REPORT ON THE KINGDOM OF MOROCCO’S VIOLATIONS OF ARTICLE 1 OF THE INTERNATIONAL COVENANT ON ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS IN THE PARTS OF WESTERN SAHARA UNDER MOROCCAN OCCUPATION

On the occasion of Morocco’s fourth periodic report on the implementation of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

To the attention of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

Submitted by Western Sahara Resource Watch to the Committee on 18 August 2015

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Executive Summary

2015 marks forty years since the invasion and occupation of what has come to be regarded as Africa’s last colony, Western Sahara. A significant number of well-established human rights obligations apply in the three quarters of the territory that is under Moroccan occupation. International law contains clear prescriptions for the protection, political independence and advancement of the Saharawi people, who were the original inhabitants of Western Sahara, then Spanish Sahara, until they were abandoned by Spain in 1975. Foremost is the right of self-determination of non-self-governing peoples. The norms prescribed by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights have been consistently violated in occupied Western Sahara.

This submission for the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights has been prepared by Western Sahara Resource Watch, an international non-governmental organization, based in Brussels. It is intended to highlight the significant failure of Morocco as the occupying power or State with responsibility for the territory of Western Sahara and the Saharawi people to ensure even the most basic compliance with the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The submission presents evidence of the problem, and discusses remedial responses suggested to be adopted by the Committee.

The submission begins with a review of the application of the Covenant in Western Sahara. It then addresses the right of self-determination of the Saharawi people, noting the clear legal basis for such a right both in the Covenant and international law at large, including with it the elective choice of independence that Morocco as occupying power has proposed to derogate from in a so-called autonomy proposal made in 2007. The continuing violation of Article 1 of the Covenant in this respect is reviewed, and inquiries are proposed to the Committee.

The second part of the submission surveys the problem of the violation of the Saharawi people’s rights to their natural resources, offering details about the taking of the resources without the required minimal conditions of consent by and a benefit from their realization to the Saharawi people, and the attendant consequences of the acceptability of resource development serving as a cover for the illegal in-migration of Moroccan nationals into the occupied area of Western Sahara and for entrenching the annexation of the territory. Inquiries are also presented here to the Committee for further consideration and accountability in the context of the Covenant’s requirements for the respect for rights to natural resources.

The submission concludes with suggested recommendations to be made by the Committee to Morocco in an effort to reveal the continuing dimensions of a failure to comply with the Covenant, including specific measures to ensure the organization of a self-determination referendum in Western Sahara for the Saharawi people within prescribed international legal requirements, and the further urging of meaningful compliance with the Covenant upon Morocco.
Western Sahara Resource Watch

1. Western Sahara Resource Watch (WSRW) is an independent, non-governmental organization based in Brussels with an international board of directors, operating in more than 40 countries. Our principal purpose is to monitor and comment about the taking of natural resources from occupied Western Sahara, and to address related human rights and environmental protection issues. For several years, our organization has called attention to the problems of illegal fishing, phosphate rock exports and seabed petroleum exploration in the coastal waters of Western Sahara. The taking of natural resources from Western Sahara has proven to be an important dimension of Morocco’s continuing annexation of the territory, enriching that country and allowing it to justify expanded infrastructure and the illegal immigration of settlers. WSRW conducts research and reports about the problems in occupied Western Sahara that result from a combination of the territory’s armed occupation, human rights abuses, environmental degradation and the taking of natural resources.

2. We emphasize the importance of our organization’s independence. WSRW, while supporting the right of the Saharawi people to self-determination as guaranteed them by international law (and the commitments of the organized international community), is completely independent in its governance, operations and campaign work. It is not funded by any direct or indirect means by any person or party under or involved in the occupation of Western Sahara.
The applicability of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in occupied Western Sahara

3. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (the ICESCR and the Covenant) applies throughout Western Sahara, both the larger area occupied by Morocco and the inland part held by the Saharawi government east of the sand wall that divides the territory.\(^1\) Morocco, the occupying power, ratified the ICESCR on 3 May 1979, and Spain, the colonial and de jure administering power with continuing responsibility for the people and territory of Western Sahara, gave its ratification on 27 April 1977.\(^2\)

The near-universal accession to and acceptance of the ICESCR as a matter of customary international law together with the application of Article 73 of the UN Charter in the circumstances of the Saharawi as a non-self-governing people also result in the Covenant having effect in the occupied part of Western Sahara.\(^3\)

4. WSRW submits that virtually all of the substantive obligations of the ICESCR – Parts I, II and III (i.e. Articles 1–15) – that are incumbent upon Morocco in occupied Western Sahara continue to be gravely and systematically violated. It is contended that the evidence of such violation is manifold, and the root cause of the matter can be traced to the denial of the Saharawi people’s right of self-determination that is provided for in Article 1 of the Covenant.\(^4\) In view of WSRW’s objectives and competence, this submission to the Committee will focus on Morocco’s violation of Article 1 of the ICESCR, a provision to guarantee the right to self-determination and the right to freely dispose of natural resources as its corollary.

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\(^2\) Neither State has made a declaration or reservation to the ICESCR. On 23 September 2010 Spain ratified the 2008 Optional Protocol to the ICESCR (in force 5 May 2013).

\(^3\) United Nations Charter, 1 UNTS XVI (in force 24 October 1945). Article 73 provides in part that: “Members of the United Nations which have or assume responsibilities for the administration of territories whose peoples have not yet attained a full measure of self-government recognize the principle that the interests of the inhabitants of these territories are paramount, and accept as a sacred trust the obligation to promote to the utmost, within the system of international peace and security established by the present Charter, the well-being of the inhabitants of these territories, and, to this end ... to ensure, with due respect for the culture of the peoples concerned, their political, economic, social, and educational advancement, their just treatment, and their protection against abuses ...”

\(^4\) The International Court of Justice, the UN General Assembly and the UN Security Council have consistently affirmed the Saharawi people’s right of self-determination in the context of decolonization under UN General Assembly Resolution 1514 (XV) of 14 December 1960. See notably the conclusion of the ICJ in the Western Sahara Advisory Opinion, ICJ Reports 1975, 12.
Observations regarding violations of ICESCR in Western Sahara

Article 1, paragraph 1: The Right to Self-Determination

Art. 1, para. 1: “All peoples have the right of self-determination. By virtue of that right they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development.”

