SRMUN

SRMUN Charlotte 2017

Assessing the Challenges and Opportunities of Globalism in the 21st Century March 30 - April 1, 2017

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Greetings Delegates,

I am honored to welcome you to the General Assembly (GA) Plenary at SRMUN Charlotte 2017. My name is Kayla Bello, and I will be serving as your Director. This is my third time serving as a Director for SRMUN and my fifth time on SRMUN staff. I previously served as Assistant Director of the International Criminal Court (ICC) and World Humanitarian Summit 2016, and Director of the General Assembly Fourth Committee and Commission on Narcotic Drugs. Our committee's Assistant Director will be Sydnee Abel. This is Sydnee's first time serving on SRMUN staff but she is by no means a stranger to Model United Nations (UN). Sydnee has served as a delegate at NMUN-DC and SRMUN Charlotte 2016 and was the Secretary-General for Clemson University's Model UN. Along with my Assistant Director, we have invested months of labor to provide you with this background guide which will serve as the major resource in your preparation for committee and its topics. Your position papers should reflect a plethora of outside research and a thorough understanding of this background guide. Furthermore, your position papers will serve as a preview for both you and your dais of the level of debate to expect within committee. We have high expectations for the committee, the caliber of delegates participating, and ultimately, your ability to solve the issues facing the GA Plenary.

The GA Plenary was established in 1945 as the central body of the UN. As one of the six major organs of the UN, the GA consists of policymaking and representation for all 193 Member States and two observer states -- Holy See and Palestine. The GA is ultimately responsible for maintaining peace and security, as defined in the UN Charter; however, it also oversees the budget, appoints non-permanent members to the Security Council, receives reports from other branches and organs in the UN system, and makes recommendations, known as resolutions.

By focusing on the mission of the GA Plenary and the SRMUN Charlotte 2017 theme of "Assessing the Challenges and Opportunities of Globalism in the 21st Century," we have developed the following topics for the delegates to discuss come conference:

- I. Preventing Gender-Based Sexual Violence
- II. Promoting Universal Access for Sustainable and Modern Energy

Each delegation is required to submit a position paper that addresses and outlines their Member State's policies based on the two aforementioned topics. Position papers should include insight to the Member State's policies from the past, present, and future, including both domestic policies and involvement in UN as well as recommendations for resolve. The position papers serve as a critical document for delegations in preparation for the conference. Delegates should follow SRMUN's policies regarding position papers, which include format and style structure. Position papers should be no longer than two pages in length (single spaced) and demonstrate your Member State's position, policies, and recommendations on each of the two topics. For more detailed information about formatting and how to write position papers, delegates can visit srmun.org. All position papers MUST be submitted no later than Friday, March 10, 2017, by 11:59 p.m. EST via the SRMUN website.

Sydnee and I look forward to the prospects delegates have to offer in the GA Plenary. We are eager to see each delegation's ideas and research come to fruition for the prepared topics. We wish you all the best of luck in your conference preparation and look forward to working with you soon. Please feel free to contact Director-General Michael Oleaga, Sydnee Abel, or myself if you have any questions.

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The History of the General Assembly Plenary

The General Assembly (GA) was established by the United Nations (UN) Charter and is one of the six principle organs. Serving as the central body of the UN, the GA "may discuss any questions within the scope of the present Charter or relating to the powers and functions of any organs provided for in the present Charter." On 10 January 1946, 51 Member States met for the first GA session at the Central Hall, Westminster, London, United Kingdom.³ On 24 January 1946, the GA adopted its first resolution, A/RES/1, with its main focus as "peaceful uses of atomic energy and the elimination of atomic and other weapons of mass destruction." Since the admittance of South Sudan on 14 July 2011, the GA has 193 Member States and "provides a unique forum for multilateral discussion of the full spectrum of international issues covered by the Charter."5

According to the GA Rules of Procedure adopted and amended by the GA up to September 2007, the GA "shall meet every year in regular session commencing on the Tuesday of the third week in September;" session customarily has been suspended in mid-December, however it can reconvene its meetings at any time throughout the year when the committee deems necessary.^{6,7} Each session is held at the UN Headquarters in New York City, New York, United States of America; nevertheless, any UN Member State can request relocation, which is granted upon majority approval from Member States.⁸ Before each plenary session, the GA elects a new President, whose role lasts from the beginning to the end of that session. According to the GA Rules of Procedure, "the President shall declare the opening and closing of each plenary meeting of the session, direct the discussions in plenary meeting, ensure observance of these rules, accord the right to speak...rule on points of order and, subject to these rules, shall have complete control of the proceedings at any meeting."10

The GA can be divided up into subsidiary organs and broken down into categories of boards, commissions, committees, councils and panels, and working groups among others.¹¹ Currently, there are six main committees in the GA including: First Committee (Disarmament and International Security Committee); Second Committee (Economic and Financial Committee); Third Committee (Social, Humanitarian, and Cultural Committee); Fourth Committee (Special Political and Decolonization Committee); Fifth Committee (Administrative and Budgetary Committee); and Sixth Committee (Legal Committee).¹² The main body as a whole is referred to as the GA Plenary. The GA Fifth Committee deals with all of the budgetary matters for the GA Plenary. ¹³ There is a subsidiary organ within the Fifth Committee called the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ), whose functions include examining budget proposals and reports submitted to them by the UN Secretary-General and specialized agencies. 14 The GA Plenary adopts resolutions about the budget that may include recommendations

^{1 &}quot;Charter of the United Nations, Chapter III Organs." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/en/sections/un-charter/chapteriii/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

² "Charter of the United Nations, Chapter IV: The General Assembly." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/en/sections/uncharter/chapter-iv/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

³ "History of the United Nations: Milestones 1941 – 1950," The United Nations,

http://www.un.org/en/sections/history/milestones-1941-1950/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

fold.

5 "General Assembly of the United Nations," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/ (accessed June 10, 2016).

6 "Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly." The United Nations.

http://www.un.org/depts/DGACM/Uploaded%20docs/rules%20of%20procedure%20of%20ga.pdf (accessed on July 5,

⁷ "Rules of Procedure, Sessions," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/ropga/sessions.shtml (accessed June 10,

⁹ "Rules of Procedure, President and Vice-Presidents," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/ropga/prez.shtml (accessed June 10, 2016).

¹⁰ Ibid.

^{11 &}quot;Subsidiary Organs of the General Assembly," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/subsidiary/index.shtml (accessed on June 10, 2016).

¹² "Main Committees," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/maincommittees/index.shtml (accessed June 10, 2016).

¹³ "UN Documentation: Regular Budget," United Nations Research Guides, http://research.un.org/en/docs/budget/bodies (accessed June 10, 2016).

