



Agenda: Controlling illegal import and export of narcotics with special emphasis on case studies

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Letter from the DAIS

Respected delegates of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime,

It gives us immense pleasure to welcome you all to this edition of the Suncity Intra Model United Nations, a place where young minds interact and think of the small little ways to change the world. We feel honoured to be a part of this endeavour once again.

For two decades, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has been helping make the world safer from drugs, organised crime, corruption and terrorism. We are committed to achieving health, security and justice for all by tackling these threats and promoting peace and sustainable well-being as deterrents to them. As the scale of these problems is often too great for states to confront alone, UNODC offers practical assistance and encourages transnational approaches to action. We do this in all regions of the world through our global programs and network of field offices.

The guide has been prepared to give you an idea of the functioning of the office as well as the very pertinent agenda that the office shall deal with. However, this guide is merely a facilitator to help you kick start your research and you, as delegates, must feel free to go beyond the scope of the guide. The purpose of this guide is only to provide you initial assistance to initiate your research. Diplomacy is the first lesson that MUNs offer and thus, you as delegates are expected to be extremely courteous towards your fellow delegates as well as teachers and members of the Executive Board. As delegates you are expected to promote the interests of your nation but at the same point respect the differences of opinion to achieve a solution in accord and harmony.

We now leave you with our best wishes and I hope that you delegates will research and debate in order to find the best possible solutions. Please feel free to contact us, we will be more than happy to solve your queries.

Until October,

Shaurya Walia and Saanvi Dhingra - Chairpersons

Lakshya Kapoor - Vice Chairperson

About and History of the Committee

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is a specialised agency within the United Nations system that plays a crucial role in addressing some of the most pressing global challenges, primarily related to illicit drugs, crime, corruption, terrorism, and more recently, environmental crime and cybercrime. Established in 1997 as a merger of two separate entities, the UNODC has since become a pivotal force in promoting international cooperation and providing technical assistance to member states in their efforts to combat these multifaceted issues. This document provides a comprehensive overview of UNODC, its mission, structure, functions, and key initiatives.

Mission and Mandate

UNODC's primary mission is to promote security, justice, and health worldwide by assisting member states in addressing the interconnected issues of drugs, crime, and corruption. Its mandate, rooted in several UN conventions and resolutions, encompasses a wide range of activities, including:

- 1. Drug Control:** UNODC plays a pivotal role in the global effort to combat drug abuse and illicit trafficking. It assists member states in implementing drug control strategies, promoting alternative livelihoods, and fostering international cooperation to reduce drug production and trafficking.
- 2. Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice:** UNODC supports countries in strengthening their criminal justice systems, promoting the rule of law, and combating various forms of transnational crime, such as human trafficking, organised crime, and cybercrime.
- 3. Corruption Prevention:** The agency assists nations in preventing and combating corruption, enhancing transparency, and fostering good governance practices.
- 4. Terrorism Prevention:** UNODC is actively engaged in counter-terrorism efforts, particularly in preventing the financing of terrorism and countering radicalization and violent extremism.
- 5. Environmental and Wildlife Crime:** Recognizing the growing threat of environmental crime, UNODC works to combat illegal activities related to wildlife, fisheries, and forestry, contributing to the protection of biodiversity and ecosystems.
- 6. Research and Analysis:** UNODC conducts research and provides valuable data and analysis to inform evidence-based policies and programs in its areas of focus.

Structure

UNODC operates under the leadership of an Executive Director, who is appointed by the Secretary-General of the United Nations. The organisation has a decentralised structure, with headquarters in Vienna, Austria, and numerous field offices and liaison offices around the world. This structure enables UNODC to work closely with member states and tailor its efforts to regional and national needs.

Key Initiatives

UNODC spearheads various initiatives and programs to fulfil its mandate. Some of its flagship programs include:

1. **Global SMART Program:** The Global Synthetics Monitoring: Analyses, Reporting, and Trends (SMART) program helps countries combat the synthetic drug trade by providing timely information and fostering international cooperation.
2. **UNODC-WHO Program on Drug Dependence Treatment:** This program assists countries in improving access to drug dependence treatment services and promoting evidence-based approaches to drug addiction.
3. **Blue Heart Campaign:** UNODC's Blue Heart Campaign raises awareness about human trafficking and encourages action to combat this grave violation of human rights.
4. **Criminal Justice Reform:** UNODC works to strengthen criminal justice systems, promote alternatives to imprisonment, and enhance the capacity of law enforcement agencies.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is a vital component of the United Nations system, dedicated to addressing some of the world's most challenging issues related to drugs, crime, and corruption. Through its multifaceted approach, technical assistance, and global initiatives, UNODC plays a pivotal role in fostering international cooperation, promoting the rule of law, and striving for a safer and more just world. Its work is essential in achieving the Sustainable Development Goals and upholding the principles of the United Nations.

Controlling illegal import and export of narcotics with special emphasis on case studies

Statement of the problem

The illegal import and export of narcotics represent a profound global threat with far-reaching consequences for public health, security, and socioeconomic stability. This problem is particularly acute in regions of Asia known as the "Golden Crescent" and the "Golden Triangle," and Latin American countries such as Columbia and Mexico, which are notorious for their pivotal roles in the production and trafficking of narcotics. To effectively address this issue, it is imperative to focus on these specific regions. The statement of the problem is as follows:

1. Predominant narcotic activity in Latin American nations:

The illegal drug trade in Latin America concerns primarily the production and sale of cocaine and cannabis, including the export of these banned substances to the United States and Europe. The Pacific route, the Caribbean route, and the Atlantic route are major routes used for export of large quantities of Narcotics.

2. Large scale production of Narcotics in the Golden Crescent and Golden Triangle:

The Golden Crescent, encompassing parts of Afghanistan, Iran, and Pakistan, and the Golden Triangle, covering areas of Myanmar, Laos, and Thailand, have emerged as epicentres of illicit narcotics production, including opium and its derivatives.

3. Pervasive Narcotics Production and Trafficking:

These regions are characterised by the extensive cultivation of illicit crops, sophisticated processing labs, and intricate trafficking networks that smuggle narcotics across international borders, supplying global markets with a steady flow of drugs.

4. Public Health Consequences:

The narcotics produced and trafficked from these regions have severe public health ramifications, contributing to addiction, overdose deaths, and the spread of infectious diseases among users.

5. Destabilising Influence:

Narcotics trafficking in these nations exacerbates the instability and insecurity of the affected regions. It funds cartels, insurgent groups, corrupts institutions, and undermines governance, making it a security concern for both local governments and the international community.

6. Insufficient Control Measures:

Despite ongoing efforts, existing control measures in these regions often struggle to keep pace with the adaptability and resilience of narcotics traffickers. This raises questions about the effectiveness of current strategies.