5. Article 1 is both chapeau of the Covenant and entirely, if generally, explains significant violations of most human rights in that part of Western Sahara which is under armed occupation today. Article 1(1) prescribes that all peoples have the right to self-determination. It is noted that this right in the context of colonized (i.e. non-self-governing) peoples is one binding on all States; an obligation erga omnes. It is also a peremptory norm of international law and therefore animates all considerations of the application of the ICESCR in occupied Western Sahara. Article 1(3) complements Article 1(1), requiring States which are a party to the ICESCR to specifically promote the realization of self-determination of non-self-governing territories.

6. The Kingdom of Morocco recognized the Saharawi people’s right to self-determination by its agreement to the 1991 UN-sponsored settlement plan, accepting there would be a referendum on self-determination wherein the people of the territory could freely decide their future status, including that of their territory.5 The UN’s Mission des Nations Unies pour l’Organisation d’un Référendum au Sahara Occidental (MINURSO) has been present in the territory since 1991 with the sole purpose of organizing the referendum.6 The African Union Summit of 14-15 June 2015 asked “the UN General Assembly to determine a date for the holding of the self-determination referendum for the people of Western Sahara and protect the integrity of the Western Sahara as a non-self-governing territory from any act which may undermine it”.7

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5 The 1991 settlement agreement, imposing a ceasefire and the requirement for a self-determination referendum is detailed in two reports of the UN Secretary-General to the UN Security Council, UN docs. S/21360 (18 June 1990) and S/22464 (19 April 1991). “The two parties, namely the Kingdom of Morocco and the Frente POLISARIO, recognize in the settlement proposals that the sole and exclusive responsibility for the organization and conduct of the referendum is vested in the United Nations.” S/22464 § 9. See also UNSC Resolution 621 (1988) of September 1988.


7. In 2006, the Committee issued the following recommendation to Morocco:

“The State party should make every effort to find a clear and definitive solution to the issue of self-determination for the people of Western Sahara and take steps to protect the rights of persons displaced by the conflict in Western Sahara and to ensure their safety.”

8. In its March 2014 State report, Morocco replied to the Committee’s recommendation by describing a proposal to grant Western Sahara a degree of autonomy through the “Moroccan Extended Autonomy Initiative”. The report also notes that “His Majesty the King created a special 141-member body for the Saharans, the Royal Advisory Council on Saharan Affairs. The Council’s terms of reference include the development of an autonomy plan based on reconciliation, an initiative that broadly complies with the principle of self-determination.” The State report added that Morocco has “proposed that a referendum on the autonomy statute produced as a result of the negotiations should be held among the population concerned, in accordance with the principle of self-determination and the Charter of the United Nations.”

9. In its Reply to the List of Issues of 9 July 2015, the Moroccan government said again that its autonomy proposal is in line with the principles of self-determination. The very idea of a top-down, occupying State-conceived autonomy initiative, ostensibly developed by a Council of 141 individuals with sworn allegiance to the Moroccan monarchy, is diametrically opposite the bottom-up character of the right to self-determination: a people having the right to choose from a panoply of options; ranging from complete independence to complete integration, rather than that of accepting or rejecting a single proposal sponsored by a foreign government with no legal status in relation to the territory. Furthermore, Morocco’s State report and its reply to the List of Issues do not specify who would be granted the right to vote in such a referendum or when it would take place. It strongly suggests that those entitled to vote will not be given the option of choosing independence over regional autonomy. As such, the non-self-governing Saharawi people would not have the ability to freely decide the future political status of their homeland. Accordingly, Morocco’s proposal falls well outside the principle of self-determination provided by Art. 1, para.1 of the ICESCR.


9 The Royal Advisory Council on Saharan Affairs was first created by the late king Hassan II in the 1970s, and was reestablished by the present monarch, Mohammed VI, in early 2006.


10. Morocco’s reply to the List of Issues states that an internal process of consultation allowing the “population of the southern provinces” to share its views on the implementation of autonomy has been completed. Again, Morocco fails to comprehend the core principle of the right of self-determination that has been accorded to the Saharawi people. The central question does not concern the matter of the implementation of autonomy, but rather which political future the Saharawi people will freely choose. Autonomy is only one of several required options. Furthermore, it is not “the population of the southern provinces”, which includes a majority of Moroccan settlers, that needs to be consulted, it is the Saharawi people – including those who have fled their homeland as a direct consequence of Morocco’s invasion and ensuing occupation of a large part of the territory.12

11. In its reports to the Committee, Morocco consistently refers to the occupied parts of Western Sahara as the “Southern provinces” or the “Moroccan Sahara”. Morocco’s Constitution considers the entire territory of Western Sahara as part of its national territory.13 14 This demonstrates the complete lack of respect for the Saharawi people’s right to self-determination, as the right to determine the status of the territory resides with them, not with the Moroccan legislative body.

12. Morocco’s refusal to allow the Saharawi people to exercise their internationally recognized right to self-determination was exemplified by a speech of the Moroccan head of state, King Mohammed VI, on the occasion of the anniversary of the 1975 Green March - an event that was part of Morocco’s invasion of Western Sahara - on 6 November 2014. The King declared that “Morocco will remain in its Sahara, and the Sahara will remain part of Morocco, until the end of time ... When Morocco opened the door to negotiations with a view to reaching a lasting solution to the artificial dispute over the Sahara, the issue was not - and never will be - our country’s sovereignty and territorial integrity ... The autonomy initiative is the maximum Morocco can offer in terms of negotiation to achieve a final solution to this regional conflict.”15

13. This intransigence is evident even in Morocco’s reply to the List of Issues, where it states that “The Sahara has been an integral part of the Kingdom since time immemorial”, and goes on to make the inaccurate claim that “the retrocession of different parts of its national territory were negotiated in full conformity with the principles and aims of the UN Charter”.16

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12 The difference between the population of occupied Western Sahara and the Saharawi people is of crucial importance, and is further elaborated upon in paragraph 29 of this document.
14. Another clear example of Morocco’s antagonism to the idea of Saharawi self-determination is the law governing the right of association, which stipulates that associations or groups that have the objective of impairing the territorial integrity of Morocco, are forbidden.\(^{17}\) Those connected to the constitution of such a group, can be condemned to 5 years imprisonment and substantial fines.\(^ {18}\) Over the years, well-known Saharawi activists have been condemned to lengthy prison sentences based on the accusation of having undermined Morocco’s territorial integrity.\(^ {19-20}\)

