of a Millennium round of trade talks of the World Trade Organization in 1999 drew significant media attention to a debate that had been brewing for over a century, but which had become especially heated throughout the previous decade. The debate concerned whether or not to more closely regulate the social dimensions of the exponential growth in trade, that is whether to link labor standards to trade. By the end of the decade, the task of harmonizing labor standards was placed squarely in the hands of the ILO. To this end, the ILO has established universal minimum labor standards and created elaborate enforcement mechanisms to protect the human rights of workers. Nonetheless, compliance has largely been left to private voluntary

standard-setting by corporations themselves and monitoring by international non-governmental organizations (NGOs). This has prompted many to call for still greater institutional enforcement mechanisms. Although the ILO remains a relevant and appropriate institution for that task, its compliance mechanisms are significantly underutilized. Highlighting the human rights mechanisms of the ILO encourages their use and, in the very least, invites continued study as to why their potential remains untapped. This chapter's consideration of human rights in the ILO system begins with a general introduction to the ILO and moves onto a discussion of its role in putting a "human face" on globalization; it ends with an illustration of that role through the campaign for the elimination of child labor.

Organizational structure and operations

The unique tripartite structure of the ILO establishes a highly participatory approach to rights enforcement that addresses the rights and interests of governments, employers and workers. Membership reached 177 countries in 2004.² Although the ILO is an intergovernmental organization, workers and employers participate directly in formulating ILO policy and in decision-making through the General Conference and Governing Body, with support from the International Labour Office.

The *General Conference*, the membership body of the ILO, is composed of two representatives of Member States, and one representative each of employers and employees of those Member States. Each of these representatives votes separately at the annual International Labour Conference held in June in Geneva. This annual meeting provides a world forum for discussions of social and labor problems. Between conferences, the work of the ILO is guided by the Governing Body.

The *Governing Body*, the executive council of the ILO, determines ILO policy, including the program and budget. Its decisions are then forwarded to the General Conference for adoption. Additionally, the Governing Body elects the Director-General. Composed of 56 titular members and 66 deputy members, the Governing Body retains the tripartite structure of the ILO. Ten permanent members of the body come from states of "chief industrial importance."³ The other half of the titular members is constituted equally of workers and employers' representatives. Other governmental representatives are elected every three years at the conference with consideration of geographical representation. Committees representing certain industries assist the Governing Body, which also occasionally hosts regional meetings to discuss specific matters.

The *International Labour Office* functions as the Secretariat of the ILO. Headed by a Director-General, who is elected to five-year renewable terms, the Secretariat undertakes the research and technical cooperation of the ILO. Administration and management of the ILO are decentralized throughout offices in 40 countries.⁴

NGOs also play an important role in the work of the ILO. The Constitution of the ILO explicitly provides for consultative relations with "recognized non-governmental international organizations, including international organizations of employers, workers, agriculturalists and cooperatives." This constitutional provision has been put into effect with the establishment of three different categories of international non-governmental organizations. First, international NGOs with an important interest in a wide range of the ILO's activities may be granted either general or regional consultative status (at present a total of 8 and 16 organizations, respectively) and be permitted to participate in all ILO meetings. A second category, the Special List of Non-Governmental International Organizations, includes international NGOs other than employers' and workers' organizations that demonstrate an interest in the ILO's program of meetings and activities. There are currently more than 150 NGOs on the Special List. In a third category, the ILO Governing Body extends invitations to international NGOs that meet certain established criteria to attend different ILO meetings in which they have demonstrated a particular interest. During the 2004 Conference, the majority of NGO participants represented workers' unions of certain regions or occupations, but a few major human rights groups, such as Amnesty International, were present. The criteria for NGO participation are explained in Box 6.1.

Box 6.1: Criteria for NGOs Participation⁵

To be represented at a session of the International Labour Conference and other ILO meetings, non-governmental international organizations require an invitation, and they must satisfy the criteria and adhere to the procedure set out below.

The NGO requesting an invitation should:

- demonstrate the international nature of its composition and activities, and in this connection it should be represented or have affiliates in a considerable number of countries;

- have aims and objectives in harmony with the spirit, aims and principles of the ILO's Constitution and the Declaration of Philadelphia;
- have formally expressed an interest—clearly defined and supported by its statutes and by explicit reference to its own activities—in at least one of the items on the agenda of the conference session to which it requests to be invited, and these details should be supplied with the request for an invitation; and
- have made its request in accordance with the procedure set out in the Standing Orders of the Conference.

Requests by NGOs for invitations to ILO meetings other than the International Labour Conference are considered in light of the relevant rules and Standing Orders governing those meetings. Requests must be approved by the ILO's Governing Body. NGOs wishing to be observers at ILO meetings should, therefore, submit their requests to the Director-General no later than one month before the session of the Governing Body preceding the meeting for which a request is being made.

ILO headquarters are in Geneva and regional offices are in Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia and the Pacific, Europe, and the Arab states. Also, liaison and field offices and multidisciplinary advisory teams work in more than 40 countries. The ILO employs approximately 1,900 officials from over 110 different countries at its Geneva headquarters and in its offices worldwide. Additionally, more than 600 experts undertake missions around the world as part of the technical cooperation program. Staff costs for the ILO's 2004–2005 budget totaled US\$303.9 million.⁶

The ILO's strategic budget for 2004–2005 was proposed at US\$448 million; this reflected an increase of US\$17 million from 2003.⁷ ILO technical cooperation expenditures (US\$93.7 million in 1998) are financed from extra-budgetary resources and from the ILO regular budget for specific types of technical assistance. The ILO relies heavily on contributions from multilateral and bilateral donors, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and trust fund arrangements. Multilateral and bilateral donors—especially the United States, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, Spain and Japan—provided as much as 85 percent of the technical cooperation funds in 1995, and consistently contribute over half of the funds. In cases of technical cooperation, UNDP is the ILO's single largest donor, contributing 35 percent of UNDP costs. The UNDP decided in resolution 98/23 to seek an annual budget of US\$1.1 billion for the ILO, providing predictability and planning time for the efforts.⁸

The participation of all members is crucial for passing resolutions or new conventions within the Conference, which is also referred to as the International Parliament of Labour. The process for establishing a convention provides a good illustration of this cooperation. First, worker or employer representatives submit a topic for placement on the meeting agenda. The International Labour Office—the Secretariat of the organization—then circulates the proposed "law and practice report" among government representatives. Government representatives respond to a questionnaire attached to the report. The officials are mandated (and in the case of States Party to Convention No. 144, legally obliged) to consult with workers and employers' representatives before replying. However, employers and workers may also submit comments regarding the reports directly to the Office. Finally, two-thirds of the Conference must vote to adopt a resolution before it passes, therefore requiring broad consensus among all actors. Nevertheless, it is important to recognize that if governments and employers establish consensus, their 75 percent membership suffices to override any unified workers' opposition. Therefore, although the organization was established with the intent of organizing workers, their goals remain subject to the veto of governments and employer organizations. The failure to establish stricter core labor standards as trade increased exponentially between developed and developing countries after the Cold War illustrates precisely this point. The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions adopted a unanimous resolution in 1996 calling for a floor of labor rights standards and a joint World Trade Organization/International Labour Organization Advisory Body to oversee a social clause.⁹ Nevertheless, the debate about whether or not to link trade and labor standards divided government and employer representatives in the ILO, and as the World Trade Organization consistently tabled the issue, the oversight proposal for the joint advisory board remained unresolved.

Linking trade and labor

Moral obligation and economic incentives to link trade and labor have fueled international debate for over a century, and galvanized the establishment of the ILO.¹⁰ The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development "catalogued sixty-six instances of linkage or attempted linkage on trade and labour standards" between 1919 and 1991.¹¹ Institutional attempts to govern free trade began with the establishment of the International Trade Organization (ITO) by the Havana Agreement after the Second World War. The ITO was to have formal relations with the ILO, but the former organization failed to take shape. Since then, states have repeatedly illustrated a willingness to comply with minimum standards in global trade and social conferences, but attempts to set stricter standards within the ILO in the early 1990s failed. A lack of consensus among industrialized countries and debates as to the economic effects of such standards led to weaker ILO provisions.

In part due to the lack of institutional linkages between trade and labor, the debate continued. In the 1973–1979 round of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), parties considered labor standards but tabled the discussion for the actual establishment of the trade organization. Final negotiations for the birth of the World Trade Organization (WTO) ran concurrent with final negotiations for regional free trade zones in the largest trading zones in the world—the European Union (EU) and North America. In those regional agreements, the link between trade and labor was clearly understood and regulated. After much debate as to whether or not to include labor and environmental rights in the main North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) accord, the US, Mexico and Canada signed a side accord. Similarly, a social chapter formed part of the EU regional trade agreement, and human rights were incorporated into the EU's Lomé agreement with Caribbean, African, and Pacific countries. Nonetheless, as the Uruguay round of GATT neared completion to establish the WTO, countries debated whether or not to include a social clause. The social clause would have allowed for sanctions or other penalties on countries for inadequate labor standards or other social negligence.

The social clause debate

The WTO was created in 1995 to govern trade worldwide. Nations granted Most Favored Nation status by the WTO enjoy privileges for cheaper and therefore presumably increased trade. Many developing

countries seeking increased foreign investment sought to preclude social clauses from the WTO agreement, while many developed nations supported it. Economic arguments against the social clause were based on *laissez-faire* trade principles, claiming a social clause would allow for protectionism. For other opponents of a social clause, cultural relativism was an obstacle to consensus on labor standards. On the other hand, moral arguments bolstered claims that floor standards are necessary to prevent a "race to the bottom" and economic exploitation.¹² The economic arguments against the social clause prevailed; the WTO was established without a social clause and at its first meeting, officially deferred the issue to the ILO.

Although some scholars have lamented this unwillingness to consider the social aspects of trade within the WTO, others contend that the participation of workers in the ILO makes it more suitable for topics concerning their protection.¹³ States had already turned to the ILO to address the human impact of globalization. The preamble to the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work states:

Whereas economic growth is essential but not sufficient to ensure equity, social progress and the eradication of poverty, confirming the need for the ILO to promote strong social policies, justice and democratic institutions,¹⁴

Nevertheless, governments not only prevented social restrictions on trade, but likewise blunted potential ILO standards. ILO Declaration paragraph 5 reflects this struggle as it declares that the ILO

[s]tresses that labour standards should not be used for protectionist trade purposes, and that nothing in this Declaration and its follow-up shall be invoked or otherwise used for such purposes; in addition, the comparative advantage of any country should in no way be called into question by this Declaration and its follow-up.¹⁵

After this, the debate shifted from whether or not to include a social clause to one of how to enforce ILO and other existing labor standards.¹⁶ Effectively, that shift pulled social responsibility out of the domain of trade ministers in governments and placed it back in social and labor departments, thereby weakening the link to corporations. The ILO responded soon after to the global demand for more vigilance over globalization.

The ILO's Decent Work Agenda, announced in 1998, provided an

apt response to governments' call for core labor standards. The agenda had been debated for over a decade. Whereas industrialized countries had often argued for minimum standards, developing countries had argued that the standards unfairly stripped them of their comparative advantage and improperly privileged industrialized governments. The lack of consensus led to consideration of alternatives. Already in 1994, the ILO formed a Working Party on the Social Dimensions of the Liberalization of Trade, which soon began considering incentives for private sector compliance. The Decent Work Agenda formed in 1998 embraced these rights-based labor standards explicitly, while they were already enshrined in core ILO conventions that the trade ministers had agreed upon at the Singapore round, the 1998 agenda did signify a forward step for the mainstreaming of human rights. The development of standard-setting in the ILO involves all members, as the process described below illustrates.

