
F. MAIN EFFORTS BY THE INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY

1. Role of the United Nations

(a) Overview

The United Nations (UN) Security Council—which during the Cold War was not always able to fully achieve the UN’s most important purpose, namely, the maintenance of international peace and security—is now expected to fulfill its original purpose more effectively with the end of the Cold War. At the same time, while the recent advance of globalization has made it possible for human beings to prosper even further, it has also forced the international community to deal with issues such as human rights violations; poverty; infectious diseases; crime; and environmental, population, and refugee problems. Under such circumstances, as the world’s only universal and comprehensive organization, and based also on the September 2000 Millennium Declaration,³² expectations are ever greater for the UN to play a central role in efforts by the international community to address the various issues of the 21st century.

Responding to those expectations, the UN moved quickly to address the September 11 terrorist attacks in the United States, playing a major role in the international crackdown on terrorist activities and in the stabilization and reconstruction of Afghanistan. At the beginning of October, General Assembly deliberations on measures to eradicate international terrorism were held with the participation of the majority of UN members, while the Sixth Committee has subsequently engaged in vigorous discussion toward the adoption of the relevant multilateral conventions for the prevention of terrorism. The UN Security Council also adopted a resolution calling on countries to institute comprehensive measures, financial aspects included, toward the prevention and eradication of terrorism. A further resolution was adopted authorizing the establishment of an International Security Assistance Force to maintain security in Afghanistan.

32. To mark the new millennium, the 55th Session of the General Assembly (September 2000–September 2001) was designated the Millennium Assembly of the United Nations. At the Millennium Summit, which was held September 6–8, 2000, members adopted the Millennium Declaration, which delineates the UN’s efforts to deal with issues of the 21st century.

Due to the September 11 attacks, the general debate session of the General Assembly, which usually takes place in September, was postponed until November 10–16. Former Prime Minister Kiichi Miyazawa represented the government of Japan, focusing his address on the issues of terrorism and Afghanistan.

(b) UN Reforms

The problems the international community has to address in respect to peace and prosperity in the 21st century are growing increasingly diverse and complex. In such circumstances, UN functions must be strengthened to respond to those issues more effectively. As observed in actions following the September 11 attacks, the Security Council, which bears the primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, is beginning to move beyond peace and security areas in the narrow sense to address a much wider range of issues, such as international finance and domestic criminal law. In order for the Security Council to function more effectively taking into account this new form of international cooperation, it is particularly urgent that the Security Council be reformed to reflect the current international situation.

Concrete discussion has been under way in the UN General Assembly's Open-ended Working Group on Security Council Reform and other fora for approximately eight years, since January 1994. In discussions at the 2000 Millennium Summit and the Millennium Assembly, the majority of members expressed their support for expanding both the permanent and non-permanent membership. In the UN General Assembly meeting on Security Council Reform (October 30–November 1, 2001), and the general debate session of the General Assembly (November 10–16), many countries expressed the need for Security Council reform and their support for the expansion of both permanent and non-permanent membership. Interest in Security Council reform evidently remains high despite the attention being drawn by the issues of terrorism and Afghanistan in the wake of the September 11 attacks.

Nevertheless, views among members remain divergent in regard to specific issues such as the scale of the expanded Security Council (the issue of "number"), the handling of the veto, and the means of selecting new permanent members, and reform has been left pending. Japan will continue to work hard on reform, to enable the new momentum of international cooperation lent by the terrorist attacks in the United States to be transformed into an engine for Security Council reform.

UN financial reform remains a key issue. Establishment of a sound financial foundation is vital to support the ever-expanding agenda of UN activities. Japan shoulders the second greatest financial burden among UN members (19.629 percent for the scale of assessments of 2001) and has consistently stressed the importance of financial reform, particularly promotion of the payment of the arrears and improvement of the financial situation; creation of a more efficient budget; and a more equitable scale

of assessments. However, in negotiations on the UN regular budget for the biennium 2002–03,³³ Japan took the position that while work needed to continue to restrain the scale of the budget through the introduction of greater efficiency, the UN budget priority areas (implementation of the Brahimi Report on strengthening UN Peacekeeping Operations [PKO], and measures to ensure the security of UN staff) were important. That resulted in the slight increase in budget size compared to the biennium 2000–01. The financial situation of the UN improved slightly in 2001 due to U.S. payment in part of its arrears.

(c) Japanese Staff

The number of Japanese staff working at the UN has not reached a desirable level compared to Japan's significant financial contribution to the organization, remaining at around one-third of the level suggested by the UN Secretariat. To improve this situation, the Japanese government has been working to attract capable Japanese candidates to work for the UN as well as urging the UN Secretariat and other international organizations to recruit or promote Japanese staff. Japan has also been working to improve Japanese representation through such means as the implementation of the Associate Expert Programme, and by receiving recruitment missions from the UN Secretariat and other international organizations.

