



LXV
SIXTY-FIFTH SESSION



ECOSOC

BERKELEY MODEL UNITED NATIONS



Topic 1 | Strengthening Resilience to Climate Related Disasters

Background

Introduction

The El Niño weather patterns of the past two years have thrust climate related disasters onto the global stage. Unlike the many regional disasters of the past twenty years, El Niño has become a global and recurring phenomenon. As of February 2016, almost 1 million children in Eastern and Southern Africa were facing acute malnutrition from droughts caused by El Niño (ECOSOC/6758, 2016). In El Salvador, over 1.5 million people have required food assistance in 2016 (Renteria, 2016). Droughts have caused the Marshall Islands and the Federated States of Micronesia and Palau to declare states of emergency, while Malawi had declared a state of disaster (ECOSOC/6758, 2016). These and the many other climate-related disasters of the past twenty years have devastated developing nations.

Low income and poor infrastructure increase the vulnerability of countries, often leading to serious economic and social setbacks. Climate related disasters have the ability to reduce a successful developing nation to a poverty stricken laggard. In a recent address to the Economic and Social Council, Under-Secretary-General for Economic and Social Affairs Uwu Hongbo stressed the importance of effective early warning mechanisms and investment in disaster risk reduction strategies (ECOSOC/6758, 2016). Countries must turn commitments into action to strengthen the resilience of developing nations to disasters. The



delegates of the Economic and Social Council must come together to make sure no country is left behind.

Climate change or what is known as “global warming” is caused by the increasing amount of greenhouse gases in our atmosphere. These gases prevent radiation from entering space, thus trapping heat that would normally escape through our atmosphere. This excess heat causes an overall rise in the temperature of the atmosphere, resulting in heightened sea levels and the increased intensity of weather patterns (IPCC 2007). This intensity of weather patterns has led to a massive increase in the number of natural disasters in the past fifty years. Throughout the sixties and seventies, there was an average of 40 climate related disasters each year. This number has skyrocketed to 250, with disasters now affecting 217 million people each year (USGCRP 2009). The effects of climate-related disasters are especially prevalent in developing countries where rural populations rely heavily on agriculture as their source of food and for their economy. In developing countries, the agricultural sector absorbs on average 25% of the total losses in climate-related disasters. This is especially true with droughts, as 84% of the damage caused by droughts is to the agricultural sector (FAO 2015).

Agriculture is the primary source of income and employment for 70% of the world’s poor population who live in rural areas (FAO 2015). The definition of “rural” varies by country, and, with periodic reclassification, within a country as well. Though in general a rural area is most often defined by one or more of the following: a lack of administrative criteria or political boundaries (e.g. a region



outside of the jurisdiction of a municipality or town committee), below a threshold population size (where the minimum for an urban settlement is typically in the region of 2,000 people, although this varies globally between 200 and 50,000), low population density, low economic function (e.g., where a significant majority of the population is primarily engaged in agriculture, or where there is a shortage of employment) or the presence of rural characteristics (e.g., a lack of paved streets, electric lighting, or sewage system) (UNICEF 2012). Rural areas often contain distinct landforms, such as mountains, deserts, and swamps, which create environments lacking the allures for dense population settlement. Thus, inhabitants of these areas turn to farming as their source of income due to the lack of options. The effect of natural disasters is exacerbated in regions like this where agriculture is crucial in lowering poverty and increasing the quality of life of citizens.

The destruction caused by climate related disasters results in heavy blows to the infrastructure, land, and people of the area. Floods and typhoons dispense large quantities of water that drown crops and wash away valuable topsoil. The immense heat of droughts reduces the amount of nutrients in the soil, resulting in lower crop yields and in some cases, extreme fire hazards. These disasters not only damage the current crop cycle, but also the success of future cycles. Disasters also affect the infrastructure of developing regions by damaging the structure of buildings that have not been disaster proofed. A considerable portion of the billions of dollars in damages caused every year by disasters is a result of building collapses and heavy structural damage. Lastly, inhabitants of regions



have drastically reduced incomes if they have no land to farm, their homes are destroyed, or their place of work is severely damaged. Without a steady income provided by agricultural operations, economic growth is stunted, leaving regions, and even entire countries unable to make progress.

The effects of natural disasters have drastically affected developing countries in the past fifteen years. Developing nations often have rapid population growth, and losses in agriculture result in reductions in food security, leading to famine and other health epidemics. The inability of nations to establish a steady food supply severely limits their abilities to transition from developing to developed economies. Droughts in Kenya caused an estimated loss of \$10.5 billion between 2008 and 2011; flooding in Pakistan resulted in \$5.3 billion in 2010; and the 2004 tsunami in Indonesia brought losses of \$860 million. According to a 2015 FAO report, “more than one-third of all developing countries have been affected by at least three medium- or large-scale disasters between 2003 and 2013” (Income Convergence or Persistent Inequalities 2015). These disasters result in massive blows to developing nations’ economies, stifling growth in economic and social capacities.

Recent Disasters

In the past fifteen years, we have seen climate related disasters wreak havoc on the livelihoods of almost a billion inhabitants in developing countries. Disasters can cause unemployment and/or a decline in wages and income among farmers and farm laborers. They lower the availability of food commodities in local markets, leading to food inflation. These pressures reduce



households' purchasing capacity, restrict access to food, deplete savings and can force the sale of vital productive assets, eroding livelihoods (Salim 2012). Ultimately, the quantity and quality of food consumption is reduced and food insecurity and malnutrition increase. The devastating effects of these disasters are clearly seen in the Pakistan floods between 2010 and 2011, the 2013 typhoon in the Philippines, droughts in Uganda from 2008 to 2011, the 2008 cyclone in Yemen and the many other mega disasters of the past ten years.

The floods in Pakistan rocked the already fragile economic, social, and political state of the country. The disaster affected 4.5 million workers, two-thirds of who were employed in agriculture (FAO 2015); over 70 percent of farmers affected lost half of their expected income for the duration of the crisis and this continued well into the aftermath of the floods. The floods had a direct impact on the industries vital to the economic perseverance of the country. Crop production losses resulted in substantial reductions in output from cotton ginning, rice processing, and flour and sugar milling industries, while cotton and rice imports surged (Ellick 2010).

The floods also affected Pakistan's delicate political balance. The President at the time, Asif Ali Zardari of Pakistan People's Party, faced constant attacks from former Prime Minister and rival faction leader Nawaz Sharif of the Pakistan Muslim League. Sharif criticized Zardari's acceptance of aid from foreign governments and organizations after Pakistan took out a \$900 million loan from the World Bank, adding to its already huge debt burden of \$55.5 billion (Shikarpur 2010). Sharif likely exploited the tragedy for his party's political gain,



as the PML won a majority of seats in the 2013 elections and Sharif now sits as the Prime Minister of Pakistan.

