



THE GLOBE

The newsletter of the Illinois State Bar Association's Section on International & Immigration Law

Editor's comments

By Lewis F. Matuszewich

In this issue of *The Globe* we are featuring four articles with a range of authors and topics. "LGBT Immigrant Rights Initiative" is written by Mark Wojcik, former Chair of the International and Immigration Law Section Council and current liaison from the Council to the Board of Governors.

Douglas F. Harrison is a partner in the firm of Stikeman Elliott LLP of Canada. His article on Canada Consumer Product Safety Act first appeared in the July, 2011 issue of *The Corporate Lawyer*, the newsletter of the ISBA's Section on corporate law.

Ross R. Alexander is a student at The John Marshall Law School. His article, "Anticipating 7,000,000,000: How do we feed them all? A brief glimpse at Food Aid" was submitted to *The Globe* on his behalf by Lynn R. Ostfeld, who teaches in-

ternational agriculture and trade law at The John Marshall Law School and is a member of the ISBA International and Immigration Law Section Council.

The fourth article, "An Egyptian's Right to Know" was submitted by Engy Abdelkader. She is a member of the Egyptian American Rule of Law Association and a Legal Fellow with the Institute of Social Policy and Understanding, based in Washington, D.C. ■

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LGBT Immigrant Rights Initiative

By Mark E. Wojcik

The National Immigrant Justice Center (NIJC), a well-respected non-governmental agency headquartered in Chicago, announced that it has changed the name of its LGBT-focused project from the "National Asylum Partnership on Sexual Minorities (NAPSM)" to the "LGBT Immigrant Rights Initiative." This name change is intended to reflect the breadth of advocacy undertaken by this critical human rights project. Although NIJC stated that asylum and refugee work will remain a central component of the project's mission, the new name will encompass NIJC's LGBT-related litigation, enforcement and detention conditions advocacy, and pursuit of other forms of immigration relief, including recognition of bi-national same-sex couples. NIJC also hopes to continue to strengthen and expand its coalitions.

NIJC also announced the addition of Keren

Zwick as the supervising attorney for the LGBT Immigrant Rights Initiative. She clerked at the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit, where she handled numerous immigration matters. She has also written extensively on bi-national couples and other LGBT immigration issues. She is an adjunct professor at Loyola University School of Law. She graduated from the University of Chicago in 2004 and Columbia Law School in 2009. She represented clients in Columbia's Sexuality and Gender Law Clinic.

More information about the National Immigrant Justice Center can be found by visiting their Web site at: <www.immigrantjustice.org>. ■

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Canada Consumer Product Safety Act went into effect June 20, 2011— What retailers need to know

By Douglas F. Harrison

Retailers operating in Canada began facing significant new obligations under the new *Canada Consumer Product Safety Act*. This wide-ranging legislation, enacted in December 2010, came into force June 20, 2011. In order to ensure compliance, retailers need to develop and implement appropriate procedures.

The CCPSA brings Canada's consumer product safety regime more into line with that in the United States. While a number of key regulations are still to be published, the legislation:

- Prohibits the manufacturing, importing, advertising or sale of consumer products that pose an unreasonable danger to human health and safety;
- Prohibits anyone from packaging or labelling a consumer product in a manner that could reasonably be expected to create an erroneous impression that it is not a danger to human health or safety;
- Sets out specific requirements relating to document retention and the reporting of incidents and test results;
- Empowers Health Canada to order remedial measures, including recalls, and to conduct inspections; and
- Establishes increased fines and penalties, including administrative monetary penalties.

Under the legislation, consumer products are broadly defined to include any product that could reasonably be expected to be obtained by an individual for non-commercial purposes, including components, parts, accessories and packaging. The phrase "danger to human health and safety" is also broadly defined to include any unreasonable existing or potential hazard posed by a consumer product during or as a result of normal or foreseeable use and that may reasonably be expected to cause death or injury or have an adverse effect on health, whether immediate or chronic.

