SRMUN Atlanta 2017
Development through Dialogue: Using Global Cooperation to Build Lasting Change
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Honored Delegates,

My name is Kristina Drye, and it is my privilege to welcome you to SRMUN Atlanta 2017's General Assembly Plenary (GA), also known as the United Nations General Assembly. I trust you will find this committee to be informative, rigorous, and exciting. This is my fourth time as staff member. I have previously served as the Chair of the Historical Security Council (2014); Assistant Director of the Press Corps Committee (2015); and Director of the Peacebuilding Commission (2016). I studied International Studies and Political Science at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte and have completed graduate work in conflict resolution and peacebuilding at the America University of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Additionally, I will be attending Georgetown University's Edmund Walsh School of Foreign Service in the fall of 2017 to pursue my Master of Arts in Security Studies. I fully believe in Model UN as an immersive learning experience and am passionate about providing you with an insightful and comprehensive experience.

Serving as your Assistant Director for the General Assembly will be Jessica Doscher. This is Jessica's first time on staff, but she is no stranger to SRMUN, having been a delegate at past conferences. Jessica is currently a senior at Winthrop University in Rock Hill, South Carolina, and is double majoring in English and Political Science.

The GA Plenary is the largest committee of the United Nations (UN) and is one of the primary organs of the United Nations organization. Consisting of all 193 Member States, the General Assembly is the chief policymaking and deliberative body of the UN. Created in 1945, this body is tasked with making recommendations to Member States on issues in the international arena. For full responsibilities and powers of the General Assembly of the UN, I recommend that you refer to the Committee History portion of this guide and the United Nations Charter, which describes these abilities in detail.

Keeping in mind the directive of the GA and the theme of this year's SRMUN Atlanta conference, *"Development through Dialogue: Using Global Cooperation to Build Lasting Change,"* we have selected the following topics for you to consider:

    I.   Protection of Cultural Heritage Sites in Conflict Zones
    II.   Addressing the Global Economic Effects of Natural Disasters

The Dais is very passionate about these topics and we look forward to robust and meaningful discussions with substantive results. The following background guide should be used as a guideline and introduction to the concepts of these topics, but should by no means be referenced as an exhaustive resource. We expect you to expand your studies to include outside resources and personal research. For this, the attached TAG will also be useful. Each delegation is required to submit a position paper no longer than two pages in length (single-spaced) that reflects and explores your Member State's history, position, policies, and recommendations on each of the topics. For more information regarding formatting and examples for position papers, please refer to the SRMUN website. ***All position papers must be submitted by Friday, October 27, 2017 at 11:59 pm via the SRMUN Website***.

Jessica and I are excited for the pending dialogue and send you our warmest regards in your preparation for SRMUN Atlanta 2017. Please feel free to reach out to any of us should you have any questions or concerns along the way.

All the best,

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Committee History of the United Nations General Assembly

The United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) was authorized under Chapter IV of the United Nations Charter with the creation of the United Nations (UN) in 1945 and was first convened in January of 1946. It is one of the six primary bodies of the United Nations and is the only organ in which all Member States are represented in an equal manner, each having an equitable vote on matters. Though there were 51 states in the first session, there are currently193 fully represented Member States in the United Nations General Assembly and a handful of Member States with non-Member observer status, including the African Union, the Holy See, and the State of Palestine.[1] [2]

The General Assembly is the primary deliberative, policymaking, and representative organ of the UN. This body meets from September to December of each year and afterwards, as required. The UNGA has a significant role in the functioning of the United Nations and is often the stage for discussion of global policy and protocol, as well as peace and security issues. The GA is also responsible for the admission of new members to the UN and all budgetary matters. In addition to pressing matters and administrative duties, the UNGA serves as a dialogue space for thematic debates and informal consultations on substantive global topics and UN reform.[3]

According to Chapter IV of the UN Charter, the UNGA can:

- Make recommendations to UN Member States and the UN Security Council (UNSC) pertaining to any matter within the scope of the present UN Charter;
- Discuss questions of international maintenance of peace and security, with recommendations requiring action being referred to the UNSC;
- Call to the attention of the UNSC situations which "are likely to endanger international peace and security;"
- Initiate studies and make recommendations for the purpose of "promoting international cooperation" in a variety of areas and can subsequently make recommendations based on the results of these studies;
- Consider and approve the UN budget; and,
- Apportion expense obligations of Member States to the UN.[4]

The United Nations has not shied away from interpreting these responsibilities to their fullest extent. The United Nations Millennium Declaration (Res 55/2) adopted the United Nations Development Goals, which were eight global goals meant to be achieved by 2015.[5] These included: "(1) eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; (2) achieving universal primary education; (3) promoting gender equality and empowering women; (4) reducing child mortality; (5) improving maternal health; (6) combating HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases; (7) ensuring environmental sustainability; and (8) facilitating global partnership for development."[6] Resolution 60/1, the 2005 World Summit Outcome, reaffirmed the commitment to the UN Millennium Declaration, reflecting the UNGA's global commitment to international stability and growth.[7]

On September 25, 2015, the UNGA adopted Resolution 70/1; also known as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (SDGs).[8] With the MDGs expiring in 2015, the UNGA felt the need to continue the global commitment to universal peace and freedom. This plan consisted of 17 goals, which are: "(1) no poverty; (2) zero

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[1] "United Nations, Main Body, Main Organs, General Assembly." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/main-organs/

[2] "List of non-Member States, entities and organizations having received a standing invitation to participate as observers in the sessions and the work of the General Assembly." *United Nations*, United Nations, www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A%2FINF%2F71%2F5.

[3] Ibid.

[4] "Charter of the United Nations." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/

[5] "A/res/55/2." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm

[6] "United Nations Millennium Development Goals." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/

[7] "A/res/60/1." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N05/487/60/PDF/N0548760.pdf?OpenElement

[8] "A/res/70/1." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E

hunger; (3) good health and well-being; (4) quality education; (5) gender equality; (6) clean water and sanitation; (7) affordable and clean energy; (8) decent work and economic growth; (9) industry, innovation, and infrastructure; (10) reduced inequalities; (11) sustainable cities and communities; (12) responsible consumption and production; (13) climate action; (14) life below water; (15) life on land; (16) peace, justice, and strong institutions; and (17) partnership for the goals."[9]

Though the SDGs are an ambitious attempt by the UNGA to be as comprehensive as possible and respect all aspects of concern from all Member States of the UN, there has been significant doubt in academic and journalistic circles on the substantive content and realistic possibility of the goals. *Foreign Policy* and *The Economist* openly excoriated the goals, while Pope Francis and *NPR* expressed doubt at the attainability of such broad hopes.[10] [11] [12] [13]

Despite the doubts, the UN is committed to the SDGs as its respective development framework for the next 13 years. Embracing this framework, some have praised the UN for exposing a world that extends beyond the more developed Global North and frankly exposes the severity of issues in the developing world. This praise highlights the reality that the UNGA is often one of the few spaces of respect and dialogue available to developing countries and marginalized people, as it is the one international body in which all states are represented and guaranteed an equal opportunity to vocalize their concerns.

In addition to the commitment to the SDGs mentioned above, the UNGA has a very complex architecture comprised of six committees, each addressing a specific set of topics. Each Member State has the option of being represented by one person on each of the six Main Committees.[14]

The First Committee handles the topics of Disarmament and International Security. This includes threats to the peace and stability of the international community, specifically security matters.[15] The Second Committee handles the topics of Economics and Finances. The committee deals with all economic development issues, both micro and macro, as well as the development effects of the global economic order.[16] The Second Committee also discusses issues regarding groups of countries that experience similar economic problems- for example, the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and the Landlocked Developing Countries (LLDCs).[17] The Third Committee, or the Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural Committee, discusses "agenda items relating to a range of social, humanitarian affairs and human rights issues that affect people all over the world."[18] This includes work related to the questions of human rights, equality, equity, and social development.[19] The Fourth Committee, or the Special Political and Decolonization Committee, works with any topic related to decolonization, peacekeeping, public information, outer space, and also manages the United Nations' University for Peace.[20] The Fifth Committee, or the Administrative and

[9] "SDGs .:. Sustainable Development Knowledge Platform." *United Nations*. United Nations, n.d. Web. 30 May 2017. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgs

[10] Easterly, William. "The SDGs Should Stand for Senseless, Dreamy, Garbled." *Foreign Policy*. Foreign Policy, 28 Sept. 2015. Web. 30 May 2017. http://foreignpolicy.com/2015/09/28/the-sdgs-are-utopian-and-worthless-mdgs-development-rise-of-the-rest/

[11] "The 169 Commandments." *The Economist*. The Economist Newspaper, 26 Mar. 2015. Web. 30 May 2017. https://www.economist.com/news/leaders/21647286-proposed-sustainable-development-goals-would-be-worse-useless-169-commandments

[12] Kelemen, Michele. "Are The New U.N. Global Goals Too Ambitious?" *NPR*. NPR, 28 Sept. 2015. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.npr.org/sections/goatsandsoda/2015/09/28/444188463/are-the-new-u-n-global-goals-too-ambitious

[13] "Full Text: Pope Francis' Speech at the United Nations." *Full Text: Pope Francis' Speech at the United Nations - Al Jazeera English*. Al Jazeera, 25 Sept. 2015. Web. 30 May 2017. http://www.aljazeera.com/news/2015/09/full-text-pope-francis-speech-united-nations-150925174945079.html

[14] "United Nations, Main Body, Main Organs, General Assembly." *United Nations Main Committees*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/maincommittees/.