15. While prohibiting (and harassing) self-determination minded Saharawi organizations from operating with the necessary legal recognition, the Moroccan authorities did formally create in 2011 a National Council for Human Rights (CNDH). It replaced the Consultative Council on Human Rights that had been created by king Hassan II in 1990.\(^ {21}\) Because it is a government institution, financed and appointed by the Moroccan authorities, CNDH cannot be viewed as an independent human rights body, particularly in occupied Western Sahara. CNDH purports to operate from two offices in the occupied territory - one in El Aaiun and another in Dakhla – and also receives complaints of human rights violations in the territory. Nevertheless, the CNDH has little credibility with Saharawis, who claim that it fails greatly to adequately address many cases in Western Sahara.\(^ {22}\) Several larger Saharawi human rights groups deplore CNDH’s lack of follow-up on cases brought to its attention, and claim that the institution has done nothing with regard to the cases of the many disappeared Saharawis. The 2013 discovery of the first Saharawi mass grave, which harbored eight bodies, brought CNDH in even further discredit, as the institution had previously concluded that four of the eight had died in prison, while the remaining four were not even included in CNDH’s list of victims of forced disappearance.\(^ {23}\)


\(^ {18}\) Ibid. Art. 30

\(^ {19}\) See e.g. the case of the Casablanca 7, where seven known Saharawi activists from occupied Western Sahara were arrested on 8 October 2009 in Casablanca airport upon their return from visiting the Saharawi refugee camps in Algeria. They were tried and condemned for “undermining the supreme interests of the Nation”. See e.g. Amnesty International, 14 October 2009, “Saharawi activists on trial for visiting refugee camps”, <https://www.amnesty.org/en/library/asset/MDE29/011/2013/en/1e3eb4ad-dc05-4f6b-9716-1aa3217238b1/mde290112013en.html>

\(^ {20}\) In practice, Morocco has not allowed Saharawi associations that overtly advocate the right to self-determination or independence to register and function legally in the territory. Only recently, it granted a temporary registration to a Saharawi human rights group called ASVDH, and a consideration of granting full legal recognition is presumably pending at the time of writing. See e.g. Frontline Defenders, Morocco grants temporary registration to human rights group ASVDH, 29 June 2015, <https://www.frontlinedefenders.org/node/29017>. At the same time, the Moroccan authorities have given the same status to another group active in Western Sahara called Al Ghad, which Saharawis claim consists of Moroccan settlers. All other actual Saharawi groups that have been attempting to obtain legal recognition for years (e.g. CODESA) have yet to be recognized.

\(^ {21}\) Dahir n° 1-11-19 of 3 March 2011.


16. Another feature of the Article 1 breach is Morocco’s continuing armed occupation of Western Sahara. This includes the sand wall constructed by Morocco to partition the territory with extensive mine-fields on its east side – the presence of which contravenes the CESCR Recommendation that Morocco must “take steps to protect the rights of persons displaced by the conflict in Western Sahara and to ensure their safety”. Each year, the mine-fields result in several deaths and serious injuries to civilian persons. The nature of the armed occupation, an act of aggression under the Rome Statute 1998 which defines international crimes, does not allow the Saharawi people to “freely pursue” their political status. There are several aspects to this breach. The first is that of the extensive presence of armed forces units and paramilitary police in the occupied area of Western Sahara, a presence that hinders or intimidates free association, the expression of political sentiment, and the public meetings of persons concerned with self-determination. The second is that the invasion and occupation of Western Sahara resulted in the exodus of about half the Saharawi population; now refugees in six camps south of Tindouf, Algeria, who are unable to collectively participate in activities to realize self-determination throughout Western Sahara, that is, as the entire original population of the territory. A third is the violence that results from a substantial military occupation, including loss of life and injury from unexploded ordinance and land mines, and environmental degradation including along the course of the garrisoned sand wall.

17. The most recent annual report of the UN Secretary-General about Western Sahara refers to the problem of military occupation in the territory:

On the occasions MINURSO was able to witness, an extensive presence of Moroccan security forces was noted. This part of Western Sahara continued to receive significant Moroccan public infrastructure investments, notably in roads and port facilities in Boujdour and Dakhla.

[...]

Also according to local authorities, 18 delegations and 8 individual travelers, mostly European supporters of Western Saharan self-determination, researchers and media workers alleged to have misrepresented their purpose, disturbed public order or refused to coordinate with the authorities, were excluded or expelled.

[...]

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25 Examples of landmine accidents in occupied Western Sahara are included in the annex to the report “Acting With Impunity: Morocco’s Human Rights Violations in Western Sahara and the Silence of the International Community”, published by the Norwegian Students’ and Academics’ International Assistance Fund in April 2015. The report contains a list of human rights violations that were documented in the territory under Moroccan occupation between April 2014 and February 2015. <https://saih.no/assets/docs/saih_vs_annekspdf>.
A level of discontent was perceptible among the Western Sahara population west of the Berm, illustrated in intermittent demonstrations throughout the reporting period in Laayoune and other towns. These events aimed to draw attention to human rights concerns, socioeconomic issues and political demands, including the right to self-determination with youth emphasizing the lack of employment opportunities and organizing informal associations to press for redress. These protests were small in scale and the Moroccan security forces dispersed them quickly. On several occasions, credible reports were received about the disproportionate use of force on the part of the security forces and hostile actions on the part of the demonstrators in response.

[...]

According to some human rights organizations, the Moroccan authorities did not permit demonstrations in Western Sahara west of the berm during the reporting period, notable preventing demonstrations calling for self-determination, defending prisoners’ rights or raising socioeconomic issues. Such gatherings continued to be forcibly dispersed, with allegations that Moroccan law enforcement officials used excessive force in suppressing demonstrations, including towards women and children. In some cases, protesters and activists were reportedly subjected to arbitrary arrest, torture, ill treatment and prosecution. Furthermore, reports indicate that very few injured protesters, including those detained, had access to a doctor. As a result, most were unable to obtain a medical certificate to formally document the violence to which they stated they had been subjected.26

18. Further examples can be found in the US department of State’s 2014 Country Report on Human Rights in Western Sahara:

The government reported that in the first eight months of the year, 625 demonstrations or protests took place in the territory. [...] Authorities violently dispersed protests throughout the year, resulting in dozens of injuries that required medical attention.27

19. The obligations in Article 1 of the ICESCR are amplified by the duties of an occupying power found in international humanitarian law. This body of law includes the Fourth Geneva Convention 1949, the Hague Convention 1907 and, because Spain continues to have legal responsibility for Western Sahara

26 Report of the Secretary-General on the situation concerning Western Sahara, UN doc. S/2015/246 (10 April 2015), § 3, 4, 5 and 56.

and its people and is a signatory, the *Rome Statute* 1998. In addition to its duty to protect the original population of the territory during armed conflict and a subsequent occupation, Morocco is prohibited from the in-migration and settlement of its nationals into Western Sahara. Article 49 of the *Fourth Geneva Convention* is clear: “The Occupying Power shall not deport or transfer parts of its own civilian population into the territory it occupies.” The Saharawi population that remains in the occupied part of Western Sahara is now outnumbered at least two to one by such resettled Moroccan nationals. This continues to have a number of deleterious effects of the realization of Article 1 *ICESCR* rights, most seriously an erosion of the right to self-determination.

