General Assembly Plenary Committee

Background Guide

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Dear Delegates,

Welcome to the 2020 Bayern Model United Nations! This year’s topics under discussion for the General Assembly are:

1. Nuclear Disarmament and International Security
2. Electoral Cycle Support in Post-Conflict Settings
3. Climate Change, migration and displacement

The BayernMUN General Assembly serves this year as the core forum for discussions on Security, Development and Human Rights topics affecting Member States. The international community has faced a number of dynamic changes over the past years; we hope to see the resolutions in this committee reflect an understanding of those changes.

The background guide will serve as an introduction to the topics listed. Accordingly, it is not meant to be used as an all-inclusive analysis for research, but rather the groundwork for your own analysis and research. The references listed for each topic will provide you with the resources you need to start your own research. Each delegation is requested to submit a position paper, which reflects your research on the topics. Please take note of our BayernMUN policies on the website and in the delegates guide. This background guide was part of the 2017 National Model United Nations and has been updated with some changes by BayernMUN staff members.

If you have any questions regarding your preparation for the committee and the conference itself, please feel free to contact any of the substantive staff of the 2020 BayernMUN.

We wish you all the best in your preparation for the conference and look forward to seeing you in February!

Sincerely,

Your BayernMUN staff!
Committee Overview

Introduction
The United Nations (UN) General Assembly has existed since the creation of the UN and is one of the six principal organs of the UN established by the Charter of the United Nations (1945). The General Assembly is divided into six Main Committees. Each of the Main Committees has a specific focus and reports on its work to the General Assembly Plenary. As the only main body with universal membership, the General Assembly is a unique forum for discussion within the UN system. As such, it represents the normative center of the UN and its main role can be summarized in three principal aspects: a generator of ideas, a place of international debate, and the nucleus of new concepts and practices. In the following, you will find a brief explanation of the governance, structure, and membership of the General Assembly, followed by an explanation of its mandate, functions, and powers.

Governance, Structure, and Membership
As outlined in the Charter, the General Assembly is comprised of all 193 UN Member States. However, Observer status can also be granted to intergovernmental organizations such as the African Union and states without full UN membership; currently the Holy See and the State of Palestine are the only two non-Member States with permanent Observer status. In the General Assembly, each Member State has one equal vote.

Since its 44th session in 1989, the General Assembly is considered in session the entire year, but the most important time is the General Debate, which takes place from mid-September to the end of December and is called the “main part of the General Assembly.” The remainder of the year is called the “resumed part of the General Assembly;” during this time working group meetings take place and thematic debates are held. Except for decisions on important matters, votes in the General Assembly require a simple majority and the majority of resolutions are adopted without a vote, illustrating the consensual nature of the General Assembly.

The General Committee is comprised of the President of the General Assembly and the 21 Vice-Presidents of the General Assembly as well as the Chairpersons of all the six General Assembly Main Committees. The General Committee’s main duty, besides making recommendations on organizational issues, is to deal with the agenda of the General Assembly Plenary and its six Main Committees. After receiving a preliminary list of agenda items from the UN Secretariat, the General Committee allocates the different items to each Main Committee.

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3 Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Art. 98.
7 UN DPI, About Permanent Observers, 2016; UN DPI, Non-member States, 2016.
10 Ibid.
11 Ibid.
12 UN General Assembly, Proposed Programme Budget for the biennium 2016-2017 (A/708/6 (Sect. 4)), 2015, p. 3.
13 Ibid.
14 Ibid, p. 36.
Mandate, Functions, and Powers
The General Assembly and its six Main Committees are the center of the UN System and represent its main deliberative, policymaking, and representative organs; their outcomes thus define new norms that can become treaties or conventions among UN Member States. The General Assembly is tasked with initiating studies and making recommendations to promote international cooperation in the political field; encouraging the development of international law; promoting the implementation of cultural, social, and human rights; and promoting fundamental freedoms free from discrimination. The body “receives and considers reports” issued by “the other principal organs established under the Charter of the United Nations as well as reports issued by its own subsidiary bodies.” The General Assembly Plenary receives recommendations from the six Main Committees. Once the recommendations are sent to the Plenary Committee, the Plenary then votes on whether to adopt the resolutions as presented. In order to come into effect, a resolution adopted by a Main Committee must also be adopted by the General Assembly Plenary. Although decisions reached by the General Assembly are non-binding, they often serve to develop customary international law and serve as a good indicator of key international policy norms. Moreover, the consensus reached in the GA often leads to more concrete initiatives at the UN. Additionally, the General Assembly can request the Secretary-General or other UN organs to issue a report to one of the Main Committees on a specified question such as the implementation of recommendations made by the General Assembly.

19 UN General Assembly, About the General Assembly, 2016.
20 UN General Assembly, About the General Assembly, 2016.
22 UN General Assembly, About the General Assembly, 2016.
I. Nuclear Disarmament and International Security

“The world is over-armed and peace is under-funded.”
- Ban Ki-Moon

Introduction

Nuclear weapons have become the defining hallmark of total warfare since the end of World War II. The first nuclear bomb was developed during the Manhattan Project in 1945, and then used in warfare against Japan, in the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. In addition to large-scale casualties, the nuclear weapons also released significant amount of radiation into the surrounding area, ultimately affecting citizens’ health, and the natural environment for years following the war. The fallout of the bombs and the resulting radiation demonstrated the consequences of using nuclear armament in warfare. The traumatic aftermath helped to establish the legitimate threat that nuclear weapons represented to the world, and proved that the permanent threat of nuclear warfare was antithetical to achieving sustainable global peace.

Currently, nuclear weapons still remain a threat to global peace and security. According to the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), a nuclear weapon is a device that releases explosive energy as a result of nuclear fission and fusion. Nuclear weapons are therefore expensive, complicated, and dangerous. However, nuclear devices still appeal to states from a national security perspective based on the premise that the presence of nuclear weapons deters military rivals from launching an attack on a state out of fear of reprisal and gives a state military credibility. Currently, several United Nations (UN) Member States possess some form of nuclear weapon.

As a nuclear reprisal to military threat would ultimately have widespread and long-term consequences outside of the immediate conflict, the UN is committed to the complete eradication of nuclear weapons to provide for a more secure world and ensure the wellbeing of humanity. This sets the ground for disarmament and non-proliferation; while disarmament refers to the full eradication of nuclear weapons in the world, non-proliferation simply aims to limit the spread. The current state of global nuclear disarmament depends on the ability of various Member States to work together and decrease their nuclear arsenals.

25 UN General Assembly, General and complete disarmament (A/RES/14/1378), 1959.
27 Ibid.
28 UN General Assembly, General and complete disarmament (A/RES/14/1378), 1959.
29 UN News Centre, At Security Council, Ban calls for eradicating weapons of mass-destruction ‘once and for all’, 2016.
31 IAEA, IAEA Forum for the Creation of a Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone in the Middle East, 2011, p.3.
32 Ibid.
33 Ibid.
34 Ibid.
35 Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968.
36 Ibid.
37 Ibid.
International and Regional Framework

Since 1945, there have been extensive efforts and instruments created to limit the impact of nuclear weapons, with complete disarmament as the ultimate goal\textsuperscript{38}. The most pivotal document is the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) (1968), created to limit the levels of nuclear proliferation\textsuperscript{39}. The aim of the NPT is to halt the production and spread of nuclear weapons, and to encourage denuclearization efforts around the world\textsuperscript{40}. Even though they possess nuclear weapons, the Permanent Five Members of the Security Council are signatories of the NPT, while the remaining Member States that possess nuclear weapons are not signatories\textsuperscript{41}. One country, the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, has withdrawn from this instrument\textsuperscript{42}. This lack of adherence by nuclear possessing Member States has sometimes resulted in a challenge for the full application of the NPT\textsuperscript{43}. Ensuring full international cooperation with the NPT and transparency of nuclear programs would promote greater trust and collaboration among countries\textsuperscript{44}. One important component of the treaty is the application of nuclear safeguards set by the IAEA for the peaceful application of nuclear energy\textsuperscript{45}. The treaty recognized the importance of nuclear energy for the development of communities and industries, along with the importance of peaceful use of such energy for environmentally friendly economic growth\textsuperscript{46}. In Article IV of the NPT, it was affirmed that every Member State has the inherent right to research and develop nuclear energy for peaceful purposes\textsuperscript{47}. Furthermore, in the NPT, the IAEA was established as the main United Nations specialized agency for nuclear related matters\textsuperscript{48}.

Another important document is the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT). This treaty prohibits Member States from conducting any nuclear weapon tests, whether this is underground, underwater or in the atmosphere\textsuperscript{49}. The CTBT has however not yet entered into force\textsuperscript{50}. The General Assembly has stressed the importance of its ratification and calls for an early entry into force in resolution 69/48 of 11 December 2014\textsuperscript{51}.

The International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism (2005) set clear definitions on what constitutes a nuclear weapon, radioactive substance, nuclear device, nuclear energy, and established the rights and obligations of Member States\textsuperscript{52}. The Convention determined that the agreement is violated when an individual or Member State possesses the capability to create and employ a nuclear weapon, engage in nuclear terrorism, or is supplying terrorist groups with nuclear capability\textsuperscript{53}. The IAEA hosts an

\textsuperscript{38} UN News Centre, At Security Council, Ban calls for eradicating weapons of mass-destruction ‘once and for all’, 2016.
\textsuperscript{39} Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968.
\textsuperscript{40} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{41} Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968; Arms Control Association, Israel, India, and Pakistan: Engaging the Non-NPT States in the Nonproliferation Regime, 2012.
\textsuperscript{42} Arms Control Association, Israel, India, and Pakistan: Engaging the Non-NPT States in the Nonproliferation Regime, 2012.
\textsuperscript{43} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{44} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{45} Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968.
\textsuperscript{46} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{47} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{48} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{49} Germany, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, CTBT, 2019.
\textsuperscript{50} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{51} UN General Assembly, Nuclear Disarmament (A/RES/69/48), 2014.
\textsuperscript{53} Ibid.
International Conference on Nuclear Security to set and clarify individual commitments and actions for the following year, the first having taken place in 2013 and the second in 2016. The next conference is scheduled for February 10-14, 2020.

Some of the most recent frameworks include the Hague Agenda for Peace and Justice in the 21st Century (2000), the Convention on Nuclear Safety (1994), and the Vienna Declaration on Nuclear Safety (2015). The Hague Agenda deals with the causes of war, human rights and humanitarian affairs, and disarmament issues. It incorporates mutual Member State encouragement and bottom-up methods as a way to increase disarmament efforts among Member States. The Convention on Nuclear Safety stipulated fundamental norms regarding nuclear weapons safety and also saw the production of the Vienna Declaration on Nuclear Safety, which was unanimously adopted. It set new rules and stipulations on nuclear safety, including systematic safety assessments, national requirements and regulations for nuclear power plants, ensuring long-term protective measures and actions.

In terms of key resolutions, the General Assembly passed resolution 14/1378 in 1959 calling for complete nuclear disarmament. Two additional resolutions were passed dealing directly with global nuclear disarmament. General Assembly resolution 69/66 on the “Third Conference of State Parties and Signatories to Treaties that establish Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones and Mongolia” (2014) addressed the importance of regional nuclear-free zones. Furthermore, the body adopted General Assembly resolution 67/54 on “Implementation of the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction” (2012), and it urges the prohibition of the production, development, and stockpiling of chemical weapons, and encourages their destruction.