As a result, the following Japanese were appointed as senior-level UN officials at international institutions in 2001. Kenzo Oshima served as UN under-secretary-general for humanitarian affairs in the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). Keiko Okaido became deputy executive secretary of the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, and Tomihiro Taniguchi took office as deputy director general at the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA). The number of young Japanese staff members has also increased, but the overall level remains unsatisfactory.

To further improve Japanese representation, greater efforts must be made to foster and identify human resources with the necessary qualifications. Recruitment Center for International Organizations of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs will establish a website as of FY 2002 to register new human resources and provide information, reinforcing mechanisms to support applications by as many Japanese as possible, including those living abroad.

(d) Strengthening UN Peacekeeping Operations (PKO)

The end of the Cold War has brought UN conflict resolution roles under review; today's international community needs to address more intra-state conflicts and conflicts that are both intra-state and international in character. As a result, more UN Peacekeeping Operations (PKO) that

33. The UN regular budget covers a two-year period.

cover civilian sectors to deal with diverse matters such as elections, police, humanitarian activities, and public administration are being established. To effectively carry out such diverse duties, the United Nations and external bodies are endeavoring to reinforce UN PKOs, learning from past experience.

As a response to the Brahimi Report³⁴ on United Nations peace operations (August 2000), the secretary-general submitted reports (implementation plans) to the General Assembly in October 2000 and June 2001. Based on the reports, relevant UN bodies including UN committees, the General Assembly, and the Security Council are discussing individual matters. Some of the recommendations that have gone through the process, including the bolstering of UN Secretariat personnel, have already been implemented.

Column

Japanese Working at International Organizations: (1)

My career with the United Nations (UN) began when a friend at the Fletcher School at Tufts University who had worked in the personnel department at the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) told me that the UN had very few Japanese employees, and he urged me to apply. Thus, I entered public service after having risen to the rank of section chief at a Japanese enterprise, and I have worked as a UN employee ever since, a period of more than 30 years.

Initially, I did not join the UN in order to achieve any great aspirations, but I have found the work to be stimulating and rewarding. Every day brings fresh challenges and drives me to continue studying to achieve higher goals. I have found working in a multicultural, multilingual, multinational context to be enjoyable, and I have been delighted on those occasions when I discover that UN work I have been personally involved in has produced concrete results.

The distinctive Japanese characteristics of emphasizing teamwork, consensus-building, and consideration to others are essential for international civil servants. Based on my long years at the UN, I would say that the keys to success include ability, conviction, diligence, interpersonal skills, as well as the flexibility to adapt to sudden changes in circumstances. Of course, English-language ability and other communications skills are also essential prerequisites.

In addition to self-help efforts, support from their home governments becomes increasingly important to UN employees as they advance into managerial positions. When I first became a UN employee, the Japanese government had virtually no support system, but Japan's support for its international civil servants is now extensive. For example, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs actively supports Japanese UN employees via its Recruitment Center for International Organizations and its UN representative office. Looking back over the past three decades, I would say that working as an international civil servant has been a truly worthwhile career for me and helped me to grow as a human being.

Toshiyuki Niwa

United Nations Assistant Secretary-General for Central Support Services

34. In March 2000, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan established an experts' panel to comprehensively review all UN peace activities, and particularly PKOs. In August,

Japan believes that the improvement and the strengthening of peace operations is an issue of critical importance to international peace and security, and Japan will continue to respond seriously to the Brahimi Report recommendations and proposals by participating actively in discussions and implementing possible cooperation.

Column

Japanese Working at International Organizations: (2) —On the Frontlines of the United Nation’s Refugee Works

About six years have now passed since I first began working for the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). I had wanted to become a UN employee to capitalize on my experience working in West Samoa for the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOVC). I finally qualified as a Junior Professional Officer (JPO) after taking the test several times, and I worked as a JPO for two years in Geneva. [The UN’s JPO Programme provides on-the-job field training for young people who wish to make a career in the general area of international development assistance.]

Following my formal employment by the UN, I worked in Kenya and Afghanistan. My station is changed every two years in accordance with the UNHCR’s rotation system. With it, my duties have also changed, from assisting with the administration of refugee camps to assisting with the return of former refugees. These shifts around the globe have made me feel like a migratory bird, or something like a refugee myself. Many refugee areas are politically unstable and have little or no public order. In fact, because of its policy of focusing on work on the frontlines, the UNHCR prohibits family members from accompanying employees to most of its operating areas, which may be dangerous, and there is no guarantee that those areas that have been safe in the past will remain so. I believe I have been able to continue with this work because I like it and because I have good health and a strong constitution.

