

DEBATE. INSPIRE. ACHIEVE.



UNHRC

United Nations Human
Rights Council

AGENDA: Citizenship, statelessness and the Human Rights of refugees, asylum seekers and migrants; with special emphasis on safeguards against arbitrary deprivation of nationality.

Letter From the Executive Board

Delegates,

Congratulations on getting the opportunity to participate in Sreenidhi MUN 2025. To the veterans of MUN, we promise you a very enriching debate that you've never experienced before and to the newcomers, we are excited to be a part of your maiden voyage. As the world looks to come out of a rather 'depression ridden' health crisis, the importance of our generation being 'ready enough' to accept various challenges that lie ahead of us can hardly be overstated.

What we desire from the delegates is not how experienced or articulate they are. Rather, we want to see how she/he can respect disparities and differences of opinion, work around these, while extending their own foreign policy so that it encompasses more of the others without compromising their own stand, thereby reaching a unanimously acceptable practical solution. The following pages intend to guide you with the nuances of the agenda as well as the Committee. The Guide chronologically touches upon all the different aspects that are relevant and will lead to fruitful debate in the Committee. It will provide you with a bird's eye view of the gist of the issue.

However, it must be noted that the background guide only contains certain basic information which may form the basis for the debate and your research.

You are the representative of your allotted country, and it is our hope that you put in wholehearted efforts to research and comprehensively grasp all important facets of the diverse agenda. All the delegates should be prepared well to make the committee's direction and debate productive. After all, only then will you truly be able to represent your country in the best possible way.

We encourage you to go beyond this background guide and delve into the extremities of the agenda to further enhance your knowledge of a burning global issue.

We look forward to seeing you at Sreenidhi MUN 2025 and wish you the very best in your preparations.

Godspeed!

Regards,
The Executive Board,
UNHRC

SECTION I

•**1. Procedure:** The purpose of putting in procedural rules in any committee is to ensure a more organized and efficient debate. The committee will follow the UNA-USA Rules of Procedure. Although the Executive Board shall be fairly strict with the Rules of Procedure, the discussion of the agenda will be the main priority. So, delegates are advised not to restrict their statements due to hesitation regarding the procedure.

2. Foreign Policy: Following the foreign policy of one's country is the most important aspect of a Model UN Conference. This is what essentially differentiates a Model UN from other debating formats. To violate one's foreign policy without adequate reason is one of the worst mistakes a delegate can make.

3. Role of the Executive Board: The Executive Board is appointed to facilitate debate. The committee shall decide the direction and flow of the debate. The delegates are the ones who constitute the committee and hence must be uninhibited while presenting their opinions/stance on any issue. However, the Executive Board may put forward questions and/or ask for clarifications at all points in time to further debate and test participants.

RESEARCH SUGGESTIONS

1. Read the agenda guide, prior to the conference and make a note of everything that needs to be understood. Do read the background guide. In case of a crisis situation always read and look for the analysis and plausible rationale on the updates that may be issued before the mun.

2. Google/search everything and find relating documents (UN news articles, scholarly articles) for whatever was not really understood.

3. After wholly understanding (subject to how in depth you wish to go for the research), try understanding your allotted country's perspective on the agenda.

4. Make the stance in accordance with the country's perspective on the agenda which shall also define your foreign policy (history, past actions etc.)

5. Understand the cues and hints that are given minutely in the background guide that may come handy while presentation of contentions in committee.

6. Take a good look at the mandate of the council as to what you can discuss and what you can do in this council. This point is placed here, just because your knowledge base shouldn't be limited to the mandate of the council. Know everything; speak whatever the mandate allows.

7. Follow the links given alongside and understand why they were given.

8. Predict the kind of discussions and on what sub topics can take place, thereby analyzing the sub topic research you have done and prepare yourself accordingly, make a word/pages document and put your arguments there for better presentation in council or bring a hard copy of it to the committee.

9. Ask the Executive Board your doubts, if you have any, before the conference by means of the given email id and make sure to not disclose your allotted country, until you want to understand the policy of your country.

10. Download the united nations charter, the Geneva conventions of 1949 and additional protocols there to and other relative treaties and documents given.

