

GREENWOOD HIGH
JUNIOR MODEL UNITED NATIONS

BACKGROUND GUIDE



UNGA

AGENDA

STRENGTHENING UN-COORDINATED
MEASURES TO MANAGE THE
ESCALATION OF PROXY CONFLICTS

Letter from the Executive Board

Greetings Delegates!

It is our pleasure to welcome you to the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) of the 2026 Edition of Greenwood High Junior Model United Nations.

We, the executive board of the UNGA, hope you are as eager as we are to engage in constructive debate over the course of this conference on the agenda; “Strengthening UN coordinated measures to manage the escalation of proxy conflicts”. We implore you to step into the shoes of an actual delegate in the UNGA and understand that this conference has the potential to affect the lives of countless people suffering due to any one of the multiple proxy conflicts ongoing in the world today. Also, it is key for you to realise that this agenda is incredibly nuanced: all delegates must have extensive knowledge of the past measures and mechanisms that were implemented to ascertain what conflicts are classified as proxy conflicts and how to avoid the development of such crises. Most importantly, you must be aware of the vast amount of international law that applies to the humanitarian protection of people during periods of conflict.

We understand that this is a tall order, thus we have curated this Background Guide to help introduce you to the relevant aspects of this agenda and help catalyse fruitful debate. However you must understand that this is only the foundation, do not end your research here. Please delve deeper into the challenges regarding the prevention and prohibition of proxy conflicts that we have introduced to you in this guide and search for plausible solutions to overcome them. Additionally, this should go without saying but, use credible sources. Wikipedia is NOT a credible source. If you use Artificial Intelligence to assist you in your research, double-check everything. Information from the United Nations, your own/fellow government’s sources and certain media outlets is generally considered credible.

Lastly, understand that good preparation is important but whether or not you receive an award is entirely contingent on how you showcase your competence within the committee. The success of the committee hinges entirely on the ability of you, the delegates, to incite and contribute to debate that results in the creation of a draft resolution that encompasses all the aspects of this agenda. We as the Executive Board promise to do our part in creating an environment where you all feel comfortable speaking, and we expect your very best attempt in return. Do not hesitate to reach out if you have any questions.

Looking forward to seeing each and every one of you excel at GWHJMUN 2026.

Head Chairperson: Aarya Poddar, aarya.poddar@gmail.com

Vice Chairperson: Nimit Akhawat, nimit@isecol.com

Moderator: Adrit Gulati, adrit.gulati@gmail.com

Introduction to Committee

The United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) is the primary deliberative, policymaking, and representative organ of the United Nations, comprising all 193 Member States with equal voting rights. While its resolutions are recommendatory in nature and not legally binding, they carry significant political and moral weight, often shaping international law and guiding Security Council action.

Under the UN Charter, the General Assembly holds the authority to:

- Discuss and make recommendations on any matters within the scope of the Charter (Article 10).
- Consider and make recommendations on principles of cooperation in the maintenance of peace and security, though it cannot authorize enforcement measures (Article 11).
- Discuss questions relating to international peace and security, except where the Security Council is already exercising its functions (Article 12).
- Initiate studies and make recommendations to promote the development and codification of international law (Article 13).
- Approve the UN budget and oversee financial matters (Article 17).

The UNGA is particularly important in debates around the Responsibility to Protect (R2P) because:

1. It provides a universal platform where all states, regardless of size or power, can express concerns about interventions carried out in the name of R2P.
2. It has adopted key resolutions codifying R2P principles (2005 World Summit Outcome Document, GA Res. 60/1).
3. It can call for advisory opinions from the International Court of Justice (ICJ) and establish special investigative mechanisms.
4. Unlike the Security Council, it is not subject to veto, making it a crucial forum when great power interests block consensus in the UNSC.

Introduction to Agenda:

Proxy conflicts in international relations

Proxy conflicts are characterized by indirect engagement between external actors through local parties known as “proxies”. These proxies act in the interests of their supporters, often carrying out military operations and assuming administrative control over regions. Instead of direct engagement, external parties contribute to conflicts through means like providing military aid, logistical support, and intelligence sharing. This type of engagement has become a prominent feature in modern warfare, creating new challenges which hinder conflict resolution and diplomatic relations.

Proxy conflicts blur the line between international and regional conflicts, due to their nature of being “layered”. Involvement of foreign nations in proxy conflicts happens at different stages, with foreign powers being sponsors of conflict to intermediaries. This feature of proxy conflicts being simultaneously international and regional makes ceasefire agreements, accountability and regulation through international frameworks difficult. This agenda focuses on how the United Nations can improve their ability to effectively respond to instances of proxy warfare across the globe.

The United Nations handles proxy conflicts by upholding the principles and regulations outlined in the UN charter, classified under the UN’s broader goals of conflict resolution. In history, the UN has intervened in various proxy conflicts, notably attempting to resolve the conflict by mediating dialogue with involved international states, and investigating instances of foreign intervention during warfare.

As of today, proxy conflicts are classified under a gray area, as direct involvement is regulated while indirect participation is often left unchecked, often leading to the existence of loopholes and ambiguity in legal frameworks. Such conflicts also involve non-state actors which are not bound to the current legal frameworks that regulate such conflicts, leading to further regulatory ambiguity.