The Japanese women who work for the UNHCR are all very strong. In the course of my duties, I have met many fascinating, vibrant women who are working overseas and live from their hearts, beginning with former UN High Commissioner for Refugees Sadako Ogata. It was my very great fortune to have begun working for the UNHCR when this fantastic role model for Japanese women was serving as the High Commissioner. I think that Ms. Ogata was the “thread” that wove together everyone’s spirits. To speak frankly, I believe that women with overwhelming vigor have an advantage in international organizations.

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(UNHCR)

the panel released its report (generally known as the “Brahimi Report” after Lakhdar Brahimi, chair of the panel), which contained around 60 recommendations. The report called for realistically achievable PKO missions and noted the importance of allowing sufficient personnel and capital resources for missions. While a system has been introduced whereby member countries place deployable staff on standby to allow rapid PKO deployment, the report called for expansion and reinforcement of these arrangements and also recommended strengthening support mechanisms within the UN Secretariat and elsewhere.

One issue not extensively covered in the Brahimi Report was the safety of UN Peacekeepers and associated personnel. Japan has been working actively to strengthen PKOs, holding a seminar on the issue in Tokyo in March 2001 and sharing the report based on the results with the relevant UN bodies.

2. Non-Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction

(a) Overview

In place of the U.S.–Russian Cold War confrontation, the Bush administration, formed in January 2001, has identified the acquisition of weapons of mass destruction and ballistic missiles by certain irresponsible states as the greatest threat to the international community today. It has also made clear its negative approach to certain multilateral frameworks for disarmament and non-proliferation on the grounds that these do not contribute to U.S. security, opposing the ratification of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT) and negotiations on a verification protocol for the Biological Weapons Convention (BWC).

The string of terrorist incidents since last September has strongly impressed on the international community the danger of weapons of mass destruction falling into the hands of not only irresponsible states but also terrorists, and the Bush administration has adopted a strong line against the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction in this regard. These recent developments have impacted strongly on international non-proliferation efforts, upgrading the urgency of non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction as an issue for the international community with a view now to preventing terrorism as well.

(b) Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT)

The Second Conference on Facilitating the Entry into Force of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT) was originally scheduled for September, but it was postponed because of the September 11 terrorist attacks until November 11–13, when it was held at United Nations Headquarters in New York. The Final Declaration was unanimously adopted by all 117 participating countries, calling for early signature and ratification of the CTBT by those countries that have yet to do so. However, the United States, which is one of the 44 countries whose ratification is required for the entry into force of the CTBT, has opposed ratification on the grounds of needing to maintain the reliability and safety of its nuclear weapons, and the U.S. did not participate in the conference. Because China, India, Pakistan, and 10 of the other countries whose ratification of the

CTBT is required for its entry into force have yet to ratify the treaty, the CTBT has still not entered into force.

Japan regards the CTBT alongside the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) safeguards as an indispensable pillar of the nuclear non-proliferation and disarmament regime centered on the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT), and consequently Japan places great importance on the CTBT's early entry into force. Japan served as the chair of the first Conference on Facilitating the Entry into Force of the CTBT in 1999 and has subsequently continued to work as a coordinator for forging a convergence of opinion. Japan regarded an increase in the number of countries signing or ratifying the CTBT by the time of the second conference as critical in maintaining and strengthening international momentum toward entry into force of the CTBT, and sent letters in August from Foreign Minister Makiko Tanaka to the 12 countries whose ratification is needed for the entry into force of the CTBT, requesting their early signature and ratification. Japan also reiterated its efforts to appeal to those countries through channels of various levels, with the result that three countries signed the CTBT and 10 countries ratified it over the three-month period leading up to the second conference. Japan will continue to work toward increasing the number of countries that have signed or ratified the treaty in order to increase the universality of the CTBT, and Japan will also work to develop the International Monitoring System (IMS) to set in place the nuclear test verification regime.

(c) Biological Weapons

The Biological Weapons Convention (BWC),³⁵ which entered into force in 1975, comprehensively prohibits the development, production, stockpiling, and retention of biological weapons, but it makes no provision whatsoever on measures to verify compliance by the states party to the convention. The negotiations had been conducted for more than six years since 1995 to draft a protocol, including verification measures to ensure a precise response to the global proliferation of biological weapons; and in early 2001, a compromise draft (the "Composite Text") was finally produced by the chairman of the Ad Hoc Group. However, in August, the United States completely rejected the Composite Text, deadlocking protocol negotiations.