The penalties for non-compliance with the CCPSA can in some cases be severe, including fines in the millions of dollars and jail time.

Retailers will find themselves on the front

line in dealing with this legislation. Here are some of the details of what they need to be ready to deal with:

"Incident" reporting

The CCPSA requires sellers to report to Health Canada any incidents involving consumer products. "Incident" is defined to include any occurrence anywhere (not just in Canada), a defect or characteristic, or an incorrect, insufficient or missing label or instructions, any of which resulted (or may reasonably have been expected to result in) death, serious injury or a serious adverse effect on someone's health. In addition, a recall or any other measure instituted for human health or safety reasons by a foreign entity or a provincial government is considered to be an incident.

Once a seller, importer or manufacturer learns of an incident, it has two days to provide a report to Health Canada that contains all the information about the incident within their control. This report must also be provided to the party from which a seller or importer obtained the product. Importers and manufacturers must also provide Health Canada with a report within 10 days of the incident containing information about the incident and the product involved, and identifying other products that they import or manufacture that could be involved in a similar incident, as well as any measures they propose to take with respect to those products. Health Canada has published a draft incident reporting form.

The proposed Regulation makes it clear that knowledge of an incident must reach a "responsible person" within the organization before the clock starts running on the obligation to report to Health Canada. A responsible person is considered to be a directing mind—and it may be more than one person in an organization—will depend on the size and nature of the organization, its decision-making structure and the nature of the information available. Knowledge of an incident could come from a number of sources, including not only consumers but also govern-

ment agencies, a supplier or a lab reporting test results. In any event, *it will be crucially important to ensure that front-line retail staff take in information from consumers regarding any incidents and pass that information along to supervisors who can inform the organization's responsible person.*

Document retention and disclosure

Retailers must now maintain records of names and addresses of persons from whom they obtained a consumer product, as well as the location where they sold the product and when. These records will have to be kept until the end of the sixth year after the end of the year to which they relate, at their place of business in Canada (unless the Minister exempts them from doing so on the basis that it would be unnecessary or impractical to keep the documents in Canada). These documents must be provided to the Minister upon request.

Inspections and Orders for remedial measures, including recalls

To verify compliance with the CCPSA, Health Canada inspectors will have the power to enter, at any reasonable time, any place (or vehicle) in which they have reasonable grounds to believe that a consumer product is manufactured, imported, packaged, stored, advertised, sold, labelled, tested or transported. Among other things, an inspector will be able to examine or test anything, take samples, seize articles, search computers, copy documents and stop the activity in question. Persons in charge of the premises are required to provide inspectors with reasonable assistance and with any information that they reasonably require.

If the Minister of Health believes on reasonable grounds that a consumer product is a danger to human health or safety, the Minister can order a manufacturer, importer or seller to recall it. This is a major change in the consumer product safety regime in Canada as until now, it was only possible for Health Canada to request recalls be undertaken voluntarily.

The Minister also has the authority to stop the manufacturing, importing, packaging,

storing, advertising, selling, labelling, testing or transporting of the product, or to take any measure that the Minister considers necessary to remedy non-compliance with the Act or Regulations.

If a party fails to comply with a Minister's Order, then the Minister can carry out the recall or other remedial measure at the party's expense.

Consumer products not covered by the CCPSA

Many types of consumer products are not subject to the CCPSA because they are dealt with under other federal Acts. These include cosmetics, food, pest control products, fertilizers, motor vehicles, firearms, ammunition, plants and seeds. ■

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Anticipating 7,000,000,000: How do we feed them all? A brief glimpse at Food Aid

By Ross R. Alexander

July 11, 2011 marked the celebration of World Population Day.¹ This year, on October 31, the world is anticipating seven billion people on the planet.² It is a day where the world celebrates life, but at the same time the world considers the capacity to feed all these people.