Causes of Proxy Conflicts:

1. Geopolitical Rivalries Between Major Powers:

The most significant reason for proxy conflicts is the strategic rivalry between states, especially major and regional powers. In the contemporary international system, direct interstate war is increasingly costly due to:

- nuclear deterrence,
- economic interdependence,
- reputational and legal consequences.

As a result, states pursue indirect warfare by supporting local actors who fight on their behalf.

Proxy warfare allows states to:

- project power without triggering full-scale war,
- weaken adversaries while maintaining plausible deniability,
- test military capabilities and influence outcomes at lower political cost.

Once rival states back opposing sides, local conflicts become internationalized. Peace negotiations stall because:

- proxies answer to external sponsors, not just domestic interests,
- sponsors view the conflict as part of a broader strategic contest.

This turns conflicts into long-duration wars, sustained by external interests rather than local grievances.

Now, because these rivalries often cause a lot of trouble in the United Nations Security Council, the United Nations General Assembly becomes the only forum capable of:

- de-escalatory norm setting,
- collective political pressure,
- confidence-building coordination.

Impact of Proxy Conflicts:

Proxy conflicts leave a profound impact on the parties involved, often affecting humanitarian, economic, cultural, and social aspects of the region.

Proxy warfare impacts regions by creating long-term humanitarian emergencies due to the fact that external support fuels regional belligerents to continue the conflict for extended periods of time, therefore increasing overall civilian casualties. The extended nature of these conflicts means that infrastructure faces sustained damage rather than a single instance of damage.

This continual destruction means that attempts to repair infrastructure are often temporary fixes rather than long-term fixes, creating a cycle where infrastructure is in a permanent state of disrepair. The dangerous conditions in war-affected regions mean that attempts at repair are often halted, citing safety concerns. Furthermore, international humanitarian aid networks are complicated due to the involvement of multiple international actors, making funding and coordination unorganized.

Proxy warfare disrupts the flow of everyday life, with prolonged violence leaving a lasting psychological impact on the civilian population. Children growing up in such environments face a disrupted education and trauma which persists even in their adult life. As a result of conflict, families are often torn apart, ripping people from emotional support systems.

Proxy warfare hinders economic development as key infrastructure like roads, power grids, and manufacturing units are either destroyed or shifted towards absolute necessities, creating a “survival-based” economy. Such economies have significantly reduced revenue, weakening the state’s financial capacity. Furthermore, the survival economy will divert funds from investment in the economy, reducing its stability. Secondly, long-term instability in regions may decrease foreign financial investment in regions, creating an almost stagnant economy.

CASE STUDIES

Ukraine

The Russo-Ukrainian war in eastern Europe, ongoing since 2014, has been a key example of proxy dynamics working alongside direct warfare. The conflict arose following a shift in Ukraine's foreign policy, with Ukraine hoping to integrate with the European Union. The beginning of the conflict was marked by Russia annexing Crimea, which was followed by armed conflict in the Donetsk and Luhansk regions between Ukrainian armed forces and local separatist groups, backed by the Russian government. As of February 2022, the conflict has escalated into a full-scale war concentrated in the regions of Donetsk, Kharkiv, Zaporizhzhia, Kherson, Luhansk, Sumy, Dnipropetrovsk, and Chernihiv following Russia's invasion. Since then, Ukraine has notably received backing from the United States, NATO, and the EU. Ukraine also observed a 28.8% decrease in GDP in this year, which required a 16.6 billion USD loan to stabilize the economy. As of 2025, the war has claimed a total of around 63,000 lives in Ukraine.

2014 – 2021

This period was marked by indirect contributions from the Russian Federation to separatist groups in Donetsk and Luhansk. The extent of these contributions varied, with Russia providing military equipment, training, and logistical support. On the other hand, Ukraine was supported by the USA, NATO members, and the EU, who contributed by providing military training, intelligence sharing, and diplomatic & economic aid (the imposition of sanctions on Russia). These years were also characterized by occasional armed conflicts and attempts at diplomatic reconciliation (Minsk Agreements).

2022 – today

On the 24th of February 2022, Russia launched a full-scale invasion of Ukraine, marking an end to its indirect contribution to the war. After that occurred, Ukraine began to receive significantly more aid from its supporters. The resources given include advanced military hardware, financial and humanitarian aid, increased intelligence sharing, training and logistical guidance for Ukrainian armed forces.

Timeline

2013–2014

Political unrest in Ukraine leads to a change in government. Russia annexes Crimea. Pro-Russian separatist groups emerge in Donetsk and Luhansk with Russian backing, marking the beginning of a proxy-style conflict.

2014–2015

Armed conflict escalates in eastern Ukraine. Minsk agreements are signed to establish ceasefires. Separatist forces act as local proxies while Ukraine receives Western support through training, and aid.

2016–2021

Conflict enters a prolonged low-intensity phase. Russia continues indirect support to separatists. NATO and EU states expand military cooperation and assistance to Ukraine without direct troop deployment.

February 2022

Russia launches a full-scale invasion of Ukraine, transitioning the conflict from indirect proxy engagement to direct interstate warfare.