**Suggested questions for the Government of Morocco**

20. In view of the above, we recommend that the Committee request the Kingdom of Morocco provide information about the following issues:

* Specific and independently verifiable information about the efforts made to allow the Saharawi people to exercise their right to self-determination. Such information should detail the preparations being made and what measures will be taken to assist the UN in the organization of the referendum, a time-table for the organization of the referendum and a list containing the identities of those Morocco proposes as entitled to vote.
* Clear information about Morocco’s planned response in the event that the Saharawi people reject the regional autonomy initiative mentioned in paragraphs 25 and 26 of the State report.

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29 See Jacob Mundy, “Moroccan Settlers in Western Sahara: Colonists or Fifth Column?” 15 *The Arab World Geographer* 95 (2012) p. 96.

30 Since 2007 Morocco has no longer offered the Saharawi people the option or choice of independence on exercising self-determination, proposing a form of autonomy in a proposal that year. This is contrary to its contracted obligation under the UN sponsored 1991 ceasefire and referendum agreement, and contrary to international law, for which see the ICJ’s advisory opinion, *Accordance with International Law of the Unilateral Declaration of Independence by the Provisional Institutions of Self-Government of Kosovo*, ICJ Rep (2010) p. 403 at § 79.

31 For ease of reference, State Report §25 reads: “The Moroccan Extended Autonomy Initiative (IMAE) is an integral part of the action taken by the Kingdom of Morocco to build a modern democratic State for which respect for human rights is both a *raison d’être* and a means of consummating its territorial integrity. The Kingdom plans, by means of IMAE, to guarantee that the population of the region are accorded their appropriate place and role in its organs and institutions without discrimination or exclusion. The people of the Sahara will be able to administer their affairs democratically, exercising exclusive legislative, executive and judicial powers. They will have the financial resources required to promote regional development in all areas. The new Constitution recognizes the specific components of the Moroccan nation, including the Saharan component; the Constitution also recognizes the Hassani language as a constituent element of the unified Moroccan cultural entity. It assigns responsibility to the State, as in the case of the Amazigh component, for their protection and development. With a view to ensuring that the regional components can fully express their political, economic, social and cultural interests, the Constitution enshrines the principles of advanced regionalization. This confers
* An explanation why it refuses to allow Saharawi nationals to register organizations or associations that have the right to self-determination and/or the right to independence as a core raison d'être.

* A plan of action to remove any obstacle, legal or other, to allow all Saharawi organizations that advocate for self-determination, as that right is understood in international law, to register and operate with full legal recognition.

* Accurate, current and ascertainable figures about Moroccan nationals currently residing in Western Sahara, with details of the number and locations of civilians, security personnel and armed forces members.

* Detailed information on measures taken to protect the rights of persons displaced by the conflict in Western Sahara and to ensure their safety, further to the CESCR’s 2006 recommendations. In view of that recommendation, Morocco should be importuned to offer a time-table for the removal of the sand wall and its surrounding mine-fields, together with the necessary environmental remediation, in order to ensure compliance with the Covenant.

* A plan whereby self-selected international human rights and resources organizations may enter into and proceed without restriction throughout the occupied area of Western Sahara to interview such persons they consider necessary and visit facilities and communities without impediment.

§26 reads: “In response to the international demand for a political, negotiated and final settlement to the Saharan conflict, since all other solutions have failed, His Majesty the King created a special 141 member body for the Saharans, the Royal Advisory Council on Saharan Affairs. The Council’s terms of reference include the development of an autonomy plan based on reconciliation, an initiative that broadly complies with the principle of self-determination. The plan was adopted by all national bodies and gave rise to the Moroccan initiative aimed at resolving the conflict. This initiative has been deemed credible and serious by international bodies. It was submitted to the United Nations on 11 April 2007 and gave rise to Security Council resolutions 1754 (2007), 1813 (2008), 1871 (2009), 1920 (2010) and 1979 (2011), all of which described it as “serious and credible”. These resolutions served as the basis for the negotiations that are currently under way. Morocco has proposed that a referendum on the autonomy statute produced as a result of the negotiations should be held among the population concerned, in accordance with the principle of self-determination and the Charter of the United Nations. It has undertaken to ensure that the population has access to the financial resources required for regional development in all areas and that it plays an active part in the Kingdom’s economic, social and cultural life.”
B. Article 1, paragraph 2: The Right to Freely Dispose of Natural Resources

Art. 1, para. 2: “All peoples may, for their own ends, freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources without prejudice to any obligations arising out of international economic co-operation, based upon the principle of mutual benefit, and international law. In no case may a people be deprived of its own means of subsistence.”

21. Article 1(2) provides that the Saharawi people - who, it should be recalled, were the original inhabitants of the then colony of Spanish Sahara until Morocco’s invasion and annexation in 1975 - have the sovereign right to “freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources”. In addition, it follows from the Article that the Saharawi people must not “be deprived of [their] own means of subsistence.”

22. As the occupying power in Western Sahara, Morocco has the primary obligation to respect, protect and fulfil the rights enshrined in the Covenant to the benefit of the Saharawi people, including their right to dispose freely of the territory’s natural resources. WSRW contends that Morocco does precisely the opposite: it interferes with the enjoyment of that right, it actively promotes violations of that right by third parties and does not take any appropriate steps to progressively realize full enjoyment of that right.

23. It is telling that Morocco scarcely mentions the right to resources in the report it submitted to the Committee. Any reference to Western Sahara’s resources is hidden in the obfuscating language of footnote 14, which contains the following sentence: “[Morocco] has launched ambitious programmes designed to enhance the provinces’ [sic] productive capabilities and develop their economic potential in order to meet the population’s needs and expectations.”

24. In its reply to the List of Issues, Morocco claims that “the population of the Sahara” takes part in the national political procedures that deal with the management and exploitation of the natural resources through “the region’s” parliamentary representatives and local authorities. It also holds that “businessmen of the Sahara region” participate in the exploitation of the resources, in particular in the fishing sector.