The instability caused by the floods also raised fears of increased militancy in many hard hit regions. According to a study by the Sustainable Development Policy Institute of Islamabad, the 20 districts with the worst food insecurities were also home to the worst militancy (Ellick 2010). These regions are far more likely to breed militants as extremist Islamic charities provide aid where the government is lacking. The grassroots efficiency of these charities drew new support for groups that often stir up anti-government and anti-West sentiments. The floods “opened a fresh opportunity for the Islamic charities to demonstrate that they can provide what the government cannot, much as the Islamists did during the earthquake in Kashmir in 2005, which helped them lure new recruits to banned militant groups through the charity wings that front for them” (Ellick 2010). New inroads for Islamic militants as well as the many political and massive economic issues caused by the floods caused the disaster to be ranked as one of the most devastating in the past hundred years.

The 2013 Typhoon in the Philippines also resulted in massive blows to the stability of an already unstable third world country. The Philippines has been affected by 75 disasters between 2006 and 2013, primarily floods and typhoons, also known as tropical storms, causing \$3.8 billion in damage and losses to the agricultural sector over a period of eight years. This translates into an average of \$477 million in economic losses to the agriculture sector every year, equivalent to



about one-quarter of the total annual national budget allocated to the agricultural sector in 2014 (Hyogo Framework for Action Post 2015).

The cases of the Philippines and Pakistan are not unique. Droughts in Uganda from 2008-2011, a massive cyclone in Yemen in 2008, floods in Thailand in 2011, and many more climate-related disasters have devastated third world countries at an increasingly alarming rate. Fortunately, the UN has not ignored these stark indicators. There are now multiple offices devoted to reducing the impacts of climate-related disasters.



Past UN and International Action

Introduction

The United Nations has been at the forefront of disaster relief and humanitarian aid since its inception in 1945. One of the first agencies devoted to this cause was the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) with the “goal of freeing humanity from hunger and malnutrition and effectively managing the global food system” (World Food Day 2016). However, the FAO focused primarily on food related issues and the UN needed a development-focused agency instead. The creation of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1966 closed the gap in development coverage. With the UNDP there is now an entire UN body devoted to sustainable development with the goal of withstanding crisis, sustaining growth, and eradicating poverty (UNDP). The UNDP focused and continues to focus on development challenges across a wide breadth of issues through its millennium and sustainable development goals.

The first UN office devoted entirely to Emergency Operations was created in December of 1984 under Secretary-General Javier Perez De Cuellar. The UN Office for Emergency Operations was set up in drought-ravaged Africa to assist in the coordination of famine relief efforts. The immense casualties suffered under Mengistu Haile Mariam’s regime included subjecting close to 30 million Ethiopians to acute suffering and risk to their survival. The office was necessary for the large-scale mobilization of international resources required to meet the needs of Ethiopia and 20 other countries of Sub-Saharan Africa in which over 200 million people were affected by the famine (Strong 2009).



In December of 1991, the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) was formed by resolution 46/182 in the General Assembly. The OCHA is a combination of its predecessor, the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Coordinator (UNDRC), and the Department of Humanitarian Affairs. OCHA is responsible for the coordination of a coherent emergency response to disasters. OCHA mobilizes networks, creates frameworks, and facilitates sustainable solutions while advocating the rights of the people in need (OCHA). The OCHA and the many organizations that came before it are heavily focused on the reactionary responses to disasters. Organization like the UNDP and UNDRC are vital to effective and efficient responses to disasters, but lack the mandate to focus on proactively preparing for disasters. With the creation of the Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR) in 1999, The UN had its first body focused on proactive measures in preparation and the creation of sustainable measures to reduce the impacts of the many disasters to come.

UNISDR/ Hyogo Framework

The United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR), was created in 1999 by the General Assembly for the purpose of implementing the “International Strategy for Disaster Reduction” (A/RES/54/219 2000) The International Strategy for Disaster Reduction builds upon the principles established in the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction which took place between 1990-1999. Its vision was to enable communities to become resilient to the effects of natural, technological and environmental hazards while



mitigating the risk they pose to the social and economic vulnerabilities of society (International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, 1999). The Strategy exemplifies the standards articulated in a number of major documents adopted during the Decade, in particular, the Yokohama Strategy for a Safer World: Guidelines for Natural Disaster Prevention, Preparedness and Mitigation and its Plan of Action, "A Safer World in the 21st Century: Disaster and Risk Reduction." The Office's goal is to coordinate disaster reduction and ensure synergies among the activities of the United Nations system (other offices) and regional organizations and activities in socio-economic and humanitarian fields.

At the 2005 Second World Conference on Disaster Reduction in Kobe, Japan laid the groundwork for the UN's modern disaster risk policy. Following the establishment of the Yokohama Strategy in 1994, the UN took a more proactive approach at the 2005 conference. Rather than just a mandate, the UN adopted plans to create an International Early Warning Programme that every country now has access to. However, the most important outcome of the 2005 conference was the creation of the Hyogo Framework for Action. The HFA was developed and agreed on by governments, international agencies, disaster experts and many others to bring all industries, sectors, and other actors into a common system of coordination to reduce disaster losses (HFA 2015). The plan set out five priority actions for countries to focus on to improve their disaster risk management: (1) Ensuring disaster risk reduction is a national and local priority backed by strong sovereign institutions; (2) Enhancing countries' abilities to assess, identify, and monitor risks through early warning systems; (3) Using



knowledge, education, and innovation, to ensure resilience at all levels; (4) Reducing underlying risk factors through sector development planning and post-disaster programs; (5) Strengthening disaster management for effective response at all levels (A/RES/58/214 2005). UNISDR has published yearly reports and evaluations of every country's progress since the HFA's implementation. The Hyogo Framework for Action was set to run from 2005 to 2015, but nearing the end of its decade, the UNISDR urged countries to take a stronger stand against climate-related disasters.

The Rio+20 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development took place in June of 2012 with one of its two main themes being an Institutional Framework for Development. Since the 1992 Rio Earth Summit there has been 1.3 million deaths, 4.4 billion people affected, and \$2 trillion in economic losses from disasters across the world. Heads of State and high-level representatives urged nations, international financial institutions, international organizations and civil society "to accelerate implementation" of the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters (Salim 2012). Following the Rio+20 conference and the end of the HFA came the need for a subsequent international plan for DRR. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 Resolution was adopted at the close of the Third UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction (WCDRR) in Sendai, Japan in March of 2015.

The post-2015 framework builds upon the established priorities of the HFA. The new framework scales-up disaster risk reduction efforts by measuring



them against development outcomes. The Sendai framework also introduces seven global targets to support the assessment of progress of efforts. Ranging from reducing global disaster mortality to increasing the number of countries with national and local disaster risk reduction strategies. The Sendai Framework is tasked from 2015 to 2030.