In November, at the fifth BWC Review Conference (held once every five years), intense negotiations took place on measures to strengthen the BWC. However, the United States took the position that while the BWC must be strengthened, this needed to be achieved in some form other than a verification protocol, and on the final day of the meeting the U.S. proposed the

35. Entered into force in March 1975. As at January 2002, there were 145 signatory states. It comprehensively prohibits the development, production, stockpiling, and retention and transfer of biological weapons, and it also obligates signatories to dispose of their biological weapons.

definite termination of protocol negotiations. The meeting was therefore ultimately unable to reach agreement, and it was decided to suspend talks for a year, resuming in November 2002.

(d) Non-Proliferation Efforts and Terrorism

The September terrorist attacks highlighted the danger of weapons of mass destruction falling into the hands of terrorists, positioning the issue as a key challenge for the international community in terms of the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction. Firstly, within the G8 framework, non-proliferation experts are engaged in comprehensive discussion on combating terrorist use of weapons of mass destruction. Further, since the anthrax incidents in the United States, combating the terrorist use of biological weapons has also become a key issue, and particularly following the failure of BWC verification protocol negotiations, the international community is now looking to the Australia Group, part of the international export control regime.³⁶ In these circumstances, efforts geared toward the international expansion of non-proliferation initiatives are becoming imperative. As states of concern and terrorists are thought to be engaged on a global scale in a range of activities to acquire materials that can be used in the production and development of weapons of mass destruction and other weapons, non-proliferation efforts must be bolstered at the source. Attention has been drawn to Asian countries and regions as sources of procurement of, or hubs for transit trade in, these sensitive materials as a result of their recent economic development. Japan is pursuing dialogue with the Asian countries to strengthen non-proliferation efforts in the region.

3. Strengthening the Multilateral Trading System

(a) Overview

Maintaining and strengthening the multilateral trading system as the cornerstone for fair and free trade is a critical task for Japan. Japan has long considered the early launch of a new round of World Trade Organization (WTO) negotiations on multilateral

36. "International export control regime" is the generic term for a series of multilateral frameworks on export control. More specifically, it comprises the Wassenaar Arrangement (WA), which covers conventional weapons and dual-use goods and technologies; the Missile Technology Control Regime (MTCR), which deals with missiles and dual-use goods and technologies; the Nuclear Suppliers Group (NSG), which controls exports of nuclear materials, equipment, and technology, both dual-use and specially designed and prepared; and the Australia Group (AG), which deals with dual-use biological and chemical goods and technologies.

trade as essential to tariff reduction and further trade liberalization, as well as to the creation and improvement of rules in line with the changing times. In 1999, Japan worked with other WTO members to launch a new round at the Third WTO Ministerial Conference held in Seattle. The meeting, however, ended in failure due to conflicting interests among the members. Subsequently, a range of consultations and coordination led to the successful launch of a new round at the Fourth Ministerial Conference in Doha, Qatar, in November 2001, an extremely significant achievement in terms of maintaining and strengthening the multilateral trading system.

(b) Road to the New Round and Overview of the Round

Japan has continued to stress that the new round should be launched on the basis of a sufficiently broad-based agenda that reflects the interests of all WTO members, and Japan has actively hosted international conferences and led discussion to achieve this end. Japan presented the same argument at the September informal WTO Ministerial Meeting hosted by Mexico immediately prior to the Doha Ministerial Conference, as well as the informal WTO Ministerial Meeting hosted by Singapore in October, leading discussion in cooperation with other members to successfully build momentum toward the launch of a new round. Finally, at the Doha Ministerial Conference in November, members agreed to initiate a new round, stipulating three years of negotiations with a deadline of January 1, 2005, whereupon negotiation results will be accepted in principle as a single undertaking. The new round will deal not only with the trade liberalization agenda advocated by some members, but also, as Japan has argued, a wide range of other areas including the creation and improvement of rules such as those for anti-dumping and subsidies. Over the coming years, it will be important to ensure that the new round develops in line with Japan's national interests. Key negotiation areas in the new round and Japan's position on these are as follows.

• *Agriculture*

Negotiations on agriculture were launched in 2000 as part of the "built-in agenda" (BIA)³⁷ pursuant to the WTO Agreement on Agriculture.³⁸ Differences arose between, on the one hand, Canada, Australia, Brazil, and other members of the Cairns Group (a group of agricultural exporting countries)—all of which argued for advancing the agriculture negotiations toward more ambitious goals (to put trade

37. At the conclusion of the Uruguay Round, members agreed to launch new negotiations on agriculture, services, and some aspects of intellectual property rights as of 2000 as the "built-in agenda."