[15] "United Nations, Main Body, Main Organs, General Assembly." *Disarmament and International Security*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/first/index.shtml.

[16] "UN General Assembly - Second Committee - Economic and Financial." *Economic and Financial*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/second/index.shtml.

[17] Ibid.

[18] "UN General Assembly - Third Committee - Social, Humanitarian & Cultural." *Social, Humanitarian & Cultural*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/third/index.shtml.

[19] Ibid.

[20] "UN General Assembly - Fourth Committee - Special Political and Decolonization." *Special Political and Decolonization*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/fourth/index.shtml.

Budgetary Committee, works on the administration of the UNGA and the budget management.[21] The Sixth Committee, also known as the Legal Committee, serves as the "primary forum for the consideration of legal questions to the General Assembly."[22] All Member States have the right to representation on the Sixth Committee, and a full list of items on the agenda for the 72nd Session of the Legal Committee, convening on September 11th, 2017, can be found on the UN's website.[23] All six Committees together form the primary infrastructure of the UNGA, and it is evident from the breadth and depth of the topics that the work of the body is both significant and wide-ranging.

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[21] "UN General Assembly - Fifth Committee - Administrative and Budgetary." *Administration and Budgetary Committee*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/fifth/index.shtml

[22] "UN General Assembly - Sixth Committee - Legal." *Legal Committee*, United Nations, www.un.org/en/ga/sixth/index.shtml

[23] Ibid.

I.   Protection of Cultural Heritage Sites in Conflict Zones

Introduction

The destruction of cultural heritage sites has occurred for centuries, going back as far as the ruin of libraries in the Near East between 1500 and 300 BCE.[24] According to scholars, the loss of cultural heritage can have longstanding repercussions, as it may "affect a people's collective sense of identity, fuel a desire for revenge, and give rise to reprisals, especially in the context of an ongoing armed conflict."[25]

The loss of cultural heritage, whether by overt destruction, looting, or some other means associated with conflict, can seem superfluous to study when compared to the loss of life and human capital that often accompanies conflict. Why should we care for the books, the art, the monuments, or the music when we should care about the people? It is inarguable that the people should come first, always, and the cultural property follow. Jeannette Greenfield explores this concept in the very term, "spoils of war". She indicates that though the term implies treasures acquired, it comes from the Latin "*spolium*", meaning an animal hide. She reminds the reader that after "censorship, confiscation, and deliberate destruction," ultimately the process leads to murder. As she succinctly notes, "This last [murder] was the 'spoil' of war, and it is against this almost unimaginable human loss that we should temper arguments over the 'spoils of war.'"[26]

However, it is important to note that at some level, the loss of cultural heritage must be addressed and protected as well. As the Director of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s Division of Cultural Heritage noted:

> "It is understandable that the view is sometimes expressed that 'things' are not as important as human beings… and that consideration of the fate of objects should always be secondary to that of the alleviation of human suffering. Yet we at UNESCO are constantly confronted by the pleas of people who are physically suffering to help them save their cultural heritage, for their suffering is greatly increased by the destruction of what is dear to them. Their cultural heritage represents their history, their community, and their own identity. Preservation is sought, not for the sake of the objects, but for the sake of the people for whom they have a meaningful life."[27]

So, while the human cost of conflict is of primary importance to the UNGA and its bodies, the cultural component is also imperative to address and preserve as well. To address both problems is to address the intentional protection and preservation of both the physical and the intangible expressions of the human soul.

History

A deep delve into history is not required to discover the act of looting and the destruction of cultural heritage. Ancient looting includes the plunder of Musasir by the Assyrian king Sargon II in 714 B.C., an expedition undertaken because Sargon II felt disrespected by the Musasir King Urzana; the sacking of Solomon's Temple in Jerusalem by the Babylonians in 586 B.C., cited in the Book of Jeremiah in the Bible; and the sacking of Herod's Temple in Jerusalem by the Roman Titus in 70 A.D., where many Jewish cultural pieces were stolen, including solid gold furniture and a very valuable Menorah.[28]

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[24] Fernando Báez and Alfred MacAdam. *A Universal History of the Destruction of Books: From Ancient Sumer to Modern Iraq* (New York: Atlas, 2008). Print.

[25] David Bowker et. al. "Confronting ISIS's War on Cultural Property," *American Society of International Law* (Summer 2016), www.asil.org/insights/volume/20/issue/12/confronting-isis-war-cultural-property (accessed June 2, 2017).

[26] Greenfield, Jeanette. "The Spoils of War." *The Spoils of War: World War II and Its Aftermath: The Loss, Reappearance, and Recovery of Cultural Property*. New York: Harry N. Abrams, 1997. 34-38. Print.

[27] Simpson, E. "Introduction." Introduction. *The Spoils of War: World War II and Its Aftermath: The Loss, Reappearance, and Recovery of Cultural Property*. New York: Harry N. Abrams, 1997. 16. Print.

[28] Greenfield, Jeanette. "The Spoils of War." *The Spoils of War: World War II and Its Aftermath: The Loss, Reappearance, and Recovery of Cultural Property*. New York: Harry N. Abrams, 1997. 34-38. Print.

As conquest expanded globally, so did the looting. The Viking Age, beginning in 793 and lasting nearly 300 years, set off a time known for pillage and raiding of the Continent by the Norse.[29] The Crusades, beginning in 1096 and continuing for at least two hundred years, saw vast looting and pillage by the West.[30] Crusaders on the way to the Holy Land funded their campaigns by looting along the journey, and upon arrival looted as an extension of their religious mission.[31] It was the Western Christians during this time that coined the idea of "sacred theft" to justify the removal of holy relics.[32] The Fourth Crusade, in 1202-1204, perhaps the most brutal, capitulated in the sack of Constantinople.[33] This victory for the West resulted in massive plundering, including gold, silver, art, silks, furs, and the famous four bronze horses of Venice. [34]

Napoleon was famous for ransacking Egypt, to the extent that a portion of French architecture from the Napoleonic times is heavily influenced by this Egyptian campaign.[35] When the Spanish began conquering South America, staging their troops in Panama, they pillaged the Incan Empire of Peru and stole countless items, including valuable jewels, gold, and silver.[36] A famous story tells of the ambush of the Incan King Atahualpa, who when threatened with his life, told his captors if they would let him live, he would give them a massive room full of gold, then the same room filled twice over with silver- amounting to nearly six metric tons. The ransom was given in full to the Spanish, but they still killed him. The Spanish then continued their South American crusades against the native peoples there.[37] The Europeans exploited the continent of Africa for centuries. The "Gold Coast" is named because of its large supply of gold. The British conquered the Ashanti groups there in 1867 during the Ashanti Wars, forcing King Kofi Karikari to flee and stealing all of the palace's treasures. The looting was so heavy in Nigeria, where there was a vast collection of bronzes, that the Nigerian national collection today is much smaller than the British and German foreign-held collections.[38]

In China, the British and French were rivals in conquering, and often split spoils even as they worked as rivals. In an act of retribution to a murder of British and French hostages by the Chinese, the Emperor's Summer Palace in Peking was destroyed. The accounts of the event are harrowing, and the loss of cultural property is incalculable.[39] During World War II, many areas of Europe were conquered by both Germany and the USSR; often called the "bloodlands" because the people, too, experienced massacre at least twice.[40] These areas experienced twice-over looting, making it extraordinarily difficult to posthumously figure out competing claims for ownership of property.[41]

Heritage venues, antiquities, artifacts, and other various expressions of a culture have long been connected to a historical, social, scientific, and aesthetic significance. Whichever form it takes shape, an important aspect of cultural heritage comes from the idea that it is a "source of individual and group identity, vitality, and solidarity. Heritage is a universal process by which humans maintain connections with our pasts, assert our similarities with and differences from one another, and tell our children and other young people what we think is important and deserves to be part of the future."[42] While many sites have been protected by international partnerships and institutions for the reasons mentioned above, there are still a number of iconic, ancient cities that have recently become victims to destruction as a result of war. "Physical destruction of culturally significant artifacts grants perpetrators the power to reject them as unimportant and to limit how well they can be known to future

[29] Ibid.
[30] Ibid.
[31] Ibid.
[32] Ibid.
[33] Ibid.
[34] Ibid.
[35] Ibid.
[36] Ibid.
[37] Ibid.
[38] Ibid.
[39] Ibid.
[40] Snyder, Timothy. *Bloodlands: Europe between Hitler and Stalin*. Basic Books, 2012.
[41] Greenfield, Jeanette. "The Spoils of War." *The Spoils of War: World War II and Its Aftermath: The Loss, Reappearance, and Recovery of Cultural Property*. New York: Harry N. Abrams, 1997. 34-38. Print.
[42] Welch, John R. "Cultural Heritage: What Is It? Why Is It Important?" *Intellectual Property Issues in Cultural Heritage Project*, Feb. 2014. https://www.sfu.ca/ipinch/sites/default/files/resources/fact_sheets/ipinch_chfactsheet_final.pdf

generations."[43] This deliberate act, better known as cultural cleansing, occurs for other incentives as well. Black market purchases have resulted in significant revenue and profit for the militias that engage in this type of illegal looting.[44] "This destruction of cultural heritage is not isolated; instead, it is expansive and transcends both time and geopolitical boundaries."[45]