These frameworks, and the supporting efforts of other UN bodies have shifted disaster reduction strategy from the background of country agendas. There have been major gains in preparedness and the implementation of systems for detecting disasters. The UNISDR has tracked improvements and success stories in over 70 countries and I encourage you to investigate these listed on their website (HFA Success Stories 2014). UNESCO has launched projects in Pakistan to strengthen flood forecasting and management capacity (UNESCO 2011). And the UNDP's new “#ActNow - Save Later” campaign has urged the world to take preventative measures.

However there is much to be done in proactively preparing countries for disasters. I urge you to research these methods, but also to look beyond them. How can we reduce the ever increasing number of disasters our world is facing? How can we reduce our carbon footprint, and thus our contribution to the disasters we work so hard to prepare for?



Case Studies

Flooding Disaster in Thailand

In 2011, Thailand experienced the worst flooding in the country's recent history. According to an annual weather summary, 2011 was the "wettest year for Thailand in 61 years" with rainfall 24% above normal average, overwhelming the country with crippling floods that resulted in loss of life, destruction of infrastructure. The World Bank estimates that the floods caused about \$46 billion in economic damages and losses, with farming and manufacturing sectors being the most affected. Figures also show that the floods caused more than 500 deaths and affected the lives of 12 million Thai people. The Economic Research Institute for ASEAN and East Asia (ERIA) conducted a study on the effects and causes of the unprecedented floods, finding multiple ways that the effects of severe flooding could be mitigated in the future.

The ERIA study identified four factors that caused the disastrous floods. The first was the unprecedented, record-breaking amount of rainfall combined with five tropical storms during the mid rainy season. This excess of rain caused flash flooding and overwhelmed the rivers of Thailand over an extended period of time, worsening the effects of the floods. The second factor was the water runoff from Thai rivers. The rivers had low flow capacity, which resulted in overflowed riverbanks and persistent inundation of the areas surrounding the river. The third factor was the unsustainable development of properties and farmlands in floodplain areas. Urbanization has been rapid and unsustainable around Thailand, where some housing and industrial developments were built in areas



prone to flooding, worsening the effects of the floods. Other than Bangkok, land use zoning laws are not implemented around Thailand. There are cases where housing developments are built in areas prone to flooding because the land is cheap, which perpetuates severe flooding of populated areas. Lastly, the report also found problems in the response and preparedness of the Thai government and flood mismanagement. The slow reaction by dam operators and issues relating to influence of business interests in politics are highlighted as issues that made flood responses inefficient. There were other institutional failures that intensified the severity of the floods. Reports say that political pressure delayed the opening of dam gates as special interests wanted to avoid flooding the southern region, where Bangkok and other industrial centers are located, and they also wanted to conserve water in the dams for crop irrigation. This led to more severe flooding in the northern regions. The inefficiencies of dam management are also blamed on the “rigid and out of date Rule Curves,” which, according to engineers, were “unfit” for the extreme, continuous rain.

After the floods, the government drafted a plan to prevent future flooding disasters such as the one in 2011. The “Flood Management Master Plan” aims to mitigate and reduce flood damage and relies on improvements to structural and non-structural measures. The plan allocates \$1.6 billion to the construction of four dams in North Thailand basins, a region where the current dams and reservoirs were overwhelmed by the amount of water. \$3.9 billion were also allocated to the construction of “floodways and flood diversion channels.”

However, one of the most significant changes that will be made concerns the



efficient use of land. The plan has set aside \$1.9 billion to convert 800,000 acres of farmland surrounding one of Thailand's biggest rivers into "water retention areas." As outlined before, unsustainable use of land for farming and industrialization as well as deforestation played an important role in worsening the effects of the floods. Factories and housing developments built in areas that were formerly rice patties blocked the natural path of water runoff, allowing for floodwaters to accumulate over extended periods of time. By reclaiming these areas, the plan aims to take people out of zones prone to flooding and allow for water runoff to flow into unoccupied land, protecting population centers like Bangkok.

Some progress has been made in the years following the floods of 2011. The Community-based Livelihood Support for the Urban Poor program has helped the poor Thai communities that were most affected by the floods of 2011 by aiding them in the completion of projects that reduce flood risk in their communities. In the town of Wat Khao some of the projects aimed at reducing the risk of flooding include upgrading and building of drainage infrastructure, the paving of roads, and improvements in water pumping systems. Through the help of the community the program has improved water access and drainage systems for some of the poorest communities, which are the most prone to flooding.

Climate change has become another cause for worry for Thailand. The Chao Phraya River basin, which covers Bangkok and about 35% of Thailand, has an average elevation of 1-2m above sea level. Rising sea levels intensify the risk of flooding in Thailand's future. A study by the World Bank also found that



global warming would increase precipitation in Thailand by an average of 2-3% as well as the probability of more extreme rainfall and droughts. An increase in rainfall and rising sea levels would bring super floods to Thailand much more often, possibly once every 15 years causing multiple problems for Thailand.

Thailand recognizes that climate change and global warming endangers its future. The government has drafted a master plan that aims to transition Thailand into a low carbon society. The measures planned rely on five key strategies. First, Thailand wants to restructure its economy to become a low carbon society by taking into account the social cost of pollution and carbon emissions. Second, Thailand plans to implement green investment policies, such as improving water management, to adapt to climate change and possible increase of disaster. Third, Thailand plans to be an economy growing sustainably and become a Low Carbon Society by 2050. Fourth, the country plans to invest in foreign conservation, setting the goal of having forest cover 40% of national land area by 2050 and 50% by 2100. Lastly, the master plan will educate the public about the risks of climate change and promote more sustainable practices.

Desalination as a Means of Compensating for Extreme Drought

Freshwater is the single most vital resource to human life. We hydrate our bodies with it, clean with it, bathe in it, and even play in it. Although these uses of water are extremely important, they only account for a small amount of our use of the pure liquid. Around 80% of the freshwater that is used in the world goes toward agriculture (Kaye 2014). Between irrigating thousands of square miles of



farmland to hydrating thousands of livestock, an immense amount of freshwater is required to meet the demand for food in any given region. And as populations around the world grow at a rapid pace, so does this demand for food. However, some of the most agriculturally reliant places in the world are experiencing extreme droughts that deprive them of an adequate supply of freshwater. While some regions can cope with a lack of pure rainfall by relying upon snowmelt from nearby mountain ranges, others such as the eastern coast of Africa cannot. Fortunately, there exist a number of viable solutions to this dearth of freshwater. One such solution is desalination.

Desalination is the process of removing dissolved salt from ocean water and other types of highly salinated water. Multiple methods of desalination exist, with the two most common being reverse osmosis and electrodialysis. Reverse osmosis involves the use of pressurization and filtration to overcome osmotic pressure and expel salt from water. Electrodialysis works similarly, except it is largely characterized by its use of electricity specifically for removing salt ions from water (Burn 2015). Both of these methods of desalination are highly complex and therefore expensive, but their cost has decreased significantly over nearly two decades of large-scale use. Aside from its shrinking issue of cost, desalination offers an extreme advantage in that the volume of freshwater it can create is essentially limitless. With the majority of human population centers being near an ocean, desalination plants could be an optimal solution for not only agricultural needs, but direct use needs as well when it comes to fresh water.