11. Ask questions regarding procedure to speak something etc., if you have any, on the day of the conference.

NATURE OF PROOF AND EVIDENCE

Documents from the following sources will be considered as credible proof for any allegations made in committee or statements that require verification:

- Reuters: Appropriate Documents and articles from the Reuters News agency will be used to corroborate or refute controversial statements made in committee.
- UN Document: Documents by all UN agencies will be considered as sufficient proof. Reports from all UN bodies including treaty-based bodies will also be accepted.
- Government Reports: Government Reports of a given country used to corroborate an allegation on the same aforementioned country will be accepted as proof.

NATURE OF PROOF AND EVIDENCE

The Rules of Procedure (ROP) in a Modern United Nations simulation, refer to the procedural aspects of the committee. Simply put, they are how the committee functions; they ensure a structured environment to discuss the agenda and maintain decorum, among other aspects. Certain aspects of the ROP are up to the Executive Board and can be changed as per discretion. The link attached below explains them in detail:

[RULES OF PROCEDURE](#)

SECTION II

UNITED NATIONS HUMAN RIGHTS COUNCIL

Human rights are inalienable entitlements established not by law, but by human birthright, and the history of human rights has been shaped by all major world events and by the struggle for dignity, freedom and equality everywhere. However, it was only with the signing of the Charter of the United Nations (1945), the subsequent establishment of the United Nations (UN) in the shadow of World War II, and the call to “reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights,” where human rights finally achieved formal, universal recognition. The UN has remained committed to “promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all” through charter-based and treaty-based mechanisms. Charter-based mechanisms derive from the provisions of the Charter, most commonly as subsidiary bodies like the Human Rights Council. Treaty-based mechanisms are the human rights covenants and conventions, along with their respective treaty bodies, which take the force of law and monitor the implementation of the provisions of the treaties. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR, 1948), a treaty-based mechanism, was adopted by the General Assembly as a “common standard of achievement” for all peoples and countries to pursue the protection and promotion of human rights. After decades of standing alone, this cornerstone document was joined by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1976), and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) and its two Optional Protocols to comprise the International Bill of Rights. It was not just these documents which guided human rights in the UN system, but also the Commission on Human Rights, which manifested as “the main subsidiary organ of the United Nations dealing with human rights.

MANDATE

Recognizing the need to preserve and build on the Commission’s achievements and to redress its shortcomings, the HRC was created to ensure stronger system-wide coherence and preserve the value of human life “in larger freedom.” The Council was charged with, inter alia, assuming the roles and responsibilities of the Commission, promoting the full implementation of human rights obligations, responding to human rights emergencies, undertaking a universal periodic review, and making recommendations to States and the General Assembly (GA).

IMPORTANT CONVENTIONS, TREATIES AND DOCUMENTS

Following is the list of documents that need to be perused by all delegates before they come to the council, without which you may find yourself standing on shore, while the council will sail away. Please understand that you need to know the following aspects regarding each of the mentioned documents:

- The reason why this document exists (for e.g. the Geneva Conventions were enacted to lay down the rules of war and for the treatment of all parties concerned in the wars.)
- The nature of the document and the force it carries, i.e. whether it is a treaty, a convention, a doctrine, a declaration or a universally accepted custom or norm.
- The areas where the document can be applied or has jurisdiction on (for e.g. international humanitarian law applies only to situations of armed conflict, whereas the human rights laws applies at all times of war and peace alike.)
- The contents of the document at hand. You need not memorize any articles or rules of any convention or treaty, but should know what the document has to say in various situations that may arise in the council.

INTERNATIONAL BILL OF RIGHTS

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- Second Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Aiming at the abolition of the death penalty.

SECTION III

INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS LAW

States are the ‘parties’ that take part in international law – the members of the United Nations are, for example, all ‘states’. A ‘state’ is simply a technical term for a country. Each state is a distinct political entity, independent and, usually, with an effective government.

INTERNATIONAL LAW

International law defines the legal responsibilities of States in their conduct with each other, and their treatment of individuals within State boundaries. Its domain encompasses a wide range of issues of international concern, such as human rights, disarmament, international crime, refugees, migration, problems of nationality, the treatment of prisoners, the use of force, and the conduct of war, among others. It also regulates the global commons, such as the environment and sustainable development, international waters, outer space, global communications and world trade.

In international law, human rights are recognised in three principal ways:

- international treaties, covenants and conventions (also known as ‘treaty law’);
- customary international law; and
- resolutions of the United Nations General Assembly

INTERNATIONAL TREATIES, COVENANTS AND CONVENTIONS

In the area of human rights, ‘express agreements’ are the most significant source of international law.

