

Human Rights Law Clinic Papers 2019

How has the right to food in times of armed conflict been interpreted by the Human Rights Bodies?

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Statute of the International Court of Justice (Adopted 24 October 1945) 33 UNTS 993

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (adopted 10 December 1948 UNGA Res 217 A(III) (UDHR)

iii. List of Abbreviations

- ACHR American Convention on Human Rights
- AComHPR African Commission on Human and People's Rights
- ACtHPR African Court on Human and People's Rights
- CAT Committee against Torture
- CEDAW Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
- CESCR Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights
- CCPR Human Rights Committee
- CP Civil and Political
- CPR Civil and political right
- CRC Convention on the Rights of the Child
- ECHR European Convention on Human Rights
- ECtHR European Court of Human Rights
- ESC Economic, social and cultural
- ESCR Economic, social and cultural right
- ETO Extraterritorial Obligation
- EU European Union
- FAO Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
- GC General Comments
- GC6 CCPR General Comment no. 6 (The right to life)
- GC12 CESCR General Comment no. 12 (The right to adequate food)

GC14 – CECSR General Comment no. 14 (The right to the highest attainable standard of health)

- GC15 CESCR General Comment no. 15 (The right to water)
- HRC Human Rights Council
- IACHR Inter American Commission on Human Rights
- IACtHR Inter-American Court of Human Rights
- ICCPR International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- ICESCR International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- ICJ International Court of Justice
- ICRC International Committee of the Red Cross

- ICTY International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia
- IHL International Humanitarian Law
- IHRL International Human Rights Law
- ILO International Labour Organisation
- IO International organisation
- MAI Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation
- NATO North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
- NGO Non-governmental organization
- OHCHR Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
- **OP-ICESCR** Optional Protocol on ICESCR
- OUP Oxford University Press
- OXFAM Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
- SDG Sustainable Development Goals
- UDHR Universal Declaration on Human Rights
- UN United Nations

UNCAT – United Nations Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment

- UNGA United Nations General Assembly
- UNTC United Nations Treaty Collection
- WFP World Food Programme

1. Introduction

This memorandum will address the issue of the right to food during armed conflict. We will prove that the two branch disciplines of international law, namely IHRL and IHL, are complementary rather than mutually exclusive. Consequently, we will demonstrate that since those two disciplines are complementary, there should be no difference between the application of the law during armed and non-armed conflict in relation to the right to food. Via exploring a range of international law principles including ESCRs, customary international law, the right to life, freedom from torture, and extraterritoriality, we will argue that the right to food should be equally protected in armed conflict as well as peacetime situations.

In international law, the right to food derives from the right to an adequate standard of living.¹ Severe human rights violations often occur in situations of armed conflict, including loss of life and human suffering.² Even though 'the right to food has been endorsed more often and with greater unanimity and urgency than most other human rights,' it is at the same time 'being violated more comprehensively and systematically than any other right.'³ In line with the main argument of the memorandum, the right to food during armed conflict is violated on numerous grounds: lack of respect towards ESCRs and the unwillingness of national governments to implement the right to food in domestic law. Fundamentally, the reason why starvation has not been eradicated completely is for a range of factors, but the most serious one is that it would create political opposition and civilian dissatisfaction with government.⁴

This work will be a doctrinal and socio-legal analysis of the right to food under IHRL that will be divided into two sections. Section one places the right to food during armed conflict within the framework of four different principles of international law. It will be demonstrated how the right to food exists not only within the rights framework of ICESCR, but also how it should exist within other principles, including customary international law, the right to life, freedom from torture and extraterritoriality. Section two assesses State conduct through the obligations to respect, protect and fulfil the right to food in armed conflict.

¹ Ilias Bantekas and Lutz Oette, *International Human Rights Law and Practice* (Cambridge University Press 2013) 400.

²Waseem Ahmad Qureshi, 'Untangling the Complicated Relationship between International Humanitarian Law and International Human Rights Law in Armed Conflict' (2018) 6(1) Penn State Journal of Law & International Affairs 204, 225.

³ Philip Alston and Katarina Tomasevski, The Right to Food (first published 1984, Springer) 9

⁴ Alex de Waal, 'Ending Mass Atrocities and Ending Famine' (2015) 386(10003) The Lancet Medical Journal 1528

2. Background

According to 'The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World' report, there were 821 million undernourished people in the world in 2017.⁵ Considering this worrying data, IOs are taking further steps to combat this issue: immediately after eradicating poverty, the end of hunger is one of the UN's major 2030 SDGs.⁶ Many famines do not exist due to the shortage of food in the world, but due to the lack of access to food resources.⁷ According to the FAO, one of the major factors towards deteriorating food availability is armed conflict.⁸ IHL accounts for the fact that food can become a weapon in times of armed conflict and thus 'prohibits destruction of crops and goods, requisition of objects and use of famine as a method of warfare.^{'9}

When it comes to international law in armed conflict, it is of utmost importance to identify the main differences between IHL and IHRL. Despite it being unclear in its foundations and application,¹⁰ the concept of *lex specialis* has been used by some international bodies to establish a preferential order for two regimes that apply to the same issue but with different consequences.¹¹ IHRL has more permanence, compelling States to protect the dignity and freedom of human beings progressively,¹² whilst IHL represents the codes and practices that govern an armed conflict and immediate relief situations.¹³ Additionally, there are no limitations permitted under IHL,¹⁴ but certain emergency situations could enable States to derogate from their human rights obligations. Nonetheless, IHRL offers more extensive jurisprudence and legal protection compared to IHL. Finally, with regards to food and starvation, IHRL distinguishes the right to food from the right to be fed.¹⁵ Whilst the former entitles the right to

⁵ FAO, 'The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World: Building Climate Resilience for Food Security and Nutrition' 2 http://www.fao.org/3/i9553en/i9553en.pdf> accessed 26 March 2019.

⁶ UN Statistics Division, 'Goal 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture' https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2016/goal-02/> accessed 6 March 2019.