Standard-setting

The primary way in which the ILO has worked to improve labor conditions and advance human rights in the workplace has been through the setting of international standards, based on the general consensus of its members. These standards are embodied most prominently in ILO conventions, but also standard-setting occurs through the promulgation of ILO declarations and recommendations, as well as through the issuance of voluntary codes of conduct (see Box 6.2).¹⁷

Box 6.2: ILO standard-setting mechanisms

- Conventions are adopted by the General Conference after a two-year procedure requiring the participation of governments and social partners. They are subject to ratification by Member States, and are binding once states ratify them.
- Recommendations are established in the International Labour Conference to provide guidelines for national practice. They are not binding. ILO recommendations are akin to General Comments expressed by Committees of the various UN treaty bodies. Recommendations and

conventions together constitute what are known as the "labor standards."

- Resolutions passed in the International Labour Conference guide the policy and future activities of the ILO. They formally express the will or opinion of the conference on a specific subject.

Rather than focus on universal ratification, as has been the trend in UN human rights mechanisms, the ILO adopted a different approach designed to draw in large numbers of diverse states and workers' associations, and to encourage the diffusion of new labor standards. Most ILO conventions are "optional" in the sense that members can choose to adopt them. However, once adopted, conventions are binding. Moreover, beginning in 1998, eight principles are said to be so fundamental that all members by virtue of membership in the organization are bound to respect and enforce them. This major change, made formal through the 1998 Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work ("the 1998 Declaration"), "establish[es] a universal minimum level below which poverty and lack of employment and educational opportunities should not push either workers or enterprises."¹⁸

Formal agreement over clarifying which ILO conventions provided for human rights standards occurred through discussion at the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995. The World Summit identified six ILO conventions as essential to ensuring human rights in the workplace: Nos. 29, 87, 98, 100, 105 and 111. The Governing Body of the ILO subsequently confirmed the addition of the ILO Convention on Minimum Age, No. 138 (1973), in recognition of the rights of children. The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights now includes these conventions on the list of "International Human Rights Instruments." Each of the instruments establishes standards for the four main principles of the ILO: freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining; the elimination of forced and compulsory labor; the abolition of child labor; and the elimination of discrimination in the workplace. Taken as a whole, these principles can be summed up as the means to achieve decent work. The eight core ILO conventions are as follows:¹⁹

before the labor camps of the Second World War began functioning. The convention defines forced or compulsory labor in Article 2 as "all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself voluntarily," and excludes military conscription, civic responsibility, and work required as punishment.

Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, No. 87 (1948). Associational rights are broadly protected under this convention. Specifically, it provides for the right to join an association that is independent of governmental interference and which cannot be dissolved by governmental administration. It also establishes the right to form confederations or federations.

The Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, No. 98 (1949). The convention provides for protection from "anti-union" discrimination, specifically regarding hiring and firing practices. It prohibits interference of workers and employers in each others' unions and requires the establishment of national machinery for collective agreements.

Abolition of Forced Labor Convention, No. 105 (1957). In prohibiting forced labor, the Forced Labor Convention references previous conventions against slavery, the 1949 Convention on the Protection of Wages, and the UDHR in its preamble. The articles of the convention require States Parties to suppress and abolish forced labor within their territory.

Equal Remuneration Convention, No. 100 (1951). The Equal Remuneration Convention provides for equal wages for men and women. Article 2 suggests remedies for that assurance.

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, No. 111 (1958). The Discrimination Convention defines discrimination in Article 1 as "any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, color, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin, which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity or treatment in employment or occupation"; it further stipulates inclusion of laws against discrimination in form or effect. The convention requires positive efforts on behalf of the state to ensure and promote equality, and requires that state remedies exist in the event that an individual is targeted for reasons of security of the state.

Minimum Age Convention, No. 138 (1973). The Minimum Age Convention establishes a general convention that incorporates 10 other conventions specific to certain sectors, some of which are

1 *Forced Labour Convention, No. 29 (1930).* The oldest of the core conventions, the Forced Labour Convention entered into force

consequently invalidated by the present convention. The convention requires establishment of a national minimum age for work. It grants significant flexibility for underdeveloped countries, offering them a lower set of standards for work in nearly every instance.

8 *Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour, No. 182 (1999).*

The Child Labour Convention defines the worst forms of child labor to include forced labor, such as forced recruitment of child soldiers; prostitution; drug trafficking; and employment hazardous to the development of the child. Enforcement of the convention involves monitoring, prevention, enforcement, and punishment of crimes.

Follow-up

As a follow-up to the 1998 Declaration, the ILO has focused not on obtaining the consent of Member States, but rather on furthering the principles established in each of the conventions. The follow-up to the 1998 Declaration thus is based upon technical assistance, a global report, and annual reports of non-ratifying countries to the eight core conventions. The ILO seeks to ensure that all countries comply with the principles of the core conventions, whether they are States Parties or not. This reporting procedure focuses on transparency, which it rewards with technical assistance. Despite these efforts, so far the Declaration has not had the impact on international corporate behavior hoped for by many of those present at its creation.²⁰

In addition to focusing on developing the principles established in each of the core conventions, the ILO follow-up to the 1998 Declaration includes an annual focus on one of the four themes of the Declaration: freedom of association, eradication of child labor, eradication of forced labor, and non-discrimination. The annual theme is reflected in a Global Report. The 2004 Global Report was entitled *Organizing for Social Justice*. Secretary-General Somavia introduced the report by expressing freedom of association as crucial to human dignity and emphasizing the respect of other labor rights and civil liberties.²¹ Moreover, the report clearly aims to further freedom of association by *inter alia* highlighting studies that show it actually furthers national productivity in a section called "A rights-based approach to dynamic labour markets."²² Somavia writes, "[C]ore standards have a positive effect on economic development by ensuring that the benefits of growth are shared, and promoting productivity, adjustment measures and industrial peace."²³

The new agenda follows the traditionally preferred *modus operandi* of the organization²⁴ by offering technical assistance and relying on

moral persuasion to ensure that states comply with standards. The several enforcement mechanisms already available within the ILO have traditionally been underused, but could feasibly be used to establish greater jurisprudence protecting laborers.

Enforcement mechanisms

ILO implementation of labor standards includes monitoring compliance with conventions through regular state reports and three complaint mechanisms. In addition, technical assistance is used both to reward good behavior and to address problem areas. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

State reports

In a manner similar to the reporting requirement under UN human rights treaties, governments are obligated to prepare reports on the application of ratified conventions, the core conventions (regardless of ratification status) and of action taken on recommendations. Although initially the ILO required annual reports, a 1994 amendment required reporting every second year on the core and priority conventions, and every fifth year on the other conventions.

The Committee of Experts was established in 1926 to review state reports and present an annual report. Comprised of independent jurists, all proceedings of the Committee are confidential, although UN representatives are permitted entry into their process. The Committee writes observations on the application of conventions and recommendations. Unlike the observations of UN Committees, ILO observations are generally used in more serious or long-standing cases of failure to fulfill obligations. Each year, the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations examines more than 2,700 reports and makes 1,500 comments, which are then taken up by a standing committee of the conference. The observations are published annually in the report of the Committee of Experts to the Governing Body of the annual International Labour Conference, and form the basis for discussions of individual cases in the Conference Committee on the Application of Standards.

Complaints

Complaints may be brought to the ILO through three mechanisms: complaints, freedom of association special procedures, and representations.

In addition, *ad hoc* mechanisms are provided at the request of the Governing Body to investigate specific labor concerns, but as of July 2004 they had never been used.

Under the ILO's Article 26 Complaint Procedure, a Member State (and, importantly, not an individual) may bring a complaint if it feels another Member State has failed to comply with the ILO Constitution. A commission is then formed and, if a violation is found, a report is issued to the offending state recommending that it conform its practices to the ILO Constitution and relevant provisions. Theoretically, when an offending Member State refuses to comply, the complaining Member State may then refer the matter to the International Court of Justice, although this has never happened. In its 93 years, only six complaints brought under Article 26 have resulted in the commission issuing a report.

The second mechanism for lodging complaints is through the ILO's Fact-Finding and Conciliation Commission on Freedom of Association (FFCC) and Committee on Freedom of Association (CFA). The FFCC operates in a similar manner to the Article 26 provisions, but only receives complaints relating to freedom of association violations which have been referred to it by the ILO's Governing Body or the UN, not by individuals. Complaints based on associational claims may be brought to the CFA regardless of whether the offending Member State has ratified the specific convention allegedly violated. If a violation is found, a recommendation is issued to the Member State outlining what measures should be taken to conform its practices to the standards promulgated by the ILO. Although the CFA may "follow up" to see if recommendations have been enacted (and this only when the underlying convention has been ratified by the offending Member State), the ILO lacks any enforcement mechanism to enforce compliance. In its first 44 years of existence, the CFA reviewed more than 1,800 cases.²⁵

The third complaint mechanism is known as "representations." Under this procedure, the ILO Constitution also allows for representations to be filed by an industrial association of employers or workers alleging failure of a state to observe any element of a convention to which they are party. The ILO determines what constitutes an "industrial association," which may not necessarily have a specific affiliation to the state in question.

These complaint mechanisms have great potential to raise labor standards, yet they remain underutilized. In practice, less formal methods of compliance have been developed due largely to pressure and monitoring by advocacy NGOs, especially in the area of trade and labor.

Private compliance efforts

Private initiatives aimed at implementing the ILO's core standards have proliferated along with NGO growth in general. Many criticize the ILO's approach and take it upon themselves to monitor corporations' behavior. Governments' *laissez-faire* stances throughout the 1990s left corporations independently responsible for regulating their behavior and social responsibility standards. Some have undertaken voluntary codes, often after increased consumer and media attention provoked them to do so. Human rights NGOs exposed such labor rights abuses as child labor, 18-hour work days, and improper safeguarding against chemical hazards. The consequent consumer awareness, especially in industrialized countries, led to stronger calls for greater social consciousness among corporations. Consumer boycotts of products for moral reasons, as was the case with child labor, pushed corporations to at least change their images and attitudes. NGOs remain on the front lines of ensuring that corporate claims of responsibility are realized.

Voluntary codes of conduct by corporations

When the ILO first took up the issue of the social clause in 1994, the Working Party quickly began to consider private codes. Perhaps one of the best-known and most widely used codes is the Global Compact (GC). It provides a good example of a voluntary code, illustrating both the potential and the limitations of such means of enforcement.

In 1999, Secretary-General Kofi Annan stepped up the UN's complementary commitment to standard-setting by proposing a Global Compact of Corporate Responsibility. The Global Compact is an inter-organizational network designed to facilitate learning and dialog among social actors and UN organizations on social aspects of globalization: human rights, the environment, anti-corruption, and labor rights. The latter are defined by the ILO's four core principles: freedom of association and collective bargaining, elimination of child labor, non-discrimination, and elimination of forced labor. The Compact aims to build a network in which transnational corporations enter into a dialog to determine best practices in social responsibility. Supporters of the GC argue that it could help to establish standards upon which a compliance mechanism might be based in the future.