25. WSRW contends that Morocco’s interest in Western Sahara’s economic potential is geared exclusively toward the purpose of furthering acceptance of its illegal occupation of the territory. WSRW maintains that the taking of Western Sahara’s resources is illegal because it is not directed towards assisting the Saharawi people in the exercise of their right to self-determination, but rather to

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the opposite: maintaining and strengthening its untenable claim over the territory. The problem here is three-fold: (i) the enrichment of Morocco through the sale of the territory’s natural resources; (ii) Morocco’s development of Western Sahara’s resources to further acceptance of its illegal presence in the territory; (iii) the decreased availability of non-renewable resources to the Saharawi people when they will eventually realize self-determination.

i) Saharawis do not share in the exploitation of their resources

26. The first problem is the enrichment of Morocco by the sale of the territory’s natural resources. There are three principal resources and three secondary (or minor) resources of concern, namely (in order of estimated market value in 2014): (i) phosphate mineral rock ($230 million); (ii) the Atlantic coastal fishery ($60 million); (iii) seabed petroleum ($0); followed by (iv) agricultural products ($4 million); (v) sand aggregates (< $1 million); (vi) salt (< $1 million).

27. None of the revenues from these resources is returned to the Saharawi people, and no accounting of them is publicly available, including in Morocco. The exploitation of Western Sahara’s resources is managed by Moroccan state-owned ministries and agencies.

28. While there are a few Saharawi individuals who actually profit from the exploitation of Western Sahara’s resources through the ownership of exploitation licenses in various sectors (e.g. fisheries and sand mining), they are—without exception—persons who have sworn allegiance to the King of Morocco. However, all Saharawi groups and individuals that WSRW has contacted over the course

34 Taking is defined for the present purpose as the administration, development, sale and export of natural resources by the government of Morocco, state agencies and parastatal corporations, with revenues from such activities flowing to Morocco’s central state treasury.

35 These figures are estimates on the available evidence as of 15 August 2015, and are derived from direct observations and calculations of WSRW. No commercial petroleum has yet been recovered from the seabed on the coast of Western Sahara, although such activity began in late 2014. Phosphate mineral rock remains the territory’s largest value resource. See WSRW’s 2014 report “P for Plunder” at: <www.wsrw.org>.

36 An instructive example of Morocco’s refusal to publicly disclose details about the taking of resources or even about investments in the territory, came when the European Commission asked Morocco to produce information that clearly demonstrated how Western Sahara benefited from the sectoral support accorded under the EU Morocco Fisheries Partnership Agreement. After a series of requests, Morocco provided a PowerPoint presentation that did not even make the distinction between the two territories, making it impossible to draw any conclusions on the amount of sectoral support that could have been allocated to Western Sahara. The former UN Legal Counsel deemed the European Commission’s request to have Morocco report about benefits of the Fisheries Partnership Agreement to the Saharawis “simply not acceptable”. See Hans Corell, “Western Sahara – status and resources”, 4 New Routes (2010), pp. 10-13.

37 For an insight into how the Moroccan monarchy carried out an economic coup d’état in Morocco and Western Sahara, see e.g. C. Graciet and E. Laurent, “Le Roi Prédateur”, Seuil (2012).

38 Illustrative is the ownership of fishing licenses in Morocco. The Moroccan government has always refused to publish the lists of people who own licenses to undertake economic activities in the country and in the occupied parts of Western Sahara. The only exception has been the Benkirane government’s decision to publish the list of people who own the public transport sector in the realm, resulting in several newspapers calling for the publication of owners of fishing licenses. Anticipating that the Ministry for Agriculture and Maritime Affairs would not oblige, Akhbar el Youm published names of the principal holders of said licenses. Topping the list were high ranking army officials, followed by families and socialites that are close to the royal court, known as the Makhzen. Several Saharawis were also named as having been awarded with a lucrative fishing license; all of them have openly declared their loyalty to the Moroccan crown. The article on Akhbar el Youm’s
of 10 years maintain that the overwhelming majority of the Saharawi people does not profit from Morocco’s illegal exploitation from Western Sahara’s natural resources. Critically, the Saharawi people who reside in the refugee camps at Tindouf do not receive the benefit of such revenues. To paint a stark picture, the total amount of multi-lateral aid given to the Saharawi refugees in 2013 was less than 10% of the estimated amount Morocco earned in revenues from selling Western Sahara’s phosphates to interested takers around the globe in the same year. The larger purchasers, including Canada’s Agrium Inc. and Potash Corporation, and Lithuania’s Lifosa AB have each paid more for Western Saharan phosphate than the international community has provided for Saharawi refugees. WSRW follows the trade continuously, and tracks all vessels departing the territory. 2014 exports were the subject of a WSRW report published in March 2015.39

ii) Western Saharan resources used to legitimize illegal occupation

29. The second problem, Morocco’s strategy of using Western Sahara’s resources to build an international acceptance of its illegal presence in the territory, is evident by the Moroccan government’s own admissions. An example can be seen in an internal document from the Moroccan government that was leaked anonymously on the internet on 21 November 2014.40 It demonstrates how Morocco employs Western Sahara’s resources to build acceptance by other States of its presence in the territory. The document, called “La Fédération de Russie et la Question du Sahara Marocain”, contains the following paragraphs:

“To this objective, Morocco has to ... implicate Russia in activities in the Sahara, as is already the case in the field of fisheries. Oil exploration, phosphates, energy and touristic development are, among others, the sectors that could be involved in this respect ... In return, Russia could guarantee a freeze on the Sahara file within the UN, the time for the Kingdom to take strong action with irreversible facts with regard to the marocanité of the Sahara.”41

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41 The document was made available via the twitter account @chris Coleman24 on 21 November 2014, but the account has repeatedly been taken offline. See e.g. TelQuel, “Twitter a supprimé le compte de Chris Coleman, sans s’expliquer”, 17 December 2014. A recovered version is available at <http://www.arso.org/Coleman/Note_Russie_Saharacorrige.pdf>.
Central to this strategy is the presence of Moroccan settlers in Western Sahara, who predominantly benefit from resource extraction in the territory. The presence of settlers in a place that Morocco styles as part of its “Southern Provinces” objectively takes away certain economic opportunities from the Saharawi and serves as a pretext for a military force to ostensibly protect such persons and the building of infrastructure to extend the occupation. Their presence is also used to obscure the debate on the wishes and the interests of the Saharawi people with regard to Morocco’s exploitation of the territory’s resources, as the UN Legal Opinion of 2002 on the exploration and exploitation of mineral resources in Western Sahara clearly states that the wishes and the interests of the people of the territory are the touchstone of international law;

“... if further exploration and exploitation activities were to proceed in disregard of the interests and wishes of the people of Western Sahara, they would be in violation of the principles of international law applicable to mineral resource activities in Non-Self-Governing Territories.”