¹⁴ "About the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ)," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/ga/acabq/about (accessed July 5, 2016).

concerning budgeting, evaluation cycle, monitoring, planning, and programming.¹⁵ On 23 December 2015, the GA passed the UN's Budget for 2016-2017 at the amount of USD 5.4 Billion.¹⁶

According to the UN Charter, the GA may consider the general principles of cooperation for maintaining international peace and security.¹⁷ The GA may also discuss any questions relating to said peace and security, except in situations where the Security Council is also discussing said questions.¹⁸ Additionally, the GA may discuss any questions within the scope of the Charter that may affect the powers and functions of any organ of the UN.¹⁹ Member States in the GA may also initiate studies "to promote international political cooperation, the development and codification of international law, the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms, and international collaboration in the economic, social, humanitarian, cultural, educational, and health fields."²⁰ The GA also has the authority to elect non-permanent members to the Security Council, oversee the budget, receive reports from other branches and organs of the UN and make recommendations.²¹ Importantly, the GA may also "take action in cases of a threat to peace, breach of peace or act of aggression, when the Security Council has failed to act owing to the negative vote of a permanent member."²²

The GA is the only UN body that has universal membership.²³ However, each Member State may have no more than five representatives during committee, and each Member State can only have one vote.²⁴ Non-Member States wishing to join the UN can do so by filling out an application.²⁵ If the Security Council recommends the pending applicant for membership to the UN, the GA will consider whether the applicant is a "peace-loving State" and is "able and willing" to fulfill the obligations in the UN Charter.²⁶ This shall be decided by a two-thirds majority of the members who are present and voting.²⁷ In the GA, a two-thirds majority vote is also used on important questions, such as those recommendations concerning peace and security, budgetary concerns, election, admission, suspension, or expulsion of Member States.²⁸ All other questions are decided by a simple majority vote.²⁹ Every Member State has the right to vote unless they are in arrears of their financial debts to the UN for two or more years; the GA Plenary may decide to suspend this rule if they feel the Member State cannot control its financial conditions.³⁰ Observers have no voting rights as they are considered "non-Member States, entities, and organizations" that can only participate in the GA.³¹ Currently there are two permanent observers in the GA Plenary: the Holy See and the State of Palestine.³²

^{15 &}quot;UN Documentation: Regular Budget," United Nations Research Guides, http://research.un.org/en/docs/budget/bodies (accessed July 5, 2016).

^{16 &}quot;General Assembly adopts UN Budget for 2016-17," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/pga/70/2015/12/23/general-assembly-adopts-un-budget-for-2016-17/ (accessed July 5, 2016).

¹⁷ "Functions and Powers of the General Assembly," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/background.shtml (accessed July 5, 2016).

¹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ Ibid.

²² Ibid.

²³ "Charter of the United Nations, Chapter IV: The General Assembly." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/en/sections/uncharter/chapter-iv/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ "Rules of Procedure, Admission of New Members to the United Nations." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/ropga/adms.shtml (accessed June 10, 2016).

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ "Charter of the United Nations, Chapter IV: The General Assembly." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/en/sections/uncharter/chapter-iv/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

²⁹ Ibid.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ "Observers," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/observers.shtml (accessed on June 10, 2016).

³² "Non-Member States," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/sections/member-states/non-member-states/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

Regular sessions of GA Plenary usually begin with open debate, and then topics are distributed to the specialized committee.³³ After being passed, resolutions, like other UN organs with the exception of the Security Council, are not legally binding upon Member States, but provide recommendations to the international community. Resolutions can impact a State's domestic or foreign policy and can have a large impact on the community as a whole.³⁴ A few of the most notable impacts of the GA include but are not limited to: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights A/RES/217(III), the Uniting for Peace Resolution A/RES/377(V), and the Millennium Declaration A/RES/55/2.³⁵ In 1948, A/RES/217(III) was passed and proclaimed the "inherent dignity" and "equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family."³⁶ A/RES/377(V) was passed in 1950 and gives the GA the authority to take action if the Security Council fails to maintain international peace and security. This resolution established the UN Peacekeeping Forces. Lastly, A/RES/55/2 established the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) in 2000. These MDGs were to be time-bound and measurable targets for combatting a multitude of issues at the time, however many of these issues have been improved and many of the goals were extended past the end date of 2015.³⁷ On 25 September 2015, the GA decided to create the global Sustainable Development Goals.³⁸ The 17 SDGs and 169 targets seek to build on the Millennium Development Goals and complete what they did not achieve.³⁹ Overall, "the Goals and targets will stimulate action over the next 15 years in areas of critical importance for humanity and the planet."40

All Member States are represented in the General Assembly Plenary.

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³³ "Rules of Procedure, Plenary Meetings." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/ropga/plenary.shtml (accessed June 10, 2016).

³⁴ "The Role of the General Assembly," The Council of Foreign Relations, http://www.cfr.org/international-organizations-and-alliances/role-un-general-assembly/p13490 (accessed June 10, 2016).

^{35 &}quot;General Assembly Resolutions," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/sections/documents/general-assembly-resolutions/index.html (accessed June 10, 2016).

The Role of the General Assembly," The Council of Foreign Relations, http://www.cfr.org/international-organizations-and-alliances/role-un-general-assembly/p13490 (accessed June 10, 2016).

³⁷ Ibid

³⁸ "Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development," The United Nations, https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld (accessed July 5, 2016).

³⁹ Ibid.

 $^{^{40}}$ Ibid.

I: Preventing Gender-Based Sexual Violence

"In no other area is our collective failure to ensure effective protection for civilians more apparent... than in terms of the masses of women and girls, but also boys and men, whose lives are destroyed each year by sexual violence perpetrated in conflict."

- Former United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon⁴¹

Introduction

Sexual violence is one of the most prevalent human rights violations in the world and knows no social, economic, or national boundaries. In situations of armed conflict and displacement, certain demographics are inherently more vulnerable than others to acts of sexual violence or, specifically, gender-based sexual violence (GBSV). GBSV refers to violence that targets individuals or groups on the basis of their gender. The United Nations' (UN) Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights' (UNHCR) Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) defines GBSV as "violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately. Indeed this definition is true and statistics support the fact that women make up the majority of victims of gender-based violence and discrimination. Nevertheless, in the last decade, sexualized violence against men and boys has been even more apparent and yet still remains largely undocumented. Surveys concluded a high prevalence of sexual victimization among men -- in many circumstances similar to the prevalence found among women.

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), GBSV "comprises not only rape and attempted rape, but also sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, forced early marriage, domestic violence, marital rape, trafficking and sexual enslavement, genital mutilation, forced abortion, forced prostitution, forced circumcision, castration and forced nudity." Worldwide, an estimated one in three women will experience physical or sexual abuse in her lifetime and in the last decade, and sexual violence against men and boys has been reported in over 25 conflict-affected Member States. The prohibition of acts of violence against men, women, and children under both international human rights and humanitarian law are in most instances ignored and, historically, impunity for such acts, has been the

⁴¹ "Ban Ki-moon calls for greater protection of civilians affected by conflict," UN News Centre, November 7, 2007, http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=24631 (accessed September 20, 2016).