The dialog includes a tripartite structure of NGOs, transnational corporations, and intergovernmental organizations (notably, it does not include governments). NGO human rights activists are led by Amnesty International and Oxfam; the Corporate Citizenship unit of

Warwick University facilitates the dialog. Relevant intergovernmental organizations, including UNHCR and the ILO, guide the standards that the corporations seek to implement. Finally, the corporations themselves—which included nearly 2,000 in 2004—agree to three commitments: (1) to post publicly, at least once annually, concrete efforts they have made towards implementing the 10 principles; (2) to publicize the Global Compact and therefore its principles; and (3) to partner with the UN in assisting these efforts elsewhere, especially in developing countries.²⁶

Critisms of the Global Compact are similar to those of other voluntary codes. The agreement clearly aims to increase social responsibility of corporations and prevent them from advertising one type of social concern in one place and then implementing another practice in other countries. Like other similar organizations, the Global Compact partners with NGOs, who often undertake monitoring activities. Critics argue that this organization structure sidelines governments, essentially accepting and further embedding the triumph of *laissez-faire* economics.

Critics question the motives of participating corporations, noting the marketing benefits of participation. Human rights advocates participate in the Compact with caution, noting that many of the companies party to it campaigned against the development of the UN norms. One critic stated, "The UN's positive image is vulnerable to being sullied by corporate criminals ... while companies get a chance to 'blowwash' their image by wrapping themselves in the flag of the United Nations."²⁷ Often, that wrapping may cover otherwise tarnished images.

Second, where negative practices are uncovered, voluntary standards fail to provide mechanisms for remedy. Nonetheless, ILO compliance mechanisms offer a unique yet underutilized forum in which trade union representatives could establish jurisprudence and contribute to the establishment of norms.

Corporations' design of their own codes of conduct also may fail to live up to international standards. In fact, ILO surveys of corporate codes of conduct have found "not infrequently" that the codes are unknown or unavailable in production countries; that only about one-third of such codes surveyed mention international standards; and that often the goals of the codes are self-defined.²⁸ Such instances highlight the role of international legal standards developed by the ILO.

Finally, economists debate the effectiveness of voluntary mechanisms. Not only do alternatives such as labeling only work when and if consumers are willing to pay more—which is not always the case—but also they are not likely to be effective within countries where production and consumption occur within the same borders. For these

reasons, governmental action is essential in setting and enforcing standards. As one scholar writes, labor standards

encourage cooperative work organization and higher investment in worker training. The guarantee of worker rights and a voice for trade unions promotes a more equitable sharing of the gains from trade and growth, thereby ensuring economic and social stability. It has to be remembered that there are costs to inequality and that, if left to grow unconstrained, inequality will spark off industrial and social unrest.²⁹

Therefore, while the Global Compact provides one example of an innovative voluntary code of conduct, blessed by the UN, its omission of governmental cooperation may fail to ensure compliance with ILO core standards.

Although the Global Compact and voluntary codes function without governmental supervision, governments have undertaken to provide technical assistance as a symbol of their moral concern for standards and to discourage the perception of intentional repression of growth. The ILO's technical assistance program has grown with concerns over labor standards.

Technical assistance

Since the 1950s, the ILO has offered technical assistance to help implement its agenda; in the year 2000, it employed nearly 600 experts to carry out this mission. Over US\$130 million has been contributed in 10 years for assistance in over 140 countries and territories. Assistance is now guided by the four principles established in the 1998 Declaration. Efforts have focused on such matters as monitoring of factories, vocational training and vocational rehabilitation; employment policy; labor administration; labor law and industrial relations; working conditions; management development; cooperatives; social security; and labor statistics and occupational safety and health. Special attention has also been given to gender issues and to the elimination of child labor.

Case study on child labor

According to ILO estimates, over 250 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 work; 120 million of them work full-time.³⁰ More children work in South-east Asia than anywhere else, but the rate of child labor is

greatest in Africa—at 29 percent.³¹ The ILO estimates that over 8.4 million children worldwide suffer “unconditional” forms of labor: forced or bonded labor, sexual exploitation, trafficking, or recruitment as child soldiers.³² Many of the causes of these egregious abuses of children, including poverty, conflict, and migration, as well as more recent phenomena that facilitate the abuse of children, are linked to such “unconditional” forms of child labor. For example, the internet now facilitates child pornography and commercial sexual exploitation of children such as sexual tourism; cheaper transportation increases availability of human trafficking; and lighter weapons enable child soldiers to perform as exceptional soldiers with their speed, agility, and fearlessness. These are some of the worst forms of child labor. Although the 1973 Minimum Age Convention sought to restrain the use of child labor, a new convention seeks to eliminate those worst forms.

New standards: Convention 182

As the international aspects of child labor have increased alongside globalization, states have increased their cooperation and dangerous forms of child labor have gained increasing prevalence on the agenda of international organizations, with unprecedented speed and intensity. After governments agreed officially to establish the elimination of child labor as a fundamental principle of the ILO in 1995, they established a crime against a child as a universal crime at the Stockholm Conference in 1996.³³ By 1999, they had promulgated a new treaty: Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor. Non-governmental organizations can submit information to the ILO on child labor alone, or preferably, through a trade union, when a country has ratified Convention 182 (or the earlier Convention 138).

Convention 182 has enjoyed the most rapid ratification in the history of the ILO and provoked an increase in ratifications of Convention 138; by May 2004, 150 countries had ratified Convention 182 and 134 countries had ratified Convention 138. Yet effective eradication of such prevalent and often covert human rights abuses has proven elusive. The following section reviews one specific ILO project on child labor which was prompted by or otherwise related to Convention 182.

Infocus Programme on the Progressive Elimination of Child Labour

The International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) was “stepped up” after the elimination of child labor became

one of the fundamental principles in 1998 and the new convention was promulgated. It was transformed into the Infocus Programme on the Progressive Elimination of Child Labour, and set children in the worst forms of child labor as the focus. IPEC’s mandate is “to work towards the progressive elimination of child labor by strengthening national capacities to address child labor problems, and by creating a worldwide movement to combat it.”³⁴ Established with funding from Germany in 1992, the IPEC program has grown from six countries in 1992 to over 82 beneficiary countries. Strategic budget resources for child labor were US\$10 million for 2003–2005; extra-budgetary resources, on the other hand, were almost nine times that, totaling nearly US\$100 million.³⁵ Funding in 2002 alone nearly tripled that of 1999,³⁶ suggesting a significant increase in political will since the promulgation of Convention 182. The proposed budget for 2004–2005 aimed to provide direct services to 300,000 children involved in child labor, and indirectly service 1 million youth, an indication of IPEC efforts to eventually phase out direct service provision.³⁷

IPEC activities to implement its goals have grown from policy assistance and direct services to a broader and more integrated framework. Included among those activities are research, policy analysis, program evaluation and labor monitoring, and direct services. IPEC direct services include prevention of entry into labor, withdrawal from hazardous labor, alternative work provision, and work condition improvements. Children benefiting from IPEC programs are not only removed from hazardous employment, but their futures are supported through programs for school registration and support for their families. Monitoring systems are an example of ILO direct assistance. Throughout the world and in sectors ranging from agriculture to small mines to factories, the ILO has developed partnerships with communities and employers themselves to create child labor monitoring systems. The systems maintain a database, develop necessary legal standards, and coordinate with labor inspectorates to prevent re-entry into hazardous work and to identify children in those conditions.³⁸

A review of donor support for IPEC programs suggests that governments are increasingly taking ownership of the projects: whereas during the initial stages of IPEC, NGOs implemented half of the programs, they now provide slightly more than one-quarter. Conversely, governments now implement one-third of programs and fund 37 percent of them.³⁹ Perhaps research showing a strong negative correlation between child labor laws and labor rates⁴⁰ has persuaded governments of the positive economic effects of eliminating child labor.

IPEC reorganized its structure in 2001 to approach more broadly the

phenomenon of child labor. It divided its work into four focal areas: vulnerable groups, hazardous work, education, and economic development. The broader focus established through this reorganization is part of an aim to mainstream child labor eradication throughout ILO programs. That explains in part why IPEC is increasingly the venue for ILO technical assistance, having delivered nearly 50 percent of it in 2002. (Another explanation is that funding for IPEC has increased significantly, from the local to the international level.) One IPEC strategy used to implement the mainstreaming of child labor elimination has been promotion of the link between child labor and development. One of several new networks, the Development Policy Network (DPnet) helps establish the link between development and child labor by helping include child labor issues in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs).⁴¹ Another new strategy provides Child Labor Specialists in Bangkok, New Delhi, Abidjan, and Lima.⁴² Time-Bound Programs provide close guidance for governments' fulfillment of these efforts and their obligation established in Convention 182.

Time-Bound Programs illustrate the technical cooperation work of the ILO. In 2001, Tanzania, El Salvador and Nepal became the first three countries to launch a Time-Bound Program (TBP). These programs provide technical assistance for implementation of Convention 182, which calls upon states to "prevent the engagement of children in the worst forms of child labour (WFCL), provide assistance for the withdrawal of children from the WFCL and for their rehabilitation and social integration, and to ensure access to free basic education for all children removed from such activities."⁴³ Created and led by national governments, TBPs focus on national capacity-building. Additionally, they implement the goal of the DPnet by requiring that child labor be included in national development plans. By the end of 2003, 14 countries had developed programs, 11 of which had secured funding.⁴⁴

The effects of IPEC in India have been enormous. A US\$40 million project in India is IPEC's largest—funded equally by the Indian government and the US Department of Labor.⁴⁵ Throughout 2002–2003, 25 organizations partnered with the government and six country donors to expend US\$2.3 million in IPEC projects.⁴⁶

Concluding thoughts

The adoption of an explicitly rights-based approach to labor rights within the ILO illustrates the salience of human rights issues in organizations affiliated with the UN structure. The ILO and the UN human

rights system reinforce each other's work, maneuvering to hold governments accountable, more frequently using forms of positive inducements than sanctions and other penalties. Each incorporates various international standards and compliance mechanisms, but also endeavors to build national capacity for rights respect. The ILO's formal incorporation of NGOs through its unique tripartite structure illustrates the effectiveness of participatory rights enforcement, as ILO success has been largely through moral suasion and consensus, rather than compulsion. As the ILO and UN human rights system strengthen intergovernmental efforts to regulate many types of transboundary movements—of people, information, and other goods—they rely increasingly on field partners such as NGOs. In many areas, the unique ILO methodology has successfully improved the human rights of workers. Thus, ILO procedures are instructive, especially in light of the growing international perspective that market forces triumph over governance in international policy arenas.

7 Conclusion

Looking backward, going forward

The architects of the UN human rights system undoubtedly never anticipated the evolution of their project. Their once-negligible cabin at the edge of the woods has grown, albeit in a haphazard and lopsided fashion. Additions small and large have been added, the trees shielding the structure have been cut down, and a maze-like structure has found itself at the city center.

The existence of the human rights system owes itself to a belief that no longer exists. States adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and other early international human rights instruments on the understanding that enforcement would always be a matter of state discretion. Thus, in the early years, spanning roughly from the end of the Second World War to the beginning of the Cold War, states could agree to the establishment of the UN Human Rights Commission and other UN human rights bodies without the sense that they were relinquishing any of their sovereignty. Although many international human rights standards were established by the new human rights bodies during this period, these standards were rarely enforced. No UN body believed itself to be competent to do so. For the first 20 years of its existence, even the UN Human Rights Commission, the central UN human rights body, adopted the position that it had no power to take any action in regard to human rights complaints.