7. Role of Case Studies:

A focused examination of dual case studies focusing on Latin American narcotics distribution and the Golden Crescent and Golden Triangle regions can provide critical insights into the dynamics of narcotics production, trafficking routes, and the strategies employed by traffickers. These case studies can inform targeted interventions and policies.

8. International Collaboration:

Addressing the illegal import and export of narcotics in these regions requires enhanced cooperation between affected countries, neighbouring nations, and the international community. Achieving this collaboration is challenging but essential.

9. Balancing Law Enforcement with Development:

Strategies must balance law enforcement efforts with initiatives focused on sustainable development, poverty alleviation, and alternative livelihoods for communities involved in narcotics production.

10. The Evolving Landscape:

The narcotics trade in these regions is dynamic, with traffickers adapting to changing circumstances, technologies, and market demands. Cartels have large scale organised infrastructure to accommodate trafficking. Strategies must account for these evolving trends.

By concentrating on the problem of controlling the illegal import and export of narcotics within the 2 major narcotics exporting regions, Latin America and Golden crescent/triangle, this agenda aims to develop targeted and evidence-based solutions. Through comprehensive analysis, sharing of best practices, and fostering international cooperation, it seeks to mitigate the detrimental impact of narcotics production and trafficking in these critical areas, thereby contributing to global efforts to combat this pressing issue.

This background guide contains case studies with special emphasis on Latin America and Asia, highlighting the role of every country involved. The task of the UNODC is not to resolve these case study issues individually, but to reform the overarching problem that governs each of these cases.

Case Studies

I. Asian Drug routes

1. Golden Crescent

The Golden Crescent is the largest opium-producing region in Central Asia, located between the mountain ranges of Iran, Afghanistan, and Pakistan. It serves as a major global hub for opium production and distribution. While Iran is not a primary opium producer in this region, it functions more as a transit and consumer country. War, violence, terrorism, and political instability have contributed to the active opium trade in the region.

Smugglers involved in organised crime trade narcotics and weapons, utilising similar smuggling techniques. Insurgents, terrorists, and state-sponsored agents are known to oversee illicit trafficking and protect traffickers. Narcotics and weapons often follow the same routes and employ similar smuggling methods. Baloch separatists, Quetta Shura Taliban, and Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps are often linked to the drug trade, using it to finance their operations. Indian states such as Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Rajasthan, and Gujarat are also affected by opium production. The proximity of these Indian states to the Indo-Pakistan border makes them potential markets and supply chains for hashish and heroin.

History of Golden Crescent

The Golden Crescent region emerged as a major opium producer in the 1950s, quickly impacting the opium and morphine market and increasing output to meet rising demand. Afghanistan traditionally cultivated poppies and traded opiates in Central Asia. In the second half of the century, Afghan opium became a global commodity as traditional European opiate suppliers banned poppy harvesting.

Opium cultivation in Afghanistan surged in the 1970s. It became a global opiate supplier. Iran initially imposed an ineffective prohibition in the 1950s. However, the subsequent revolutionary regime enforced the ban more strictly. Interestingly, Iran intercepted the largest amount of opium, according to UNODC reports. Former Pakistani President Zia-ul-Haq tacitly encouraged poppy cultivation to fund operations and support militant groups against India. Narcotics traffickers relied on sea routes from southern Pakistan to reach European customers after overland transport through Iran became risky during the Iran-Iraq war.

After the Soviet occupation ended in Afghanistan, poppy growth in Pakistan declined, and the United Nations declared Pakistan "poppy free" in 2000. Warlords and the Taliban government, who succeeded the Soviets, used narcotics for funding. During their first term, the Taliban encouraged poppy production to consolidate power, surpassing Burma as the world's largest opium producer by 1991. In 1999, the Taliban banned opium cultivation, resulting in a significant reduction in a single year.

Operation Enduring Freedom, the US invasion after the 9/11 attacks, greatly reduced opium production in the Golden Crescent. However, political instability in Afghanistan after 2002 led to a resurgence in opium production. By 2007, the Golden Crescent produced 90% of the world's opium, with over 8,000 tons, effectively establishing a monopoly. Although Afghanistan is the main producer, Iran seizes most of the opium, according to UNODC.

In 2021, the head of the Tajik Drug Control Agency was cited by TASS Russian News as having said that the volume of intercepted heroin and hashish had almost doubled over the last year. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) estimates that 80 percent of the world's opium and heroin supplies are trafficked from Afghanistan. As per the UNODC's The World Drug Report 2022, people are most often in treatment for opioid use disorders in the Central Asian region. Drug use increased by about 26 per cent compared to the last decade. Iran, Afghanistan, and Pakistan were the top 3 countries in opium seizures.

Routes of the Golden Crescent

Smugglers in the Golden Crescent employ various complex methods and involve local communities in their operations. These include using small trucks, heavily armed vehicle convoys, and smuggling on foot or with pack animals like donkeys and camels. There are three main pipelines for narcotics leaving Afghanistan: the Balkan route through Iran and Turkey to Europe, the northern route via Central Asia to Russia, and the southern route to South Asia, the Gulf, and Africa.

The Balkan route, passing through Iran, is the busiest opiate trafficking route in the world. The northern route involves trafficking opium and heroin to Russia through Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan, contributing to a growing HIV epidemic in Russia due to intravenous drug use. Through the southern route, heroin travels from Afghanistan to South Asia, African nations, and the Oceania region via Pakistan and Iran, often utilizing sea transport. The Indian Ocean region is a preferred route for drug smugglers due to its vast area, making it challenging for authorities to intercept and patrol effectively. The Colombo Declaration was adopted to address this issue, aiming to establish the Indian Ocean Region (IOR) as a "Drug-Free Zone."



Countries of the Golden Crescent

(i). Pakistan

Pakistan holds a significant and complex role in the notorious region known as the Golden Crescent. Pakistan's involvement in the Golden Crescent is marked by its role as a significant producer of opium, a critical transit point for drug trafficking, and the associated security concerns. The porous border with Afghanistan has allowed for the smuggling of precursor chemicals and the movement of narcotics, facilitating their production within Pakistan. Pakistan's extensive road networks and ports serve as crucial transit routes for narcotics heading to international markets. The presence of militant groups, particularly in the border regions, has created an environment conducive to narcotics production and trafficking, providing funding for these groups and complicating efforts to combat the drug trade.