Lastly, during the 70th Session of the General Assembly in 2015, resolution 70/40 was passed, calling for the achievement of a nuclear-weapon-free world. Most recently, on 27 October 2016, the United Nations General Assembly First Committee adopted resolution 71/L.41 to start negotiations in 2017 in order to produce a treaty calling for the total ban of nuclear weapons. Over 123 Member States voted in favor of the resolution, while nuclear states and their allies voted against. This resolution sets a precedent for the full ban on nuclear weapons in the future.

In the wake of this resolution, the GA convened a conference in 2017 to negotiate the full ban of nuclear weapons. The conference resulted in the adoption of the Treaty on the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons (TPNW). This treaty sets prohibitions for States parties to

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58 Ibid.
60 IAEA, Vienna Declaration on Nuclear Safety, 2015.
61 Ibid.
62 UN General Assembly, General and complete disarmament (A/RES/14/1378), 1959.
65 UN General Assembly, United Action with renewed determination towards the total elimination of nuclear weapons (A/RES/70/40), 2015.
67 Ibid.
68 Ibid.
70 Ibid.
participate in any kind of nuclear weapons activities, including developing, testing, possessing, using or threatening to use nuclear weapons or assisting any other State in doing so\textsuperscript{71}. However, the TPNW has not yet entered into force and no nuclear possessing Member State has signed the treaty\textsuperscript{72}.

**Role of the International System**

The role of the General Assembly is to facilitate high-level disarmament efforts in the international community through mechanisms such as brokering agreements, mediating talks, directing subsidiary bodies, and engaging Member States on negotiations\textsuperscript{73}. Due to its focus and the thematic nature of its discussions, the General Assembly First Committee is uniquely placed within the international system to bring together Member States and to address the challenge of global nuclear disarmament\textsuperscript{74}.

The United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) is a key subsidiary body that reports directly to the committee and helps to promote nuclear disarmament and nonproliferation, strengthen disarmament regimes, and support efforts to ban weapons of mass destruction\textsuperscript{75}. Other efforts of the organization include the limiting of small arms and light weapons, ban of land mines, and limitation of other weapons in conventional warfare\textsuperscript{76}. Furthermore, UNODA provides substantive and organizational support, working in collaboration with the General Assembly First Committee and the Disarmament Commission to ensure dialogue, transparency, and confidence-building measures among Member States throughout non-proliferation processes\textsuperscript{77}.

There are several other key bodies that guide the General Assembly’s high-level dialogue on nuclear nonproliferation. The Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission (WMDC) was created in 2003 to help track and ensure the elimination of weapons of mass destruction and held a special final meeting in 2009\textsuperscript{78}. Even though the WMDC is on indefinite hiatus, its research continues to influence high-level dialogue on creating a nuclear-free world, along with the current tri-annual meetings of the Conference on Disarmament and its predecessors, and the Disarmament Commission\textsuperscript{79}. Further, the voluntarily funded United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) helps to conduct independent research and relevant studies on the development and use of nuclear weapons\textsuperscript{80}. UNIDIR reports annually to the General Assembly, with information that can aid in the formulation of resolutions pertaining to global nuclear disarmament\textsuperscript{81}.

An important international body that works on non-proliferation under the Security Council and holds Member States accountable to their international obligations is the 1540 Committee, which helps to enforce legal and regulatory measures against chemical, biological, and nuclear weapons on a domestic level\textsuperscript{82}. The 1540 Committee reports directly to the Security Council and contributes to more informed decision-making through their

\textsuperscript{71} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{72} UNODA, Status of the Treaty on the Prohibition of nuclear weapons, 2019.
\textsuperscript{73} UN General Assembly, General Assembly First Committee, 2016.
\textsuperscript{74} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{75} UNODA, Overview, 2016.
\textsuperscript{76} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{77} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{78} UNRCPD, Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission, 2016.
\textsuperscript{79} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{80} UN Institute for Disarmament Research, Institute for Disarmament Research, 2016.
\textsuperscript{81} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{82} Ibid.
reports, research findings, and recommendations, based on feedback from Member States and research\textsuperscript{83}.

The IAEA is a related organization that directly deals with nuclear related matters and serves as the main intergovernmental body on all nuclear related matters\textsuperscript{84}. It provides technical and scientific expertise to Member States dealing with nuclear power\textsuperscript{85}. As the main body to manage on-the-ground nuclear support, the IAEA sends inspectors to Member States to determine the level of nuclear capability they each possess, whether it is used for peaceful purposes or not, and then reports to the United Nations General Assembly of its work\textsuperscript{86}. The IAEA reports directly to the First Committee, which in turn produces the necessary resolutions in accordance with the findings\textsuperscript{87}. Furthermore, the IAEA serves as a mediator in nuclear negotiations, through claim verification, providing necessary information, and employing inspectors to survey the nuclear facilities of Member States\textsuperscript{88}. The IAEA expertise was employed in the P5+1, European Union (EU), and Iran nuclear negotiations in which all parties agreed to send IAEA inspectors to Iran by consensus\textsuperscript{89}.

On a regional level, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) serves as a security alliance to ensure the tracking and assessment of every member’s nuclear capability\textsuperscript{90}. NATO serves as a nuclear alliance “as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world,” and helps other Member States to destroy their existing nuclear stockpiles\textsuperscript{91}. Similarly, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), addresses issues such as arms control, confidence and security building measures among participating states, human rights, counterterrorism and democratization\textsuperscript{92}. The OSCE works together with the international community to help with denuclearization on the European continent and to help track nuclear materials\textsuperscript{93}. Similar regional nuclear disarmament initiatives were launched by the Asian Nuclear Safety Network (2003) and the Declaration of San Salvador by the Organization of American States (2011), which aim to foster dialogue and ensure nuclear-free areas in their respective regions\textsuperscript{94}. In 2016, the 17\textsuperscript{th} Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-Aligned Movement once more clarified the position of former non-aligned states regarding global nuclear disarmament\textsuperscript{95}. The Declaration of the XVII Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-Aligned Movement (2016) reaffirmed the will of the States to continue efforts to eliminate nuclear weapons in the world and to establish a nuclear weapon free zone in the Middle East in accordance with the NPT\textsuperscript{96}. Key regional frameworks such as these solidified involved Member State’s commitment to not pursue the creation of a nuclear weapon or test highly enriched uranium\textsuperscript{97}. They reduced the need for détente and add additional levels of regional and on-the-ground support to the high-level negotiations in the General Assembly\textsuperscript{98}.

The creation of regional Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones (NWFZs) by the UNODA is a success on strengthening international nuclear safety and promoting nuclear norms on the regional

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\textsuperscript{83} UN Security Council, 1540 Committee, 2015.
\textsuperscript{84} IAEA, Statute of the IAEA, 2016.
\textsuperscript{85} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{86} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{87} UN General Assembly, General Assembly First Committee, 2016.
\textsuperscript{88} IAEA, Statute of the IAEA, 2016.
\textsuperscript{89} United States of America, Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action, 2016.
\textsuperscript{90} NATO, Basic Points, 2016.
\textsuperscript{91} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{92} OSCE, Review, 2016.
\textsuperscript{93} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{94} Asian Nuclear Safety Network, Welcome to the Asian Nuclear Safety Network, 2015.
\textsuperscript{95} 17\textsuperscript{th} Summit of the Heads of State or Government of the Non-Aligned Movement, Final Document, 2016.
\textsuperscript{96} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{97} Organization of American States, Declaration of San Salvador, 2011.
\textsuperscript{98} Ibid.
level. NWFZs are determined through agreement of Member States from a particular region. Currently there are five treaties that specify the creation of a NWFZ in the following regions: Latin America and the Caribbean, South Pacific, Southeast Asia, Africa, and Central Asia. Additionally, the international community has agreed and passed the Antarctic Treaty, which enables Antarctica to remain nuclear free, and sets a precedent in the case of global nuclear disarmament, since regional initiatives can be adapted to an international context.

Civil society is also thoroughly involved in the process towards nuclear non-proliferation. The Arms Control Association for instance is a non-partisan organization based in Washington DC that supports arms control and reduction, including nuclear arms. It produces research documents, briefs, and reports that inform the international community on the current situation pertaining to arms control. Similarly, the Nuclear Threat Initiative and other research organizations submit publications, reports, and other data on the level of nuclear activity around the world. They aid policymakers by submitting relevant research work pertaining to the issues, helping to reach an informed and efficient decision. Civil society organizations also play an increasingly more prominent role in steering the international debate by lobbying in local governments and campaigning for political change. For instance, the International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons (ICAN) works to spread knowledge of nuclear weapons in various countries and help to pressure governments to halt the creation and distribution of those weapons. Employing the work and cooperation of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to aid the work of the UN can usher more efficient and timely responses to pertinent problems.

There is also significant historical precedent for nuclear limit bilateral negotiations, such as the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT I, 1969; SALT II, 1979) between the United States and the Soviet Union for the reduction of each country’s nuclear arsenal during the Cold War. The Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty adopted in 1987 helped the United States and Soviet Union to curb their ground and surface-to-air ballistic missiles. It led to the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START I, entered into force in 1994) between the countries, which was the first binding agreement for both parties to drastically reduce their nuclear arsenals. This treaty was followed by the Moscow Treaty in 2002 between the United States and the Russian Federation, helping to further reduce offensive capability regarding nuclear weapons. In 2010, the New Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (New START), set new obligations for the United States and Russia to reduce their nuclear

\[101\] UNODA, Disarmament Treaties Database, 2015.
\[103\] ACA, Arms Control Association, 2016.
\[104\] Ibid.
\[105\] International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons, Overview, 2016.
\[106\] Ibid.
\[107\] Ibid.
\[108\] Ibid.
\[109\] Ibid.
\[110\] Nuclear Threat Initiative, Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT I), 2011.
\[112\] Ibid.
arsenal\textsuperscript{114}. The obligations were met in 2018\textsuperscript{115}. This shows how continual work and effective international collaboration can eventually lead to the denuclearization of major world powers\textsuperscript{116}. However, recent developments seem to move in the opposite direction. The Moscow Treaty and START I are no longer in force, having expired respectively in 2012 and 2009\textsuperscript{117}. The USA withdrew from the INF Treaty in August 2019\textsuperscript{118}, with both the USA and Russia claiming that the other had been in violation of the treaty\textsuperscript{119}. The ending of the INF Treaty has internationally sparked fear of a new arms race\textsuperscript{120}. Already in 2018, Putin claimed that Russia had developed new tactical nuclear weapons that could not be detected by missile defense systems\textsuperscript{121}. Likewise, under the Trump administration, the USA has announced the will to develop new low-yield tactical nuclear weapons which experts warn could lower the threshold for a nuclear attack\textsuperscript{122}. Amidst these developments, and to avoid further destabilization, Antonio Guterres has called upon Russia and the USA to extend the New START Treaty\textsuperscript{123}, which is due to expire in 2021\textsuperscript{124}.