⁷ World Hunger Education Service '2018 World Hunger and Poverty Facts and Statistics' (WHES, 2018) https://www.worldhunger.org/world-hunger-and-poverty-facts-and-statistics/?fbclid=lwAR3A98NTBIH9BZpqofG-c7L1U4hhKYVi-iy-RoqJ4OkOzhYpSkZslXvlcEs accessed 6 March 2019.

⁸ Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 'The Right to Adequate Food' 4 https://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/FactSheet34en.pdf> accessed 6 March 2019.

⁹ Francois Bouchet-Saulnier, *The Practical Guide to Humanitarian Law* (Rowman & Littlefield 2002) 104.

¹⁰ Louise Doswald-Beck, *Human Rights in Times of Conflict and Terrorism* (OUP, 2011) 106.

¹¹ Marco Sassoli and Laura Olson, 'The relationship between international humanitarian law and human rights law where it matters: admissible killing and internment of fighters in non-international armed conflicts' (2008) 90(871) International Review of Red Cross 600, 603.

¹² Sandesh Sivakumaran, 'International Humanitarian Law' in Daniel Moeckli, Sangeeta Shah and Sandesh Sivakumaran (eds) *International Human Rights Law Third Edition* (OUP 2018) 505.

¹³ Sassoli and Olson (n 11) 622.

¹⁴ Manisuli Ssenyonjo, 'Economic Social and Cultural Rights: An Examination of State Obligations' in Sarah Joseph and Adam McBeth (eds), *Research Handbook on International Human Rights Law* (Elgar 2010) 66-67.

feed oneself in dignity, the latter causes dependency on government and State relief handing food directly to those in need.¹⁶

Despite various differences mentioned in the previous paragraph, it is generally accepted that IHL and IHRL can apply concurrently during armed conflict.¹⁷ This was acknowledged by the UN during the International Conference on Human Rights in Tehran in 1968.¹⁸ Human rights bodies generally adopt a complementary approach because the two branches of international law often draw from the same conclusions with regards to numerous human rights violations.¹⁹ Substantively, they share similar contents, aims and legal grounds for the protection of individuals and their human dignity. Initially, the stance on whether the two branches of international law are complementary was unclear. On the one hand, according to Common Article 2 of the 1949 Geneva Convention, IHRL applies to both war and peace situations.²⁰ On the other hand, European Union Guidelines stipulate that 'IHL is applicable in time of armed conflict and occupation.²¹ In the Legality of the Threat of Use of Nuclear Weapons.²² the following statement was made: 'the test of what is an arbitrary deprivation of life... falls to be determined by the applicable lex specialis, namely, the law applicable in armed conflict.'23 Following the case in question, it was difficult to establish if this meant that IHRL had to be interpreted in view of IHL, or if this meant that only IHL was applicable.²⁴ However, after the Palestinian Wall Advisory Opinion,²⁵ the prevailing view of legal scholars and practitioners became the complementary approach.²⁶ Focusing on the area of armed conflict, Article 42 of 1907 Hague Regulations confirmed that the acts of the occupying power violate both IHRL and IHL.²⁷ Additionally, in the subsequent case regarding the Ugandan occupation in Congo, ICJ repeatedly referred to paragraph 106 of the Palestinian Wall judgment and affirmed the view that 'both branches of international law, namely IHRL and IHL, would have to be taken into consideration.²⁸ Finally, despite covering different jurisdictions, the judgments of the ICTY

¹⁶ ibid 4-5.

¹⁷ Nicholas Tsagourias and Alasdair Morrison, *International Humanitarian Law: Cases, Materials and Commentary* (Cambridge University Press 2018) 55.

¹⁸ Louise Doswald-Beck and Sylvain Vite, International Humanitarian Law and Human Rights Law (1993) 1(1) International Review of the Red Cross 94, 112.

¹⁹ Some examples include torture, rape and deliberate killing; see Sassoli and Olson (n 11) 600.

²⁰ Sivakumaran (n 12) 505.

²¹ European Union Guidelines on Promoting Compliance with International Humanitarian Law [2005] OJ C327/04 para 12.

²² Legality of the Threat or Use of Nuclear Weapons (Advisory Opinion) [1996] ICJ Rep. 226.

²³ ibid para 25.

²⁴ Doswald-Beck (n 10) 107.

²⁵ Legal Consequences of the Construction of a Wall in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (Advisory Opinion) [2004] ICJ Rep. 136 (Palestinian wall).

²⁶ Doswald-Beck (n 10) 107.

²⁷ Yoram Dinstein, 'Belligerent Occupation and Human Rights' (1978) 8(1) Israel Yearbook of Human Rights 142. ²⁸ Armed Activities on the Territory of the Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo v Uganda) [2005] ICJ Rep. 168, para 216.

in the *Furundzija*²⁹ and *Celebici*³⁰ cases confirmed that the respect for human dignity is the underpinning mechanism of both IHRL and IHL.³¹ According to Giacca, the complementary approach can help the harmonisation of the whole spectrum of human rights norms.³² In its Concluding Observations on Israel, the CESCR has demonstrated that 'the applicability of rules of IHL does not by itself impede the application of the Covenant or the accountability of the State under Article 2(1) for the actions of its authorities.'³³ Therefore, the two regimes can be viewed as coherent and mutually reinforcing and leading to the same results in relation to armed conflict and peacetime situations.³⁴

²⁹ Prosecutor v Anto Furundzija, IT-95-17/1-T, 10 December 1998 (ICTY) para 183.

³⁰ Prosecutor v Zejnil Delalic (The Celebici case) IT-96-21-T, 20 February 2001 (ICTY) para 200.

³¹ Theodore Meron, 'The Humanization of Humanitarian Law' (2000) 94(2) The American Journal of International Law 239, 267.

³² Gilles Giacca, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in Armed Conflict (OUP 2014) 78.