(ii). Afghanistan

Afghanistan, as a pivotal player in the Golden Crescent, holds a central and complex role in the production and trafficking of narcotics, particularly opium. This landlocked nation has consistently ranked as one of the world's largest producers of illicit opium, which serves as the primary raw material for heroin production. The rugged terrain, weak governance structures, and decades of conflict have created an environment conducive to narcotics cultivation and trafficking. The vast tracts of arable land in regions like Helmand and Nangarhar have been used for opium poppy cultivation, providing a vital source of income for Afghan farmers and fueling the global narcotics trade. Furthermore, Afghanistan's porous borders with neighbouring countries, including Iran and Pakistan, facilitate the smuggling of narcotics, making it a crucial transit point in the illicit drug supply chain. The opium trade has not only funded insurgent groups operating within the country but has also contributed to regional instability and global

public health challenges. Afghanistan's struggle to combat narcotics production and trafficking is intricately tied to its broader security and development issues, requiring comprehensive international efforts to address this multifaceted problem.

(iii). **Iran**

Iran plays a pivotal role in the Golden Crescent, a region notorious for its involvement in the production and trafficking of narcotics, primarily opium and its derivatives. Situated between Afghanistan and Pakistan, two major opium-producing countries, Iran faces the challenging task of combating the flow of illegal drugs across its borders. The porous nature of these borders has made it a prime transit route for narcotics destined for international markets. Iran's extensive law enforcement efforts to intercept drug shipments are well-recognized, and the country often bears a disproportionate burden in the fight against drug trafficking. The Iranian government has invested heavily in border control measures, including physical barriers and technology, to curb the smuggling of narcotics. However, the sheer volume of drug flow, coupled with the sophistication of smuggling networks, presents a formidable challenge. Moreover, Iran grapples with the severe public health consequences of narcotics trafficking, as it has one of the highest rates of opioid addiction in the world. Iran's involvement in the Golden Crescent underscores the multifaceted nature of the issue, intertwining security, public health, and socioeconomic challenges. While Iran continues its determined efforts to combat drug trafficking, international cooperation and support remain essential to address the root causes and consequences of this critical problem.

2. The Golden Triangle

The "Golden Triangle" region of Southeast Asia has become the centre of a thriving opium economy and a crucial source of narcotics for the world. The current oversupply has led to warehousing of huge quantities of opium, making the heroin problem in the area intractable and spreading the heroin epidemic.

The Golden Triangle includes parts of Burma, China, Laos, and Thailand. It provides ideal conditions for opium cultivation, which began during the 16th and 17th centuries. Heroin became a major component of the opium trade after World War II, and the demand for heroin by United States troops during the Vietnam War helped transform the opium economy of the Golden Triangle into a large and profitable heroin economy. Drug trafficking now influences every aspect of politics in the region. Crop eradication efforts conducted since 1964 have had no significant impact. Believing that equipment it provided to help the Burmese government combat drug trafficking has been diverted to counterinsurgency operations, the United States has cut off this assistance. The lack of enforcement, good weather, and increased cultivation have sharply

increased opium production since then, making reduced prices and a spread of heroin use possible.

History of Golden Triangle

Opium as a major cash crop was introduced to the Golden Triangle by the British in the colonial period. It was grown as a cash crop for the French as well as the British. But it was the Chinese who once fought for the Kuomintang troops with Chiang Kai-shek that introduced big time production and smuggling.

In 1852, the British arrived in lower Burma, importing large quantities of opium from India and selling it through a government-controlled opium monopoly. Not long after that opium production increased in the highlands of Southeast Asia. Some of it made its way to China. In 1878, Britain passed the Opium Act with hopes of reducing opium consumption. Under the new regulation, the selling of opium was restricted to registered Chinese opium smokers and Indian opium eaters while the Burmese were strictly prohibited from smoking opium.

The British aggressively marketed opium in China. The result: lots of addicts. Some smoked the drug in opium dens. Others took opium pills. Most of the opium was supplied by India but some came from Burma. The French produced opium in what is now Vietnam and Cambodia.

In 1886, the British acquired Burma's northeast region, the Shan state. Production and smuggling of opium along the lower region of Burma thrived despite British efforts to maintain a strict monopoly on the opium trade. Efforts by the British and French to control opium production in Southeast Asia were ultimately successful. Nevertheless, the opium trade in the Southeast Asian region, today referred to as the 'Golden Triangle', developed over time and began being a major player in the profitable opium business during the 1940s.

In the 1930s, the majority of illegal heroin smuggled into the U.S. came from China and was refined in Shanghai and Tientsin. During World War II, opium trade routes were blocked and the flow of opium from India and Persia was cut off. Fearful of losing their opium monopoly, the French encouraged Hmong, Chinese farmers to expand their opium production. After Burma gained independence from Britain at the end of World War II, opium cultivation and trade flourished in the Shan states in the late 1940s. The trade thrived even after Burma outlawed opium in 1962.

(i). Myanmar

Myanmar, a Southeast Asian nation, is a central player in the Golden Triangle, a region infamous for its deep involvement in the production and trafficking of narcotics, particularly opium and methamphetamine. The remote and rugged terrain of Myanmar's border regions, particularly those adjacent to Laos and Thailand, has made it an ideal location for the cultivation of illicit crops, including opium poppy. The Golden Triangle's historical notoriety as a major opium-producing area has persisted, with Myanmar consistently ranking among the world's top opium producers. In recent years, the region has also become a major hub for the production of methamphetamine, commonly known as meth or "yaba," which poses a growing threat to regional and global public health.

The narcotics trade in Myanmar is highly lucrative and contributes significantly to the country's economy, providing income to both insurgent groups and impoverished communities involved in illicit crop cultivation. The trade has also led to significant security challenges, with armed ethnic groups using drug profits to fund their activities and maintain control in certain areas. This has contributed to regional instability and conflict.

Myanmar's role in the Golden Triangle is further complicated by its porous borders, which enable the smuggling of narcotics into neighbouring countries, including China and India. Despite Myanmar's government taking steps to combat narcotics production and trafficking, the situation remains challenging due to the presence of various armed groups, limited state control in some areas, and the adaptability of drug traffickers.

(ii). Thailand

Thailand, a Southeast Asian nation, is intricately linked to the Golden Triangle, a region notorious for its extensive involvement in the production and trafficking of illicit narcotics, primarily opium and methamphetamine. Thailand shares its borders with two key players in the Golden Triangle, Myanmar and Laos, making it a critical transit point for narcotics destined for regional and international markets. The country's rugged and remote border regions have historically facilitated opium poppy cultivation, further entrenching its role in the illicit drug trade. While Thailand has made significant strides in reducing opium cultivation within its borders over the years, the region continues to grapple with the production of methamphetamine, commonly known as "yaba" or "meth," which has surged in recent years and poses a grave public health challenge.

Thailand's involvement in the Golden Triangle is multifaceted, with the narcotics trade not only fueling a criminal underworld but also contributing to complex security concerns. The profits

generated from drug trafficking have been linked to funding various insurgent groups in neighbouring countries, exacerbating regional instability. Additionally, the smuggling of narcotics across Thailand's borders poses a significant law enforcement challenge.