38. Article 20 of the Agreement calls for negotiations to be launched as of 2000 as a continuation of the reform process.

in agricultural products on the same basis as trade in non-agricultural products)³⁹—and Japan, the European Union (EU), and other members that opposed prejudging the outcome of negotiations. The position of the latter group was reflected in the Ministerial Declaration, which did not contain the “same-rules” argument and instead directed continuation of the current agriculture negotiations. Japan will continue to aim for trade rules on agriculture that allow for the co-existence of various types of agriculture.

- *Services*

With regard to services, on which negotiation had also been launched in 2000 as part of the built-in agenda, it is worth noting that the Ministerial Declaration adopted a framework to ensure smooth progress in negotiations. More specifically, it was decided that the members shall submit initial requests for specific commitments by June 30, 2002 and initial offers by March 31, 2003. Japan will continue to participate actively in negotiations toward a further liberalization of trade in services.

- *Anti-dumping*

While certain WTO members, the United States in particular, opposed negotiations on the Agreement on Anti-Dumping, Japan and many other members sought the launch of negotiations on the agreement on the grounds that abuses of anti-dumping measures threaten the multilateral trade system. In the end that argument was accepted, and the new round will include negotiations aimed at clarifying and improving Anti-Dumping Agreement disciplines. In the negotiations, Japan will continue to call for the strengthening of disciplines to ensure that anti-dumping measures are not abused and do not influence normal trade activities.

- *Investment*

While Japan, the EU, and other WTO members pushed for investment negotiations to be launched in the new round, some developing countries opposed this because of the potential constraints on national development policies. As a result, along with other issues from the Singapore Agenda,⁴⁰ it was decided that considerations on investment would continue toward launching negotiations following the Fifth Ministerial Conference⁴¹ on the

39. Argument that different trade rules should not be applied to agricultural and non-agricultural products.

40. The Singapore Agenda comprises investment, competition, trade facilitation, and transparency of government procurement issues. It was decided at the 1996 Singapore Ministerial Meeting that discussions on these issues would be started.

41. The Ministerial Conference, the supreme decision-making body in the WTO, is held at least once every two years. The Fifth Ministerial Conference will be held in Mexico (schedule pending).

basis of explicit consensus. It will be important to appeal to those developing countries that are negative toward negotiations through, for example, capacity-building in trade-related areas, as well as to accelerate considerations so that negotiations will be smoothly launched after the Fifth Ministerial Conference.

- *Trade and Environment*

Issues such as Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE) and genetically modified foods have increased public concern over food safety, and led the EU to argue for the launch of negotiations on trade and environment issues, including the creation of new rules. The United States and the developing countries, however, opposed such negotiations, arguing that trade restrictions imposed in the name of environmental protection could result in disguised protectionism. The Ministerial Declaration notes that negotiations will be initiated on some aspects of this issue, such as the relation between Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs) and WTO rules.⁴² Japan will move actively on this issue, bearing in mind global environmental issues and the sustainable use of resources.

- *Implementation issues*

Implementation issues⁴³ became a key point, with some developing countries arguing that the resolution of such issues was a prerequisite for launching a new round. Ministers opted for a three-track approach, apart from the Ministerial Declaration, adopting the Doha Ministerial Conference's Decision on Implementation-related Issues and Concerns to resolve some of the issues raised, while dividing unsolved items into two categories: those to be negotiated in the new round, and those to be addressed by relevant WTO councils and committees. Partnership with developing countries will be essential in facilitating the new round of negotiations, and Japan intends to take due account of the concerns of developing countries.

(c) Expansion of WTO Membership

The widest possible participation of countries and customs territories in the WTO is critical in strengthening the multilateral trading system and

42. The issue of consistency between trade-related measures (export and import controls, etc.) in MEAs (for example, the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Waste and Their Disposal) and obligations under the WTO Agreement.

43. Issues whereby developing countries feel they are not receiving adequate benefit from trade liberalization following the Uruguay Round and are seeking lighter obligations under the current WTO Agreement as well as a framework for trade rules that will provide more benefit to developing countries (special and differential treatment, etc.).

in making it more universal. The inclusion of Lithuania, Moldova, China, and Taiwan was approved in 2001, bringing total WTO membership to 144 countries and customs territories (as at January 2002). The accession of China in particular will boost China's legal predictability and stability in terms of external trade and economy, improve market access, encourage the government's policy of openness and reform, and contribute to world prosperity and stability. Russia, Vietnam, Saudi Arabia, and 29 other countries and customs territories are currently in the process of applying for WTO membership. It will be vital to encourage better market access and domestic systemic reform through accession negotiations.

