



SRMUN Atlanta 2014
***Revitalizing “An Agenda for Peace”: Preventative Diplomacy,
Conflict Resolution, and the Making of Peace in Our Time Movement***
November 20-22, 2014

Dear Delegates:

It is my pleasure to welcome you to the Southern Regional Model United Nations (SRMUN) Atlanta 2014 Conference. My goal is to bring you a balance of academia and real life application to international issues while maintaining the unique SRMUN learning experience. My name is Daniel Leyva Jr., and it is my pleasure to serve as your Director of the General Assembly Plenary. I have been involved with Model United Nations for ten years, seven of which have been served as a staff member at collegiate level conferences. I graduated from the University of California, Los Angeles. Your Assistant Directors for this year are JB Desselle and Hannah Cho. JB is a recent graduate of Valdosta State University and Hannah is a graduate from Georgia State University. Both have attended SRMUN as a delegate and have served before on a SRMUN dais. I am thrilled to have such a strong dais with a wealth of experience.

We have chosen the following topics to discuss at this year’s conference:

- I. Population Policies: Advancing Access to Sanitation
- II. Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration into Civil Society of Ex-Combatants

With this agenda in mind, it is vital to understand the importance of the General Assembly Plenary and the mandate of the body. The General Assembly deals directly with thematic, programmatic, and systematic changes in the UN system, however it’s focus has been more so on how international development occurs as opposed to the specific programs working. The leadership of this committee highly recommends that you begin your research with the sources found in this background guide and at the Plenary’s website, expanding your research into other areas as your respective Member State sees fit.

Each delegation is required to submit a position paper which covers both of the topics mentioned above. The papers should be no longer than two pages, singled spaced, as outlined on the SRMUN website. The purpose of the position paper is to discuss your Member State’s position on the two topics and persuade your fellow delegates to follow the course of action laid out in your paper while in committee. These position papers are incredibly important to your success in committee and should provide insight into your countries position on both topics of this year’s GA Plen. Delegates are encouraged to use the paper as a means of stating what your country hopes to achieve in committee, and outline the best course of action for all Member States. Having a clear position outlined in the paper will serve as the foundation for your success in committee, and should thus portray accurate positions representative of your Member State.

More information about position papers can be found on the SRMUN website (www.srmun.org). All position papers **MUST** be submitted by **October 31st, 11:59pm EST** via the on-line submission system at <http://www.srmun.org>.

I look forward to serving as your Director for this conference. I speak for the Assistants when I say that we are all excited to work with you. Model United Nations is a unique opportunity afforded to students that allows them to engage real world issues that affect millions of people around the world. SRMUN offers a quality conference that will satisfy your academic indulgence for international issues. We wish you luck, and thank you for your participation.

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The Committee History of the General Assembly

The General Assembly (GA) is one of the six principal organs of the United Nations (UN).¹ This committee serves as a forum to pursue the central goals of the UN, which include but are not limited to promotion of international peace building, humanitarian assistance, development, and conflict prevention.² Accordingly, the GA is defined as “the chief deliberative, policymaking and representative organ of the United Nations”³. The GA works in conjunction with the other principal organs of the UN, which are: the Security Council (SC), Economic and Social Council, Trusteeship Council, International Court of Justice, and Secretariat.⁴ The First GA Session convened in Westminster, London in 1946, with 51 Member States represented and resulted in the draft and passing of resolutions addressing atomic energy and the elimination of atomic and other weapons of mass destruction.⁵

The GA consists of all 193 UN Member States, with a number of international organizations and observers as a part of the Plenary’s discussions, however, only Member States have a vote in substantive matters.⁶ The GA completes work on its agenda through the passage of standard resolutions and for most matters requires a simple majority vote with each Member State having one vote on each matter brought to the dais. When discussing important matters, such as “recommendations with respect to the maintenance of international peace and security, the election of the non-permanent members of the Security Council, and the election of the members of the Economic and Social Council”, a two-thirds majority vote is used for determinations.⁸ The GA regular session occurs annually from September to December, and reconvenes when needed to exhaust agenda items.⁹ Since its creation in 1946, there have been 10 emergency sessions in addition to regular meetings to address crucial peacekeeping concerns.¹⁰

The GA is run by an elected President for a one-year session and operates under rules of procedure outlined in the UN Charter and the GA Charter.¹¹ On 11 June 2014 Sam Kahamba Kutsea, Minister for Foreign Affairs of Uganda, was elected President of the General Assembly for the sixth-ninth session.¹² The budget for the General Assembly is governed by the fifth committee and the approved amount for 2014 is \$5.53 billion USD which is down one percent from the sixth-eighth session.¹³ Responsibility for fulfilling the budget is divided amongst Member States based on their gross national product (GNP) figures.¹⁴ The maximum rate expected for contribution is 22 percent of

¹ “Charter, UN, Chapter IV: The GA.” The UN. 22 Feb. 2012. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter4.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

² UN. UN at Glance. <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/index.shtml>

³ “Functions and Powers of the General Assembly,” United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/background.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

⁴ “Charter of the United Nations: Chapter III: Organs,” The United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter3.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ “Observers,” General Assembly of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/observers.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

⁷ “Charter, UN, Chapter IV: The GA.” The UN. 22 Feb. 2012. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter4.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ “Functions and Powers of the General Assembly,” United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/background.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

¹⁰ “Resolutions and Decisions Adopted by the General Assembly During Its...Emergency Session,” United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld Library, UN-I-QUE. <http://lib-unique.un.org/DPI/DHL/unique.nsf/link/R00673>. (accessed May 21, 2014).

¹¹ “About the General Assembly,” General Assembly of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/index.shtml>. (accessed May 21, 2014).

¹² “General Assembly Elects Sam Kutesa of Uganda President of Sixth-ninth session, Naming also 21 Vice-Presidents”. <http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2014/ga11520.doc.htm>, (accessed June 18, 2014).

¹³ “U.N. General Assembly approves \$5.5 billion budget for 2014/2015”. <http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/12/27/us-un-budget-idUSBRE9BQ0JX20131227>, (accessed June 18, 2014).

¹⁴ “Our Key Issues; U.S. Funding to the UN; The UN Budget Process,” Better World Campaign. <http://www.betterworldcampaign.org/issues/funding/the-un-budget-process.html>. (accessed June 18, 2014).

a Member State's GNP and the minimum is a mere .001 percent.¹⁵ The United States is the largest payee to the UN Budget with the 22 percent maximum contributed to the general budget.¹⁶

The GA oversees six specialized committees including: the First Committee, Disarmament and International Security; the Second Committee, Economic and Financial issues; Third Committee, Social, Humanitarian and Cultural Committee; the Fourth Committee, Special Political and Decolonization Committee; the Fifth Committee, Administrative and Budgetary; and the Sixth Committee, Legal Committee (GA 6th).¹⁷ Each committee is required to submit a report on the agenda allocated to them from the Plenary Committee and must include a final version of all draft resolutions and decisions recommended to them by the GA.¹⁸ Additionally, there are programmes, funds, subsidiary organs, and other UN entities that report to the GA. These include: the UN Peacebuilding Commission (PBC), Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), UN Capital Development Fund (UNCDF), UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), UN Population Fund (UNFPA), and Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) as well as others as applicable.¹⁹ Some of the GA's subsidiary bodies are required to submit annual or biannual reports on their activities; these reports become supplemental information to official GA Records.²⁰

As the main representative organ of the UN, the topics in GA constitute "any questions or any matters within the scope of the present UN Charter or relating to the powers and functions of any organs provided for in the present UN Charter, and make recommendations to the Members of the UN or to the SC".²¹ These topics vary but encompass the principle of achieving and maintaining international peace whether via peaceful settlement of any situation that damages ongoing international affairs between one or many Member States, creating sustainable frameworks for development and crisis prevention, or promoting humanitarian initiatives.²² Additionally, the GA is responsible for making recommendations on any relevant general principles related to maintaining international peace, security, and cooperation according to the UN Charter.²³ Other committee functions include electing non-permanent members to the SC and other councils and organs, considering and approving the UN Budget, and electing a Secretary General via a recommendation by the SC.²⁴ One important item to note is the General Assembly does not discuss issues of international peace and security when the situation is being discussed and under the jurisdiction of the SC.²⁵

The work and body of the GA have proven to be influential and salient in the development of international standards, best practices, and regulations.²⁶ Notable landmark legislation passed and ratified by Member States through this forum include: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (A/RES/217 A (1948)), "Uniting for Peace" Resolution (A/RES/377 1950), and the Millennium Declaration (2000), which established the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the context for which international development over the past thirteen years.^{27 28}

¹⁵ "Our Key Issues; U.S. Funding to the UN; The UN Budget Process," Better World Campaign.