^{42 &}quot;Gender based Violence," United Nations Population Fund, http://www.unfpa.org/gender-based-violence#sthash.dYl8erV6.dpuf (accessed August 16, 2016).

⁴³ Ibid.

^{44 &}quot;Definitions of sexual and gender-based violence," Irin News, September 1, 2004,

https://www.irinnews.org/feature/2004/09/01/definitions-sexual-and-gender-based-violence (accessed August 16, 2016).

⁴⁵ "Sexual and other forms of gender-based violence in crises," The World Health Organization, http://www.who.int/hac/techguidance/pht/SGBV/en/ (accessed August 16 2016).

^{46 &}quot;Male gender-based violence: a silent crisis," The Overseas Development Institute, June 23, 2014,

https://www.odi.org/comment/8502-male-gender-based-violence-conflict-humanitarian-response (accessed September 20, 2016).

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ "UNOCHA, The Nature, Scope and Motivation for Sexual Violence Against Men and Boys in Armed Conflict, Use of Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict: Identifying Gaps in Research to Inform More Effective Interventions," UNOCHA Research Meeting, June 26, 2008,

http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/le/PWandUN/UNImplementation/Secretariat/DepartmentAndOffces/OCHA/ocha_reportusesexualviolenceincon-ict.pdf (accessed September 24, 2016).

⁴⁹ "Sexual and gender-based violence in the context of transitional justice," United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, October 2014, (accessed August 16, 2016).

^{50 &}quot;Violence against women," Fact Sheet, The World Health Organization, January 2016,

http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs239/en/ (accessed August 16, 2016).

^{51 &}quot;Male gender-based violence: a silent crisis," The Overseas Development Institute, June 23, 2014,

https://www.odi.org/comment/8502-male-gender-based-violence-conflict-humanitarian-response (accessed September 20, 2016).

norm. ⁵² The increase of sexual violence in turn renders victims vulnerable to poverty, unemployment, the destruction of valuable assets, and health risks, thus making it a threat to the international community. ⁵³

History

The UN General Assembly (UNGA), in strengthening its role in preventing and ending sexual violence, looks first to the frameworks the UN has already established. The struggle in respect to both violence and the use of identity to violate women's human rights date back to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, which declares the "right to life" and the end of slavery, and also to the Geneva Conventions (1949), which prohibit sexual violence in a non-discriminatory manner. Both the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Geneva Conventions created a legal framework for recognizing human rights, but neither document addresses GBSV. It was not until the 1970s that the UN and Member States began to establish legal frameworks specific to gender-based issues. One of the first documents that addressed gender-specific issues was CEDAW. While this convention established the equal rights of women, it was not until the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women was adopted by the GA, as resolution 48/104 in 1993, that the UN began to discuss GBSV. The Declaration established definitions for what constitutes sexual violence and aimed to recognize sexual violence as more than just a physical act, but an act that requires mental and physical support for all survivors. This declaration emphasizes the importance of legal deterrents, including prosecution by state and local government and sanctions against Member States that are not proactive in prosecuting war crimes. It also outlines the role of governments in preventing sexual violence and holding offenders accountable.

The Fourth World Conference on Women was held in Beijing, China, in 1995, and adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. The Beijing Declaration discusses in detail the status of violence against women and women and armed conflict, including the issue of sexual violence being used as a means of war and terrorism. The Platform for Action includes studying the consequences of violence against women and eliminating forced prostitution and trafficking. The Fourth World Conference on Women gave priority to GBSV which jeopardizes women's lives, bodies, psychological integrity, and freedom.

In 2000, the Security Council's resolution 1325 added women as stakeholders in violence prevention. ⁶⁶ The resolution urges actors to "increase participation of women and incorporate gender perspectives in all UN peace and security efforts." It also calls for actors to take "special measures to protect women and girls from gender-based violence, particularly rape and other forms of sexual abuse, in situations of armed conflict." The Security Council adopted resolution 1820 in 2008, which reaffirms its commitment to eliminate all forms of violence against women, including by "ending impunity." Additionally, the Council recognizes sexual violence as a security problem that requires a systematic security response. ⁷⁰ In a unanimous vote in 2009, the Security Council adopted resolution

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⁵² Mitchell, David S., *The Prohibition of Rape in International Humanitarian Law as a Norm of Jus Cogens: Clarifying the Doctrine*, 2005, (accessed August 17, 2016).

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Universal Declaration of Human Rights. UN General Assembly, December 10, 1948. (accessed August 19, 2016).

⁵⁵ Ibid.

⁵⁶ Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. UN General Assembly. 1979. (accessed August 19, 2016).

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women. UN General Assembly. 1993. (accessed August 19, 2016).

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ Ibid.

⁶² Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. UN Fourth World Conference on Women. 1995. (accessed August 20, 2016).

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ S/RES/1325. United Nations Security Council. 2000. (accessed August 20, 2016).

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ S/RES/1820. United Nations Security Council. 2008. (accessed August 20, 2016).

 $^{^{70}}$ Ibid.

1889.⁷¹ The resolution marked the beginning of an offensive strategy by the international community that would implement peacekeeping missions to protect women and girls from sexual violence in armed conflict.⁷² The Security Council later adopted resolution 2106 on 24 June 2013, to reaffirm its commitment to ensuring the protection of women during periods of armed conflict.⁷³ The resolution acknowledged the devastating effects that sexual violence could have on communities.⁷⁴ Further, the resolution recounts that sexual violence will be constituted as a crime against humanity, and strengthens the aims of the resolution with an inclusion of a developed form of systematic monitoring of and attention to sexual violence.⁷⁵ What was so significant about this resolution was for the first time, men and boys were named as victims of sexual violence.⁷⁶

Acutely aware of the magnitude of sexual and gender-based violence and the efforts underway to respond to the problem, UNHCR hosted an inter-agency lessons learned conference on sexual and gender-based violence in Geneva from 27-29 March 2001. The conference gathered 157 actors working in refugee situations to share wisdom and experiences, collectively review progress and impact to date, identify lessons learned, and plan the next steps for addressing GBSV in refugee and internally displaced settings. Another major effort from the UN has been its launching of the UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict, which unites the work of 12 UN entities, including Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), to prevent all forms of gender-based violence, including sexual violence in conflict, and combines with the efforts of non-governmental (NGO) entities and others working to confront this issue. UN Action aims to improve the coordination, accountability, advocacy, and support for national efforts, and to address the needs of survivors. Lastly, Ad hoc tribunals, the Special Court for Sierra Leone, and the International Criminal Court (ICC) have contributed substantially to developing the legal and normative framework for such crimes, including through innovative jurisprudence. It is now well recognized that sexual violence can constitute a war crime, a crime against humanity, or an act of genocide.