With the influx of new Member States to the UN, mainly from Africa and Asia, the composition and focus of the UN human rights organs changed. Greater attention was paid to anti-colonialism and anti-racism. While some developments during this period were positive, such as the adoption of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Race Discrimination, political opportunism cast a pale over this period. Manipulated by the politics of the day, human rights became a central political wedge, first between East and West and then North and South. Many states began demanding more vigorous

enforcement of the international human rights standards, though with little effect. Advocates increasingly argued that sovereignty did not shield states from international scrutiny for human rights violations. International outrage over extreme racism in Africa supported the Human Rights Commission's development of a nascent enforcement system, ushering in a new era of international monitoring and reporting on thematic issues and investigation of individual complaints. Yet the UN system of human rights remained troubled. To the extent that human rights advocates were attracted to international organizations as a means of solving international problems, enthusiasm soon waned. As Henry Steiner and Philip Alston observe, "it became clear that [international] institutions could simply incorporate the polarities and conflicts of the 'outside' world, become lethargic administrators through inertia and stale bureaucracy, and experience manipulation and corruption."¹

The end of Cold War unleashed a host of communal conflicts and with them, a rash of human rights violations. Technological advancements in communication, enhanced mobility and improved networking and training permitted human rights advocates to draw attention to these abuses with greater skill and impact than before. Human rights advocates not only worked through the UN Human Rights Commission and Sub-Commission, but also found new ways to use the treaty bodies, preparing their own parallel monitoring reports, utilizing individual complaint mechanisms when available, strategizing for their creation when they were not available. The human rights movement was split over the failure of the international community to use non-coercive diplomacy effectively. While some human rights advocates began to abandon their previous absolutist position against the use of force, others continued to decry the morality, legality and/or effectiveness of bombing for human rights. The UN Security Council soon became a target of human rights lobbying, and eventually became so entangled in human rights issues that it could be considered a UN human rights mechanism itself. NGOs successfully lobbied the Security Council to issue resolutions creating international criminal courts to hear cases against alleged war criminals, condemning the use of child soldiers, and promising action in a host of human rights cases.

The 1990s and early 2000s were in many respects an unparalleled era of human rights development. With the exception of the so-called third-generation human rights, the standards had already been set and attention turned to completion of institution-building and improvement of existing enforcement mechanisms. The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, created in 1993, proved to be an

effective centerpiece of the UN human rights system. Field and country offices were instrumental in providing technical assistance on human rights and building human rights institutions at a national level. Under the leadership of Mary Robinson, the Human Rights Commissioner grew in stature and influence, changing from an underfunded outpost to a major player. Enhanced attention to the negative impact of globalization also drew renewed attention to one of the earliest actors in the human rights system, the International Labour Organization (ILO). The unique tripartite structure of the ILO, involving employers, trade unions and NGOs, provided under-explored avenues for holding multinational corporations accountable to international workplace standards. Throughout this period, the range of actors active in human rights issues expanded, the field in which they operated broadened, and the issues they addressed diversified.

As this book goes to press, the UN human rights mechanism is entering another era, one that is not only post-Cold War, but also post-September 11. The attack on the US Pentagon and World Trade Center in September 2001 and the slaughter of Russian school children on 1 September 2004 have created a genuine fear that the world has entered an "age of terror" where human rights must often be set aside in the name of national and even global security. According to this view, the UN human rights system is destined to revert back to being a selectively utilized political tool as during the Cold War. Where before anti-communist ideology served to trump human rights concerns, now anti-terrorism is the trump card. States with a long record of supporting human rights thus have an incentive to tread more gently when monitoring the human rights record of their allies. The temptation is great to overlook the human rights abuses of other states as long as they are actively supporting anti-terrorism efforts.

Those who decry the end of human rights falsely posit human rights and security at odds with one another. Security *is itself* a human right (implicating, among other rights, the right to life and liberty of person). Just as human rights are indivisible, the right to security is linked to and supported by the protection of other human rights. This book has identified the contours of a strong international human rights system which has set international standards and built mechanisms for enforcement. The UN human rights system exists, and NGOs and other agents of civil society are in place to remind states that human rights are part and parcel of any international peace and security agenda. Especially today, when an imbalance of power prevails, strong international human rights institutions are needed. In the absence of competing powers, these institutions hold great promise for imposing

limits on state abuse of power and, thus, for promoting peace and justice for all humankind. States are likely to remain the central actors in international relations, but only the states that are disciplined to follow international human rights precepts will have the moral authority to lead.

This book encourages students and scholars of human rights and international law and international relations to explore how their experience and interests fit into the expanding international human rights system. International enforcement mechanisms are likely to remain weak and compliance with human rights will continue to be realized through normative traditions and by a population's commitment to human rights. Although not a primary focus, "international standard-setting" will likely enjoy a renaissance as new human rights issues arise and the scope of human rights expands to address social problems previously overlooked by the mainstream human rights movement. The field of medical ethics, for example, is likely to draw more attention from human rights advocates in years to come. The human rights advocacy of the future will also reach beyond the state as duty bearer and violator of human rights, targeting also international financial institutions, transnational corporations, trade regimes and other institutions. Human rights promotion will continue to depend heavily on NGO advocacy, national human rights institutions will proliferate, and projects addressing the human rights dimensions of post-conflict peace processes are likely to become routine, though still under-resourced.

The drafters of the UN Charter may not have intended to spark all of these responses to human rights, but they did indeed usher in a modern era of human rights institution-building. While the promise of human rights remains as yet unfulfilled, the system itself retains some of the optimism and hope for a better future held by the Charter's founders.

Appendix A

Selected directory of UN human rights bodies

Today, virtually every UN body has human rights on its agenda. A brief description and contact information for the central actors are provided below. The entries are divided into two parts: first, United Nations main bodies, and second, selected specialized agencies and bodies affiliated with or otherwise related to the UN.

United Nations main bodies

The Secretary-General of the United Nations

The Secretary-General is the "chief administrative officer" of the United Nations. The United Nations Charter (the primary document of the UN) empowers the Secretary-General to "bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security." This includes human rights. The ability of the Secretary-General to use informal diplomatic channels to press states into action is known as the "good offices" authority. The Secretary-General can use his "good offices" confidentially to raise human rights concerns with Member States, including issues such as the release of prisoners and commutation of death sentences.

United Nations Secretary-General
United Nations Secretariat
New York, NY 10017, USA
Fax: (1) 212 963 7055
E-mail: inquiries@un.org

The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR or "High Commissioner")

Established in 1993, the High Commissioner is the United Nations official with principal responsibility for UN human rights activities. Technically, this office is an extension of the "good offices" of the Secretary-General. The OHCHR serves as the Secretariat of the Commission on Human Rights, the treaty bodies and other United Nations human rights organs, and is the focal point for all United Nations human rights activities.

UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, Office of the (OHCHR)
Palais des Nations, 8-14 Avenue de la Paix
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
Urgent-matter fax: (41) 22 917 9022
Website: www.unhcr.ch

The Security Council

The principal UN body in charge of peace and security. In recent years, the Security Council has become more aware of the impact of gross human rights violations on the outbreak and continuation of violent conflict. To some extent, the Security Council has become more open to human rights advocates. For example, the Security Council has been responsive to the issue of child soldiers. Advocates may try to contact individual members of the Security Council.

The General Assembly

The main deliberative body of the United Nations. It may issue its own declarations on human rights or reviews and take action on human rights matters referred to it by its working group concerned with such issues (the "Third Committee") and by the Economic and Social Council (see below).

General Assembly
United Nations Headquarters
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) 212 963 1234
Fax: (1) 212 963 4879
Website: www.un.org/aboutun/mainbodies.htm

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)

ECOSOC is the linchpin between several other UN bodies considering human rights issues. ECOSOC makes recommendations to the General Assembly on human rights matters, and reviews reports and resolutions of the Commission on Human Rights and transmits them with amendments to the General Assembly. To assist it in its work, the Council established the Commission on Human Rights, the Commission on the Status of Women and the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. Many individuals and NGOs communicate with ECOSOC directly about human rights cases.

Economic and Social Council
c/o ECOSOC Secretariat, United Nations Headquarters
DPCSD Room 2963J
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) 212 963 1234
Fax: (1) 212 963 4879
Website: www.un.org/esa/coordination/ecosoc

The Commission on Human Rights ("the Commission" or "CHR")

Composed of 53 Member States elected for three-year terms, the Commission is the main standard-setting and policy-making body dealing with human rights issues. The Commission has set up a system of special procedures to investigate alleged violations of human rights, and routinely dispatches fact-finding missions to countries in all parts of the world. The annual eight-week meeting of the Commission has turned into a highly politicized global forum for both states and non-governmental organizations addressing the human rights conditions in specific countries.

Commission on Human Rights
Palais des Nations, 8-14 Avenue de la Paix
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
Website: www.unhcr.ch

The Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights ("the Sub-Commission")

The Sub-Commission was established in 1948 to assist the Commission in its work. Its 26 members are independent experts from

all regions of the world who meet each year for four weeks in Geneva. The Sub-Commission has established several working groups and nominated special rapporteurs who focus on contemporary forms of slavery, including forced labor, illegal and pseudo-legal adoptions aiming at the exploitation of children, and sexual slavery during wartime. They also consider human rights issues concerning domestic and migrant workers and they examine preventive measures for the elimination of violence against women. The Sub-Commission was formerly known as the Sub-Commission on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Human Rights.

Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights
c/o Commission on Human Rights
Palais des Nations, 8-14 Avenue de la Paix
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
Website: www.unhcr.ch

The Commission on the Status of Women (CSW)

Prepares recommendations and reports to the Economic and Social Council on the promotion of women's rights in political, economic, social and educational fields. Historically isolated and underfunded, the Commission on the Status of Women may nonetheless be an appropriate target of NGO activity in the field of women's rights.

Commission on the Status of Women
c/o ECOSOC Secretariat, United Nations Headquarters
DPCSD Room 2963J
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) 212 963 1234
Fax: (1) 212 963 4879
Website: www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw

The International Court of Justice (ICJ)

The principal judicial organ of the United Nations, functioning according to its statute which is part of the United Nations Charter. Its main purpose is to decide, in accordance with international law, cases which are submitted to it by states. The ICJ gives advisory opinions on legal questions to the General Assembly and to other organs of the

United Nations and specialized agencies, when authorized to do so. Members are elected by the General Assembly and Security Council.

International Court of Justice
Peace Palace, Carnegieplein 2
2517KL The Hague, The Netherlands
Tel.: (31) 70 302 2323
Fax: (31) 70 364 9928
Website: www.icj-cij.org

The International Criminal Court (ICC)

The ICC was established by the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court on 17 July 1998, when 120 states participating in the United Nations Diplomatic Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court adopted the Statute. This is the first ever permanent, treaty-based, international criminal court established to promote the rule of law and ensure that the gravest international crimes do not go unpunished. The Statute for the ICC entered into force on 1 July 2002.