The Thai government has undertaken comprehensive efforts to combat the narcotics trade, ranging from eradication campaigns to law enforcement operations. These efforts have yielded successes in reducing opium cultivation but have encountered difficulties in addressing the methamphetamine epidemic, largely due to the drug's production versatility and the adaptability of trafficking networks.

(iii). The Lao People's Democratic Republic

Laos, a landlocked nation in Southeast Asia, plays a significant and complex role in the infamous Golden Triangle, a region notorious for its deep involvement in the production and trafficking of illicit narcotics, particularly opium and methamphetamine. Positioned adjacent to Thailand and Myanmar, Laos shares its borders with two major players in the Golden Triangle, which makes it a crucial component of the illicit drug trade. The country's remote and mountainous terrain provides an ideal environment for the cultivation of opium poppy, and historically, Laos has been a major opium-producing region.

While efforts have been made to curtail opium cultivation within its borders, Laos has increasingly become a hub for the production of methamphetamine, commonly known as "yaba" or "meth." This has escalated regional and global public health concerns. The lucrative narcotics trade in Laos has generated substantial income for both organised crime syndicates and impoverished communities involved in illegal crop cultivation. This trade has also fueled security challenges, with some insurgent groups benefiting from drug profits and contributing to regional instability.

Laos' involvement in the Golden Triangle is further complicated by its porous borders, enabling the smuggling of narcotics into neighbouring countries, including Thailand, China, and Vietnam. The government of Laos has taken steps to address narcotics production and trafficking, including law enforcement efforts and alternative livelihood programs. However, these measures often face challenges due to the adaptability of traffickers and the presence of insurgent groups in some regions.

(iv). Vietnam

Vietnam, a Southeast Asian nation, holds a unique and evolving role in the complex web of the Golden Triangle, a region infamous for its deep involvement in the production and trafficking of

illicit narcotics, especially opium and methamphetamine. Although Vietnam does not share direct borders with the core Golden Triangle countries (Myanmar, Laos, Thailand), it is situated nearby and plays a critical role in the regional dynamics of the illicit drug trade. The country's proximity to Laos and China, both significant players in the Golden Triangle, has made it a transit point for narcotics destined for regional and international markets.

Vietnam faces several challenges related to narcotics, primarily methamphetamine, commonly known as "ice" or "meth." The country has seen a concerning surge in methamphetamine production and abuse, posing serious public health and law enforcement challenges. This trend has been exacerbated by the presence of drug trafficking networks that exploit Vietnam's strategic location.

Vietnam's involvement in the Golden Triangle extends beyond being a transit point. Some parts of the country, particularly the remote border regions with Laos, have experienced illicit opium cultivation. The Vietnamese government has taken measures to address these issues, including law enforcement efforts, drug interdiction operations, and drug addiction treatment programs. However, the adaptability of traffickers and the global demand for narcotics continue to pose formidable challenges.

II. Latin America

The illegal drug trade in Latin America concerns primarily the production and sale of cocaine and cannabis, including the export of these banned substances to the United States and Europe. The coca cultivation is concentrated in the Andes of South America, particularly in Colombia, Peru and Bolivia; this is the world's only source region for coca. The U.S. State Department estimates that 90 percent of cocaine entering the United States is produced in Colombia (followed by Bolivia and Peru) and that the main transit route is through Mexico. Drug cartels in Mexico control the large inflow of narcotics into the USA.

(i) Columbia

Colombia is known for being the world's-leading producer of coca for many years. Worldwide demand for psychoactive drugs during the 1960s and 1970s resulted in increased production and processing of the plant in Colombia

The illegal drug trade in Colombia has, since the 1970s, centred successively on four major drug trafficking cartels: Medellín, Cali, Norte del Valle, and North Coast, as well as several *bandas criminales*, or BACRIMs. The trade eventually created a new social class and influenced several aspects of Colombian culture, economics, and politics.

History

The marijuana drug trade was the gateway to what would eventually make Colombia's drug industry so prevalent. In the 1960s, marijuana production was centralised in Mexico and Jamaica. To counter increasing production and consumption, the government of the United States and the government of Colombia along with other countries initiated a campaign called the "War on Drugs." Part of this campaign was a series of "eradication programs" which drove American consumers away from Mexican exports. With this new gap in the marijuana industry, Colombian growers took the opportunity to join the business. Colombian growers were successful due to the extensive rural regions that were negligible to the government. Similarly to the marijuana industry, cocaine producers set up in the depths of Colombian jungles where they could be left undetected and undisrupted. Between 1993 and 1999 Colombia became the main global producer of raw coca, as well as of refined cocaine. Two factors that allowed the coca business to boom in the 1990s. The end of the cold war depleted the funds of the Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia prompting them to turn to the illegal drug industry for revenue, and the promotion and protection of coca cultivation helped paramilitary groups sustain power with local support.

Colombia also has a rich history of powerful cartels which controlled narcotics production and distribution through intricate organised infrastructure. The Medellín cartel, the first major drug cartel in Colombia, began in the mid-1970s when Colombian marijuana traffickers began smuggling small quantities of cocaine into the United States. The cartel originally imported most coca from Bolivia and Peru, processing it into cocaine inside Colombia and then distributing it through most of the trafficking routes and distribution points in the U.S., including Florida, California and New York.

The Medellín cartel started to face competition from the newly emerging Cali cartel in the late 1980s and 90s. In 1993, Pablo Escobar, the leader of the Medellín cartel was killed; leading to the primacy of the Cali cartel. Many leaders of the Cali cartel were arrested in the 1990s, and by the next decade the organisation had largely disbanded. While other cartels in Colombia filled the void, their power failed to match that of their predecessors.

The Norte del Valle Cartel, or North Valley Cartel, was a drug cartel which operated principally in the north of the Valle del Cauca department of Colombia. It rose to prominence during the second half of the 1990s, The Norte del Valle cartel is estimated to have exported more than 1.2 million pounds – or 500 metric tons – of cocaine worth in excess of \$10 billion from Colombia to Mexico and ultimately to the United States for resale. The cartel is believed to have employed the services of the United Self-Defense Forces of Colombia (AUC), a right-wing paramilitary organisation internationally classified as a terrorist organisation, to protect the cartel's drug routes, its drug laboratories, and its members and associates.

Present day scenario

Today, Colombian drug cartels export 90 percent of the cocaine that enters the United States—around 1,040 metric tons of high-quality cocaine derived from coca leaves grown by more than 250 thousand peasant families on nearly 200 thousand hectares of land, nestled in the depths of our mountain ranges.