For this reason, it is important to note the difference between the notions “population” and “people”. While the concept of a population is generally accepted as describing the group of persons residing in the territory at a given time, the term “people” refers to the group of persons that are of the territory. Accordingly, whereas the definition “population” would include the Moroccan settlers that have moved into the territory over the years or who spend significant parts of the year there as seasonal workers, the term “people” only applies to the Saharawi as the sole, original inhabitants of the territory prior to Morocco’s invasion in 1975. It is worth repeating the single sentence from Morocco’s State report to the CESC that refers to the use of Western Sahara’s resources: “[Morocco] has launched ambitious programmes designed to enhance the provinces’ productive capabilities and develop their economic potential in order to meet the population’s needs and expectations.”

30. The Moroccan government actively encourages Moroccans to relocate to Western Sahara. As noted in the US department of State’s 2014 Country Report on Human Rights in Western Sahara:

As an inducement to relocate to the territory, wage-sector workers earned up to 95 percent more than their counterparts in internationally recognized Morocco. The government also provided fuel subsidies and exempted workers from income and value-added taxes.  

31. Examples of asymmetrical benefits from resource extraction for Moroccan settlers abound. Because it is a single discrete employer engaged in the production of one commodity, the example of Phos-Boucraâ (the local production subsidiary of Office Chérifien des Phosphates SA), responsible for

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phosphate rock mining, processing and exports including from occupied Western Sahara, is useful. Of some 2,200 employees currently in that enterprise\textsuperscript{44}, less than half, and perhaps only one-quarter are Saharawi persons by any definition.\textsuperscript{45} Saharawis who are employed by OCP claim the company offers certain benefits to Moroccan employees that it does not provide to Saharawis.\textsuperscript{46} Reports of similar underemployment, that is, minority presence in the agricultural industry\textsuperscript{47} and in the coastal fishing industry also make out the continuing problem.\textsuperscript{48}\textsuperscript{49} Saharawi fishermen from Dakhla have repeatedly signaled that foreign vessels fishing in Western Saharan waters under bilateral agreements with Morocco pick up fish crews in Morocco proper, before making their way to the richer waters of the occupied territory.\textsuperscript{50} Saharawis who have had the opportunity to complete a higher education in Morocco\textsuperscript{51}, lament discrimination in the job market of their Saharawi origin.\textsuperscript{52} WSRW was not able to obtain credible information on the subject of Saharawis who might be employed in the fast developing tourism sector in Western Sahara, capitalizing on the territory’s natural endowments and used to further the erroneous image of a Morocco stretching all the way to Mauritania.


\textsuperscript{46} WSRW, “Discrimination over the right to housing in OCP, workers say”, 5 April 2012, <http://www.wsrw.org/a214x2275>.

\textsuperscript{47} WSRW, “Report: Label and Liability”, June 2012, available via <http://www.wsrw.org/a214x2321>. The practice of bringing in seasonal workers from Morocco proper to work on Western Sahara’s plantations, was confirmed to the Moroccan media by Moroccan parliamentarian and plantation-owner Mohamed Lamine Hormatallah. WSRW, “Dakhla farms depleting underground water reserves?”, 6 April 2013, <http://www.wsrw.org/a217x2557>.


\textsuperscript{49} The rights that pertain to the benefits and conditions within work, as prescribed by Article 7 ICESCR, are significantly violated when it comes to the Saharawi people in occupied Western Sahara. They are most readily denied by the presence of extensive security forces, as the UN Secretary-General notes in his most recent report, above, and by the in-migration of Moroccan nationals. (There is also an indirect effect of the occupation-annexation of the territory, and that has been a much larger population than present resources and economic facilities can support, leading to marginal economic conditions for those most vulnerable – the Saharawi. The evidence of such an indirect effect is unclear, but the accepted notably higher rates of unemployment and underemployment of Saharawi establishes the result, if empirically.)

\textsuperscript{50} See e.g. WSRW, “Demands of Saharawi fishermen in Dakhla, 25 May 2013”, Ibid, WSRW, “Saharawi in Dakhla keep protesting”, Ibid.

\textsuperscript{51} During the nearly 40 years of occupation, Morocco did not establish a single post-secondary education or training institution in Western Sahara. As a result, only few Saharawis can afford an education, often hundreds of miles away from home.

\textsuperscript{52} WSRW, “Unemployed Saharawi graduates rally in Rabat”, 22 July 2010, <http://www.wsrw.org/a105x1540>. 17
32. Statements from corporations that purchase phosphate rock from occupied Western Sahara illustrate the presence of Moroccan settlers as a cover for what is a continuing annexation project:

We believe that Phos-Boucraâ’s [the Western Sahara subsidiary of Morocco’s Office Chérifien des Phosphates SA] operations and investments in the region have significantly contributed to the development of Western Sahara and continue to provide substantial and sustainable economic and social benefits to the Saharawi population [sic], all of which create enhanced opportunity for, and capacity building within, the local population.\textsuperscript{53}

There are no figures or records that support the above claims. Saharawis have made requests to access information that would allegedly prove that they benefit from Morocco’s exploitation from occupied Western Sahara’s resources. But they fail to get responses. Law firms that are contracted by the Moroccan government to further international acceptance of the Moroccan position vis-à-vis Western Sahara, refuse to share the documents they forward to international firms, as their client will not allow it.\textsuperscript{54} Direct requests to e.g. Morocco’s state-owned phosphate company OCP that exploits the Western Saharan phosphate deposits, asking to reveal how the Saharawi people benefit from their activities, are never responded to.\textsuperscript{55}

33. The use of settlers is not only instrumental to Morocco in propagating the misconception that the exploitation of Western Sahara’s resources is beneficial to the Saharawis, but to create the false impression that the Saharawis have been consulted about and agree to the exploitation. Central in this approach is the Economic, Social and Environmental Council (CESE), which was instituted through the Moroccan constitution in 2011.\textsuperscript{56} Like CNDH, CESE is a state agency and it is the Moroccan monarch who controls the appointments and mandates. The current president of the CESE is Nizar Baraka, a former Moroccan Minister of Finance and member of the Baraka family, which is closely tied to the royal court. In October 2013, CESE published a report mapping out the development model for the Moroccan occupied parts of Western Sahara, which boasted widespread consultations and dialogue with representatives of civil society in the territory.\textsuperscript{57} None of the Saharawi groups, associations and individuals that WSRW has contacted was approached by the CESE. Nevertheless, the work of the CESE is increasingly used to try to legitimize Morocco’s exploitation of Western Sahara’s resources, as it creates an illusion that the Saharawis’ views have been heard.