³³ CESCR, Concluding Observations: Israel, UN Doc E/C.12/1/Add.90 (23 May 2003) para 31.

³⁴ Agnieszka Szpak, 'International Humanitarian Law and International Human Rights Law before ICTY -Contradictory or Complementary Legal Systems?' (2014) Conference of the International Journal of Arts & Sciences 303, 306.

3. The Right to Food in International Human Rights Law

3.1 The right to food under human rights bodies

In a report submitted to the UNGA in 2017, the current Special Rapporteur on the right to food, affirmed the notion that IHRL applies during conflict situations.³⁵ With this in mind, we must assess the current legislation, and consider its strengths and limitations.

The right to food exists in multiple international human rights mechanisms; CEDAW and CRC both contain provisions ensuring rights holders can access food to meet their needs.³⁶ However, the most comprehensive human rights treaty that considers the universal right to food is ICESCR. Article 11(1) of ICESCR identifies that individuals have right to food through the right to an adequate standard of living.³⁷ The character of this Article is inherently designed to prevent States from enacting any form of legislation that would place rights holders at risk.³⁸ This was further elaborated in GC12, which sought to clarify the right to food as to comprehend the obstacles to its realisation.³⁹ GC12 has some key elements that apply to armed conflict situations: the right to food has both immediate and long-term aspects⁴⁰ and violations can occur when a State Party has failed to meet the minimum essential levels required for individuals to be free from hunger.⁴¹ GC12 also indicates that it is insufficient for State Parties to claim that they cannot fulfil obligations through resource constraints, the burden of proof is on the State to prove that they have taken every measure to prioritise satisfaction of the right to food, whether by taking appropriate measures or seeking assistance.⁴² Doswald-Beck noted, however, that GC12 only addresses the right to food within the scope of food aid.⁴³ It should also identify that actions in an armed conflict with the intention to starve populations are prohibited under IHL customary laws 53 and 54.44

To an extent, the regional human rights bodies are a more suitable expression from which to file complaints of a human rights violation to the right to food. Unlike the UN, the regional

³⁵ UNGA 'Interim report of the Special Rapporteur on the right to food' (21 July 2017) A/72/188 para 46.

³⁶ Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Adopted 18 December 1979, entry into force 3 September 1981) 1249 UNTS 13, Article 12; Convention on the Rights of the Child (Adopted 20 November 1989, entry into force 2 September 1990) 1577 UNTS 3, Article 27.

³⁷ International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (Adopted 16 December 1966, entry into force 3 January 1976) 993 UNTS 3 (ICESCR);

³⁸ Giacca (n 32) 53.

³⁹ CESCR 'General Comment no.12: The Right to Food' (12 May 1999) E/C.12/1999/5 paras 1-3.

⁴⁰ ibid para 16.

⁴¹ ibid para 17.

⁴² ibid.

⁴³ Doswald-Beck (n 10) 480.

⁴⁴ ibid 481.

bodies contain their own court systems which can hand down judgments on the admissibility of a violation, and demand the State makes reparations. The downside, however, is that the right to food is far less developed in these regional bodies. The ECHR makes no formal reference to ESCRs, and the right to food is not explicitly mentioned in the European Social Charter. This is because the ECHR primarily frames human rights violations within CP rights. The ECtHR as a result has little to no case law on the right to food.

On the other hand, the Inter-American and African human rights systems are far more proactive with regards to the right to food. In the IACtHR's case of Yakye Axa,⁴⁵ Judge Ramon Fogel determined that the right to food is inherent in the right to life, and drew from the ACHR, the CESCRs GC12 as well as the Additional Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights.⁴⁶ Article 12(1) of which states that 'everyone has the right to adequate nutrition which guarantees the possibility of enjoying the highest level of physical, emotional and intellectual development.⁴⁷ Whilst this can be useful in identifying the IACHRs stance on the right to food. there is little reference beyond this in situations where violations could occur in armed conflict, Yakye Axa concerned indigenous rights. There are a few examples given by the AComHPR which imply the role of the right to food as existing within a broader sense. In SERAC,⁴⁸ the court determined that the right to food was implicit in the Articles 4, 16 and 22 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, outlining life, health and economic development respectively.⁴⁹ In response to the Darfur crisis, the AComHPR determined in Sudan Human Rights Organisation & Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions,⁵⁰ livestock and farms, as well as poisoning of water sources' amounted to violations of Article 16.⁵¹ Likewise, the AComHPR found that the State Party was not acting diligently to protect the lives of the civilian population and were thus in violation of Article 4.52

As we have demonstrated above, the right to food in armed conflict is complicated by a lack of consistency between the different monitoring bodies. This is a consequence of the human

⁴⁵ Yakye Axa Indigenous Community v Paraguay. Merits, Reparations and Costs Inter-American Court of Human Rights Series C no 125 (17 June 2005).

⁴⁶ Yakye Axa Indigenous Community v Paraguay. Merits, Reparations and Costs, partly consenting and partly dissenting opinion of Judge Ramon Fogel, Inter-American Court of Human Rights Series C no 125 (17 June 2005) para 28.

⁴⁷ Additional Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights in the Area of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Protocol of San Salvador) (Adopted 17 November 1988) OAS Treaty Series 69, Article 12(1).

⁴⁸ Social and Economic Rights Action Center (SERAC) and Center for Economic and Social Rights (CESR) v Nigeria AComHPR 155/96 (27 October 2001)

⁴⁹ ibid para 64; see also African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (adopted 27 June 1981, entered into force 21 October 1986) (1982) 21 ILM 58 (African Charter) Articles 16 and 22.

⁵⁰ Sudan Human Rights Organisation & Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions (COHRE) v Sudan Comm AComHPR 279/03-296/05 (27 May 2009)

⁵¹ ibid para 212.

⁵² ibid para 168.

rights mechanisms not clarifying the scope of the right to food. We will then expand the right to food through other principles of international law. This will be explored in the following subsections.