The difficulty for the Colombian Government in combating the illegal drug trade is the robustness of the drug cartels. These cartels have massive social and financial networks to support their drug production. As such, these cartels protect their business by way of illegal paramilitary groups that act as non-state actors and provide financial capital to government officials, generating a corrupt political system. The export of cocaine is supervised by transnational crime organisations that do business with foreign crime organisations, particularly Mexican cartels. In a few cases, the Colombian groups have maintained direct routes to foreign markets. The traffickers bribe security forces, politicians and judicial authorities to protect their routes, and secure the continuity of their business.

Combating cocaine production is complicated. Many farmers have no alternative and Colombia's government lacks the capacity to confront the industry that is protected by illegal armed groups with huge financial resources to corrupt state officials. Given the fact that the population of the United States is the largest user of illegal drugs in the world, with one in six citizens claiming to have used cocaine in their life, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), after reviewing the efficiency of the actions taken by the Colombian government for more than 20 years, has called for cocaine consuming countries - mostly in Europe and North America - to take their share of responsibility and reduce demand for cocaine, explaining that there are limits to what the Andean governments can do if cocaine consumption continues unabated, a position that has been maintained by the Colombian government for many years and was later accepted by the United States government.

(ii) Mexico

Mexican drug trafficking organisations dominate the import and distribution of cocaine, fentanyl, heroin, marijuana, and methamphetamine in the United States. Since Mexico launched a war on the cartels in 2006, the United States has provided it with billions of dollars in security and counternarcotics assistance. The Mexican government has asserted that their primary focus is dismantling the cartels, and preventing drug trafficking demand along with American functionaries. Therefore, the conflict has been described as a Mexican theatre of the global war on drugs, as led by the United States federal government.

History

Due to its location, Mexico has long been used as a staging and transshipment point for narcotics and contraband between Latin America and U.S. markets.

In the 1960s and 1970s, Mexico was part of both Operation Intercept and Operation Condor, developed between 1975 and 1978, with the pretext to fight against the cultivation of opium and marijuana in the "Golden Triangle", particularly in Sinaloa. During the 1970s and early 1980s, Colombia's Medellin cartel was the main exporter of cocaine and dealt with organised criminal networks all over the world. While Escobar's Medellin Cartel and the Cali Cartel would manufacture the products, Miguel Ángel Félix Gallardo's Guadalajara Cartel would oversee distribution. When enforcement efforts intensified in South Florida and the Caribbean, the Colombian organisations formed partnerships with the Mexico-based traffickers to transport cocaine by land through Mexico into the United States. By the mid-1980s, the organisations from Mexico were well-established and reliable transporters of Colombian cocaine. Transporters from Mexico usually were given 35% to 50% of each cocaine shipment. This arrangement meant that organisations from Mexico became involved in the distribution, as well as the transportation of cocaine, and became formidable traffickers in their own right. In recent years, the Sinaloa Cartel and the Gulf Cartel have taken over trafficking cocaine from Colombia to the worldwide markets. RAND studies released in the mid-1990s found that using drug user treatment to reduce drug consumption in the United States is seven times more cost effective than law enforcement efforts alone, and it could potentially cut consumption by a third.

Present day Scenario - Mexican Cartels

Sinaloa Cartel

Formerly led by Joaquín “El Chapo” Guzmán, Sinaloa is one of Mexico’s oldest and most influential drug trafficking groups. With strongholds in nearly half of Mexico’s states—particularly those along the Pacific coast in the northwest and near the country’s southern and northern borders—and operations in as many as fifty countries, it has a larger international footprint than any of its Mexican rivals. In 2021, U.S. President Joe Biden imposed sanctions on eight members of the group, which is now led by Ismael Zambada García and El Chapo’s sons, known as “Los Chapitos.”

Jalisco New Generation Cartel (CJNG).

Jalisco splintered from Sinaloa in 2010 and is among Mexico’s fastest-growing cartels, with operations in more than two-thirds of the country. According to the DEA, the “rapid expansion of its drug trafficking activities is characterised by the group’s willingness to engage in violent confrontations” with authorities and rival cartels. U.S. officials estimate that CJNG supplies more than one-third of the U.S. drug market.

Beltrán-Leyva Organization (BLO)

The group formed when the Beltrán-Leyva brothers split from Sinaloa in 2008. Since then, all four brothers have been arrested or killed, but their loyalists continue to operate throughout Mexico. The organisation's splinter groups have become more autonomous and powerful, maintaining ties to Jalisco, Juárez, and Los Zetas.

Guerreros Unidos (GU)

Based in southwestern Mexico, Guerreros Unidos (United Warriors) broke away from the BLO in 2009 and became involved in the heroin trade. The group is known to have a partnership with the CJNG, using the same transportation networks to move drug shipments to and from the United States.

Los Rojos

Another splinter group of the BLO, Los Rojos operates in central and southwestern Mexico and relies largely on kidnapping and extortion. Although several of its leaders were arrested between 2019 and 2020, the group remains active, and along with Guerreros Unidos.

(iii) Peru

Peru is the second largest producer of cocaine and cultivator of coca in the world. The majority of cocaine produced in Peru is transported to South American countries for domestic consumption, or for onward shipment to Europe, the United States, East Asia, and Mexico. Peruvians view security and corruption as the country's most pressing problems and often list the Judiciary, Congress, and the Peruvian National Police (PNP) as the country's most corrupt institutions. Corruption scandals have ensnared many of Peru's political figures, including former Presidents, members of Congress, regional governors, ministry officials, and judges.

History

The coca bush itself, *Erythroxylon coca*, botanists suggest, originated at least 8,000 years ago in what is now tropical northwestern Peru. Use of the sacred leaf became emblematic of pan-Andean culture during the reign of Tahuantinsuyo, the fifteenth-century empire of the Incas rooted in highland Cuzco. By 1900, Peru's eastern Huánuco province dominated global cocaine, selling about 10 tons, perfectly legal, around the world. Legal cocaine, increasingly controlled, declined as an export commodity, and Peru was effectively left the world's sole producer by the late 1940s, when Washington's cold-war era anti-drug pressures sent the drug into clandestine channels. Illicit cocaine was born with Peruvian smugglers, the 1949 Balarezo gang, and by the 1970s, was booming in the wild tropical Upper Huallaga Valley, just downstream from Huánuco. Peruvian-made PBC, after slipping north, fueled the explosive birth of the Medellín and other

Colombian drug cartels. Similar developments engulfed the Bolivian lowlands starting in the 1950s. By the mid-1980s, with more than 120,000 hectares in the Huallaga alone, Peru prevailed in the growing end of the global coca-cocaine industry, which reached an overall illicit capacity of around 1,000 tons, almost 100 times the peak of its once-modest legal industry. The country's dominance faded by the 1990s when drug war-squeezed Colombian entrepreneurs achieved a vertical integration of cocaine, creating a vast new class of coca farmers in Colombia itself.

