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Examinations and Tests Section / Office of Human Resources Management

## 2007 Competitive Examination for Arabic-language translators

### PART III

الأمم المتحدة  
امتحان المترجمين إلى اللغة العربية  
12 تشرين الثاني/نوفمبر 2007

الورقة الثالثة – ساعة ونصف الساعة

تتضمن هذه الورقة خمسة نصوص ذات طابع عام في المجالات الاقتصادية والاجتماعي والقانوني والعلمي والتقني.  
على المتقدمين للامتحان أن يترجموا إلى العربية نصا واحدا منها.

Translate ONE of the following five specialized texts (economic, social, legal, scientific and technical) into Arabic

(Time: one and a half hours).

اكتب بخط واضح على وجه واحد من الورق  
واترك هامشا إلى يمين الصفحة  
واترك سطرًا خاليا بعد كل سطر من الكتابة

لا تفتح كراسة الامتحان إلى أن يُطلب إليك ذلك.

Do not open this examination booklet until told to do so.

## ECONOMIC TEXT

### ESTIMATING THE PRICE EFFECTS OF NON-TARIFF MEASURES

With the steady decrease in world-wide tariffs accomplished in the various rounds of multilateral trade negotiations over the past several decades, the attention of both policy-makers and economists has turned to the role played by non-tariff measures of protection (NTMs). Especially for the purpose of negotiations, it is important that the impacts of these NTMs be quantified. Yet this has proven difficult.

Variation across countries in product prices is due to many factors of which NTMs are just one. In addition, the many types of NTMs—quotas, non-automatic licensing, bans, prior authorization for protection of human health, local content requirements, among others—defy the development of a simple uniform method to convert the effect of these quantity controls into tariff-equivalents. In 2006, Ferrantino surveyed many of the important contributions which catalogue NTM types and incidence, and which estimate the impact of NTMs on prices and welfare. Estimating the “price gap” due to an NTM requires a comparison between the price of a product before and after the imposition of an NTM markup takes place. The observed difference in price is then used to derive the rent attributable to the NTM.

But this derivation requires corrections for the many factors that influence price at various stages in the production process. The foundational study by Deardorff and Stern (1998) provides a clear guide to methodological approaches to this problem of quantification. It gives a detailed exposition of the calculation of the tariff-equivalent of NTMs using data on individual product prices, and allows for different types of NTMs, market competition, and product substitutability. But this method requires a good deal of fairly precise information on prices, transport and distribution costs, tariffs, taxes, and/or subsidies at the product-specific level, and in some cases information on quality differences between products. It also requires knowledge of the incidence and type of NTMs imposed on a product. Unfortunately, this amount of cross-product, cross-country data is not usually available.

Recent studies surmount some of these problems, to yield cross-product, cross country estimates of NTMs. Bradford (2003, 2005) attempts to estimate the levels of protection from both tariffs and NTMs in eight countries of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Using cross-country retail price data from the OECD, and retail margins and export margins from input-output tables, he derives producer prices for a large number of final goods. These producer prices are compared to the calculated minimum producer price (plus transport costs). If this ratio exceeds the country's tariff on a product, then this premium is taken to represent the aggregate effect of both tariffs and NTMs on price. The impact of the NTM is the difference between this premium and the tariff..

Results suggest that, on average, NTMs on fruits and vegetables and meats raised the retail prices of these products in 2001 by 141 percent and 93 percent, respectively.

## SOCIAL TEXT

### NGOs in search of public trust

Public confidence is a scarce and fragile commodity. While it is difficult enough to gain it, it requires even greater efforts to sustain it. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs), already operating in less than ideal circumstances in countries the world over, are beginning to experience the chilling effect of donor fatigue because of a long, continually unfolding history of questionable dealings which ignore the need for transparency and accountability.

According to a report carried in the Washington Post in late 2002, the percentage of people who say they have no confidence in NGOs has doubled since 2001, largely attributable to financial and management irregularities involving public donations.

Unless NGOs are prepared to subject themselves to the same high standards of ethical public behavior they demand so noisily of others, public trust will continue to plummet. They will only have themselves to blame for these reverses of fortune.