<http://www.betterworldcampaign.org/issues/funding/the-un-budget-process.html>. (accessed June 18, 2014).

¹⁶ "U.N. General Assembly approves \$5.5 billion budget for 2014/2015," Reuters. <http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/12/27/us-un-budget-idUSBRE9BQ0JX20131227>. (accessed June 18, 2014).

¹⁷ "Main Committees," General Assembly of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/maincommittees/index.shtml>. (accessed June 18, 2014).

¹⁸ "UN Documentation: General Assembly," United Nations Research Guides, United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld Library. <http://research.un.org/en/docs/ga>. (accessed July 2, 2014).

¹⁹ "Structure and Organization: General Assembly," United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/structure/>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

²⁰ "UN Documentation: General Assembly," United Nations Research Guides, United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld Library. <http://research.un.org/en/docs/ga>. (accessed July 2, 2014).

²¹ "Charter, UN, Chapter IV: The GA." The UN. 22 Feb. 2012. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter4.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

²² "Functions and Powers of the General Assembly," United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/background.shtml>. (accessed March 1, 2014).

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ A/Res/55/2. *UN Millennium Declaration*. General Assembly of the United Nations. 18 September 2000.

²⁸ "The Role of the UN General Assembly," Council of Foreign Relations. September 20, 2013. <http://www.cfr.org/un/role-un-general-assembly/p13490#p6>. (accessed July 2, 2014).

While the General Assembly does not implement specific programs to achieve the MDGs the plenary body does set up the framework for which the international community operates and request agencies to fulfill specific task. Furthermore, the GA has been at the forefront of current and pressing topics such as disaster response and has adopted a multitude of resolutions regarding disaster preparedness. They have ranged in support of strengthening or establishing adequate response mechanisms on the local and regional levels, developing an international awareness, and rebuilding affected areas. In particular, A/RES/66/199 calls for a post-2015 framework for disaster risk reduction and A/RES/54/219 created the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR) and a trust fund for disaster reduction from voluntary contributions (developed in 2000).²⁹

All Member States are represented in the General Assembly.

I. Population Policies: Advancing Access to Sanitation

Introduction

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), sanitation is defined as: “the provision of facilities and services for the safe disposal of human urine and feces.”³⁰ Furthermore, unclean drinking water and poor sanitation are the second leading killer of children and account for deadly diseases such as cholera, typhoid, and Hepatitis A.³¹ Globally, the lack of access to adequate sanitation facilities results in a high number of preventable hygiene related illnesses and deaths. As of 2013, an estimated 2.5 billion people do not have access to sanitation facilities and more than 1 billion are forced to practice open defecation.³² The United Nations (UN) has previously attempted to address sanitation issues in the Millennium Development Goal 7: “Ensuring Environmental Sustainability” with Target 10: “Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.”³³ Over the past decade, the General Assembly (GA) has acted in a variety of methods to make the achievement of MDG 7, Target 10 a reality. GA has directed policy efforts and conducted studies of various frameworks that pertain to issues regarding sanitation.³⁴ Sanitation is multifaceted and dimensional as it involves the intersections and overlapping areas such as industry/development, the environment, and health within populations of Member States.³⁵

Access to basic sanitation and the proper and safe disposal of human waste can be achieved through several methods of disposal, including but not limited to pit latrines, composting toilets, and conventional toilets. The World Health Organization has identified the most cost-friendly option when it comes to sanitation facilities is the pit latrine which, “consists of a square, rectangular, or circular pit dug into the ground, covered by a hygienic cover slab or floor, with a hole through which excreta falls into the pit.”³⁶ The advantage of the pit latrine method is that there does not have to be consistent access to a source of water. Composting toilets “use natural processes to turn human excreta into a valuable soil amendment and typically use little to no water in commercial scale applications.”³⁷ One

²⁹ *Factsheet on the secretariat of the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)*. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. June 2012. http://www.unisdr.org/2012/docs/whoweare/UNISDR_Factsheet.pdf. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³⁰ “Sanitation,” World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/topics/sanitation/en/>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³¹ *Ibid*

³² “International Decade for Action ‘Water For Life’ 2005-2015: Access to Sanitation,” United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/sanitation.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³³ “Goal 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability,” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/environ.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³⁴ A/RES/65/1. *Keeping the promise: united to achieve Millennium Development Goals*. United Nations General Assembly 19 October 2010.

³⁵ “Thematic Debate of the General Assembly “Water, Sanitation and Sustainable Energy In the Post-2015 Development Agenda,” General Assembly of the United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/ga/president/68/settingthestage/1wsse.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³⁶ “Water Sanitation and Health Emergencies,” The World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/hygiene/emergencies/fs3_4.pdf. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³⁷ “About Composting Toilets,” Greywater Action for a Sustainable Water Culture. <http://greywateraction.org/content/about-composting-toilets>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

environmental benefit of this type of waste disposal includes the ability to enable excreta to be used as compost in the future. Unlike conventional toilets, composting toilets lead to less strain on sewer systems and septic tanks by reusing the end product. The main disadvantage with this type of sanitation facility is the requirement of frequent maintenance in order to ensure that waste materials are properly decomposing so as not to be a hazard when reused. The Conventional toilet is the most popular, and the most expensive, type of sanitation facility. Conventional toilets, or water-flush and pour flush toilets, “depend on water to flush urine and fecal material from a toilet bowl either directly into a pit or more normally through a pipe to a pit, septic tank or sewer.”³⁸ Conventional toilets are so widely used as they are the most hygienic and most effective in the removal of human waste from the living area. However, if not properly connected to a septic tank or when connected to an inadequate sewer system they can cause more damage than the less popular forms of sanitation facilities. Conventional toilets also use a large amount of water and produce a large amount of wastewater that must be properly treated to prevent public health disasters, compounding the cost of this sanitation channel.

The connected relationship between access to sanitation and the overall well-being of populations is complex as it involves often unforeseen consequences due to changes in the population which lead to issues related to industrial growth, migration, war and conflict, and the mitigating effects of climate change. The interactions of all the above variables can be compounding and can be devastating. Thus, it is absolutely critical that Member States, regional bodies, and the global system as a whole, carefully monitor population policies on key issues such as sanitation. Conducting population studies ensures the stability and longevity of Member States’ populations. Various UN organs and bodies carry this out by evaluating policies, making changes to existing ones, and creating new policies³⁹. This ongoing process and mechanism is necessary as populations and development are continuous and dynamic.