2022–Present

Ukraine receives extensive support from Western states. External powers avoid direct combat involvement, maintaining proxy dynamics alongside direct combat.

Yemeni Civil War:

The Yemeni Civil War originated in Yemen's long-standing political fragility and unresolved power struggles, but it evolved into a proxy conflict due to sustained external intervention by regional powers. Following the Arab Spring in 2011, Yemen entered a weak and incomplete political transition marked by economic collapse, corruption, and institutional failure. These conditions enabled the Houthi movement (Ansar Allah), a northern armed group with deep local grievances, to expand its influence and eventually seize the capital, Sana'a, in 2014. The collapse of central authority and the flight of the internationally recognized government created a power vacuum that attracted regional involvement. In March 2015, Saudi Arabia led a coalition to intervene militarily in support of the Yemeni government, viewing the Houthis as a security threat and a means through which Iran could expand its regional influence. Iran, while denying direct control, has been widely reported by UN experts and international observers to provide the Houthis with political support, weapons, and military assistance. Rather than engaging each other directly, Saudi Arabia and Iran advanced their strategic interests indirectly through Yemeni actors, transforming Yemen into a battlefield for regional rivalry. This external sponsorship prolonged the conflict, intensified militarization, reduced incentives for compromise, and shielded sponsoring states from direct accountability. As a result, what began as a domestic political crisis evolved into a sustained proxy war, exemplifying how local conflicts can escalate when weak states intersect with geopolitical competition and insufficient international coordination—directly reinforcing the relevance of the agenda “Strengthening UN coordinated measures to manage the escalation of proxy conflicts.”

Timeline

2011 – Arab Spring

Mass protests forced President Ali Abdullah Saleh to step down. Yemen enters a fragile political transition under President Abdrabbuh Mansur Hadi, with weak institutions and unresolved regional grievances.

2012–2013 – State is Weakened

Economic decline, corruption, and political exclusion persist. Armed groups, including the Houthis, expand influence as the government fails to consolidate authority.

2014 – Houthi Takeover of Sana'a

The Houthis seize the capital and key state institutions. The Yemeni government loses effective control, marking the collapse of central authority and the emergence of a power vacuum.

Early 2015 – Internationalisation of the Conflict

President Hadi flees Yemen. Saudi Arabia forms and leads a military coalition to restore the recognised government, citing regional security concerns.

March 2015 – Yemeni Proxy War

Saudi-led coalition intervention begins. Iran is widely reported to increase support to the Houthis. Yemen becomes a site of indirect Saudi–Iranian rivalry rather than a purely domestic conflict.

2016–2018 – Militarisation

Sustained arms flows, airstrikes, and missile attacks entrench the conflict. UN-led peace efforts struggle as proxy sponsors continue military support to their respective allies.

2019–2021 – Worsened Humanitarian Crisis

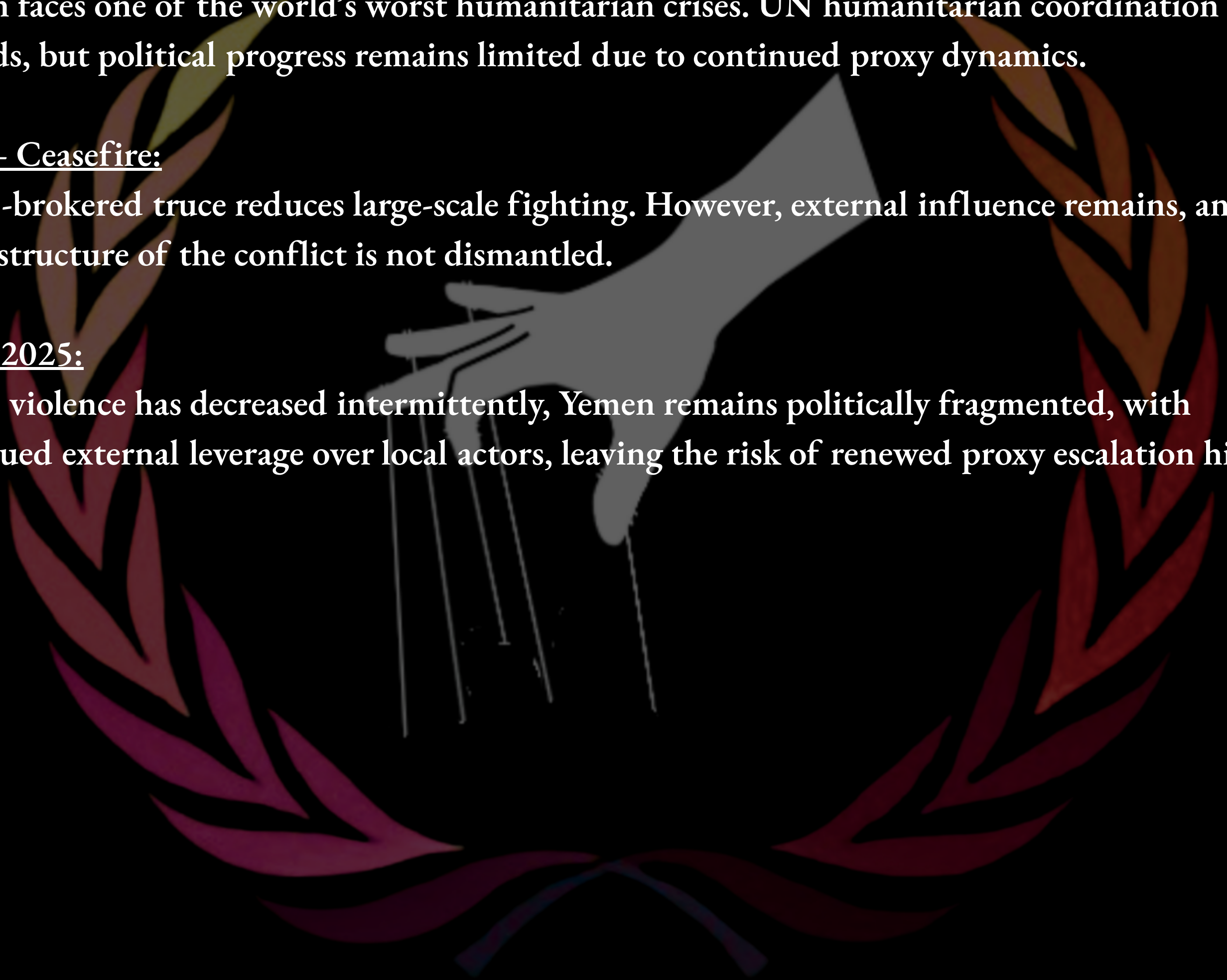
Yemen faces one of the world's worst humanitarian crises. UN humanitarian coordination expands, but political progress remains limited due to continued proxy dynamics.