Legal Protocols

While there have been a number of recommendations regarding GBSV, the legal framework for implementing these recommendations was not developed until 1998. The Rome Statute of the ICC, which came into effect in 2002, specifically identifies "rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity" as crimes against humanity. The Rome Statute not only declares these acts "crimes against humanity," but specifically qualifies that when these acts are perpetrated in the midst of conflict they constitute "war crimes." The statute acknowledged the establishment of some legal standards, including prosecution and convictions of these crimes, but did not establish standards for consequences for those convicted. While the Rome Statute creates solid precedence for prosecution of crimes of sexual violence sanctioned by governments or militant groups, the ICC does not replace the sovereignty of government courts and their requirement to prosecute individuals. One method for holding offenders accountable is by creating a concrete

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<sup>71</sup> S/RES/1889. United Nations Security Council. 2009. (accessed August 20, 2016).
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⁷² Ibid.

⁷³ S/RES/2106. United Nations Security Council. 2013. (accessed August 20, 2016).

⁷⁴ Ibid.

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Prevention and response to sexual and gender-based violence in refugee situations. UNHCR. 2001. http://www.unhcr.org/3bb44cd811.pdf (accessed August 20, 2016).

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ "A Framework for Prevention and Response," Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs,

http://www.unocha.org/what-we-do/advocacy/thematic-campaigns/sgbv/sgbv-framework (accessed August 20, 2016).

^{81 &}quot;Sexual and gender-based violence in the context of transitional justice," United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, October 2014, (accessed August 16, 2016).

⁸² Ibid.

⁸³ Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. UN Diplomatic Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court. 1998. http://legal.un.org/icc/rome/proceedings/E/Rome%20Proceedings_v1_e.pdf (accessed August 20, 2016).

⁸⁴ Ibid.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

method for prosecuting offenders. ⁸⁸ This includes creating stronger laws against sexual violence. ⁸⁹ Efforts have been made to create international legal instruments to provide recourse for victims of sexual violence. ⁹⁰ However, the positive steps taken to develop an operative framework of legal protection have been focused almost exclusively on the protection of women and child victims. ⁹¹ The lack of recognition of male victims of sexual violence has resulted in an international legal blind spot that needs to be addressed. ⁹²

Current Situation

Addressing GBSV continues to be a very complicated issue and the lasting effects of such experiences are severe. GBSV has been documented as "a particularly vicious attack on personal and social identity whose psychological consequences often far outlive those of other forms of physical violence." As well as the considerable physical damage, WHO has found that psychological symptoms include "guilt, anger, anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, sexual dysfunction, somatic complaints, sleep disturbances, withdrawal from relationships and attempted suicide." Moreover, victims of GBSV are invariably among the most marginalized of those affected by armed conflict, experiencing long-term and sustained stigma, rejection by families and communities, and enduring physical and mental harms during and after conflict. 96

In recent years, the increase of attention by the UN, governments, and civil society have led to greater emphasis on the need to provide better support for survivors of sexual assault and for legal means to prosecute those accused of sexual assault.⁹⁷ The increase in visibility of these crimes has yet to translate into significant coordination of medical responses, especially when dealing with pregnancy, HIV/AIDS, and mental health.⁹⁸ On average, conflict and post-conflict Member States have reported that essential health services crumble at a rate of 2.5-times higher than the worldwide average.⁹⁹ Sexual assault is still one of the most underreported crimes committed and provides many challenges which are heightened during the instability of conflict.¹⁰⁰ Subsequently, the international community must take a more proactive, rather than reactive, approach.

GBSV Against Men and Boys

The problem of male-directed sexual violence is not unknown to the humanitarian community. Between 1998 and 2008, sexual violence against men was noted in reports on 25 conflict-affected Member States. ¹⁰¹ Since then, additional reports have emerged from the major conflict zones including Libya, Syria, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Central African Republic. ¹⁰² According to the International Institute of Strategic Studies' Armed Conflict Database, 90 percent of men in conflict-affected Member States "are in situations where the law provides no protection for them if they become victims of sexual violence; sixty-three countries, representing almost two-thirds of the world's population, only recognize female victims of rape; seventy states criminalize men who report

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

Hennessey and Gerry. International Human Rights Law and Sexual Violence Against Men in Conflict Zones, Halsbury's Law Exchange. 2012. http://www.halsburyslawexchange.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/25/2012/10/Sexual-Violence-Against-Men-in-Conflict-Zones.pdf (accessed September 14, 2016).

⁹¹ Ibid.

⁹² Ibid.

⁹³ A/HRC/31/CRP.3. Investigation by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights on Libya: detailed findings. UN OHCHR. 2016. (accessed August 17, 2016).

⁹⁴ Russell, Wynne. Sexual violence against men and boys.

http://www.fmreview.org/sites/fmr/files/FMRdownloads/en/FMRpdfs/FMR27/12.pdf (accessed September 23, 2016).

⁹⁵ Ibid.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ S/RES/1820. United Nations Security Council. 2008. (accessed August 18, 2016).

⁹⁸ Ibid.

^{99 &}quot;Women in an Insecure World: Violence Against Women Facts, and Figures," Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces, 2005, http://www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Women-in-an-Insecure-World (accessed August 18, 2016).

Dolan, Chris, "Into the Mainstream: Addressing Sexual Violence Against Men and Boys in Conflict," Overseas Development Institute, May 2014, https://www.warchild.org.uk/sites/default/files/Into-the-Mainstream.pdf (accessed August 18, 2016).

¹⁰² Ibid.

abuse; [and] in 28 countries only males are recognized as perpetrators of sexual violence -- not females." Though these statistics are staggering, it is important to note that the statistics available to date have been collected from adult males; the absence of statistical evidence for sexual violence against boys in conflict is a major gap that needs to be addressed. ¹⁰⁴

June 2013 was the first time men and boys were named as victims of sexual violence. ¹⁰⁵ This was predicated on a widespread misconception that masculinity is associated with dominance, and that men can only be perpetrators of violence. ¹⁰⁶ When men are the victims, they are therefore considered to have been emasculated. ¹⁰⁷ According to the former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan, "[T]he sexual abuse, torture and mutilation of male detainees or prisoners is often carried out to attack and destroy their sense of masculinity or manhood." ¹⁰⁸ As such, males are less likely than female victims to report an assault to the authorities for reasons including shame, guilt and fear of not being believed. ¹⁰⁹ This is why it is imperative for male victims to be fully represented in international justice initiatives and their inclusion in national laws on sexual violence; to reduce the stigma associated and renew the commitment to helping male victims of sexual violence, which can only add to the understanding and ability to tackle human rights abuses against all victims, men, women and children alike. ¹¹⁰

Conclusion

UNHCR defines protection for GBSV victims as, "all actions aimed at ensuring the equal access to and enjoyment of the rights of women, men, girls and boys of concern to UNHCR, in accordance with the relevant bodies of law (international humanitarian, human rights and refugee law)." The use of GBSV is endemic in various regions of the world. GBSV can occur anywhere, at any time but the presence of armed conflict consequently results in a near exponential increase of sexual violence within and beyond the community. These forms of violence, against men, women, and children include rape, murder, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy, and forced sterilization. A universal struggle for the international community has been granting the access of basic human rights and ending the attacks against them and their bodies. GBSV is neither inevitable nor acceptable. It is an outcome of gender inequality and a violation of human rights, for which Member States are accountable. A comprehensive prevention and response plan should focus on the roles and needs of both women and men and how both can become agents of change. Member States now have an unparalleled opportunity to capitalize on international consensus and formulate an effective, and cooperative strategy to prevent GBSV.