The Destruction of Cultural Heritage by ISIL and the Response

During the ongoing conflict in Syria, which began in 2011, the deliberate destruction of cultural is prevalent. According to a study by the University Of Pennsylvania Museum Of Archaeology and Anthropology's Penn Cultural Heritage Center and the Smithsonian, five of Syria's six UNESCO World Heritage sites "exhibit significant damage" in high-resolution satellite imagery.[46] In 2013, all six of these sites were placed on the UNESCO World Heritage in Danger list. Comparisons of pre-conflict and present satellite images revealed damage to some structures, as well as complete destruction in other areas that experienced the heaviest fighting. The city of Aleppo is notable among this last category, but affected areas also include Raqqa, Palmyra, Bosra, and Damascus.[47]

Iraq experienced significant destruction of cultural heritage during the conflict in the first decade of the twenty-first century. Just like Syria, the systematic actions of the Islamic State of the Levant (ISIL) are affecting its cultural heritage currently.[48] Three of Iraq's four UNESCO World Heritage Sites are on the World Heritage in Danger list.[49] In Iraq, ISIS is also looting the heritage sites for antiquities to sell on the black market.[50] The areas actively affected include Hatra, Mosul, Ninevah, and Nimrud.[51]

Though the destruction is staggering, there are actions being taken to protect what remains of the cultural heritage in Syria and Iraq, and to prepare for justice when the conflict does cease. Professor Katharyn Hanson, who works as a postdoctoral fellow at the University of Pennsylvania's Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology, has been studying this destruction and teaching locals how to defend their property with emergency measures.[52] She works with the Safeguarding the Heritage of Syria and Iraq (SHOSI) to compile a damage database of the area.[53] SHOSI's mission is to "develop specific interventions that enhance the ability to protect Syria's cultural heritage, in large measure by empowering the Syrians to preserve their own heritage."[54] The goal is also geared toward easing the post-conflict reconstruction process: "Efforts taken now to document and protect Syria's cultural heritage will pay off in the future by reducing post-conflict tensions between these various ethnic and religious groups."[55] Hanson and SHOSI are is working to record all losses, for the purposes of future knowledge of what the sites used to look like and for use in future war-crimes prosecution processes.[56] This database has already identified over 1200 sites of "key cultural, religious, and historical importance" in Syria.[57]

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[43] Van Bokkem, Rachel. "History in Ruins: Cultural Heritage Destruction around the World."*Perspectives on History*, American Historical Association, Apr. 2017, www.historians.org/publications-and-directories/perspectives-on-history/april-2017/history-in-ruins-cultural-heritage-destruction-around-the-world.

[44] Ibid.

[45] Ibid.

[46] "Ancient History, Modern Destruction: Assessing the Current Status of Syria's World Heritage Sites Using High-Resolution Satellite Imagery." *AAAS - The World's Largest General Scientific Society*, 14 June 2017, www.aaas.org/page/ancient-history-modern-destruction-assessing-current-status-syria-s-world-heritage-sites-using .

[47] Ibid.

[48] Buffenstein, Alyssa. "A Monumental Loss: Here Are the Most Significant Cultural Heritage Sites Destroyed by ISIS." *Artnet News*, Artnet News, 30 May 2017, news.artnet.com/art-world/isis-cultural-heritage-sites-destroyed-950060.

[49] Ibid.

[50] Ibid.

[51] Ibid.

[52] Berger, Michele. "University of Pennsylvania." *Protecting Cultural Heritage Sites in Syria and Iraq*, University of Pennsylvania, www.upenn.edu/spotlights/protecting-cultural-heritage-sites-syria-and-iraq

[53] Ibid.

[54] "Syria." *Syria | Penn Cultural Heritage Center*, Penn Cultural Heritage Center, www.pennchc.org/page/syria

[55] Ibid.

[56] Ibid.

[57] Ibid.

Some laws have been passed by Member State legislatures as well. On May 9, 2016, the "Protect and Preserve International Cultural Property Act" (Public Law No: 114-151) was passed by the United States Congress.[58] This law creates an interagency coordinating committee to coordinate efforts to "protect and preserve international property at risk from political instability, armed conflict, or natural or other disasters."[59] Section 3 is specifically for Emergency Protection For Syrian Cultural Property, and it imposes import restrictions respecting any "archaeological or ethnological material" of Syria.[60]

The United Nations Security Council has deplored the destruction multiple times, most recently in Resolution 2347 (2017), in which it "recalled its condemnation of any engagement in trade involving the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant…"[61]

In Iraq, the first UN resolution passed was S/RES.1483 on May 5, 2003; since then, there have been 11 related resolutions passed by UN bodies regarding heritage destruction in Iraq.[62] In Syria, the first UNSC resolution passed was S/RES.2139 (2014).[63] Since then, the UNSC has passed three additional resolution and reports regarding heritage destruction in Syria.[64] UNESCO's Observatory of Syrian Cultural Heritage provides information on joint statements, EU actions, partner initiatives, and other work relating to the protection of cultural heritage in Syria.[65]

UN and Global Initiatives

One of the earliest attempts to protect cultural sites came with the 1931 Athens Charter for the Restoration of Historic Monuments, developed and adopted by the First International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments.[66] The Athens Charter outlined seven resolutions called the "Carta del Restauro," which covered the creation of organizations for restoration advice; proper oversight for restoration projects to avoid the loss of "character and historical values"; the need for national legislation to preserve historic sites; the call to rebury sites that were not to be immediately restored to keep them protected; the allowance of "modern techniques and materials" in the restoration process; maintaining strict protection for historical sites; and extending protection to areas around historical sites.[67]   The Roerich Pact and Banner of Peace expanded even further on this in 1935, declaring the importance of protecting "all nationally and privately owned immovable monuments which form the cultural treasure of peoples" not only during times of peace, but also during times of war.[68]

Cultural heritage was first defined by the United Nations at the 1954 Hague Convention as "movable or immovable property of great importance to the cultural heritage of every people...buildings whose main and effective purpose is to preserve or exhibit the movable cultural property defined [above]...[and] centers containing a large amount of

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[58] Public Law 114-151- May 9, 2016. 130 STAT. 369. "Protect and Preserve International Cultural Property Act."
https://www.congress.gov/114/plaws/publ151/PLAW-114publ151.pdf
[59] Ibid.
[60] Ibid.
[61] "Security Council Condemns Destruction, Smuggling of Cultural Heritage by Terrorist Groups, Unanimously Adopting Resolution 2347 (2017) | Meetings Coverage and Press Releases." *United Nations*, United Nations, 24 Mar. 2017, www.un.org/press/en/2017/sc12764.doc.htm
[62] "Resolutions Regarding Heritage Destruction in Iraq." *Resolutions Regarding Heritage Destruction in Iraq | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*, UNESCO, www.unesco.org/new/en/iraq-office/culture/resolutions-regarding-heritage-destruction-in-iraq/.
[63] "UN Security Council Resolutions." *UN Security Council Resolutions | UNESCO*, UNESCO, en.unesco.org/syrian-observatory/statements-decisions/un-security-resolutions
[64] Ibid.
[65] "Decisions Taken by the Council of the European Union." *Decisions Taken by the Council of the European Union | UNESCO*, UNESCO, en.unesco.org/syrian-observatory/statements-decisions/decisions-taken-by-the-council-of-the-european-union
[66] "The Athens Charter for the Restoration of Historical Monuments – 1931," International Council on Monuments and Sites, http://www.icomos.org/en/charters-and-texts/179-articles-en-francais/ressources/charters-and-standards/167-the-athens-charter-for-the-restoration-of-historic-monuments (accessed June 6, 2017).
[67] Ibid.
[68] "Roerich Pact and Banner of Peace." *Nicholas Roerich Museum New York*, http://www.roerich.org/roerich-pact.php

cultural property as defined [above]."[69] The definition of cultural heritage was further expanded in Article 1 of the 1972 "Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage" as covering three separate sections: monuments, groups of buildings, and sites.[70] Monuments included "architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science."[71] Groups of buildings included "groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science."[72]Lastly, sites included "works of man or the combined works of nature and man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological point of view."[73]

Current Legislation

Until after WWI, it was very rare to find explicit protection of cultural property in legislation dedicated solely to that purpose. It is, however, possible to find allusions to the concept in guides of warfare. In the 1907 Convention (IV) Respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land and its Annex: Regulations Concerning the Laws and Customs of War on Land, there are mentions of the destruction of property as a violation of the laws and customs of war.[74] In Section II (Hostilities), Chapter One, Article 23, section G, the 1907 Convention notes that it is forbidden "to destroy or seize the enemy's property, unless such destruction or seizure be imperatively demanded by the necessities of war."[75] Article 25 of the same section notes that "the attack or bombardment, by whatever means, of towns, villages, dwellings, or buildings which are undefended is prohibited," indicating that if cultural property is undefended or, as noted later in this piece, emblemized as protected and thus undefended, to attack it is forbidden under international law.[76] Article 27 more explicitly states that: "In sieges and bombardments all necessary steps must be taken to spare, as far as possible, buildings dedicated to religion, art, science, or charitable purposes, historic monuments… provided they are not being used at the time for military purposes. It is the duty of the besieged to indicate the presence of such buildings or places by distinctive and visible signs, which shall be notified to the enemy beforehand."[77]

The Convention also discusses territory that has been occupied. Provisions in the Convention include Article 47, which formally forbids pillage of occupied territory, and Article 53, which requires the safeguarding of public property of the occupied territory, and includes the provision that these must be administered "in accordance with the rules of usufruct."[78] The definition of usufruct is: "the right to enjoy the use and advantages of another's property short of the destruction or waste of its substance."[79] Finally, Article 56 of the 1907 Convention states that "property of municipalities, that if institutions dedicated to religion, charity and education, the arts and sciences, even when State property, shall be treated as private property. All seizure of, destruction or willful damage done to institutions of this character, historic monuments, works of art and science, is forbidden, and should be made the subject of legal proceedings."[80]

One of the pioneers of the movement to protect cultural monuments was Nicholas Roerich. Roerich, born in St.