The GA has made access to sanitation a top priority for other bodies to follow in pursuit because of its link to implementing MDG 7 Target 10 and because of all the critical issues that are involved in the topic. The General Assembly’s strategic approach in constructing population policies must be comprehensive enough to serve as a solid foundation for all Member States to adhere to and serve as a base guide for other resolutions and plans by other committees and organs. Population policies discussed by the General Assembly must also allow for derivatives in order to address specific area issues, especially regarding Least Developing Countries (LDC) and Developing Countries (DC) and subpopulation groups such as women and children. Thus, these population policies on sanitation must assess the current conditions and areas/subfields that are the most critical, evaluate past and current project, initiatives, and policies, and encompass all stakeholders (individuals, governments, NGOs, UN Agencies, private sector, etc).

Background on Sanitation and Population Policies

Access to sanitation has historically been discussed in conjunction to the discussion of worldwide access to clean drinking water. This of course stems from the inherent link between the two components. The dependent relationship is apparent in the UN’s “Water for Life” outline of basic sanitation, which is defined as “facilities that ensure hygienic separation of human excreta from human contact including: flush or pour-flush toilet/latrine to a piped sewer system, a septic tank or a pit latrine; ventilated improved pit latrine; pit latrine with slab; or a composting toilet.”⁴⁰

Aside from physical and health factors, access to sanitation is also a basic human rights as it encompasses the right to water, as outlined in the collaborative document of “The Right to Water” assembled by the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, World Health Organization, and UN Habitat.⁴¹ Accordingly, GA Resolution 64/292 affirmed the notion that sanitation is essential to the realization of human rights. This resolution is the

³⁸ “Water Flush and Pour Flush Toilets,” The World Bank. <http://water.worldbank.org/shw-resource-guide/infrastructure/menu-technical-options/water-flush-and-pour-flush-toilets>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

³⁹ “Population Policy,” United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs; Population Division. <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/policy/>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁴⁰ “International Decade for Action ‘Water For Life’ 2005-2015: Access to Sanitation,” United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/sanitation.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁴¹ *Right to Water, Fact Sheet No. 35*. United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. August 2010. <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/FactSheet35en.pdf>. (accessed July 15, 2014).

framework for all stakeholders to provide resources of various areas to help all Member States, particularly DCs and LDCs, to provide clean and accessible drinking water and sanitation for all populations.⁴² Other committees have followed suit with similar resolutions including General Comment 15 by the Committee on Economic, Cultural, and Social Rights in 2002.⁴³ Additionally, water and sanitation has been elevated in importance and has been incorporated into almost every functioning UN body, organ, and committee such as the UN Development Programme, UNICEF, and the UN Environment Programme. This topic continues to be discussed in sessions and summit meetings, and addressed in policies, publications, and reports by these various bodies and committees.⁴⁴ The UN has taken on initiatives such as World Toilet Day and the declaration of 2008 as the International Year of Sanitation to further promote broader and safer access to sanitation.⁴⁵

Population policies originated from the Population Division in the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs. The Population Division was established in 1946 and has played a critical role in connecting stakeholders and continuing dialogue on issues surrounding population and development by producing documents on demographic estimates and projections and monitoring progress of MDGs and other UN frameworks.⁴⁶ The reports and studies from the Population Division include areas such as environment, fertility, literacy, and migration. These studies have served to assist and become the framework for other UN bodies to construct their own policies and documents.⁴⁷ One of the key sections of the Population Division is the Population Policy Section. The main operative of this division is to monitor policy issues such as fertility and family planning, ageing, maternal health, HIV/AIDS, industrialization, and migration. The Population Policy Section plays a central role in ensuring the implementation of the Programme of Action of the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development, which focused on implementing internationally agreed upon development goals related to population, including the Millennium Development Goals.⁴⁸

The Policy Section is also responsible for implementing *the United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development*, which was set-up in 1963 by the Commission on Population and Development. Between 1963 and 2013, the Secretary General has conducted ten rounds of the Inquiry. The Policy Section has built and maintains a comprehensive, global Population Policies Database, going back to the mid-1970s. These conducted inquiries have been an asset in monitoring national population policies and issues affecting and caused by exponential population growth.⁴⁹ The inquiries and other reports are stored and maintained in the World Population Policies Database, which provides all UN bodies and organs, Member, Observer, and non-member States comprehensive and up-to-date relevant population information of various areas. Updates are made biennially with a thorough and detailed review of national plans and initiatives, program reports from various sources such as NGOs, and legislative documents for each country.⁵⁰

Human Impact of Sanitation

Access to Sanitation encompasses many tenets addressed and outlined in various human rights documents. Specifically, the *Universal Declaration on Human Rights* (UDHR), ratified in 1948 has under Article 25, the declaration of the right to an adequate standard of living to protect the health and overall well-being.⁵¹ The right to water and sanitation is the nucleus of one's overall health as poor hygiene and lack of clean drinking water can often times lead to death, especially in DCs and LDCs.⁵² As urban growth increases as such a rapid rate so does the scarcity of essential rights and services such as water, healthcare, and sanitation. Various UN bodies have made

⁴² "International Decade for Action 'Water For Life' 2005-2015: Access to Sanitation," United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/sanitation.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁴³ Ibid

⁴⁴ Ibid

⁴⁵ Ibid

⁴⁶ "About United Nations Population Division," United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs; Population Division. <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/about/index.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁴⁷ Ibid

⁴⁸ Ibid

⁴⁹ Ibid

⁵⁰ Ibid

⁵¹ *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. The United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>. (accessed July 17, 2014).

⁵² Ibid

efforts to protect the rights for standard living of these marginalized groups. This is evidenced in summits such as the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, which produced frameworks that called on all Member States to protect the rights of rural women by ensuring that these women had adequate living conditions.⁵³ What is important to understand is that these important and forward moving declarations withstanding, lack of access to sanitation and the health effects to which it leads is still a serious issue for many parts of the world. It is imperative that programmes and their implementation are reviewed and optimized for more effective and farther reaching plans to deliver this right to all citizens of the world.

Besides overall population concerns regarding the right to sanitation, the UN has paid particular attention to addressing marginalized groups such as women, children, and the disabled's access to sanitation. These subgroups in populations are often ignored, bear the greatest burdens, and suffer dire consequences. Women, children, and minorities are often treated as second class citizens and access to sanitation is very often limited to the working males in a home. Aside from widespread disease and fatality, many women and children are victims to a lack of sanitation services and have no outlet by which to escape these circumstances. In places such as sub-Saharan Africa, more than a quarter of the population spends more than 30 minutes per round trip to collect water.⁵⁴ Women and children in many rural areas in LDCs are tasked with gathering water for drinking and sanitation that consists of making arduous treks.⁵⁵ It is noted that during these long trips, women and children sometimes become victims to violence and rape, especially in areas of conflict. Children are also often alienated from social situations and access to education due to a lack of sanitation facilities causing them to 'smell' and be teased as anecdotal evidence has demonstrated.⁵⁶ Other reports show many parents voluntarily pull girls out of school after puberty because of the lack of access to separate and adequate sanitation facilities conflicting with cultural norms.⁵⁷ There is a positive correlation in many LDCs between access to sanitation services and school attendance, especially by girls.⁵⁸ This fact further perpetuates issues of lack of education and human capital leading to a continuation of extreme poverty in such areas. Without proper infrastructure and innovation, the implementation and achievement of MDG 7 and equal access of the right to sanitation cannot be achieved.

Sanitation in Sub Saharan Africa

The continent of Africa is one of 2 major regions that are in danger of not achieving the MDG goals pertaining to sanitation by 2015.⁵⁹ Many of the most pressing conditions and vulnerabilities stem from the region of Sub-Saharan Africa, where less than 25 percent of the population uses and has access to sanitation facilities.⁶⁰ This has resulted in the widespread practice of open defecation, which is now listed as the primary cause of fecal oral transmission of disease. Current estimates indicate, 115 people in Africa die every hour from open defecation and other diseases that stem from poor sanitation, hygiene, and contaminated water.⁶¹

The driving forces behind this ongoing dilemma related to sanitation are primarily linked to the continuous population growth and rural-urban migration.⁶² As the population continues to grow, so does the demand for water. There is a reality of a severe lack of water resources and adequate sanitation systems that cannot meet the demands of the growth in population. The results of this scenario have caused Sub-Saharan Africa to have the highest

⁵³ A/RES/34/180. *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, Article 14*. General Assembly of the United Nations, 18 December 1979.