2022 – Ceasefire:

A UN-brokered truce reduces large-scale fighting. However, external influence remains, and the proxy structure of the conflict is not dismantled.

2023–2025:

While violence has decreased intermittently, Yemen remains politically fragmented, with continued external leverage over local actors, leaving the risk of renewed proxy escalation high.



Israel-Palestine

The Israel–Palestine conflict originated as a territorial and political dispute rooted in competing national claims, colonial legacies, and unresolved questions of statehood following the end of the British Mandate in Palestine. While the conflict began as a largely bilateral struggle between Israelis and Palestinians, it has progressively taken on the characteristics of a proxy conflict due to sustained involvement by regional and global actors pursuing broader strategic, ideological, and security interests. Israel has received long-standing diplomatic, military, and financial support from external powers—most notably the United States—which has strengthened its military capacity and international position. On the Palestinian side, armed groups such as Hamas and Palestinian Islamic Jihad have received varying degrees of political, financial, and military backing from regional actors including Iran, as part of wider regional rivalries. These external actors do not engage Israel directly but instead influence the conflict through support to local actors, using the Palestinian arena to project power, deter adversaries, and advance ideological narratives. As a result, periods of escalation are often shaped not only by local events but also by regional tensions, turning Gaza and the broader Palestinian territories into indirect battlegrounds for Middle Eastern geopolitics. This proxy dimension has prolonged violence, reduced incentives for compromise, complicated peace negotiations, and limited accountability, demonstrating how external sponsorship can intensify and internationalize an otherwise localized conflict—thereby underscoring the relevance of strengthening UN-coordinated measures to manage proxy escalation.

Timeline

1917–1947 – Beginning of the Conflict

The Balfour Declaration and subsequent British Mandate period create competing Jewish and Arab national claims over Palestine, laying the groundwork for future conflict.

1948 – Establishment of Israel and the first Arab israel war

The establishment of Israel led to war with neighbouring Arab states and large-scale Palestinian displacement (Nakba). The conflict is regional but not yet proxy-driven.

1967 – The Six-Day War...

Israel captures the West Bank, the Gaza Strip, and East Jerusalem. Palestinian resistance increasingly becomes the central focus, while regional states begin supporting different Palestinian factions.

Late 1980s – First Intifada

A mass Palestinian uprising highlights the limits of military control and brings international attention, but external involvement remains largely political rather than militarised.

2000–2005 – Second Intifada

The conflict becomes more violent. Armed Palestinian groups gain prominence, and external actors begin to see Palestinian factions as strategic partners.

2006–2007 – Taking Control over Gaza

Hamas wins Palestinian elections and takes control of Gaza. Israel imposes a blockade. Iran and allied actors increase support to Hamas, while Israel continues to receive strong Western backing—marking a clearer proxy dimension.

2008–2014 – Multiple Gaza Wars

Repeated rounds of conflict occur between Israel and Hamas. Each escalation reflects not only local triggers but also broader regional rivalries, with external actors supplying weapons, funding, and diplomatic cover.

2018–2021

Tensions in Gaza coincide with shifting Middle Eastern alliances. The conflict increasingly functions as a pressure point within Iran–Israel and Iran–US regional dynamics.

2023–Present – Situation Worsens...

Large-scale violence renews fears of regional escalation, with Hezbollah and other Iran-aligned groups positioning themselves rhetorically and militarily. External actors intensify diplomatic and military posturing, reinforcing the proxy nature of the conflict.