Australia has been one of the earliest adopters and largest users of desalination over the past half century. After its previous reliance upon rainfall and water reservoirs proved to be inadequate, the nation invested in a series of desalination plants that served to provide homes in the Sydney and Perth regions with freshwater (Onishi 2010). As desalination methods have improved and cheapened and Australia's demand for freshwater has grown, it has built additional plants in order to start providing additional water for use in agriculture. For example, the Victorian Desalination Plant in Dalrymple that was completed in 2012 can convert 150 billion liters of seawater into freshwater a year (Paton 2016).

Within recent years, a desalination industry has arisen through the means of giants such as General Electric and Veolia (Paton 2016). As desalination grows to be a more and more effective solution to meeting freshwater demand, the private sector is looking to capitalize on the business opportunities that the technology presents. The International Desalination Association predicts that the world's desalination capacity will double by 2030 (Patton 2016). Smaller entities are also entering the desalination industry by creating more localized and sustainable means of desalination. One such entity is WaterFX, a startup that is creating smaller and more specific desalination plants in one of the world's most agriculturally producing regions, California's drought-stricken Central Valley (Kaye 2014). With this, desalination has great potential to fulfill the freshwater needs of both small and large population hubs as a greater amount of the world faces extreme drought.



Questions to Consider

- How has your country's experience with climate-related disasters changed its political, social, or economic policies towards climate change? If it hasn't, please provide reasons for why not. Please analyze at least one specific disaster in detail.
- How can we share the responsibility for climate-related disasters, considering both the global context and the domestic boundaries which they occur in?
- What proactive measures can we take to preemptively deal with climate-related disasters, including but not limited to the following areas: (1) reduce our contribution to disasters; (2) fight climate disasters; (3) limit our carbon footprint? Consider contributing factors and the long-term impact of your answer.



Works Cited

- Burn, Stewart . "Desalination Techniques — A Review Of The Opportunities For Desalination In Agriculture". *Sciencedirect.com*. N.p., 2016. Web. 13 Sept. 2016.
- Economic and Social Council. "Investment in Early Warning, Disaster Risk Reduction Crucial to Address El Niño for Well-Being of Future Generations, Speakers Tell Economic and Social Council." ECOSOC/6758, 24th Meeting (AM). 6 May 2016.
- Ellick, Adam B. "Floods Could Have Lasting Impact for Pakistan." *The New York Times*. The New York Times, 16 Aug. 2010.
- Food and Agricultural Association of the United Nations (FAO). *The Impact of Disasters on Agriculture and Food Security*. By FAO. FAO, 2015. Web. 3 May 2016.
- FAO. "World Food Day 2016." *History | FAO*. FAO, Jan. 2016.
<http://www.fao.org/world-food-day/2016/history/en/>
- FAO. "Surge in Climate Change-related Disasters Poses Growing Threat to Food Security." *Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations*. FAO, 26 Nov. 2015.
- Gordon, Mark, and Chris Spoons. "Lessons Learned from the 2011 Flooding in Thailand." *PA TIMES Online*. American Society for Public Administration, 19 July 2012. Web. 04 Sept. 2016.



Hyogo Framework for Action Post 2015, March 2015,

<http://www.unisdr.org/we/coordinate/hfa>

IPCC (2007). Climate Change 2007: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II, and III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Geneva: Panel of Climate Change

Kaye, Leon. "Can Solar Thermal Desalination Make Sustainable Agriculture Possible?". *CleanTechnica*. N.p., 2014. Web. 12 Sept. 2016.

Masters, Jeff, Dr. "Thailand's Flood Gradually Subsiding; Climate Change Increasing Thai Flood Risk." Weather Underground. Weather Underground, 14 Nov. 2011. Web.

Onishi, Norimitsu. "Arid Australia Turns To Desalination, At A Cost". *Nytimes.com*. N.p., 2014. Web. 29 Sept. 2016

Paton, James. "A Nice Glass Of Seawater? Drought Forces Australia To Rethink Desalination". *Bloomberg.com*. N.p., 2016. Web. 12 Sept. 2016.

Poapongsakorn, Nipon, and Pitsom Meethom. "Impact of the 2011 Floods, and Flood Management in Thailand." ERIA Discussion Paper Series (2013): n. pag. ERIA. ERIA: Economics Research Institute for ASEAN and East Asia, Nov. 2013. Web.



Renteria, Nelson. "El Salvador Declares Drought Emergency for First Time Ever." Reuters. Thomson Reuters, 14 Apr. 2016. Web.
<<http://www.reuters.com/article/us-el-salvador-drought-idUSKCN0XB2YM>>.

Salim, By Dizery. "Rio's Call to Action on Disaster Risk Reduction." UNISDR News. UNISDR, 22 June 2012.

Shikarpur, Omar Waraich /. "Pakistan's Floods Threaten Economy and President." Time. Time Inc., 17 Aug. 2010.

Strong, Maurice`. "Weblogic." Relief and Rehabilitation in Ethiopia. Manitou Foundation, 209. Web. 29 Sept. 2016.
<<http://www.mauricestrong.net/index.php/articles/106-ethiopia-relief-rehabilitation>>.

Thai Meteorological Department, Meteorological Development Bureau, and Climatological Center. "Annual Weather Summary of Thailand in 2011." (2011). Thai Meteorological Department. Thai Meteorological Department. Web.

UNICEF. "The State of the World's Children 2012: Children in an Urban World." UNICEF. United Nations, 2012.

UN Development Strategy and Policy Analysis Unit. "Income Convergence or Persistent Inequalities among Countries?" Development Issues 5 (n.d.): n. pag. 26 Oct. 2015.



UN Resolution 54/219, UN GA, 3 Feb 2000,

www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/54/219

UNDP. "#ActNow - Save Later." Undp.org. United Nations Development

Programme,

[.http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/get_involved/ActNow.html](http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/get_involved/ActNow.html)

UNESCO. "Pakistan Flood Response | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization." Pakistan Flood Response | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. UNESCO, 2011

UNISDR. "HFA Success Stories - The Netherlands: Dordrecht Is Getting Ready." YouTube. YouTube, 03 Oct. 2014.

USGCRP (2009). Global Climate Change Impacts in the US. Thomas R. Karl, Jerry M. Melillo, and Thomas C. Peterson (eds.). United States Global Change Research Program. Cambridge University Press, New York, NY.

World Bank "Thailand's Flood Victims on Track to Recovery and Resilience." Worldbank.org. World Bank, 25 Sept. 2015. Web. 10 Sept. 2016

World Bank. "The World Bank Supports Thailand's Post-Floods Recovery Effort." World Bank. World Bank, 13 Dec. 2011. Web. 04 Sept. 2016.

Wongsa, Kritdiyaporn, Komsak Swangswai, Thanyatorn Saipanya, and Patrawan Boonchan. "Thailand: Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review."