The United States, and most of the developed world, recognizes that least developed countries ("LDCs") suffer from "extreme poverty, very limited infrastructure, and limited administrative capacity to implement basic human needs growth strategies."³ Rural areas suffer the most due to a lack of adequate infrastructure to supply people the necessities of living.⁴ Rural areas also contribute the most to the local economy regarding agricultural production and the availability, affordability, distribution, and stability of food supply within LDCs.⁵

As it stands, nearly 925 million of these people do not have enough food to eat,⁶ with nearly 817 million living in Asia, the Pacific, and Africa.⁷ Despite all the hungry people, there is enough food on the planet to feed everyone.⁸ So, why are there still hungry people in the world and what's being done to help them?

Several major factors include nature, war, the so-called "poverty trap," infrastructure, multilateral trade rules, and competition.⁹

Nature is perhaps one of the most unpredictable causes. As evident in the recent tsunami in Japan, and droughts throughout

history, nature can produce devastating effects that lead to substantial national insecurity regarding food.¹⁰ In difficult times, countries and rebelling factions can play on the insecurity and cause civil strife. Thus, war can sometimes go hand in hand as another major cause of hunger.¹¹

The "poverty trap" is based on the fact that most farmers in the poorest regions lack the tools and technology to produce enough food beyond that which they themselves require for subsistence living.¹² As such, they often are unable to produce enough agricultural products to bring to the market to sell to make a profit to purchase the tools needed for more efficient farming. In short, the poor farmers stay poor farmers.

Even assuming the farmers could produce enough to bring their goods to market, the necessary infrastructure—roads, rail, or other carriage—are unavailable or underdeveloped.¹³ The farmers in LDCs often cannot bring food to the market to sell and any surplus would be wasted.

Multilateral trade rules have slowly been relaxed. However, as is evident with the failing Doha Round at the World Trade Organization, agricultural market access is often denied to the developing countries due to protectionist tendencies of the developed world.¹⁴

Competition doesn't always come in the typical form of one farm against another farm. Developed country subsidies aside,

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consider the effects of United Nations or U.S. rice, wheat, or other grains that are provided to the hungry. The U.N. or U.S. programs purchase the supplies somewhere. Thus, if they import the grains from the U.S. or some other developed country, not only is the developed country receiving a financial benefit, the extra supply ends up flooding the local market. As a starving citizen, why pay for the local producer when the U.N. or U.S. is providing the same benefit for free? The local farmer is forced to sell at a lower price, to the point of going out of business.¹⁵

Finally, commodity price volatility and increasingly high food prices have also impacted the poor around the world.¹⁶ High food prices combined with the economic slump have pushed more people into poverty, and increased the number of hungry people by nearly 115 million in 2009.¹⁷

With all these problems, what's being done to get food to the people who need it?

This is not a simple question to answer, especially since providing food to people in need starts to infringe on the governments of those countries and the local economies. To truly understand what is being done, food aid has to be examined from a historical perspective, both in the light of the ongoing agricultural advances and the history of aid in general.

The year 1927 saw the beginning of discussion about strains on the agricultural industry at the International Economic Conference in Geneva.¹⁸ Subsequent years included one of the worst economic times in U.S. History and the rest of the world and 1933 brought the first International Wheat Agreement.¹⁹ Often considered weak, like many other agreements and organizations, it was a starting point for discussion about food and trade in agriculture.

By the mid-1940s, after World War II, one of the popular systems to rebuild Europe was based on aid. The Marshall Plan—a 15-year U.S. plan to reconstruct Europe—specifically targeted infrastructure.²⁰ The success of the Marshall Plan, combined with the efforts of the European Coal and Steel Community (the basis of the European Union), increased peace and stability in Europe. So if aid could work for Europe, why couldn't the same rules apply in other regions?

By the 1960s, the world began to recognize the need for aid in the form of food aid. 1967 saw the signing of the first International Grains Agreement, a more comprehensive

successor to the International Wheat Agreement, that included the first Food Aid Convention.²¹ This convention provided for an annual supply of over 4 million metric tons of food aid to developing countries.²² At this point, the agreements did not recognize the impacts of such food aid on local economies.