3.2 Does a right to food exist within the right to life and freedom from torture?

The right to food is often considered interdependent with and essential to the realization of other human rights such as the right to life and freedom from torture.⁵³ It will be demonstrated how the interrelatedness of those rights broadens the notion of the right to food during armed conflict and places it beyond the scope of ESCRs and into CPRs. Framing the right to food within these two principles emphasises its unique dynamic and provides wider protection for victims.

3.2.1 The right to life

The right to food is the only right that qualifies as 'fundamental' under both ICESCR and ICCPR.⁵⁴ While the former explicitly contains the right to food, the latter implies there is a right to food as part of the right to life under Article 6 of ICCPR. ⁵⁵ The right to life is 'a supreme human right',⁵⁶ but the reality is that lives are lost during armed conflict. The question is whether IHRL can prevent arbitrary deprivation of life. Systematic attack against a civilian population resulting into murders are considered to be crimes against humanity, and coupled with wilful killing, a war crime.⁵⁷ The reason why the right to life and right to food are intrinsically connected is because when people are not able to feed themselves, they often face the risk of death by starvation, malnutrition or resulting illnesses. Consequently, it can be assumed that lack of food, puts human lives at stake.⁵⁸

One issue with the right to life is that there is limited jurisprudence from judicial bodies that have applied a broader interpretation of the right to food.⁵⁹ The Supreme Court of India was the first judicial body to consider the right to food from the perspective of the right to life. Since

⁵³ Mathilde Cohen, 'The Right to Food' *Max Planck Encyclopedia of Comparative Constitutional Law* (OUP 2017) 1.

⁵⁴ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 'The Right to Food Guidelines: Information Papers and Case Studies' http://www.fao.org/docs/eims/upload/214344/rtfg_eng_draft_03.pdf> accessed 27 March 2019 104; CCPR 'General Comment no.36: Article 6 (the Right to Life)' (30 November 2018) CCPR/C/GC/36 para 26; this supplants the previous identification of malnutrition in 'General Comment no.6: Article 6 (the Right to life) (30 April 1982) para 5.

⁵⁵ FAO (n 54) 104.

⁵⁶ CCPR, General Comment 6, HRI/GEN/1/Rev.9 (Vol I) 176, para 1.

⁵⁷ Nigel Rodley, 'Integrity of the Person' in Daniel Moeckli, Sangeeta Shah and Sandesh Sivakumaran (eds), *International Human Rights Law Third Edition* (OUP 2018) 176.

⁵⁸ OHCHR (n 8) 5.

⁵⁹ Irene Galtung, 'A Jus Cogens Approach' 9 <https://www.transcend.org/tup/files/TUP18-part2-Irene-Galtung_A-Jus-Cogens-Approach.pdf> accessed 27 March 2019.

the landmark decision in the *PUCL*⁶⁰ case in 2001, jurisprudence on the right to life includes the right to food.⁶¹ The Court found that poor government management of food supplies resulted in multiple civilian deaths from starvation.⁶² It was concluded that State powers should interpret the right to food in light of the right to life, providing it with justiciability under the Constitution of India.⁶³ Moreover, in the Irish case of *G v An Bord Uchtala*,⁶⁴ courts referred to the right to life as necessarily implying 'the right to maintain life at a proper human standard in matters of food, clothing and habitation.'⁶⁵

During emergencies, and in particular during armed conflict, States must not only refrain from deliberate killings, but also take appropriate measures to ensure that food is reaching the hands of those in need.⁶⁶ However, there has been a significant gap connecting the right to life and the right to food in armed conflict. Whilst the GCs of certain treaty bodies have implicated that there is a connection, these are predominantly aspirational and there is an absence of a specific legal stance on the issue.

3.2.2 Freedom from torture

Unlike the notion of the right to life, prohibition of torture is a rule of *jus cogens*, making it explicitly unlawful under any circumstances. According to Article 1 of UNCAT, torture is 'the intentional infliction of severe pain or suffering, for a specific purpose (such as obtaining information, punishment, or mentally breaking the civilian population) by, or with the consent of, State authorities.'⁶⁷ In order to qualify as torture, Courts have suggested that certain criteria must be met, namely, acts or omissions at the extreme end of the pain-inducing spectrum, whether mental or physical suffering is inflicted.⁶⁸ It has been estimated that deprivation of food is used as a torture technique in numerous countries - China, Turkmenistan, Sudan, Russia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, and Palestine,⁶⁹ where political and military tensions exist.⁷⁰ In relation to the right to food during armed conflict in particular, there are two possible angles

⁶⁸ Gail Miller, 'Defining Torture' (18 March 2005)
 <https://cardozo.yu.edu/sites/default/files/Defining%20Torture.pdf> accessed 24 April 2019.
 ⁶⁹ Danish Institute against Torture, 'Deprivation of Food' <https://dignity.dk/en/dignitys-work/health-team/torture-

⁶⁰ People's Union for Civil Liberties (PUCL) v. Union of India & Others (1997) 1 SCC 301.

⁶¹ Christophe Golay and Melik Ozden, 'The Right to Food: A Fundamental Human Right Affirmed by the United Nations and Recognised in Regional Treaties and Numerous National Constitutions' 19-20 https://www.cetim.ch/legacy/en/documents/Br-alim-A4-an.pdf> accessed 25 March 2019.

⁶² Bantekas and Oette (n 1) 402.

⁶³ Shareen Hertel, 'Hungry for Justice: Social Mobilization of the Right to Food in India' (2014) 46(1) Development and Change 72, 75.

⁶⁴ G v An Bord Uchtala (1980) IR 32.

⁶⁵ ibid para 69.

⁶⁶ Irene Galtung (n 59).

⁶⁷ United Nations Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (adopted 10 December 1984, entry into force 26 June 1987) UNTS 1465, Article 1.

⁶⁹ Danish Institute against Torture, 'Deprivation of Food' https://dignity.dk/en/dignitys-work/health-team/torturemethods/deprivation-of-food/> accessed 26 April 2019

⁷⁰ Ibid.

to look at, namely, access to food in aerial bombardment in civilian areas and prison or detainee conditions. They will both be discussed in turn.