⁵⁴ "International Decade for Action, 'Water for Life' 2005-2015: Africa," United Nations. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/africa.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁵⁵ "International Decade for Action, 'Water for Life' 2005-2015: Africa," United Nations. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/africa.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁵⁶ GA/SHC/3987. *General Assembly, Human Rights Council Texts Declaring Water, Sanitation Human Right 'Breakthrough'; Challenge now to Turn Right into Reality, Third Committee Told*. General Assembly of the United Nations. 2010.

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ *Human Development Report 2006 Beyond Scarcity: Power, poverty, and the global water crisis*. United Nations Development Programme. December 2006.

⁵⁹ "International Decade for Action, 'Water for Life' 2005-2015: Africa," United Nations. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/africa.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ "A Snapshot of Drinking Water and Sanitation in Africa – 2012 Update." African Ministers' Council on Water. May 2012. http://www.wssinfo.org/fileadmin/user_upload/resources/Africa-AMCOW-Snapshot-2012-English-Final.pdf.

⁶² Ibid.

prevalence of urban slums in the world and this number is expected to double around 400 million by 2020 if conditions do not change or improve.⁶³

To put it simply, Sub-Saharan Africa suffers from the tenets behind economic water scarcity, which means that the institutional, financial and human capacities by the Member States in the region are lacking.⁶⁴ Additionally, regional sanitation issues are compounded by competition among stakeholders for public funding, as well as existing heavy public debt burdens that is prevalent in almost all Member States within the region.⁶⁵ This is demonstrated by the severe cutting and insufficient domestic funding for Water Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) commitments, in which over 80 percent of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are not meeting the requirements to reach their targets for sanitation and drinking-water. These countries and many others face challenges that exacerbate sanitation issues including a to lack of coordination of roles and responsibilities, inadequate translation of needs/demands to laws and policies, and ongoing extreme climate issues, especially frequent floods and droughts.⁶⁶

Many UN organs and committees have taken on initiatives to combat the ongoing Sub-Saharan sanitation situation. These programs encompass an array of approaches and areas that serve to upgrade existing sanitation facilities, build new sanitation facilities, break the stigma of using sanitation facilities, and educate the population on better sanitation practices that will help reduce the rate of hygiene related deaths and illnesses.⁶⁷ Many of these programs are in partnerships and conjunction with local and national of regional Member States and include: UN-Habitat-Human values in Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene Education Programme (HVWSHE); Water and Sanitation Trust Fund (WSTF); Water for African Cities; and the Water and Sanitation Program (WSP): Economic Sanitation-Africa. Additionally, many Member states of the Sub-Saharan region have committed to (re)establishing transparent WASH services and policies, and are making strives towards confirming that rights to water and sanitation are a fundamental human right and should be incorporated into laws and legal code.⁶⁸

The example created by the situation described in Sub-Saharan Africa in an important lesson for the rest of the world. The consequences caused by lack of access to proper sanitation can and will occur outside of this region and even in DCs and developed countries if ignored. As the global population increases exponentially and urban areas become centers of immigration and emigration Member States must be prepared to provide basic rights to citizens including access to sanitation. It is estimated that by 2030, 2 billion people will be living in areas within cities that will be classified as “the slums” with 60 percent of this subset of the population predicted to live in Asian cities.⁶⁹ It is easy for cities to become overwhelmed with the poor population in urban areas which can lead to poor planning of infrastructure and services that actually hinder the improvement of the local economy. Local and National Governments must focus on effective sustainable urban development and infrastructure as well as creating strategic partnerships in order to become an engine of growth and provide essential services such as sanitation services.⁷⁰

Conclusion

In 2013, UN Deputy Secretary-General Jan Eliasson in a keynote address stated: “we must break taboos. As was the case for the word ‘toilets’ a few years ago, it is time to incorporate ‘open defecation’ in the political language and in the diplomatic discourse.”⁷¹ Indeed, we can no longer be hindered by taboos and not adequately address the impact access to sanitation has on populations. Education, infant mortality, economic growth, and environmental sustainability are directly impacted by sanitation practices, especially in LDC and DCs. The dynamic growth in populations and ongoing migration in developed and developing Member States only further accentuates population

⁶³ “A Snapshot of Drinking Water and Sanitation in Africa – 2012 Update.” African Ministers’ Council on Water. May 2012. http://www.wssinfo.org/fileadmin/user_upload/resources/Africa-AMCOW-Snapshot-2012-English-Final.pdf.

⁶⁴ “International Decade for Action, ‘Water for Life’ 2005-2015: Africa,” United Nations. <http://www.un.org/waterforlifedecade/africa.shtml>. (accessed July 13, 2014).

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ “A Snapshot of Drinking Water and Sanitation in Africa – 2012 Update.” African Ministers’ Council on Water. May 2012. http://www.wssinfo.org/fileadmin/user_upload/resources/Africa-AMCOW-Snapshot-2012-English-Final.pdf.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Bronwyn Curran. “The Cruel Utility of Slums”. Development Asia. January-March 2010.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ “Fast Facts,” Sanitation for all the drive to 2015. <http://sanitationdrive2015.org/resources-2/fast-facts/>. (accessed July 14, 2014).

policies in regards to access to sanitation need to be evaluated and modified to correlate to the changes. There have been initiatives proposed in recent summits such as the Rio +20 Summit in 2012 that have tried to address sanitation issues. However, new challenges have come to the surface and thus, new population policies need to be generated to address how to advance existing access to sanitation as well as find more innovative methods to create new access. Furthermore, particular attention must be given to marginalized subpopulations such as women and children, especially within Developing and Less Developed Member States. These Member States are the most in need of beneficial practices to access to sanitation for the sake of their own economic and political stability as well as future growth.

Even with all the successes that have come of GA's work there have been set-backs such as cholera outbreaks and water contamination from unsound environmental industrial practices. While strides are being made towards achieving the MDG 7 Target 10, there are still areas and Member States that remain unaffected or marginally improved by these advancements. The complex problems that arise from the relationship between humans and development are dynamic and ongoing. The development and implementation of new technologies and policies without the awareness of consequences or setting up safeguards risks floundering unless monitored and evaluated by UN bodies such as GA. These problems and issues surrounding sanitation are very serious and in some cases, have already left populations in destruction. Consequently, the continued practice of evaluating and conducting population policies must remain in tact, ensuring that lessons can be learned from the past, addressing those of the present, and set up a sustainable foundation for future generations.

Committee Directive

The GA strives to promote and provide sustainable initiatives and practices in an effort to stop the ongoing detrimental relationship that lack of access to sanitation has on human and economic development and growth. Delegates must first consider the ways in which the functions and goals of the GA align with utilizing population policies. These policies are generic and broad and do not necessarily have a specific direction or initiative that addresses the various areas of sanitation including the economic, industrial, and environmental, and human impacts. This includes impacts on local, national, regional, and global scale. Delegates must tie together all of these areas in order to be truly successful in their pursuit of constructing comprehensive population policy frameworks that adhere to the functions and goals of GA. Furthermore, delegates in the GA must generate documents that will allow Member States categorized as DC and LDC to generate sanitation practices that are affordable and sustainable. The General Assembly is dedicated to fostering new and innovative initiatives and developments and reviewing ideas that may have been previously underdeveloped or only available to highly developed Member States. The challenge will be to recognize what practices in specific areas need to be implemented and how they need to be implemented.