The law of treaties concerns obligations that result from express agreements. The basic principle of treaty law is that agreements are binding upon the parties to them and must be performed by them in good faith. Similar to a contract, an international treaty imposes binding obligations on states that are parties to it. The parties accept responsibilities towards each other through mutual obligations and as with a contract; one treaty party can call other parties to account for their actions. Treaties can be bilateral (between two countries) or multilateral (between more than two countries). Becoming a party to a treaty is a legal process that involves a series of steps. A state usually signs an international treaty and later ratifies it. A state will accede to a treaty it did not sign.

CUSTOMARY INTERNATIONAL LAW

Customary international law is not set down in treaties or other documents: it comes from the usual actions of states towards each other. A rule is identified on the basis that states usually act in a certain way, and do so out of a sense of obligation. This source of international law has long been accepted – the law of piracy is an example. Customary law is an important source of international law because it binds all nations, and so is not limited in its application, as a treaty is, by reference to who has ratified it or acceded to it.

The elements of custom are:

- uniform and consistent state practice over time; and
- the belief that such practice is obligatory.

REGIONAL RIGHTS FRAMEWORKS

The terms of the regional treaties substantially overlap with the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), but both the American and the African Charter go further, covering some rights under the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). Many countries have ratified or acceded to the UN Covenants as well as to the regional treaty relevant to them.

Europe

In Europe, the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of 1950 (European Convention on Human Rights) has been very successful in setting human rights standards for European citizens, which have been applied through the activity of the Council of Europe, the European Commission on Human Rights and the European Court of Human Rights. The decisions of the Court are generally respected and implemented by the 47 members of the Council of Europe who have, by ratifying the Convention, agreed to amend their domestic laws to ensure compliance.

The Americas

Similarly, in the Americas, the American Convention on Human Rights of 1969 (American Convention) creates a Commission and a Court. The American Convention refers directly to civil and political rights. It incorporates economic, social and cultural rights with a separate Protocol. Not all the countries that have ratified the American Convention have also ratified the Protocol. Moreover, the effectiveness of the Inter-American system is limited, however, by the refusal of the United States of America to ratify the Convention, and by the political instability of some of the member nations of the Organisation of American States.

Africa

The African (Banjul) Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (Banjul Charter) was signed in 1981. It established the Organisation of African Unity (OAU). In 1999, the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) issued the Sirte Declaration to establish a new regional institution, the African Union. The creation of an African Union has brought a renewed focus to democratisation and the protection of human rights in Africa. It replaces the OAU and manages the OAU mechanisms. The OAU passed a protocol to create an African Court in 1998 on Human and People's Rights, which came into effect in 2004. The process of harmonising the new African Court on Human and People's Rights with the African Commission on Human and People's Rights was completed in 2010. The Commission, and States, and in some countries, non-government organisations with standing can bring human rights complaints to the Court.

That is not to say that there has been no legal response to gross human rights violations in Africa, though it has been mainly through prosecutions for genocide and serious violations of international humanitarian law (the law of armed conflict). Consider for instance, the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (established in neighbouring Tanzania) that was established by the UN to prosecute persons responsible for genocide and other serious violations of international humanitarian law (such as crimes against humanity, and war crimes) committed in Rwanda from April – July 1994 in which an estimated 800,000 people were killed. Also the Special Court for Sierra Leone was established jointly by the UN and the Government of Sierra Leone, to try those bearing the greatest responsibility for war crimes and crimes against humanity committed in Sierra Leone since 30 November 1996.

Asia and the Pacific

There remains no regional human rights treaty covering the Asia and Pacific regions. However, there has been recent progress towards establishing a regional human rights mechanism. The Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) (Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam) adopted the ASEAN Charter in 2007. Article 14 of the Charter commits ASEAN to developing an 'ASEAN human rights body'. In 2008, the first meeting of a High Level Panel was convened to establish terms of reference for the human rights body. In November 2012, ASEAN produced a Declaration on Human Rights. It is not binding and has no complaints mechanism. Interestingly, it includes rights to development and to peace.

Another regional human rights organisation is the Asia Pacific Forum on National Human Rights Institutions (APF). Members include the national human rights commissions of Afghanistan, Australia, India, Indonesia, Jordan, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, New Zealand, Palestine, the Philippines, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Thailand and Timor Leste. In order to belong to the APF, a national human rights institution must comply with the UN 'Paris Principles', a set of principles that safeguard the independence and mandate of national human rights institutions.