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[69] Article 1. *Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict with Regulations for the Execution of the Convention 1954*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. May 14, 1954. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13637&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

[70] Article 1. *Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage*. United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. November 16, 1972. http://whc.unesco.org/en/conventiontext/

[71] Ibid.

[72] Ibid.

[73] Ibid.

[74] *Treaties, States Parties, and Commentaries - Hague Convention (IV) on War on Land and Its Annexed Regulations, 1907*. N.p., n.d. Web. https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/ihl/INTRO/195

[75] Ibid.

[76] Ibid.

[77] Ibid.

[78] Ibid.

[79] "Usufruct." *Merriam-Webster*. Merriam-Webster, n.d. Web. https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/usufruct

[80] *Treaties, States Parties, and Commentaries - Hague Convention (IV) on War on Land and Its Annexed Regulations, 1907*. N.p., n.d. Web. https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/ihl/INTRO/195

Petersburg, Russia in 1874, was an artist who studied in Russia and worked throughout Europe and America. Roerich was an advocate of culture and of the protection of culture, specifically the obligation of mankind to develop culture and subsequently protect it.[81] Following World War I and suspecting another war, Roerich developed a pact for the protection of culture in times of conflict in the early 1930s. This became known as "Roerich's Pact," or, officially, the Treaty on the Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historic Monuments.[82] Roerich himself wrote in his journals of the pact, "A pact for protection of cultural treasures is not only needed as an official body, but as an educational law that, from the very first school days, will educate the young generation with noble ideas of preservation of the whole of mankind's true values."[83]

The concept was first given legislative form on December 16, 1933 at the Seventh International Conference of American States in Montivideo. The official document was ratified by 21 states of the Americas in Washington, DC on April 15, 1935.[84] The Pact recognized cultural property (in this case not defined, as it would later be in the Hague Convention) as neutral ground and therefore respected and protected by "belligerents."[85] In addition, the Pact established a identifying sign (a red circle with a triple sphere on a white background) to be displayed on such neutral territories, a concept that would be copied in later cultural protection legislation.[86] Roerich's Pact became the basis for the 1954 Hague Convention.[87]

The first international legislation that focuses solely on the protection of cultural property, including books and libraries, came in the wake of the devastating destruction of cultural property in World War II. In 1954 the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization agreed upon the Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of an Armed Conflict, and in 1956 the Convention went into effect.[88] The preamble states that UNESCO is "…convinced that damage to cultural property belonging to any people whatsoever means damage to the cultural heritage of all mankind, since each people makes its contribution to the culture of the world…"[89]

Most importantly, the Convention defines cultural property as:

- Movable or immovable property of great importance to the cultural heritage of every people, such as monuments of architecture, art or history, whether religious or secular; archaeological sites; groups of buildings which, as a whole, are of historical or artistic interest; works of art; manuscripts, books and other objects of artistic, historical or archaeological interest; as well as scientific collections and important collections of books or archives or of reproductions of the property defined above;
- Buildings whose main and effective purpose is to preserve or exhibit the movable cultural property defined in sub-paragraph (a) such as museums, large libraries and depositories of archives, and refuges intended to shelter, in the event of armed conflict, the movable cultural property defined in sub-paragraph (a);
- Centers containing a large amount of cultural property as defined in sub-paragraphs (a) and (b), to be known as 'centers containing monuments'.[90]

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[81] "Nicholas Roerich Museum New York." *Nicholas Roerich Biographical Outline*. Nicholas Roerich Museum, n.d. Web. http://www.roerich.org/roerich-biography.php

[82] Ibid.

[83] "Nicholas Roerich - Page 3." *International Centre of the Roerichs*. N.p., n.d. Web. http://en.icr.su/family/nkr/03.php

[84] "Nicholas Roerich Museum New York." *Roerich Pact and Banner Of Peace*. Nicholas Roerich Museum New York, n.d. Web. http://www.roerich.org/roerich-pact.php

[85] "Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historic Monuments." (n.d.): n. pag. Web. https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/ihl/INTRO/325?OpenDocument

[86] Ibid.

[87] "Nicholas Roerich Museum New York." *Roerich Pact and Banner Of Peace*. Nicholas Roerich Museum New York, n.d. Web. http://www.roerich.org/roerich-pact.php

[88] *1954 Hague Convention | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*. UNESCO, n.d. Web. http://www.unesco.org/new/en/culture/themes/armed-conflict-and-heritage/convention-and-protocols/1954-hague-convention/

[89] *Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict with Regulations for the Execution of the Convention*. UNESCO, n.d. Web. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13637&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

[90] Ibid.

The Convention outlines the processes for the protection of cultural property during conflict, both international and otherwise, as well as procedures to follow in peacetime in preparation for impending conflict.[91]

In the same year, 1954, the First Protocol to the Convention was passed. This Protocol covers the exportation and importation of cultural property into other territories, including procedures for the return of cultural property at the cessation of conflict.[92] It also ensures that "such property shall never be retained as war reparations," a clear concession to post-World War occurrences.[93] A Second Protocol to the Convention was passed in 1999, in response to criminal acts against cultural property in the second half of the twentieth century, in addition to various conflicts in the 1990s that resulted in vast destruction of cultural property across the globe. This included the siege of Dubrovnik in Croatia and the destruction of Mostar in Bosnia-Herzegovina, both acts incurred in the violent breakup of the former Yugoslavia.

The Second Protocol reaffirms the significance of cultural property as military targets, and directs hostile parties to refrain from using cultural property as military objectives.[94] Though it urges Member States and involved parties to protect cultural property and instill preemptive protections, it also institutes the possibility of "enhanced protection."[95] Any party that believes a respective cultural property be granted "enhanced protection" status may submit a request for the granting of this status; after review, the status will be granted and the site will be submitted to universal immunity.[96] Furthermore, the Second Protocol offers guidelines for the criminal prosecution of anyone in violation of the guidelines set in the Convention and Protocols. In Chapter Four, Article 15, the Second Protocol outlines what it considers to be "Serious Violations of this Protocol:"

- Making cultural property under enhanced protection the object of attack;
- Using cultural property under enhanced protection or its immediate surroundings in support of military action;
- Extensive destruction or appropriation of cultural property protected under the Convention and this Protocol;
- Making cultural property protected under the Convention and this Protocol the object of attack;
- Theft, pillage or misappropriation of, or acts of vandalism directed against cultural property protected under the Convention.[97]

Lastly, Article 24 of the Second Protocol to the Convention establishes the Committee for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict.[98] This Committee consists of twelve parties and meets once a year, in addition to extraordinary sessions "whenever it deems necessary."[99] This Committee is responsible for the implementation of the Second Protocol, including but not limited to the granting of "enhanced protection" status and the dissemination of the Fund for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict, established in Article 29 of the Second Protocol.[100]

Though the Second Protocol and the initial Convention apply to international and national conflicts, they do not apply to situations of internal disturbances "such as riots, isolated and sporadic acts of violence and other acts of similar nature."[101] Furthermore, the Second Protocol explicitly states that "nothing in this Protocol should be invoked as a justification for intervening, directly or indirectly, for any reason whatever, in the armed conflict or in

[91] Ibid.
[92] *Protocol to the Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict*. UNESCO, n.d. Web.
    http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=15391&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
[93] Ibid.
[94] *Second Protocol to the Hague Convention of 1954 for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict*.
    UNESCO, n.d. Web. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-
    URL_ID=15207&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
[95] Ibid.
[96] Ibid.
[97] Ibid.
[98] Ibid.
[99] Ibid.
[100] Ibid.
[101] Ibid.

the internal or external affairs of the Party in the territory of which that conflict occurs."[102] This means that a party cannot intervene in a conflict for the reason of protecting cultural property, however devastating the damage. It is evident here that there are significant gaps in international law regarding the protection of cultural property.