\textsuperscript{53} Statement of Potash Corporation of Saskatchewan Ltd., “Phosphate rock from Western Sahara” (1 August 2014), available at: <www.potashcorp.com>. Potash Corporation was in 2012 and 2013 the largest purchaser of phosphate rock from Western Sahara, more than $150 million in the two years. See “P for Plunder”, above note 18.


\textsuperscript{55} WSRW, “OCP refuses to respond to Saharawi refugee”, 4 March 2015, <http://wsrw.org/a106x3169>.

\textsuperscript{56} http://corpus.learningpartnership.org/constitution-of-morocco-2011-11-of-the-economic-social-environmental-council

34. Statements from companies involved in the taking of Western Sahara’s resources exemplify how the CESE is increasingly central in Morocco’s attempt to hijack the very concept of the Saharawi people’s wishes. In its position paper defending its controversial oil exploration activities in the waters of Western Sahara, the American company Kosmos Energy refers extensively to the CESE as “undertaking extensive consultations in Western Sahara about governance issues and development needs with diverse stakeholders”.58

In this regard, the [CESE] report calls for natural resources development in Western Sahara to be conducted sustainably and for the preponderance of public revenues from such development to be used to benefit the local population fairly, equitably and transparently, and in consultation with them and their representatives.59

35. The result is a creeping recognition that resource development in occupied Western Sahara is acceptable and seemingly confers benefit to the Saharawi people who appear to have been consulted about such activities. Such a conclusion can be rejected when the social and economic marginalization of the Saharawi present in the occupied area of the territory is recalled.

36. In early October 2010, thousands of Saharawis pitched their tents in the desert not far from Western Sahara’s capital city El Aaiun, at a place called Gdeim Izik to protest their socio-economic marginalization as a people while Morocco continued to acquire the revenues from selling the resources of their territory. On 8 November 2010, the Moroccan military invaded the camp site and burned it to the ground.60 In addition to protests within the territory, the Saharawi people’s legitimate (and United Nations accepted) representative organization, in its dual capacities as the Polisario Front and the Saharawi Arab Democratic Republic, together with a significant number of civil society organizations have firmly declared that they do not consent and receive nothing from resource extraction. The problem has been remarked upon by the UN Secretary-General:

[The] Frente Polisario and Western Sahara organizations spoke out against these [oil exploration and exploratory drilling] activities repeatedly, pointing out that they had not been consulted and that any exploitation of resources, if found, would violate the legal opinion provided in the letter cited above. The Secretary-General of Frente

59 Ibid.
60 Camp residents reported the use of rubber bullets, live ammunition, hot-water cannon, tear-gas, truncheons and stones. As panic took over, clashes between the army and the protesters ensued, leading to casualties and injuries on both sides. An exact figure on the number of victims does not exist, as Morocco did not allow independent observers – including MINURSO personnel - to access the area. Moroccan security officials proceeded to arrest hundreds of Saharawi in connection with the events. Many of those were held for much longer than 48 hours - the maximum period someone can be held without being charged under the Moroccan penal code. They would be provisionally released over time, often after having spent months in jail without any official charges against them. A group of 25 men remained in jail, however, and were transferred to Rabat for investigation by a military court. On 17 February 2013, based on wrongful accusations lacking any credible evidence, 23 of these detainees were condemned to sentences ranging from 20 years to life imprisonment.
Polisario, in a letter to me dated 26 January 2015, referred to the activities as a violation of international law.\(^6^1\)

37. The problem of seeming normalcy and desirability of development of Western Sahara’s resources, which has such clear, well-established legal norms that prohibit the taking of those resources in the present circumstances, is one that also damages the rule of law generally. The States which have a particular obligation to deliver that most obvious of rights – self-determination – are emboldened in such inaction by the absence of consequences for their involvement in the ongoing taking of Western Sahara’s resources.

38. In this respect, Morocco’s petroleum development in the territory and its adjacent waters merits attention. Notwithstanding the 2002 Legal Opinion, and the continuous protests of the Saharawi people and the Frente Polisario, Morocco has proceeded to further its oil program in the territory. Morocco has, at present, and as far as WSRW can ascertain, awarded seven oil and gas licences in Western Sahara. There are four offshore blocks and three onshore blocks. In each block, the Moroccan state owned oil company ONHYM (Office National des Hydrocarbures et des Mines) holds an interest together with international oil companies. In addition, Morocco has allocated four other blocks in Western Sahara to new oil companies. On 19 December 2014, the American company Kosmos Energy spudded in the Al Khayr well, previously known as the Gargaa-1 site, in the Cap Boujdour exploration block of the Aaiun basin. The block covers 7.3 million acres, with water depths ranging from 50 metres to 3000 metres. The targeted reservoirs have been said to contain a probable 1 billion barrels of oil (or the petroleum equivalent).\(^6^2\) Kosmos completed its drilling in February, and announced its findings in March; even though the finding was not commercially viable, it will continue drilling on a later occasion, the company stated. On two occasions in 2014 Moroccan security personnel assailed small, peaceful demonstrations of Saharawis protesting the planned drilling.\(^6^3\) On 2 July 2015, the UK/Irish company San Leon Energy Plc announced that it intended to commence onshore drilling the next month, about 14 kilometers north of the phosphate port in El Aaiun. A potential find would make Morocco’s phosphate exploitation in occupied Western Sahara more lucrative, as the current dependency on imported energy would be reduced significantly.\(^6^4\) Saharawis living in the refugee camps and under Moroccan occupation have both protested against San Leon’s plans.\(^6^5\) The Saharawi government has asked the UN to intervene.\(^6^6\)


WSRW, “Alouat protested against Kosmos - was cut with razor blade”, 13 June 2014, <www.wsrw.org/a228x2913>.