Some specific areas of consideration within the topic for delegates of GA are: (1) joint operations between public/governmental, private, and IGO/NGOs (2) the demand and effects of a growing world population and ongoing migration, especially due to inter and intra state conflict (3) the development of new technology, machinery, and other resources and equipment which are constantly changing the standards and face of approaches to sanitation; (4) requiring Member States to consider what practices must take in order to efficiently address environmental effects; and finally, (5) how can the case of Sub Saharan Africa be used as an example to learn best practices, cautions, solutions, and methods to be used in future projects and inquiries of population policies.

II. Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration into Civil Society of Ex-Combatants

Introduction

The devastating consequences that come from the aftermath of war and conflict are an issue that has plagued societies in their attempts to move on from conflict. The transition from conflict to peace is a difficult and complex process facing many societies coming out of conflict. Each society faces unique problems such as dysfunctional economic policies that were in place before or during the conflict, the breakdown of combatant groups at regional and local areas, and political instability.⁷² Many of the combatants in conflict give up their ordinary lives in order to

⁷² Paul Collier, "Post-Conflict Recovery: How Should policies be distinctive?" Centre for the Study of African Economies,

fight and ultimately have no ‘normal’ life to return home to once conflict is over. These issues make it very difficult to implement and sustain a peace one solution will not please everyone and solve all issues. Since there is no one panacea that can solve all post-conflict situations, many post-conflict societies have a much higher risk of falling back into conflict. Developing countries that are coming out of conflict have a 40 percent chance of relapsing back into conflict in the decade following conflict compared to other developing countries who have only a 9 percent chance of falling into conflict within the next decade.⁷³ The United Nations (UN) has taken note of this alarming relapse rate and has set out to help resolve these issues. The UN believes that the roots of these issues lie with disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) of combatants into civil society.⁷⁴ The purpose of addressing DDR is to be able to provide a successful foundation for recovery and development to occur.⁷⁵

According to the United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, DDR is broken down to cover three important and different areas. Disarmament seeks to develop management programs for arms, ammunition, and explosives, and mainly collects, documents, controls, and disposes of “small arms, ammunition, explosives and light and heavy weapons of combatants and the civilian population”.⁷⁶ For combatants, demobilization is controlled discharge from formal military forces or combative group which includes two stages: processing and discharging individuals at assigned centers or in masses at camps, and reinsertion.⁷⁷ Reinsertion assistance given to ex-combatants and their families offers temporary support for immediate transition activities and attending basic needs of food, clothing, shelter, education, training, and employment.⁷⁸ The last phase of DDR is the long-term polish to the process; bringing DDR to the national level and making it a Member State’s responsibility for execution. As described in its name, Reintegration is a social and economic process that assists ex-combatants with reentering larger society and allows them to acquire civilian status and gain sustainable employment and income”.⁷⁹

History

Over the last two decades, DDR operations have become an integral part of peace keeping operations helping with the consolidations and stabilization of post-conflict peace agreements.⁸⁰ The UN initially became involved with DDR in 1989 through efforts in Nicaragua through the UN Observer Group in Central America (ONUCA) and has since been a part of DDR programs in over 20 Member States around the world.⁸¹ Although much was learned about DDR through these experiences, there have always been issues arising during the implementation of the DDR programs. Many times DDR initiatives had to be newly created for every situation as each conflict was unique in its own ways. This ‘lack of reusability’ of DDR initiatives causes the development and implementation of programs to take longer and ultimately no precedence to apply for a higher rate of success. The UN and DDR stakeholders had no common strategic framework in which to rely upon to for effective ways in dealing with the problems the UN was finding.⁸²

In order to address the inadequate coordination among UN peacekeeping missions, agencies, programs, and lack of planning and support, the UN created the UN Inter-Agency Working Group on Disarmament, Demobilization, and

Department of Economics, Oxford University. May 2007. <http://users.ox.ac.uk/~econpco/research/pdfs/PostConflict-Recovery.pdf>. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ “Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration,” United Nations Peacekeeping, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/ddr.shtml>. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁷⁵ “What Is DDR?,” United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre. http://www.unddr.org/what-is-ddr/introduction_1.aspx. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ “Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration,” United Nations Peacekeeping, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/issues/ddr.shtml>. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁸¹ Yvan Conoir, “Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR): Principles of Intervention and Management in Peacekeeping Operations,” Peace Ops Training, http://cdn.peaceopstraining.org/course_promos/ddr/ddr_english.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁸² Ibid.

Reintegration (IAWG – DDR) to find a solution to solve these areas.⁸³ The IAWG – DDR created the Integrated Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Standards (IDDRS) between 2004 and 2006 to “provide direction and guidance to those engaged in preparing, implementing and supporting DDR programmes.”⁸⁴ The IDDRS began to help DDR initiatives evolve from fractured plans to strengthen plans for peace. The IDDRS have continuously been updated from past initiatives and include over 28 modules broken down into 5 levels for DDR practitioners to refer to when creating programmes, policies, and implementation of DDR programmes⁸⁵. The IDDRS have over 15 years of UN lessons and ideas for DDR programmes and are used today for new DDR programmes to help formulate new policies, programme development, programme management, programme evaluation, and staff training.⁸⁶ This collection of past DDR programs revealed that traditional DDR programs were not as effective as intended in the past due to programmes only dealing with only formal ex-combatants and not whole societies that were affected by the conflict, including civilians and local armed groups. This lack of outreach identified by the IDDRS spawned new thought towards DDR programmes.⁸⁷

New DDR strategies are trying to move beyond traditional military structures to include armed groups at the sub-national levels.⁸⁸ Traditional DDR programmes focused primarily on the demobilizing of military establishments. Newer DDR programmes have begun to include weapon reduction programmes for members of informal armed groups, gangs, militias, self-defense groups and communities.⁸⁹ New DDR initiatives have also begun to focus on including communities as part of the reintegration process and not just those areas directly involved in the conflict. These programmes focus on community based approaches in security measures, weapons-collections, and training and education instead of just a national program to reduce violence.⁹⁰ Some of the community-based approaches include: combining both ex-combatants and conflict-affected groups in same reintegration and rehabilitation programmes, involving ex-combatants in economic and social programs that benefit the whole community, or providing the resources for a community to jump start its own economy that can reintegrate ex-combatants and conflict-affected groups together.⁹¹ Understanding the many facets of the reintegration of ex-combatants, programmes are working to re-emphasize the importance of social aspects of reintegration along with the economic aspects.⁹² Traditionally, the economic aspects of reintegration were the primary focus while social aspects were only a compliment. The IAWG – DDR and the IDDRS have emphasized the lack of focus on social aspects and the need to provide for social/psychosocial, political and security dimensions in addition to the economic one.⁹³

The Role of the UN in Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration

The Security Council first mandated that ONUCA expand its mission to include DDR practices for the first time in 1990.⁹⁴ Since then, the UN has been involved in DDR programmes in over 20 Member States. Many of these situations became more as DDR teams learn more from previous cases and the IDDRS. In 2000, Secretary General Kofi Annan rededicated the UN’s role in DDR with the release of his report on “*The Role of United Nations Peacekeeping in Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration*” which stated that DDR is a crucial step in to

⁸³ Yvan Conoir, “Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR): Principles of Intervention and Management in Peacekeeping Operations,” Peace Ops Training, http://cdn.peaceopstraining.org/course_promos/ddr/ddr_english.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁸⁴ Ibid.

⁸⁵ “Integrated Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration Standards,” United Nation Disarmament Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Center. 2006. http://pksoi.army.mil/doctrine_concepts/documents/UN%20Guidelines/IDDRS.pdf (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ “How has DDR evolved?,” United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre. http://www.unddr.org/what-is-ddr/how-has-ddr-evolved_3.aspx. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁸⁹ Ibid

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Ibid

⁹² Ibid

⁹³ “Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration,” United Nations Development Programme. http://www.un dp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/crisispreventionand recovery/focus_areas/livelihoods_and_economic_recovery/disarmament-demobilization-reintegration.html. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁹⁴ Yvan Conoir, “Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR): Principles of Intervention and Management in Peacekeeping Operations,” Peace Ops Training, http://cdn.peaceopstraining.org/course_promos/ddr/ddr_english.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

starting and maintaining peacekeeping and peacebuilding operations and defined the UN's peacekeeping role in DDR.⁹⁵

The UN's involvement in Sierra Leone from 1999-2004 and Liberia from 2003-2009 were considered successful and groundbreaking DDR practices. The programmes in both Sierra Leone and Liberia were two of the first programs to do more than just disarm and demobilize combatants. The United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) started DDR practices in 1999 but had to suspend operations when the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) kidnapped many peacekeepers in 2000 claiming to be upset that their troops' needs would not get met during the DDR process.⁹⁶ UNAMSIL changed their DDR programmes to ensure that the needs and aspirations of the ex-combatants were met while making efforts to not seem like they were rewarding violators of human rights issues.⁹⁷ Guaranteeing that the needs of ex-combatants were met ensured their participation. In Liberia, one major ingredient to success is when the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) opened the criteria for ex-combatants.⁹⁸ Originally, only those combatants apart of traditional military forces could participate in the DDR programmes and UNMIL estimated that there only 40,000 ex-combatants.⁹⁹ After opening the criteria to those affected by the conflict and local armed groups, over 103,000 combatants were allowed to register for DDR programmes.¹⁰⁰ The UN has also been involved with DDR plans in Angola, Mozambique, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Burundi, Haiti, Nepal, and Sudan, which saw over 25,000 ex-combatants disarmed and demobilized by 2010.¹⁰¹

After the success DDR programmes were having with opening up rehabilitation and reintegration programs to all those affect by conflict and not just traditional military forces, the UN began investigating the effectiveness of community based approaches versus the traditional disarmament and demobilization process. In 2010 the UN released the publication of its study "Second Generation Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR) Practices in Peace Operation" which has recommended that DDR practices need to involve into more community based approaches. The "Second Generation" DDR was not created to replace traditional DDR programmes but to help fill some of the gap where traditional DDR have failed or possibly to work alongside the traditional programmes. An example of this initiative is demonstrated in a strategic change in Cote d'Ivoire in 2009. The traditional DDR programme stalled in Côte d'Ivoire due to lack of trust with the peace agreement between the National Armed Forces and the Armed Forces of the Forces Nouvelles (FAFN). In response to this challenge, the United Nations Mission in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI) launched the "1,000 Micro Projects" programmes which created local projects and means of living for ex-combatants.¹⁰² The UNOCI allocated twenty-one pigs and four breeding sites for seven former FAFN members to run.¹⁰³ Those members had to share the responsibilities of the project and were able to grow their business to seven times the original size and are now able to provide meat for and live in harmony with the local community.¹⁰⁴ In southern Darfur, Hakamas, local women singers, would sing near the front lines of the conflict spurring on the combatants. In 2009 the DDR program employed the help of the Hakamas to sing messages of peace instead of spurring on the combatants.¹⁰⁵ The use of these local community techniques help keep the tensions low and trust high between the concerned parties post-conflict.

"Second Generation" DDR programmes have been successful in unique situations but are not a sustainable long term programme. Many of the local community programmes have been used only for "stabilization and peace

⁹⁵ S/2000/101. *THE ROLE OF UNITED NATIONS PEACEKEEPING IN DISARMAMENT, DEMOBILIZATION AND REINTEGRATION*. The United Nations Security Council. 11 February 2000.

⁹⁶ "Sierra Leone - UNAMSIL – Background," United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone. 2005. <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/missions/past/unamsil/background.html>. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁹⁷ "DDR in Peace Operations: A Retrospective." The United Nations of Peacekeeping Operation Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Section. New York. September 2010: 14. http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/DDR_retrospective.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

⁹⁸ Ibid.

⁹⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

keeping measures with immediate political and security objectives.”¹⁰⁶ Ayaka Suzuki, the chief of the DDR section of the Department of Peace Keeping Operations (DPKO) has said linking the components of these small short term community-based peacekeeping programmes and broader peacebuilding and development policies are a crucial step that needs to be understood for a more effective peacebuilding process.¹⁰⁷ Understanding that link will be able to drastically help post-conflict countries from relapsing back into conflict. DDR practices and programmes are not perfect and face multiple issues every step of the way. Even though the UNDDR and DPKO have begun to create Second Generation DDR and the new areas of focus, there are still many problems DDR practitioners are facing. Many of these areas include women, children, health, community resources, and community security and are not limited to just ex-combatants.¹⁰⁸

Difficulties in implementation of DDR Programmes for Special Groups

Children Soldiers have become a larger focus for post-conflict societies as children have very specific needs that are not necessarily solved by the broader UN DDR programmes for adult combatants.¹⁰⁹ Children typically comprise between 10 to 40 percent of armed forces even though it is illegal for children under the age of 18 to be used in hostilities according to international law.¹¹⁰ Determined by the Cape Town Principles and Best Practices in 1997, a child soldier can be defined as any person under the age of 18 and is a part of any kind of regular or irregular armed group or force in any capacity and is not limited to just those who is carrying or has carried arms.¹¹¹ Due to the large number of children soldiers, many of these children go through “release and reintegration” programmes that have to take into account differences in age, sex and individual resilience; the capacity of children to make informed decisions; an individual’s experiences within the armed force or group; and the circumstances that led them to become associated in the first place instead of formal DDR programmes.¹¹²

A successful demonstration of special group re-integration is visible with the United Nations efforts in Nepal beginning in 2006. The signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) and the Agreement on Monitoring of the Management of Arms and Armies (AMMAA) has worked to create peace to a long period of Violence in Nepal.¹¹³ The United Nations Inter-agency Rehabilitation Program (UNIRP) has been working with The United Nations Mission in Nepal (UNMIN) in conjunction with the UNDP, ILO, United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), and United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) to implement a collaborative reintegration program for Verified Minors and Late Recruits (VMLRs) who have now exited conflict.¹¹⁴ Out of the 19,602 members of the Maoist army in Nepal, 4008 were listed as VMLRs with 2,973 still minors at the time of the ceasefire. The UNIRP began to help those ex-combatants and brief them on their rights and access to rehabilitation while working with UNICEF to help track down any of the VMLRs that were not present during the official discharge.¹¹⁵ UNIRP provides these VMLRs with access to training and education they need in order to set up their livelihoods and even provide gender education to girls. UNIRP’s actions in Nepal have become a basic standard for dealing with VMLRs in other areas of conflict.¹¹⁶

¹⁰⁶ “DDR in Peace Operations: A Retrospective.” The United Nations of Peacekeeping Operation Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Section. New York. September 2010: 14. http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/DDR_retrospective.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ “Key Topics,” United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration Resource Centre. http://www.unddr.org/key-topics/introduction_5.aspx. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹⁰⁹ “Key Topics – Children,” United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration Resource Centre. http://www.unddr.org/key-topics/children/introduction_1.aspx. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ “Children Associated with Armed Forces and Armed Groups,” Nations Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration Resource Centre. http://www.unddr.org/key-topics/children/children-associated-with-armed-forces-and-armed-groups-key-non-negotiables_4.aspx. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹¹² Ibid.