Syrian Civil War

In March of 2011 the Arab Spring brought challenges to the Syrian Government led by President Bashar Al Assad. The pro-democratic movement called for the end to Authoritarian practices of the Assad Regime. Soon, this conflict had many external actors involved - each with differing motives. The Assad Regime backed by Russia, Hezbollah, and Iran while the Rebel groups such as the Free Syrian Army had the support of Turkey, The United States and several other Gulf states. Terrorist groups and Islamic Extremist groups - notably ISIS - took advantage of the chaotic atmosphere and seized territory till 2017, causing several humanitarian challenges. However these groups were ultimately defeated by the Kurdish and U.S. led forces. Kurdish forces such as the Syrian Democratic Forces were also supported by the U.S. and focused on gaining Kurdish Autonomy within the Syrian State. However, these forces were opposed by the Turkish who viewed (and continue to view) the Kurdish militias as terrorist organisations.

The proxy war only further exacerbated the instability within Syria since each of the actors had varying objectives.

Russia: Aimed to protect the Assad Regime.

Iran: Aimed to preserve the regional “Shia Axis”

United States: Aimed to fight ISIS and oppose Iranian efforts.

Turkey: Aimed to prevent the formation of a Kurdish State.

Saudi Arabia: Aimed to counter Iranian efforts.

This conflict has caused an incredible refugee crisis with refugees fleeing to host countries like Turkey, Lebanon, and Jordan with many more that are internally displaced. Children are also vulnerable with UNICEF reporting 7.4 million children in need of humanitarian assistance. At least 16.5 million people are in need of humanitarian access.

Syria remains a conflicted region that is economically collapsed, politically isolated, and divided into zones of control.

Timeline

March 2011- Uprising begins

2012-2013 - Major cities like Aleppo become battlefields.

2014- Rise of ISIS involvement. ISIS declares a caliphate in Syria and Iraq. Shifts focus from Assad to counter-terrorism efforts.

2015- Russian intervention causes a turning point in the conflict. Airstrikes in support of Assad shifts the power decisively in Assad's favour.

2016 - Assad Regime takes over the Rebel Occupied areas of Aleppo, the Regime now controls all major western cities.

2017-2019- ISIS loses more territory, the Syrian Democratic Forces capture ISIS strongholds with ISIS support.

2020 - Stalemate occurs and Syria is ultimately divided into Government held areas, Kurdish Controlled northeast, and Rebel-held Idlib.

2021- Assad gets reelected in the Syrian Presidential election. This symbolically confirms regime continuity and collapse looks increasingly unlikely.

2023- Syria is readmitted into the Arab League and is “normalised” by Arab States reopening embassies. Assad starts attending regional summits.

2024-2025 - Assad remains in power. War is not resolved simply de-escalated and Syria remains fragmented.



Legalities

International law comprises both Customary International Law and Treaty Law. These types of law have some key fundamental differences. Both types are essential to know about in order to build a proper legal argument regarding the propagation of proxy conflicts.

Customary International Law:

Customary International Law is law that is not codified but accepted as general practice. It works on the subjective idea of “*opinio juris*” that the provisions stated under Customary International Law should be “accepted as law”. Customary International Law is always binding unless a state has been a persistent objector. For this agenda, one aspect of customary international law is especially important:

- *Principle of Non-Intervention.*

This principle forbids states from intervening in the internal affairs of other states. This includes involvement such as supporting Non-State Actors violates sovereignty unless otherwise justified by other articles of international law.

Another example of Customary International Law are the Jus Cogens Norms:

- Absolute restriction on genocide
- Absolute restriction on slavery or slave trade
- Absolute restriction on torture or other inhuman treatment
- Absolute restriction on prolonged arbitrary detention
- Absolute restriction on racial discrimination

The Caroline Test is also another important part of Customary International Law which outlines the limits of self-defence. It outlines two main provisions:

- *Necessity* → Self defence is only lawful when there is an evident, overwhelming, and imminent threat.
- *Proportionality* → The defensive response must be strictly limited to what is necessary to repel the threat experienced. Ie: Excessive or retaliatory force is illegal even if some self-defence is justified.

Treaty Law:

Treaty law is law that is codified by being formally written out. Treaties bind only to those states that have expressed their consent to be bound, normally by ratification of the treaty. Below are a few important documents and relevant articles.

Under treaty law, humanitarian law has two broad categories: International Humanitarian Law (IHL) and Human Rights Law. Although some of the provisions are similar and complementary, these two bodies of law were developed separately and are applied in different contexts.

Human Rights Law applies during all times, both peace and conflict. It includes documents like the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)*, the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)*, and the *International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)*. These 3 documents together form the International Bill of Human Rights. Outside of the International Bill of Human Rights, Human Rights Law also includes the 1951 Refugee Convention, its 1967 protocol, both of which will be relevant to you for this committee.

