Food and Agriculture Organization

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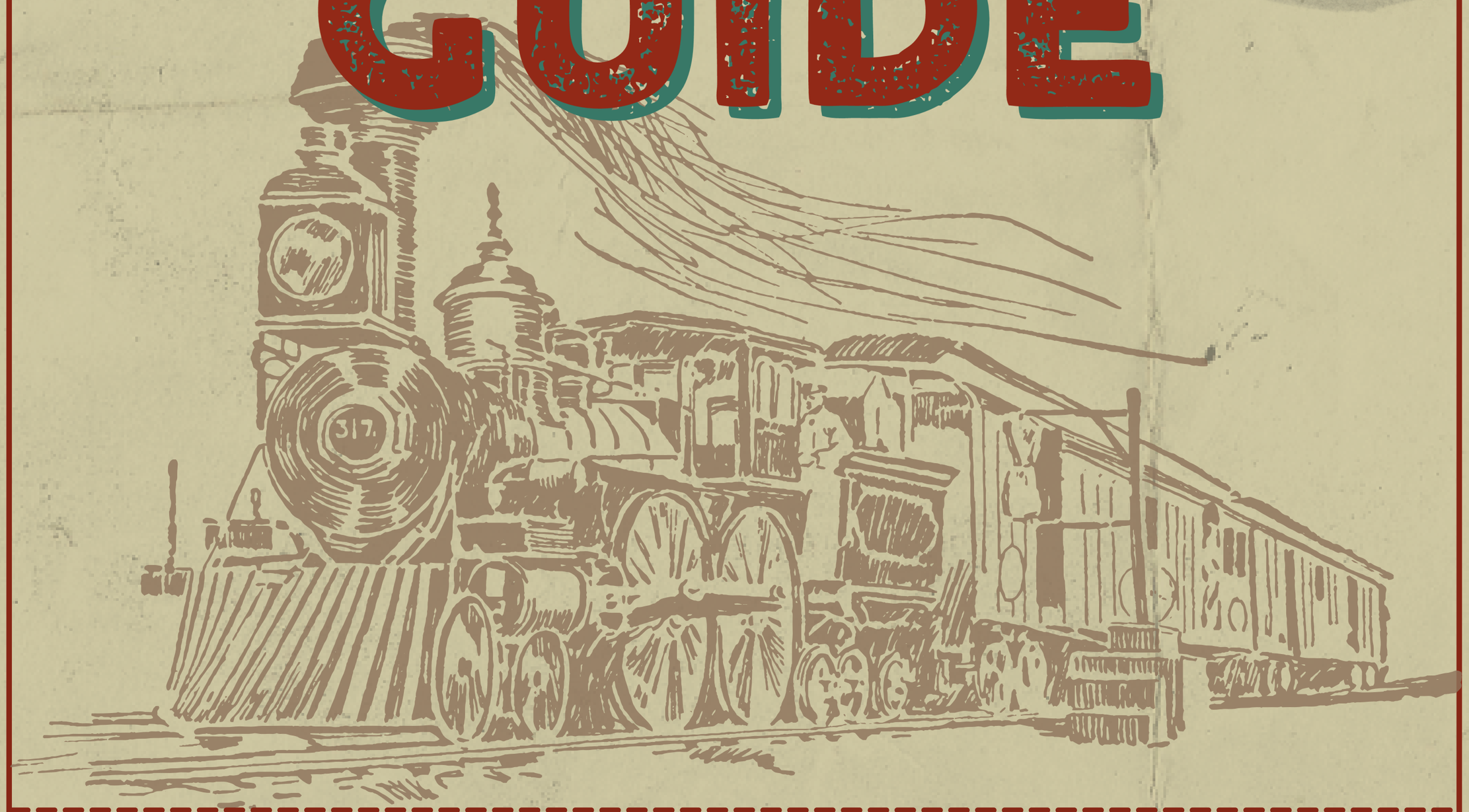
FAO GUIDE



Utilizing Multidisciplinary Mediums Towards Global Cooperation in the Post Pandemic Society

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SALWA SAFIRA

SALWA SAFIRA is a final year law student from the University of Indonesia and she will serve you as the head chairs of FAO DLS MUN 2021. She's currently taking international trade law and private international law as her concentration. Throughout her studies, She has been involved in various Model UN conferences both as a delegate and as a director. She is so excited to join Theresia and Athallah as the Board of Dais Team for FAO DLS MUN 2021! See you (virtually) soon, have fun and good luck! If you have any questions or inquiries please do not hesitate to contact her through salwasfra@gmail.com.

THERESIA THEOFANNY

THERESIA THEOFANNY is a penultimate year student from the University of Indonesia. She started her MUN journey a little over a year ago and since then has won and chaired in almost 20 conferences both national and international. Theresia believes that MUN is one of the best platforms for self-development and networking with like-minded individuals. That said, Theresia is beyond excited to serve as the Vice Chair of FAO as it is a new council addition to her MUN experience. Should you have anything to ask Theresia, she would be happy to accommodate you through theresiatheofanny@gmail.com.

ATHALLAH ARSYAF

ATHALLAH ARSYAF, is a second year medical student from the University of Indonesia. His profound interests are primarily concentrated on Global and International Health. He aspires to become a "physician-diplomat" working in positions responsible for medical advocacy, universal coverage of healthcare, and rights-based medicine. Having been to more than 10 conferences, he is very excited to chair this year's De La Salle MUN alongside Salwa and Theresia. As dias, he will be looking for delegates passionate in academics and diplomacy while helping to bridge the dynamical foreign policies in a savvy and sophisticated manner. But more importantly, he is also looking forward to meeting the delegates in person - getting to know them better not just as representatives of states but also as individuals. Please don't hesitate to reach out through muhammad.athallah91@ui.ac.id for any concerns regarding the conference materials.

SALWA SAFIRA
Chair

THERESIA THEOFANNY
Vice Chair

ATHALLAH ARSYAF
Rapporteur

Food and Agriculture Organization

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MESSAGE FROM THE DAIS

Greetings Delegates!

We are thrilled to welcome you to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) at De La Salle Model United Nations 2021. Through this study guide, you will get an introduction to the two topics that will be discussed within our committee, so we recommend you read it carefully. Good preparation is essential to actively participate, and it will also influence the overall experience through the quality of discussion. Of course, you are also welcomed to do any additional research. Also, please be sure to familiarize yourself with the rules of the procedure beforehand.

Your task at De La Salle MUN 2021 will be to represent your country's policies diligently and accurately and to negotiate for solutions that align best with your country's interests. Inline De La Salle MUN 2021's theme "Utilizing Multidicplinary Mediums Towards Global Cooperation in the Post Pandemic Society", we will focus our discussions on how to address different forms of discrimination. Our topics will be "The Role of Biotechnology in Agri-Food Supply Chain" and "Mitigating Food Insecurity in Situations of Conflicts and Emergencies". We are excited about the potential solutions you, in the role of your country, are going to offer.

International understanding and cooperation are becoming more important than ever, and MUN gives you a taste of how complex international economic, social, and politics are. You will look at problems from an angle you may not have considered before, and maybe log off of DLSMUN with a completely different perspective than you had before.

If you have any questions or concerns on the topics, the rules of procedure, or the committee in general, please do not hesitate to contact us. The FAO Board of Dais of the 7th De La Salle - Model United Nations is looking forward to meeting all of you at this year's conference!

We wish you all the best!

Your Dais,

Salwa Safira
Chair

Theresia Theofanny
Vice-Chair

Athallah Arsyaf
Rapporteur

Mandate of the Food and Agriculture Organization

FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations) was founded in 1945 as a result of the willingness of 44 countries to sign a pledge to combat hunger. This occurred when the world was emerging from the destruction and food shortages caused by World War II (FAO, 2018). FAO envisions a world free of hunger and malnutrition, in which food and agriculture contribute to improving the living conditions of all people, particularly the poorest, in a way that is economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable. FAO organizes its work to assist its Member Countries in achieving the common vision – individually at the national level and jointly at the regional and global levels – by taking into account the major challenges that the food and agriculture sector faces (FAO, 2017).

FAO has a crucial mandate to tackle the issues of global hunger. Food protection for everyone is at the core of FAO's efforts, to ensure that people have daily access to enough nutritious food to live productive, healthy lives. FAO's mission is to improve rural people's nutrition, increase agricultural productivity, boost their living standards, and contribute to global economic development. FAO has established key priorities on which it is best positioned to participate to meet the demands raised by major global developments in agricultural growth and challenges faced by member countries. A thorough examination of the Organization's comparative advantages was conducted, allowing strategic priorities to be established, which reflect the key areas of work on which FAO would focus its efforts to achieve its vision and global goals (FAO, 2021).