**Furthering Global Nuclear Disarmament**

To date, nuclear weapons are the only weapon of mass destruction not subject to a comprehensive treaty prohibiting their use, as exists for chemical and biological weapons\textsuperscript{125}. As noted before, the TPNW has not yet entered into force and to date only counts 33 Member States\textsuperscript{126}. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) has declared a nuclear first strike as illegal under international law\textsuperscript{127}. It did not decide whether a nuclear strike is under all circumstances incompatible with international and humanitarian law\textsuperscript{128}. It left open the question of legality of a defensive nuclear strike in an “extreme circumstance of self-defense, in which the very survival of a State would be at stake”\textsuperscript{129}.

The main obstacle to total nuclear disarmament remains the lack of adherence to the NPT and relevant documents by Member States\textsuperscript{130}. In the 2016 sessions of the General Assembly, several States expressed ongoing frustration with States that possess nuclear weapons who were “reluctant to budge from entrenched positions,” and continual failures of approaches to nuclear disarmament frameworks\textsuperscript{131}. Part of this criticism came from the fact that Member States that own nuclear weapons represent a “privileged club” of countries who continue to possess nuclear capabilities while criticizing developing countries for using nuclear energy for peaceful purposes, speaking to the larger inter-state divisions which must be addressed in nuclear negotiations\textsuperscript{132}.

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{114} Federation of American Scientists, the New START Treaty, 2019.
\textsuperscript{115} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{116} United Nations Review Conferences of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT), 2015 Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 2015.
\textsuperscript{117} Nuclear Threat Initiative, START I, 2011; Nuclear Threat Initiative, Moscow Treaty, 2002.
\textsuperscript{118} US Department of State, US Withdrawal from the INF treaty, 2019.
\textsuperscript{119} UN News UN chief laments ending of Cold War-era disarmament treat, 2019.
\textsuperscript{120} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{121} NBC News, Putin unveils new Russian nuclear missile, 2018.
\textsuperscript{122} The Guardian, US nuclear weapons: first low-yield warheads roll off the production line, 2019.
\textsuperscript{123} UN News UN chief laments ending of Cold War-era disarmament treat, 2019.
\textsuperscript{124} Federation of American Scientists, the New START Treaty, 2019.
\textsuperscript{125} UNRCPD, Weapons of Mass Destruction.
\textsuperscript{126} UNODA, Status of the Treaty on the Prohibition of nuclear weapons, 2019.
\textsuperscript{127} ICJ, Legality of the Threat or Use of Nuclear Weapons, 1996.
\textsuperscript{128} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{129} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{130} International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons, Overview, 2016.
\textsuperscript{131} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{132} Ibid.
\end{footnotesize}
Additionally, the ongoing threat of nuclear weapons discourages non-party states from becoming signatories of documents such as the NPT due to distrust, inequality and insecurity among them, and the ongoing prioritization by States of national security over international peace\(^{133}\). Lack of cooperation with the IAEA is a significant international cause for concern because a lack of transparent communication between states, or between a state and the UN, can exacerbate a security dilemma and threaten global security\(^{134}\). A recent illustration of this issue is the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK). In 2003, the DKRP withdrew from the NPT\(^{135}\) and since 2006 has carried out multiple nuclear weapons tests, despite calls from the IAEA and the international community to cease these activities and sanctions put in place by the Security Council\(^{136}\). Under the Trump administration, the USA have strengthened diplomatic efforts to promote the denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula\(^{137}\). Several meetings took place between Donald Trump and the North Korean leader Kim Jong Un, the first meetings between a North Korean leader and a sitting US president\(^{138}\). Though progress seemed possible for some time, the last meeting in Stockholm in October ended without any agreement, and with the North Korean chief negotiator threatening to resume nuclear testing\(^{139}\). The DPRK is not the only Member State resisting denuclearization efforts. The state of Israel is not party to NPT and does not allow IAEA inspectors to monitor and record its nuclear capability\(^{140}\). In a 2012 vote by the General Assembly, the UN called for Israel to open its nuclear program for international inspection\(^{141}\). The resolution received the overwhelming majority of the Member States, showing the international commitment to transparency\(^{142}\). However, Israel has not complied with the resolution, citing national self-determination and security as the main causes of concern\(^{143}\). Disputes such as these demonstrate the crux of the issue of disarmament: the clash between a state’s sovereign right to defend itself against foreign aggression, and the fact that this state-level defense framework fosters obstacles to disarmament and greater global distrust\(^{144}\).

Non-state actors have become an increasingly pressing topic in UN discussion, as they represent a threat to international peace and security, from implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to issues of nuclear security\(^{145}\). The rise of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) and other terrorist organizations into the international spotlight have led to concerns about these actors acquiring nuclear capabilities, and questions on whether they would be subject to the same norms as Member States\(^{146}\). If this situation were to occur, recognizing these actors as a legitimate threat would then also recognize their statehood. However, not acknowledging them can put the international community under risk from an attack\(^{147}\). The spread of terrorist organizations across borders


\(^{136}\) IAEA and DPRK: Chronology of Key events, 2019.


\(^{138}\) Ibid.

\(^{139}\) Ibid.


\(^{141}\) The Guardian, UN tells Israel to let in Nuclear Inspectors, 2012.

\(^{142}\) Ibid.

\(^{143}\) Ibid.

\(^{144}\) Ibid.


\(^{147}\) Ibid.
is a challenge to the capabilities of international organizations to respond, especially because there is no precedent on addressing the nuclear threat posed by non-state terrorist actors. For instance, the General Assembly created the 2005 International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, which criminalizes all acts of nuclear terrorism and utilizes the IAEA as the pre- and post-crisis support body. In addition, the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material (CPPNM) (1987) was created. Nevertheless, concerns still remain about whether these frameworks are sufficient to addressing the threat of nuclear terrorism. Considering the nuclear threat of terrorist organizations and non-state actors is therefore key to future international frameworks on nuclear disarmament.

A Case Study of Iran

The Iran Nuclear Deal and the resulting Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action (JCPOA) adopted in 2015 was a landmark agreement that ensured the relative disarmament of a potential nuclear state. Prior to the agreement, Iran had secretly built uranium enrichment facilities and conducted other activities relevant to building a nuclear bomb. The international community perceived this goal and the development of another nuclear state as a threat to international peace and security, resulting in sanctions imposed by the Security Council. Moreover, Member States started to broker a deal to limit Iranian capability of obtaining a nuclear weapon. The JCPOA was concluded between Iran and the P5+1 to ensure that all nuclear material in Iran was exclusively used for peaceful activities. The P5+1 in return promised to lift all economic sanctions. The agreement included verification measures entrusted to the IAEA including enabling IAEA inspectors to enter Iran and assess the relevant facilities to determine adherence to the international norms. For many, this agreement represented a cornerstone in international non-proliferation. However, in May 2018, the USA withdrew from the instrument and reimplemented US sanctions on Iran, thus undermining a big part of the Iran Deal. The EU tried to maintain the agreement by providing sanctions relief, namely by creating a new trade instrument named INSTEX. This was not seen as sufficient by Iran who has in return started breaching the JCPOA by enriching uranium and announced that it would no longer fully comply with the agreement. Amidst these developments, Secretary General Antonio Guterres has urged to maintain the deal, especially considering the implications abandoning it might have for the stability in the region.

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148 Ibid.
150 Ibid.
151 Ibid.
154 Ibid.
155 Ibid.
156 Ibid.
157 Ibid.
158 Ibid.
159 UN News, The UN is at the center of the Iran Nuclear Deal. Will it be the site of its unraveling? 2019.
160 Vienna Center for Disarmament and Non-Proliferation https://vcdnp.org/jcpoa-and-the-future-of-irans-nuclear-program/
161 Ibid.
162 Ibid.
163 CNN, 5 questions about Iran’s nuclear deal announcement, 2019. https://m.cnn.com/en/article/h_f699f21144b6d7b1795c761ddbb584
164 The Guardian, UN chief urges Donald Trump not to scrap Iran nuclear deal, 2018.
Conclusion

While there have been successes on the reduction of nuclear capability and the promotion of international norms, many challenges remain to achieve total disarmament\textsuperscript{165}. The lack of adherence to international guidelines continues to remain a big challenge when attempting to reach an international agreement on nuclear disarmament\textsuperscript{166}. The presence of new threats in the twenty-first century like non-state actors are also forcing international community to redefine its pre-existing norms on disarmament\textsuperscript{167}. Stopping the spread of nuclear weapons, bringing Member States on the negotiating table through various incentives, and holding states and non-state actors accountable is of the utmost importance for the UN General Assembly\textsuperscript{168}. Total global disarmament is the means to more secure and peaceful beneficial world and achieving this goal through negotiation and consensus will be the ultimate test of the General Assembly’s capabilities\textsuperscript{169}.

Further Research

Given the current challenges to global nuclear disarmament, delegates should consider some key questions while beginning research, including: How should the international community address the lack of adherence of Member States to international norms and preexisting agreements on nuclear safety? How can the international community ensure that treaties such as the Iran Nuclear Deal are successful in the future? How should the General Assembly address the threat of non-state actors and their possible acquisition of nuclear capability? What are some of the methods that the General Assembly can foster dialogue for greater international collaboration on nuclear matters? How will resolution 71/L.41 alter nuclear negotiations in the future? While there are no easy answers, it is up to the General Assembly to create the consensus that can lead to a more nuclear-secure world.

Annotated Bibliography


\textit{This issue brief by the Council on Foreign Relations discusses history, challenges, and successes of the global nuclear non-proliferation regime. It explains the historical context of nuclear weaponry, the beginning of the non-proliferation movement, and the recent challenges of reducing the number of nuclear weapons worldwide. The Strengths and Weaknesses section is particularly important as it directly states the obstacles that the international community is facing on disarmament. Additionally, this research presents some options to strengthen the nonproliferation regime, which delegates will find useful when working on their own research.}

\textsuperscript{165} BBC, North Korea nuclear tests: what did they achieve?, 2016.
\textsuperscript{166} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{167} International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons, UN Resolution to ban Nuclear Weapons in 2017, 2016.
\textsuperscript{168} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{169} Ibid.

This is the full text of the Vienna Declaration which was established to amend the Convention on Nuclear Safety in an effort to mitigate accidents and other unforeseen consequences. It was produced as a result of rising fears pertaining to mishandling of nuclear weapons and fallout that can affect populations. The document touches on health concerns and sets forth ways of handling nuclear materials. It is important for delegates to consider some of the externalities pertaining to nuclear weapons, how they can affect various communities, along with some of the health and wellness effects. It is very important to note these topics when proposing recommendations for global nuclear disarmament.


This is the complete record of the International Conference on Nuclear Security and it includes all of the commitments made by Member States along with the respective actions that each state has pledged to undertake. Furthermore, it shows the key role that the IAEA plays in global nuclear disarmament. This resource is essential for future delegate research because it will allow delegates a deeper understanding of the role of the IAEA in the international system, and the existing commitments that Member States have pledged to commit.


This handbook, published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade of New Zealand, is an attempt to contribute to the strengthening of information available to the international community on the UN system. It provides extensive information on the structure and membership as well the purpose of UN organs. As such, it represents the perfect introduction to the UN system as a whole for individuals less familiar with its complexity. Therefore, delegates should consider this a mustread during preparation for the conference.