After taking on international character, Program Food Aid did not (and still does not) necessarily relate to food insecurity or malnutrition.²³ Often, this mid-term response to food shortages is financed through concessions, and export credit guarantees from one government to another and sold in the recipient's markets to generate cash.²⁴ The net result is that the recipient government ends up in greater debt, the local market is boosted with greater supply, and the price in the local market is decreased – again causing the local farmer to suffer losses.

At the same time, one of the most prevalent, and most needed, types of food aid was Emergency or Relief Aid.²⁵ Relief aid is a short term response to a sudden problem. Natural disasters, war, and massive population displacement (often as a result of war) are the primary targets of relief food aid.²⁶ The U.N. World Food Programme (“WFP”) and international non-governmental organizations like Oxfam International, work together to coordinate to provide relief food aid during times of need.²⁷ Unfortunately, many countries have become permanent recipients of WFP relief aid.²⁸

The International Grains Council updated the Food Aid Convention again in 1987 to increase total tonnages to 7.6 million metric tons, but the most significant change to that convention came in 1999.²⁹ At that time, the increase of food aid topped 10 million metric tons, but this time around the Convention allowed for a list of fuller eligible products and value contributions.³⁰ Value contributions would include Project Food Aid, the type of aid that promotes agricultural and economic development such as food security, food for work, and nutrition programs.³¹ The potential benefits of the Project Food Aid include stability in the long term for developing countries.

Currently, international efforts stretch across the entire gamut of international organizations. The WFP focuses on agricultural policy reform and long term food security³² while the World Bank sets aside over \$500 million for boosting agriculture and increasing safety nets in the hardest-hit coun-

tries.³³ In addition, the International Fund for Agricultural Development, a specialized U.N. agency, seeks to “empower poor rural women and men in developing countries to achieve higher incomes and improved food security.”³⁴ Finally, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the primary U.N. agency on food aid seeks to provide easier access to seed, fertilizer, and tools and to increase national commitments to Program Food Aid and the Food Aid Convention.³⁵ While this is hardly an exhaustive list of international contributors to food aid programs, it paints a small picture of the broad scope of international organizations involved and what levels of interaction they have in providing support.

The U.S. is also a major supporter of food aid. In addition to regularly being the largest contributor,³⁶ the U.S.'s tonnage commitments to the 1999 Food Aid Convention have been exceeded every year.³⁷ The two main U.S. agencies responsible for these commitments of food aid to foreign countries are the U.S. Agency for International Development (“USAID”) and the U.S. Department of Agriculture (“USDA”).

USAID concentrates more on development aspects including an agriculture strategy that emphasizes farming capacity for trade, socio-economic sustainability, and increasing innovation.³⁸ Aside from increasing trade capacity and improving infrastructure, the agency's main contribution to food aid concerns acquiring agricultural products from developing regions and countries under the Food, Conservation, and Energy Act of 2008, otherwise known as the Farm Bill.³⁹ The Farm Bill provides for the Local and Regional Procurement Project, which is shared with the USDA.⁴⁰

In addition, the USDA is in charge of Food For Progress (“FFP”) and the McGovern-Dole International Food for Education and Child Nutrition Program (“McGovern-Dole Program”) under the Food for Peace Act.⁴¹ Food for Peace permits using credit or grant terms to provide U.S. agricultural goods to the governments of countries in need.⁴²

FFP permits credit sale of U.S. commodities to developing countries, particularly those committed to expanding trade in the agricultural sector.⁴³ The McGovern-Dole Program is a little more liberal with the form of support, so long as it is focused on the world's poorest children.⁴⁴ Clearly FFP falls under the type of Program Food Aid that

perpetuates country based self-interest discussed previously, whereas the McGovern-Dole Program could qualify under a Relief Food Aid program, though it is an expansion of FFP.⁴⁵

Perhaps one of the oldest U.S. food aid programs is the Section 416(b) program authorized by the Agricultural Act of 1949.⁴⁶ The key to this older program is that any surplus commodities can provide to the governments in need, nongovernmental organizations, or an international organization.⁴⁷ ■

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An Egyptian's right to know: The need for freedom of information laws in Egypt

By Engy Abdelkader, Esq.