Conversely, International Humanitarian Law applies only during *armed conflict* that could be international or non-international. International armed conflict is defined as: “The conflicts in which at least 2 states are involved.” Non-international armed conflict is defined as: “Those restricted to the territory of a single state involving either regular armed forces fighting armed dissidents or armed groups fighting each other.” Both these definitions are relevant for your use of IHL in committee. Documents under IHL include the *Geneva Conventions and their protocols*. It is important that you study both Human Rights Law and International Humanitarian Law to understand the humanitarian rights afforded to those caught in the midst of proxy conflicts. Some relevant articles will also be listed below:

- UN Charter:

- Article 2(4): Prohibits the use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of another state. Funding, arming, or directing proxy forces, may constitute an indirect use of force.
- Article 2(7): Outlines the principle of Non-intervention, declares that nothing in the UN Charter authorises a state to involve itself in the domestic internal activities of another state. It provides a caveat for enforcement measures under Chapter VII.
- Article 51: Outlines that nothing in the charter impacts the right of individual or collective self defence that states have should there be an attack against their sovereignty.

- ICCPR:

- Article 6: Outlines the right to life.
- Article 7: Prohibits torture.
- Article 9: Right to liberty and security of person. Prohibits arbitrary arrests.
- Article 12(1-3): Outlines the right to freedom of movement.
- Article 12 (4): “No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of the right to enter his own country”.

- Geneva Conventions:

- Common Article 3: Protects civilians and injured soldiers from inhumane treatment and discrimination.
- 4th Convention - Article 49: prohibits forcible transfers or deportations of protected persons from occupied territory.
- Additional Protocol I - Article 48: Mandates that states distinguish between civilians and military objects, taking action only against the latter.
- Additional Protocol I - Article 51: Forbids indiscriminate attacks against nations, provides a definition for the same.
- Additional Protocol I - Article 52: Outlines the criteria for areas to be considered civilian areas, including in the event that there is doubt about military activities.

- Arms Trade Treaty

- Article 6: Prohibits the transfer of weapons if the intended use is for crimes against humanity, genocide, breaches of the Geneva Conventions, attacks against civilians or any other war crimes.
- Article 7: States that state parties must carry out a risk-assessment of the potential that arms being exported will be used to violate or undermine IHL norms and ensure that appropriate mitigation measures have been adopted to prevent the same. If the measures are insufficient, the state shall not authorise transport.
- Article 11: States that state parties must ensure that the Arms being transported are not diverted. States must develop mitigation measures and all involved state parties should communicate and engage in intelligence sharing. Also outlines the necessity of follow up investigations should diversions occur.

- International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism (ICSFT):

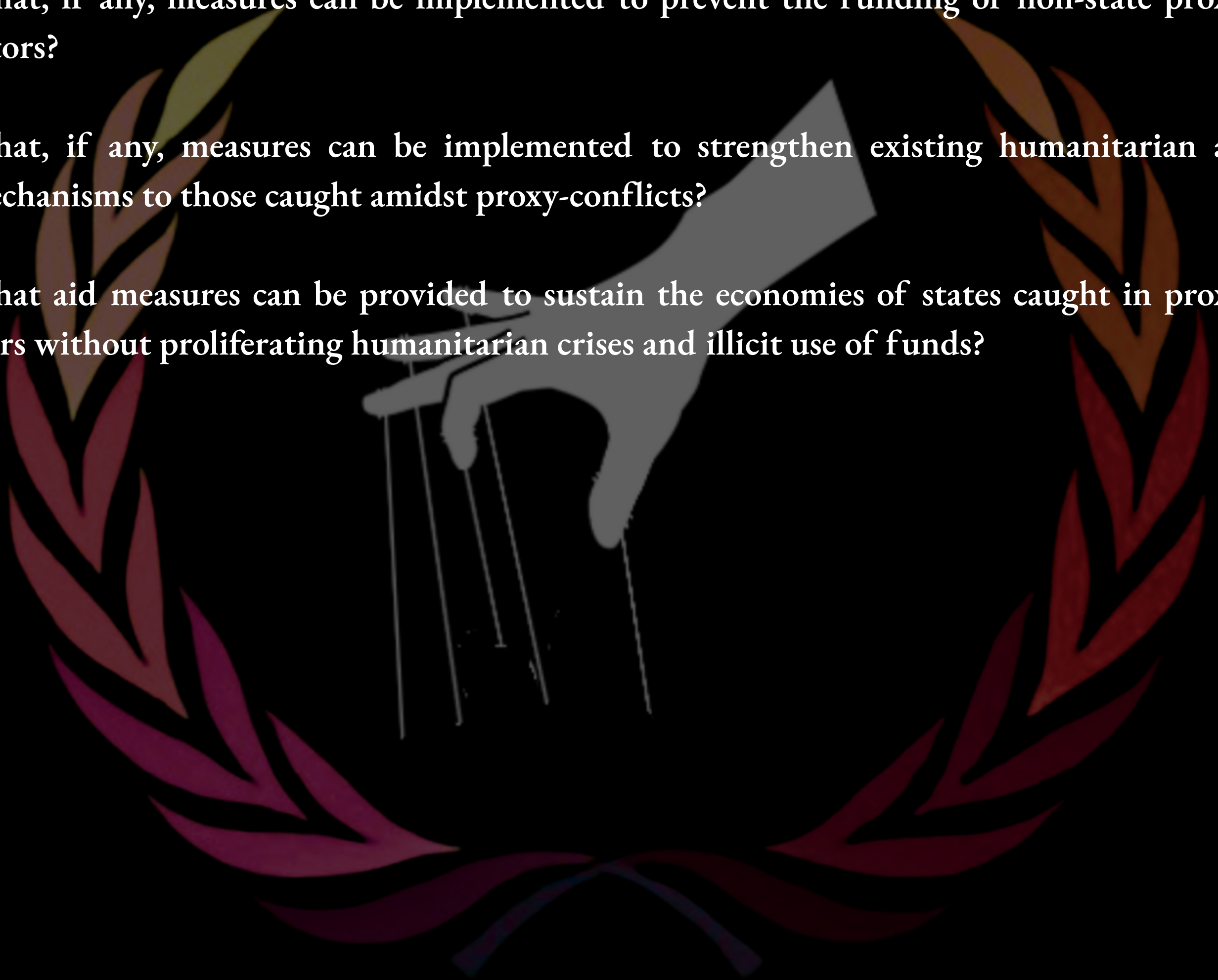
- Article 2: Criminalises the direct or indirect provision of funds with the knowledge or intention that they be used to carry out any offensive act against civilians or people not in active military combat.
- Article 4: Advises state parties to criminalise acts as mentioned in Article 2 offenses under their national law with appropriate penalties.
- Article 8: States that state parties must carry out the identification, detection, freezing, and forfeiture of funds used, allocated to use, or derived from the offences outlined.
- Article 9: Mandates that states carry out appropriate investigative measures, and once convinced that the situation warrants penalisation, appropriately penalise offending individuals that have committed offences outlined in Article 2.
- Article 12: Mandates that state parties provide each other with the maximum amount of legal assistance; bank secrecy not being a valid exemption from this obligation.
- Article 18: Mandates that states adopt national legislation to implement measures to prohibit individuals from commencing illegal offences, outlines the measures that financial institutions must maintain to adequately prevent illegal offences from occurring.