De Waal has made the connection between airstrikes in Yemen targeting civilian areas and food supplies and the right to food.⁷¹ He has pinned down certain military actions to deliberate political atrocities and active infliction of genocide.⁷² According to Martha Mundy's report on Yemen, the Saudi coalition often targets food production and distribution areas with the purpose of destroying agriculture, fisheries and food supplies.⁷³ In an unofficial interview, a Saudi diplomat responded that 'once we control them, we will feed them' - suggesting intentional starvation of civilian population in Yemen with the final aim of breaking locals' spirit and subjecting them to Saudi power.⁷⁴ Unfortunately, efforts by NGOs such as OXFAM, Amnesty International and ILO have not been enough to lessen the implications of that phenomenon. In their study from September 2016, MAI's estimates have suggested that such strikes are on the rise indicating already established pattern contrary to international law.⁷⁵ We can therefore see that there is a strong bond between civilian starvation and torture techniques.

The law of armed conflict also concerns the treatment of prisoners and detainees. In Botswana, for example, the High Court noted the existence of the right to food through the constitutional right to be free from torture.⁷⁶ Furthermore, the UN Committee against Torture identified that a lack of adequate nutrition or limited access to food in prison conditions can amount to inhuman and degrading treatment.⁷⁷ It does not matter if the violation is persistent or incidental, it can still lead to deficits in cognitive functions, impairing short-term memory and triggering depression.⁷⁸ Denial of food and water, including being given rotten and fouled food,⁷⁹ is considered to be violating the right to food under IHRL.⁸⁰ In the *Pacheco*⁸¹ case, the

⁷¹ Jane Ferguson, 'Is Intentional Starvation the Future of War' The New Yorker (11 July 2018) https://www.newyorker.com/news/news-desk/is-yemen-intentional-starvation-the-future-of-war accessed 8 March 2019.

⁷² de Waal (n 4) 1528.

⁷³ Martha Mundy, 'The Strategies of the Coalition in the Yemen War: Aerial Bobmardment and Food War' https://sites.tufts.edu/wpf/files/2018/10/Strategies-of-Coalition-in-Yemen-War-Final-20181005-1.pdf accessed 16 April 2019.

⁷⁴ ibid.

⁷⁵ ibid.

⁷⁶ Sesana Sethboga and Others v Attorney General (12 December 2006) Misca No 52 of 2002, ILDC 665 (BW 2006).

⁷⁷ UNCAT Consideration of Reports Submitted by States Parties under Article 19 of the Convention (10 November 2004) CAT/C/CR/33/1, para 6 (h).

⁷⁸ Danish Institute against Torture (n 69)

⁷⁹ Rezmives and Others v Romania App no 61467/12 (ECtHR 25 April 2017)

⁸⁰ Medical Foundation for the Care of Victims of Torture, 'Freedom from Torture Submission to the UN Human Rights Committee - List of Issues for the 5th Periodic Review of Sri Lanka' 5 <https://www.freedomfromtorture.org/sites/default/files/documents/freedom_from_torture_submission_for_sri_lan ka_list_of_issues_20.12.13.pdf> accessed 27 March 2019.

⁸¹ Pacheco Teruel et al. v Honduras IACtHR Series C No 241 (27 April 2012).

IACtHR decided that States must ensure that detention conditions are satisfactory, namely, provide access to ventilation, bedding, food, clothing and medical care.⁸² Finally, it was further reiterated in *Ashurov*⁸³ that there is an established link between torture and the right to food in prison conditions during armed conflict.⁸⁴

With the evidence gathered above, elements of CPRs should be taken into consideration with regards to starvation. It is not enough to frame the right to food simply falling within the scope of ESCRs, but also connecting it to other principles of international law.

3.3. Does the right to food exist under customary international law?

As we have seen above, ICESCR is one of the most widespread legal documents addressing the right to food, nonetheless, some States have abstained from ratifying it. Meron noted that 'when it comes to human rights or humanitarian conventions, the gap between the norms stated and the actual practice tends to be especially wide.'⁸⁵ To an extent, this issue can be alleviated by locating the right to food within the framework of customary international law.⁸⁶ Under Rule 53 of the ICRC Customary IHL Database, starvation as a method of warfare is strictly prohibited.⁸⁷ The Rule has also been incorporated in various military manuals irrespective of the international or non-international nature of the conflict itself.⁸⁸ Unlike other international law principles, States cannot choose to reverse or derogate from custom either by treaty or practice.⁸⁹ These customary laws are so fundamental that they are considered to be binding on all nations regardless of whether a State has consented.⁹⁰ According to ICJ in the *North Sea Shelf*⁹¹ case, customary international law appears as a result of general and consistent practice of States when followed from a sense of legal obligation (*opinio juris*).⁹²

According to Elver:

⁸² ibid paras 37-41.

⁸³ Ashurov v. Tajikistan (20 March 2007) UN Doc CCPR/C/89/D/1348/2005.

⁸⁴ ibid para 2.2 and 6.2.

⁸⁵ Theodor Meron, 'The Geneva Conventions as Customary Law' (1987) 81(2) American Journal of International Law 348, 363.

⁸⁶ Smita Narula, 'The Right to Food: Holding Global Actors Accountable under International Law' (2006) 44(3) Columbia Journal of Transnational Law 691, 753.

⁸⁷ ICRC Customary IHL Database, 'Rule 53: Starvation as a Method of Warfare' https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/v1_rul_rule53> accessed 26 March 2019

⁸⁸ Mark Lattimer, 'Can Incidental Starvation of Civilians be Lawful under IHL?' https://www.ejiltalk.org/can-incidental-starvation-of-civilians-be-lawful-under-ihl/> accessed 26 March 2019

⁸⁹ Sevrine Knuchel, 'State Immunity and the Promise of Jus Cogens' (2011) 9 Northwestern Journal of International Human Rights 149, 153.