The Egyptian Revolution of 2011 is one of the most significant events in the Middle East's recent history. Due to Egypt's historical leadership in setting political, social, and economic regional trends, Egypt is poised to transform the region from authoritarianism to democracy. As her people's non-violent demands for reform transitions into a process of democratization, Egypt's experiences will set a precedent for other Middle Eastern nations. The public's right to access government-held data is an essential component of Egypt's burgeoning democracy.

Why freedom of information in Egypt is important

An Egyptian's "right-to-know" is supported by a number of theoretical justifications grounded in good governance. Freedom of information legislation guarantees a citizen's access to information about her government. Such laws promulgate a legal process by which requests may be made for state records, to be received at no or minimal cost, except for requests falling within customary exemptions (such as national security).

The citizens' ability to retrieve information is central to Egypt's proper functioning as a new democracy. Indeed, enabling Egyptians to obtain accurate data about their government facilitates their active and informed participation in the political process and equips them to set the public agenda.

Freedom of information laws also subject Egypt's new executive branch to public scrutiny thereby facilitating open governance, transparency, and accountability. For instance, without the right to access information on economic policies and decisions, which were the primary impetus behind the revolution, Egyptians are unable to know about and prevent government fraud and corruption.

Finally, Egyptian government officials are public trustees with a mandate from the people. As such, Egypt's citizens own the information held by its government and should have an unhindered right to access it. Such rights are supported by myriad legal sources.

International legal norms

A number of international law documents

endorse Egyptians' access to information about their government as a fundamental human right. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, a foundational document of the United Nations to which all member states, including Egypt, are bound, recognizes the right to "to seek, receive and impart information and ideas . . ."¹

Notably, Egypt ratified the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR),² a human rights treaty that mirrors this language by providing that everyone's right to freedom of expression "shall include the freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media . . ."³ By virtue of its ratification, the ICCPR has the effect of law in Egypt. The ICCPR further states those restrictions on this right "shall only be such as are provided by law and are necessary: (a) For respect of the rights or reputations of others; [or] (b) For the protection of national security or of public order (*ordre public*), or of public health or morals."⁴

Additionally, in the annual report prepared by the Special Rapporteur and on Freedom of Opinion and Expression submitted to the U.N. Commission on Human Rights in 1998, the following was written:

The Special Rapporteur has consistently stated that the right to seek and receive information is not simply a converse of the right to freedom of opinion and expression but a freedom on its own . . . [T]he right to seek, receive and impart information imposes a positive obligation on States to ensure access to information, particularly with regard to information held by Government in all types of storage and retrieval systems . . .⁵

The constitutional status of freedom of information in Egypt

The Egyptian legal system, considered a civil law system, is based upon a well-established system of codified laws built on Islamic (Shariah) law and Napoleonic Code.

Egypt's supreme law is its written con-

stitution. In its current form, the Egyptian Constitution does not provide for an explicit guarantee to freedom of information although such a right appears to be implicit with its constitutional principles. For instance, Article 3 describes the Egyptian people as the government's source of authority while Article 24 states that laws are executed in their name. Implicit within these provisions is the Egyptian's right to access government-held data as the true owners. Further, Article 12 in the Egyptian Constitution guarantees freedom of opinion, which is meaningless without citizens' right to know about the activities carried out by the government in their name.

Notwithstanding the implied right to access data in the Egyptian government's possession, the Egyptian Constitution should be amended to provide for explicit right to access information. Additionally, any existing laws enacted to produce a closed political, economic, and social system during former Egyptian president Hosni Mubarak's reign should be repealed. For example, Article 102 of the Egyptian Penal Code provides for the detention of anyone who disseminates information if it "is liable to disturb the public security, spread horror among the people, or cause harm and damage to the public interest."⁶

An independent commission should be convened to review this and similar laws which present potentially formidable obstacles to the proper implementation of freedom of information legislation.