¹¹³ “UN Interagency Rehabilitation Programme (UNIRP),” United Nations Development Programme. http://www.undp.org/content/nepal/en/home/operations/projects/crisis_prevention_and_recovery/unirp/. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ “Rehabilitation of Ex-Combatants – UNIRP Factsheet.” United Nations Development Programme. http://www.undp.org/content/dam/nepal/docs/projects/UNDP_NP_UNIRP%20factsheet.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

Another problem DDR programmes have faced are dealing with specific needs of women soldiers and women affected by conflict. As many of these women have lost their entire lives during the conflict, it is much harder for them to be able to reintegrate back into society as they may have to be the provider for themselves or their families. Many of the women have no or limited primary education which makes it hard for them to provide for themselves and their families. Women coming out of conflict also have to mentally and physically cope with specific health and mental issues related to sexual crimes committed against them during conflict. Women are often violated not only as combatants but are used to torture the male members of their family as they are raped and beaten by opposing members of conflict as their male family members are forced to watch.¹¹⁷ In many communities, new DDR operations have created specific programmes for teaching women about sexual health and getting them the supplies needed for them to be able to properly take care of themselves.¹¹⁸

The United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH) created the Crime Violence Reduction (CVR) programme to address the violent gangs in local areas and lack of rule of law.¹¹⁹ The CVR created a women's business training program which taught women how to set up and run their own business in 6 months.¹²⁰ There has been a problem noted regarding these types of programmes. Programme leaders report it is difficult to identify women, and getting women who were abused during the conflict to participate in the rehabilitation programs.¹²¹ Another significant issue that DDR programmes are facing is a lack of resources necessary for peacebuilding operations to be successful both short term and long term. Since many developing Member States coming out of conflict have bad economic policies and not much capital to spend on peacebuilding.¹²² The IWAG–DDR works with the UNDP and local and regional governments and agencies to provide the funding for the DDR programmes. Though, many of the parties involved may have different interests and want the funding to be used in different ways. This can lead to parties backing out of peace agreements and ending cease fires or not participating in the DDR efforts.

Instability in Post-Conflict Regions

DDR plans and frameworks are always changing to have to find new ways to be successful. The only way a DDR plan can work is if all parties involved are committed to the peace agreement and commitment to participate in the program. In Sierra Leone, the UNAMSIL had to change the DDR programme when the RUF back out of the cease fire citing they were not happy with how their men were treated.¹²³ Learning from this, the IDDRS created one module to include that DDR practitioners are flexible with their framework and continuously work with all parties involved in the conflict to make sure that the pre-conditions needed for their participation are met in order to make sure that the DDR plans reach and affect everyone effectively.¹²⁴ The lack of pre-conditions is a significant issue that jeopardizes the successfulness of DDR plans. Basic political and security conditions must be met, or DDR will be very limited in its effectiveness.¹²⁵ The IDDRS has established that there must be a set of pre-conditions met in order for a DDR framework to be set up including a signed ceasefire or peace agreement, a trust in the peace process, a willingness of parties to participate in DDR, and a minimum guarantee of safety in order for DDR to be effective.¹²⁶ Many problems are still being faced today in getting parties to agree and specifically outline these pre-

¹¹⁷ “Key Topics – Gender,” United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre. 2014.

http://www.unddr.org/key-topics/gender/introduction_5.aspx. (accessed July 2, 2014).

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

¹¹⁹ “DDR in Peace Operations: A Retrospective.” The United Nations of Peacekeeping Operation Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Section. New York. September 2010: 14. http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/DDR_retrospective.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Paul Collier, “Post-Conflict Recovery: How Should policies be distinctive?” Centre for the Study of African Economies, Department of Economics, Oxford University. May 2007. <http://users.ox.ac.uk/~econpco/research/pdfs/PostConflict-Recovery.pdf>. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹²³ “DDR in Peace Operations: A Retrospective.” The United Nations of Peacekeeping Operation Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Section. New York. September 2010: 14. http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/DDR_retrospective.pdf. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹²⁴ “How has DDR evolved?” United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre. http://www.unddr.org/what-is-ddr/how-has-ddr-evolved_3.aspx. (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

conditions. The UN, IAWG – DDR, agencies, and DDR stakeholders are still creating new ways in which to word these conditions for post-conflict parties to agree.

This need for political and security conditions led to the creation of “Second Generation” DDR in January 2010 created by the DPKO to help address situations in which peace agreements that are lacking or non-inclusive or levels of violence against civilians persist.¹²⁷ Second Generation DDR is “an umbrella term for a set of practices that serve the same strategic goals as ‘traditional DDR’ and create programmes that include stabilization measures such as emergency employment and reinsertion, and often target at-risk youth and gangs.”¹²⁸ Traditional DDR focused largely on the demobilization of traditional military structures and the reintegration of just ex-combatants. In Somalia, political unrest has caused security conditions needed for a DDR programmes to not be met. Many extremist continue attacks on the Transitional Federal Government (TFG) and the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) in which the UN will not send in a peacekeeping operation until the volatile situation decreases.¹²⁹ A “Second Generation” DDR approach might help in Somalia as many of the combatants have left the armed forces groups, many still with their weapons.¹³⁰ The problem is that no UN DDR programs under current IDDRS will be set up under the current conditions, yet these ex-combatants could be an opportunity for operations. By running DDR programs with ex-combatants in the area, strides could be made to slowly decrease the number of combatants in the country until conditions are met for a national DDR framework to be put into place. This type of practice is not yet normalized however the practice is an option as more effective implementations of DDR frameworks and programmes are created and applied.

Conclusion

The UN’s involvement in DDR practices has changed since its first operation with ONUCA in 1990 and is still organically and inorganically evolving. Being able to get all of those affected by conflict to want to engage in DDR has always been the issue, and must continue to be the focal of DDR programmes in the future. Learning how “second Generation” DDR can work along with traditional DDR framework to help solve the issues of trust and participation of the parties will be the next step in DDR development. Even though recent DDR programmes have become more inclusive recently, future DDR programmes must keep in mind the challenges that affect special group including women and children affected by conflict. Economic policies are also a huge aspect of DDR programmes that must be prioritized as a successful economic policies post-conflict may be the link between early DDR programmes post-conflict and long term peacebuilding.

Committee Directive

As a committee Member States should continue to develop new practices and standards for DDR to become more successful and still be able to address all the needs of communities in post-conflict areas. As we learn from our past experiences, delegates should be looking for a more global framework in which peace frameworks provide enough foundation for DDR practices to exist and run effectively. The committee should look to the current issues facing DDR in disarmament policies for not just formal armed group but informal ones on the sub-national level that still terrorize local communities. The committee should also respect human rights and how DDR policies can affect everyone, especially women and children affected by conflict. Delegates should derive creative ideas of action in which to implement Second Generation DDR on a sub-national level that will continue to help solve these target areas, creating a better peace for ex-combatants and conflict-affected communities in a post-conflict civil society.

¹²⁷ “Second Generation Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Practices in Peace Operations: A Contribution to the New Horizon Discussion on Challenges and Opportunities for UN Peacekeeping.” The United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operation Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Section. New York. February 2010.

http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/2GDDR_ENG_WITH_COVER.pdf

¹²⁸ “DDR in Peace Operations: A Retrospective.” The United Nations of Peacekeeping Operation Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) Section. New York. September 2010: 14. http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/DDR_retrospective.pdf (accessed June 21, 2014).

¹²⁹ Ibid.

¹³⁰ Ibid.

Technical Appendix Guide

Topic I. Population Policies: Advancing Access to Sanitation

Appleton, B., & Chatterjee, A. “Innovative Strategies for Water and Sanitation for the Poor: Access and Affordability.” In Thematic Background Paper, Secretariat of the International Conference on Freshwater–Bonn. 2001.