Present day Scenario

Illicit coca and cocaine's Peruvian resurgence since 2005 has quietly occurred in tandem with the Colombian government's increasing military and social prowess in drug production zones, and Bolivia's new ability to reign in illicit coca through innovative "social control" policies. coca capitalism centres in the dense network of the eastern river valleys known as the VRAEM (Valle de los Ríos Aprímac, Ene y Mantaro), rather than the traditional Huallaga or Cuzco regions. VRAEM accounts for about half of illicit crops, though coca could easily expand across 15 other Amazonian watersheds. Peru has attempted to ignore the drug problem, by isolating news of drug production from its coastal population and capital of Lima. trans-nationalised Colombian, Sinaloan, and even Russian criminal groups, along with the continued disaffection of Peru's Amazonian-based peasantry, have combined to reboot the industry. However, drugs are still not front-page news in Lima. And export has totally switched directions: rather than targeted at the (now finally receding) North American market, Peruvian cocaine flows southward by air and overland through Bolivia for use in, and exports out of, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, ultimately reaching the growing markets for the drug in Europe, Africa, and now even Asia.

(iv) Bolivia

Narcotics in Bolivia, is a subject that primarily involves the coca crop, used in the production of the drug, cocaine. Trafficking and corruption have been two of the most prominent negative side-effects of the illicit narcotics trade in Bolivia and the country's government has engaged in negotiations with the United States (US) as result of the industry's ramifications.

History

Bolivia's most lucrative crop and economic activity in the 1980s was coca, whose leaves were processed clandestinely into cocaine. The country was the second largest grower of coca in the world, supplying approximately fifteen percent of the US cocaine market in the late 1980s. Bolivian farmers rushed to grow coca in the 1980s as its price climbed and the economy collapsed. Soaring unemployment also contributed to the boom. In addition, farmers turned to coca for its quick economic return, its lightweight, its yield of four crops a year, and the

abundance of United States dollars available in the trade, a valuable resource in a hyperinflated economy.

Government efforts to eradicate the expansion of coca cultivation in Bolivia began in 1983, when Bolivia committed itself to a five-year program to reduce coca production and created the Coca Eradication Directorate. These efforts put only a small dent in the coca industry and were highly controversial among thousands of peasants. Under the joint agreement signed by the United States and Bolivia in 1987, which created the DNCSP, Bolivia allocated US\$72.2 million for the 1988 to 1991 period to eradication programs. As more coca was destroyed, the local price increased, making it more attractive to other growers. An unwanted by-product of Bolivia's cocaine industry was the importation of Colombian-style drug violence. In the late 1980s, Colombia's Medellín Cartel reportedly wielded considerable power in Bolivia, setting prices for coca paste and cocaine and terrorizing the drug underworld with hired assassins. In the late 1980s, there were several incidents of narcoterrorism against the United States presence, the judiciary, and antidrug agents. For example, the so-called Alejo Calatayu terrorist command claimed responsibility for a May 1987 bomb attack against the Cochabamba home of a DEA agent. The so-called Santa Cruz Cartel, allegedly linked to the Medellín Cartel in Colombia, claimed responsibility for the machine-gun murders of two members of the special antinarcotics force in Santa Cruz in March 1988.

Present day Scenario

Bolivia is the third largest producer of cocaine in the world and continues to be a significant transit zone for Peruvian cocaine. Most Bolivian cocaine is exported to other Latin American countries, especially Brazil, for domestic consumption or for onward transit to West Africa and Europe, rather than to the United States. Bolivia's role has changed from being mainly a producer of raw materials such as coca and coca paste to an exporter of cocaine hydrochloride. There have also been increasingly frequent discoveries of clandestine factories and laboratories in remote regions as coca cultivation increased by 44% between 2019-2020 in protected areas. During 2015, Bolivia signed counternarcotics cooperation agreements with Peru and Paraguay. It previously negotiated agreements with Argentina (2000) and Brazil (1978). The Government of Bolivia and the Government of Chile also maintain bilateral cooperation on counternarcotics, despite their ongoing dispute over Bolivia's access to the sea. Limited private cultivation of coca is legal in Bolivia, where chewing the leaves and drinking coca tea are considered cultural practices, in particular in the mountainous regions, processed cocaine is forbidden.

(v) USA

History

The history of the United States' efforts to control the illegal import and export of narcotics is a multifaceted narrative spanning over a century, marked by evolving policies and strategies in response to the complex challenges posed by drug abuse and trafficking. In the 19th century, substances like opium and cocaine were readily available over-the-counter and featured in various products, such as patent medicines and tonics. However, as the 20th century unfolded, the nation's approach to narcotics underwent a profound transformation.

One significant turning point came with the Harrison Narcotics Act of 1914, one of the earliest federal laws aimed at regulating and taxing the production and distribution of opium and coca products. This legislation sought to curb the increasing availability and use of these substances, setting a precedent for future drug control measures. It was part of a broader shift toward the federal government taking a more active role in regulating substances with potential for abuse. The early 20th century also witnessed the advent of the Prohibition era (1920-1933), an attempt to reduce alcohol consumption that had unintended consequences. While Prohibition aimed to curb alcohol use, it paradoxically led to the growth of illegal speakeasies, bootlegging, and the rise of organised crime. This period highlighted the challenges of enforcing drug and alcohol laws and the limits of prohibition as a means of controlling substance abuse.

The mid-20th century saw a surge in drug use, particularly marijuana and amphetamines. However, it was the 1950s and 1960s that witnessed a significant increase in heroin use and a corresponding rise in drug-related crime rates. This prompted the need for more comprehensive approaches to drug control.

The 1970s brought about the declaration of a "War on Drugs" by President Richard Nixon in 1971, a pivotal moment that intensified the government's efforts to combat drug abuse and trafficking. This era saw the creation of the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) and a heightened focus on international drug trafficking. The 1980s, under President Ronald Reagan, saw the introduction of stringent anti-drug legislation, including mandatory minimum sentences for drug offences and the launch of the "Just Say No" campaign, spearheaded by First Lady Nancy Reagan. The Reagan administration also ramped up efforts to combat drug cartels, especially those operating in South America.

The 1980s were also marked by the emergence of the crack cocaine epidemic, which disproportionately affected urban communities and triggered increased law enforcement efforts, including the development of Special Weapons and Tactics (SWAT) teams. As the crack epidemic raged, the nation grappled with the profound social and economic consequences of widespread addiction and the harsh penalties associated with drug offenses.