FAO's mission is to help create a world free of hunger through technical cooperation and assistance, and its members have agreed on three key goals (FAO, 2021):

- Eliminating hunger: FAO is working to ensure that everyone in the world has access to healthy, nutritious food. The need for coordinated action is acute and immediate, with nearly one billion people suffering from chronic hunger.
- Fighting poverty: FAO is working to eradicate poverty, especially in rural areas, by boosting agricultural production, combating plant, animal, and aquatic pests and diseases, and supporting the development of sustainable agricultural industries that can help communities store, process, and deliver safe, nutritious foods to consumers.
- Caring for the Earth: Member countries of the FAO are collaborating to ensure that global and national food and agriculture systems are environmentally sustainable. This entails i) production to keep up with population growth while ensuring that these systems do not put an unsustainable strain on the planet's finite natural resources; ii) reducing the use of chemical inputs that can pollute soil and water, and iii) collaborating with countries to adopt "climate-smart agricultural practices."

AGENDA I:

THE ROLE OF BIOTECHNOLOGY IN AGRI-FOOD SUPPLY CHAIN

I. Introduction

The utilization of biotechnology has recently been common in the practices of agriculture. With the need of meeting the demand of food, technology is used to accelerate and advance the amount of commodities. Simply put, agricultural biotechnology is defined as any technological application that uses biological systems, living organisms, or derivatives thereof, to make or modify products or processes for specific use (CBD, 2013). In the field of agriculture, the use of biotechnology is used in a multitude of ways—ranging from genetic engineering, molecular markers, molecular diagnostics, vaccines, and tissue culture used to modify living organisms. At its core level, the use of agritech is certainly beneficial to help increase and improve production. For instance, the use of genetic engineering alone can increase crop productivity, enhance crop protection, advance food processing, and add nutritional value (Wieczorek, 2003).

With its abundance of potential, agritech becomes a contender expected to transform the problems currently present in the food supply chain—especially during the wake of crisis such as the COVID-19 pandemic. However, the results of agritech is expected to bring ripple effects that extend to every corner of the agriculture sector, thus disrupting the food supply chain. Prediction of agriculture trends predict that there will be changes in how people eat, how food is sourced, how food is produced and traded, and what rules are followed in food trade (Djanian & Ferreira, 2020). Acknowledging these trends, it is imperative for all stakeholders to plan the utilization of agritech carefully to meet the future demand of the food supply chain.

II. Background

People began harvesting food from the natural biological diversity that surrounded them about 10,000 years BC, and gradually domesticated crops and animals. People started to select better plant materials for propagation and animals for breeding during the domestication period, initially accidentally but eventually to produce improved food crops and livestock. Farmers have been selecting desirable traits in crops for thousands of years, improving the plants for agricultural purposes. Crop varieties (also known as cultivars, from "cultivated varieties") with shorter growing seasons, improved disease and pest resistance, larger seeds and fruits, nutritional content, shelf life, and better tolerance to varied ecological conditions where crops were grown were all desirable traits (Wieczorek and Wright, 2012).

Since 1900, the cultivation of biotechnology can be traced from the famous finding of Mendelian Inheritance or also known as Mendel's Law found by Gregor Johann Mendel. This genetic law served as the scientific foundation for plant breeding. Plant breeding in the traditional sense can be described as the manipulation of chromosome combinations. The most important procedures of this law constitute i) Desired characteristics can be chosen and used in breeding and cultivation (selection); ii) Desirable traits from various plant lines can be mixed and matched (hybridization); iii) Crop improvement can be aided by polyploidy, and iv) Mutations either naturally occurring or chemically induced, may introduce new genetic variability.

It was until 1919, a Hungarian engineer named Karl Ereky coined the word "biotechnology" to describe the science and methods that enable goods to be made from raw materials using living organisms (Cowan, 2010). According to the Convention on Biological Diversity Article 2, Biotechnology is defined as a characterization of "any technological application that uses biological systems, living organisms, or derivatives thereof to make or alter products or processes for specific uses" (Convention on Biological Diversity, 1993).

While biotechnology applications date back to 6000 BC, it wasn't until the 1970s that the invention of genetic tools, as well as cellular and tissue engineering, gave the field a new lease on life, allowing for a wide range of novel applications (Estrada et al., 2017). Since the mid-1990s, when genetically engineered (GE, also known as a genetically modified organism or GMO) crop varieties first became commercially available, soybean, cotton, and corn farmers in the United States have quickly adopted them to reduce production costs and increase crop yields. The advent of "second generation" GE commodities, according to proponents, could move biotechnology's emphasis from the "input" side (creating traits that benefit crop production, such as pest resistance) to the "output" side (creating traits that benefit crop production, such as pest resistance) (creating traits that benefit consumers, such as lower-fat oils). These second-generation products may have improved nutritional and processing properties, as well as industrial and pharmaceutical applications. Both livestock and crop-based products are projected to be produced in the future (Cowan, 2010).

III. Discussion

A. Possible Conflict between Farmers and Biotech Companies

There is no denying that biotechnology is the most visible of today's modern agricultural innovations. Transgenic crops such as maize, rice, wheat, soybean, and cotton are among the agricultural biotechnology industries' highest targets. Despite this, biotechnology has sparked the most concern and opposition among customers, developing-country producers, farmers, and environmentalists. The general public, especially farmers, are not informed about the existence of the technology, it's possible benefits and risks, and they rarely engage in determining which crops or problems agricultural biotechnology research and development should work on (Ozor, 2008). The possible dispute between farmers and biotech companies are not only relating to the lack of technology literacy, but also relating to the ownership of agricultural products. To give the illustration, Delegates can refer to the Monsanto Legal Case.

Monsanto legal case is an agrochemical and agricultural biotechnology company that has been involved in many legal disputes concerning the agricultural, patents, consumers, and farmers protection (Peschard, 2020). Monsanto has vigorously promoted its business interests on the market, in the forests, and in courts, both at home and abroad, following the commercial launch of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) in 1996. Monsanto not only sought patent rights for its GM plant varieties in a number of countries, but also devised and introduced novel systems for collecting royalty and monitoring farmers. It has not shied away from suing growers, including its own clients, for patent violations, and has an 'uncanny record of winning cases (Agha, 2018). The form of discrimination towards farmers such as unpaid workload, farmers have to pay for technology yet the patents of the agriculture products are on behalf of the company not the farmers become a major factor

as to why the practice of biotechnology and GMO are still debated by many stakeholders. Although biotechnology is able to alleviate poverty, the unfair business practice and the lack of protection towards the farmers become a challenge for States and International Organization to be directly involved at the company's regulations.

To increase public interest, trust, and morale, three steps should be taken by the biotechnology companies to prepare all aspects of its practice, which are well-structured and objective surveys of the country's public views of, or viewpoints on, GE and GM goods should be conducted. Such assessments must be accompanied by organized activities to provide the public with reliable and adequate information on the nature of the technology and its products; stakeholders – retailers, farmers, and other social groups – should be legitimately represented on bodies charged with regulating GM import, growth, and commercialization; and if genetic engineering is to improve fodder, it must be accompanied by organized activities to provide the public with reliable and adequate information on the nature of the technology and its products. Transparency of the practice, strengthening the fair business, and labor protection of the farmers are other essential aspects to be protected to increase the public interest (Mugabe, 2003).