Climate Public Expenditures and Institutional Review (2015) Governance of
Climate Change Finance. 24 June 2015. Web.



Topic 2 | Considering Commercial Bribery in Multinational Organizations

Topic Background

Introduction

In 2015, Siemens AG to the United States Department of Justice, Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), and German Authorities paid out the largest corruption settlement in the history of the global economy. The \$1.6 billion disgorgement settlement comes as a result of seven former executives of Siemens AG, including the CFO of Siemens South America, pleading guilty to conspiring to bribe Argentine officials in a decade-long scheme to win a billion-dollar government contract. This contract would have given Siemens complete control over the implementation and enforcement of a \$1 billion deal to create national identity cards for the country (Department of Justice 2015). In the past decade, hundreds of instances of commercial bribery and corruption have been exposed and prosecuted by national governments under acts such as the United States' Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (1977), the United Kingdom's Bribery Act (2010), and China's PRC Anti-Unfair Competition Law (1993). Before we go on, it is important to define the specific type of bribery we will be focusing on in this committee.

Commercial Bribery is defined as bribery of a purchasing agent to induce the agent to enter into a transaction (Garner 1999). A classic example of commercial bribery would involve a company paying a kickback to a purchaser in order to cause that purchaser to choose the company's products rather than



those of a competitor (Dechert 2010). In sharp contrast to the bribery of government and ministerial officials, which is almost universally criminalized, private sector or commercial bribery has been widely passed over. Commercial bribery has not been criminalized in many jurisdictions and, even where it has been, is rarely prosecuted (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime 2005). This type of bribery excludes many of the political corruption cases you may be familiar with; illicit political campaign donations, cronyism, and nepotism are not examples of commercial bribery. Commercial bribery must involve a private sector entity receiving or paying funds. This practice is widespread and nothing out of the ordinary in many countries across the world.

Private sector bribery is a common occurrence in many business cultures throughout the world. Corrupt practices, such as a private company offering a government official or another company a gift, discount, waived fee, etc in exchange for some type of contract or deal is commonplace in many countries. A popular perception is that individuals, organizations, or companies from developed and wealthy countries only bribe officials from developing and less developed countries. However, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) found in its Foreign Bribery Report that of the 427 cases analyzed between 1999 and 2014, half of the cases involve bribes paid to “foreign public officials from countries with high to very high levels of human development, based on the UN Human Development Index of the country where the bribe took place (OECD Foreign Bribery Report 2014).”



Commercial Bribery has extremely damaging effects on the organizations involved and the citizens of the country where it takes place. It can eliminate competition entirely in what is supposed to be a free market economy and award contracts to companies that are drastically unfit to perform jobs. It can reduce the quality of work or services provided by companies, governments, or subsidiaries through a reduction of the amount of tax revenue and public funds there are to support citizens and public projects. It can create a culture of exploiting loopholes and deceit by illegally influencing political decision-making and legislation. It can reduce foreign direct investment with unclear opportunities and unstable markets. It can lower human capital by limiting people's access to healthcare and education. And most importantly it can cost lives. Across the globe, thousands of lives are lost every year to collapsed buildings and counterfeit medicines (Transparency International 2008). These are often linked to illicit deals given to unqualified or unsuitable companies. Across many sectors, from sports to oil & gas, widespread private corruption has damaging effects to all actors.

Recent Cases

To better understand the different types of commercial bribery, it is helpful to go over a few recent cases. These cases are only a few of the hundreds of major bribery schemes that have been prosecuted in the past decade. Many schemes have yet to be detected or investigated by national or international bodies.

Private corruption in Nigeria has been the theme of the country's economy for the past century. Between 2009 and 2011 four major construction



corporations were found guilty in some of the largest cases of foreign bribery ever. Snamprogetti of Italy, Kellogg Brown & Root Inc. (KBR) of the United States, France's Technip S.A., and JGC of Japan were part of a four-company consortium called TSKJ. The TSKJ venture "won" four contracts between 1995 and 2004 to build liquid natural gas facilities on Bonny Island, Nigeria (Cassin 2016). This was in partnership with the government-owned Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation which held 49 percent of the Bonny Island project (Cassin 2016). In total, the TSKJ contracts were worth over \$6 billion throughout the period. In the end, KBR (a subsidiary of Halliburton), paid \$579 million, Snamprogetti paid \$365 million, France's Technip paid \$338 million, and Japan's JGC Corporation paid \$218 million in fines and penalties to the DOJ and SEC.

Bribes have substantially hurt Nigeria in advancing its development status. The misappropriation or theft of funds has significantly reduced the tax base of the country; with tax revenues at 8% of GDP, Nigeria ranks as the lowest among other comparison countries (Pwc 2016). Nigeria also has the one of the lowest FDI rates at 1.1% of GDP for a resource rich country (Pwc 2016). This number reveals the lack of confidence investors have in the markets of Nigeria. These two indicators place Nigeria among the most corrupt countries in the world. Though corruption is not only limited to developing nations, bribery is exploited by developed nations and companies as well.

BAE Systems, a British aerospace company, and Europe's largest military contractor, paid \$450 million in a settlement to the United States and the U.K. in 2010. BAE is reported to have deposited over \$2 billion into bank accounts of



Prince Bandar bin Sultan, the Saudi Arabia’s former ambassador to the United States (Drew 2010). This is just a small part of the billions of dollars in payments that BAE is thought to have made to Saudi Arabian officials over a 20-year period from 1989 until 2010 (Drew 2010). The investigation uncovered “middle-men/go-between” companies that illicitly transferred money to officials in the Czech Republic, Hungary, and possibly South Africa, Tanzania, Chile, Romania, and Qatar. Though with this settlement, and the settlements previously discussed, the truth and full extent of crimes committed are not disclosed.

There has been much discussion as to whether “pre-indictment diversionary settlements—mainly deferred-prosecution and non-prosecution agreements” are the proper way of disciplining companies. Corporate settlements have become the preferred tool for dealing with economic crime by large corporations, particularly in the fields of bribery and corruption. In its 2014 Foreign Bribery Report, the OECD found that 69% of foreign bribery cases were dealt with by way of a settlement (OECD Foreign Bribery Report 2014). In a recent article, the UK-based NGO Corruption Watch argued that there is no proof in the effectiveness of settlements (Corruption Watch 2016). As more and more countries adopt settlements as a means of resolving foreign bribery cases, it is important to evaluate if they are effective in foiling bribery. In addition, CW’s article argued for the adoption of global standards in these settlements. Though opponents quickly questioned enforcing a global standard when the U.S. is one of the few countries that actually enforces anti-corruption law (Stephenson 2016).



Evidently, there is still debate as how best to handle foreign bribery cases, but no matter the outcome, the global regulatory community must speak as one.