This publication undertaken by the Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the UN is another contribution by a Member State of introductory information about the UN system. The General Assembly is a central focus of this handbook. A detailed description of its organization, structure, rules, and working methods can be found. Further providing information specific to all six Main Committees, this handbook offers a unique source of information to delegates to understand the work of the General Assembly and its place within the UN system.

Ramesh Thakur, a renowned commentator on the UN, examines the UN from a contemporary perspective and looks at it from new angles such as human security. The author's focus is on questions related to international peace and security. By doing so, he critically analyzes the use of force by the UN with the intention of making it more effective in the light of today's threats and with a particular focus on security and how it has evolved over the years and the role of the UN system including the General Assembly. His book is a valuable guide to the UN and will be of useful reading to delegates and offers an interesting perspective on international peace.


The Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action is the outcome document from the Iran Nuclear Deal. It includes stipulations that each signatory must undertake pertaining to the agreed upon terms. It allows IAEA inspectors to revise Iran’s nuclear facilities while P5+1 countries agree to lift sanctions over the Iranian economy. This document would allow delegates to become familiar with the text of the Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action and use it as a model for future high-level negotiations on global disarmament.


This treaty is the most important document to date on international guidelines for nonproliferation, including stipulations for Member States and a list of all signatories. The treaty divides international opinion on the basis of security and national self-determination, since there are notable exceptions for Member States who have not signed it. It will complement the work of General Assembly First Committee since it will serve as the core document from which delegates can build up their arguments and recommendations for global nuclear disarmament.


This treaty prohibits State parties from participating in any kind of nuclear weapons activities, including developing, testing, possessing, using or threatening to use nuclear weapons or assisting any other State in doing so. However, the TPNW has not yet entered into force and no nuclear possessing Member State has signed the treaty. It's impact therefore remains to be seen.


This is the text of the Hague Agenda, setting forth some of the major themes of the international system, including the abolition of nuclear weapons. It is key to understanding some of the main participants and documents behind the movement for nuclear disarmament, as well as global action prevent nuclear war. In particular, Section 44 details the goal to “Negotiate and Ratify an International Treaty to Eliminate Nuclear Weapons,” and references the NPT and ICJ’s previous work on nuclear weapons. Delegates will find this document key to understanding the lengthy history of the anti-nuclear weapon framework in the international community.
This is one of the first resolutions calling for a general and complete disarmament of nuclear weapons. Adopted in 1959 in the early stages of the Cold War, it set the stage for future talks and deliberations for decreasing the amount of nuclear weapons present. It is important for delegates to be familiar with this document as it can serve as a great reference point when drafting working papers and some of the key precedents in discussing related to nuclear weapons.

Through resolution 55/33, the General Assembly upheld the Geneva Protocol, thereby banning poisonous gases and other biological weapons from their use in war. It is one of the earliest documents that can help guide delegates as they grapple with a similar issue in the 21st century. The threat of nuclear weapons can be included as of equal importance to biological weapons in warfare. Biological weapons are currently banned in warfare and this is the document that achieved this feat. It draws parallels between biological and nuclear weapons and provides delegates with a good foundation for proposed resolutions on this topic.

This resolution sets the goals and actions that go along with implementing the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction. It sets forth the ways and means of achieving the prohibition and development of nuclear weapons. Delegates can examine the application of such efforts and determine their respective successes and shortcomings. It will allow delegates to see some of the benchmarks present in the international system, and emulate them in their work within committee.

This resolution establishes the creation of regional NWFZs, focusing Mongolia. Having an in-depth understanding of the processes utilized in this document will enable delegates to comprehend how NWFZs are created and how non-proliferation is discussed in international negotiations. Moreover, this document will show delegates the diplomatic language that goes in the process of drafting a proposal for the nuclear-weapon-free zone and sets a model for future nuclear weapon-free negotiations.
This is the key document of the United Nations that describes the organizations’ end goal of a nuclear weapon-free world. Having a good understanding of this document and its aims is critical to understanding the future goals of the international community on disarmament. Delegates will be able to use this document as a core from which to base their research, as well as a good source for understanding the rhetoric used in international negotiations on nuclear disarmament.


This report offers the most recent developments pertaining to the NPT, and discusses what Member States agreed during the Conference, and what still remains to be addressed. Delegates would find this source particularly helpful since most of the working papers produced dealt with NWFZs, security assurances pertaining to nuclear capability, nuclear testing activities, and various safeguards that must be implemented. Additionally, this page provides the outcome documents of the previous 2010 Review Conference, which will be useful for historical context.


This is the website of the 1540 Committee, explaining in detail its creation, its mandate, functions, and some of the work that it currently pursues. It will enable delegates to gain further knowledge of the work and function of the 1540 Committee, allowing them to utilize its resources for the purposes of drafting position and working papers. The Committee is particularly important because its Programme of Work specifically targets issues regarding non-state actors, and its research does impact discussion in the General Assembly through committee briefings and working group meetings.

Bibliography


II. Electoral Cycle Support in Post-Conflict Settings

“Winning or losing of the election is less important than strengthening the country.”

Introduction

Elections are a vital tool for legitimate political processes as a means for people to express their opinion and preferences, mandate their representatives, and voice their will. Elections are also essential for establishing legitimate institutions and representatives through inclusiveness, credibility, and integrity. Many Member States still face challenges in regard to electoral processes. Nevertheless, effective governance by ensuring inclusive, transparent and credible electoral processes, is essential for sustainable development. For this reason, providing assistance to elections is part of the United Nations’ (UN) work and a large part of the United Nations Development Programme’s (UNDP) democratic governance efforts.

Electoral cycle support is a term that encompasses electoral assistance, like aiding electoral stakeholders with election-related tasks such as capacity-building, voter registration, operational knowledge sharing, technical assistance, and electoral observation with the underlying notion that electoral processes are not a single event but a dynamic, cyclical process. Post-conflict settings are especially sensitive to the performance and outcome of elections due to the volatile security environment they have to be conducted in. Post-conflict environments are prone to experiencing recurring violence during elections due to remaining grievances and/or incomplete reintegration of conflict parties into society, partial disarmament efforts, and missing government structures. Hence, elections are a necessary basis for governance and to induce peace, stability, and sustainable development.

In addition, electoral cycle support in post-conflict situations is a complex task since many election-related activities are performed for either the first time or after a long period of violent conflict and infrastructure, and therefore expertise is often missing. Thus, UNDP considers inclusive and participatory political processes as an opportunity to create accountability and responsiveness in governmental institutions and as a channel to promote development and equal access to institutions. A key aspect of electoral support is the empowerment of vulnerable and marginalized groups, such as women and youth, to strengthen political processes and institutions through participation. Thus, UNDP intensely engages in measures to promote “sustainable and inclusive democratic societies” through its

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172 Ibid.
173 UNDP, Electoral cycle support, 2018.
176 ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, Electoral Assistance.
177 UNDP, Goal 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions, 2018
179 UNDP, Goal 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions, 2018.
182 UNDP, Inclusive political processes, 2018; UN-Women, Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, 2018, p. 95.
electoral cycle support programs and activities.\textsuperscript{183} UNDP focuses its resources on conflict prevention, especially through electoral cycle support.\textsuperscript{184} UNDP offers strategic electoral assistance to approximately 60 countries a year and every two weeks supports an election, since it considers elections as the main mechanism for government legitimacy.\textsuperscript{185} Overall, UNDP has assisted in more than 100 Member States’ elections and referendums since it began focusing on electoral assistance in the early 1990s.\textsuperscript{186} To fully understand UNDP’s work in electoral cycle support in post-conflict settings, it is vital to look at the existing legal framework guiding international efforts, existing measures and policies, the distinctive challenge post-conflict environments pose to electoral assistance, and the need to include women and youth as marginalized groups into political processes.

\textit{International and Regional Framework}

The international and regional framework for electoral cycle support in post-conflict situations builds on key international documents, such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948); Article 21 of the Declaration stresses that the will of the people is the main source for governmental authority.\textsuperscript{187} The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) emphasizes the right of all citizens to participate in elections with universal and equal suffrage, and the right to be elected for public office.\textsuperscript{188} Furthermore, other regional and international documents such as the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1969) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2007) highlight the importance of inclusive and accessible political processes, for example, by providing legal frameworks against the discrimination of often marginalized groups.\textsuperscript{189} The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly, explicitly reaffirms women’s fundamental right of political participation, including the right to vote and be elected, to represent their country at international meetings, and to perform public functions.\textsuperscript{190} Furthermore, the Declaration of Principles for International Election Observation and the Code of Conduct for International Election Observers (2005) is an extensive elaboration of guidelines drafted by 20 intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations and initiated by the United Nations Electoral Assistance Division (UNEAD), which is endorsed by 55 intergovernmental and international organizations and as such represents a common streamlining of international efforts of electoral observation.\textsuperscript{191}

Electoral cycle support is inherently included in the Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015), also known as the 2030 Agenda for

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item[183] UNDP, \textit{Electoral cycle support}, 2018.
\item[186] UNDP, \textit{Electoral cycle support}, 2018.
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\end{footnotesize}
Sustainable Development.192 The agenda is a plan of action including 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 targets building on the Millennium Development Goals to promote all economic, social, and environmental development, the dimensions of sustainable development.193 Electoral assistance is included as part of SDG 16, which addresses the need of peaceful, inclusive, and just societies with strong and accountable institutions.194 As highlighted by SDG 16.6 and 16.7, electoral processes are essential for development and peace because they create accountable, inclusive, and transparent institutions and decision-making.195

**Role of the International System**

Demand for electoral cycle support started increasing in the early 1990s.196 As a reaction, the UN General Assembly adopted resolution 46/137 (1991) on "Enhancing the Effectiveness of the Principle of Periodic and Genuine Elections."197 This resolution demanded that a focal point for electoral assistance be established to coordinate international electoral assistance efforts and ensure program consistency.198 As a result, the Under-Secretary-General for Political Affairs was designated as the focal point for electoral assistance activities.199 The General Assembly reiterated in its resolution 72/164 (2017) the importance of efficiency in the election process though ongoing international and regional cooperation, transparency and oversight, and equal participation of vulnerable groups such as women and persons with disabilities for ensuring democratic process.200 Furthermore, the UN Secretary-General elaborated on efforts to promote democratic transitions and elections, as well as the importance of inclusion, the attention to grievances because of exclusion and inequality, and the role of women and youth to foster international peace and security in his “Report of the Secretary-General on the work of the Organization” (2017).201

Youth participation is highlighted as an important factor for peacebuilding in post-conflict situations, as it promotes the inclusiveness of all segments of society, as stated in Security Council resolution 2250 (2015) and 2419 (2018).202 Security Council resolution 1889 (2009) reiterates the positive impact women’s inclusion and participation in decision-making in post-conflict situations has.203 Moreover, Security Council resolution 2122 (2013) highlights women’s participation during electoral processes.204 Gender inclusion has been on the electoral cycle support agenda since Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) on “Women and Peace and Security.”205