International Criminal Court

Maanweg, 174
2516 AB The Hague, The Netherlands
Tel.: (31) 70 515 8108/8304
Fax: (31) 70 515 8555
Public Information Office tel.: (31) 70 515 8186
Public Information Office e-mail: pio@icc-cpi.int

Treaty bodies

The Human Rights Committee (HRC)

The HRC monitors the implementation of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). An addendum to the ICCPR (the First Optional Protocol) authorizes the Committee to also consider allegations from individuals concerning violations of their civil and political rights.

Human Rights Committee
Palais des Nations, 8–14 Avenue de la Paix

1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
Website: www.unhchr.ch

The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR)

The CESCR monitors the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Unlike the other committees, whose members are elected by the States Parties to the respective convention and report to the General Assembly, the members of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights are elected by ECOSOC, to which they report.

Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
Palais des Nations, 8–14 Avenue de la Paix
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
Website: www.unhchr.ch

The Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD)

CERD monitors the implementation of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.

Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination

Palais des Nations, 8–14 Avenue de la Paix
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
Website: www.unhchr.ch

The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

CEDAW monitors the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)
 Division for the Advancement of Women
 Department of Policy Coordination and Sustainable Development
 United Nations Headquarters
 New York, NY 10017, USA
 Tel.: (1) 212 963 1151
 Fax: (1) 212 963 3463
 Website: www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/committee.htm

The Committee Against Torture (CAT)

The CAT monitors the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. Composed of 10 independent experts, the Committee was established in 1987.

Committee Against Torture (CAT)

Palais des Nations, 8-14 Avenue de la Paix
 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
 Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
 Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
 Website: www.unhcr.ch

The Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

The CRC, composed of 10 independent experts, has monitored the Convention on the Rights of the Child since 1991.

Committee on the Rights of the Child

Secretariat to the Committee on the Rights of the Child
 Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, Room 1-065
 Palais des Nations, 8-14 Avenue de la Paix
 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
 Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
 Fax: (41) 22 917 9016
 Website: www.unhcr.ch

The Committee on Migrant Workers (CMW)

The Committee on Migrant Workers monitors the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, which entered into force on 1 July 2003.

Committee on Migrant Workers
 Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
 Palais des Nations, 8-14 Avenue de la Paix
 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
 Tel.: (41) 22 917 9000
 Fax: (41) 22 917 9022

Selected specialized agencies and bodies affiliated with or otherwise related to the United Nations

There are many organizations affiliated with the United Nations. Below is just a sample, with particular attention given to those mentioned in the text of this book. (For further explanations and organizations, see www.unsystem.org, the official website locator for UN system organizations.)

International Labour Organization (ILO)

Founded in 1919, the International Labour Organization is the UN specialized agency which seeks the promotion of social justice and internationally recognized human and labour rights. The unique tripartite structure of the ILO involves workers and employers participating as equal partners with governments in the work of its governing organs. The ILO formulates international labor standards in the form of conventions and recommendations which set minimum standards of basic labor rights.

International Labour Standards Department
 4 Route des Morillons
 1211 Geneva 22, Switzerland
 Tel.: (41) 22 799 7155/799 6111
 Fax: (41) 22 799 6771
 Website: www.ilo.org

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

The UNDP administers and coordinates most of the technical assistance provided through the UN system. Formed by General Assembly resolution, the current Mission Statement declares that its mission "is to help countries in their efforts to achieve sustainable human development by assisting them to build their capacity to design and carry out development programmes in poverty eradication, employment creation and

sustainable livelihoods, the empowerment of women and the protection and regeneration of the environment, giving first priority to poverty eradication." Human rights often figure in UNDP programming, often under "good governance" programs, but also in other areas as well.

UNDP

One United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) 212 906 5000
Fax: (1) 212 826 2057
Website: www.undp.org

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Founded in 1945, UNESCO includes human rights in its mandate to promote international cooperation in the fields of education, science and culture. Among other matters, UNESCO seeks to forge universal agreements on emerging ethical issues and to serve as a clearing house for the dissemination and sharing of information and knowledge. UNESCO has its own complaints procedure which allows anyone with knowledge of a human rights violation related to education, science or culture to submit a communication to UNESCO.

UNESCO

7 Place de Fontenoy
75700 Paris, France
Tel.: (33) 1 45 68 10 00
Fax: (33) 1 45 67 16 90
Website: www.unesco.org

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Office of the (UNHCR)

The UNHCR addresses human rights concerns as part of its mandate to provide international protection to refugees and others of concern to UNHCR, and to seek durable solutions to their plight. Activities in fulfillment of this mandate include provision of material assistance, legal advice and assistance, and cooperation with other agencies. UNHCR staff work to defend the rights of refugees by providing them with protection and assistance.

UNHCR

94 rue de Montbrillant, Case Postale 2500
1211 Geneva 2, Switzerland
Tel.: (41) 22 739 8111
Fax: (41) 22 731 9546
Website: www.unhcr.ch

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

In 1946, the General Assembly established the UN International Children's Emergency Fund as a temporary body to provide emergency assistance to children in war-ravaged countries. The name was changed in 1953 when the General Assembly voted to make the fund permanent. Today, UNICEF plays a key role in implementing the rights contained in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. UNICEF programs seek to combine strategies for improving access to and quality of basic social services together with legal policy, and public education initiatives that promote and protect children's rights. In so doing, UNICEF seeks to enhance the ability of children to participate in decision-making processes.

UNICEF

Three United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) 212 326 7000
Fax: (1) 212 888 7465
Website: www.unicef.org

United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)

Created by the General Assembly to serve as a catalyst for the mainstreaming of women in development and promotion of the human rights of women. Works to ensure the participation of women in all levels of development planning and practice. It acts as a catalyst within the UN system, supporting efforts that link the needs and concerns of women to all critical issues on the national, regional and global agendas.

UNIFEM

304 East 45th Street, 15th Floor
New York, NY 10017, USA
Tel.: (1) 212 906 6400
Fax: (1) 212 906 6705

Website: www.unilem.org

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

Established in 1997, the UNODC is the umbrella organization for the United Nations Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) and the Centre for International Crime Prevention (CICP). It also includes the Terrorism Prevention Branch and the Global Programmes against Money Laundering, Corruption, Organized Crime and Trafficking in Human Beings. All of these organizations address human rights concerns in the course of their work. The UNODC has approximately 500 staff members worldwide. Its headquarters are in Vienna and it has 21 field offices as well as a liaison office in New York.

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

Vienna International Centre

PO Box 500

A-1400 Vienna, Austria

United Nations Drug Control Programme (UNDCP)

Tel.: (43) 1 26060 0

Fax: (43) 1 26060 5866

Centre for International Crime Prevention (CICP)

Tel.: (43) 1 26060 4269

Fax: (43) 1 26060 5898

World Bank Group

The World Bank Group addresses human rights as part of its mission to fight poverty and improve the living standards of people in the developing world. The World Bank Group includes the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD); the International Development Association (IDA); and the International Finance Corporation (IFC).

World Bank Group

1818 H Street NW

Washington DC 20433, USA

Tel.: (1) 202 477 1234

Fax: (1) 202 477 6391

Website: www.worldbank.org

World Health Organization (WHO)

The World Health Organization is the United Nations specialized agency for health. It was established on 7 April 1948. WHO's objective, as set out in its constitution, is the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health. Health is defined in WHO's constitution as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. WHO is governed by 192 Member States through the World Health Assembly. The Health Assembly is composed of representatives from WHO's Member States. The main tasks of the World Health Assembly are to approve the WHO program and the budget for the following biennium and to decide major policy questions.

World Health Organization

20 Avenue Appia

1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland

Tel.: (41) 22 791 2111

Fax: (41) 22 791 0746

Website: www.who.org

Appendix B

Timeline of the UN human rights system

Two entries are provided for UN conventions: one indicating the year of adoption, and one the year of entry into force. Note the length of gap between the two. Also, note that this timeline includes entries for major peacekeeping operations. These entries appear in italics so as to set them apart.

1919

International Labour Organization (ILO) founded.

1932

International Convention Concerning Compulsory or Forced Labour adopted (ILO).

1945

26 June 1945, the United Nations Charter signed—the first international instrument to embody obligations for Member States to promote and encourage respect for human rights as crucial to international peace and security.

1946

Establishment of the Commission on Human Rights under Economic and Social Council resolution 9 (II).

UN Commission on Human Rights and Commission on the Status of Women established.

ILO becomes the first specialized agency of the UN.

1947

Commission on Human Rights first session held; the Commission establishes the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities on the basis of that resolution.

1948

General Assembly adopts the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide.

10 December 1948, adoption by the General Assembly of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Convention on the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize adopted in the ILO.

First UN peacekeeping mission to monitor Arab–Israeli ceasefire authorized; the UN Truce Supervision Organization remains active.

1949

Convention on the Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining (ILO) is adopted.

Geneva Conventions provide standards for more humane treatment for prisoners of war, the wounded and civilians.

Second UN peacekeeping mission, the UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan, authorized; it remains active.

1950

UN High Commissioner for Refugees established.

1951

Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide enters into force.

Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees adopted.

Equal Remuneration Convention adopted by the ILO.

1952

General Assembly appoints a Special Commission on the Racial Situation in South Africa. (South African representatives take the position that the UN cannot even discuss race relations in their country as doing so constitutes inappropriate interference with matters within the states' domestic jurisdiction.)

1954

Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees enters into force.

1955 (height of Cold War)

The United Nations advisory services program begins, providing institution-building assistance and other services to Member States at their request.

- 1956 Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery adopted.
UN Observation Group in Lebanon (UNOGIL) peacekeeping mission authorized to supervise withdrawal of troops from the Suez Crisis (ended June 1967).
- 1957 Standard Rules for the Minimum Treatment of Prisoners adopted.
 Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery enters into force.
- Convention Concerning Abolition of Forced Labour adopted (ILO).
 Convention Concerning the Protection of Indigenous and Tribal and Semi-Tribal Populations in Independent Countries adopted (ILO).
- 1958 Convention Concerning Discrimination in Employment and Occupation adopted (ILO).
 General Assembly adopts the Declaration of the Rights of the Child.
- 1960 General Assembly adopts the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples.
 UNESCO Convention Against Discrimination in Education adopted.
UN Operation in the Congo (ONUC) authorized to prevent foreign intervention in and preserve the territory of the Congo (ended June 1964).
- 1961 Amnesty International established in Great Britain.
- 1962 General Assembly calls for all states to break off domestic relations with South Africa.
- 1963 General Assembly adopts the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.
- 1964 *UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) authorized to prevent conflict between Greek and Turkish inhabitants; remains ongoing.*
- 1965 The United Nations adopts the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.
- 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights adopted, rounding out the International Bill of Rights.
 Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights adopted.
 General Assembly issues a resolution calling apartheid a "crime against humanity."
- 1967 ECOSOC resolution 1235 permits the Commission to discuss "gross and reliably attested violations of human rights," marking the transition of the UN human rights machinery from standard-setting to promotion of human rights issues.
- 1969 General Assembly adopts the Declaration on Social Progress and Development.
 The International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination enters into force.
- 1970 ECOSOC resolution 1503 allows the Commission to process individual complaints for investigation.
- 1973 ILO adopts Minimum Age Convention.
 Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid adopted.
- 1974 *UN Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) authorized to maintain ceasefire between Syria and Israel in the Golan Heights; remains ongoing.*
- 1975 General Assembly adopts the Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons.