Past International Action

Foreign Corrupt Practices Act

The United States stood alone for almost a decade in its anti-bribery legislation. As stated previously, private corruption isn't pursued heavily by many other countries and the U.S. took the lead in enacting regulation. The Foreign Corrupt Practices Act of 1977 (FCPA) made it illegal for certain people, companies, or other entities to make payments to foreign government officials to assist in obtaining or retaining business (Department of Justice 2016). The anti bribery provision specifically prohibits:

...The willful use of the mails or any means of instrumentality of interstate commerce corruptly in furtherance of any offer, payment, promise to pay, or authorization of the payment of money or anything of value to any person, while knowing that all or a portion of such money or thing of value will be offered, given or promised, directly or indirectly, to a foreign official to influence the foreign official in his or her official capacity, induce the foreign official to do or omit to do an act in violation of his or her lawful duty, or to secure any improper advantage in order to assist in obtaining or retaining business for or with, or directing business to, any person.

Since 1977, the anti-bribery provisions of the FCPA have applied to all U.S. persons and certain foreign issuers of securities (DOJ 2016). Following the creation of amendments in 1998, the anti-bribery provisions of the FCPA now also apply to foreign firms and persons who cause, directly or through agents, an act in furtherance of such a corrupt payment to take place within the territory of



the United States (DOJ 2016). As you can see from the cases covered earlier, the FCPA is the main statute through which not just U.S., but most international organizations, are prosecuted.

OECD Action & International Reform

International action towards corruption was limited until the later half of the 20th century. Without an UN ordinance or body fighting corruption, another intergovernmental organization had to step up. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was established in 1961 for the purpose of promoting policies for economic growth and the social-well being of people around the world (OECD). Until the UN established the Office on Drugs and Crime in 1997, the OECD played the leading role in engaging international corruption and bribery. After the establishment of an OECD ad hoc working group in 1989 to review the national policies on foreign bribery, the 1997 OECD anti-bribery Convention put into writing the basis for coordinated international action.

What is now known as *The Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions* was adopted in 1997 by OECD member and non-member states (IMF 2001). The convention established legally binding standards criminalizing the bribery of foreign public officials (IMF 2001). The convention, which is still updated on a consistent basis, seeks to coordinate all member, and now many non-member states, to standardize legal systems in the fight against bribery. The Convention establishes an “open-ended, peer-driven monitoring mechanism to ensure the thorough implementation of the



international obligations that countries have taken on under the Convention (Convention on Combating Bribery 1997). This monitoring is carried out by the OECD Working Group on Bribery which then produces specific country reports containing recommendations for each country (Convention on Combating Bribery 1997).

Over the last two decades international opinion regarding bribery has begun to shift towards the U.S. view. In 2002, the Council of Europe, a similar organization to the EU in its goals, produced the *Criminal Law Convention on Corruption*. It was ratified by 14 of the 47 member states, and as of 2016 there are now 46 of 53 member and observer states that have ratified the treaty. An excerpt is included below:

Each Party shall adopt such legislative or other measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences under its domestic law, when committed intentionally in the course of business activity, the promising, offering or giving, directly or indirectly, of any undue advantage to any persons who direct or work for, in any capacity, private sector entities, for themselves or for anyone else, for them to act, or refrain from acting, in breach of their duties.

This legislation seems powerful, however member states of the Council of Europe do not give up any sovereign power to join. And thus the legislation is not legally binding. Member states can choose to adhere or ignore legislation passed in the council; making it moot in prosecuting offenders of the convention. Fortunately, the EU was quick to follow suit in legislation combating commercial bribery.



The European Union Council adopted a Framework Decision (2003/568/JHA) on Combating Corruption in the Private Sector in 2003 (2003/568/JHA). Which provides that member states must criminalize both active and passive bribery in the private sector. This legislation is the first of its kind for a European economic organization. The statute's tough stance is a win for lawmakers in Europe and throughout the world. However we are only just starting to see prosecution by European agencies under this act. Prosecution under U.S. law is still the norm.

United Nation Action

ECOSOC was the first UN organ to address the effects multinational corporations have on development in developing countries. ECOSOC resolution 1721, passed at the 53rd session in 1972, tasked the Secretary-General with forming a task force to assess potentially restrictive business practices, such as cartel activities, export prohibitions, and monopoly practices (E/5209/1721/53rd Session 1972). However this resolution failed to address the possible effects of illicit payments and commercial bribery in these nations. In response to this, General Assembly resolution 3514: *Measures against corrupt practices of transnational and other corporations*, was proposed and passed in 1975. This resolution condemned all forms of international bribery and called upon governments to create strict guidelines for tackling private corruption (A/RES/3514/(XXX),1975). In addition to this, the resolution implored countries to take legal action against perpetrators of private corruption, but almost no foreign bribery cases were pursued by any country aside from the United States.



In December of 1996, the General Assembly passed the *United Nations Declaration against Corruption and Bribery in International Commercial Transactions*. The declaration expanded on Resolution 3514 by solidifying the definition of bribery and officially criminalizing the bribery of public officials, illicit enrichment, and the tax deductibility of bribes (A/RES/51/191/1996). This declaration was hailed as “landmark” and “unequivocal” by NGO Transparency International (Transparency International, 1996). ECOSOC expanded on the GA’s declaration with Resolution 1997/25, requesting international cooperation in attempts to standardize criminalization efforts (E/1997/25). ECOSOC surveyed the progress of countries in the implementation of the Declaration as requested by the Secretary General in 2002. The report found that more than half of the 47 countries who responded had adopted legislation to combat international corruption (E/CN.15/2002/6). And in the period from 1996 to 1998 prosecutions took place in five countries (E/CN.15/2002/6). Following this report a number of resolutions were adopted in ECOSOC bodies issuing similar statements on commercial bribery.

On October 31, 2003, The United Nations Convention against Corruption was adopted by the General Assembly. The UNCAC, which entered into force on December 14, 2005, echoes past resolutions and again encourages member states to criminalize both public and private commercial bribery (A/RES/58/4). Commercial Bribery has since drifted to the back burner of the UN agenda. Though ECOSOC recognizes the importance of tackling the issue. In 2012 a High Level Panel reaffirmed the UN’s interest in promoting accountability and



transparency (ECOSOC 2012). The UN has arguably reached the limit of its jurisdiction within the current system. If companies and countries are to be brought to justice, a new format or method of prosecuting companies must be constructed.

In recent years, international and regional anti-corruption legal instruments have played an important role in promoting the criminalization of commercial bribery. However, the UN Convention Against Corruption encourages, but does not require, states to criminalize commercial bribery. The U.S. has made great strides to combat private corruption throughout the world in the past fifteen years. However it is not the role of the U.S. to prosecute multinational organizations that are not U.S. companies or organizations. There must also be a way to enforce this legislation so that multinational organizations can be tried in UN or their home country's justice systems. Private corruption occurs throughout the world everyday. The recent cases of FIFA and the Olympic Committee have brought private corruption onto the main stage. But corruption happens in almost every industry, not just sports, and there is currently no international body pursuing it. This must change to allow all businesses to compete in a fair world economy. Until this happens, we are stuck with an unfair playing field, leaving honest companies and organizations with no support.