The Hague Convention actively has an impact in the international community. In addition to the Committee for the Protection of Cultural Property, the Hague Convention resulted in the founding of the International Committee of the Blue Shield (ICBS) to promote the protection of cultural property, as defined above. The symbol agreed upon by the Hague Convention to designate cultural property became known as the Blue Shield, from which this Committee gets its namesake. The ICBS promotes the Hague Convention, encourages the protection of cultural property, trains experts on prevention, control, and recovery from conflicts and disasters, advises bodies on the protection of cultural heritage, and consults with various organizations.[103] The Organization has twenty Blue Shield Committees globally and nineteen more in formative stages.[104] The Association of National Committees of the Blue Shield (ANCBS) was founded in 2008 to coordinate the growing efforts and is headquartered in The Hague, Netherlands. The ICBS actively coordinates the networks of the International Council on Archives (ICS), the International Council of Museums (ICOM), the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA), the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS), and the Coordinating Council of Audiovisual Archives Association (CCAAA), a network it uses to collect and share information on threats to cultural property, raise public awareness about damage to cultural heritage, promote risk management at all levels of government and society, and identify resources for disaster prevention and rapid intervention in emergency situations.[105]

In 1970, UNESCO passed the Convention on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Import, Export and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property.[106] This Convention recognizes that it is "essential for every State to become increasingly alive to the moral obligations to respect its own cultural heritage and that of all nations," and not only states that, within the guidelines of the convention, the export or transfer of ownership of cultural property is illicit, but also urges all signing parties to the Convention to form national services for the protection of cultural heritage.[107] Furthermore, the Convention establishes the following definition for cultural property:

- Rare collections and specimens of fauna, flora, minerals and anatomy, and objects of paleontological interest;
- Property relating to history, including the history of science and technology and military and social history, to the life of national leaders, thinkers, scientists and artists and to events of national importance;
- Products of archaeological excavations (including regular and clandestine) or of archaeological discoveries;
- Elements of artistic or historical monuments or archaeological sites which have been dismembered;
- Antiquities more than one hundred years old, such as inscriptions, coins and engraved seals;
- Objects of ethnological interest;
- Property of artistic interest;
- Pictures, paintings and drawings produced entirely by hand on any support and in any material (excluding industrial designs and manufactured articles decorated by hand);
- Original works of statuary art and sculpture in any material;
- Original engravings, prints and lithographs;
- Original artistic assemblages and montages in any material;
- Rare manuscripts and incunabula, old books, documents and publications of special interest (historical, artistic, scientific, literary, etc.) singly or in collections;
- Postage, revenue and similar stamps, singly or in collections;
- Archives, including sound, photographic and cinematographic archives;
- Articles of furniture more than one hundred years old and old musical instruments.[108]

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[102] Ibid.
[103] *International Committee of the Blue Shield (ICBS)*. Blue Shield International, n.d. Web. http://www.ancbs.org/cms/en/about-us/about-icbs
[104] Ibid.
[105] Ibid.
[106] *Convention on the Means of Prohibiting and Preventing the Illicit Import, Export and Transfer of Ownership of Cultural Property*. UNESCO, n.d. Web. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13039&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
[107] Ibid.
[108] Ibid.

In 1972, UNESCO adopted the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage.[109] Whereas the 1956 Hague Convention defines cultural property, the 1972 UNESCO Convention establishes the following definition for cultural heritage:

- Monuments: architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;
- Groups of buildings: groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;
- Sites: works of man or the combined works of nature and man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological point of view.[110]

This Convention urged all Member States to establish a protocol for the protection of national and cultural heritage, through various measures.[111] In addition, Section III, Article 8 of the UNESCO Convention establishes the World Heritage Committee, intended to act as an intergovernmental committee for the protection of the cultural and natural heritage of outstanding universal value.[112] It was originally composed of fifteen Member States and meets during the ordinary UNESCO session. It also allowed members of the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (Rome Centre), ICOMOS, and the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) to attend the meetings in an advisory capacity.[113]

As part of the Convention, all parties were required at its inception to submit to the World Heritage Committee a full inventory of "property forming part of the cultural and natural heritage" within its borders and suitable for inclusion in the list of properties "having outstanding universal value in terms of such criteria as it shall have established."[114] The list was to be updated every two years. Per respect of the principles of sovereignty, the inclusion of a site in the World Heritage List requires the consent of its respective Member State.[115] In addition to this general inventory of cultural property, the Convention also calls for a "list of World Heritage in Danger", which will specifically highlight areas in immediate danger of disappearance or damage.[116] Member States can apply for requests of aid and assistance from the Committee, and the committee will review the requests and determine an order of priorities for its operations.[117] Operations are funded by the Fund for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, also known as the "World Heritage Fund," established in Section IV Article 15.[118]

At the time of the writing of this piece, there are 1073 properties on the World Heritage List, and 167 Member States party to the Convention.[119] 54 of these properties are on the World Heritage in Danger list.[120] Though the body of existing legislation is extensive, there is still active debate on whether or not the destruction of cultural heritage constitutes a war crime. Under the Rome Statute of 1998, established by the International Criminal Court (ICC), the act of destroying cultural sites can be prosecuted as a war crime.[121] Ahmad Al Faqi Al Mahdi was prosecuted by the ICC in September of 2016 for leading the active destruction of cultural heritage sites in Mali, setting precedent for

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[109] "Convention Concerning The Protection Of The World Cultural And Natural Heritage." (n.d.): n. pag. UNESCO. Web. http://whc.unesco.org/en/conventiontext/
[110] Ibid.
[111] Ibid.
[112] Ibid.
[113] Ibid.
[114] Ibid.
[115] Ibid.
[116] Ibid.
[117] Ibid.
[118] Ibid.
[119] "World Heritage List." *UNESCO World Heritage Centre*. UNESCO, n.d. Web.
[120] Ibid.
[121] "Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court." *International Criminal Court*, doi:https://www.icc-cpi.int/nr/rdonlyres/ea9aeff7-5752-4f84-be94-0a655eb30e16/0/rome_statute_english.pdf

future cases.[122] [123]Prior to this case, the International Criminal Tribunal of the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY), which has the same legal power as the ICC, prosecuted the criminals responsible for destroying heritage sites in the former Yugoslavia.[124] It is still a matter of debate, however, as some parties argue that it takes resources and focus away from prosecuting crimes against people themselves.[125]

Conclusion and Committee Directive

Thomas Jefferson once said: "Let us save what remains: not by vaults and locks which fence them from the public eye and us in consigning them to the waste of time, but by such a multiplication of copies, as shall place them beyond the reach of accident." This is a beautiful sentiment, and we should recognize that time and history leave only remains to speak to their existence. Unfortunately, we cannot multiply many pieces of what remains of cultural heritage; we cannot multiply archaeological sites, or masterpieces of architecture, or the many Old Towns protected by UNESCO.

Given these observations, it is evident that Member States, in conjunction with relevant bodies, must institute policy practices that will protect cultural heritage from destruction. Some topics of consideration include: How do Member States incentivize programs that protect cultural sites? What do individual Member States think about persecution? Should the destruction of cultural heritage be considered a war crime under international law? What is the moral imperative to protect cultural heritage sites- or is there even a moral imperative at all? Is the protection of cultural heritage an obligation? What policies could be instituted to make it a priority? It is this committee's directive to review and establish recommendations that will advance this goal, in hopes of preventing such devastating destruction of cultural property in future conflicts.

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[122] Daniels, Brian, and Helen Walasek. "Is the Destruction of Cultural Property a War Crime?"*Apollo Magazine*, 30 Nov. 2016, www.apollo-magazine.com/is-the-destruction-of-cultural-property-a-war-crime/
[123] "The Slow Acceptance That Destroying Cultural Heritage Is a War Crime." *The Economist*, The Economist Newspaper, 29 Sept. 2016, www.economist.com/blogs/erasmus/2016/09/cultural-patrimony-and-laws-war
[124] Ibid.
[125] Ibid.

II.   Addressing the Global Economic Effects of Natural Disasters

Introduction

Natural disasters stem from high-severity natural or socio-natural hazards that range from biological, environmental, geological, geophysical, or hydrometeorological hazards.[126] The United Nations (UN) defines a disaster as a "serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society at any scale due to hazardous events interacting with conditions of exposure, vulnerability and capacity, leading to one or more of the following: human, material, economic and environmental losses and impacts."[127] Disaster effects are typically widespread and continue over extended periods of time. In addition, they often require assistance from sources beyond an affected society, due to an inability to address it adequately.[128]

As the global economy continues to grow, the impact of natural disasters has become increasingly devastating. Since 1980, the number of natural disasters recorded has doubled.[129] In 1991, 542 natural disasters were reported; in 2002, 919 natural disasters were reported; and 1,100 natural disasters were reported in 2010.[130] As the occurrence of natural disasters has increased, so have their costs. Between 1991 and 2010, the average annual loss caused by natural disasters was USD 117 billion, while not considering indirect costs; these could drive the estimates up to 50 percent higher than reported, especially when considering unreported losses in Member States with lower incomes.[131] As of 2015, the average economic loss from natural disasters ranges from USD 250 billion to USD 300 billion, while future losses are expected to rise to USD 314 billion.[132] In an increasingly globalized economy, investments in areas disproportionately exposed to natural disasters pose a significant threat; their impacts spread with greater force through the global supply chain and across various economic sectors.[133]

The Asia-Pacific region is especially at risk regarding natural disasters with nearly half of the recorded natural disasters of 2015 occurring within the area.[134] Exactly 346 natural disasters took place in the Asia-Pacific region during 2015, which caused an estimated USD 65.2 billion in damages.[135] This regionally-based risk was highlighted especially after the 2011 earthquake in Japan, which caused a tsunami, a nuclear disaster, and ultimately regional economic losses of USD 295 billion. That loss equated to "80 percent of global losses due to disasters in 2011."[136] In the Asia-Pacific region, the average number of persons exposed to yearly flooding went from 29.5 million to 63.8 million between 1970 and 2010, while those exposed to cyclones grew from 71.8 million to 120.7 million.[137] The Asia-Pacific region also contains more than 85 percent of the global economic exposure to cyclones because of increased economic growth along flood plains and coastlines.[138] Private citizens and communities in the Asia-Pacific region are hardest hit by natural disasters, as was the case in 2009 when 50 percent of the USD 58 million in damages caused by Typhoon Ketsana was borne by small farmers in Laos.[139] The typhoon originated in the Western

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[126] "Terminology." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/we/inform/terminology (accessed June 25, 2017).