STATE OBLIGATION

Traditionally States are responsible for violations of human rights it committed. Gradually international law evolved to:

- Oblige States to protect, promote and fulfil human rights.
- Hold States accountable for violations of human rights, whether committed by the State actors or non-State actors.
- Obligate States to take reasonable action to prevent human rights abuses before they occur and to effectively respond when they occur.

This principle, known as the due diligence principle, is important in violence against women given that: most acts of violence against women are committed by non-State actors; and the public/private divide has long posed obstacles to States entering the so-called private realm to end Violence against Women.

DUE DILIGENCE PRINCIPLE

States have an obligation to:

- Prevent acts of violence against women;
- Protect the victims/survivors;
- Prosecute and investigate the incidents of violence;
- Punish the perpetrators;
- Provide redress to the victim/survivors for the harm suffered

OVERVIEW OF ENFORCEMENT MECHANISM

International law generally suffers from the lack of a central enforcement mechanism, and human rights law is no exception. The international human rights conventions are the product of multilateral negotiation – it is left open to each state that ratifies a convention to bring the standards to life in its domestic context. However, the treaty bodies that monitor each convention produce ‘General Comments’ as authoritative interpretations of human rights standards to guide states.

The international community is made up of states that are protective of their independence and sovereignty, and have never agreed to establish effective procedures for the enforcement of international law. A permanent court, the International Court of Justice (ICJ), sits in The Hague in the Netherlands. The powers of the Court are however quite limited: it can only hear cases involving countries, rather than individuals, and countries must agree voluntarily to submit disputes to the Court. There is no international police force to help in implementing international law. Since 2002, however, the world has had a new criminal court: see International criminal mechanisms.

Nonetheless, it remains true that many rules of international law are very difficult to enforce. To varying degrees, most countries tend to respect or at least wish to be seen to respect the principles of international law because they do not want to be criticized or, in extreme cases, ostracized, by the international community.

In relation to human rights treaties, there is provision for the supervision of implementation by state parties of their obligations, in the following principal ways:

- UN Human Rights Council’s special procedures;
- Reporting procedures;
- State versus state complaints; and
- Individual complaints against states; and
- Criminal proceedings in the International Criminal Court.

Some of the human rights treaties are implemented through reporting procedures alone and others use state and/or individual complaints mechanisms.

SECTION IV

I. Introduction to the Agenda

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights unequivocally states that “everyone has the right to a nationality” and that “no-one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality.” But many thousands of people across the globe lack the security and protection which citizenship can provide. A substantial proportion of the world’s stateless people are also victims of forced displacement.

The right to a nationality is a fundamental human right. It implies the right of each individual to acquire, change and retain a nationality. International law provides that the right of States to decide who their nationals are is not absolute and, in particular, States must comply with their human rights obligations concerning the granting and loss of nationality.

II. Nationality and Citizenship

Citizenship is often considered a fundamental element of human security. As well as providing people with a sense of belonging and identity, it entitles the individual to the protection of the state and provides a legal basis for the exercise of many civil and political rights. People who lack a nationality may find it difficult or impossible to engage in a range of activities that citizens take for granted. If an individual is to enjoy the automatic right of residence in a country, carry a passport and benefit from diplomatic protection while abroad, then citizenship is indispensable. In many situations, nationality also enables people to find employment, to make use of public services, to participate in the political process and to have access to the judicial system.

III. Statelessness

Under international law, a stateless person is one "who is not considered as a national by any state under the operation of its law.". This definition is helpfully concise and to the point. But it is also a very limited and somewhat legalistic definition, referring to a specific group of people known as *de jure* stateless persons. It does not encompass the many people, usually described as *de facto* stateless persons, who are unable to establish their nationality or whose citizenship is disputed by one or more countries. The latter term uses the notion of statelessness in its broader sense, to denote all those people who lack what has become known as an ‘effective nationality’, and who are consequently unable to enjoy the rights that are associated with citizenship.

In addition to violations of their right to a nationality, stateless persons are often subject to many other human rights violations. They may have difficulty accessing basic rights such as education, healthcare, employment and freedom of movement.

Statelessness exacerbates these barriers and difficulties otherwise already faced by minorities and other disadvantaged groups. Women belonging to minorities may be further marginalized by gender-based discrimination in relation to their acquisition, change or retention of nationality and the conferral of nationality on their children. While nationality alone is not a solution for the stigmatization and discrimination faced by stateless minorities, it is generally crucial to the full and equal exercise of human rights and freedoms.