(d) The WTO Dispute Settlement Procedure

The WTO dispute settlement procedure has significantly strengthened and expedited the handling of disputes compared with the prior measures available during the era of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). The WTO procedure clearly specifies the various deadlines, and it is widely utilized by WTO members. In fact, the number of cases referred to panels has increased dramatically. From the time the WTO was launched in January 1995 up until the middle of October 2001, there were 239 requests for consultations, and panel and appellate body reports were produced in 53 cases.

Like other WTO members, Japan actively utilizes the WTO dispute settlement procedure. For example, a panel report will be issued in FY 2002 in regard to the Byrd Amendment, which stipulates that anti-dumping duties and countervailing duties collected by the U.S. government will be distributed to domestic products who file or support the original petition. The decision also went against the United States in regard to anti-dumping measures imposed on certain Japanese hot-rolled steel products, and as a result of the arbitration on the reasonable period of time for implementation of the WTO recommendation, the U.S. is required to complete its implementation procedures, including amendment of domestic law, by November 23, 2002.

The impartial and fair WTO dispute settlement procedure contributes to maintaining the stability of the multilateral trading system. This system not only resolves individual disputes, but also contributes to rule-making through the formation of precedents. Japan has made a substantial contribution to the considerations currently under way on further improvement of the WTO dispute settlement understanding, and the new round will include negotiations toward agreement on improving and clarifying the Dispute Settlement Understanding⁴⁴ by May 2003. Further enhancing the effectiveness and reliability of the WTO dispute settlement procedure will remain an important issue in the future.

44. Stipulates rules and procedures in regard to WTO dispute settlement.

4. Efforts on Global Warming Issues

(a) Overview

Greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide that are produced by the burning of fossil fuel and other fuel emissions cause global warming, and they are forecast to have various impacts on the global climate and ecosystem such as more frequent flooding and drought and loss of land through rising sea levels. Such climate change issues are critical matters that could threaten the continued existence of all humankind, spurring the international community to create a multilateral convention on climate change and work toward its implementation. Japan recognizes that effective global-scale responses to global warming are vital in maintaining the stability and boosting the prosperity of the international community, and Japan is working actively with the international community toward the 2002 entry into force of the Kyoto Protocol.

(b) Specific Efforts

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change was formed in 1992 with the aim of stabilizing the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. The agreement entered into force in 1994. The Third Session of the Conference of the Parties to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (COP 3), held in Kyoto in 1997, adopted the Kyoto Protocol, which obligates the developed countries and those countries undergoing transition to a market economy to restrain and reduce⁴⁵ their greenhouse gas emissions. Negotiations continued toward implementation of the Kyoto Protocol, and at the Sixth Session of the Conference of the Parties (COP 6), held in The Hague in November 2000, members discussed the specific rules necessary for implementation of the Kyoto Protocol, including assistance for developing countries (“developing country assistance issue”), the “Kyoto Mechanisms”⁴⁶ such as international emissions trading, the consequences of non-compliance (procedures and mechanisms relating to compliance), and the handling of greenhouse gas removals and reservoirs by forest and other natural systems (sinks), aiming to bring the Kyoto Protocol into force in 2002. However, agreement

45. Under the Kyoto Protocol, developed countries and market economy transition countries are obliged to reduce or restrain their greenhouse gas emissions to 1990 levels over the five years between 2008 and 2012 (minus eight percent in the case of the EU, minus seven percent for the U.S., minus six percent for Japan, etc.).

46. The Kyoto Mechanisms comprise the following three systems stipulated in the Kyoto Protocol: (1) International emissions trading: a system allowing developed countries to sell a portion of their emission quota; (2) Joint implementation: a system whereby developed country A can engage jointly in greenhouse gas reduction programs in

was not reached. COP 6 was therefore suspended temporarily, scheduled to be resumed in Bonn in July 2001.