B. Future Disruptions in Agriculture Sector

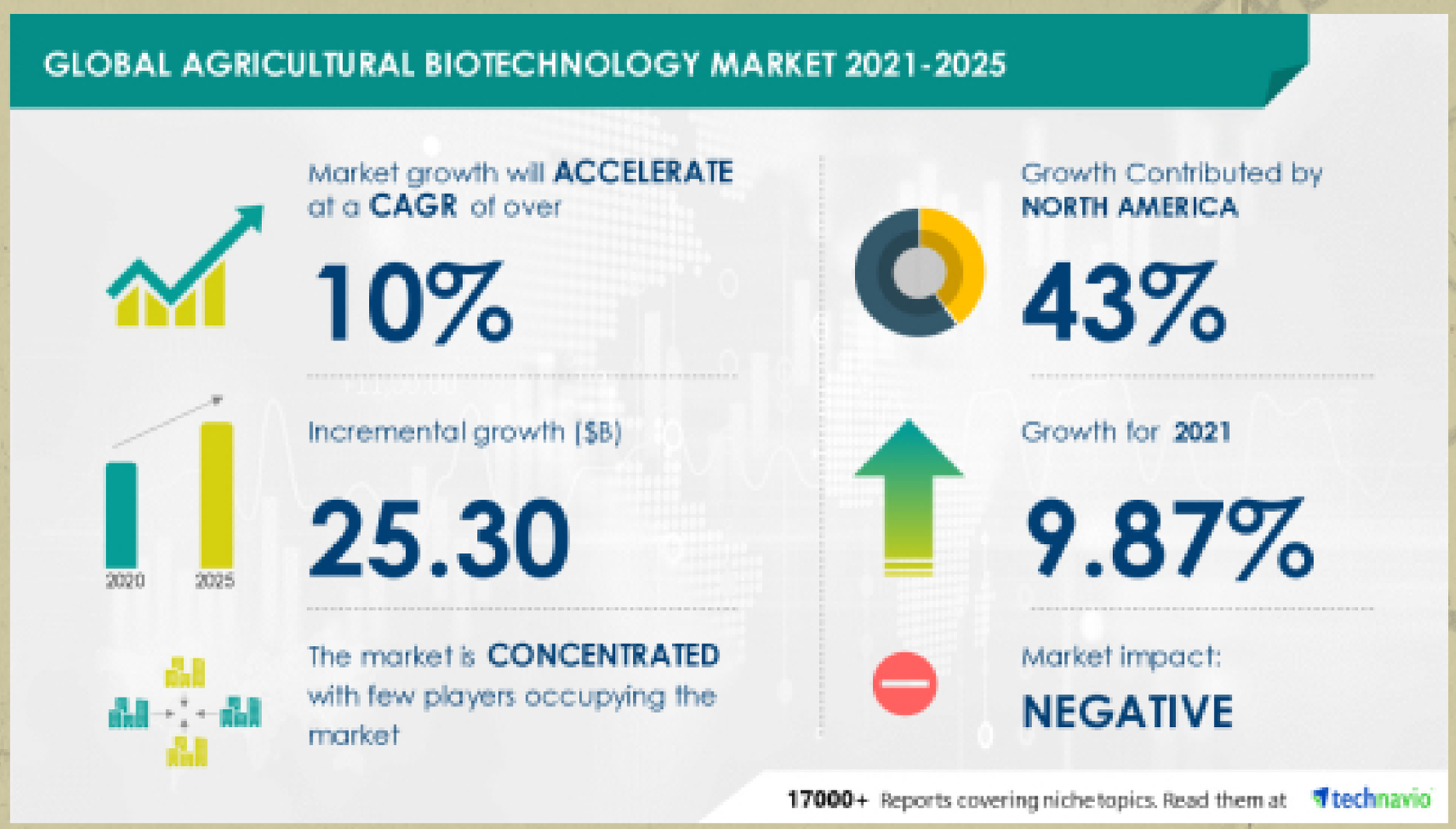
As mentioned in the introduction, McKinsey has estimated that there are four trends of agriculture and its impact to global food supply chain in four ways, which encompass the changes in how people eat, how food is sourced, how food is produced and traded, and what rules are followed in food trade (Djanian & Ferreira, 2020). Regarding the changes on how people eat, it is noted that as of now majority of people globally consume more than they need—especially in developed countries. Research finds that as countries and its economic markets gain more wealth, the population's diet will shift towards higher meat consumption and thus resulting in higher calorie intake. Henceforth, there are two scenarios predicted to happen: (1) tackling obesity through regulating the sugar market—impacting sugar production and biofuel markets, and (2) increased popularity of potential meat-replacement products (artificial) or vegetal meat—urging farmers and companies to consider how to penetrate the alternative-meat market.

Secondly, it is estimated that climate change and reduced costs will impact how food is sourced, with case studies such as China predicted to double its soybean production or import more from neighboring countries, and the African region being a potential contender of major agricultural producers. Thirdly, regarding how food is produced and traded, digital technologies are estimated to advance food production and eliminate information asymmetry, with countries having their own focus on biotechnology. Lastly, the trade rules of agriculture is estimated to be disrupted as well, with subsidies and export tariffs changing the market dynamics and shifting major players internationally.

C. Recent Developments of Agricultural Biotechnology

In 2018, the market size of global agritech is estimated at US$ 89.89 billion and is projected to grow at a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 7.07% (Business Wire, 2021). According to the industry insight, it is apparent that the demand of breeding techniques is expected to propel market growth, supplemented by the increasing usage of GMO (Grand View Research, 2019). Transgenic crops and animals are known to have the biggest market share by application, while plants are known to generate the largest revenue in 2018.

In regards to major players, North America dominates the market with up to 43% contribution globally.



Biotechnology in the agricultural sector is known to do more good than harm, where apart from increasing production quality, it also enables the increase of food supplies, reduce environmental damage, conserve natural resources of land, water, and nutrients, as well as increase farm income worldwide (Lokko et al., 2018). However, it has to be noted that there is a large disparity when it comes to agricultural biotechnology implementation. As aligned with the finding above, there is a large gap between countries in the application of biotechnology—especially between developed and developing ones. For instance, biofertilizers have not been adopted by many farmers in developing countries due to the poor quality of inoculants and minimal knowledge in application methods (Vassilev, 2015). Henceforth, it is recommended for the delegates to analyze their national capability of agricultural biotechnology implementation and note what can be improved and addressed accordingly.

D. Issue of Genetically Modified Organisms

One if not the most controversial issue surrounding biotechnology is on the innovation of genetically-modified organisms (GMO). While GMO is proven to be beneficial in increasing production and quality of crops, there is still concern on several issues— ranging from potential impacts of food security, environment, biodiversity, human and animal health, as well as the control of the global food system (FAO, 2017). GMO is one if not the most widely-used biotechnology in the agricultural sector and thus has the biggest role in the food supply chain. While GMO certainly has its benefits, it is also known to have several side effects.

While there is no evidence that GMO has caused major organ toxicity or pose any adverse health consequences to humans directly, recent studies noted that several substances used in GMO may have chronic low dose effects on animals and humans—for instance in the case of herbicide glyphosate (Norris, 2015; Van Bruggen, 2018). Other than health effects, a few GMO are also known to cause bad environmental effects in the long run. As an example, GMO plants produced in the United States are modified to allow resistance to glyphosate weed killer using Monsanto Roundup—a product that isn't toxic for humans and other mammals, but was later found toxic to soil, plant fecundity, and bees (Kobayashi-Solomon, 2019).

Other than the aforementioned problems, other arguments related to the ethics of GMO are also frequently debated. Some of the ethical concerns about GM crops include its negative impact on traditional farming practice, excessive corporate dominance, and the 'unnaturalness' of the technology (Weale, 2010). Additionally, conflicts regarding the use of patent laws on farmers and research integrity, as well as the risk of contamination from GM crops to another are also two problems that should be considered (Mayes, 2014). Henceforth, rather than focusing on the unproven health effects, it is recommended to focus more on the ethical arguments on GMO from the environmental, economic, and overall sustainability of its utilization in the agri-food supply chain.

IV. Role of International Community

International community plays a central role for the development of biotechnology and agri-technology. In many aspects, the Food and Agriculture Organization has conducted various forms of cooperation in many forms, either agreement, conference or any other conducts. The cooperation and partnership of FAO with other parties includes all matters relating to the institutional capacity development, joint research projects, Sharing of biotechnologies, protocols and materials, and other matters.

In 2010, FAO organized an international technical conference on "Agricultural biotechnologies in developing countries: Options and opportunities in crops, forestry, livestock, fisheries and agro-industry to face the challenges of food insecurity and climate change" or called as ABDC-10 Conference which took place in Guadalajara, Mexico (FAO, 2011). The conference brought together about 300 policy-makers, scientists, and representatives of intergovernmental and international non-governmental organizations, including delegations from 42 FAO Member Nations. The Member Nations reached a number of key conclusions (Ruane & Sonnino, 2011):

1. Agricultural biotechnologies encompass a diverse set of methods and methodologies that are increasingly being used in grains, poultry, forestry, fisheries and aquaculture, and agro-industries to help eradicate hunger and insecurity, aid in climate change adaptation, and preserve the natural resource base in both developing and developed countries.
2. The various uses of agricultural biotechnologies have not been commonly used in many developed countries, and have not served smallholder growers, processors, and customers sufficiently.
3. More agricultural biotechnology research and development should concentrate on the needs of smallholder farmers and producers.
4. Stronger collaborations among and within countries will promote the growth and use of biotechnologies, including south-south and regional alliances; the integration of conventional knowledge; and public-private and research partnerships for the exchange of experiences, ideas, and technologies.

In addition to improving capabilities, partnerships should be used to enhance capacities at the operational level, i.e. where steps are taken to enhance an organization's internal functioning and efficiency. According to FAO, these measures may include "re-engineering" existing university departments and curricula to focus on the most relevant areas and approaches that are currently underserved, such as bioinformatics; establishing new institutions and "re-branding" existing institutions for biotechnology R&D; and establishing biotechnology incubators, "technology parks," or "clusters."

Technical cooperation for developing countries has historically been characterized by collaboration between the "North", i.e. the rich countries of Australia, Europe, Japan, New Zealand and North America, and the "South", i.e. the poorer countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. However, the landscape of development assistance is evolving. Driven by rapid economic progress of some developing countries in an increasingly globalized world, South-South cooperation, involving collaboration between developing countries, is becoming increasingly important. South-South cooperation (SSC) is perceived to have features that set it apart from North-South cooperation (NSC), such as cost effectiveness; absence of conditionality; horizontal relationships and complementarity between parties (UNOSSC, 2019).

FAO partnerships and corporations are not restricted to state-to-state collaboration. Regarding agricultural biotechnologies, FAO states that public-private partnerships (PPPs) have grown in importance, and that government policy in both developed and developing countries has shifted to bring biotechnology R&D closer to filling perceived market gaps, resulting in a diverse set of institutional arrangements for fostering partnerships between the public and private sectors, as well as within the public sector itself.