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195 Ibid.
196 UN DPI, *Democracy*; ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, *Electoral Assistance*.
198 ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, *Electoral Assistance*.
199 UN DPI, *Democracy*.
201 UN General Assembly, of the Secretary-General on the work of the Organization (A/72/1), 2017.
204 UN Security Council, *Women and peace and security (S/RES/2122 (2013))*.
UNDP is considered the main coordinator and implementation entity for electoral cycle support and its work is guided by the Under-Secretary-General for Political Affairs, the focal point for electoral assistance. UNDP provides capacity-building for Electoral Management Bodies (EMBs) and other actors to increase election credibility, provide assistance with legal reforms, provide expertise in regard to financing, support voter and civic education, and suggest strategies to increase political participation of marginalized groups. UNDP aims at reducing the risk of electoral conflict and violence. In post-conflict situations, UNDP assists in restoring core functions of government while aiming at including minorities and often excluded groups such as women and youth. For this reason, UNDP utilizes about $565 million to promote inclusive governance and development at the local level. To intensify its electoral cycle support, UNDP established the Global Programme for Electoral Cycle Support (GPECS) in 2009 to harmonize electoral cycle support. GPECS focused on the one side on global assistance, gender mainstreaming, knowledge, and tools, and other national and regional capacity-building activities. GPECS was prolonged for a second phase (2015-2017) focusing on capacity-building, regional cooperation, and gender mainstreaming in electoral cycle support. UNDP follows a “partnership approach” in electoral assistance by cooperating with other UN entities and organizations such as the UN Electoral Assistance Division and the European Commission, with which it has created a Joint Task Force in Electoral Assistance to provide technical assistance. UNDP closely cooperates with the International Foundation for Electoral Systems (IFES) since 2016. They work to promote good governance, accountability of governmental institutions, and inclusive and credible elections by exchanging information, research cooperation, training, and enhancing the Administration and Cost of Elections (ACE) Electoral Knowledge Network. UNDP collaborated with government ministries and civil society organizations (CSOs) to establish the ACE network, which assists in creating transparent and credible electoral processes by providing an online portal with knowledge and information on electoral processes, with statistics, data, resources, etc. The main aim of the ACE network is to provide knowledge and a network for experts in the field, the Practitioners’ Network.

Among the many efforts to consolidate electoral cycle support internationally, the Building Resources in Democracy, Governance and Election (BRIDGE) is a cooperation between UNDP, UNEAD, the Australian Electoral Commission (AEC), the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA), and IFES. BRIDGE provides knowledge sharing and expertise for electoral practitioners and stakeholders by organizing workshops and undertaking assessments. BRIDGE workshops trained more than 15,000 election professionals and key stakeholders in over 100 countries making it one of the main capacity-

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207 Ibid.
208 Ibid.
210 Ibid.
213 Ibid.
214 Ibid.
215 Ibid.
216 UNDP, *Electoral cycle support, 2018.*
217 Ibid.
218 Ibid.
220 Ibid.
216 UNDP, *IFES and UNDP sign a Memorandum of Understanding to expand collaboration in electoral practices, 2016.*
217 ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, *About ACE.*
218 ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, *About the Practitioners’ Network.*
220 Ibid.
development packages for electoral assistance.\textsuperscript{221} The European Union and UNDP partnership focuses on electoral cycle support with a priority on promoting the SDGs and democratic governance.\textsuperscript{222} The partnership was formalized in 2006 with the Electoral Assistance Guidelines and has worked in 200 projects and more than 50 countries.\textsuperscript{223} Performance indicators were developed to measure electoral assistance projects and the EC-UNDP Joint Task Force on Electoral Assistance (EC-UNDP JTF) was formed as a coordination mechanism tasked with technical and advisory support for in-country and remote projects, best practice sharing and education with its publications, as well as free online courses.\textsuperscript{224} The task force is currently among others supporting electoral assistance in Afghanistan, Zambia, Kenya, and Malawi.\textsuperscript{225}

**Electoral Cycle Support in Post-conflict Settings**

The term electoral assistance refers to a number of logistical, technical, and/or financial tasks and initiatives, such as training EMBs that help conduct elections, education programs for voters and national staff, procuring ballot boxes, etc.\textsuperscript{226} The Legal Empowerment and Assistance for the Disadvantaged (LEAD) Project has worked to improve grievance counselling and policy frameworks toward inclusion in Indonesia at the local level from 2007 to 2011.\textsuperscript{227} The field of electoral assistance arose to prominence in the 1990s as regional and international organizations offered short-term support to national institutions.\textsuperscript{228} This period gave rise to the realization that short-term, ad-hoc electoral assistance is not sufficient to establish lasting peace and governance.\textsuperscript{229} The understanding of effective electoral assistance, its scope, and its activities changed after the UNDP, the European Commission (EC), and IDEA presented the so-called “electoral cycle approach” in 2007.\textsuperscript{230} This electoral cycle support approach underlines the notion that elections constitute more than just what occurs on election day.\textsuperscript{231} Electoral processes are understood as cyclical and therefore electoral cycle support focuses on assisting electoral processes on the long-term, meaning before, during, and after elections, by providing short-term expertise, logistical, and financial support but also long-term capacity-building, constitutional and legal transition assistance, and even promoting empowerment measures throughout the electoral phases and/or cycles.\textsuperscript{232} This change in the understanding of electoral assistance led to electoral assistance widening not only conceptually, but also in its time, scope, and toolset.\textsuperscript{233} The electoral cycle concept can be applied to development policy planning and electoral assistance programs, allowing for long-term planning and engagement, for example, by fostering knowledge development and capacity-building, as well as by inclusion of short-term activities such as

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\item \textsuperscript{223} UNDP & EC, Youth Participation in Electoral Processes: Handbook for Electoral Management Bodies, 2017.
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\item \textsuperscript{225} EU & UNDP, Our Projects.
\item \textsuperscript{227} UNDPA, Elections, 2018; UNDP, The Legal Empowerment and Assistance for the Disadvantaged (LEAD), 2018.
\item \textsuperscript{228} Lührmann, UN Electoral Assistance: Does it Matter for the Quality of Elections?, 2016, p. 6.
\item \textsuperscript{229} ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, Electoral Cycle.
\item \textsuperscript{230} Lührmann, UN Electoral Assistance: Does it Matter for the Quality of Elections?, 2016, p. 6.
\item \textsuperscript{231} ACE Electoral Knowledge Network, Electoral Cycle.
\item \textsuperscript{233} Lührmann, UN Electoral Assistance: Does it Matter for the Quality of Elections?, 2016, p. 6.
\end{itemize}
voter registration into a grander strategy.\textsuperscript{234} These efforts translate into international development measures that for example, UNDP invests on average $565 million to help foster inclusive governance at the local level as part of their development strategy.\textsuperscript{235}

Post-conflict settings represent an extraordinary challenge for peacebuilding and electoral assistance.\textsuperscript{236} After a conflict has ended, Member States find themselves confronted with an environment characterized by insecurity, resentment, and deep societal grievances.\textsuperscript{237} In post-conflict settings, societies have to rebuild governance capacities and the rule of law, ensure security and stability, and regain societal cohesion, and high-quality, transparent, inclusive, and credible electoral processes must be established.\textsuperscript{238} Inclusive electoral processes are a high aim by itself and even more challenging to achieve in post-conflict settings because of the disastrous impact that the conflict have left on the economic growth and overall development of the country; post-conflict settings are often located in regions that still have to be disarmed, where social cohesion is low, and the effects of war are still very present structurally.\textsuperscript{239} In addition, elections in post-conflict settings are often perceived as indicators for change and inclusive ones can help overcome grievances and resolve conflicts.\textsuperscript{240} Moreover, electoral assistance in post-conflict settings tends to focus on short-term issues and targets, thus mainly dealing with electoral institution assistance rather than electoral stakeholders.\textsuperscript{241} This changed with the introduction of the electoral cycle approach, which focuses on all activities relating to elections short and long-term.\textsuperscript{242}

\textit{Inclusion of Marginalized Groups in Electoral Cycle Support}

The term inclusive political process refers to high citizen participation.\textsuperscript{243} Inclusiveness is an important element of credible, transparent, and sustainable electoral cycles.\textsuperscript{244} The more inclusive a political process is, the more it can compensate for structural inequalities like uneven wealth distribution and access to education, remedy societal tensions, improve social cohesion, and achieve peace.\textsuperscript{245} This is reiterated in SDG 16 as it emphasizes the relationship between peace and development; peace is a necessary condition for sustainable development.\textsuperscript{246} In an environment of armed violence and insecurity, development is hindered as economic development, social cohesion, and the rule of law are affected by all forms of violence; sustainable development requires peace and stability, which strive on effective good governance.\textsuperscript{247} Peace and security can be achieved in post-conflict environments with inclusive and credible political processes, which depend on universal suffrage and the inclusion of groups marginalized in post-conflict settings, including women.

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\bibitem{247} UNDP, \textit{Goal 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions}, 2018.
\end{thebibliography}
and youth.\textsuperscript{248} Gender equality is seen as integral to reaching the SDGs.\textsuperscript{249} The UN has therefore released the handbook Women and Elections: Guide to Promoting the Participation of Women in Elections specifying measures to promote women’s participation.\textsuperscript{250} DPKO/DFS–DPA Joint Guidelines on Enhancing the Role of Women in Post-Conflict Electoral Processes (2007) presents measures and tools such as voter registration and training opportunities for female candidates specifically designed for post-conflict electoral cycle support.\textsuperscript{251} The National Democratic Institute (NDI) has gathered best practices and tool suggestions to deliver high-quality trainings to increase women’s participation.\textsuperscript{252} The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women) is also involved in gender equality in electoral cycle support as it provides assistance in all gender equality, empowerment, and gender mainstreaming issue areas.\textsuperscript{253} As part of its mandate, UN-Women provides training and advice on gender equality and women’s participation in elections.\textsuperscript{254} There are still challenges remaining in the area of gender equality in elections such as inequality of capacities and/or resources, and other gender-specific limitations.\textsuperscript{255}

Main structural barriers for youth participation in electoral processes are age requirements, participation costs, as well as social and cultural traditions fostering the exclusion of the youth.\textsuperscript{256} In case of young women, they often suffer of “double discrimination” by facing barriers due to their age and gender.\textsuperscript{257} The Youth4Peace Global Knowledge Portal is a multi-stakeholder partnership sponsored by the UNDP, the United Nations Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO), and the United Network of Young Peacebuilders (UNOY).\textsuperscript{258} It encourages youth to engage in peacebuilding efforts.\textsuperscript{259} It regards youth’s role not as victims or contributors to violence but as capable of promoting peace and security and enhancing electoral cycle support.\textsuperscript{260} In addition, the first Global Forum on Youth, Peace and Security was hosted in August 2015 and further recognized the role of youth in peace and security issues, gender equality, and socioeconomic empowerment.\textsuperscript{261} As a result of the forum, the Amman Youth Declaration (2015) was adopted, which emphasizes youth’s role in post-conflict transformation.\textsuperscript{262} The UNDP developed its Youth Strategy 2014-2017 and included recommendations for youth empowerment and inclusion through outreach, advocacy, network building, leadership, and policy debates.\textsuperscript{263}