⁹⁰ David Weissbrodt and Cheryl Heilman, 'Defining Torture and Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment' (2011) 29 Law and Inequality Journal 343, 362.

⁹¹ North Sea Shelf Cases (Federal Republic of Germany v Denmark), (Federal Republic of Germany v The Netherlands) [1969] ICJ Rep 3, para 77

⁹²Weissbrodt (n 90) 361.

Freedom from hunger is accepted as part of customary international law [...] it is an international crime to intentionally block access to food, food aid, and to destroy production of food. Such acts as crimes against humanity, or war crimes.⁹³

Although evidence suggests that certain legal norms can fall under customary international law, the two prerequisite components for it are difficult to establish.⁹⁴ In reality, the legal academia has not written much about the right to food under customary law and consequently the information that can be found is limited in scope.⁹⁵ As a statement of general application, treaties and normative instruments are typically used to demonstrate the existence of customary laws. Under Article 38(1) of the ICJ Statute, there are multiple sources of international law: treaties, custom, general principles of law and judicial decisions and teachings of the 'most highly qualified publicists of the various nations.'⁹⁶ The right to food during armed conflict has evolved into customary international law through different sources of international law. These will be outlined in the following paragraphs.

First, some legal scholars adopt the view that the as the right to food features in the UDHR it is a customary law by virtue.⁹⁷ Despite not being a legally binding document, there is strong evidence indicating that UDHR promotes values and morals that are inherent to the legal structure of modern society and that those values are intended to be universally observed.⁹⁸ The right to food also exists in numerous Human Rights Council Resolutions which add greater authoritative weight to the argument of customary international law.⁹⁹ UDHR is also a foundational document giving rise to ICESCR and ICCPR which are both legally binding instruments.¹⁰⁰ The fact that Article 11(1) of ICESCR addresses the right to food in particular, demonstrates intention on the part of the lawmakers to be bound by the norm. Thus, supporting the view that the right to food can qualify as a customary law reiterated in Article 25 of UDHR.

⁹³ Hilal Elver, 'States must act now to fulfil famine victims' right to food'

">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNewsID=22278&LangID=E>">https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNewsID=22278&LangID=222

⁹⁴ Christine Chinkin, 'Sources' in Daniel Moeckli, Sangeeta Shah and Sandesh Sivakumaran (eds), *International Human Rights Law Third Edition* (OUP 2018) 70-71.

⁹⁵ Narula (n 86) 69.

⁹⁶ Article 38(1) ICJ Statute.

⁹⁷ Anthony Paul III Kearns, 'The Right to Food Exists via Customary International Law' (1998) 22(1) Suffolk Transnational Law Review 223, 232.

⁹⁸ John Dugard, 'The Influence of the Universal Declaration as Law' (2009) 24(1) Maryland Journal of International Law 85.

⁹⁹ UN Human Rights Council Resolution on the Right to Food (27 March 2008) UN Doc A/HRC/7/14.

¹⁰⁰ Chinkin (n 94) 80.

Second, despite not being legally binding, UN Resolutions are seen as an important indicator of State practice. Depending on their content, they can also provide *opinio juris* for becoming a treaty or custom.¹⁰¹ The fact that Resolutions have been pronounced by the UN, which is an authoritative and pluralistic body of law, gives them legitimacy to be consulted in case there is a gap in the legal order. Moreover, UN Resolutions have been used as means of interpretation of already existing treaty law. As a result, a resolution that has been adopted by consensus, containing normative language and offering follow-up procedures can be essential indicators for consent to be bound by the resolution as part of customary international law.¹⁰² Of particular interest and importance are the UNGA Resolutions due to the fact that they can incorporate a range of views and actions from all State Parties.¹⁰³ These Resolutions have expanded the scope of IHRL and have provided aspirations and goals for State and non-State actors.¹⁰⁴

In relation to the right to food during armed conflict, Resolution 57/226 reaffirms that 'food should not be used as an instrument of political or economic pressure.'¹⁰⁵ Moreover, the Resolution states that 'the right belongs to all individuals to access safe and nutritious food, consistent with the right to adequate food and the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger.'¹⁰⁶ Similar statements are made in Resolution 58/186 affirming the values in the previous Resolution.¹⁰⁷ To conclude, both documents demonstrate the willingness of government and monitoring bodies to implement existing rules and further strengthen values regulating the right to food during armed conflict. With reference to the obligation to refrain from endangering food security, the Resolutions aim to promote food stability on a larger scale.

Third, under Article 38(1)(d) of the ICJ Statute, certain reports, qualifying as 'teachings of the most highly qualified publicists', can be considered 'subsidiary means for the determination of rules of law' and consequently show evidence for international custom. Such works are often based on thorough research and well-founded analysis and try to bring up examples of State practice and *opinio juris*. Independent expert reports and commentaries usually attempt to establish that their consistency is enough for the founding of a new rule or custom. One such example are the Maastricht Guidelines.¹⁰⁸ These guidelines are a response to the critique that 'socioeconomic rights do not [provide] the guidance that [the] rule of law should.'¹⁰⁹ Based on

106 ibid para 2.

¹⁰¹ Narula (n 86) 73.

¹⁰² Chinkin (n 94) 81.

¹⁰³ Narula (n 86) 74

¹⁰⁴ Chinkin (n 94) 80.

¹⁰⁵ UNGA Resolution on the Right to Food (2002) UN Doc A/RES/57/226.

¹⁰⁷ UNGA Resolution on the Human Rights and Mass Exoduses (2003) A/58/186.

¹⁰⁸ Ebenezer Durojaye, 'The Viability of the Maastricht Principles on Extraterritorial Obligations of States on Socioeconomic Rights in Advancing Socioeconomic Rights in Developing Countries" (2014) 5(15) Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences 67.