Committee Directives

To tackle this sensitive issue, delegates should first focus on factors which make an individual susceptible to GBSV. How can the international community protect individuals who are at higher risk of GBSV? What is the connection between protection measures and the human rights of refugees and other persons of concern? How can the GA strengthen partnerships with other UN agencies, intergovernmental organizations, and civil society in its prevention measures? How can cultural differences be bridged to reduce sexual violence? How can Member States criminalize sexual violence while also ensuring the protection of human rights of all individuals within their respective jurisdictions? Draw on the ICC's gender-neutral definition of sexual violence to shape humanitarian and developmental programming to better respond to the multiple directions of gender-based sexual violence. What procedures are there by states to enforce privacy measures that will keep victims safe when reporting violence, especially among men. Lastly, how can we create a global culture which refuses to accept sexual violence?

http://www.fmreview.org/sites/fmr/files/FMRdownloads/en/FMRpdfs/FMR27/12.pdf (accessed September 23, 2016).

 $^{^{103}}$ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

¹⁰⁵ SC/RES/2106. United Nations Security Council. 2013.

http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/RES/2106%282013%29 (accessed August 20, 2016).

Hennessey and Gerry. International Human Rights Law and Sexual Violence Against Men in Conflict Zones, Halsbury's Law Exchange. 2012. http://www.halsburyslawexchange.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/25/2012/10/Sexual-Violence-Against-Men-in-Conflict-Zones.pdf (accessed September 14, 2016).

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

¹¹⁰ Russell, Wynne. Sexual violence against men and boys.

II: Promoting Universal Access for Sustainable and Modern Energy

"Energy is the golden thread that connects economic growth, social equity, and environmental sustainability."

- Ban Ki-Moon, former Secretary-General of the United Nations 111

Introduction

In today's world, energy is central to almost every major challenge and opportunity including jobs, security, climate change, food production, and increasing incomes. Access to sustainable modern energy for all is essential for achieving equity, protecting ecosystems, and strengthening economies. Globally, there are 1.2 billion people without access to electricity while another one billion have access only to unreliable electricity networks. Without access to modern energy, the billions of people lack clean water, sanitation, healthcare, reliable lighting, heating, cooking, mechanical power, transport, and telecommunication services. By promoting universal access to sustainable modern energy, billions of lives would be drastically improved.

According to the International Energy Agency (IEA), there is no single internationally accepted definition of modern energy access, yet there are a few aspects in common across the many definitions. ¹¹⁷ In general, per the IAEA, modern energy should include household access to a minimum level of energy based on the home's rural or urban area and access to safer and more sustainable (i.e., minimum harmful effects on health and environment as possible) cooking and heating fuels and stoves. ¹¹⁸ Access to modern energy also enables productive economic activity such as mechanical power for agriculture, textile, and other industries. ¹¹⁹ In addition to household access, modern energy is necessary for public services such as electricity for health facilities, schools, and street lighting. ¹²⁰ All of these elements are crucial to the economic and social development of Member States. ¹²¹

Current Situation

According to the United Nations (UN), over 1.2 billion people (which equals to one in five people of the world's population) do not have access to electricity, the majority of which are concentrated in a dozen Member States in Africa and Asia. This means that without electricity, clinics cannot store vaccines for children, women spend hours fetching water, and people cannot run competitive businesses. Nearly three billion people do not have access to modern heating and cooking technology so they have to rely on traditional biomass such as wood, charcoal, dung, and coal for cooking and heating. This results in over four million premature deaths, per year, due

¹¹¹ "Achieving Universal Energy Access," The United Nations Foundation, http://www.unfoundation.org/what-we-do/issues/energy-and-climate/clean-energy-development.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹¹² Ibid.

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

[&]quot;Modern energy for all: why it matters," The International Energy Agency,

http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/resources/energydevelopment/modernenergyforallwhyitmatters/ (accessed

September 16, 2016).

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

^{117 &}quot;Defining and modeling energy access," The International Energy Agency,

http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/resources/energydevelopment/definingandmodellingenergyaccess/ (accessed September 16, 2016).

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² "Affordable and Clean Energy: Why It Matters," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Why-it-Matters CleanEnergy 1p.pdf (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹²³ Ibid.

[&]quot;Achieving Universal Energy Access," The United Nations Foundation, http://www.unfoundation.org/what-we-do/issues/energy-and-climate/clean-energy-development.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

to indoor air pollution, while also causing a range of chronic illnesses and other negative health effects. Non-universal modern energy even impacts those who do have access to electricity. The emissions from obsolete energy sources directly impact climate change and local environmental degradation. The UN states, "Energy is the dominant contributor to climate change, accounting for around 60 percent of total global greenhouse emissions." Thus, this is an issue that affects the entire global community.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) states that the benefits of achieving universal access to modern energy services would be "transformational" and includes advantages such as lighting for schools, functioning health clinics, pumps for water and sanitation, cleaner indoor air, and faster food-processing. ¹²⁸ The International Institute for Applied Systems Analytics (IIASA) further outlines that implementing modern energy would reduce income poverty and hunger, and improve education, health, and gender equality for the poorest segments of society. ¹²⁹ In addition, the IIASA explains, "increased access to electricity and mechanical power enables an increase in agricultural productivity and the transformation of agrarian economies to industry-based economies." ¹³⁰ At the closing of the 2016 Thematic Day Event in Paris, then-UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon explained, "Energy efficiency is one of our best tools for reducing energy-related emissions. Saving energy is a triple-win solution. It can save money, reduce emissions, and provide additional energy capacity." ¹³¹ By improving modern cooking facilities, there is potential to significantly reduce the daily exposure of households (specifically women and children) to fumes, which will in turn help avoid premature deaths caused by indoor air pollution. ¹³² This will also remove the time-consuming burden of travelling long distances to gather fuel for cooking. ¹³³ Overall, the UNDP states that sustainable energy can be an engine for poverty reductions, social progress, equity, enhanced resilience, economic growth, and environmental sustainability. ¹³⁴

Actions Taken by the United Nations

On 17 November 1966, the UN General Assembly (UNGA) passed resolution 2152, establishing the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) Specialized Agency with the mission "to promote and accelerate inclusive and sustainable industrial development (ISID) in developing countries and economies in transition." The UNIDO fully supports universal access for modern energy, stating, "Enhancing access to modern and reliable energy supplies is widely regarded as a prerequisite for economic development in developing Member States with

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ "Affordable and Clean Energy: Why It Matters," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Why-it-Matters CleanEnergy 1p.pdf (accessed August 3, 2016).