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  \item \textsuperscript{260} Youth4Peace, About the Youth, Peace & Security Agenda.
  \item \textsuperscript{261} Youth4Peace, The Global Forum on Youth, Peace and Security, 2015.
  \item \textsuperscript{262} Youth4Peace, Amman Youth Declaration, 2015.
  \item \textsuperscript{263} UNDP, UNDP Youth Strategy 2014-2017, 2014.
\end{itemize}
**Conclusion**

Electoral cycle support is vital to achieving socioeconomic development and realization of the SDGs; post-conflict settings represent a special challenge to international efforts in this area.\(^ {264}\) Resilient governance is core to peace and security, and electoral cycle support is key for governance: without inclusive, transparent, and credible elections the trust in governmental institutions and political processes cannot be built.\(^ {265}\) Without peace and security, sustainable development is not possible, as these are the starting conditions for development.\(^ {266}\) UNDP has become the central coordinating entity of electoral cycle support in the UN system.\(^ {267}\) Still some barriers to electoral processes remain, such as the exclusion of groups like women and youth.\(^ {268}\) The efforts to coordinate measures, such as for example in the case of the EC-UNDP JTF and LEAD, in and outside of the UN system have to be continued to achieve a holistic and effective electoral cycle support policy.\(^ {269}\)

**Further Research**

Electoral cycle support contributes to the realization of multiple SDGs and overall international peace. There are still areas for improvement. Thus, how can UNDP further improve the effectiveness of electoral cycle support, especially in post-conflict settings? How can policies be better suited for post-conflict environments? Why is inclusion and transparency of essence for credibility and societal cohesion? Are there possibilities to make international measures more inclusive? Are there possibilities to further harmonize and streamline electoral cycle support measures in post-conflict situations? What are barriers for good governance and electoral processes? What are important dimensions international electoral cycle support does not address properly or not at all? How can electoral cycle support in post-conflict situations further foster the achievement of SDGs and with it the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development? How can electoral cycle support be even better integrated in development measures?

**Annotated Bibliography**


*The ACE Electoral Knowledge Network is a cooperative effort of multiple organizations. Its website about electoral assistance does not only provide a broad overview of important terms and historical developments but also it includes a description of the electoral cycle approach and important dimensions of electoral assistance. In addition, two case studies on Bangladesh and Sudan are presented. This website offers a good source for delegates to take an introductory read on electoral assistance and get a good first glance at the topic and dimensions to keep in mind when developing electoral cycle support policies. The information provided by*

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\(^ {269}\) UNDP & EC, *eLearnings*. 
the ACE Electoral Knowledge Network can be viewed as international consensus as they are the result of wide collaboration between different organizations.


This paper by Maarten Halff gives a good overview about the tasks encompassed in UN electoral management support. It can therefore serve as a first opportunity to familiarize oneself with electoral management. The paper gives a presentation of electoral assistance in the case of Iraq explaining difficulties and challenges present in this case. Furthermore, it explains the importance of public acceptance and confidence in elections as a central dimension of successful electoral assistance. Concluding, it provides delegates with a good source to begin research in the areas of electoral acceptance and management support, as well as for understanding the connection between electoral assistance and conflict prevention.


This short article from the Health and Human Rights Journal addresses SDG 16 and its importance for human development. Furthermore, it discusses the interrelation between SDG 16, peace, and development. As this SDG is of vital importance for the UNDP’s electoral cycle support, it is recommended as a tool to become more familiar with this specific goal and the implications it has for electoral cycle support. Delegates can consult it as a first guide into SDG 16 to understand what this SDG entails and how it relates to electoral cycle support in the development context.


This policy brief by the Kofi Annan Foundation sheds light on the matter of timing and sequencing of elections in post-conflict settings by presenting existing research, components of transitional elections, and recommendations regarding areas of improvement. This is an important aspect, which should not be forgotten when evaluating case studies and past, as well as current projects. Timing and sequencing are vital for successful assistance and therefore an area of interest for delegates when developing new policy recommendations for the topic at hand. In addition, the policy brief presents numerous case studies, such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Liberia, Tunisia, and Kosovo.


This article provides considers the argument that women participation in the political decision-making process could foster peace. It provides valuable insights into marginalized citizens and deals extensively with women’s contribution to society as political leaders. Moreover, it gives a good overview on the academic literature and research surrounding gender empowerment and inclusion. Through its empiric analysis of the influence of women’s participation on peace durability, the potential
agency of women and the importance of social spending as measures for post-conflict political processes is discussed. Delegates wishing to expand their knowledge on the role of women in electoral cycle support in post-conflict situations should consult this source.


This report from UNDP assesses the success of the Global Programme for Electoral Cycle Support (GPECS) from 2009 to 2013. It addresses several dimensions vital to electoral cycle support including women’s empowerment and electoral capacity-building. It provides an evaluation of the GPECS, which can serve as a starting point for research. Delegates should consult this source as an opportunity to familiarize oneself with a global UNDP programme. Moreover, it elaborates on differences for national electoral programming in different regions. This source is especially helpful for a better glance at the work done by GPECS. Delegates should consult this source to get a better understanding of UNDP’s work to help better embed their policy recommendations in the existing UNDP framework.


The UNDP Youth Strategy 2014-2017 gives a very good insight into the important aspects of youth inclusion. In addition, it provides an account of challenges to youth inclusion and programs that have been conducted in the past. It also addresses developmental challenges. It covers a great variance of youth empowerment-related activities and fields. It also tackles the issue of building lasting partnerships in the area of electoral support. Capacity-development, outreach and advocacy, global debates and networks, and national policy development to promote youth participation are discussed. It gives a good account for delegates on different dimensions included in youth empowerment and measures possibly effective to foster it and serves as a good source for delegates wanting to deepen their knowledge of this focus area.


This guide by UNDP gives an account of how policy-makers could restructure EMBs to better include gender equality and foster women’s participation. It provides a good presentation on gender mainstreaming by staff composition, a gender-sensitive culture, voter registration and outreach. Furthermore, suggestions on how to work with different political stakeholders (political parties, the media, and CSOs). It is thus good as an orientation frame on how gender equality can be translated into policies and can assist delegates in tailoring their proposals in regard to this essential dimension of electoral cycle support.

This report highlights the efforts of the Joint UNDP-DPA programme in regard to capacity-building for conflict prevention. It gives valuable insights into the joint program, the empowerment of stakeholders, and possibilities of conflict prevention within the UN framework. It is therefore a good starting point for further research in regard to conflict prevention and stakeholder capacity-building. Moreover, it gives a broad overview of programs that have been conducted by UNDP and DPA. Thus, it is helpful for delegates to understand in which way conflict prevention measures are implemented and how they could be improved.


The UNDP Thematic Trust Fund is one of the main UNDP financial funds for project financing. Its annual report gives an account of tasks undertaken in the time period and evaluations of the policy successes. It includes a whole chapter on democratic governance which provides fruitful insights and good explanations about the underlying rationales in electoral cycle support in regard to accountability, participation, and representation. The role of strengthening institutions and an account of UNDP’s work to accelerate the achievement of the SDGs is presented. This report helps delegates embed their policy proposals in existing UNDP projects and programs, as well as find possible gap areas on which to focus to avoid duplicating existing measures.


This handbook provides good insights in the current debate on measures to increase youth participation in electoral processes. It was published by the UNDP-EC Joint Task Force on Electoral Assistance. The handbook explains key concepts of electoral cycle support. It elaborates on why age requirements, increased candidacy costs, social and cultural traditions are obstacles for youth participation. It provides a good overview of youth inclusion measures and explains the role of youth in promoting peace and sustainability. Thus, it gives an introduction to delegates into key concepts and measures, as well as a presentation of a case study, youth empowerment in Nepal. The handbook offers a good starting point for delegates’ research in regard to the inclusion of youth in political processes.

This report was issued by UN-Women. As the agency for gender empowerment, inclusion, and mainstreaming, it provides helpful insights in regard to gender equality and its relation to the 2030 Agenda. Furthermore, gender inclusion in political processes assists in maintaining lasting peace and stability. This dimension is of essence in regard to electoral cycle support because successful, sustainable, and inclusive electoral processes rely on women’s empowerment, especially in post-conflict situations in which the inclusion of women is seen as a driving factor for peace and stability. It is thus advisable for delegates to take a closer look at the role of gender equality in the SDGs to understand its importance in development policy and specifically electoral cycle support.


This General Assembly resolution introduced the adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. It is of the utmost importance to understand the SDGs as they are currently the foundation for all development policies and serve as guiding principles. Furthermore, it is of essence to take a look at all goals, as they are interrelated and interconnected. Electoral cycle support in post-conflict settings pertains into the area of SDG 16 on peace, justice and strong institutions. Although, other SDGs are connected to the aim of SDG 16 and contribute to its fulfilment by also being tackled in a holistic approach. This document is vital for delegates to fully understand the 2030 Agenda, as well as SDGs and their targets in regard to electoral cycle support and the overall development agenda guiding UNDP.


This report by the Secretary-General from 2017 subsumes the efforts and measures promoted by the United Nations. Electoral cycle support is addressed among other thematic areas next to the promotion of economic growth and sustainable development. It provides the assessment by the Secretary-General and allows delegates to identify areas of improvement. This report is well-suited for delegates to reflect on how electoral cycle support policy suggestions could fit into the overall UN efforts without creating double structures and further supporting a holistic, multidimensional approach to electoral cycle support.


This article discusses election assistance in the UN context. It provides a glance at the different forms of electoral assistance measures, as well as an analysis of the effectiveness of such. The general nexus between electoral assistance and post-election conflict resolving and prevention are illuminated. As it contrasts the importance of improving election commissions’ credibility and election assistance with the demand and supply for UN electoral assistance, it is suitable as a research input for the development of delegates’ innovative policy suggestions.
Bibliography


III. Climate Change, migration and displacement

“Secure the boarder. Build a wall”
Donald Trump, President of the United States of America, August 2014 via Twitter

Introduction
People around the world are forced to leave their homes because of various reasons. Armed conflict and political unstable situations for example continuingly endanger the lives of thousands of civilians in Syria since the beginning of the conflict in 2011. The situation worsened again in the weeks following 9 October 2019, when Turkish forces invaded Kurdish-held border areas in the northeast of Syria. Military-led crackdown, widespread killings, rape and village burnings, led nearly three-quarters of a million Rohingya to flee Myanmar in August 2017 to settle in crowded refugee camps in neighboring Bangladesh. The International Court of Crime (ICC) now authorized an investigation into alleged crimes against humanity, namely deportation, which have forced between 600,000 and one million Rohingya refugees from their homes. Nearly 4.5 million people have left Venezuela in recent years, resembling the largest displacement in Latin America’s modern history. The neighbouring country Colombia has faced, over five decades, one of the world’s most acute internal displacement situations associated with conflict and violence caused by fights among armed groups. Extreme weather events and natural disasters worsen these nuisances. In 2019 only, wildfire emergencies occurred in throughout the planet including but not extending to the Amazonian rainforest, Siberia, western and middle Europe, California and most recently Australia. Zimbabwe is currently facing a severe drought caused by poor rains that affected food harvests between October 2018 and May 2019, endangering the food and water security of millions of people. Disaster displacement is one of the biggest humanitarian challenges of the 21st century. According to the internal displacement monitoring center (IDMC) conflict and disasters forced nearly 11 million people from their homes in the first half of 2019. The establishment of proper guidelines for dealing with the aftermath of migration and displacement is an urgent issue to be addressed by the international community.