39. WSRW contends that if commercial quantities of oil are discovered in Western Sahara, Morocco will have even less incentive to engage in the UN mediated talks, so diminishing the chances of a peaceful outcome. A concern that is shared by the Saharawi government, which raised the matter with the UN Secretary General:

The Saharawi government concludes that the present petroleum activity is illegal and impedes progress toward the conduct of a “free and fair referendum” as that has been accepted by the parties. (See report of Secretary-General 18 June 1990, UN document S/21360, paragraph 47(g).) The activity underscores to the Saharawi people that a violation of well-settled, universally rules of international law is allowed to continue. That suggests the organized international community is unwilling to ensure the paramount obligation of self-determination flowing from Article 73 of the UN Charter.67

40. WSRW has similar concerns regarding Morocco’s ongoing development of occupied Western Sahara’s wind and solar energy potential. While the produced energy will to a certain extent be made available for civilian use, it will mainly be used to capitalize on the resources already illegally being exploited by Morocco in Western Sahara, thereby intensifying the ongoing pillage. And by exporting the energy to the EU and to Morocco proper, the occupying power seeks to anchor its untenable claim over the territory.68

iii) Depletion of non-renewable resources

41. The third problem from the Article 1 ICESCR violation is that the present development and export of non-renewable resources means that they will be less available when the Saharawi people realize their self-determination. This erodes the present viability of a future independence should that be the elective choice of the Saharawi people in a referendum. The problem is that less natural wealth will be available when the “question” of Western Sahara is eventually resolved. The organized international community had the preservation of natural wealth in mind when the United Nations Council for Namibia prohibited the taking of resources from that territory when under apartheid occupation. The legal duties have not changed in Western Sahara today.69

69 Seabed petroleum, and prospectively land-recovered petroleum, together with phosphate rock are Western Sahara’s current non-renewable resources. There are problems with the sustainability of coastal fishery that is not well regulated, is alleged to be subject to corrupt practices, and which demonstrably faces the pressure of overfishing from time to time. On overfishing, see océanique Développement, “Framework Contract Fish/2006/20 Convention Spécifique N°26: Evaluation ex-post du protocole actuel d’accord de partenariat dans le domaine de pêche entre l’union européenne et le royaume du
42. An example of such depletion concerns Western Sahara’s phosphate deposits. The open pit phosphate mine in Western Sahara is situated in Bou Craa, about 80 km inland from El Aaiun, and is being exploited by Morocco’s state-owned phosphate company OCP (Office Chérifien des Phosphates SA). The Bou Craa phosphate mining site consists of two layers of phosphate. The top layer is considered as “high grade” phosphate ore, as it contains a very high percentage of calcium phosphate. This particular layer contained phosphate rock of the highest quality across all of the reserves controlled by OCP. Consequently, it is a very valuable commodity on the international market. Through the years, several international fertilizer producers have stated to WSRW that they have a specific preference for phosphate rock from Western Sahara, because it is of a singularly high quality. The second layer of the Bou Craa mine is less rich in calcium phosphate, and as such a less lucrative commodity on the international market. In 2014, OCP commenced mining the second layer, as the top layer – the high grade phosphate layer - had practically all been sold off.70 This high quality phosphate rock is no longer available to the Saharawi people upon realizing their right to self-determination.

43. The ongoing depletion of Western Sahara’s valuable underground water reserves is equally concerning. The longevity of Dakhla’s sub-soil basins is at serious risk due to Morocco’s ongoing agricultural expansion in this desert area. Producing crops in the desert climate of Dakhla requires a lot more water than the production of those very same crops in the agricultural heartland of Morocco proper. The non-renewable water resources in occupied Western Sahara are at risk of being emptied by the time the Saharawis are allowed the opportunity to exercise self-determination.71

Suggested questions to the Government of Morocco

44. In view of the above, we recommend that the Committee request that Morocco provide information about the following issues:

* An explanation as to why the State report dated 24 March 2014 makes no reference to the right to freely dispose of natural resources.
* Complete information and data relating to the exploitation, sales, export and research of Western Sahara’s natural resources for assessment by the United Nations and the Frente Polisario.
* A separate accounting by a credible third party about the use of Western Sahara’s natural resources (one separate from Morocco’s own national accounting).

70 OCP SA, ibid.
* Details about measures taken to promote the right to freely dispose of natural resources to the Saharawi people.

* Information about those persons and entities holding licenses pertaining to economic activities in Western Sahara, e.g. in the fields of fisheries, agriculture, sand excavation, and mining.

* How Morocco has assured itself of the meaningful consent (i.e. free, prior and informed) of the Saharawi people - those living in the areas under its occupation, as refugees in Algeria or in the wider diaspora as a direct consequence of its occupation, and those living in the Polisario controlled part of Western Sahara - to the continuing taking of the territory’s natural resources.

* Unambiguous proof as to how the Saharawi people, including those living in Algerian refugee camps as a direct consequence of Morocco’s occupation of Western Sahara, benefit from Morocco’s development of their territory’s resources.
Recommendations to Morocco

WSRW respectfully suggests to the Committee that it urge the following recommendations upon Morocco. In commending these recommendations to the Committee, WSRW notes the well-developed international legal obligations which apply in the case of Western Sahara. The legal norms and the obligations under the ICESCR are clear. They have been evident since the International Court of Justice issued its Western Sahara Advisory Opinion and were accepted by Morocco under the 1991 settlement agreement. No project of law reform is needed when it comes to the “question” of Western Sahara. Equally, the obligation of all States, and notably of Spain and Morocco under the Covenant in Western Sahara are apparent. It is the respectful submission of WSRW that the Committee need only look to present international law in its consideration of the extent of the violation of the Covenant in Western Sahara.

Recommendation I - To make expeditious effort to assist the UN to organize a self-determination referendum that includes the option of independence for the Saharawi people as such.

Recommendation II - To take into account and in good faith, in negotiations and bilateral agreements, all the obligations incumbent upon it under the Covenant, so as not the impinge upon the Saharawi people’s right to self-determination.

Recommendation III - To take into account and in good faith, in negotiations and bilateral agreements, all the obligations incumbent upon it under the Covenant, so as not the impinge upon the Saharawi people’s right to freely dispose of their natural resources.

Recommendation IV - To remove any hurdle, administrative, legal and social, to the exercise of the right to organize and to freedom of expression in the universally understood meaning of the right, for the Saharawi people.

Recommendation V - To revise the Moroccan Constitution and Laws so as to accurately reflect the internationally recognized status of Western Sahara as a Non-Self Governing Territory, and therefore not as part of Morocco’s national territory. This would bring Morocco’s Constitution in line with international law and, specifically, the right of people’s to self-determination.

Recommendation VI - To immediately terminate all petroleum licences, export of phosphate mineral rocks, fisheries agreements and other commercial activity in Western Sahara done without the express consent (i.e. the prior informed consent) of the Saharawi people.

Recommendation VII - To release all Saharawi political prisoners, such persons defined or classified by their having been tried by military tribunal contrary to international humanitarian law.
**Recommendation VII** - Allow self-selected international human rights and resources organizations to enter into and proceed without restriction throughout the occupied area of Western Sahara to interview such persons they consider necessary and visit facilities and communities without impediment.

**Recommendation IX** - To withdraw occupying military units and personnel from the territory of Western Sahara and to ensure the dismantling of the separation sand wall or berm and its associated minefield.

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