Case Studies

FIFA and the UN

Soccer, or “football” as it is more widely known, is the most popular ball game in the world. In 2006, FIFA’s Big Count survey found that 265 people actively played soccer around the world. According to the report, the countries with the most players are China, the United States, India, Germany, Brazil, Mexico, Indonesia, and Nigeria. The popularity of the sport all around the world gives different countries an opportunity to come together and interact with each other, which reflects in FIFA having 211 affiliated soccer associations. With FIFA being called the “United Nations of Football”, both FIFA and the United Nations saw a great opportunity and in 1999 signed an agreement to create various partnerships that aimed to “promote peace and development through football.” Since 1999 FIFA has worked with UN programs and agencies such as UNICEF, UNHCR, WHO, ILO, and UNDP to promote campaigns such as helping improve conditions for children during the Kosovo crisis, promoting gender equality, women’s rights, and an end to child labor, as well as raising money to end poverty in places like Haiti.

FIFA was very active in the fight against Ebola in 2014. President Sepp Blatter expressed full support after WHO identified one of the stadiums FIFA had donated to the Liberian Soccer Federation as a suitable location to set up a treatment unit. FIFA offered to cover the costs of any damage done to the stadium, pledging \$450,000 to help fight Ebola, while also launching a campaign



called “11 against Ebola” featuring famous players like Ronaldo, Neymar, and Drogba raising awareness about how to prevent spreading the disease.

Thus, in May of 2015, the world of soccer was stunned as the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) announced the indictment of nine FIFA officials and five executives for “racketeering, wire fraud and money laundering conspiracies, among other offenses.” The DOJ report alleges that media executives paid over \$150 million in bribes and kickbacks to two of FIFA’s most successful confederations, CONCACAF and CONMEBOL, to secure broadcasting rights for matches.

Further investigations into FIFA’s operations have uncovered a culture of corruption in the organization that affects efforts to promote soccer in developing nations. In 2008 FIFA sent \$10 million to CONCACAF accounts controlled by Jack Warner, then president of CONCACAF, at the request of South Africa. The money was to be used for the “Caribbean diaspora legacy programme,” which aimed to develop soccer in the Caribbean. However, almost \$5 million were given instead to a supermarket chain from Trinidad and Tobago, \$410,000 was used by Warner to pay for his credit card debt, and \$360,000 were withdrawn by people connected to Warner.

There are also reports of FIFA engaging in unfair business practices. According to sportswriter Dave Zirin, FIFA officials “forced” the Brazilian government to overturn laws that banned alcohol in soccer stadiums and at the



same time made sure local beer “could not even be sold near the stadiums,” ensuring that FIFA’s official beer had a monopoly on beer sales during games.

The level of corruption within FIFA and its confederations predominantly affects developing nations the most. Acting U.S. Attorney Kelly T. Currie says that a lot of developing nations depended on FIFA for youth development programs. As he points out, the millions that were spent on bribes and kickbacks “takes money away from soccer fields and soccer balls for kids.” According to the Livestrong Foundation, the benefits of playing sports for kids include improved social skills, better self-esteem and confidence, better health, and a lower risk of negative influences such as crime, drugs, and alcohol. These are all benefits that FIFA and the UN aimed to promote with their various partnerships.

After the DOJ indicted multiple FIFA officials, UN spokesman Stephane Dujarric made a statement in which he said that the UN was “taking a look at the existing partnerships and how the situation evolves.” The UN and FIFA have not always agreed on everything. In 2010, a UN investigator “filed a report with the UNHRC” after he concluded that “mega-sporting events, particularly the Olympic Games and FIFA Football World Cup, often result in extensive violations of the right to adequate housing,” a sentiment that has been echoed after the 2012 world cup in Brazil. However, the corruption scandal hurts the relationship between FIFA and the UN as FIFA’s alleged illegal activities taint the positive messages that the UN is trying to promote regarding “health, gender equality, and child protection.”



Siemens and Global Bribery

Large-scale public projects relating to infrastructure, power, and healthcare are some of the most highly funded in the world. They can take years or even decades to complete and commonly have budgets that amount to tens of billions of dollars. With this, there is an enormous amount of competition surrounding the contracting of these massive projects. Hundreds of international construction firms and engineering conglomerates fiercely compete around the clock to obtain these lucrative contracts. For a given project these groups will submit a bid, which will usually consist of their proposed plan, cost, and timeline for the project. The public officials that have been charged with overseeing the project must then select the most fitting contractor for the job. Ideally, the contractor with the best bid should win the project. However, the influence of commercial bribery can prevent this from happening.

Siemens is an international German engineering corporation that executes every imaginable kind of large-scale project. From designing hospital equipment to building power plants, there is little that the engineering conglomerate has not done. For over 150 years it operated as one of the most reputable and esteemed corporations in the world. However, that image was tainted by its central involvement in an international bribery scandal in the mid 2000s. It was discovered that for over a decade Siemens had included the commercial bribery of public officials as a standard part of its business strategy. It would provide individuals who were responsible for choosing the contractors of public projects with kickbacks, benefits, and most commonly, massive amounts of cash.



Siemens would use consultants and contract negotiators as middlemen to provide these bribes, showing their intention to hide their practices (Dougherty, 2008).

Siemens would only use these practices of commercial bribery in nations that lacked strong anti-bribery infrastructures. For example, it was found to have used bribes in the contract acquisition of a mass transit project in Venezuela, national identification card initiative in Argentina, cellphone network project in Bangladesh, and hospital equipment manufacturing agreement in Vietnam. The list goes on and on. It was estimated that Siemens spent around \$1.4 billion on its commercial bribery efforts from the mid 1990s to the mid 2000s (Nguyen, 2008). To put that into perspective, in that time period Siemens had annual net incomes of around \$7 billion (“Annual Report”).

In 2006 Siemens’ commercial bribery practices were discovered and deemed prosecutable by an international network of commerce oversight entities. Led by the Department of Justice and Securities and Exchange Commission, the prosecution of Siemens led to the corporation being fined \$1.6 billion. \$750 million was owed to U.S. government agencies while the remaining amount was primarily owed to German and EU government agencies. Members of these prosecuting groups have asserted that Siemens got out of the situation relatively easily and could have easily been charged more than double the amount it had if the full penalties of the laws it violated were applied (Gow, 2008).

It is important to note that even though Siemens is a German company and all of its use of commercial bribery took place outside of the US, its



prosecution was still initiated and spearheaded by the DOJ and SEC. When Siemens became listed on the New York Stock Exchange in 2001, it became subject to all of the anti-corruption laws of the United States. This is what gave the DOJ the jurisdiction to pursue a case against the corporation. If this had not been the situation, Siemens may very well have been able to continue on with its use of bribery around the world. As a result, this case does much to identify the positive effect that a more global solution to preventing commercial bribery can have.