[127] Ibid.

[128] Ibid.

[129] Charlene Watson et. al. "Finance for reducing disaster risk: 10 things to know," Overseas Development Institute, https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/9480.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[130] Ibid.

[131] Ibid.

[132] *Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015*. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. (accessed June 24, 2017).

[133] Ibid.

[134] A/71/82-E/2016/60. *Strengthening of the coordination of emergency humanitarian assistance of the United Nations: report of the Secretary-General*. United Nations Economic and Social Council. (accessed June 24, 2017).

[135] Ibid.

[136] "Un report finds disasters taking heavy toll on economic development in Asia-Pacific." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/archive/29286 (accessed June 25, 2017).

[137] "Reducing Vulnerability and Exposure to Disasters: The Asia-Pacific Disaster Report 2012." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/files/29288_apdr2012finallowres.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[138] Ibid.

[139] Ibid.

Pacific Ocean in late September 2009 proved to be one of the most destructive typhoons in recent history, affecting the Philippines, Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, and Thailand.[140] The destruction of agricultural area contributed greatly to the economic destruction; in Thailand alone, 821,300 acres were destroyed by Ketsana, which added to the USD 20.3 million in damages.[141]

Natural Hazards and Vulnerability

The economic impact of natural disasters is not globally universal.[142] The type of natural disaster itself carries varying risks that are especially prevalent in specific regions. Earthquakes, for example, do not occur frequently, cause substantial loss over large areas, and have the highest relative risk in areas of Latin America, the Caribbean, the Middle East, and North America. Tropical cyclones cause a global average annual loss of USD 80 million and occur predominantly in the Western Pacific region. The global average annual loss for tsunamis is USD 530 million, with the lower average attributed to the strictly coastal risks particularly in the Asia-Pacific region.[143] Small island, developing Member States are extremely susceptible to disaster risks because of their economies, their regional location, and their size.[144]

Climate change is occurring at a rate much higher than most scientific predictions, which has also affected natural disasters.[145] Climate change creates new levels of vulnerability because of the inevitable impact it will have on future disasters, such as "increased warm spells, heavy precipitation events, increased area affected by droughts, and tropical cyclone activity, among other possible phenomenon."[146] Of the recorded major disasters between 1995 and 2015, 90 percent were linked to climate change.[147] The 2012 *Special Report of the IPCC on disaster risk and climate adaptation* notes that climate change will have an increasingly influential role in the impacts of natural disasters, especially in more vulnerable areas. Estimates conclude that the future will bring "likely (>66 per cent) to virtually certain (>99 per cent) probability of further changes to the global climate."[148] The effects of climate change on the strength and frequency of natural disasters is significant as well. In the case of tropical typhoons, maximum wind speeds are expected to increase, as well as heavy rainfalls accompanied by continued warming.[149] Furthermore, scientists suggest that global warming may bypass a 2- degree Celsius rise above what has been regarded as the maximum level to avoid dangerous floods, heat waves, and sea levels.[150] These rising temperatures will only contribute further to greater numbers of flooding and droughts.[151]

The economic structure of a Member State also contributes to economic vulnerability.[152] Economies that tend to be smaller, or not as diverse, are more vulnerable to disaster risks.[153] Furthermore, the global economy is threatened by

[140] "Synthesis Report on the Ten ASEAN Countries Disaster Risk Assessment." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/files/18872_asean.pdf (accessed August 1, 2017).

[141] Ibid.

[142] *Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015*. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, (accessed June 24, 2017).

[143] Ibid.

[144] Ibid.

[145] "Climate Change and Disasters." The UN Refugee Agency, http://www.unhcr.org/en-us/climate-change-and-disasters.html (accessed July 21, 2017).

[146] "Reducing Vulnerability and Exposure to Disasters: The Asia-Pacific Disaster Report 2012." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/files/29288_apdr2012finallowres.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[147] "Climate Change Adaptation." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/we/advocate/climate-change (accessed July 21, 2017).

[148] "Reducing Vulnerability and Exposure to Disasters: The Asia-Pacific Disaster Report 2012." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/files/29288_apdr2012finallowres.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[149] Ibid.

[150] "Climate Change: Adaptation critical as global warming accelerates." United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/events/tenstories/08/climatechange.shtml (accessed July 21, 2017).

[151] Ibid.

[152] "Reducing Vulnerability and Exposure to Disasters: The Asia-Pacific Disaster Report 2012." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/files/29288_apdr2012finallowres.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[153] Ibid.

natural disasters because of the risk of supply chain disruptions.[154] Businesses who are "[driven] by trade and investment liberalization and continued cost reduction pressures from customers" to expand across the globe put themselves at greater disaster risk of supply chain disruption, even if the natural disaster occurs in another part of the world.[155] Rapid urbanization further expands a society's vulnerability.[156] Ten of the world's twenty megacities were in the Asia-Pacific region in 2011, with the most rapid urbanization occurring in some of the poorest countries.[157] A lack of urban infrastructure in these regions further heightens the threat of catastrophic economic loss.[158] As vulnerability has increased worldwide, so has economic loss, emphasizing the need for plans to reduce vulnerability.[159]

History

The United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) began to address the issue of natural disasters by adopting measures to respond to "severe" disasters."[160] Such measures included the adoption of Resolution 1753 in response to the Buyin-Zara earthquake in Iran in 1962; Resolution 1882 in response to the earthquake in Skoplje, Yugoslavia in 1963; Resolution 1888 in response to the hurricane that struck Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago in 1963; and Resolution 2378 regarding another earthquake in Iran in 1968.[161] While these resolutions did not outline specific and outstanding frameworks to follow in terms of disaster risk reduction, they did mark the first attempts by the UN to acknowledge and provide assistance to varying natural disasters as they occurred and encouragement of assistance from global partners.[162]

From 1970 to 1986, the UNGA focused more specifically on offering assistance in response to natural disasters.[163] These efforts included Resolution 2717 in 1970, which explicitly invites the Secretary-General to submit recommendations for "pre-disaster planning on the national and international levels" and research into how to prevent or control natural disasters.[164] In 1971, the UNGA passed Resolution 2816, which created the UN Disaster Relief Office (UNDRO).[165] The UNDRO was created to engage in relief coordination for natural disasters, focusing specifically on mobilizing emergency relief from donor sources.[166] The UNDRO also focused on disaster preparedness and planning, as well as disaster prevention through the promotion of scientific study.[167] A United Nations International Emergency Network was set up in UNDRO, with contributions for emergency relief exceeding USD 1.6 billion between 1986 and 1987.[168] The UNGA went on to pass Resolution 33/45 in 1974 to strengthen the UNDRO and in 1981 strengthened the capacity of the UN system with the adoption of Resolution 36/225 so that they could more effectively respond to natural disasters.[169] UNDRO was incorporated into the United Nations Department of Humanitarian affairs and ceased to exist in April 1992.[170]

In 1987, the UNGA adopted Resolution 24/169, in which they announced that that 1990s would be International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction, further outlining and progressing their commitment.[171] The International

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[154] Ibid.
[155] Ibid.
[156] Ibid.
[157] Ibid.
[158] Ibid.
[159] Ibid.
[160] "History." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/history (accessed June 25, 2017).
[161] Ibid.
[162] Ibid.
[163] Ibid.
[164] Ibid.
[165] *Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015*. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, (accessed June 24, 2017).
[166] "Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Coordinator (UNDRO)." Union of International Associations, https://www.uia.org/s/or/en/1100038437 (accessed July 21, 2017).
[167] Ibid.
[168] Ibid.
[169] "History." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/history (accessed June 25, 2017).
[170] Ibid.
[171] Ibid.

Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction began on 1 January 1990 in accordance with the adoption of Resolution 44/236.[172] With the adoption of Resolution 45/185 in 1990, the UNGA called for the implementation of an annex of Resolution 44/236 called the International Framework of Action for the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction "to establish national committees and reaffirm the need for the secretariat of the Decade to work in close co-operation with UNDRO."[173] The International Framework of Action was created to "reduce through concerted international action, especially in developing countries, the loss of life, property damage and social and economic disruptions caused by natural disasters."[174] The goals of the Framework were as follows: to improve each Member State's ability to effectively respond to the effects of natural disaster, specifically when it came to developing countries; to create guidelines and strategies to utilize scientific and technical knowledge; to invest in greater research "aimed at closing critical gaps in knowledge;" to spread existing knowledge for greater measurement, prediction, and mitigation efforts; and to create programs focused on specific disasters and locations to better understand natural disasters and how to prevent them.[175] In 1999, the UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR) was established as a dedicated secretariat to ensure the successful implementation of the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR).[176] Resolution 54/219 was adopted in 2000, allowing the ISDR to succeed the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction.[177]

In 2002, the Johannesburg Plan of Action was adopted, which placed greater focus on "mainstreaming" risk reduction into these areas and gave the ISDR its first direct set of objectives for sustainable development.[178] These objectives were as follows:

> *"Strengthening commitments to sustainable development; integration of the economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development in a balanced manner; strengthening of the implementation of Agenda 21, including through the mobilization of financial and technological resources, as well as capacity-building programs, particularly for developing countries; strengthening coherence, coordination and monitoring; promoting the rule of law and strengthening of governmental institutions; increasing effectiveness and efficiency through limiting overlap and duplication of activities of international organizations, within and outside the United Nations system, based on their mandates and comparative advantages; enhancing participation and effective involvement of civil society and other relevant stakeholders in the implementation of Agenda 21, as well as promoting transparency and broad public participation; strengthening capacities for sustainable development at all levels, including the local level, in particular those of developing countries; [and] strengthening international cooperation aimed at reinforcing the implementation of Agenda 21 and the outcomes of the Summit."[179]*

The objectives of the Johannesburg Plan of Action would serve as guidance for the ISDR and their partners to more effectively focus their attention on a more seamless integration of risk reduction into development programs and policies.[180]

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[172] *Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015*. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, (accessed June 24, 2017).