International and Regional Framework
Population movement
The three forms of human mobility are displacement, migration and planned relocation. Migration is a primarily voluntary movement, whereby displacement is understood as forced movement and planned relocation describes the planned process of settling persons to a new location. While the overwhelming majority of population movement are migrating for reasons related to economic prosperity, family and study, displaced people were forced to leave their homes and countries for reasons of poverty, famine, inequality, political instability, armed conflict, persecution and violence, including terrorism, and environmental degradation. Distinction is often made between displacement which is conflict-induced and therefore caused by humans, or disaster-induced due to immediate or foreseeable natural hazard affecting their habitual side of residence. Cross-border disaster-displacement refers to situations where people flee or are displaced across international borders. However, the

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270 UN News, Focus on Syria (Online Article: https://news.un.org/en/focus/syria)
272 Ibid
273 IOM UN Migration, Venezuelan Refugee and Migrant Crisis (Website: https://www.iom.int/venezuela-refugee-and-migrant-crisis)
274 IDMC, Country Information Columbia
275 Famine Early Warning Network, Zimbabwe Food Security Outlook, 31st October 2019
276 Platform on Disaster Displacement, Leaflet 10/2018
277 Ibid, Key definitions, p. 12
278 Ibid
definitions of these concepts are blurry because conflicts may arise due to disputes over natural resources and human activity may trigger natural disasters such as landslides. Of note, displaced populations such as refugees and (internally) displaced persons comprise a relatively small percentage of worldwide migration. However, they are in highly vulnerable situations and often in need of humanitarian assistance.

**UNHCR's populations of concern**

According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) population statistics database there were globally nearly 75 million persons of concern by the end of 2018. The UNHCR distinguishes the following populations of concern:

- **Refugees** include individuals recognized under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees in accordance with the UNHCR Statute and since 2007 also people in a refugee-like situation. This refers to someone with well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular group or political opinion and is currently outside of his country of nationality, from which he is unable or unwilling to seek protection from.

- **Asylum-seekers** are individuals who have sought international protection and whose claims for refugee status have not yet been determined.

- **Internally displaced persons (IDPs)** are people who have been forced to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of, or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights, or natural or man-made disasters, and who have not crossed an international border.

- **Returned refugees** are former refugees who have returned to their country of origin but are yet to be fully integrated.

- **Returned IDPs** refer to those IDPs who returned to their areas of origin or habitual residence.

- **Stateless persons** are defined under international law as persons who are not considered as nationals by any state under the operation of its law.

By the end of 2018 there were 70.8 million forcibly displaced people worldwide, from whom were 41.3 m internally displaced people, 25.9 m refugees and 3.5 million asylum-seekers.

Countries counting high numbers of IDPs were for example Colombia with 7.8 million people, Syria with approximately 6 million people and the Democratic Republic of Congo with 4.5 million people.

The countries hosting the highest numbers of refugees are Turkey with 3.7 million refugees followed by Pakistan (1.4 m), Uganda (1.2 m) and Germany (1.1 m).

**Support of Refugees and Displaced Persons**

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (1948) is the primary document that outlines the basic rights all humans are entitled to. The 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees was established to provide specific protections to refugees. The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (Guiding Principles) (1998), an international standard for providing assistance and protection to IDPs.

One of the first actions by UNHCR for displaced people is providing basic humanitarian needs as access to essential food, potable water, basic shelter, and essential medical services. UNHCR and United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) take care of the 450 official refugee camps, which accommodated 6 million people in 2014.

Co-led by the World Food Programme (WFP) and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the global Food Security Cluster was established in 2011 to

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279 UNHCR Population Statistics Database, 2018

280 Ibid

281 UNHCR, Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951

282 UNHCR, Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, 2010

283 UNHCR, Figures at a Glance, Statistical Yearbooks, 2019

284 UNHCR, Population Statistics Database, 2018

285 UNHCR, Figures at a Glance, Statistical Yearbooks, 2019

286 UN, General Assembly, A/RES/217, 1948

287 UNHCR, Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, 1951

288 UN OCHA, Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, 1998

289 Le monde diplomatique, Migrant nation, 2017
coordinate food security responses during humanitarian crises to support country-level operations. \(^{290}\)

In 2009, the African Union (AU) adopted the AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Person in Africa (Kampala Convention). \(^{291}\) This was the first legally binding instrument to protect the rights and well-being of people forced to flee their homes by conflict, violence, disasters, and human rights abuses. \(^{292}\)

In 2016, the UN General Assembly (GA) adopted the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants to strengthen and enhance mechanisms to protect people on the move. \(^{293}\) This groundwork led to the adoption of the Global Compact on Refugees (GCR) and was adopted by the GA in December 2018 ensuring safe, orderly and regular migration. \(^{294}\) To follow up the work implemented in the GCR the first Global Refugee Forum will be held in December 2019. \(^{295}\)

Another important pillar is the sustainable return and reintegration of refugees and IDPs. The Cairo Programme of Action (1994) encourages states to strengthen by all possible means the development of international assistance for the effective return and reintegration of refugees and IDPs. \(^{296}\) This was further developed into the “4Rs” approach (Repatriation, Reintegration, Rehabilitation and Reconstruction), which is contained in the Framework for Durable Solutions for Refugees and Persons of Concern (2003). \(^{297}\) 72,176 voluntary returns were assisted by the International Organization on Migration (IOM) in 2017 worldwide. The UNHCR relies on partnerships with Member States, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), international and regional organizations, and the private sector to develop both short- and long-term solutions for internal displacement situations. \(^{298}\) For example, the UNHCR together with UNDP and the Afghan government runs a special Voluntary Return and Reintegration Programme for displaced people initiated in 2012. \(^{299}\) Special care is taken for the most vulnerable groups during population movements, namely woman and children. The international community puts great efforts in addressing and prevent the root causes of conflict and disaster displacement. UN GA Resolution A/RES/72/132 (2017) recognizes disaster displacement and encourages states to reduce disaster displacement risks. \(^{300}\) This includes prevent or resolve conflict by peaceful means and enforcing climate adaption and resilience to natural hazards. As example, in November 2016 the Regional Conference On Migration (RCM) in Central America welcomes and adopts a Guide to Effective Practices for RCM Member Countries: protection for persons moving across borders in the context of disasters. \(^{301}\) In March 2017 Costa Rica and Panama hold the first ever disaster displacement simulation exercise on their shared border. In 2016 pacific leaders at the 47th Pacific Islands Forum meeting endorse the Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific, a regional framework for integrated approaches to disaster risk management and climate change action. \(^{302}\)

Recording and tracking worldwide populations movements is facing various difficulties. The general lack of information about displaced populations, especially IDPs, remains challenging. The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) is the world’s authoritative

\(^{290}\) Food Security Cluster, 2017-2019 Strategic Plan, 2019

\(^{291}\) AU, AU Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa, 2009

\(^{292}\) IDMC, The Kampala Convention, 2014

\(^{293}\) UNHCR, New York Declaration – UNHCR Quick Guide, 2017

\(^{294}\) UN General Assembly, A/73/12 (Part II), 2018

\(^{295}\) Global Refugee Forum Coordination Team, Guidance Note, 2019

\(^{296}\) UN ICPD, Cairo Programme of Action, 1994, p. 115

\(^{297}\) UNHCR, Framework for durable solutions for refugees and persons of concern 2003

\(^{298}\) UN General Assembly, A/RES/62/153, 2008

\(^{299}\) UNHCR, THE VOLUNTARY RETURN &REINTEGRATION PROGRAMME, 2012

\(^{300}\) UN General Assembly, A/RES/72/132, 2018

\(^{301}\) Regional Conference on Migration, A guide to effective practices for RCM member countries, 2016

\(^{302}\) UNDP, Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific
source of data and analysis on internal displacement. Since its establishment in 1998, as part of the Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), IDMC has offered a rigorous, independent and trusted service to the international community and informs policy and operational decisions for people living in internal displacement, or at risk of becoming displaced in the future.303

Role of the International System
The comprehensive response to population movement is based on Member State responsibilities, collaboration between civil society and UN organs. The Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) was adopted by the GA as part of the New York declaration (A/RES/71/1, Annex I).304

Ongoing United Nations organs with endeavors in the areas of prevention, peace, security, sustainable development, migration and peacebuilding are the UNHCR, UNRWA, the office of the Special Rapporteur on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced People, OCHA/HDX, IOM, UN Unite Ideas, UN Development Programme (UNDP), UN Environment Programme (UNEP), UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR), UN Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR), the UN Statistical Commission (UNSC), the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the Global Alliance for Urban Crises, the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN Habitat) and the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC).

A milestone represented the Nansen Initiative, a state-led consultative forum that created the Agenda for the Protection of Cross-Border Displaced Persons in the Context of Disasters and Climate Change. Its aim is to promote the reduction and mitigation of the effects of disaster displacement and the enhanced protection of migrants through humanitarian action, awareness, and data collection. As a follow-up the Platform for Disaster Displacement (PDD) led by France and Fiji was created in 2016 during the World Humanitarian Summit. The 6th Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) includes disaster displacement in its outcome documents.305 The Global Protection Cluster (GPC) from UNHCR works within the overall humanitarian response architecture to improve the protection of the rights of people in conflict and disaster settings.306

ECOSOC Resolution E/2017/L.24 (2017) encourages all relevant actors to strengthen efforts aimed at addressing the needs of persons displaced within the context of disasters, including those induced by climate change.307 Human Rights Council Resolution HRC/35/L.32 (2017) calls for better protection of migrants and persons displaced across international borders in the context of the adverse impacts of climate change.308

In addition, the 1992 UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the 1997 Kyoto Protocol, the 2015 Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, and the 2015 Paris Agreement urge all to address the impacts of climate change. Since the Conference of the Parties meeting in 2015 (COP 21), a UNFCCC task force on displacement was brought on the way.313

Emerging Challenges
Climate Migration

303 IDMC website retrieved 10 November 2019
304 UN General Assembly, A/RES/71/1, Annex I, 2017
305 UNDRR, Summary of the sixth session of the Global Platform on Disaster Risk Reduction, 2019
306 The Global Protection Cluster, Strategic Framework 2016-2019
307 ECOSOC, E/2017/L.24, 2017
308 HRC, A/HRC/35/L.32, 2017
309 UNFCCC, FCCC/INFORMAL/84/Rev.1, 1992
310 UNFCCC, Kyoto Protocol, 1988
311 UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, 2015
312 UNFCCC, Paris Agreement, 2015
313 Decision FCCC/CP/2015/10/Add.1, paragraph 49
Devastating floods in Iran affected 90 per cent of the country triggered around 500,000 new displacements between mid-March and the end of April 2019. At the peak of the flooding more than 10 million people in 2,000 towns and cities were affected and large areas of agricultural land and crops were damaged or destroyed. In March 2019 Cyclone Idai caused great damage across Mozambique, Malawi, Zimbabwe and Madagascar, forcing 617,000 people to flee their homes and leaving many people still displaced.