The "right-to-know" in Islamic tradition

It is worth noting that Article 2 of the Egyptian Constitution describes Shariah as a primary source of legislation thus requiring all new laws not be in contravention with Islamic law. This detail warrants a discussion of freedom of information rights through the Islamic jurisprudential lens.

Under Islamic jurisprudence, freedom of information and access to public records pertaining to any government agency is a citizen's right. Shariah views government officials as trustees acting on behalf of the peo-

ple who granted them governing authority through an electoral process. Thus, citizens are entitled to inquire and obtain access to public records in order to keep informed on any aspect of governance.

As James Madison, the fourth president of the United States and a co-author of the First Amendment to the American Constitution, explained: "A popular Government, without popular information, or the means of acquiring it, is but a Prologue to a Farce or a Tragedy; or, perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance: And a people who mean to be their own Governors, must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."⁷

Mirroring these principles, Shariah prohibits concealing knowledge, including that relating to the public affairs of the people. To the extent Shariah law is binding, this prohibition arguably extends to the Egyptian context with regard to freedom of information. Indeed, Islamic history includes examples of well-kept records concerning government administration as well as at least one prominent example of a Muslim leader—Omar ibn Khattab, the second Muslim ruler following the Prophet Muhammad's demise—permitting the general population to access those records. Hence, there is sufficient legal basis for Egypt to join the more than ninety nation-states explicitly guaranteeing its citizens the right to freedom of information.

FOIA: The U.S. model for government transparency

Originally passed by the United States Congress in 1966 and later amended, the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) is often lauded as a model for government transparency. FOIA requires executive government agencies to release their records to the public on request, unless the information sought falls into one of nine categories specifically exempted, such as national security materials or an individual's medical records.

The law does not apply to elected officials or the federal judiciary. In some situations, the requester has to pay for fulfillment of the request. FOIA also provides for court review of agency refusals to furnish identifiable records where the burden of justifying withholding of information lies with the government.

By the early twenty-first century, every U.S. federal department, agency, office, and bureau had its own FOIA contact(s) tasked full-time with processing, responding to, and

fulfilling these requests.

When establishing a new legal mechanism to facilitate the Egyptian's ability to acquire information, Egypt must create a new authority to oversee the entire process or assign an existing authority such as the Ministry of Information. Further, Egypt's current judicial structure enables the process of court review of agency refusals. In Egypt, jurisdiction is shared between two main judicial bodies: (a) General Courts; and (b) Administrative Judicial Courts. The Administrative Judicial Court is one of first instance and its decisions may be appealed to the Supreme Administrative Court

The role of Egypt's Administrative Judicial Court is particularly relevant because resolves matters related to government contracts, tenders and administrative decisions. It could easily encompass review of freedom of information request refusals.

Egypt future

Although Egypt's Constitution presently lacks an explicit guarantee to freedom of information, the right is implied in its principles. Nevertheless, to ensure good governance and guard against government corruption, Egypt's Constitution should be amended to clearly recognize the Egyptian's "right-to-know" as a fundamental human right. Further, the Egyptian Parliament should

propose, pass and implement freedom of information legislation, consistent with international legal norms to support the right to access government-held information. ■

Engy Abdelkader is a member of the Egyptian American Rule of Law Association (EARLA), and a Legal Fellow with the Institute of Social Policy and Understanding, a think tank based in Washington, D.C. The opinions expressed herein are those of the author only and are not attributable to the organizations. She may be reached at engy.abdelkader@gmail.com or 732-865-2648.

1. Universal Declaration of Human Rights, art. 19, G.A. Res. 217 (III), U.N. Doc. A/777 (Dec. 10, 1948) ("Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers").

2. 999 U.N.T.S. 171, 6 I.L.M. 368 (1966).

3. *Id.* art. 19(2).

4. *Id.* art. 19(3).