[173] "History." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/history (accessed June 25, 2017).

[174] A/RES/44/236. *International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction*. United Nations General Assembly. (accessed July 21, 2017).

[175] Ibid.

[176] "Who we are." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are (accessed June 25, 2017).

[177] *Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015*. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, (accessed June 24, 2017).

[178] "History." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/history (accessed June 25, 2017).

[179] "Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development." United Nations, http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/documents/WSSD_POI_PD/English/WSSD_PlanImpl.pdf (accessed July 21, 2017).

[180] "History." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/history (accessed June 25, 2017).

In 2005, the UNGA endorsed the Hyogo Declaration and the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015.[181] The Hyogo Framework had three strategic goals:

> *"The integration of disaster risk reduction into sustainable development policies and planning; development and strengthening of institutions, mechanisms and capacities to build resilience to hazards; [and] the systematic incorporation of risk reduction approaches into the implementation of emergency preparedness, response, and recovery programmes."[182]*

Furthermore, the Hyogo Framework had five priorities for action: ensuring that a disaster risk reduction is a priority on both the national and the local level; monitoring, assessing, and identifying disaster risk and bettering early warning systems; building a resilience at all levels through "knowledge, innovation and education;" reducing the risk factors behind natural disasters; and strengthening disaster preparedness for "effective response at all levels."[183] In 2015, the UN adopted the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 to replace the Hyogo Framework, thus expanding its goals to include lowering the mortality rate as well as reducing the economic losses.[184]

UN and Global Initiatives

The UN made a commitment that, throughout all of its development and humanitarian work, it will continue to address climate and disaster risks.[185] In terms of operations, "[the] UN is one of the world's largest multilateral development partners, channelling 17% of total official development assistance...[and is] leading efforts to integrate disaster risk reduction into key sectors such as agriculture, health, tourism, and water."[186] The UN has 29 organizations that contribute their knowledge, networks, and resources to help reduce disaster risk; 13 of these organizations declared disaster risk reduction a priority in their 2014-2017 strategic work plans.[187] UNISDR is the "focal point" in the UN system in terms of coordinating disaster reduction.[188] The Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015 marked the first major international coordination effort for the UNISDR, in which the UNISDR was tasked with guiding, monitoring, and reporting on the progress of its five goals: "ensuring that [disaster risk reduction] is a national and local priority; identifying disaster risks and enhance early warning; promote use of knowledge, innovation and education; reducing underlying risk factors; and strengthening preparedness for effective response."[189]

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 is the current coordination effort of UNISDR.[190] The Sendai Framework focuses on attaining the goal of substantially reducing disaster risk and the loss of lives, and aims to do so by implementing "integrated and inclusive economic, structural, legal, social, health, cultural, educational, environmental, technological, political, and institutional measures that prevent and reduce hazard exposure and vulnerability to disaster, [increasing] preparedness for response and recovery, and thus [strengthening] resilience."[191] The Sendai Framework has seven global targets, which are to: reduce global disaster mortality by 2030; reduce the number of persons affected globally by 2030; reduce direct disaster economic loss as it relates to global GDP by 2030; reduce disaster damage to "critical infrastructure" and disruption of "basic services" such as health and educational facilities through efforts such as "developing their resilience" by 2030; increase the number

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[181] Ibid.

[182] "Summary of the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters (Hyogo Framework)." http://www.unisdr.org/files/8720_summaryHFP20052015.pdf (accessed July 21, 2017).

[183] Ibid.

[184] "We coordinate." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/we/coordinate (accessed June 25, 2017).

[185] "UNISDR in the UN System." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/unisdr-in-un (accessed June 25, 2017).

[186] Ibid.

[187] Ibid.

[188] Ibid.

[189] "We coordinate." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/we/coordinate (accessed June 25, 2017).

[190] Ibid.

[191] "Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/files/43291_sendaiframeworkfordrren.pdf (accessed July 22, 2017).

of countries who have national and local disaster risk reduction strategies by 2030; enhance international cooperation to developing countries through "adequate and sustainable support" for their implementation of the Framework by 2030; and to increase the access and availability to "multi-hazard warning systems" and disaster risk information and assessment to people by 2030.[192] Furthermore, the Sendai Framework has four priorities of action, which are as follows: "understanding disaster risk; strengthening disaster risk governance to manage disaster risk; investing in disaster risk reduction for resilience; [and] enhancing disaster preparedness for effective response to to 'Build Back Better' in recovery, rehabilitation, and reconstruction."[193]

The UN recognizes the importance of engaging with diverse partners and networks to more successfully achieve their goals.[194] The UN finished their first five-year partnership framework with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations in 2015 that focused on the topics of disaster risk reduction, response, and recovery.[195] The UN assisted the Caribbean Disaster Emergency Management Agency as they responded to natural disasters in the Bahamas and Dominica, as well as gave technical support to the African Union as it adopted its own disaster management guidelines and humanitarian policy framework.[196] Furthermore, the UN worked to encourage financial support for specific crises with such regional organizations as the Organization of Islamic Cooperation and the League of Arab States.[197]

Conclusion

In the past 30 years, the number of recorded natural disasters has doubled.[198] The economic effects of these disasters have increased dramatically as well, accentuated by an increasingly globalized economy.[199] Disaster risk can manifest itself as regionally-based, such as was demonstrated by the 2011 earthquake in Japan and the subsequent regional and global economic devastation.[200] It can also manifest itself in the economic structure of a Member State, the risk of supply chain disruptions, and through climate change.[201] As such, the need for comprehensive disaster risk reduction is crucial. To address this need for effective disaster risk reduction, the UN has invested in developmental assistance into key sectors to avoid catastrophic economic loss should a natural disaster occur and has invested in organizations to contribute research, networks, and resources to further help reduce disaster risk.[202] UNISDR is the primary coordinating system that deals with disaster risk reduction, having guided, monitored, and reported the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015 and now the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030.[203]

Committee Directives

As delegates conduct research, they should be sure that they are very well-versed in their understanding of natural hazards, natural disasters, disaster risk reduction, and the global economy. They should consider the multitude of intersections that could put a Member State at a significant risk for natural disasters, and what those risks entail in a global economy. They should be mindful of the disaster risk reduction frameworks already in place and ask themselves where these frameworks need to be improved to further safeguard the global economy. What efforts

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[192] "Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/we/coordinate/sendai-framework (accessed July 22, 2017).

[193] Ibid.

[194] A/71/82-E/2016/60. *Strengthening of the coordination of emergency humanitarian assistance of the United Nations: report of the Secretary-General*. United Nations Economic and Social Council. (accessed June 24, 2017).

[195] Ibid.

[196] Ibid.

[197] Ibid.

[198] Charlene Watson et. al. "Finance for reducing disaster risk: 10 things to know," Overseas Development Institute, https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/9480.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[199] Ibid.

[200] "Un report finds disasters taking heavy toll on economic development in Asia-Pacific." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/archive/29286 (accessed June 25, 2017).

[201] "Reducing Vulnerability and Exposure to Disasters: The Asia-Pacific Disaster Report 2012." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific and United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, http://www.unisdr.org/files/29288_apdr2012finallowres.pdf (accessed June 24, 2017).

[202] "UNISDR in the UN System." United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, https://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/unisdr-in-un (accessed June 25, 2017).

[203] Ibid.

would be most effective in disaster risk reduction? What long term or short term investments should be made? In a world economy that continues to grow and interconnect Member States' economies with one another, what should the focus be?

Technical Appendix Guide (TAG)

Topic I: Protection of Cultural Heritage Sites in Conflict Zones

"Ancient History, Modern Destruction: Assessing the Current Status of Syria's World Heritage Sites Using High-Resolution Satellite Imagery." *AAAS - The World's Largest General Scientific Society*, 14 June 2017, www.aaas.org/page/ancient-history-modern-destruction-assessing-current-status-syria-s-world-heritage-sites-using.

> It is important to quantitatively assert the destruction of cultural heritage. The use of high-resolution satellite imagery here is useful to compare before and after images of the destruction in Syria and its World Heritage Sites. Included with each comparison is an in-depth analysis of the destruction, the images, and the science as it applies to each destroyed site.

Báez, Fernando and MacAdam, Alfred. *A Universal History of the Destruction of Books: From Ancient Sumer to Modern Iraq* (New York: Atlas, 2008).

> This book explores the universal history of the destruction of books, from ancient Rome to the Iraq War in the early 21st century. The destruction of books by conflict is predominant, though the author also covers the destruction of books by looting, by natural disaster, and by environmental problems. This resource is very useful for a background on libricide and an emphasis on the place books and libraries have in the discussion on cultural heritage.