States shall introduce safeguards to prevent statelessness by granting their nationality to persons who would otherwise be stateless and are either born in their territory or are born abroad to one of their nationals. States shall also prevent statelessness upon loss or deprivation of nationality.

Discrimination, including on the grounds of minority status, religion or belief, age, gender identity or gender expression, disability, language, racial or ethnic origin, sex, sex characteristics or sexual orientation -- or a combination of these - is one of the leading causes of statelessness. It is estimated that more than 75% of the world's known stateless populations are members of minority groups.

IV. Measures taken to combat statelessness and arbitrary deprivation of nationality

With the growth of statelessness around the world and the growing awareness of its implications for national and regional security, the international community has in recent years been revisiting the international instruments related to questions of citizenship. The 1954 Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons and the 1961 Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness serve as important reference points for the current debate. In brief, the former of these instruments was designed primarily to regulate the treatment of de jure stateless people who are not covered by the 1951 UN Refugee Convention, primarily in areas such as their legal rights, their access to work and welfare and their ability to acquire a nationality.

The latter instrument, however, was intended to reduce the future number of stateless cases by addressing the problem at source. As well as stipulating that de jure stateless children should be granted the nationality of the signatory state in which a parent had citizenship, the 1961 Convention attempts to avert those cases of statelessness resulting from a change of civil status, residence abroad or the voluntary renunciation of nationality. At the same time, the Convention prohibits signatory states from depriving people of their nationality on racial, ethnic, religious or political grounds. The Convention does not oblige signatories to grant nationality to any stateless persons who enter its territory – only those who already have a strong connection with the state and for whom no other nationality is forthcoming.

Other international instruments dealing with the right to a nationality include the 1957 Convention on the Nationality of Married Women, the 1966 Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child. The instruments concerning women seek to ensure that they enjoy equal rights to acquire, change or retain nationality, while those covering children are primarily intended to ensure that children have the right to be registered and to acquire a nationality from birth.

However, few countries chose to accede to these legal instruments. For instance, In 1975, UNHCR was entrusted with certain responsibilities in relation to stateless people. Yet, for the next 15 years, the organization devoted relatively little time, effort or resources to this element of its mandate.

In this view, there is a general recognition that the international instruments on statelessness are characterized by a number of related weaknesses – problems which must be addressed now that this issue has found a more prominent place on the international humanitarian agenda. One of these weaknesses is to be found in the failure of the existing conventions to address the causes of statelessness in a sufficient manner. As previously observed, these conventions have been formulated more from the point of view of a state's prerogatives and sovereignty than of individual human rights.

V. Case Studies

Elsewhere in the world, however, several groups of stateless people have been directly involved in recent refugee movements, expulsions and internal displacements.

Mauritania: In 1989-90, around 60,000 black Africans were expelled from Mauritania to Senegal, where they were recognized as refugees and assisted by UNHCR. The impasse for the 56,000 refugees who are still in Senegal centres on their insistence that the Mauritanian authorities repatriate them en masse, return their land and issue them with new identity documents. For their part, the Mauritanian authorities have maintained that those people who were expelled from the country at the end of the 1980s were in fact Senegalese nationals and that their Mauritanian identity documents were fraudulent.

Kuwait: In the late 1980s, the Kuwaiti authorities promulgated a series of measures that removed the Bidoon from the country's census rolls and stripped them of their civil identification cards, thereby depriving them of access to government jobs and social services. During and after the Iraqi occupation and Gulf War of 1991, 100,000 or more Bidoons left Kuwait and arrived in Iraq, some of them leaving as a result of mass expulsions. Following their departure, the US State Department reported in 1993, "the government prevented the return of the Bidoon who had left Kuwait, either willingly or by force... by delaying or denying their entry visas." Since that time, few have been allowed to return to their former country of residence.

Myanmar: In 1991-92, some 250,000 Rohingyas, members of a Muslim minority group who are generally not recognized as citizens of Myanmar, fled from their homes and were accommodated in UNHCR-assisted refugee camps in Bangladesh. According to a report submitted by a Special Rapporteur of the UN Human Rights Commission, the exodus was occasioned by a military campaign which involved "extrajudicial executions, torture and ill-treatment, and forced labour and portering." These accusations have been rejected by the Myanmar authorities.