Many of the national biotechnology policy frameworks accepted by specific developed countries, for example, recognize the government's position in providing strategic investments and other resources to promote collaborations between universities, public research agencies, and commercial firms. The FAO Biotechnology Forum held a conference as part of the lead-up to ABDC-10, which listed several cases of the private sector playing a major role in commercializing products arising from agricultural biotechnologies in different developing countries, including biofertilizers in Mexico,genetic modification in the Philippines and India, marker-assisted selection in India and tissue culture in El Salvador, the Philippines and Sri Lanka (Peralta and Mora, 2010).

In some cases, third party brokers, such as the International Service for the Acquisition of Agri-Biotech Applications and the African Agricultural Technology Foundation , have played a key role in facilitating PPPs, by promoting the transfer of proprietary tools and technologies and related knowledge from private companies to public sector institutes.

V. Guide Questions

1. How can the international community work together in anticipating the future disruption in the agricultural sector, all while ensuring that no country is left behind?
2. How can FAO help set the guideline and ethical standards of biotechnology, particularly in regards to GMO?
3. What can be done to balance the role and rights of stakeholders in the agricultural sector, especially between local farmers and major corporations?
4. What assisting policies can countries and the FAO take to mitigate threats to biotechnology, be it based on existing treaties or respective domestic and regional issues?

4. What assisting policies can countries and the FAO take to mitigate threats to biotechnology, be it based on existing treaties or respective domestic and regional issues?
5. How do regulations and value chains incorporate agricultural biodiversity? What policies and activities should be implemented to harness sustainable food biodiversity through biotechnology, not just for food and livestock, but also for SMEs, health and education, environment conservation, rural development, and so on?
6. What are the possible solutions to alleviate the negative perceptions of the public towards biotechnology, GMOs and other relevant aspects of its practice?
7. How can FAO assist the protections of agriculture patents and farmer's rights?

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AGENDA II:

MITIGATING FOOD INSECURITY IN SITUATIONS OF CONFLICTS AND EMERGENCIES

I. Introduction

Food insecurity has decreased dramatically around the world. Globally, 1.2 billion people were malnourished in 1991–92, but by the 2000s, it had dropped to 991 million and 821 million (FAO et al., 2018). However, the number of undernourished people (those who suffer from chronic hunger) has risen in the last three years (FSIN, 2018). Furthermore, in 2017, over 124 million people were estimated to be suffering from food insecurity, up from 100 million the year before. Famine was declared in South Sudan in early 2017, and warnings were issued warning of a high risk of famine-like conditions in north-east Nigeria, Somalia, and Yemen.

While both food insecurity and violent conflict have decreased over time and fluctuated in recent years, the strong positive correlation between these variables is striking. For example, in 2017, all nineteen countries listed by the FAO as being in a "protracted crisis" were also involved in violent conflict (FAO et al., 2017). Furthermore, all countries currently facing a high risk of famine are also experiencing severe violent conflict, with over 9000 people killed in conflict in South Sudan, Nigeria, Somalia, and Yemen in 2017 (UCDP, 2018). Natural disasters (such as prolonged droughts in Mali, South Sudan, or Syria) wreak havoc on food production, livelihoods, markets, and food consumption in some conflict-affected countries (Sneyers, 2017).

Conflicts threaten food production by physically destroying and plundering crops and cattle, harvests, and food reserves; they deter and prohibit farming; they disrupt food transportation systems; destroy agricultural properties and capital; conscript or entice young men to war, diverting them from farm work; and suppress income-generating practices and occupations. It also has a long-term effect on food security when properties are burned, civilians are killed or maimed, inhabitants are displaced, landmines are thrown, the environment is ravaged, and health, schooling, and social care networks and resources are shattered (FAO, 2016).

With the ongoing conflict, the issues of food insecurity are worsening with the current pandemic situation. The complex dynamics of food insecurity triggered by the lockdowns intended to contain the disease are creating conditions for a major disruption to food systems, giving rise to a dramatic increase in hunger. Food supply chains have been severely disrupted as a result of lockdown policies, affecting food availability, pricing, and quality (Barrett, 2020). The closing of restaurants and other food service facilities resulted in a significant drop in demand for perishable foods such as dairy products, tomatoes, and fresh fruits, as well as niche items such as chocolate and certain high-value cuts of meat (Lewis, 2020; Terazono and Munshi, 2020). As pandemic-related lockdowns took place in several countries from March to May 2020, there was extensive media coverage of food products being discarded or ploughed back into the fields due to either collapsed demand or difficulty in bringing certain foods to markets (Yaffe-Bellany and Corkery, 2020). Farmers without adequate storage facilities, including cold storage, found themselves with food that they could not sell.

II. Background

In 1789, Thomas Malthus predicted that population growth will inherently surpass food production (Simon, 2012). However as we see now, the food being produced has seen a steady increase to keep up with the demands of more people. In fact, there is enough food to feed everyone on the planet and still leave some leftovers to spare. The term food insecure has been coined to specify the quality and access to food some portion of society might have. Someone might be considered food insecure even if they have an abundance of food. Only those who have access to food that can provide them with nutritious macro and micronutrients qualities to help sustain a balanced diet for a healthy life can be considered as food secure (FAO, 2019).

Food insecurity started becoming an immediate concern in the aftermath of World War I in the 1930s. It has been considered by many as the starting point of modern day hunger and issues pertaining to food shortages or nutritional issues at a globalized level. A comprehensive report was also submitted by the health division of the League of Nations titled "Nutrition and Public Health" in 1935 marking the very first international publication regarding food security to be floored (Simon, 2012). With the release of that report, food and nutrition was starting to become considered as a more pressing issue on the world stage especially when acute hunger problems were identified in many poorer countries of the world. World War II brought food further into an unprecedented level of importance especially after the major war ended. Developed countries were struggling to provide food to many parts of its citizens, with many relying on food rations until the early 1950s. An overproduction of food by 1947 resorted to countries to use excess resources as food aid. Therefore, food surpluses may have been the reason why food aid as a concept was considered at that time.

From the 1990s to the 2000s, the dynamics of food security had seen some notable changes. Issues like climate change, refugee crises, and droughts have made many communities food insecure more than ever. In 1996 during the Rome Summit, a momentum for food security was reached when a definition was formally decided and its root causes finally being addressed. Dimensions that are still relevant today involving accessibility and availability of food have become a major compounding concern followed by poverty and economic divide. In 2019, the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) was used to estimate food security beyond just looking at hunger. As part of the Sustainable Development Goals, eradicating hunger is one of the agendas that are targeted by 2030 (FAO, 2019). With the number of undernourished people on the rise, the global pandemic has certainly placed a huge strain on previous work of the organization at orchestrating a favourable declining trend of global hunger. In fact numbers have been steadily increasing since 2015 which makes 2020 and beyond as an entirely new frontier of increasing food capacities under the post-pandemic new normal conditions. What and how these new set of problems should be addressed can be an important point to consider during the debate in the council.