- ICJ. Jurisprudence: USA v/s Nicaragua

- USA v/s Nicaragua sets the precedent for the standards of third-party involvement.
- Following USA's funding of the Contra rebels within Nicaragua under the premise of Collective Self Defence as outlined under Article 51 of the UN Charter.
- The court ruled in favour of Nicaragua given that none of the measures outlined by the Caroline Test were met and the United States was not invited to intervene.
- This case acts as a precedent against third-party intervention in the following ways:
 - Indirect use of force still violates the prohibition on the use of force and the principle of non-intervention as outlined under Article 2(4) and 2(7) of the UN Charter respectively.
 - A state is responsible for the actions of a Non-State Armed group only if it exercises effective control over specific operations. The USA did not meet this threshold for all Contra actions thus they did not have full legal responsibility for every violation made by the Contras.
 - Collective Self-Defence is only lawful if an armed attack has occurred, the victim state has requested assistance and the response is necessary and proportional. Thus, proxy-involvement is not justified under claims of preemptive self-defence.
 - Customary international law applies even if states contest treaty jurisdiction.
 - Unlawful intervention was defined as - Coercive interference in state's political, economic, or military affairs.

Questions A Resolution Must Answer (QARMA):

- How can the United Nations prevent proxy-conflicts without violating principles of non-intervention?
- What penalties may the United Nations impose on actors in proxy-conflicts in order to keep them accountable for their actions?
- What, if any, measures can be implemented to prevent the funding of non-state proxy-actors?
- What, if any, measures can be implemented to strengthen existing humanitarian aid mechanisms to those caught amidst proxy-conflicts?
- What aid measures can be provided to sustain the economies of states caught in proxy-wars without proliferating humanitarian crises and illicit use of funds?



Rules of Procedure:

Rules of procedure refer to the formal conduct delegates are expected to maintain during the conference. It is essential to adhere to the rules and maintain decorum for the smooth flow of the committee. For this conference, we will be adhering to the UNA-USA format of rules of procedure.

Begin formal session

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allotted country” puts forward a motion to begin the formal session.

Setting the Agenda

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allotted country” puts forward a motion to set the agenda as “Agenda of the committee”.

Roll call

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allotted country” raises a motion to begin a roll call. When your allotted country is called upon during the roll call, you have two options either say “present and voting” or simply say “present”. (Note: If a delegate says “present and voting”, they cannot abstain from voting on the resolution at the end of committee.)

General Speaker's list

Committee generally begins formal debate by starting the ‘GSL’ (General Speaker's list). It serves the purpose of allowing a delegate to express their stance on the agenda. A GSL is non-exhaustive. Committee reverts back to the GSL after every motion elapses.

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allotted country” raises a motion to establish the general speakers' list.

Moderated Caucus

This motion can be raised when the committee wants to debate on a specific topic.

How to raise it?: The delegate of “your allotted country” raises a motion to suspend formal session/debate and move into a Moderated Caucus on “topic” for a time period of “x” minutes allotting “x” minute per speaker. In case a delegate does not get recognized to speak, a delegate can send in your point through substantive chit.

Format of substantive chit:

Substantive chits are written as follows;

To: The Executive Board

From Delegate of: (your allocated country)

Unmoderated Caucus

This motion is proposed when delegates wish to discuss the committee's status among themselves and further evaluate their next actions.