In the 1990s, there was a shift in approach toward harm reduction strategies. These included the introduction of needle exchange programs and methadone treatment for opioid addiction, which

aimed to reduce the harm associated with drug use and provide avenues for rehabilitation. This period also saw a shift from punitive measures toward addressing drug addiction as a public health issue.

The new millennium brought its own set of challenges and responses. The USA PATRIOT Act of 2001 expanded the government's authority to investigate and combat money laundering related to drug trafficking, reflecting the interconnected nature of drug trade and illicit finance. In 2018, the opioid crisis gained national attention, becoming a major public health crisis with escalating rates of opioid overdose deaths. Efforts to combat opioid abuse have included increased regulation of prescription opioids and expanded access to addiction treatment, including medications like naloxone, used to reverse opioid overdoses, and medication-assisted treatment programs.

Present Day Scenario

The opioid crisis has remained a focal point in recent years. Opioid addiction and overdose deaths have continued to afflict communities across the country. In response, the U.S. government has taken steps to regulate prescription opioids, expand access to addiction treatment, and provide more widespread availability of naloxone, an overdose-reversal medication. In a notable divergence between state and federal law, many states have legalised cannabis for medical and/or recreational use. This has created a unique challenge for drug control efforts, as federal law still classifies cannabis as a controlled substance. This conflicting legal landscape underscores the complexities inherent in regulating narcotics.

Efforts to combat drug trafficking remain a priority. Law enforcement agencies, including the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA), work diligently to identify and dismantle drug trafficking organisations. Border security measures are also crucial in preventing the illegal import of narcotics, with monitoring of ports of entry and border checkpoints playing a significant role. International cooperation is another vital aspect of U.S. drug control efforts. The United States collaborates with countries, particularly in Latin America, to combat drug production and trafficking at the source. This includes providing assistance to countries like Colombia and Mexico to address the challenges posed by the transnational drug trade.

Harm reduction strategies, such as needle exchange programs and medication-assisted treatment for opioid addiction, have been integrated into the broader approach to drug control. These initiatives aim to reduce the harm associated with drug use and provide pathways for rehabilitation and recovery. Furthermore, there is a growing call for criminal justice reform, with advocates pushing for a shift away from punitive measures and mass incarceration. This includes reconsidering sentencing policies for drug offences and addressing the racial disparities within the criminal justice system. Public attitudes have also evolved, with a greater emphasis on treating addiction as a public health issue rather than solely a criminal matter. These shifting perspectives have contributed to changes in drug laws, including the decriminalisation of certain substances and the legalisation of syringe exchange programs. One particularly ominous concern

is the presence of fentanyl, a potent synthetic opioid. Fentanyl has been associated with a significant number of overdose deaths. Law enforcement agencies have intensified their efforts to identify and seize fentanyl, often originating from overseas, in order to prevent its distribution. The United States continues to face multifaceted challenges related to drug abuse, addiction, and trafficking. The nation's approach to drug control reflects a dynamic landscape that combines law enforcement measures with a growing emphasis on public health, harm reduction, and evolving public attitudes.

(iv) Drug Export routes through Latin America

Maritime drug trafficking in Latin America is the primary means of transportation of illegal drugs produced in this region to global consumer markets. The smuggling of drugs through the sea is a security problem for all the countries of the region. Drug trafficking organisations have developed various complex systems for the transportation and distribution of illegal drugs, where several countries in the region serve as points of contact for the distribution of illegal products by land, air or sea. It is estimated that 90% of the cocaine produced in the Andean region is transported at some point by sea.

The routes for the traffic of drugs to the United States and Western Europe, the main markets for drugs produced in Latin America are three: the Pacific route, the Caribbean route, and the Atlantic route.

The Caribbean route

The Caribbean route, in spite of being used previously as a point of incursion to introduce drugs to the United States due to its proximity to the State of Florida, currently serves as a traffic point where approximately 40% of the cocaine destined for the European market stops to be transhipped to other boats that leave for the West African or directly to the European ports having as main entrances the ports of England, Netherlands, Portugal and Spain.

When drugs arrive at Colombia's Caribbean and Pacific coast lines they are loaded onto small ships or submarines and sailed to transit hubs in the Caribbean and Central America, in some cases already under the supervision of transnational crime groups like the Mexican Sinaloa Cartel.

The Pacific route

In this route, the main ports of exit for drug trafficking are Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador, the route has been helped by traffickers as it is a direct route to the United States, or to Mexican ports where they are finally transported to the US-Mexico border. The essence of this route is that trafficking organisations can also use it to disembark in the Central American countries to transfer it to land routes or other vessels with higher transport capacity. The case of Panama is

the most relevant due to its strategic importance in international trade where the organisations' criminals sink in commercial vessels with higher capacity their products to provide a camouflage mixing the legal traffic of goods.

The Atlantic route

This route, primarily used by drug traffickers, is based on the departure of cargoes from the countries of the southern cone of the American continent with routes that are primarily destined for Africa, which is generally fed by vessels leaving Brazil due to its proximity to this continent. As well as there have been trafficking vessels departing from ports in Argentina and Uruguay where the destination is Europe.

Transport through air

Smaller amounts of drugs are trafficked by air, in risky operations by “drug mules” who either swallow small amounts of drugs, or carry pounds or kilos of the illicit substance in their luggage. These drug mules generally work for Colombian organisations with a criminal partner organisation in the destination country

One important criminal organisation running such operations is “La Empresa,” a local mafia that’s long been in charge of Colombia’s largest port, Buenaventura. They will have foreign partners on the receiving end, more often than not these would be cells or gangs linked to large organised crime organisations.

Over the past few years, Venezuela has become a major transit hub for cocaine. Hundreds of clandestine airstrips have been found in the country, allegedly used to fly cocaine to Central America or, in fewer cases, to Caribbean islands like the Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico or the Bahamas.

Paperwork

Resolutions

A draft resolution may be introduced when it has the required number of signatories as well as the approval of the Chairperson. The primary sponsors and secondary sponsors of a resolution are known as authors and co-authors, respectively. The number of authors and co-authors of a resolution in a committee is decided by the chairperson. It is important to note that being a signatory to a resolution in no way implies support for the resolution; it simply expresses the wish to discuss that draft resolution before committee.

Introducing Resolutions

Introducing a resolution in committee begins with reading out its operative clauses following which committee may begin discussing the resolution. The minimum number of signatories required is usually 1/3rd of the total committee strength. This is at the discretion of the chairperson.

Amendment

An amendment is a change to be made to a resolution clause in its content or its deletion altogether. It requires the same number of signatures to pass as the number of signatories of the resolution, as well as the Director's approval. They, too, must be submitted via chit, with both the original clause as well as the changes to be made.