In March 2001, prior to the reconvening of COP 6, the United States announced that it would not support the Kyoto Protocol because developing countries were not obligated to restrain or reduce their greenhouse gas emissions to quantified levels, and because it would have a negative impact on the U.S. economy. Concerned of the impact that this U.S. action would have on the upcoming negotiations, Japan announced that it would do its utmost in the negotiations to open the way for the relevant countries to conclude the Kyoto Protocol, aiming at its entry into force by 2002. Japan also noted the importance of the United States concluding the Kyoto Protocol—as it emits approximately one quarter of the world's carbon dioxide—and indicated that Japan would seize every possible opportunity to appeal to the United States to participate constructively in negotiations toward the entry into force of the Kyoto Protocol. Based on this position, Prime Minister Yoshiro Mori sent a letter to President George W. Bush on March 30, while Foreign Minister Yohei Kono, Environmental Minister Yoriko Kawaguchi, and the other relevant ministers followed suit in actively lobbying the United States. In April, a government delegation headed by Senior Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs Kiyohiro Araki was dispatched to the United States together with a delegation formed of members of the three ruling parties, and they endeavored to convey Japan's concerns and to urge the United States to participate in the negotiations and work actively with Japan to seek agreement. The Kyoto Protocol issue was raised again at the June summit between Japan and the United States and at the Foreign Ministers' Meeting. At the summit, leaders decided to hold the High-Level Japan-U.S. Government-to-Government Consultations to explore common ground and areas for common action on climate change. The first High-Level Japan-U.S. Government-to-Government Consultations were held in July; and in September, the Japan-U.S. Working-Level Meeting was held to consult on the market mechanisms, science and technology, and the developing country issue agreed to be discussed during the consultations. At the July Genoa Summit, leaders noted that while there was currently some disagreement on the Kyoto Protocol and its ratification among the G8, they were committed to working intensively together to meet their common objective.

The United States conducted a high-level review of climate change policy; but in July, COP 6 reconvened before the review was completed. At COP 6 bis, ministerial-level discussions were held on key issues regarding the Kyoto Protocol, namely the Kyoto Mechanisms, the compliance mechanism, sinks, and developing country assistance, and basic agreement (the

developed country B, with the emission reduction achieved accordingly transferred from B's emission quota to A's emission quota; (3) Clean development mechanism: a system whereby developed countries conduct greenhouse gas emission reduction programs in developing countries, with part of the emission reduction added to the developed country's emission quota.

Bonn Agreement) was reached on the “core elements.” Further, at the Seventh Session of the Conference of the Parties (COP 7), held from October to November in Marrakech, rules related to implementation of the Kyoto Protocol were agreed to based on the Bonn Agreement. As a result, rules were formed for the Kyoto Mechanisms that will enable their flexible and broad-ranging utilization, albeit with some constraints, and allow them to function in reality. In relation to sinks, ceiling values were formally secured to allow the absorption volume needed for Japan. In regard to developing country assistance, it was formally agreed to establish a special climate change fund, a least-developed-countries fund, and an adaptation fund under the Kyoto Protocol to strengthen cooperation for developing countries.

Following the agreement at COP 7, Japan decided to establish the Global Warming Prevention Headquarters and launch fully into preparations toward conclusion of the Kyoto Protocol in 2002. To secure the effectiveness of global warming countermeasures, it will also be vital that all countries work to reduce the greenhouse effect; and Japan has decided that, with the goal that all countries act under a single rule, Japan will continue its maximum efforts in seeking a constructive response from the United States and in formulating international rules with the participation of the developing countries.

5. Combating Infectious Disease

(a) Overview

The issues of infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria, which are seriously impacting the developing world, are not simply the problem of those countries suffering from the epidemics; they are an urgent issue that must be addressed by the international community as a whole in order to realize the stability and prosperity of the international community. Based on this recognition, Japan has contributed actively to the constructive discussion at the United Nations (UN) General Assembly Special Session on HIV/AIDS and the launch of the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM), as means of promoting efforts by the international community as a whole, private and public sector included.

(b) UN General Assembly Special Session on HIV/AIDS

The UN General Assembly Special Session on HIV/AIDS was held June 25–27 at UN Headquarters in New York. The Special Session was the first international conference at which the UN dealt directly with

HIV/AIDS issues, which are becoming increasingly serious in developing countries in particular, and the Special Session became an historic conference by setting up common strategies and action goals for HIV/AIDS measures. The Declaration of Commitment adopted by the meeting underlined the importance of leadership in dealing with HIV/AIDS, and it established specific goals for action in regard to a broad range of HIV/AIDS measures at the national, regional, and global levels, including measures to protect young adults, women, and children, who are the most vulnerable to the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The Declaration of Commitment also supported launching a worldwide fund-raising campaign to contribute to a new global HIV/AIDS and health fund, and it expressed a commitment to further strengthening efforts by the international community to combat HIV/AIDS.

At the G8 Kyushu–Okinawa Summit, Japan positioned the issue of infectious diseases control as a central agenda item and launched the Okinawa Infectious Diseases Initiative (IDI) with a target of allocating a total of US\$3 billion over the next five years. These efforts by Japan in combating infectious disease led to a trend toward strengthening global-level efforts that resulted in the convention of the UN General Assembly Special Session. Japan sent a large delegation to the session, headed by former Prime Minister Yoshiro Mori, who chaired the Kyushu–Okinawa Summit, and comprising eminent Japanese figures and representatives from non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The Japanese delegation participated actively in the discussion. Head of Delegation Mori spoke on behalf of the delegation, delineating Japan’s performance to date in combating infectious diseases based on the central pillar of the IDI. He announced that Japan would donate a substantial sum to the new global fund, and he expressed Japan’s determination to continue to play a leading role in this area.