Bhutan: Between 1990 and 1992, up to 120,000 Nepali-speaking people abandoned their homes in southern Bhutan and fled to Nepal and India. Around 90,000 of this number are accommodated in UNHCR refugee camps in Nepal. According to a UNHCR-sponsored report, the exodus was provoked by an attempt to withdraw Bhutanese citizenship from these people and to impose the very different culture and language of northern Bhutan upon them. These initiatives led to a series of demonstrations by the southern Bhutanese, followed by a "swift and harsh" response from the authorities, involving "arbitrary arrests, ill-treatment and torture." While the refugees have expressed their desire to return to Bhutan, the authorities there continue to deny that the majority of the refugees have a claim to Bhutanese citizenship, and therefore refuse to admit them.

Cambodia: In 1993, around 35,000 ethnic Vietnamese – long-term residents of Cambodia who lack a clear status in the country's nationality laws – fled by boat after they had been subjected to a series of racially motivated attacks by Khmer Rouge soldiers. Most of this number fled into Viet Nam, while around 5,000 remained stranded on the Cambodian side of the border. According to a UNHCR publication, "all people of Vietnamese origin in Cambodia are vulnerable to racial violence, not only from the Khmer Rouge but also from other groups who may use anti-Vietnamese propaganda for political gains. The fact that the ethnic Vietnamese community cannot rely on regulations or legal documents makes them all the more vulnerable.

Democratic Republic of Congo: In 1996 and 1997, eastern DRC (then Zaire) was engulfed by an armed conflict which was to a large extent sparked off by a dispute over the nationality of ethnic Tutsis living in the area. The subsequent fighting, involving at least three different forces – Tutsi rebels, the former Rwandese army and the Zairean military – has provoked mass displacement amongst the local population and amongst the Rwandese refugees who fled to the area in 1994 following the Rwandan Genocide.

It is also worth recalling that in the past few years a number of countries have managed to address the problem of statelessness in a positive manner. In Lebanon, for example, more than 10,000 stateless persons, most of them from Middle Eastern minority communities, were granted citizenship in 1994-95.

Therefore, the challenge before us is to balance views of states with the fundamental principle that individual human rights in the context of citizenship, statelessness and arbitrary deprivation of nationality are universal.

VI. Relevant International Agreements, Resolutions and Reports

1. [UNHRC Resolution 7/10](#)
2. [UNHRC Resolution 20/5](#)
3. [UNHRC Resolution 26/14](#)
4. [Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness](#)
5. [Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons](#)
6. [Convention relating to the Status of Refugees](#)
7. [Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees](#)
8. [Declaration on the Human Rights of Individuals who are not nationals of the country in which they live](#)
9. [A/73/205](#)
10. [A/HRC/31/29](#)

QUESTIONS A RESOLUTION MUST ANSWER (QARMA)

1. What legal and institutional safeguards should States establish to prevent the arbitrary deprivation of nationality, particularly in situations involving political persecution, ethnic discrimination, or state succession?
2. How can international cooperation be strengthened to address statelessness resulting from cross-border displacement, conflict, or mass migration, while respecting State sovereignty and ensuring protection of individual rights?
3. What role should the United Nations, particularly the UNHCR and OHCHR, play in supporting states to identify, prevent, and remedy cases of statelessness and rights violations against refugees, asylum seekers, and migrants?
4. How can States reform their nationality and migration policies to align with international human rights standards while addressing domestic political, social, and economic concerns?
5. What mechanisms can be put in place to guarantee access to fundamental rights — such as education, healthcare, and legal identity — for refugees, asylum seekers, and stateless persons pending resolution of their legal status?
7. What education and awareness initiatives can States and international partners undertake to counter misinformation, xenophobia, and identity-based discrimination that contribute to statelessness and hostility toward migrants?

Advisory Note – Kindly note that your arguments and recommendations in the committee should reflect a genuine inquiry into the subjects of Human Rights Violations reviewed under the guiding International laws and conventions listed in the first part of the guide.

Additional Resources:-

UNIVERSAL HUMAN RIGHTS INSTRUMENTS

In addition to the core human rights treaties, there are many other universal instruments relating to human rights. A non-exhaustive selection is listed below.