"Cultural Property: Protection of Iraqi and Syrian Antiquities." *United States Government Accountability Office*, GAO, no. 16, ser. 673, Aug. 2016. *673*, doi: http://www.gao.gov/assets/680/679061.pdf

> This document is an exhaustive study of varying views on the protection of Iraqi and Syrian cultural property, including those of art market experts. It also includes activities by U.S. agencies to protect cultural property since 2011, and suggestion as to what could be done further. Included are documents and resources for further research. This is useful to students of the destruction of cultural heritage because not only is it a well-done study of the situation in Iraq and Syria as of 2016, but also it is an example of the actions Member States can take unilaterally to help in the international effort to protect cultural heritage.

Graham, Brian, and Peter Howard. *The Ashgate Research Companion to Heritage and Identity*. Ashgate, 2012.

> A useful resource for beginning to understand the links between property, culture, and identity. A recommended read for students new to the topic.

Greenfield, Jeanette. "The Spoils of War." *The Spoils of War: World War II and Its Aftermath: The Loss, Reappearance, and Recovery of Cultural Property*. New York: Harry N. Abrams, 1997. 34-38. Print.

> This book is an invaluable resource for scholars of the destruction and loss of cultural property. It is an amalgam of symposium presentations given in the mid-1990s at a conference focusing on the loss of cultural property in WWII. Each country affected and represented at the conference have a chapter included, making this a fantastic resource for individual country policy. Also included are pieces by archaeologists, lawyers, experts in the field, preservationists, and significant actors in the process of

recovering the loot in the aftermath of WWII. Included at the back of this book is a compilation of all relevant legal documents that relate to the protection of cultural heritage.

"Import Restrictions Imposed on Archaeological and Ethnological Material of Syria." *Federal Register*, US Customs and Border Protection and US Treasury, 15 Aug. 2016, www.federalregister.gov/documents/2016/08/15/2016-19491/import-restrictions-imposed-on-archaeological-and-ethnological-material-of-syria.

> It is important to recognize that individual Member States enact legislation with the aim of protecting cultural heritage. It is just as important to understand what this means. This document, issued by the United States Customs and Border Protection and the United States Treasury, describes in-depth those items that are included under the import restrictions pursuant to the Protect and Preserve International Cultural Property Act; this includes the Designated List of Archaeological and Ethnological Material of Syria. This resource is useful for students wishing to gain a highly technical understanding of the legislation.

O'Keefe, Roger. *The Protection of Cultural Property in Armed Conflict*. Cambridge University Press, 2006.

> A useful resource for students looking for an analysis of legal frameworks available internationally for use in the protection of cultural heritage. O'Keefe introduced the legislation, its respective history, and a detailed analysis.

II.   Addressing the Global Economic Effects of Natural Disasters

Browning, John and Thomas, Neil. (2016). 'An assessment of the tsunami risk in Muscat and Salalah, Oman, based on estimations of probable maximum loss', *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction* 16: 75-87, http://ac.els-cdn.com/S2212420915300881/1-s2.0-S2212420915300881-main.pdf?_tid=6e44838a-89c2-11e7-bbac-00000aab0f26&acdnat=1503685562_481890e063397cb876c391fda820b5c1

> This paper explores the tsunami risks that are present in the cities of Muscat and Salalah in Oman. The authors come to their conclusion by using technology, such as open source GIS and seismic databases, to quickly find the risk assessment, and the probable maximum loss. The authors note that their procedures would benefit Middle Eastern countries especially, as many of them do not have adequate disaster risk reduction programs.

"Disasters Without Borders: Regional Resilience for Sustainable Development: Asia-Pacific Disaster Report 2015." United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, http://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/publications/apdr2015-full.pdf

> The Asia-Pacific region is disproportionately affected by natural disasters each year. As such, there is an emphasis on studying the region specifically and finding effective disaster risk reduction policies that work best for the area. This report gives an extensive discussion of the various natural disasters that have taken place regionally, while simultaneously looking at factors that often augment the losses occuring from these disasters. The report also discusses specific risk reduction policies that are tailored to the region and aim for sustainable living, both in the short and long term, and more effective predictive measures to offset the losses in the Asia-Pacific region.

Donovan, Amy R. and Oppenheimer, Clive. (2015). 'Modelling risk and risking models: The diffusive boundary between science and policy in volcanic risk management', *Geoforum* 58: 153-165, http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0016718514002395/1-s2.0-S0016718514002395-main.pdf?_tid=26aab756-89c2-11e7-8edb-00000aacb360&acdnat=1503685442_bccb98a4219b6a551ab14a7c02866795

> It is imperative that, in researching disaster risk reduction policies, not all natural disasters are treated the same. This Report looks at the risk inherent in volcanic activity, drawing specifically from research on

volcanic activity at Montserrat, West Indies. The Paper notes that the intersection of the science of volcanic eruptions and the policies that must be formed to combat them are often overlapping, requiring a commitment to volcanic risk reduction that necessitates a reimagining of the relationship between science and policymaking. The focus on the specific type of natural disaster combined with the paper's discussion of how science and policy must work together is crucial to effectively crafting successful disaster risk reduction policy.

Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, http://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/gar/2015/en/gar-pdf/GAR2015_EN.pdf

The Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction is a United Nations report that addresses global natural disasters that details how disaster losses have affected the world both on a small and a large scale, the various risks that accompany and worsen the effects of natural disasters, and disaster risk reduction strategies. Its extensive research and data on global events as well as its analysis and discussion of various disaster risk reduction policies is invaluable for its scope and its depth.

Gnanapragasam, Sam; Aitsi-Selmi, Amina; Rashbrook, Elaine; and Murray, Virginia. (2016). 'Addressing non-communicable disaeas in disaster risk reduction – an issue of equity', *Journal of Epidemiology and Global Health* 6: 119-121, http://ac.els-cdn.com/S2210600615300617/1-s2.0-S2210600615300617-main.pdf?_tid=4a7044f8-89c2-11e7-87f7-00000aacb35f&acdnat=1503685502_1985cfb7435460a9385b3010cde315b9

One of the many challenges that natural disasters bring in their wake is the threat of disease. However, it is not only infectious diseases that can wreak havoc upon affected communities; problems driven by noncommunicable diseases are often a consequence of the immediate issues that follow natural disasters, especially in cases where health systems are affected. The Sendai Framework has called attention to noncommunicable diseases as well as health equity, but specific plans have not been established to combat these problems. The crafting of policy to address these issues is a necessity.

Jamieson, Thomas. (2016). 'Disastrous measures: Conceptualizing and measuring disaster risk reduction', *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction* 19: 399-412, http://ac.els-cdn.com/S2212420916303090/1-s2.0-S2212420916303090-main.pdf?_tid=32215400-89c2-11e7-aadd-00000aacb35f&acdnat=1503685461_1b945198e9479280bef573e6fb56c605

While there are a significant number of disaster risk reduction programs and policies already in place, there still remains a need for more extensive and more focused policies. This paper describes the need for theoretical frameworks to accurately compare the success of varying disaster risk reduction policies. The paper further outlines a survey about disaster risk reduction from citizens in California. The survey results indicated very few individuals had not planned or implemented any of these measures for themselves, emphasizing the necessity for an active and effective measurement system for the success of these policies so that researchers may find the most valuable disaster risk reduction policies.

Suppasri, Anawat; Leelawat, Natt; Latcharote, Panon; Roeber, Volker; Yamashita, Kei; Hayashi, Akihiro; Ohira, Hiroyuki; Fukui, Kentaro; Hisamatsu, Akifumi; and Nguyen, David. (2017). 'The 2016 Fukushima earthquake and tsunami: Local tsunami behavior and recommendations for tsunami disaster risk reduction', *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 21: 323-330, http://ac.els-cdn.com/S221242091630807X/1-s2.0-S221242091630807X-main.pdf?_tid=6676f908-89c2-11e7-88ec-00000aacb362&acdnat=1503685550_4ba07d1ae79f2e6c55ef9067d98bc0b1

The Fukushima earthquake and tsunami of 2016 highlighted again the importance of understanding and readiness when it came to natural disasters. This paper first analyzes certain issues of interest regarding the latest earthquake and tsunami before addressing the problems that remain in disaster risk reduction plans for tsunamis. The paper considers new perspectives in for disaster risk reduction in Japan, especially emphasizing the regional aspects that impact the effects of natural disasters considerably.

Sword-Daniels, V.L.; Twigg, J.; and Loughlin, S.C. (2015). 'Time for change? Applying an inductive timeline tool for a retrospective study of disaster recovery in Montserrat, West Indies', *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction* 12: 125-133, http://ac.els-cdn.com/S2212420914001253/1-s2.0-S2212420914001253-main.pdf?_tid=19f96a34-89c2-11e7-a0b9-00000aab0f6c&acdnat=1503685421_831c8679f88d0bfb043bb26435683c3f

To better understand how to more effectively rebuild after natural disasters occur, long-term disaster recovery studies are a necessity. These retrospective studies go further than the more common short-term studies, but they require improvements to their methods of data acquisition. This paper conducted a retrospective study of disaster recovery for the healthcare system in Montserrat, West Indies, using extensive data and interviews to yield a more definitive conclusion. Such practices are crucial in providing the most reliable and accurate research in terms of disaster recovery plans.