This presentation, examines issues regarding water supply and sanitation service coverage; gives examples of initiatives that have already been done and proved successful in addressing these issues; and what changes need to occur for these initiatives to be implemented if the goal of have universal coverage is to be fulfilled by 2025

Cumming, O. “The sanitation imperative: A strategic response to a development crisis.” *Desalination*. 2008. 248(1), 8-13.

This article, presented at the 2008 Water and Sanitation in International Development and Disaster Relief International Workshop, discusses the various areas and nuances in how the lack of access to sanitation puts tremendous obstacles and hurdles for all aspects of development

Freeman, M. C., Greene, L. E., Dreibelbis, R., Saboori, S., Muga, R., Brumback, B., & Rheingans, R. “Assessing the impact of a school-based water treatment, hygiene and sanitation programme on pupil absence in Nyanza Province, Kenya: a cluster-randomized trial.” *Tropical Medicine & International Health*. (2012). 17(3), 380-391. This paper discusses a study that was done in Kenya regarding how lack of sanitation effects the youth by focusing on the relationship between school attendance and access to water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) at schools in developing countries and found that school WASH improvements can improve school attendance and similar programs should be explored in other developing countries.

Haines, A., Smith, K. R., Anderson, D., Epstein, P. R., McMichael, A. J., Roberts, I., ... & Woods, J. “Policies for accelerating access to clean energy, improving health, advancing development, and mitigating climate change.” *The Lancet*. (2008). 370(9594), 1264-1281.

This article, available online on the UC Berkley server, goes into how the absence of reliable access to clean energy and the services it provides imposes a large disease burden on low-income populations and impedes prospects for development and how programs and policies for clean energy must incorporate technology to simultaneously address climate change issues and maximize health benefits for the populations both nationally and internationally.

Hutton, G., & Bartram, J. “Global costs of attaining the Millennium Development Goal for water supply and sanitation.” *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*. (2008). 86(1), 13-19.

This study presents the program, initiative, and policy costs in multiple areas that are associated with achieving Target 10 of MDG by analyzing the population data of 11 developing countries compiled by the World Health Organization

Meier, B. M. “Advancing health rights in a globalized world: responding to globalization through a collective human right to public health.” (2008). *The Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics*. 35(4), 545-555.

This article addresses the salience of sanitation to human rights and how human right issues need to be incorporated when constructing health care policies at the national, regional, and systemic level.

Narayanan, R., van Norden, H., Gosling, L., & Patkar, A. “Equity and Inclusion in Sanitation and Hygiene in South Asia: A Regional Synthesis.” *IDS Bulletin*. (2011). 43(2), 101-111.

This paper examines issues with sanitation practices in developing countries by focusing on Southeast Asia and demonstrates how there needs to be a change in practice and construction of policies to specifically address the gaps in inequality of minority groups (women, children, disabled, etc) in order for true sustainable sanitation and hygiene practices to be actualized.

Salaam-Blyther, T. “Global access to clean drinking water and sanitation: US and international programs.” *In Congressional Research Service Report for Congress* (p. 36). (2012).

This report, available online at the US Congressional Database, discusses efforts to address limited access to clean drinking water and sanitation, outlines related programs implemented by USAID and MCC, and analyzes issues

related to U.S. and international drinking water and sanitation programs that legislators and other agencies should consider.

Topic II: Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration into Civil Society of Ex-Combatants

Ball, Nicole. "Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration: Mapping Issues, Dilemmas and Guiding Issues".

http://www.clingendael.nl/sites/default/files/20060800_cru_paper_ddr.pdf. (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article gives a large overview of many of the issues that past DDR programmes have had with planning in what they can and cannot do. It also provides a large overview of many different approaches on how planning DDR programmes can be done more successfully in the future by providing lessons learned from past experiences.

Bouta, Tsjard. "Gender and Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration".

<http://www.oecd.org/derec/netherlands/35112187.pdf>. (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article reviews women's roles, voluntary and involuntary, in conflict and the help provided for women post-conflict, especially in DDR programmes. It reviews the problems that many traditional DDR programs had in not creating proper programmes for women exiting conflicts and addressing their specific needs. It takes stance on potential solutions and gives advice on how women should be cared for in post-conflict DDR programmes.

Brown, Phil. "What is the Best Way to Deal With Former Combatants in Order to Ensure Peace?". [http://www.e-](http://www.e-ir.info/2012/05/23/what-is-the-best-way-to-deal-with-former-combatants-in-order-to-ensure-peace/)

[ir.info/2012/05/23/what-is-the-best-way-to-deal-with-former-combatants-in-order-to-ensure-peace/](http://www.e-ir.info/2012/05/23/what-is-the-best-way-to-deal-with-former-combatants-in-order-to-ensure-peace/). (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article, written in 2012, takes a look at what some of the challenges that DDR programmes are facing and what would be a possible solution to address these challenges. This article particularly looks at both DDR campaigns in Sierra Leone and the programs there were missing two key elements, addressing the root cause of the conflict and providing security to ex-combatants during the DDR programmes, that all DDR programmes should include to be successful.

Correia, Maria. "Disarm, Demobilize and Reintegrate: Transforming Combatants Into Citizens to Consolidate Peace".

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/4580>. (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article writes about the importance of international donors and their pivotal role in helping provide post-conflict societies with the resources and budgets they need for successful DDR programs. This article particularly calls on the importance the World Bank can and needs to play in being a leader in post-conflict construction.

Gordon, Emma. "Victims and Perpetrators: the Implications of the Dual Status of Child Soldiers". [http://www.e-](http://www.e-ir.info/2011/08/03/victims-and-perpetrators-what-are-the-implications-of-this-dual-status-of-child-soldiers/)

[ir.info/2011/08/03/victims-and-perpetrators-what-are-the-implications-of-this-dual-status-of-child-soldiers/](http://www.e-ir.info/2011/08/03/victims-and-perpetrators-what-are-the-implications-of-this-dual-status-of-child-soldiers/). (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article reviews the growing complexity of child soldiers in both their roles of victim and perpetrators and the UN's "straight 18" approach to child soldiers. It gives a look at some of the problems with how current and ex-child soldiers are treated and their lack of the proper treatment they need. It also gives a look at how many ex-child soldiers are treated as perpetrators even though they are victims as well.

Mitchell, Audra. "Can Peace-Building be an Act of Violence?". [http://www.e-ir.info/2012/08/25/can-peace-building-be-an-](http://www.e-ir.info/2012/08/25/can-peace-building-be-an-act-of-violence/)

[act-of-violence/](http://www.e-ir.info/2012/08/25/can-peace-building-be-an-act-of-violence/). (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article explores the potential problem with violence potentially being a part of current peace-building practices. It relates that many "transformational" practices, where DDR falls into, uses violence the help either set-up or enforce these peace practices. It goes into example how violence was used in past post-conflict situations to try and establish peace-building.

Muggah, Robert. "Reflections on Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration in Sudan".

<http://www.odihpn.org/humanitarian-exchange-magazine/issue-33/reflections-on-disarmament-demobilisation-and-reintegration-in-sudan>. (accessed August 18, 2014).

This article, much like the others, focuses on past challenges of DDR programmes such as competing objective among donors and parties to the DDR, lack of proper resources and funding, flawed criteria selection, and not meeting expectations. The author attempts to provide different alternatives for the future based on past literature of DDR programmes.

Özerdem, Alpaslan. "Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration of Former Combatants in Afghanistan: Lessons Learned from a Cross-Cultural Perspective".

<http://www.jstor.org/discover/10.2307/3993398?uid=3739256&uid=2&uid=4&sid=21104603679833>. (accessed August 18, 2014).

Most school libraries should have access to JSTOR articles. This article reviews in a case study of Afghanistan DDR in which contexts and cultures should be taken into account for DDR practices. It reviews the importance that contexts in programmes for civilians and ex-combatants in DDR programmes.