Civil society organizations, irrespective of the jurisdictions of their domicile; have to do all in their power to reassure the public that they are trustworthy, and are capable of managing their affairs honestly, competently and transparently.

NGOs, as a community, have come into their own. In many countries where governments are weak and very often corrupt, civil society organizations have, by default, assumed the role of providers of essential community services. More often than not, they are doing a jolly sight better than the authorities themselves.

Success, however, often goes to the head, and this is when they forget that it is to the government that they must look to set the moral and ethical tone of the nation. NGOs cannot assume this important primary responsibility of governance. It is the government, at the end of the day that creates the environment and the space in which NGOs operate.

NGOs have never been so much under public gaze as they are today. Caught up in the current global hysteria about bad governance, following the financial scams and scandals which disgraced some big corporations, many NGOs are forced to reinvent their governance standards. It looks as if those NGOs that are breaking away from the herd in terms of ethical practices are clearly destined for the slaughterhouse.

What is the motivation that drives an NGO? It is a question that has often been asked, and it is not one that lends itself to a glib answer. An NGO is characterized by a strong element of voluntary participation, and people get involved because they believe passionately in what they are doing, in another word: "special interest, and not personal profit."

NGOs gain their legitimacy by promoting the public interest, but their real legitimacy is derived from their willingness and ability to ensure that they are organized and run democratically and accountably. The NGOs must understand and accept the fact that they have no special constitutional or god-given rights, except the right to serve the special needs and interests of those for whom they claim to care, in ways that reflect service in the public interest.

## LEGAL TEXT

### Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court

The United Nations has been considering the establishment of a permanent international criminal court since its creation. After years of negotiations, a Diplomatic Conference was held from 15 June to 17 July 1998 in Rome which finalized and adopted the Statute for the International Criminal Court (ICC).

The establishment of an ICC represents a major progress for better implementation of international humanitarian law and a clear step forward in the battle against impunity.

The ICC will have jurisdiction over suspected perpetrators of genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes or aggression, including superiors or military commanders. The Court may exercise its jurisdiction, if the State on the territory of which the act or omission occurred or the State of nationality of the suspect is Party to the Statute or has accepted the jurisdiction of the Court. The Prosecutor can refer cases proprio motu. The Court has not a retroactive effect.

The ICC is not intended to take over jurisdiction exercised by national courts: the ICC is intended to exercise its jurisdiction only when the state is unwilling or genuinely unable to prosecute. States continue to have the primary duty to prosecute suspected war criminals before their own courts.

Article 8 of Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court covers the subject of war crime. The following is a part of this Article:

#### War crimes

1. The Court shall have jurisdiction in respect of war crimes in particular when committed as part of a plan or policy or as part of a large-scale commission of such crimes.

2. For the purpose of this Statute, "war crimes" means:

(a) Grave breaches of the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, namely, any of the following acts against persons or property protected under the provisions of the relevant Geneva Convention:

- (i) Willful killing;
- (ii) Torture or inhuman treatment, including biological experiments;
- (iii) Willfully causing great suffering, or serious injury to body or health;
- (iv) Extensive destruction and appropriation of property not justified by military necessity and carried out unlawfully and wantonly;
- (v) Compelling a prisoner of war or other protected person to serve in the forces of a hostile Power;
- (vi) Willfully depriving a prisoner of war or other protected person of the rights of fair and regular trial;
- (vii) Unlawful deportation or transfer or unlawful confinement;
- (viii) Taking of hostages.

(b) Other serious violations of the laws and customs applicable in international armed conflict, within the established framework of international law, namely, any of the following acts:

- (i) Intentionally directing attacks against the civilian population as such or against individual civilians not taking direct part in hostilities;
- (ii) Intentionally directing attacks against civilian objects, that is, objects which are not military objectives;
- (iii) Intentionally directing attacks against personnel, installations, material, units or vehicles involved in a humanitarian assistance or peacekeeping mission in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations, as long as they are entitled to the protection given to civilians or civilian objects under the international law of armed conflict.

## TECHNICAL TEXT

### Biofuels Discovery Promises to End Dependence on Natural Gas

Researchers at the University of Minnesota have developed a new, carbon-neutral way to convert vegetable-based fuels to syngas, a breakthrough that could allow producers to power hydrogen fuel cells or create a replacement for dwindling supplies of natural gas, all without relying on fossil fuels.