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the main UN authority on climate science, has repeatedly stated that climate change will influence migration patterns. Climate, environmental degradation and natural disasters increasingly interact with the drivers of refugee movements and displacement due to habitat degradation, loss of livelihood, food insecurity, poverty or violent conflicts. Intensifying climate change and climate variability is estimated to increase future risks of conflict including organized armed conflict. Climate change related causes of population movement might be extreme weather events and sudden-onset hazards such as earthquakes, flood, storm surge, tsunami, cyclones or volcanic eruptions. Particularly storms and floods, which are hitherto responsible for most of the disaster displacement. Additionally, there are slow-onset hazards such as drought, desertification and sea-level rise, acidification and coastal erosion.

According to a report by the world bank from 2018, projections estimate more than 143 million people might become climate migrants due to increasing displacement in the context of environmental degradation and climate change by 2050. UNHCR estimates that in 2014 59.5 million people of concern inhabited ‘climate change hotspots’ throughout various regions. Ten of the 15 largest cities in developing countries are located in coastal areas, which are especially vulnerable to climate-related natural disasters. On top, rapid and unplanned urbanization, dense informal settlements in hazard-prone areas and a significant amount of construction in violation of safety regulations add risks for (secondary) displacements.

While there is a definition for IDPs and refugees caused by violent conflict, thus far an international agreed-upon definition of persons moving because of environmental reasons is lacking. IOM uses the term environmental migrants, which are defined as “persons or groups of persons who, predominantly for reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their habitual homes, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move within their country or abroad”. Most disaster displacement takes place within states, however there is no legal framework or international law that does provide a right to admission and stay for those fleeing to another country. Forced population movement due to climate events are therefore not covered by international refugee and immigration policy and climate related large-scale migration is not considered in national adaptation strategies. Well informed policy decisions have also been halted by the problematic analysis of displacement following environmental disasters in concern of how long people are displaced and when they can return to their homes. In general, disaster displacement may take the form of spontaneous flight or an evacuation ordered or enforced by authorities. Movements can be permanently due to significant and durable changes in the nature of the habitual place of residence or temporarily due to recovery of the respective environment. Especially difficult is to assess the situation in slow-onset hazards. The Migration Data Portal therefore calls for better data collection regarding environmental displacement.

Since 2005, UNHCR has incorporated Environmental Guidelines which outline environmental factors into its programs. In 2014, the IPCC Climate Change 2014 Synthesis Report

314 IDMC, Mid Year Figures 2019
315 Ibid
316 UNHCR, Climate Change, Disasters and Displacement, 2017
317 Groundswell: Preparing for Internal Climate Migration, 2018
318 UNHCR, UNHCR, The Environment & Climate Change, 2015, p. 6
320 Global Migration Data Portal, Website, Retrieved 11 November 2019
321 UNHCR, Environmental Guidelines, 2005
addressed environmental migration and displacement. Climate related population movements are also address by the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development adopted in 2015. Target 1.5 for example pledges to build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters. Target 13.1 aims to strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries. In the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, climate change and related disasters are recognized as root causes of displacement, and pledge to assist those affected. The Cancun Adaptation Framework addresses human rights policies and adaptation measures to manage the effects of environmental migration and displacement. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters aims to reduce the total amount of disaster risk mortality, disaster-related damage, and to strengthen DRR strategies within governing states to improve warning system.

Displacement through developmental projects
Development-induced displacement and resettlement (DIDR) is related to the realization of developmental projects such as hydroelectrical power plants, agricultural projects, mining, industrial plants, infrastructure and conservation projects. For example, the Indonesia’s capital city Jakarta is in urgent need to protect its north shore as it is estimated that by 2050, 95% of North Jakarta could be submerged. Indonesia is building the world’s biggest seawall to protect its capital, but that could leave thousands of fishermen without homes or income.

People affected by DIDR are often confronted with the loss of livelihood and impoverishment and therefore facing similar experiences to refugees in terms of economic and social loss. However, in contrast to refugees they are not protected by international law. Furthermore, disasters related to human activities should be considered as roots of displacement. Flooding in the Amazon and Rio de la Plata basins triggered 400,000 new displacements in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay in the first half of 2019. Changes in land use, such as deforestation and the construction of hydroelectric dams, may also have contributed to the severity of flooding.

Exemplary National Frameworks
In 2007 India updated its National Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy. It aims to reduce large-scale displacement associated with development projects, ensure adequate resettlement and recovery packages, improves communication and cooperation between development planners and affected families. This was further updated by law in 2013 via legislation entitled The Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Resettlement and Rehabilitation Act. India furthermore has a National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC). In May cyclone Fani hit India and Bangladesh and triggered 3,475,000 new displacements. These displacements were life-saving evacuations, which saw a huge planned evacuation ahead of the storm. Many of those forced to flee suffered losses but survived and were ultimately able to return home.

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322 IPCC, Synthesis Report, 2014
323 UN General Assembly, The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (A/RES/70/1), 2015
327 IDMC, Mid Year Figures 2019, p. 12
328 Government of India, Ministry of Rural Development, 2007
329 Government of India, Ministry of Law and Justice, 2013
330 Government of India, Prime Minister’s Council on Climate Change, 2008
331 IDMC, Mid Year Figures 2019, p. 12
Conclusion
Situations forcing people into displacement or refugee statutes have increased in scope, scale and complexity and refugees require protection, assistance and solutions. Millions of refugees live in protracted circumstances, often in low- and middle-income countries facing their own economic and development challenges, and the average length of stay has continued to grow. Despite the tremendous generosity of host countries and donors, including unprecedented levels of humanitarian funding, the gap between needs and humanitarian funding have also widened. There is an urgent need for more equitable sharing of the burden and responsibility for hosting and supporting the world’s refugees, while taking account of existing contributions and the differing capacities and resources among states. The changing nature of conflict, including higher numbers of displacement movements due to the consequences of climate change, the difficulties in reintegrating displaced people and refugees either in their country of origin or their new country of residence, the gaps in reporting and response mechanisms, and the challenges inherent in enforcing international law all have to be addressed by the international community.

Further Research
Is enough currently being done to protect refugees and displaced persons? What direct actions can be taken to ameliorate burden-and responsibility-sharing among member states? How can existing instruments be modified for use with the changing nature of conflict? How to support national governments in their efforts to protect and assist internally displaced persons, especially in low- and middle-income countries? How to ensure the rights of people being displaced for sustainable development and climate change adaptation? How can member states foster return and reintegration? What should the international community do to tackle the roots of refugee and displacement?

Annotated Bibliography
This document provides a basis for predictable and equitable burden- and responsibility-sharing among all United Nations Member States, together with other relevant stakeholders. It represents the political will and ambition of the international community as a whole for strengthened cooperation and solidarity with refugees and affected host countries. It will be operationalized through voluntary contributions to achieve collective outcomes and progress towards its objectives.

This publication discusses the role and approach of IOM in dealing with the issue of climate change migration. The goal of the publication is explain what IOM perceives as climate migration and how it addresses related challenges. This is a great source of knowledge for delegates as they begin to understand how IOM addresses and perceives climate migration and cross-border displacement and the measures taken at the prevention, management, and resettlement approach in regards to environmental situations. The publication also describes IOMs actions and
operational efforts, which may inform delegates’ proposed solutions.


The Environmental Migration Portal, created by IOM, is a website and database that provides research data on the intersection between migration and climate change. The portal also provides great information about partnerships and initiatives such as the Migration, Environment, and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy, which has made great strides bridging the nexus between migration and climate change regionally. Delegates will find this website useful in their preliminary stages of research as they try learn about specific actions taken by IOM and IOM’s partners regarding to complex migration and environmental issues such as degradation.


These guidelines were created by a state-led initiative of the United States and the Philippines and assisted by a working group comprised of various governments and organizations including the International Organization for Migration. This document gives a step by step guide on how various different actors should address the needs of migrants affected by natural disasters. The document also describes many practices that could be implemented to help facilitate climate migration such as the consolidation of databases on cross-border movements, which may help delegates as they outline solutions and strategies on this issue.


This agenda examines the current practices of addressing climate migration and cross-border disaster displacement through adaptation, management, mitigation, and disaster risk reduction. This agenda discusses the current state of strategies including DRR, planned relocations, vulnerable migrants, and humanitarian assistance, and provides recommendations for the international community to consider in addressing cross-border disaster displacement. Some of those practices include linking effective policies and actions, assessing the impact of a natural disaster on an individual, and integrating cross-border disaster displacement into state laws and policies. Delegates can use this source to identify pressing issues and begin

The Agenda for the Protection of Cross-Border Displaced Persons in the Context of Disasters and Climate Change describes current state practices on cross-border disaster displacement. This includes states practices in regards to DRR, planned relocations, and providing protections for vulnerable migrants through the exploration of case studies and state programs. This Agenda also describes recommendations for the future for states to follow in addressing cross-border disaster displacement. Delegates can find this useful as it explores state programs and practices on certain cross-border disaster displacement issues. Delegates can use this source to compare and contrast successful programs and practices between different states.


This framework explicitly focuses on DRR to substantially reduce the amount of damage caused to communities, lives and livelihoods, and the environment as a result of natural disasters. The Sendai Framework discusses goals and recommendations on advancing disaster risk reduction at the international, national, and local level. The Sendai Framework also focuses future efforts on the changing needs of the individuals and communities involved in man-made hazards and natural disaster. Delegates can use this source as a current model on how the international community is working to reduce the negative and adverse impacts of natural disasters on individuals.


Lists concrete 15-year goals on relevant climate change and migration-related issues including discrimination, poverty, protection, assistance, and disaster risk reduction. The specific goals and targets outlined in the 2030 Agenda may help guide delegates’ understanding of key international goals and allow delegates to place their recommendations within this larger framework. Delegates can also use other related goals to strengthen their proposals and provide more holistic support to
migrants, including reducing poverty, empowering women, and ensuring health and well-being.


This report discusses global trends in the large movements of migrants in the international community. The report includes the opinion of the Secretary-General who calls upon the international community to act upon pressing alarming in international migration. The Secretary General also states that the rise of climate change and environmental degradation will continue to force migrants to move from rural areas to cities and from areas with great environmental risk. The Secretary-General recommends that Member States protect migrants in transit, address the root causes of migration, combat discrimination and xenophobia, and protect the dignity and human rights of migrants.


The New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants sets out agreed-upon principles and issues facing refugees and migrants in the international community. In hopes of preventing large movements of migrants, the Declaration also discusses states’ need to combat the negative impacts of climate change and natural disasters by establishing effective responses to climate migration. Delegates will find this resolution useful as they explore international efforts in adopting the goals mentioned in the resolution including addressing the root causes of migration, enhancing the rights of migrants, and promoting international cooperation in implementing border control and immigration procedures.


This report discusses the work and implementation efforts that have already taken place under the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants. The report discusses the partnerships and agencies that have started to implement goals set out in the New York Declaration, including IOM’s efforts in training governments and NGOs in 41 countries on migrant rights, and training in 100 countries on countering trafficking in persons, exploitation, and abuse. Delegates will find this useful as they explore current actions taken by their state in addressing their
commitments laid out in the New York Declaration.

**Bibliography**