Questions to Consider

- How can we hold domestic business actors and government officials accountable in a global business environment? Are there some areas of accountability that may be more accessible in the short term and some more appropriate for the long term?
- What is the jurisdiction and responsibility of international and regional organizations in dealing with cases of corruption, and how should we prioritize different kinds of cases and evaluate their relative effect internationally?
- How realistic is the possibility of creating an international UN transparency body or enforceable global standards for corruption cases and corporate settlements? What are the complicating factors and obstacles?



Works Cited

"About FIFA: Organisation - FIFA.com." FIFA.com. FIFA.

"Annual Report". Siemens. N.p., 2000. Web. 6 Sept. 2016.

"FIFA and the UN: 12 Years of Fruitful Collaboration." FIFA.com. FIFA, 25 Jan. 2011.

"FIFA and the United Nations Hand in Hand to Fight Ebola." FIFA.com. FIFA, 11 Sept. 2014.

"FIFA Pledges USD 450,000 to Help Fight Ebola - Call for Support of the Coordinated United Nations Response." UN News Center. UN, 26 Sept. 2014.

"Justice News." Nine FIFA Officials and Five Corporate Executives Indicted for Racketeering Conspiracy and Corruption. The United States Department of Justice, 27 May 2015.

"Top Players, FIFA, CAF and Health Experts Unite in the Fight against Ebola." FIFA.com. FIFA, 17 Nov. 2014

"UN Puts Tie-ups with FIFA under Scrutiny." UN Puts Tie-ups with FIFA under Scrutiny. AFP, 28 May 2015.

Cassin, Richard L. "JGC Resolves Criminal Charges." Fcpablog.com. FCPA, 6 Apr. 2011. Web. 14 Sept. 2016., <http://www.fcpablog.com/blog/2011/4/6/jgc-resolves-criminal-charges.html>



Corruption Watch. "Out of Court, Out of Mind: Do Deferred Prosecution Agreements and Corporate Settlements Fail to Deter Overseas Corruption."

Corruption Watch UK. Corruption Watch, Mar. 2016. <http://www.cw-uk.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/Corruption-Watch-Out-of-Court-Out-of-Mind.pdf>

Crane, Bill. "John Oliver Can't Do FIFA Justice: How the Organization Ruined Football." Saloncom RSS. Jacobin, 7 July 2015.

Dechert LLP. "Private Commercial Bribery: The next Wave of Anti-corruption Enforcement? | Lexology." Lexology.com. Dechert LLP, 14 Apr. 2010. <http://www.lexology.com/library/detail.aspx?g=9975ef8f-95c0-4a5a-8c45-27c4e800f338>

Dougherty, Eric. "Settling Bribery Case To Cost Siemens \$1.6 Billion".
Nytimes.com. N.p., 2008.

DOJ. "Former Chief Financial Officer of Siemens Argentina Pleads Guilty to Role in Multimillion Dollar Foreign Bribery Scheme." U.S. Department of Justice, 30 Sept. 2015. <https://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/former-chief-financial-officer-siemens-argentina-pleads-guilty-role-multimillion-dollar>

Drew, Christopher, and Nicola Clark. "BAE Settles Corruption Charges." The New York Times, 05 Feb. 2010. http://www.nytimes.com/2010/02/06/business/global/06bribe.html?_r=0

ECOSOC High Level Panel, Accountability, Transparency and Sustainable Development: Turning Challenges into Opportunities, 9 July 2012, United



Nations, New York https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/speeches/2012/ecosoc-event_-turning-challenges-into-opportunities.html

Garner, Bryan A., and Henry Black Campbell. *Black's Law Dictionary*. St. Paul, MN: West Group, 1999. Print.

General Assembly resolution 58/4 of 31 October 2003, United Nations Convention against Corruption, UN, 2003

Gow, David. "Record US Fine Ends Siemens Bribery Scandal". *the Guardian*. N.p., 2008. Web. 6 Sept. 2016.

IMF. "OECD: Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions, 1997." *International Documents on Corporate Responsibility*. International Monetary Fund, 18 Sept. 2001.

Kunz, Matthias. "Big Count." [Http://www.fifa.com/](http://www.fifa.com/). FIFA, 1 July 2007.

Moyles, Caitlin. "Partnership with the United Nations and Subsequent Conflicts." *Soccer Politics*. Duke University, n.d.

Nair, Lakshmy. "The Positive Effects of Playing Sports in School." *LIVESTRONG.COM*. LIVESTRONG.COM, 28 Jan. 2015.

Nguyen, Dan. "The World Wide Web Of Siemens'S Corruption". *ProPublica*. N.p., 2008. Web. 6 Sept. 2016.

OECD. "An Analysis of the Crime of Bribery of Foreign Public Officials." *OECD Foreign Bribery Report*. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2 Dec. 2014.



OECD. "OECD Convention on Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions." OECD. OECD, 1997.

Pwc. "Impact of Corruption on Nigeria's Economy." Impact of Corruption on Nigeria's Economy (n.d.): n. pag. Pwc.com. Pricewaterhousecoopers, 2016. Web.

Report of the Secretary of General, Economic and Social Council, Implementation of the United Nations Declaration against Corruption and Bribery in International Commercial Transactions, 15 February 2002, <https://www.unodc.org/pdf/crime/commissions/11comm/6e.pdf>

Resolution 1721 (LIII) Economic and Social Council official records, 53rd session, 3-28 July 1972. New York : UN

Resolution 3514 (XXX), General Assembly, Measures against corrupt practices of transnational and other corporations, their intermediaries and others involved, 2441st plenary meeting, 15 December 1975. New York

Stephenson, Matthew. "Against Global Standards in Corporate Settlements in Transnational Anti-Bribery Cases." The Global Anticorruption Blog. GAB, 29 Mar. 2016.

Transparency International. "Corruption in Intergovernmental Bodies." Transparency.org. Transparency International, 2008

Transparency International. "United Nations Issues Landmark Declaration Against Corruption." Transparency International, 17 Dec. 1996. Web.



<[http://www.transparency.org/news/pressrelease/united_nations_issues_lan
dmark_declaration_against_corruption](http://www.transparency.org/news/pressrelease/united_nations_issues_lan
dmark_declaration_against_corruption)>.

Thomas, Ed, Peter Murtaugh, and Ashley Semler. "Fifa Corruption: Documents Show Details of Jack Warner 'bribes'" BBC News. BBC News, n.d.

UNODC. "Background of UNODC." Convention against Corruption. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2005. Web.

United States. Department of Justice. Foreign Corrupt Practices Act. By FCPA. 15 U.S.C. §§ 78dd-1, et seq U.S. Department of Justice. U.S. Department of Justice, 1977. Web. 14 Sept. 2016.

European Union Council adopted a Framework Decision (2003/568/ JHA)

Weil, Eric. "Football." Encyclopedia Britannica Online. Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d. Web. 29 July 2016.