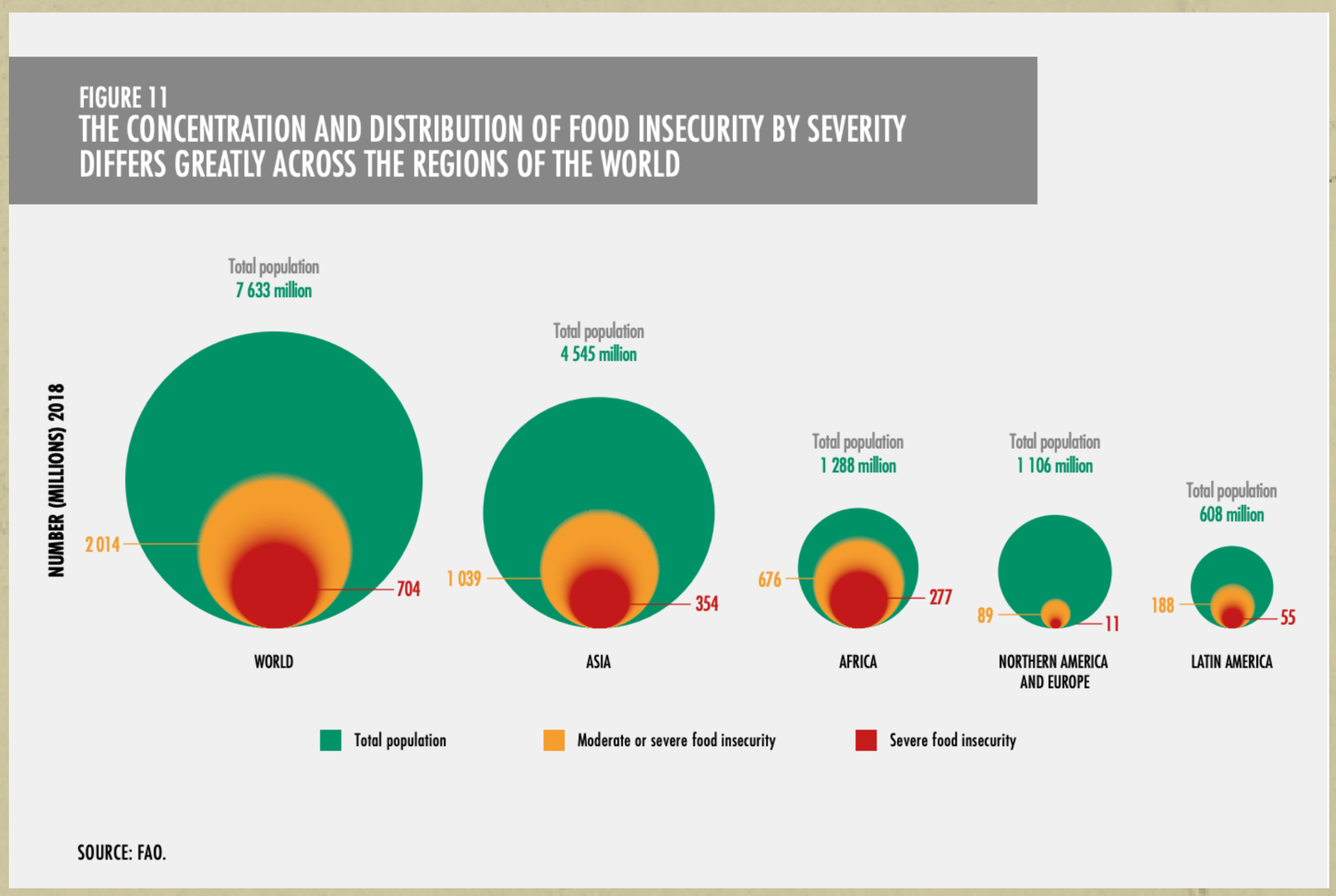
III. Discussion

A. Availability and Access to Food

Four dimensions to food security include availability, access, utilization and stability (FAO, 2016). Availability and access is one that is most critical to decreasing food insecure populations however still codependent with each other. Availability is determined by the food stores that are present within a country and its ability to produce, stock, import, and provide food aid at any given time. Like previously mentioned, there might be an abundance of food yet many are still not able to gain food security.

Therefore despite food being “available” it is most likely that some are unable to access them properly. Access is further divided into three sub-dimensions which include physical, economic, and socio-cultural aspects. If food cannot be transported into areas that might need them then access is impaired. Similarly, when the demand for food is high but supply isn’t able to properly provide for everyone, prices will skyrocket and accessibility of foods will also decrease. Utilization on the other hand is more multifaceted in nature, including issues like clean water and hygiene practices of food preparations to the equation.

Areas most impacted by emergencies are undoubtedly the rural areas where food availability and food access are very low to begin with. While cities might be able to cope with their abundant food stores, many other areas are increasingly more vulnerable to food insecurity than others and in some cases are already suffering from food deficiencies from the very start. According to the Food and Agricultural Organization, around 26% of the world’s population is severely and moderately food insecure (FAO et al., 2019). Man-made emergencies or natural disasters add to that amount quite significantly every year and communities struggle to recover back to normal levels even years after each outstanding event. This shows that they are not only humanitarian emergencies but also nutritional ones indirectly intertwined by the many health concerns associated post-crisis. For example, the deficiency in Vitamin A supplementation will make people more susceptible to contracting malaria (John Hopkins, IFRC, 2016). Immunity is a significant factor to ensure that survivors of emergencies continue to survive and do not die of preventable diseases just because they cannot eat the right food properly.



B. Health, Nutrition, & Food Security

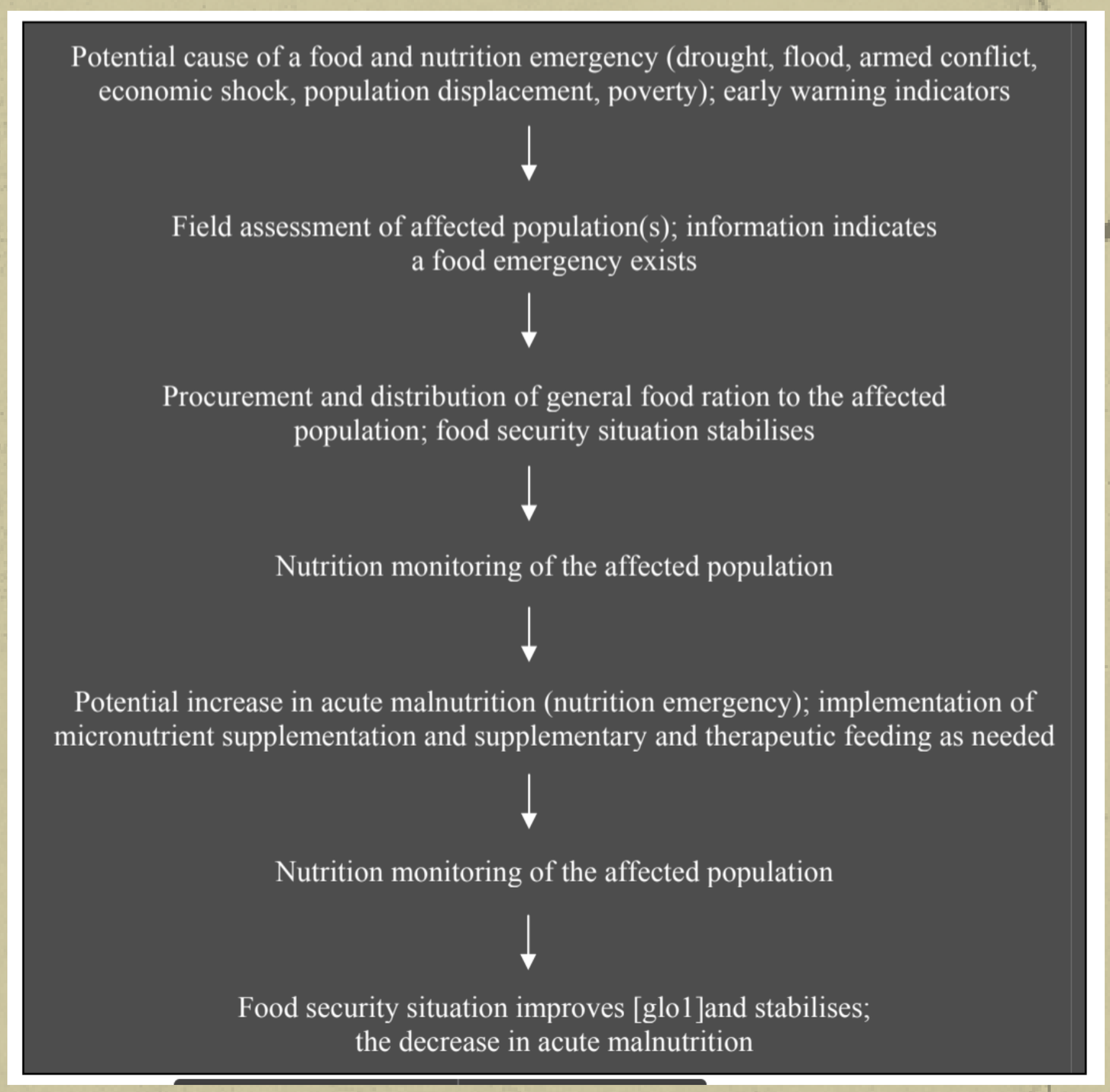
In one report published by the FAO in 2019, indicated that food insecure individuals belonging to the middle to higher income group are more likely to be obese or overweight. While poorer people might be commonly associated with hunger, food insecurity is not exclusive to these groups of people only. Malnutrition is also becoming an increasing concern among the higher classes causing what is known as the "double burden" of malnutrition in many developing states especially those in Asia. Many of these states are also highly-dependent on commodities which are more vulnerable to pricing shocks (FAO, 2019). The issue of stunting and wasting within the younger population also continues to linger as one of the biggest global health issues across multiple civilizations. Around 144 million of children are stunted while 44 million others are wasted (UNICEF, 2020). In this scenario, food security plays a huge role in influencing this public health phenomenon. Households experiencing barriers to nutritious food will have a multigenerational level of impact keeping them in a perpetual poverty cycle. These children will continue to grow with IQs that are lower than the median average, become more susceptible to diseases and pass similar living conditions onto their offspring (Reynolds et al., 2015). With nutrition being associated with many non-communicable diseases, providing food that satisfies the health needs of populations is an investment for the future. As Hippocrates once said "Let Medicine be thy food, and food be thy medicine".

Africa has been a hotbed for not only conflicts but also chronic diseases in the last decade. The rise in both these numbers has added more stunted children in linear to the duration and severity of food insecurity caused equally by either conflict or health. When an income earner of the household becomes too sick, the rest of the family will also suffer the consequence. This is especially true for the many Africans with HIV/AIDS (John Hopkins & IFRC, 2016). Medical costs will start to pile up which may push families to sacrifice the food on their plates. Therefore tackling food insecurity requires inequalities and deficiencies in health conditions to be resolved in order to mitigate the impact emergencies have on communities. This might include providing better relief plans, developing self-sustaining policies in the local level, and increasing the capacity of rural and low-income populations. It should also be noted by the delegates that there are other vulnerable subgroups other than children that are also prone to the harsh effects of food insecurity that has not been mentioned in this body of text. I expect that the delegates will conduct their own thorough research to explore this by themselves and present them during the debate.