- 1976 General Assembly adopts the Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Being Subject to Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.
- 1977 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights enter into force. Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights enters into force.
- Security Council adopts mandatory arms embargo against South Africa in response to apartheid, marking the transition from the era of promotion of human rights in the UN to protection.
- 1978 *UN Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) authorized to supervise Israeli withdrawal from Lebanon and ensure effective Lebanese authority; remains ongoing.*
- 1979 General Assembly adopts the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.
- 1980 The first Special Procedure of the UN Commission begins with the mandate for a Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances.
- 1981 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women enters into force.
- General Assembly adopts Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief.
- 1984 General Assembly adopts the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.
- 1985 Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights established.
- 1986 General Assembly adopts the Declaration on the Right to Development.
- 1987 Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment enters into force.
- Voluntary Fund for Advisory Services and Technical Assistance in the Field of Human Rights established by the Secretary-General.
- 1989 (Cold War ends)
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN) and the Second Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, aiming at the abolition of the death penalty, are adopted.
- Convention Concerning Indigenous and Tribal People in Independent Countries adopted (ILO).
- UN peacekeeping missions authorized in Namibia to supervise elections and transition to independence (UN Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG)), and in Nicaragua to monitor the ceasefire (UN Observer Group in Central America (ONUCA)).*
- 1990 Convention on the Rights of the Child enters into force.
- Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families adopted.
- 1991 Second Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights enters into force.
- Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice established.
- Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance adopted.
- Five UN peacekeeping missions authorized: UN Iraq-Kuwait Observation Mission to enforce the Kuwait-Iraq border (ended 2003); UN Angola Verification Mission II to enforce the ceasefire in the civil war (ended February 1995); UN Observer Mission in El Salvador to enforce the ceasefire in its civil war (ended April 1995); UN Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara, which remains ongoing; and the UN Advance Mission in Cambodia to prepare for the UN Transitional Authority (ended March 1992).*
- 1992 General Assembly adopts the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious or Linguistic Minorities.
- UNSC authorizes UN intervention for famine relief in Somalia, marking the fourth era of human rights—intervention.

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour established in the ILO.

First female Special Representative of the Secretary-General appointed in the United Nations mission in Angola.

UN Protection Force (UNPROFOR and UNPRODEP) authorized to protect Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia; restructured in 1995.

UN Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) authorized to assist in its reorganization (ended September 1993).

1993

June 1993, the World Conference on Human Rights is held in Vienna; 171 state representatives agree to the Vienna Declaration and Platform for Action recognizing a broad range of human rights, calling them "interdependent" and "indivisible."

International Criminal Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) established by the Security Council.

United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child recommends to the General Assembly that the Secretary-General appoint an expert to study the impact of armed conflict on children.

1 October 1993, United Nations Human Rights Field Office established in Cambodia.

Third Decade to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination (1993–2003).

20 December 1993, the United Nations General Assembly establishes the post of High Commissioner for Human Rights.

20 December 1993, General Assembly adopts the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women.

UN Operation in Somalia (UNOSOM II) authorized to stabilize and assist humanitarian efforts (ended March 1995); UN Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG) authorized to enforce the ceasefire between Georgia and Abkhaz separatists (remains ongoing); UN Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR) established to monitor the ceasefire and, after the genocide, to promote relief efforts (ended March 1996).

1994

14 February 1994, Mr. Ayala-Lasso appointed as the first United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights.

6 April 1994, Rwandan President Habyarimana is killed after a still-mysterious missile shoots down his plane. Hutu extremists quickly

seize control of the government. Over the next 100 days, on average, 8,000 Rwandans a day will be butchered. It is the fastest rate of mass killings in the twentieth century. Some 800,000 people—roughly 10 percent of the population—are murdered. Ninety percent of the victims are Tutsis.

Emergency session of the Commission on Human Rights convenes to respond to genocide in Rwanda.

International Criminal Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Genocide and Other Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of Rwanda (ICTR) established by the Security Council.

The first OHCHR Human Rights Field Operation is established in Rwanda (HRFOR).

23 December 1994, General Assembly proclaims the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995–2004) to begin 1 January 1995.

Annual meetings of special rapporteurs/representatives, experts and chairpersons of working groups of the special procedures and the advisory services program of the Commission on Human Rights begin as a follow-up to the World Conference on Human Rights.

UN Mission of Observers in Tajikistan (UNMOT) established to monitor the ceasefire after the civil war (ended May 2000).

1995

At the World Summit for Social Development, governments commit to reducing levels of militarization to support the concept of human security.

United Nations Human Rights Field Offices established in Burundi and Mongolia.

United Nations Human Rights Technical Cooperation Office established in Malawi.

International Decade of the World's Indigenous People (1995–2004).

United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995–2004).

UN Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (UNMIBH) established to monitor human rights, de-mining and relief; remains ongoing.

1996

Graca Machel, the Secretary-General's expert on the impact of armed conflict on children, submits ground-breaking report, *Impact of Armed Conflict on Children*, to the General Assembly.

United Nations Human Rights Field Office established in Gaza and Abkhazia, Georgia.

UN Centre for Human Rights opens an office in Kinshasa, the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

1997

UN Secretary-General announces the mainstreaming of human rights throughout the UN system as part of UN reform.
United Nations Human Rights Field Office established in Colombia.
12 September 1997, Ms. Mary Robinson of Ireland assumes the post of the (second) United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights after her predecessor, Mr. Ayala-Lasso of Ecuador, resigned, on 15 March 1997, following his appointment as the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Ecuador.
Special Rapporteur on Human Rights and Terrorism appointed.
UN Verification Mission in Guatemala (MINUGUA) established to monitor the ceasefire after the civil war (ended May 1997).

1998

10 December 1998 marks the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
Rome Statute on the International Criminal Court adopted.
ILO adopts an explicitly rights-based approach to labor law in the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work.
Secretary-General appoints Special Representative on Children and Armed Conflict.
UN Observer Mission in Sierra Leone (UNOMSL) established to monitor disarmament and demobilization in Sierra Leone (ended October 1999).

1999

Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women adopted.
Optional Protocols on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography and on Children and Armed Conflict adopted.
Convention Concerning the Worst Forms of Child Labour adopted (ILO).
Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Migrants appointed.
UN Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) established to administer the area, including justice; remains ongoing.
UN Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) established to help stabilize and disarm Sierra Leone; remains ongoing.
UN Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET) established to facilitate its transition to independence (ended May 2002).

UN Organization Mission in Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) established to monitor the ceasefire; remains ongoing.

2000

Security Council adopts resolution 1325, expressing its willingness to incorporate a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations and urging that a gender component be established in peace missions.
Global Compact launched between UN, global corporations, and NGOs to promote socially aware corporate practices.
Joint Special Court in Sierra Leone established between government and UN.
The UN adopts the Millennium Development Goals.
UN Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea (UNMEE) established to enforce ceasefire; remains ongoing.

2001

International Criminal Court enters into force.
World Conference Against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance held in Durban, South Africa.
UN General Assembly adopts a resolution creating an *Ad Hoc* Committee to consider proposals to develop a convention on the human rights of people with disabilities.

2002

Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families enters into force.
Optional Protocol on Children and Armed Conflict enters into force.
12 September 2002, Brazilian Sergio Vieira de Mello takes over as UN High Commissioner for Human Rights.
UN Mission of Support in East Timor established as it develops government; remains ongoing.

2003

Sergio Vieira de Mello killed in attack on UN headquarters in Iraq.
UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) established to oversee ceasefire and train national police; remains ongoing.

2004

UN Security Council adopts a resolution calling on governments of countries where child soldiers are used to adopt a plan to halt their use; it includes an annex naming governments and non-state actors who use child soldiers.

International Criminal Court agrees to hear its first case on the use of child soldiers by a Ugandan rebel group.

1 July 2004, Louise Arbour, member of the Canadian Supreme Court, takes over as UN High Commissioner for Human Rights.

UN Mission Operation in Ivory Coast (UNOCI) established to help implement the peace process; remains ongoing.

UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH) established to return stability to Haiti; remains ongoing.

UN Operation in Burundi (ONUB) established to help implement the Arusha accords; remains ongoing.

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Appendix C

Special procedures of the Commission on Human Rights

Country mandates

For an updated list, see www.unhcr.ch/hnrm/menu2/77a/cn.htm.

- Afghanistan, Independent Expert (1984)
- Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Special Representative (2001–2003)
- Burundi, Special Rapporteur (1995)
- Cambodia, Special Representative (1993)
- Democratic Republic of the Congo, Special Rapporteur (1994)
- Equatorial Guinea (1979–2002)
- Guatemala (1982–1996)
- Haiti, Independent Expert of the Secretary-General (1995)
- Iran (1984–2002)
- Iraq, Special Rapporteur (1991)
- Liberia, Independent Expert on technical cooperation and advisory services (2003)
- Myanmar, Special Rapporteur (1992)
- Nigeria (1997–1999)
- Palestinian territories occupied since 1967, Special Rapporteur (1999)
- vRwanda (1994–2001)
- Somalia, Independent Expert of the Secretary-General (1993)
- Sudan, Special Rapporteur (1993–2003)
- Territory of the former Yugoslavia (1992–2001)

Thematic mandates

For an updated list, see www.unhcr.ch/hnrm/menu2/77b/cn.htm.

- Working Group on Arbitrary Detention (1991)
- Sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, Special Rapporteur (1990)

- Independent Expert of the Commission on Human Rights on the right to development (1998)
- Right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health, Special Rapporteur (2002)
- Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances, Working Group (1980)
- International criminal and human rights framework for the protection of persons from enforced or involuntary disappearance, Independent Expert (2001)
- Right to education, Special Rapporteur (1998)
- Extrajudicial, summary or arbitrary executions, Special Rapporteur (1982)
- Right to food, Special Rapporteur (2000)
- Situation of human rights defenders, Special Representative of the Secretary-General (2000)
- Adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, Special Rapporteur (2000)
- Situation of human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous people, Special Rapporteur (2001)
- Independence of judges and lawyers, Special Rapporteur (1994)
- Promotion and protection of the right to freedom of opinion and expression, Special Rapporteur (1993)
- Freedom of religion or belief, Special Rapporteur (1986)
- Internally displaced persons, Representative of the Secretary-General (1992)
- Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on use of mercenaries as a means of impeding the exercise of the right of peoples to self-determination (1987)
- Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on the human rights of migrants (1999)
- Independent Expert of the Commission on Human Rights on human rights and extreme poverty (1998)
- Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on contemporary forms of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance (1993)
- Working group of five independent experts on people of African descent to study the problems of racial discrimination faced by people of African descent
- Working Group on the effective implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action
- Independent Expert of the Commission on Human Rights on structural adjustment policies and foreign debt (2000)

- Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on the question of torture (1985)
- Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on the adverse effects of the illicit movement and dumping of toxic and dangerous products and wastes on the enjoyment of human rights (1995)
- Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights on violence against women, its causes and consequences (1994)
- Examination of the existing international criminal and human rights framework for the protection of persons from enforced or involuntary disappearance (2001–2002)
- Examination of the question of a draft optional protocol to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (2001–2003)
- Right to restitution, compensation and rehabilitation for victims of gross violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms (1998–2000)
- Structural adjustment policies (1998–2000)
- The effects of foreign debt on the full enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights (1998–2000)