¹⁰⁹ Paul O'Connell, 'The Death of Socio-Economic Rights' (2011) 74(4) The Modern Law Review 532, 533.

legal research conducted over extensive periods of time by experts in international law, these principles are built to aid the interpretation and implementation of ICESCR norms.¹¹⁰ They seek a lasting solution to ongoing problems of misinterpretation and dysfunction of certain legal rules contained in ICESCR. Given the fact that the principles work together with a legally authoritative document and that they are intended to bind and clarify the existing law, the Maastricht Guidelines can be considered as source of customary law.

3.4 To what extent does right to food in armed conflict exist extraterritorially?

Giacca identified that one of the most controversial elements to the interplay between IHRL and IHL is the principle of extraterritoriality. Some have expressed the view that IHRL does not apply extraterritorially,¹¹¹ which suggests that States do not have IHRL obligations within the borders in other States during IACs.

Theoretically, human rights bodies should recognise that there is an extraterritorial scope to the right to food. Article 11(2) of ICESCR indicates that the duty holders to right to food are usually allocated to the home governments.¹¹² Yet there is no specific circumscription for States only holding duties within their own jurisdiction or territory.¹¹³ Instead, Article 11(2) of ICESCR requests States to take steps both 'individually' and 'through international cooperation' to improve the production and equitable distribution of food worldwide.¹¹⁴ This indicates that there is a progressive character to the extraterritorial right to food. The question which remains is whether these obligations also contain immediate protections.¹¹⁵ In GC15, the CESCR insisted that States are required to respect the right to an adequate standard of living.¹¹⁶ This was echoed by the former Special Rapporteur on the right to food, who also argued that States are required to respect, protect and fulfil the rights of people in other countries.¹¹⁷ The extraterritoriality of ESCRs was further elaborated in the Maastricht Guidelines.¹¹⁸ Interestingly, the Guidelines state that parties can be held accountable for acts

¹¹⁰ Oliver de Shutter, Asbjorn Eide, Ashfaq Khalfan, Marcos Orellana, Margot Solomon and Ian Seiderman, 'Commentary to the Maastricht Principles on Extraterritorial Obligations of States in the Area of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights' (2012) 34(4) Human Rights Quarterly 1.

¹¹¹ Giacca (n 32) 165.

¹¹²Laura Niada, 'Hunger and International Law: The Far-Reaching Scope of the Human Right to Food' (2006) 22(1) Connecticut Journal of International Law 130, 153

¹¹³ ibid; see also Sarah Joseph and Sam Dipnall, 'Scope of Application' in Daniel Moeckli, Sangeeta Shah and Sandesh Sivakumaran (eds) *International Human Rights Law 3rd Edition* (OUP 2018) 126.

¹¹⁴ ICESCR, Article 11(2); this is also echoed in General Comment 12.

¹¹⁵ Sigrun Skogly, 'Extraterritoriality: rights without obligations?' in Joseph, Sarah and McBeth, Adam (eds) Research Handbook on Human Rights Law (Edward Elgar Publishing 2010)75.

¹¹⁶ CESCR General Comment No. 15: The Right to Water (20 January 2003) E/C.12/2002/11

¹¹⁷ Jean Ziegler, 'The Right to Food: Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food' (24 January 2005) UN Doc E/CN.4/2005/47, para 48.

¹¹⁸ Whilst the Maastricht Principles are not legally binding, the OHCHR has acknowledged that documents such as the Maastricht principles are significant as they can serve as guidance for human rights implementation; see

or omissions which have 'foreseeable effects on the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights, whether within or outside its territory'.¹¹⁹

Nonetheless, whilst extraterritoriality can be identified as existing in human rights law, this does not reflect the nature of State practice. One of the major obstacles to identifying a State committing extraterritorial violations is the question of jurisdiction. Traditionally, jurisdiction was defined by sovereign territory in international law.¹²⁰ Proponents of this view include the United States, who stated in its *travaux preparatoires* to the ICCPR that CP obligations should only apply to individuals within its own territory.¹²¹ This would indicate that some States do not recognise their obligations towards the wellbeing of another State's individuals. Conversely, some States do consider themselves as having extraterritorial obligations, but only on their terms. Turkey stated in its ratification of ICESCR that it would only recognise the ESCR of countries with which it has 'diplomatic relations'.¹²² Needless to say, States do not have a consensus on their extraterritorial obligations.¹²³ How do human rights bodies then challenge this notion?

Human rights bodies have taken a broad interpretation of the notion of jurisdiction. In the *Palestinian Wall Advisory Opinion*, the ICJ determined that whilst the majority of ICESCR rights are territorial, it cannot be excluded that covenant rights apply in situations where the State has 'effective control'.¹²⁴ However, this definition has been met with complications. For example, the ECtHR has interpreted effective control as requiring a physical presence. This can be found in the *Loizidou*¹²⁵ case, where the Court declared the admissibility of Turkish human rights violations in Northern Cyprus. With 30,000 military personnel occupying the region, it could be demonstrated that military activity had direct influence on the area.¹²⁶ Conversely, this physical presence proved to be problematic for attacks made by a party from outside of the territory. *Banković*¹²⁷ is cited as an example of this shortcoming. The ECtHR

¹²⁶ ibid paras 16 and 52.

OHCHR, 'international law' https://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/InternationalLaw.aspx accessed 17 April 2019.

¹¹⁹ Maastricht Principles On Extraterritorial Obligations of States in the Area of Economic Social and Cultural Rights (2013) para 9(b).

¹²⁰ Cedric Ryngaert, 'The Concept of Jurisdiction in International Law' in Alexander Orakhelashvili (ed) *Research Handbook on Jurisdiction and Immunities in International Law* (Elgar 2015) 51.

¹²¹ 'Compilation of the comments of Governments on the draft International Covenant on Human Rights and on the proposed additional articles: memorandum by the secretary general' (22 March 1950) E/CN.4/365

¹²² 'Declarations and Reservations of ICESCR: Turkey' (UNTC) <https://treaties.un.org/pages/viewdetails.aspx?chapter=4&lang=en&mtdsg_no=iv-3&src=treaty#EndDec> accessed 17 April 2019.