C. Food Emergencies in Natural Disasters

Emergencies and Food Insecurity are deeply tied with one another. In times of crisis, livelihoods are disrupted and more people will fall below the poverty line. Businesses go down-under and many activities are ceased indefinitely. Something we have experienced first hand during the pandemic where economies are shifted and purchasing powers reduced. This is in line with emergencies as a major threat to any progress made in food security and capacity measures. Aids are provided during these times but the quality of nutrition being provided is subpar and does not fulfill the dietary needs of most persons.

During times of emergencies, the urgency of food welfare has always been one of the main relief concerns both during disaster recovery and even the time beyond that. Disasters come in various forms and sizes - most of them forge complex implications to the nutritional balance of the communities they impact. Emergencies like Tsunamis and Earthquakes deal with transport challenges due to severed road access which are aggravated further by communication deficits. While conflict-based emergencies similar to the one happening in Yemen deal with a slightly different set of problems, especially those that touch upon the socio-political and transnational aspects of providing food in the midst of war. The former has several implications especially relevant with droughts happening in many Sub-Saharan African states. Droughts not only make it difficult for people to access drinking water, it also means that food chains are disturbed and crops fail. This phenomenon is influenced by global warming, deforestation, and harmful agricultural practices like “slash and burn” (John Hopkins & IFRC, 2016).



Other similar cases of natural disasters include the 2004 Indian Ocean Earthquake and Tsunami. Indonesia and Sri Lanka were amongst the most severely paralyzed states during the event, losing as many as 165 thousand deaths in casualties and possibly more due to starvation. In addition, the provinces affected by the disaster were mostly rural areas with many people already living under poverty (FAO, 2005). Smaller states such as Maldives and Srilanka are likely adversely impacted as significant portions of their food production chains were washed out, while larger countries like Thailand and India have surpluses at their disposal. Maldives alone had 65-70% of their small-scale fishing industries destroyed (FAO, 2005). Many livestock and harvest was lost and the widespread degradation of natural resources such as fisheries and forestry was also devastated causing many food options to be scarcely unavailable. Aceh province in Indonesia for example had 50% of their fish stocks perish in the aftermath of the tragedy. As most countries affected are also highly reliant on rice, the paddy crops within all countries had been destroyed and the effect of this might be widespread around the region for many years to come (FAO, 2005).

To cover for this, food aids were provided by the World Food Programme to 1.3 million people affected by the Tsunami (WFP, 2005). But these solutions are considered short-term ones that do not address the dilemma of securing food in these struggling communities. As food processing facilities were destroyed, their revival in the process was not performed as soon as possible which may have led to the overreliance on foreign aid instead of upregulating recovery of local capacity (Pearson, 2005).

D. Agriculture During Conflicts

Some war strategies include the intentional destruction of crops and deliberate starvation to limp an intended group of people especially during a revolt against governments. This is a violation of international law and its practices should be censured by the global community. In many cases, the main cause of food insecurity during emergencies have been armed conflict instead of natural disasters. They pose the highest risk of food insecurities as likelihood for famine to occur is higher than other emergencies. This can create a disruption of the agricultural cycle, food shortages that increase prices at unattainable rates, and the displacement of farmers from agricultural lands (John Hopkins & IFRC, 2016). During this time, many people will become refugees or internally-displaced persons (IDPs) further putting them into the higher end of the food insecure spectrum. Displacement to other regions or countries allow persons access to international humanitarian assistance and food aid which might not be available due to the collapse of the food chain in their countries or tightly controlled food distribution because of the conflict.

E. Food Aid Dilemmas

Food aid is generally only to be provided when absolutely necessary and should be absolved in the next possible opportunity. It is usually utilized under emergent conditions which has been elaborated in the previous two subtopics. The principal aim of food aid is used as a last safety net when acute malnourishment and mortality caused by insufficient food is no longer evitable. They are given so that communities can recover from an emergency without suffering from further life-altering health effects caused by emergencies that hinder them from gaining the food they need. As recorded by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), the use of food aid has been increasingly allocated for emergency-based responses while development programme-based ones are showing a declining trend (ODI, 2010).

Food and Agriculture Organization

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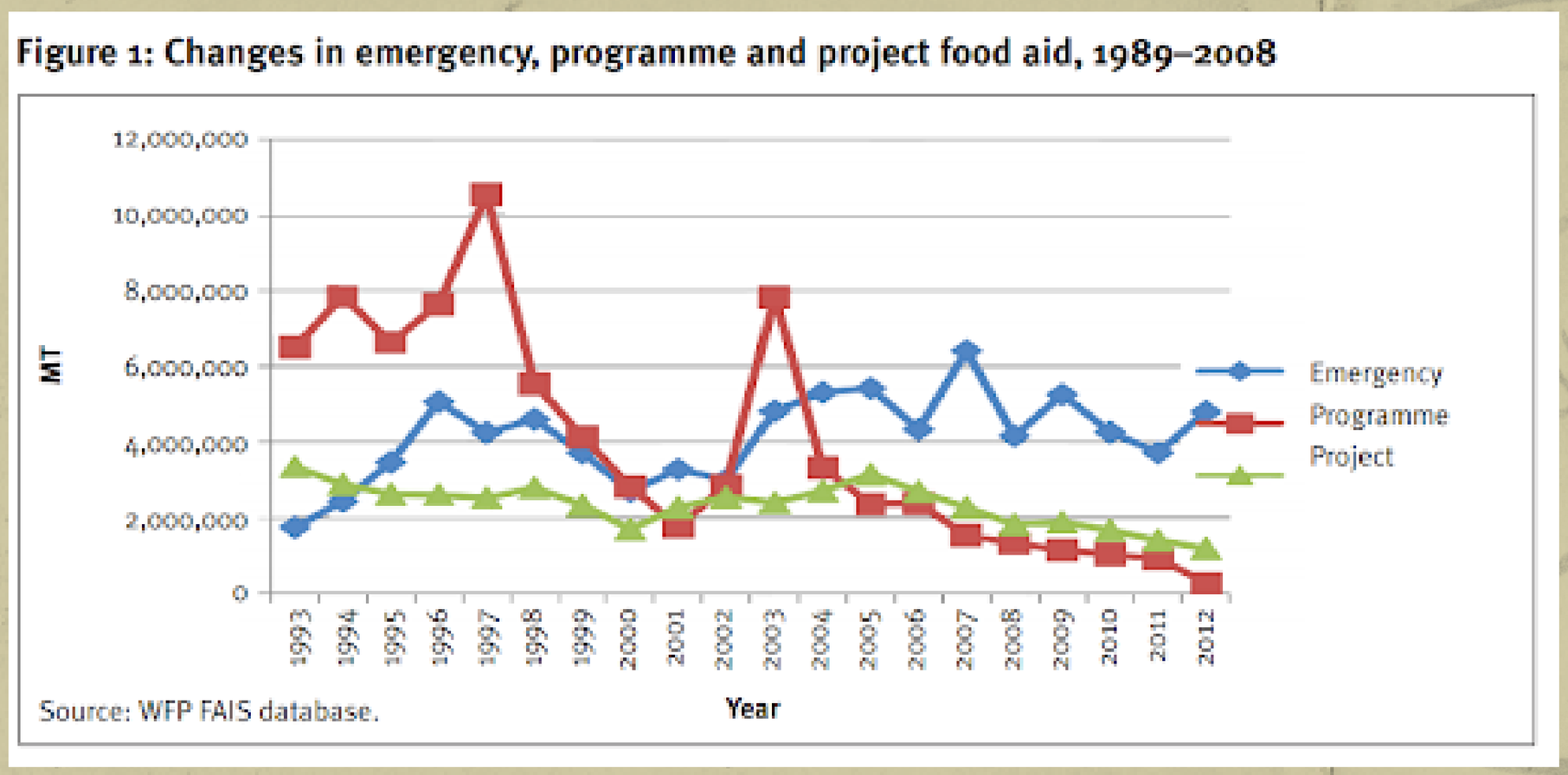


Currently there are 45 countries that require food aid across the globe. Out of that amount - 34 is from Africa, 9 is from Asia, and 2 is from Latin America (FAO, 2021). Countries like Myanmar, Afghanistan, and Iraq are classified as having severe localized food insecurity caused by civil unrest and conflict. While DPR Korea is the only state in that list requiring aid due to low consumption and lack of dietary diversity. Most countries in Africa have a combination of both conflict, poor production shortfalls, and high food prices. For every interaction involving food assistance between donor governments, international organizations, and recipient countries will be periodically recorded in the International Food Aid Information System (IFAIS).