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- 1 Felice D. Gaer, "The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights: The Challenges of International Protection" (book review), *American Journal of International Law* (April 2004), pp. 391-397.
- 2 *Ibid.*
- 3 Kofi Annan, *Strengthening of the United Nations: An Agenda for Further Change* (GA document A/57/387), 9 September 2002.
- 4 International Council on Human Rights Policy, *Local Perspectives: Foreign Aid to the Justice Sector* (Geneva: ICHRP, 2000). See www.international-council.org.
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- 6 Summary of Information Regarding Consideration by United Nations Organs of the Question of the Establishment of a Post of United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Note by the Secretary-General (E/CN.4/Sub.2/1982/26), 30 July 1982.
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- 9 United Nations Peacekeeping, www.un.org/Depts/dpko/dpko/index.asp. The website has full information regarding past and present peacekeeping efforts.
- 10 Gaer, "The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights."
- 11 Clapham, "Creating the High Commissioner for Human Rights."
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- 14 Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, *The Role of the High Commissioner*, www.unhcr.ch/about/hcrole.htm.
- 15 GA resolution 48/141, UN GAOR, 48th session, supplement no. 49, at 261, UN document A/48/141 (1993).
- 16 Stephen Marks, "The Human Right to Development: Between Rhetoric and Reality," *Harvard Human Rights Journal* 17 (Spring 2004): 135.
- 17 Declaration on the Right to Development, GA resolution 41/128, UN GAOR, 41st session, supplement no. 53, at 186, UN document A/41/128 (1986) ("All human beings have a responsibility for development, individually and collectively, taking into account the need for full respect for their human rights and fundamental freedoms as well as their duties to the community").
- 18 Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, World Conference on Human Rights, Part I, para. 10, UN document A/CONF.157/23 (1993).

1 A guide to the new UN human rights practice

- 1 Janet E. Lord and Katherine Guernsey, "It Takes a Treaty: Elbowing into the Human Rights Mainstream," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Studies Association, Montreal, Canada, March 2004, 24.
- 2 Craig G. Mokhiber, *Toward a Measure of Dignity: Indicators for Rights-Based Development*, www.sociologie.ch/users/markusheath/docs/5%20Other%20documents/5.25_Toward_a_Measure_of_Dignity.pdf.
- 3 See International Council on Human Rights Policy, *Local Perspectives: Foreign Aid to the Justice Sector* (Geneva: ICHRP, 2000), at Annex III.
- 4 UN General Assembly resolution 217A (III), UN document A/810 at 71 (1948).
- 5 General Assembly, GAOR 1966, 2200A (XXI), supplement no. 16, at 52, UN document A/6316.
- 6 General Assembly, GAOR 1966, 2200A (XXI), supplement no. 16, at 49, UN document A/6316.
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- 11 U. Baxi, "Voices of the Suffering, Fragmented Universality and the Future of International Human Rights" (Ardsey, NY: Transnational Publishers, 1999), 101-156, 102.

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- 22 www.unhcr.ch/hunl/menu2/techcoop.htm.
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- 25 International Council on Human Rights Policy, *Local Perspectives: Foreign Aid to the Justice Sector*, June 2000, Geneva, Switzerland, www.icrp.org/index.html?project=104.
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- 37 Office of the High Commissioner, Bosnia: www.unhcr.ch/hunl/menu2/5/bosnia.htm.
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During the last six years, the regular budget appropriations for human rights decreased by 19 per cent — from \$48 million in 1996–1997 to \$39 million in 2000–2001 — and the share of OHCHR in the United Nations regular budget went down from 1.84 to 1.54 per cent. During the same time, its extrabudgetary resources more than doubled — from \$36 million to \$79 million — and their share in the overall OHCHR budget rose from 43 to 67 per cent.

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7 Conclusion: looking backward, going forward

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- Alston, Philip, and Henry J. Steiner, *International Human Rights in Context: Law, Politics, Morals: Text and Materials* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2nd edn., 2000). A leading law school human rights textbook. Contains sharply edited primary materials ranging from intergovernmental or NGO reports to treaties, resolutions and decisions; and excerpts from secondary readings in law and legal theory, as well as other pertinent fields such as international relations, moral and political theory, and anthropology.
- Buergenthal, Thomas, Dinah Shelton, and David Stewart, *International Human Rights in a Nutshell* (St. Paul, MN: West Group, 3rd edn., 2002). Don't be put off by the "nutshell" in the title; this is a serious book. It is not only the clearest and best guide for law students on human rights, but also a tremendous resource for practitioners and academics. This small book is amazingly broad in scope, covering not only UN human rights mechanisms but regional mechanisms as well.
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- Dunne, Tim, and Nicholas J. Wheeler, eds., *Human Rights in Global Politics* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999). A good complement to

- www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/pub/download/factsheets/fs_monitoring_0303.pdf.
- 39 *IPEC Action Against Child Labour 2002–2003*, 93.
- 40 See D. Rodrik, "Labor Standards in International Trade: Do They Matter and What Do We Do About Them?" in R. Lawrence, D. Rodrik, and J. Whalley, *Emerging Agenda for Global Trade: High Stakes for Developing Countries*, Overseas Development Council Essay No. 20 (Washington, DC: Overseas Development Council and Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996).
- 41 IPECILO, *Facts on Mainstreaming Elimination of Child Labour into Development and Poverty Reduction Strategies*, www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/pub/download/factsheets/fs_mainstreaming_0303.pdf.
- 42 *IPEC Action Against Child Labour 2002–2003*, 48.
- 43 *Ibid.*, 56.
- 44 International Labour Organization, *IPEC Action Against Child Labour: Highlights 2004* (Geneva: International Labour Organization, 2004), www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/pub/implementation/index.htm.
- 45 *IPEC Action Against Child Labour 2002–2003*, 43–45.
- 46 *Ibid.*, 105.

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Conclusion: looking backward, going forward

- 1 Henry Steiner and Philip Alston, *International Human Rights in Context: Law, Politics and Morality* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1996), 343.

Annotated bibliography

Books

- Alston, Philip, and James Crawford, eds., *The Future of UN Human Rights Treaty Monitoring* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000). Provides detailed analyses of the strengths and weaknesses of the UN human rights treaty system, written by leading participants in the work of the treaty bodies.
- Alston, Philip, and Frederic Megret, eds., *The United Nations and Human Rights: A Critical Appraisal* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2004). The best comprehensive volume on the UN and human rights. Particularly strong analysis on the relationship between the various bodies and the potential for major reforms and restructuring.
- Alston, Philip, and Henry J. Steiner, *International Human Rights in Context: Law, Politics, Morals: Text and Materials* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2nd edn., 2000). A leading law school human rights textbook. Contains sharply edited primary materials ranging from intergovernmental or NGO reports to treaties, resolutions and decisions; and excerpts from secondary readings in law and legal theory, as well as other pertinent fields such as international relations, moral and political theory, and anthropology.
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- Donnelly, Jack, *Universal Human Rights in Theory and Practice* (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 2nd edn., 2002). The leading introduction to the theory and practice of human rights. This book's discussion of challenges to the universality of human rights is widely cited. Specific topics addressed include humanitarian intervention, democracy and human rights, "Asian values," group rights, and discrimination against sexual minorities.
- Dunne, Tim, and Nicholas J. Wheeler, eds., *Human Rights in Global Politics* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999). A good complement to

Donnelly, the authors in this collection take a more critical approach in evaluating the philosophical basis of human rights, and reflect on the structures that affect the development of a global human rights culture. The contributors ask whether human rights abuses are a result of the failure of governments to live up to a universal human rights standard, or whether the search for moral universals is a fundamentally flawed enterprise.

Evans, Tony, ed., *Human Rights Fifty Years On: A Reappraisal* (Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1998). A critical examination of the power of human rights, includes several landmark essays from leading scholars.

Falk, Richard A., *Human Rights Horizons: The Pursuit of Justice in a Globalizing World* (New York: Routledge, 2000). A leading thinker on human rights offers a historical perspective on human rights and offers his views on the future of human rights, given new challenges in the globalization era. Rwanda and Bosnia case studies provide for provocative discussion. The last section of the book deals with human rights horizons such as civil society, the role of morality in security, and redressing past grievances.

Forsythe, David P. (ed.), *Human Rights and Comparative Foreign Policy* (New York: United Nations University Press, 2000). A fascinating collection of the place of human rights in the foreign policies of a wide range of states.

Hannum, Hurst, *Guide to International Human Rights Practice* (Ardsey, NY: Transnational Publishers, 4th edn., 2004). A detailed introduction to human rights mechanisms, with particularly good chapters on "non-treaty" mechanisms, the ILO and UNESCO.

Ignatieff, Michael, *Human Rights as Politics and Ideology*, ed. Amy Gutmann (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2003). A succinct liberal argument for a pragmatic approach to human rights. Ignatieff's essay is followed by short responses from leading contemporary thinkers, making this a good book for facilitating discussion on the meaning of human rights.

Korey, William, *NGOs and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: "A Curious Grapevine"* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2001). A comprehensive examination of the contributions of non-governmental organizations to the human rights movement.

Lauren, Paul Gordon, *The Evolution of International Human Rights: Visions Seen* (Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2nd edn., 2004).

A clear and compelling account of the history of UN human rights practice. Mertus, Julie, *Bait and Switch: Human Rights and U.S. Foreign Policy*, *Global Horizons* (New York: Routledge, 2004). A detailed account of post-Cold War US foreign policy practice on human rights, approaching the executive, military, and NGO roles through separate analyses. Mertus argues that human rights are not seen as imperative within the US, and that human rights are often misused and held as a double standard.

Mertus, Julie, and Jeffrey Helsing, eds., *Human Rights and Conflict* (Washington, DC: United States Institute of Peace, 2005). A comprehensive collection of essays on the intersection of international human rights and conflict. Among the issues discussed are human rights as a cause or consequence of violent conflict, holding militaries and paramilitaries responsible for violations, peace negotiations and human rights advocacy, the truth vs

justice debate in truth commissions and war crimes trials, civil society as a human rights safeguard, human rights implications of the war on terrorism, and the human rights of refugees and displaced people.

Nowak, Manfred, *Introduction to the International Human Rights Regime* (Boston, MA: Martinus Nijhoff, 2003). A comprehensive multidisciplinary textbook introducing the idea and significance of human rights, its philosophical and theoretical foundations, historical development, the main structures and procedures of international human rights protection by the United Nations and regional organizations, and modern trends, such as preventive mechanisms, international criminal law, human rights as essential elements of peacekeeping and peace-building operations, humanitarian intervention, and the relationship between human rights and terrorism.

Power, Samantha, and Graham Allison, eds., *Redeeming Human Rights: Moving from Inspiration to Impact* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2000). This book brings together leading activists, policy-makers and critics to reflect upon 50 years of attempts to improve respect for human rights. Authors include former President Jimmy Carter, who helped inject human rights concerns into US policy; Wei Jingsheng, who struggled to do so in China; Louis Henkin, the modern father of international law; and Richard Goldstone, the former chief prosecutor for the Yugoslav and Rwandan war crimes tribunals.

Price, Monroe E., and Mark Thompson, eds., *Forging Peace: Intervention, Human Rights, and the Management of Media Space* (Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press, 2002). Interesting case studies on the relationship between human rights and the media in conflict scenarios.