WORLD CONFERENCE ON HUMAN RIGHTS AND MILLENNIUM ASSEMBLY

[Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action](#)

[United Nations Millennium Declaration](#)

THE RIGHT OF SELF-DETERMINATION

[United Nations Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples](#)

[General Assembly resolution 1803 \(XVII\) of 14 December 1962, "Permanent sovereignty over natural resources"](#)

[International Convention against the Recruitment, Use, Financing and Training of Mercenaries](#)

RIGHTS OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES AND MINORITIES

[Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989 \(No. 169\)](#)

[Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities](#)

PREVENTION OF DISCRIMINATION

[Discrimination \(Employment and Occupation\) Convention, 1958 \(No. 111\)](#)

[International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination \(ICERD\) Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice](#)

[Convention against Discrimination in Education](#)

[Protocol Instituting a Conciliation and Good Offices Commission to be responsible for seeking a settlement of any disputes which may arise between States Parties to the Convention against Discrimination in Education](#)

[Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief](#)

[World Conference against Racism, 2001 \(Durban Declaration and Programme of Action\)](#)

RIGHTS OF WOMEN

[Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women \(CEDAW\) Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women \(CEDAW-OP\)](#)

[Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict](#)

[Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women](#)

RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

[Convention on the Rights of the Child \(CRC\)](#)

[Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography \(CRC-OPSC\)](#)

[Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict \(CRC-OPAC\)](#)

[Minimum Age Convention, 1973 \(No. 138\)](#)

[Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 \(No. 182\)](#)

RIGHTS OF OLDER PERSONS

[United Nations Principles for Older Persons](#)

RIGHTS OF PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES

[Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities](#)

[Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities](#)

[Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons](#) [Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons](#)

[Principles for the protection of persons with mental illness and the improvement of mental health care](#)

[Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities](#)

HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE: PROTECTION OF PERSONS SUBJECTED TO DETENTION OR IMPRISONMENT

[United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners \(the Nelson Mandela Rules\)](#)

[Basic Principles for the Treatment of Prisoners](#)

[Body of Principles for the Protection of All Persons under Any Form of Detention or Imprisonment](#)

[United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty](#) [Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Being Subjected to Torture and Other](#)

[Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment](#)

[Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment \(CAT\)](#)

[Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment \(OPCAT\)](#)

[Principles of Medical Ethics relevant to the Role of Health Personnel, particularly Physicians, in the Protection of Prisoners and Detainees against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment](#)

[Principles on the Effective Investigation and Documentation of Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment](#)

[Safeguards guaranteeing protection of the rights of those facing the death penalty](#) [Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials](#)

[Basic Principles on the Use of Force and Firearms by Law Enforcement Officials](#)

[United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for Non-custodial Measures \(The Tokyo Rules\)](#) [United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice \(The Beijing Rules\)](#)

[Guidelines for Action on Children in the Criminal Justice System](#)

[United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency \(The Riyadh Guidelines\)](#)

[Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power](#) [Basic Principles on the Independence of the Judiciary](#) [Basic Principles on the Role of Lawyers](#)

[Guidelines on the Role of Prosecutors](#)

[Principles on the Effective Prevention and Investigation of Extra-legal, Arbitrary and Summary Executions](#)

[Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance](#)

[Basic Principles and Guidelines on the Right to a Remedy and Reparation](#)

[International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance](#)

[United Nations Rules for the Treatment of Women Prisoners and Non-custodial Measures for Women Offenders \(the Bangkok Rules\)](#)

[Updated Set of principles for the protection and promotion of human rights through action to combat impunity](#)

SOCIAL WELFARE, PROGRESS AND DEVELOPMENT

[Declaration on Social Progress and Development](#)

[Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition](#)

[Declaration on the Use of Scientific and Technological Progress in the Interests of Peace and for the Benefit of Mankind](#)

[Declaration on the Right of Peoples to Peace](#)

[Declaration on the Right to Development](#)

[Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights](#)

[Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity](#)

PROMOTION AND PROTECTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

[Principles relating to the status of national institutions \(The Paris Principles\)](#)

[Declaration on the Right and Responsibility of Individuals, Groups and Organs of Society to Promote and Protect Universally Recognized Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms](#)

[United Nations Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training](#)

NATIONALITY, STATELESSNESS, ASYLUM AND REFUGEES

[Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness](#) [Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons](#) [Convention relating to the Status of Refugees](#) [Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees](#)

[Declaration on the Human Rights of Individuals who are not nationals of the country in which they live](#)

HUMANITARIAN LAW

[Geneva Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War](#)

[Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War](#) [Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts \(Protocol I\)](#)

[Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts \(Protocol II\)](#)