It is usually important to consider aspects related to the distribution of food aid and how they can be conducted in a timely and equally proportional manner during emergencies. Food baskets or packages should also include items that fulfill the 2,100 kcal threshold that is required by the average person (FAO, 2019). It must also be noted that several concerns do arise with common food aid provided by local governments. For one, the contents are most likely not as desirable and does not fulfill the requirements of a 'nutritious meal'. Packages include instant noodles or some other form of ready-to-eat meals which has been selected for their low cost and commercial abundance (United Nations, 2016). Sources of protein like fish or meat are usually canned and might not provide the same levels as it would if fresh produce were given instead. It has also been noted that the overreliance of some states with food aid has resulted in the lack of investment to domestic food production (Ninno et al., 2005). This will offset the reduction of food security in the long-run as countries become over reliant on food assistance provided by other states or organizations. Food aid can drive down the competitive pricing of local food to a level that is no longer profitable to sustain its production for business.

In countries like Bangladesh and India which has shifted their national food supply systems away from food aid has resulted in agricultural growth and reduction in poverty despite still having large portions of their population food insecure (Ninno et al, 2005).

Programs to improve self-sufficiency were applied by India in the 1960s concentrating on green agricultural technology, pricing policies, and production of rice and wheat. However despite the ample supply, many people are still not able to access these foods which may be caused by poor distribution and management algorithms. Therefore, a comprehensive check and balance system must be ensured if food aids were to be used during emergencies so that markets do not become disincentivized to develop self-sufficient food production systems to support disaster relief or post-crisis conditions.

F. Study Cases

a. Republic of Yemen: War & Famine

The current civil unrest in Yemen has incepted one of the worst food crises in the history of mankind. Young children are severely malnourished with many suffering from Marasmus and Kwashiorkor. It is expected if nothing is to be done, more than 2 million of children may starve with 400 thousand expected to die in Yemen especially in addition to COVID-19 on top of the existing pressure from the armed conflict (Save the Children, 2021). As the war continues, more people will become displaced without sources of income to secure a sustainable diet. While Yemen is on the brink of an acute famine, they were classified amongst the lowest economies even prior to the Saudi-led blockade. Therefore, Yemen had always been food vulnerable despite the ongoing conflict. While their borders remain shut, economic activities are halted and humanitarian assistance is kept very limited. Resource-based industries are becoming main targets to cripple the war effort that is crafting this man-made humanitarian catastrophe. Misuse and abuse of international aid have also become a common concern in improving food security in the country. Should resolutions rely on sending resources from abroad or is a more local-supported solution feasible for present-day Yemen? Regardless, the current situation in Yemen has been criticized for being underplayed and an alarm should have already been sounded by now to attract global attention. If the international community is waiting for famine to be declared, the reactions would have been little too late.

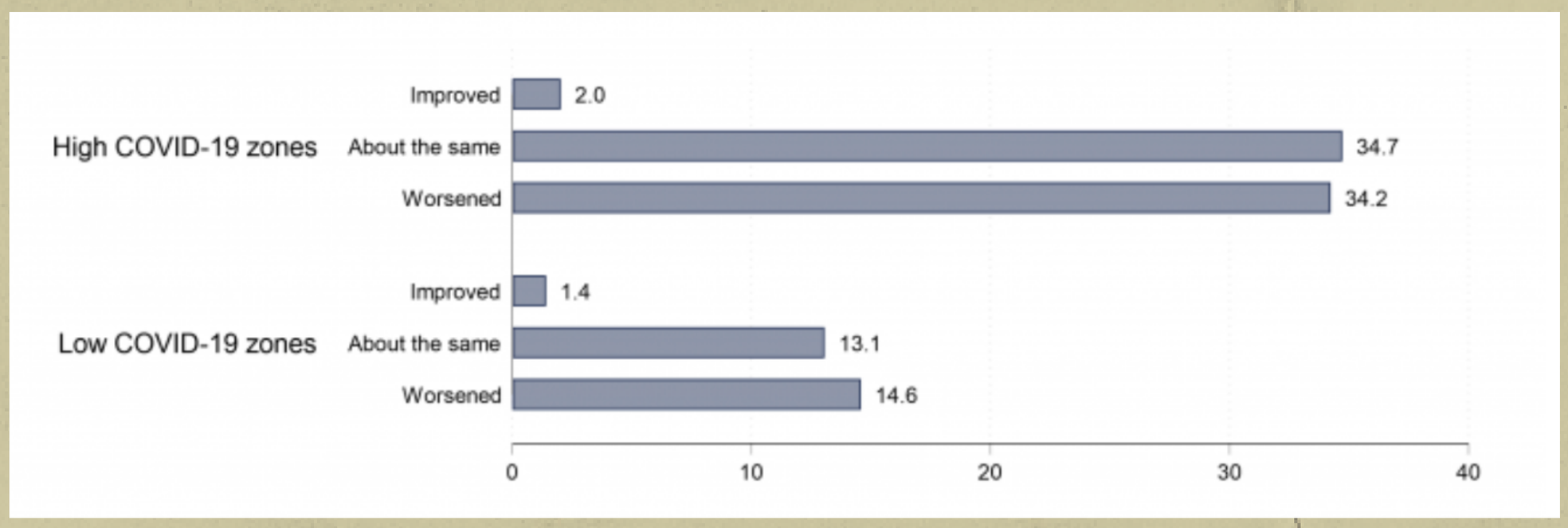
b. Venezuela: Food Shortage in a Political Crisis

In Latin America, the Venezuelan economy is synonymous with hyperinflation and international sanctions. The pandemic has created a turmoil of the Venezuelan food security primarily caused by extended durations of political mismanagement in the country. As Venezuela continues to face uncertainty, several factors have been studied to be of major influence to the food shortage. One of which has to deal with the scarcity of gasoline for Venezuelans (Otis, 2021). The socialist government is also currently controlling food production prices making crops unprofitable, while the majority of the processing units and plants are tightly controlled solely by the government. This led to many people unable to gain access to at grade quality foods and instead be left by animal carcasses and rotten dairy products. Skipping meals has become far too common in the region, with other countries like Mexico and Brazil following a similar suit. Despite this current condition, the government has taken a passive stance regarding food insufficiencies sidelining the issue away from the public's attention. Research conducted has even proven to show that almost 80% of Venezuelans no matter their social class are food insecure. In the numbers being surveyed, half of the population is living in severe poverty (Singer, 2018). In addition, international aid organizations are not allowed to operate in the country and the public health system is close to being non-existent even under normal circumstances. The regime has however provided state-subsidized food markets called Mercales that supply national produced foods that are subsidized and provided for the poor (Pielago, 2020).

This new policy has proceeded to kill competition of similar unsubsidized products from the private sector leading to less food providers and actors at almost every level within the entire food system. When the pandemic struck, Venezuela was significantly overwhelmed by its unpreparedness to deal with a massive increase in the demand for food. The shift that has occurred just shows how much the system was not able to adjust with the expectations of the current conditions it is placed into, especially not just to simply provide food but also to ensure its quality and distribution as well (Pielago, 2020).

c. Ethiopia: Subsequent Draughts

One of the most severely impacted African states to recurrent droughts is Ethiopia. Ranked 92 in the global hunger index, the level of food insecurity rose by about 11.6% during the outbreak (World Bank, 2021). Most of the population currently reside in rural areas that rely on homegrown foods. As draughts have severely impacted the availability of many resources, food prices surge as the demand rises. These draughts are concentrated on the southern part of Ethiopia where more food insecure communities can be identified (Mote et al, 2019). The poor soil quality for agriculture is primarily derived from overgrazing and over-cultivation of said land. With these areas most likely reliant on emergency food aids, how can solutions help areas with similar conditions as south-central Ethiopia to implement agricultural practices that benefit them in the long run without relying heavily on assistance. The national government response boasted its flagship social protection program, the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP). A Nationwide survey has indicated that the program has helped to decrease the likelihood of people falling into severe food accessibility problems in times of isolation. This has shown that social safety nets have provided the benefit of poorer households to resume functioning in this pandemic even if having such programs in place might be costly. Ethiopia is among the 200 other states that has reengineered social protective frameworks in adaptation to the global pandemic, and is most likely the few success stories we can find in Africa. How these food safety nets are being designed and utilized is a resource conduit that the international community can look to apply at a global level.



G. Past Actions

a. Food Aid Convention (FAC)

Food Aid Convention, 1995, was established by the Food Aid Committee on 5 December 1994, and amended on 13 March 1995. The Food Assistance Convention (FAC) represents its 16 Parties' ongoing contribution to contributing to global food security and improving the international community's capacity to respond to emergency food situations and other food needs of developing countries (FAC, 2019). Parties to the FAC aim to increase the efficacy, productivity, and quality of food aid in saving lives, decreasing malnutrition, and enhancing the nutritional status of the most vulnerable people by commitment to cooperation and partnership (FAC, 2019).

The objectives of FAC are outlined in Article 1 of the conventions. The article stated that there are four main objectives of the convention which are 1) making appropriate levels of food aid available, 2) encouraging members to ensure that the food aid provided, 3) including principles for maximising the impact,the effectiveness and quality of the food aid, and 4) providing a framework for cooperation, coordination and information-sharing among members on food aid related matters to achieve greater efficiency in all aspects of food aid operations (FAC, 1999).