Weston, Burns H., and Stephen Marks, eds., *The Future of International Human Rights* (Ardsey, NY: Transnational Publishers, 1999). A strong collection of essays from scholars and practitioners on the future of human rights.

Young, Kirsten, *The Law and Process of the Human Rights Committee* (Ardsey, NY: Transnational Publishers, 2002). An authoritative and comprehensive account of the procedures of the Human Rights Committee. Essential for practitioners and scholars concerned with questions of legitimacy and accountability in human rights practice.

Internet and electronic resources

Essential UN resources on the web

High Commissioner for Human Rights, www.unhcr.ch. The website of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, based in Geneva, is the most important source of information in this field, including programs, documents, statements and publications. It also offers related links within the United Nations system.

Human Development Report, UNDP, www.undp.org/hdro. Provides information about and analysis of human development indicators, in publications that include national, regional, and international foci.

- UNHCHR, Training and Educational Materials, www.unhcr.ch/html/menu6/2/training.htm. Contains guides, training materials, and all documents produced under the UN Decade for Human Rights Education (1995–2004), including curricula, training manuals, and histories of human rights activities.
- UNHCHR, Treaty Bodies Database, www.unhcr.ch/tbs/doc.nsf. Search for international human rights treaties information and reports.
- UNHCHR, Website Search Engine, www.unhcr.ch/search.htm. Search for United Nations human rights documents.
- United Nations Info Quest (UN-I-QUE), <http://lib-unique.un.org/lib/unique.nsf>. Search for reports by UN human rights bodies, special rapporteurs and countries.
- Universal Declaration of Human Rights, www.unhcr.ch/udhr/index.htm. The UDHR in over 350 different languages.
- WomenWatch, www.un.org/womenwatch. The United Nations gateway for the advancement and empowerment of women is a joint initiative of the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW).

Other important internet references

- Bayelsky.com, www.bayelsky.com. This website is a Canadian human rights professor's resource on the UN treaties, aiming to enhance the implementation of UN human rights legal standards. It tells one how to complain about human rights treaty violations and discusses reform efforts on the UN human rights treaty system.
- Human Rights Internet (HRI), www.hri.ca/index.aspx. One of the oldest organizations founded with the explicit goal of human rights information-sharing. Launched in 1976 in the United States, HRI now has its headquarters in Ottawa, Canada. The website provides information on a wide range of human rights topics, but it is particularly strong on human rights and development.
- Human Rights Network International (HRNI), www.hrni.org/index_flash.html. The website provides extensive research articles and resources on human rights, particularly individual rights such as the right to life, due process, cultural rights, to development, and minority rights. Specific discussions on regional protection agencies (such as the European Court of Human Rights, African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights) and special focus cases (civil society, terrorism and human rights) are provided.
- Human Rights Research and Education Centre, www.cdph-irc.nottawa.ca/index_e.html. An extensive collection of human rights resources from the University of Ottawa. Their virtual library, publications and links are very comprehensive.
- Human Rights Resource Center, <http://hrusa.org/default.htm>. The Human Rights Resource Center is an excellent source of information on human

- rights education. These resources include more than 50 curricula, guides, videos, documents, and other educational aids. The site, which is run through the University of Minnesota, also provides a well-organized set of links to over 200 other human rights sites.
- International Centre for Human Rights and Democratic Development, www.ichdd.ca/splash.html. A good source for information on democracy and human rights. Created by the Canadian parliament, the Centre is independent and non-partisan.
- Max Planck Institute for Comparative Public Law and International Law, www.virtual-institute.de/index.cfm. The website of the Max Planck Institute for Comparative Public Law and International Law. One is able to search articles and journals through their online database. The website also has a lot of resources concerning international law and German courts.
- Training Manual on Human Rights Monitoring, www1.unm.edu/humanrts/monitoring/index.html. A superb OHCHR project, drafted principally by David Weissbrodt and available on his human rights website. The comprehensive manual will be of great assistance to anyone undertaking field research. It is complemented by a Trainer's Guide, which is intended to assist trainers in preparing officers for addressing human rights issues.
- University of Minnesota Bibliography for Research on International Human Rights Law, www1.unm.edu/humanrts/bibliog/BIBLIO.htm. A bibliography that lists both print and internet sources by categories such as Compilations of Human Rights Instruments, Status of Human Rights Instruments, Legislative History of Human Rights Instruments, Country Situations, Country Reports, etc. The website also has a comprehensive list of UN documents.
- Website of the Victoria University of Wellington's Human Rights Research Guide, www.vuw.ac.nz/library/special/unresearchguide/humanrightsguide.shtml. The website lists useful UN websites where one can obtain UN documents. The second half of the document lists resources available in the VUW library.
- Women's Human Rights Resources, www.law-lib.utoronto.ca/Diana. A project of the Bora Laskin Law Library at the University of Toronto, Faculty of Law, the site provides excellent guidance for research on women's human rights, and includes advocacy guides, fellowship information, a women's human rights database, and special features on topical issues.

Selected list of NGOs doing human rights work

- Amnesty International, www.amnesty.org. Amnesty International is a membership-based independent organization working to campaign for internationally recognized human rights. There are more than 1.8 million members worldwide and Amnesty does work in over 150 different countries.
- Arab Association for Human Rights, www.arabha.org/index.htm. The core programs of the organization are international advocacy, women's rights,

and education. The Palestinian issue is of particular pertinence to this organization, which is based in Brussels.

Australian Human Rights Centre, www.austlii.edu.au/au/other/ahrc. The Centre focuses on the Asia-Pacific region and aims to increase awareness about human rights through providing access to documentation and conducting research on human rights topics.

Casa Alianza, www.casa-alianza.org. Latin America's leading children's rights organization, Casa Alianza advocates for street children and sexually exploited children to their governments and at the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights. It is a sister organization to Covenant House.

Center for Economic and Social Rights, www.cesr.org. The Center uses economic and social rights as a platform for creating greater social justice, both in the USA (where they are based) and abroad. They have targeted their advocacy in eight different countries and also have advocacy guides on their internet site.

Citizens for Global Solutions, www.globalsolutions.org. This is a grass-roots membership organization aiming campaigns at the promotion of human rights through advocacy for a stronger International Criminal Court, reform of UN peace operations, and encouraging US foreign policy to emphasize international cooperation and human rights. They were formerly known as the World Federalist Society.

The Danish Institute for Human Rights (DIHR), www.humanrights.dk. The DIHR is a large national human rights organization which takes a multidisciplinary approach in its research, projects, documentation, and educational activities.

Derechos Human Rights, www.derechos.org. Derechos is a human rights organization which has an enormous amount of reports and projects, and its news is thorough and timely, as well as accurate. It is a sister organization to Equipo Nizkor.

Earthtrends, <http://earthtrends.wri.org>. This project of the World Resources Institute is an online resource containing a wide variety of statistics, maps, and short thematic pieces on environmental, social, and economic issues. Equality Now, www.equalitynow.org. This organization has been striving for women's rights and equality since 1992 and works with local activists and with national human rights groups. Their Women's Action Network is also a broad-based awareness project about women's issues.

Equipo Nizkor, www.derechos.org/nizkor/eng.html. Like Derechos Human Rights, Equipo Nizkor have a huge amount of information and human rights news. They focus especially on South and Central American human rights issues.

Forefront, www.forefrontleaders.org. Forefront aims to protect human rights defenders through providing a network of support for local human rights activists.

Franciscans International, www.franciscansinternational.org. In addition to being a leading NGO on the right to development, Franciscans International works on women's rights, trafficking, and religious freedom. Franciscans International relies on the grass-roots work of more than 1

million Franciscans worldwide to inform its human rights lobbying at the UN.

Global Rights, www.globalrights.org. Global Rights aim their human rights advocacy at partnerships with local advocates. With offices around the world, they aim to "challenge injustice and amplify new voices within the global discourse."

Human Rights Education Association, www.hrea.org. Human rights educators are well-served to know about and check this site, which contains a wealth of resources, forums, and courses, tutorials, publication opportunities, and documentation on human rights topics.

Human Rights First, www.humanrightsfirst.org. The organization has headquarters in New York and seeks to protect and promote human rights through affecting US policy as well as international practice. Its activities range from protecting human rights advocates and refugees to promoting international justice and accountability structures.

Human Rights Net, www.human-rights.net. The site offers a launching point to connect with a myriad of human rights research centers and NGOs; it is a project of the Human Rights Education Association.

Human Rights Watch, www.hrw.org. Human Rights Watch (HRW) is an independent human rights organization seeking to defend and protect the human rights of people around the world. They have been established for more than 20 years in the field, and are the largest US-based human rights organization. HRW bases their advocacy largely on the "name, shame, blame" technique.

International Council on Human Rights Policy (ICHRP), www.ichrp.org. ICHRP is an organization aiming to produce work of practical relevance through approaching human rights in an international, multidisciplinary, and consultative manner. They work particularly on applied policy research on issues relating to other human rights organizations.

International Federation for Human Rights, www.fidh.org/news.php3. A federation of more than 150 organizations in more than 100 countries, this group has a broad mandate for prosecuting human rights violators, preventing human rights abuses and protecting victims.

International Gay and Lesbian Human Rights Commission (IGLHRC), www.ighrc.org/site/ighrc. Technical assistance, coalition-building, advocacy, and documentation are the main ways in which the IGLHRC is trying to make the world more equal and safe for those currently experiencing discrimination on the basis of gender and sexual identity or preference and HIV/AIDS status.

International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, www.ihf-hr.org/welcome.php. A self-governing group of human rights organizations primarily concerned with European, Central Asian, and North American rights violations, the group's specific goal is to monitor compliance with the human rights provisions of the Helsinki Final Act and its Follow-up Documents.

Másterre University Human Rights and Peace Centre (HURPEC), <http://munklaw.ac.ug>. The first academic human rights institution in the

East African region, HURIPAC was established in 1993. It is devoted to teaching, researching, and compilation of local/regional materials relating to human rights. HURIPAC publishes the *East African Journal of Peace and Human Rights*, an interdisciplinary semi-annual scholarly publication.

Netherlands Institute of Human Rights, www.uu.nl/uupublish/homerechtsgeleer/onderzoek/onderzoekscholen/sim/english/18199main.html. Research, documentation, publications and a school for human rights can all be found on this site; however, it may be easier to visit it via a search engine than copying down the address given here.

The Nordic Committee for Human Rights, www.nkmr.org/english. The Committee works on the protection of family rights in Nordic countries, basing its work on the UDHR, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms.

Norwegian Centre for Human Rights, www.humanrights.uio.no/english. A national centre for human rights work based at the University of Oslo, Norway. They aim to promote research, rights-based development, and to be a nucleus for human rights education.

Peace Brigades International, www.peacebrigades.org. This organization contributes to a more peaceful world through the non-violent transformation of conflicts and emphasis on basic human rights. They conduct projects in several countries, and have delegations of monitors participating in their projects. Their Emergency Response Network is also an interesting initiative of theirs.

Physicians for Human Rights, www.phrusa.org/index.html. The Physicians promote public health through human rights. They investigate and expose human rights violations worldwide, and work to stop them.

World Organization Against Torture, www.omct.org. Training, advocacy, and fighting against impunity are the core of this organization's work. It is a very large coalition of organizations (more than 300) working on issues of torture, arbitrary detention, extrajudicial killings, disappearances, and other human rights violations.

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