Resolution Writing

Before being formally introduced to the committee, a resolution is referred to as a Draft Resolution. Remember, a final resolution has to present a well thought out, feasible solution that will solve the crisis at hand. At SMUN, we work on the principle of one final resolution, so the draft resolution has to be extensive enough to cover the entire topic area.

Resolution Format

The title should be centred and can be creative or as simple as "Draft Resolution 1.0". Other headings include the Committee and Topic Area, both of which should be left aligned and presented below the title.

1. The resolution begins with your committee's name
2. The next section consists of pre-ambulatory clauses that describe the problem being addressed. Pre-ambulatory clauses are essential to promote the idea of greater security. Thus, an important action would be the reconstruction of societies where conflicts have abated. Pre-ambulatory clauses should include references to past actions taken, the history of the problem, and should

offer support for the purpose of the resolution. Each clause should begin with an italicised phrase and end with a comma.

3. Operative clauses are numbered and dictate action to be taken by the committee. Each operative clause is followed by a semicolon, except for the last which ends with a full stop. It is important to note that the full stop marks the end of the resolution and any clause after it will not be considered.

Please find below a list of sample preambulatory and operative phrases for ease of reference:

<i>Preambulatory Phrases</i>		<i>Operative Clauses</i>	
Affirming	Guided by	Accepts	Has resolved
Alarmed by	Having adopted	Affirms	Notes
Approving	Having considered	Approves	Proclaims
Aware of	Having considered further	Authorizes	Reaffirms
Bearing in mind	Having devoted attention	Calls for	Recommends
Believing	Having examined	Calls upon	Regrets
Cognizant of	Having heard	Condemns (SC only)	Reminds
Confident	Having received	Confirms	Requests
Contemplating	Having studied	Congratulates	Resolves
Convinced	Keeping in mind	Considers	Solemnly affirms
Declaring	Noting further	Declares accordingly	Strongly condemns
Deeply concerned	Noting with approval	Demands (SC only)	Supports
Deeply conscious	Noting with deep concern	Deplores	Takes note of
Deeply convinced	Noting with regret	Designates	Trusts
Deeply disturbed	Noting with satisfaction	Draws attention	Urges
Deeply regretting	Observing	Emphasizes	Welcomes
Desiring	Reaffirming	Encourages	
Emphasizing	Realizing	Endorses	
Expecting	Recalling	Expresses its appreciation	
Expressing its appreciation	Recognizing	Expresses its hope	
Expressing its satisfaction	Referring	Further invites	
Fulfilling	Seeking	Further proclaims	
Fully alarmed	Taking into account	Further recommends	
Fully aware	Taking note	Further reminds	
Fully believing	Viewing with appreciation	Further requests	
	Welcoming	Further resolves	

Directive

These are mini-resolutions that address an immediate issue that is in the committee room on which the majority of the members want to take action. These should not be as long or as complicated as resolutions. In fact, the best directives consist of only short, operative-phrase-like clauses. **Directives can either be written jointly or independently.**

Directives can be of 2 types:

1. Overt:

Used when delegates want to take public action,. Any action taken through overt directives will be immediately revealed to the committee if passed by the chair. The nations involved in these actions will also be publicly revealed.

2. Covert:

Used when delegates want to take hidden action, without the awareness of the committee. Any action taken through covert directives will remain hidden from the committee. Any nations involved in these actions will also not be revealed. However information may be leaked, or revealed upon the discretion of the chair.

Samples for paperwork:

<https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1GXoaDRmefmF04eDMdv4IGPMun8She6Of?usp=sharing>

Questions A Resolution Must Answer (QARMA)

1. What are the specific challenges and vulnerabilities in the current system that allow narcotics trafficking to persist?
 - Identifying weaknesses in existing systems helps in crafting targeted solutions.
2. What are the legal frameworks and international agreements in place for addressing narcotics trafficking?
 - Understanding the legal context is essential for compliance and cooperation.
3. How can intelligence and information sharing among law enforcement agencies be improved to combat narcotics trafficking more effectively?
 - Collaboration and data sharing are crucial aspects of control efforts.
4. What measures can be taken to strengthen border security and customs enforcement to detect and prevent narcotics smuggling?
 - This question involves physical security measures and technological advancements.
5. What strategies can be implemented to disrupt and dismantle narcotics trafficking networks?
 - Disrupting the organisational structure of traffickers is vital.

6. How can international cooperation and coordination be enhanced to combat the global nature of narcotics trafficking?
- Addressing transnational aspects of the issue is essential.
7. What rehabilitation and harm reduction programs should be integrated into the strategy to address the demand for narcotics?
- Reducing demand is a crucial component of control efforts.
8. What role do corruption and complicity within law enforcement and government agencies play in facilitating narcotics trafficking, and how can these issues be addressed?
- Addressing internal corruption is critical for effective control efforts.
9. How do socioeconomic factors and poverty contribute to involvement in narcotics trafficking, and how can socioeconomic development programs help reduce vulnerabilities?
- Addressing the root causes of involvement in trafficking is essential.
10. How can technology, such as surveillance systems and data analytics, be leveraged to enhance narcotics control efforts?
- Examining technological advancements is crucial in modernising enforcement.
11. What measures can be taken to reduce the production and cultivation of narcotics at the source, including strategies for alternative livelihoods?
- Source reduction is a key component of control.
12. How can a resolution address the dynamic and evolving nature of narcotics trafficking organisations, including their adaptation to new methods and technologies?
- Staying ahead of trafficking trends is essential.
13. What is the impact of narco-terrorism and the nexus between narcotics trafficking and terrorism, and how can this be addressed on a global scale?
- Considering security implications is crucial.
14. What are the potential unintended consequences of narcotics control efforts, and how can these be minimised?
- Avoiding unintended negative outcomes is crucial.
15. What international support and capacity-building measures are needed to assist countries with limited resources in their narcotics control efforts?

- Ensuring a global response is equitable

Suggestions for further research

1. <https://insightcrime.org/news/what-lies-behind-bolivias-expanding-cocaine-trade/>
2. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maritime_drug_trafficking_in_Latin_America#The_Atlantic_route
3. <https://www.ojp.gov/ncjrs/virtual-library/abstracts/war-drugs-peruvian-case>
4. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Illegal_drug_trade_in_Peru
5. [Mexico's Long War: Drugs, Crime, and the Cartels | Council on Foreign Relations \(cfr.org\)](#)
6. [Illegal drug trade in Colombia - Wikipedia](#)
7. [Colombia's drug problem is worse than ever. But it has a radical solution | CNN](#)
8. [Heroin Trafficking in the Golden Triangle | Office of Justice Programs \(ojp.gov\)](#)
9. [Golden Triangle \(Southeast Asia\) - Wikipedia](#)
10. [Heroin Trafficking in the Golden Crescent - Sankar Sen, 1992 \(sagepub.com\)](#)

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