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allotted country” raises a motion to suspend formal debate and move into an unmoderated Caucus for a time period of “x” minutes.

Points

1) Point of Parliamentary Enquiry: This point is raised by a delegate to clarify anything regarding the rules of procedure or to know the status of the committee (For example: to know which delegate is speaking next/ if the EB is accepting more speakers)

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allocated country” raises a point of a parliamentary inquiry.

2) Point of Personal Privilege: This point is raised by a delegate to address a personal issue. (For example: to ask another delegate to repeat a point they made in their speech/to be excused from the committee)

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allocated country” raises a point of personal privilege.

3) Point of Order: This point can be raised by a delegate to point out logical or factual inaccuracies in the speeches of other delegates.

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allocated country” raises a point of order, Factual inaccuracy/ Logical Fallacy (either one)

4) Point of Information: This is raised when a delegate wants to ask questions about another delegate's speech.

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allocated country” raises a point of information
If you ask a question and are still not satisfied with the answer, you can raise a follow-up question right after the delegate answers.

How to raise it? : The delegate of “your allocated country” wants to raise a follow-up question
(Note: This point can be denied if the Chairperson feels so).

If a delegate wants to ask a question VIA chit, you can use this format :

POINT OF INFORMATION

TO: Delegate of “country you want to question”

VIA: Executive Board

FROM: Delegate of “your allotted country”

* *state the question* **

Working Paper

A working paper is the preliminary draft of solutions that the committee comes up with, and is usually turned in and presented by the blocs on the second day. They serve as a basis for delegates to see which blocs have stances that align with theirs and to subsequently merge for drafting the final resolution.

Working papers have no strict format. That is, operative and preambulatory clauses are not required, and the paper can be presented in a series of rough points as well.

Sponsors are delegates who have contributed the most towards writing the working paper. For presentation and Q&A, any delegate from the bloc can come up to present the paper and answer relevant questions.

Draft Resolution

A draft resolution or resolution, contains all the solutions that committee wants to introduce in the form of a formal document that will be discussed and put to vote in front of the committee. If passed, this acts as a set of suggestions and recommendations to those who agree with it on the issue at hand.

Sponsors are those who have majorly written the resolution, whose countries must agree with every clause and amendment. The number of sponsors is usually kept between 2 and 4, this will be informed to the committee on the day of the conference.

Signatories are those who would like to see the resolution discussed in front of the committee. A signatory does not necessarily agree with the resolution, just wants to see it be debated. A delegate can be a signatory to more than one resolution. Resolutions must have at least 1/3rd of the committee's strength as signatories to be able to present them to the committee.

An amendment to a resolution is in the form of an edit, addition, or deletion to the resolution that has been presented to the committee. This is usually sent to the chairs after the resolution has been discussed and through a motion, the committee is in an amendment session. If more than 1/3rd the number of a resolution's total number of operative clauses are accepted as amendments, the resolution will be scrapped.

When an amendment is presented to the chairs, the sponsors of the resolution will be given the option to either accept it as friendly or unfriendly. A friendly amendment is automatically accepted, and the content that was aimed to be changed, added or deleted is done as such. An unfriendly amendment means that the committee will vote, to decide whether or not the change shall be made. This is done through a simple majority vote.

1) (To introduce Resolution) the delegate of “your allotted country” would like to raise a motion to introduce *RESOLUTION NAME*

2) (Amendments) The delegate of “your allotted country” would like to raise a motion to move into the amendment session for *RESOLUTION NAME*

3) (To vote on the resolution) the delegate of “your allotted country” would like to raise a motion to table the *RESOLUTION NAME* for the voting procedure.

Resolution Format :

(Name of resolution)

Sponsors:

Signatories:

Topic: XYZ

Committee name,

(Preambulatory Clauses)

Every preambulatory clause ends with a comma (,)

(Operative clauses)

1. Every Operative clause ends with a semicolon (;)

2. Every sub-clause to a resolution should end with a comma (,) till and unless it is the last sub-clause to the main clause, it shall end with a semicolon (;)

3. Every main clause before starting with a sub-clause should end in a colon (:)

4. Full stop at the end of the resolution

There must be 2 Preambulatory Clauses for every 3 Operative Clauses, (IE: Preambulatory Clauses = $\frac{2}{3}$ of Operative Clauses)

Every Operative Clause must begin with an operative term. The SPECPOL is purely recommendatory - this means that terms such as “Urges”, “Decides” and “Calls Upon” CANNOT be used.

Annexures must be introduced in an Operative Clause (simply mentioning the Annexure will suffice).

Voting

Voting is of 2 types, procedural and substantive. Procedural voting requires a simple majority, which is set at 50%+1 of committee strength. For example, if a committee has 100 people, the simple majority is set at 51 votes. Procedural Voting is used in cases such as voting upon motions. Substantive voting requires a 2/3rds majority. This is primarily used in voting upon a resolution. For example, if a committee has 100 members, the majority will be set at 67 votes.

Press Conference

The questions may range from matters of foreign policy, the agenda itself or controversial actions by the respective nations of the delegates, with the intended purpose being to test the depth of the research and knowledge of the delegates.