We've all had the experience of watching cooking oil smoke once a pan reaches a certain temperature and suffered the indignity of having to scrub off the caked-on, carbonized gunk those results. A similar problem plagued researchers trying to convert biofuels: When heated, they clogged the pores of the catalyst used to transform them into syngas, which is a mixture of gases that include hydrogen, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide.

The breakthrough came with the perfection of a technique that heats fuel to a temperature so hot that the smoking reaction is bypassed, said Bradon Dreyer, a chemical engineering and materials science graduate student at the University of Minnesota.

Dreyer and his colleagues built a reactor capable of producing hydrogen from soybean oil, biodiesel or sugar water without any of the buildup that would have resulted from a conventional process. To get the reactor warmed up, the researchers ignited a mixture of methane and oxygen in order to bring the catalyst to a searing 1,000 degrees Fahrenheit.

Addressing concerns about keeping the process carbon-neutral, Paul Dauenhauer, another graduate student working on the project, notes that while methane is a fossil fuel, there are other ways to heat the catalyst that don't involve burning petrochemicals. What's more, once the reaction is running, it's self-sustaining, and methane and oxygen are no longer required.

A fuel injector like those used in a car atomized the biofuels into tiny droplets that landed on a hot rhodium-cerium catalyst, which converted the fuel to syngas. This reaction released energy and heated the catalyst. The heat and ratio of carbon and oxygen in the reaction kept the buildup from sticking to the catalyst. For each type of biofuel, nearly all the fuel was converted and about 70 percent of the hydrogen bound up in the fuel molecules was given off as gas, the researchers report in this week's *Science*. "We find we reach the theoretical maximum," says Dauenhauer.

The whole reaction takes less than 50 milliseconds. "Faster means smaller," says Dreyer, who predicts that because of its speed, their reactor can be scaled down and remain efficient. Dreyer also notes that their reactor could work on other fuels, including used cooking oil. Best of all, no more carbon comes out of their system than went into it.

## SCIENTIFIC TEXT

### A Disease of Genes

The idea that alterations to the cellular genome lie at the heart of all forms of cancer is not new. Since the first identification in 1981 of a cancer-promoting version of a human gene, known as an oncogene, scientists have increasingly come to understand that cancer is caused primarily by mutations in specific genes. The damage can be incurred through exposure to toxins or radiation, by faulty DNA repair processes or by errors that occur when DNA is copied prior to cell division. In relatively rare cases, a cancer-predisposing mutation is carried within a gene variant inherited from one's ancestors.

Whatever their origin, these mutations disrupt biological pathways in ways that result in the uncontrolled cell replication, or growth, that is characteristic of cancer as well as other hallmarks of malignancy, such as the ability to invade neighboring tissues and to spread to sites throughout the body. Some mutations may disable genes that normally protect against abnormal cell behavior, whereas others increase the activity of disruptive genes. Most cells must acquire at least several of these alterations before they become transformed into cancer cells--a process that can take years.

Over the past two decades many individual research groups have used groundbreaking molecular biology techniques to search for mutations in genes that are likely candidates for wreaking havoc on normal patterns of cell growth and behavior. This approach has identified about 350 cancer-related genes and yielded many significant insights into this diabolical disease. A database of these changes, called the catalogue of somatic mutations in cancer, or COSMIC, is maintained by Michael Stratton's group at the Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute in Cambridge, England. But no one imagines that it is the complete list.

So does it make sense to continue exploring the genomic basis of cancer at cottage-industry scale when we now possess the means to vastly increase the scope and speed of discovery? In recent years a number of ideas, tools and technologies have emerged and, more important, converged in a manner that has convinced many leading minds in the cancer and molecular biology communities that it is time for a systematic, collaborative and comprehensive exploration of the genomics of cancer.

The Human Genome Project laid a solid foundation for creating a standardized reference sequence of the three billion DNA base pairs in the genome of normal human tissues. Now another initiative is needed to compare the DNA sequences and other physical characteristics of the genomes of normal cells with those of cancerous cells, to identify the major genetic changes that drive the hallmark features of cancer.