[&]quot;Universal Access to Modern Energy for the Poor," The United Nations Development Programme, http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/environmentandenergy/focus areas/sustainable-energy/universal-access.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

Access to Modern Energy: Assessment and Outlook for Developing and Emerging Regions. The International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis. Laxenburg, Austria. 2012.
<a href="http://www.iiasa.ac.at/web/home/research

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ "Finance Crucial for Bringing Modern Energy to Billions, Secretary-General Says at Closing of Thematic Day Event in Paris," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/press/en/2015/sgsm17400.doc.htm (accessed September 16, 2016).

^{132 &}quot;Modern energy for all: why it matters," The International Energy Agency,

http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/resources/energydevelopment/modernenergyforallwhyitmatters/ (accessed September 16, 2016).

¹³³ Ibid.

^{134 &}quot;Sustainable Energy," The United Nations Development Programme,

 $[\]frac{\text{http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/climate-and-disaster-resilience/sustainable-energy.html}{\text{(accessed September 16, 2016)}}.$

¹³⁵ "A Brief History," The United Nations Industrial Development Organization, http://www.unido.org/who-we-are/history.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹³⁶ "Who we are," The United Nations Industrial Development Organization, http://www.unido.org/who-we-are/unido-in-brief.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

economies in transition."¹³⁷ This Specialized Agency uses its funds from voluntary and accessed contributions to work towards promoting universal access to sustainable energy. ¹³⁸ Also in 1966, the UNDP was born as a merger of the Expanded Programme and the UN Special Fund. ¹³⁹ The UNDP was created to focus on helping Member States establish solutions in three main areas: "sustainable development, democratic governance and peacebuilding, and climate and disaster resilience." ¹⁴⁰ The program states that the "UNDP supports access to energy...access to clean fuel and devices for cooking and heating and increased access to and use of mechanical power." ¹⁴¹

In 2007, the UNGA passed its resolution A/RES/62/197, which reaffirmed the need for putting into action the full implementation of the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation as the intergovernmental framework for energy sustainable development. Chapter III of the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation calls for actions at all levels to with a sense of urgency, substantially increase the global share of renewable energy sources with the objective of increasing its contribution to total energy supply. According to the Report of the Secretary-General during the 66th GA session, the UNGA encourages the UN system to continue to raise awareness of the importance of energy for sustainable development and poverty eradication, including the need for the promotion of new and renewable sources of energy and the increased role these sources could play in the global energy supply.

Then-Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon launched Sustainable Energy for All (SE4All) in September 2011 to mobilize action for creating universal sustainable energy by 2030. ¹⁴⁵ This global initiative is based on three interlinked objectives: "providing universal access to modern energy services; doubling the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency; and doubling the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix." ¹⁴⁶ SE4All has partnered with governments from 106 Member States and the European Union, the private sector, and multilateral institutions all to advance the three sustainable energy objectives. ¹⁴⁷ The UNGA has recognized the importance of this initiative on several occasions, notably with the 2014-2024 Decade of Sustainable Energy for All (A/RES/67/215). ¹⁴⁸

The Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves is a public-private partnership hosted by the UN Foundation "to save lives, improve livelihoods, empower women, and protect the environment by creating a thriving global market for clean and efficient household cooking solutions." The Alliance has a goal of enabling an additional 100 million homes to adopt clean and efficient stoves and fuels by 2020. In its first four years, the Alliance has helped spur the adoption of clean cooking solutions in more than 20 million homes, which puts it on pace to reach its 2020 goal. The Alliance works with a network of public, private, and non-profit partners and is funded by grants and investments from governments, corporations, foundations, civil society, investors, and individuals.

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¹³⁷ "Energy Access for Productive Uses," The United Nations Industrial Development Organization, http://www.unido.org/what-we-do/environment/clean-energy-access-for-productive-use.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

^{138 &}quot;Funds, Programmes, Specialized Agencies and Others," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/funds-programmes-specialized-agencies-and-others/index.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

^{139 &}quot;1960s and Before: The Early Years," The United Nations Development Programme, http://50.undp.org/en/#timeline (accessed August 3, 2016).

^{140 &}quot;A World of Development Experience," The United Nations Development Programme,

http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/operations/about_us.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

[&]quot;Universal Access to Modern Energy for the Poor," The United Nations Development Programme, http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/environmentandenergy/focus areas/sustainable-energy/universal-access.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁴² A/RES/62/197. *Promotion of New and Renewable Sources of Energy.* United Nations General Assembly. (accessed November 12, 2016).

¹⁴³ Political Declaration and Plan of Implementation, paragraph 20 (e), United Nations, 2003. (accessed November 12, 2016).

Promotion of New and Renewable Sources of Energy: Report of the Secretary-General. United Nations General Assembly. August 15, 2011. (accessed November 12, 2016).

¹⁴⁵ "About Us," Sustainable Energy for All, http://www.se4all.org/about-us (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.

¹⁴⁸ "Achieving Universal Energy Access," The United Nations Foundation, http://www.unfoundation.org/what-we-do/issues/energy-and-climate/clean-energy-development.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁴⁹ "About," Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves, http://cleancookstoves.org/about/ (accessed September 16, 2016).

¹⁵⁰ "Achieving Universal Energy Access," The United Nations Foundation, http://www.unfoundation.org/what-we-do/issues/energy-and-climate/clean-energy-development.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

¹⁵² Ibid.

At the UN Sustainable Development Summit on 25 September 2015, world leaders adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (A/RES/70/1), which includes a set of 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to end poverty, inequality and injustice, and tackle climate change by 2030. The seventh goal of the SDGs is to "ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy for all." There are three main objectives within this SDG including: ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services; increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix; and double the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency. The UNDP plays a critical role in helping Member States achieve the SDGs as the UN's development agency. The IEA predicts that the modern energy situation "is expected to change only a little by 2030 unless more vigorous action is taken."