However, FAC received a lot of criticism from the parties. The FAC's biggest source of critique is its accounting and extent of obligations. The obligations of members are outlined in Article III ("Quantities and Quality") of the Convention. Members pledge to offer food relief or the cash equivalent to developed countries under this article; this promise is referred to as "the contribution." This is expressed in terms of tons of wheat equal, wheat equivalent value, or a combination of tonnage and value. If a participant expresses their contribution in terms of value, they must also state a guaranteed annual tonnage. Except in the case of globally recognised crises, where non-food costs which outweigh the acquisition cost of food supplies, value can include transportation and other overhead costs involved with the procurement of food assistance up to the acquisition cost of qualifying goods. When agreements are represented in tonnage terms, signatories may also declare an approximate value reflecting the overall expected expense (procurement, transport, and other operational costs). Commitments to tonnage and volume are all legally binding; indicative amounts are not (Hoddinot, 2007).

Other criticisms are targeting the evaluation, representation, and transparency. First, there is no process to ensure discussion of food aid efficacy, nor is there a formal review of individual donors or cumulative results in relation to contributions, and the Food Aid Committee has never conducted an impact assessment of the FAC (Barrett and Maxwell, 2005). Second, The Food Aid Committee is made up of only FAC signatory donors. Despite their importance as food aid partners, recipient-country governments and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) are barred from participating in FAC talks and Food Aid Committee policy and procedure discussions. Representatives from the World Food Programme (WFP), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the World Trade Organization (WTO), the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development may theoretically attend as observers, but in practice, they are frequently unable to attend sessions if Committee members have not requested them. Lastly, Third, the FAC is not transparent in its operations. About the fact that its representatives are elected states responsible to their constituents, the Food Aid Committee offers surprisingly little public

input on its proceedings. Members' history position papers are impossible to procure, meeting minutes are not made available, and the press release that accompanies meetings lacks discussion of points of contention among members and, unlike documents shared among members, does not contain specifics of members' commitment to their FAC commitments (Hoddinot, 2007).

b. Global Strategic Framework for Food Security and Nutrition (GSF)

This Global Strategic Framework for Food Security and Nutrition (GSF) is a single, live text that is accepted by the CFS Plenary on an annual basis. Its aim is to increase cooperation and guide synchronized action by a diverse group of stakeholders. The GSF must be adaptable so that it can be changed when goals change. The GSF's key added benefit is to include an organizational context and a single reference guide with specific guidance on core priorities for food security and nutrition plans, policies, and actions validated by Committee of Food Security's broad control, involvement, and consultation (CFS, 2017).

The GSF is not a legally binding instrument. It provides guidance and suggestions for catalyzing coordinated action at the global, regional, and national levels through a diverse set of stakeholders, whilst stressing policymakers' primary duty and the critical position of country ownership in combating food insecurity and malnutrition (CFS, 2017).

The GSF promotes policy coherence and is aimed at decision- and policy-makers in fields with a direct or indirect effect on food security and nutrition, such as commerce, agriculture, health, climate, natural resources, and economic or investment policies. These suggestions and directives should be understood and implemented in compliance with national laws, legal frameworks, and organisations. The GSF is also a valuable tool for policymakers and decision-makers, development partners, coordination and humanitarian organisations, international and regional organizations, financial institutions, and academic institutions, civil society organizations (CSOs), the private sector, NGOs, and all other relevant stakeholders acting in the food security and nutrition fields at global, regional and country levels (CFS, 2017).

c. Committee on World Food Security (CFS)

The restructuring of the Committee on World Food Security (CFS) is the single most important change in recent years in the field of global food security. Initially established as an intergovernmental committee within the (FAO) following the first World Food Conference in 1974, the CFS was reformed in 2009 with the aim of being "the foremost inclusive international and intergovernmental platform for a broad range of committed stakeholders to work together in a coordinated manner and in support of country-led processes towards the elimination of hunger". This reformation was founded on the recognition that governments would only be able to make genuine progress toward food security if they accept to work from the bottom up, learning not only from one another's experiences, but also from those on the frontlines of combating hunger – international agencies and non-governmental organizations – and victims of harmed people (de Schutter, 2013).

The CFS recognized food security as a global public good, requiring countries to collaborate more closely in order to address the structural causes of hunger and overcome the current sectorialization of various trade, growth, and agricultural policies that, directly or indirectly, affect food access but are often dealt with in separate fora.

In this way, the CFS reform tackles what lawyers refer to as the "fragmentation of international law," which contributes to contradictions in global governance between policies such as finance, development cooperation, agriculture, and climate change mitigation.

The CFS change was a response to global events. Indeed, the realization that policymakers should work together to increase continuity across diverse policy fields arose not as a result of theoretical meditation, but as a sudden shock that caught many analysts off guard. The "shock" was, of course, the sharp rise in agricultural commodity prices on foreign markets, which started in late 2007 and peaked in June 2008. This "shock" and its aftermath demonstrated that the existing management direction in the global food system was ineffective.

The GSF promotes policy coherence and is aimed at decision- and policy-makers in fields with a direct or indirect effect on food security and nutrition, such as commerce, agriculture, health, climate, natural resources, and economic or investment policies. These suggestions and directives should be understood and implemented in compliance with national laws, legal frameworks, and organisations. The GSF is also a valuable tool for policymakers and decision-makers, development partners, coordination and humanitarian organisations, international and regional organizations, financial institutions, and academic institutions, civil society organizations (CSOs), the private sector, NGOs, and all other relevant stakeholders acting in the food security and nutrition fields at global, regional and country levels (CFS, 2017).

IV. Role of the International Community

Relating to the sustainability of food security in conflict areas, FAO collaborated with Interpeace in 2017 to create and promote initiatives that could help to preserve peace and conflict resolution in the form of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Interpeace is an international organisation that aims to reduce conflict and create durable peace. It has sponsored locally designed and led peacebuilding efforts in Africa, the Middle East, Asia, Europe, and Latin America since 1994 (FAO, 2020).

Under this collaboration, FAO has provided new methods, guidelines, and preparation through Interpeace's Advisory Team (IPAT) to allow more comprehensive and rigorous context analyses and conflict-sensitive programming. This strategic relationship combines FAO's technological and programmatic expertise with Interpeace's 25 years of peacebuilding experience. The Conflict-sensitive Programme Clinic, a systematic participatory study intended to recognise and incorporate conflict-sensitive techniques into the design and execution of FAO programs, is a vital method that has been developed and field-tested with Interpeace. These programs are intended to enable staff in country offices, who are the most familiar with the local environment, to administer clinics without the need for external assistance. They have a consistent framework and agenda that guides the community through an intuitive, multi-step process and offers thorough feedback, allowing participants to participate in conflict-sensitive research and design thinking efficiently even though they have no previous experience in this field (FAO, 2020).

Meanwhile, relating to the current pandemic situations, FAO collaborates with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations (CSOs) at the national level, while also partnering closely with governments at all levels. Coordination with other UN agencies and business leaders would be crucial, with a special focus on collaborating closely with the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs in

providing contributions to the Humanitarian Response Plan and the World Health Organization (WHO) in designing and encouraging healthy food chain activities (FAO, 2020).

Agriculture (including livestock and fisheries), forestry, natural resources and the environment, catastrophe risk management and climate change agencies, and social welfare and development ministries will be main partners in the country. The greater the level of participation and teamwork, the greater the synergies and cumulative effect of the outcome. Collaboration with foreign financial institutions, as well as conventional resource providers, will be promoted whenever possible. Local collaborations with farmer and producer organizations (FPOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs), community-based organizations, and academic agencies would be crucial in delivering productive and productive field programs. Regional organizations such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) will play an important role in fostering appropriate interventions and policy proposals in the region. Finally, FAO will pursue new and expanded partnerships with the private sector (FAO, 2020).

V. Guide Questions

1. What are the preventive steps that should be taken to prevent food insecurity in conflicts and emergencies?
2. What priorities and mechanisms should be in place or even prioritized during natural emergency relief efforts especially to avoid outstanding deterioration of food security?
3. In areas of armed conflict or areas with high political mismanagement, how can food availability and accessibility be ensured and controlled accordingly by the international community in order to mitigate famines or famine-like conditions?
4. How can governments improve food supply chains on local levels and improve food security across all dimensions especially in less-developed rural areas?
5. Seeing the economic divide between the more developed "Global North", how can the international community react to food emergencies on other parts of the globe beyond providing food and funding aid?
6. How can the provisions in the Food Aid Convention (FAC) be empowered further to sustain food security at a globalized scale? What adjustments must be made to ensure its relevance in the present day?
7. How can FAO mitigate and assist the problem that occurs from the past organizations?
8. How can FAO assist and guide for the recovery of a country's hunger crisis condition pre and post pandemic?

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Deadline of Position Papers

Position Papers are due at
11:59 PM (Philippine Standard Time)
on May 2, 2021.

Please send it to
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