5. The Special Rapporteur Abid Hussain, *Question of the Human Rights of All Persons Subjected to Any Form of Detention or Imprisonment*, Commission on Human Rights, U.N. Doc. E/CN.4/1998/40 (Jan. 28, 1998), available at <<http://www.unhchr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/7599319f02ece82dc12566080045b296?Opendocument>>.

6. Egyptian Penal Code art. 102.

7. James Madison, Letter to W. T. Barry (Aug. 4, 1822), copy of text available at <<http://thefederalistpapers.org/founders/madison/james-madison-letter-to-w-t-barry-august-4-1822>>.

Discovery in international arbitration

Violeta Balan, who provides *The Globe* a steady stream of high quality articles, has informed us of a seminar which will take place in Chicago on October, 4, 2011, concerning discovery in international arbitration.

The program is co-sponsored by Mayer Brown, the International Chamber of Commerce and the Young Arbitrators Forum, with the support of the United States Council for International Business. The program will focus on discovery issues, including recent discovery protocols and decisions affecting the scope of discovery in international arbitration. It will include a discussion of electronic discovery issues and practical tips to manage discovery. Speakers include Stephen Anway of Squire, Sanders & Dempsey, LLP; Violeta Balan, of Mayer Brown, LLP; Karen Sewell, of Baker & McKenzie, LLP; and Lawrence Schaner of Jenner & Block, LLP. The program will be moderated by Eridania Perez, of Dewey LeBoeuf, LLP.

Anyone interested in attending this program may RSVP to Lea Felluss at +1 212-703-5044 or to lfs@iccwbo.org. ■

Upcoming CLE programs

To register, go to www.isba.org/cle or call the ISBA registrar at 800-252-8908 or 217-525-1760.

October

Tuesday, 10/4/11- Teleseminar—Fixing Broken Trusts. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Wednesday, 10/5/11- Webinar—Conducting Legal Research on FastCase. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Thursday, 10/6/11- Teleseminar—Environmental Liability in Real Estate Transactions. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Monday, 10/10/11- Chicago, UBS Towers—Advanced Workers' Compensation- Fall 2011. Presented by the ISBA Workers' Compensation Law Section. 9-5.

Monday, 10/10/11- Fairview Heights, Four Points Sheraton—Advanced Workers' Compensation- Fall 2011. Presented by the ISBA Workers' Compensation Law Section. 9-5.

Tuesday, 10/11/11- Teleseminar—Drafting LLC Operating Agreements, Part 1. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Wednesday, 10/12/11- Teleseminar—Drafting LLC Operating Agreements, Part 2. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Thursday, 10/13/11- Chicago, USB Towers—Collaborative Law: The Nuts and Bolts. Presented by the ISBA General Practice, Solo and Small Firm Section; co-sponsored by the ISBA Alternative Dispute Resolution and the ISBA Young Lawyers Division. 8-12.

Friday, 10/14/11- Springfield, INB Conference Center—Divorce Basics for Pro Bono Attorneys- 2011. Presented by the ISBA Delivery of Legal Services Council. 1:00-4:45.

Monday, 10/17/11- Chicago, ISBA Chicago Regional Office—Hot Topics in Consumer Collection. Presented by the ISBA

Commercial Banking, Collections and Bankruptcy Section; co-sponsored by the ISBA Young Lawyers Division. 8:45-4:30.

Tuesday, 10/18/11- Teleseminar—2011 Americans With Disabilities Act Update. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Tuesday, 10/18/11- Chicago, ISBA Chicago Regional Office—What You Need to Know About LLCs. Presented by the ISBA Corporation Securities and Business Law Section. 12:30-4:45.

Wednesday, 10/19/11- Webinar—Advanced Legal Research on FastCase. Presented by the Illinois State Bar Association. 12-1.

Thursday, 10/20/11- Chicago, ISBA Chicago Regional Office—The IMDMA and the Welfare of Pets. Presented by the ISBA Animal Law Section; co-sponsored by the ISBA Family Law Section and the ISBA Human Rights Section. 1:00-4:30pm. ■



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