Challenges of Improving the Energy System

The UN's *World Economic and Social Survey 2013: Sustainable Development Challenges* discusses several of the challenges that face the implementation of universal access to sustainable and modern energy. To begin with, the report states, "there is a challenge of ensuring that people and policymakers learn from scientific and factual evidence and modify their views and current consumption patterns accordingly." Accomplishing this task involves a complex and potentially lengthy process. There is also a challenge of implementing sustainable technologies in the social, cultural, and economic domains. The *Social Survey* explains that to supply one and a half billion people with energy from solar sources would require an expanse of solar farms the same size as the State of Arizona in the United States of America. In this specific example, "The economic, social, and political challenges associated with changing land-use patterns so that such large extensions of land can be allocated to the generation of solar energy attest to the magnitude of the obstacles that need to be overcome when scaling up renewable energy alternatives." 162

In general, the *World Economic and Social Survey* states that the initial investment needed to sustainably transform the energy system implies a significant increase in energy-related investments. According to the UN, "The world needs to triple its investment in sustainable energy infrastructure per year from around USD 400 Billion now to USD 1.25 Trillion by 2030." This may seem excessive, however the UNDP points out that, "The capital investment required for universal energy access represents only around three per cent of the total global energy investment," which makes this goal seem achievable by 2030. In 2010, the IEA and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) came together to produce the *World Energy Outlook 2010* for

^{153 &}quot;Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)," The United Nations Development Programme, http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/sdgoverview/post-2015-development-agenda.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁵⁴ A/RES/70/1. Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. United Nations General Assembly. (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁵⁵ Ibid

^{156 &}quot;Funds, Programmes, Specialized Agencies and Others," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/funds-programmes-specialized-agencies-and-others/index.html (accessed September 16, 2016).

^{157 &}quot;Modern energy for all: why it matters," The International Energy Agency,

http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/resources/energydevelopment/modernenergyforallwhyitmatters/
September 16, 2016).

World Economic and Social Survey 2013: Sustainable Development Challenges. The United Nations. New York City, New York, United States. 2013. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/2843WESS2013.pdf (accessed September 16, 2016).

¹⁵⁹ Ibid.

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

¹⁶¹ Ibid.

¹⁶² Ibid.

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ "Affordable and Clean Energy: Why It Matters," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Why-it-Matters CleanEnergy_1p.pdf (accessed August 3, 2016).

[&]quot;Universal Access to Modern Energy for the Poor," The United Nations Development Programme, http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/environmentandenergy/focus_areas/sustainable-energy/universal-access.html (accessed August 3, 2016).

the UNGA on the Millennium Development Goals. ¹⁶⁶ The *Outlook* concludes that at least an investment of USD 756 Billion, or USD 36 Billion per year, is needed to achieve universal access to electricity and clean cooking facilities by 2030. ¹⁶⁷ It also elaborates that all available sources of finance will need to be used such as international funds, public/private partnerships, bank finance at multilateral, bilateral and local levels, microfinance, loans and targeted subsidies. ¹⁶⁸

The *Outlook* expects the public sector to fund the costs of creating the necessary environment such as establishing the appropriate policies, regulations and institutions, and will need to finance the relatively large investments.¹⁶⁹ If this environment is created, the private sector will be encouraged "to assume at least part of the risk – essentially, where a commercial return can be reliably earned on the investment."¹⁷⁰ However, the OECD notes that private investment in renewable energy infrastructure is still constrained by higher costs, perceived risk and longer investment timelines compared with fossil-fuel-based alternatives.¹⁷¹ Nevertheless, a key component to giving investors the incentive to move away from fossil fuels and towards renewable energy universally and increased energy efficiency is to remove inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies and pricing greenhouse gas emissions.¹⁷²

Conclusion

As the world continues to pursue growth and advancement through the UN's SDGs, Member States will likewise seek to develop and expand sustainable energy initiatives and technologies within and outside of their borders. Doing so over the next decade will lead to a procurement of benefits for those in need of modern energy, those who already possess the technology, and even the planet itself. Implementing modern energy would reduce income poverty and hunger, and improve education, health, and gender equality for the poorest segments of society. By improving modern cooking facilities, there is potential to significantly reduce the daily exposure of households to fumes, which will in turn help avoid premature deaths caused by indoor air pollution. UN organizations and Special Agencies such as the UNDP, UNIDO, and SE4All have already changed lives and taken the first steps in promoting universal access to modern energy. Nevertheless, there are a few challenges to accomplishing the seventh SDG such as implementing sustainable technologies in the social, cultural, and economic domains. Financially, the UN estimates that USD 1.25 Trillion is needed to create universal access to sustainable modern energy by 2030. In the end, complete universal access could create a large amount of jobs and more competitive economies while also providing energy for every individual, which can benefit every single individual in each Member State and provide a greater sense of world peace.

Committee Directive

World Energy Outlook 2010. The International Energy Agency. Paris, France. 2010. http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/media/weo2010.pdf (accessed August 3, 2016).

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ Ibid.

¹⁶⁹ Ibid.

¹⁷⁰ Ibid.

Enabling Investment in Sustainable Energy Infrastructure," The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, https://www.oecd.org/dac/POST-2015%20sustainable%20energy.pdf (accessed August 3, 2016).

^{17/2} Ibid.

Access to Modern Energy: Assessment and Outlook for Developing and Emerging Regions. The International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis. Laxenburg, Austria. 2012.
<a href="http://www.iiasa.ac.at/web/home/research

^{174 &}quot;Modern energy for all: why it matters," The International Energy Agency,

http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/resources/energydevelopment/modernenergyforallwhyitmatters/ (accessed September 16, 2016).

World Economic and Social Survey 2013: Sustainable Development Challenges. The United Nations. New York City, New York, United States. 2013. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/2843WESS2013.pdf (accessed September 16, 2016).

¹⁷⁶ "Affordable and Clean Energy: Why It Matters," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Why-it-Matters CleanEnergy 1p.pdf (accessed September 16, 2016).

Energy poverty across the world remains a prominent concern for Member States moving forward. The poor living conditions and obsolete biomass for heating that result from lack of modern energy does not bode well for humanitarian efforts and the future of the environment. To tackle this broad issue, delegates should focus on what other kinds of programs could be implemented internationally, regionally, as well as nationally for developed and developing Member States to help spread access to modern energy as well as fund it. Delegates should also be aware and accommodating of the cultural implications of implementing universal access to modern energy. Upon entering committee, delegates should have knowledge and an understanding of how their Member State feels about universally promoting sustainable and modern energy. In addition, delegates should come prepared with the knowledge of their Member State's economy, their position on sustainable energy, their amount of contribution towards sustainable modern energy, and an overview of how much of their energy consumption is sustainable. While there are many causes for energy poverty, the committee should not solely focus on the causes, but rather on how to solve this problem. It is important for Member States to collaborate, create policies, and provide incentive to make the large necessary financial investments a reality in order to fully eliminate energy poverty.

Technical Appendix Guide (TAG)

I: Preventing Gender-Based Sexual Violence

S/2015/203. *Conflict-related sexual violence: Report of the Secretary-General.* United Nations Security Council. 2015. http://www.undocs.org/S/2015/203

In this report, the United Nations (UN) Secretary-General (SG) outlines specific measures being taken by governments, the UN, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to prevent sexual violence in conflict zones and support survivors. There are detailed case studies within the report spanning one to three years and giving updates on independent human rights groups' efforts, joint task forces, and any legal frameworks being update or created to stem any more cases. This is important to delegates due to the various case studies in the report that are specific to Member States or governments involved in ongoing conflict or war. This report gives recommendations for all the case studies as an example of the work the UN does on the ground in these locations. It is also a good example of the recommendations needed to be implemented directly by Member States or governments.

Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. UN Diplomatic Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court. 1998. http://legal.un.org/icc/rome/proceedings/E/Rome%20Proceedings_v1_e.pdf

The Rome Statute is one of the first international legal frameworks that gives specific details of what gender-based sexual violence, or GBSV, during conflict is. The Rome Statute expands on the definition of sexual assault to include situations such as forced pregnancy, forced prostitution, and human trafficking. The Rome Statute contains a legal definition that also includes men and boys as potential victims of sexual assault and recognizes the large number of cases against women and girls. The Rome Statute recognizes that sexual assault is not only a "crime against nature," but also a "war crime" when used in times of conflict and war. This can be an important tool for delegates in understanding the legal norms of what can be prosecuted by international law and the International Criminal Court. This is a tool for delegates to understand the legally binding definition of sexual assault and the legal means for international courts to prosecute those accused of these crimes.

"Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary General for Sexual Violence in Conflict: Key Initiatives," The United Nations, http://www.un.org/sexualviolenceinconflict/our-work/key-initiatives/

The Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Sexual Violence in Conflict (SRSG-SVC) serves as the UN's spokesperson and political advocate on conflict-related sexual violence, and is the chair of the network UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict. This source will be useful for delegates because it contains reports and resolutions from UN bodies pertaining to sexual violence in conflict areas. Additionally, the site contains key initiatives that have been implemented such as strengthening protection and prevention, programmatic and funding challenges and opportunities, and comprehensive strategies to combat sexual violence.

A/RES/48/104. *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women*. United Nations General Assembly. 1993. http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm

This declaration is one of the first major frameworks for recognizing the large number of women and girls who suffer violence during times of conflict and war. It establishes methods in which the UN and governments can aim to protect women and girls from physical and sexual violence. The dialogue of how to support survivors of sexual assault, beyond the initial crimes, includes reflections on ongoing counseling and medical care. It spotlights the severity of physical and sexual violence perpetrated on women and girls and how this is exasperated by conflict. This is one of the first frameworks of its kind to give specific cadence to the amount of violence women and girls suffer during times of conflict. It is a resource for

delegates to understand what many of the frameworks the UN produced are based on and is also a good way to compare and contrast what steps were taken when thinking about how to best address the multitude of issues faced when dealing with sexual assault in conflict zones by the UN, governments, and many organizations.

UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict 2013-2014. Stop Rape Now. 2014. http://www.stoprapenow.org/uploads/docs/UN_Action_Progress_Report_2013-2014.pdf

This report gives the latest updates on proposals and implementation to help those who have been victims of sexual violence. Specifically, it outlines some Member States currently going through conflict or transitioning out of conflict and the measures the UN, Member States, NGOs, and civil societies are taking to support victims of sexual violence. The report outlines many of the policies including media campaigns, legal frameworks, or social supports including counseling and ongoing, affordable medical care. Additionally, it highlights the ongoing shortcomings in some of these conflict areas including the inability to reach regions where sexual violence is still very high and there is low government involvement in supporting victims or promoting deterrents. The continuation of conflict makes it difficult to implement much needed safety protocols. This resource will assist delegates in understanding the far-reaching effects of sexual violence and the contemporary works of the global community in combating this issue.

II: Promoting Universal Access for Sustainable and Modern Energy

Nuclear Power and Sustainable Development. The International Atomic Energy Agency. Vienna, Austria. 2016. http://www-pub.iaea.org/MTCD/Publications/PDF/Pub1754web-26894285.pdf

This publication explores the possible contribution of nuclear energy in addressing the issues of sustainable development and modern energy. It reviews the characteristics of nuclear power compared to alternative sources of electricity supply according to economic, social, and environmental aspects of sustainability. The conclusions summarized in this publication will help delegates consider nuclear energy as an efficient source of modern energy to promote universally.

Energy Poverty: How to Make Modern Energy Access Universal? International Energy Agency. Paris, France. 2010. http://www.worldenergyoutlook.org/media/weowebsite/2010/weo2010_poverty.pdf

This publication from the International Energy Agency aims to fully explain how to make modern energy access universal. First, it explains the universal energy access case which includes the current situation for access to electricity, clean cooking facilities, investment needs, and financing for the goal. The large amount of statistics, graphs, and projections in this section will prove helpful for delegates who wish to know more exact statistics of the situation. Secondly, the publication explains its Energy Development Index, or EDI, a better way to monitor the progress of a region's transition to the use of modern fuels. Lastly, the publication explains potential policy implications such as implementing energy access policies both nationally and internationally.

Energy For All: Financing Access for the Poor. The International Energy Agency. Paris, France. 2011. https://www.iea.org/publications/freepublications/publication/weo2011_energy_for_all.pdf

The main purpose of this publication is to explain how to finance promoting electricity and clean cooking facilities access for the poor to achieve modern energy access for all. It concludes that to promote universal modern energy access by 2030, annual investment needs to average USD 40 Billion per year, and most this investment is required in Africa. The publication also argues that there are five actions that are essential for achieving the modern energy goal: internationally adopt a statement that modern energy access is a political priority, mobilize additional investment above the current investment of USD 14 Billion per year, increase private sector investment, utilize end-user finance to overcome the initial cost of the goal, and make provision for the collection of data to quantify the challenge and monitor progress.

"United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon Details Sustainable Energy for All Plan," United Nations

Foundation, 2012, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CwoBKPAMQNE

This speech excerpt from former Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon's address at the Center for Global Development provides a first-hand account of what it is like to live without access to electricity. The Secretary-General explains the struggle of growing up in Korea without electricity access and how he had to study in college by candlelight, which was expensive to do at the time. He also explains the importance of implementing his Sustainable Energy for All plan and how it can help promote universal access to modern energy.

Energy Access for Development. International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis. Laxenburg, Austria. 2014. http://www.iiasa.ac.at/web/home/research/Flagship-Projects/Global-Energy-Assessment/GEA_Chapter19_energyaccess_hires.pdf

This publication seeks to inform the public about the relationship between poverty and energy, the role energy access has in poverty reduction and rural development, and the nature of the access challenge. It also discusses the past efforts and status of access to electricity, modern fuels for cooking and heating, and energy for income-generating activities. Lastly, the publication assesses the improvements in household access to modern energy, specifically in Africa, Asia and Pacific, and Latin America and the Caribbean. It concludes that the first step to promoting universal access to modern energy is to establish an effective date collection system based on accepted definitions and indicators of access to measure progress towards energy access targets and goals.