(c) The Launching of the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM)

In the process subsequent to the Kyushu-Okinawa Summit, discussion on establishing a global fund, discussion at the UN General Assembly Special Session on HIV/AIDS, and announcements of national pledges led to agreement at the July 2001 Genoa Summit to immediately establish a working group to advance preparations toward launching the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM) in 2001. As of October, a transitional working group comprising donor countries, developing countries, related NGOs, representatives of private-sector groups, and international institutions began meeting in Brussels to engage in preparations. As a result, the final meeting of the transitional working group in December produced an agreement on a basic framework including institutional structure and organization as well as management and operation methods, deciding that the GFATM would be established in Geneva in January 2002 as a private-sector foundation

under Swiss law. In January 2002, a Board of Directors (the GFATM's supreme decision-making body) comprising 18 representatives from Japan and other donor countries, developing countries, NGOs, and private-sector groups met for the first time in Geneva, launching the fund's activities.

At the June 2001 Japan–U.S. Summit talks, Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi pledged US\$200 million to the fund from Japan. Total pledges or donations that have been announced by the G8 and other developed countries, developing countries, private-sector groups, and other sources amount to around US\$1.9 billion (as of January 2002).

The GFATM is designed to provide financial support for prevention, treatment, and care in regard to HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria based on a partnership between government and the private sector and the self-help efforts of developing countries. As a member of the Board of Directors, Japan will participate actively in GFATM activities to ensure effective and efficient implementation of GFATM projects.

6. Human Security

(a) Defining Human Security

Human security is a concept that focuses on the strengthening of human-centered efforts from the perspective of protecting the lives, livelihoods, and dignity of individual human beings and realizing the abundant potential inherent in each individual.

The international community currently faces a range of threats, including terrorism, poverty, environmental degradation, conflict, land mines, refugee problems, drugs, and infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS. The terrorist attacks of September 11 reminded the international community that it needs to pay attention to the risk that factors such as conflict and poverty would create hotbeds of terrorism. The international community must make active efforts to remove the various threats that endanger the lives of individuals, as well as to combat terrorism.

Dealing effectively with the growing diversity and complexity of the various threats to the post–Cold War international community will require the cooperation of all actors in that community, including not only governments but also international organizations and civil society including non-governmental organizations (NGOs), in order to create and sustain a society in which every individual can realize his or her potential. That is the goal of human security, and it is one of the key perspectives of Japanese foreign policy.

(b) Japan's Leadership

Endorsing human security as the cornerstone of international cooperation in the 21st century, Japan is striving to make the new century a human-centered one.

In response to the statement by Prime Minister Yoshiro Mori in his address to the United Nations (UN) Millennium Summit in September 2000, the Commission on Human Security was established in January 2001, co-chaired by former United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Sadako Ogata and Professor Amartya Sen, master of Trinity College, Cambridge. Among the 12 key internationally prominent members comprising the Commission is Special Representative of UN Secretary-General for Afghanistan Lakhdar Brahimi. The goals of the Commission are to develop the concept of human security and make recommendations that will serve as a guideline for concrete action to be taken by the international community. The first meeting was held in New York in June, the second in Tokyo in December. Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi has indicated that Japan will continue to support the Commission on Human Security.

Japan also drew around ¥7.7 billion from the FY 2001 budget to contribute to the Trust Fund for Human Security, a fund established within the UN that grew to a cumulative total of around ¥18.8 billion as at March 2002, thereby becoming the largest UN trust fund. The Fund assists projects by international institutions that engage in global-scale issues from a human security perspective. Specific programs supported by the Fund in 2001 included implementation of assistance activities for pregnant women and infants in drought-affected districts in Kenya, and the repair of water facilities destroyed by the earthquake in western India.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs hosted an international symposium in Tokyo in December. Addressing the theme of "Human Security and Terrorism," it was attended by members of the Commission on Human Security and other key figures from Japan and abroad. Taking the case of Afghanistan as an example, participants engaged in vigorous discussion on issues related to threats to human security and efforts by the international community to promote human security.

Through the activities explained above, Japan is demonstrating international leadership in the promotion of human security by instituting a series of concrete measures and providing active intellectual and financial contributions. These efforts will be strengthened in the years to come, positioning human security as a key perspective in the development of Japan's foreign policy.