¹²³ Giacca (n 32) 134.

¹²⁴ Palestinian wall (n 25) para 112.

¹²⁵ Loizidou v Turkey app no. 15318/89 (ECtHR 18 December 1996)

¹²⁷ Banković and others v Belgium and others App no. 52207/99 (ECtHR 12 December 2001)

because the attack came from a NATO aircraft. The claimants could not prove that the offending party had effective control over the area.¹²⁸ The definition of jurisdiction made by the ECtHR has some glaring issues. If a State Party attacks a source of food and justifies that there is a military benefit to attacking the supply, there is little accountability of extraterritorial human rights violations. Extraterritorial attacks with direct consequences on civilian suffering should be taken into greater consideration as a war crime. Milanovic proposed that a possible alternative to this is to not tie jurisdiction within the scope of territory, but to individuals being affected by a State actor.¹²⁹ This is not a perfect alternative, but it would substantively alter the perspective towards cases such as *Banković*.

Finally, it would be prudent to reiterate to States that human rights law applies at all times, and that they should regulate the conduct of their agents especially in other countries.

¹²⁸ ibid para 75.

¹²⁹ Marko Milanovic, *Extraterritorial Application of Human Rights Treaties: Law, Principles, and Policy* (OUP 2011) 119

4. The Scope of State Obligations

It is undeniable that in an armed conflict, there are significant challenges to sustaining human rights obligations. These obligations have been traditionally outlined by a tripartite terminology of the duties to respect, protect and fulfil.¹³⁰ However, these duties remain underexplored.¹³¹ Doswald-Beck only identifies one violation in GC12, which is the denial of humanitarian assistance.¹³² Considering that GC14 offers a more comprehensive outline of these duties through the right to health,¹³³ the obligations to the right to food should be expanded as well. As there is limited jurisprudence from complaints submitted to the CESCR through OP-ICESCR, we will contemplate fact-finding missions, NGO reports and Concluding Observations to States affected by armed conflict.

4.1 How can States respect the right to food?

The duty to respect the right to food requires Parties to not interfere or obstruct an individual accessing adequate nutrition.¹³⁴ As Doswald-Beck has indicated, the duty to respect applies to all rules that prohibit attacks on protected persons, objects and places.¹³⁵ Food being used to apply political or economic pressure of civilian populations should be considered as a violation of their ESCRs.¹³⁶ As reiterated by the Special Rapporteur, 'States have an obligation to refrain from interfering with individuals' enjoyment of their [...] right to food.'¹³⁷

One example of a failure to respect the right to food in armed conflict is discriminatory food distribution. In its latest Concluding Observations of the Central African Republic, the CESCR were concerned by the government's strategies to provide access to food, water, accommodation and healthcare, which did not reach disabled persons.¹³⁸ Subsequently, they recommended the State Party to coordinate a strategy 'without delay [...] to guarantee respect for the human rights of displaced persons.¹³⁹

¹³⁰ CESCR General Comment 12: The Right to Adequate Food (Article 11) (12 May 1995) E/C.12/1999/5 (General Comment 12) para 15.

¹³¹ Manisuli Ssenyonjo 'Reflections on state obligations with respect to economic, social and cultural rights in international human rights law' (2011) 15(6) The International Journal of Human Rights 969, 971. ¹³² Doswald-Beck, 480.

¹³³ CESCR General Comment 14: The Right to the Highest Attainable Standard of Health (Article 12) E/C.12/2000/4 paras 34-37.

¹³⁴ ESCR Net, 'Claiming ESCR at the United Nations: A manual on utilizing the OP-ICESCR in strategic litigation' (March 2014) (ESCR Manual) 13.

¹³⁵ Doswald-Beck 475.

¹³⁶ See General Comment 12 (n 39).

¹³⁷ Special Rapporteur Interim Report para 53.

¹³⁸ CESCR 'Concluding observations concerning the initial report of the Central African Republic' (4 May 2018) E/C.12/CAF/CO/1 para 11.

¹³⁹ ibid para 12.

What is less clear is whether the GC12 addresses a State Party failing to respect the right to food by mass starvation of civilians.¹⁴⁰ One such example which could apply is siege warfare. The Syrian crisis led to nearly 38% of the population being unable to meet the basic need for food.¹⁴¹ The Syrian Government can hold some responsibility for this as it actively pursued a strategy of forcing surrender through starvation sieges.¹⁴² Over 400,000 civilians have been estimated to have been subjected to these sieges, and are in a vulnerable situation.¹⁴³ In their fact-finding missions, the OHCHR and the Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food have acknowledged reports of Government forces actively destroying bakeries in besieged towns.¹⁴⁴ This is clearly a violation under IHL, where the targeting of objects necessary for the survival of the civilian is strictly prohibited.¹⁴⁵ Some States have refused to accept this prohibition if they deem tactics such as sieges necessary to attain a military objective. The United Kingdom, for example, considers starvation in sieges to be an incidental consequence and not a source of intent.¹⁴⁶ The problem with such arguments, however, is that it denies responsibility of how civilians in an enemy territory are treated.¹⁴⁷ Regardless of this, it fails to respect their right to food as denial of accessibility is the fundamental purpose of a siege.

Failing to respect the right to food could also be found in the UN's fact-finding mission on Kuwait. The Special Rapporteur identified two incidents that could be seen in violation to Article 11 ICESCR. The first being the Iraqi forces refusal to allow food to be taken into the Philippine Embassy¹⁴⁸ and insufficient nutrition for deportees to Iraq.¹⁴⁹ Whilst the Rapporteur identified that there was severe destruction of infrastructure and private property, he only framed this within IHL.¹⁵⁰ Doswald-Beck asserted that ICESCR could have been used in this

¹⁴⁰ Doswald-Beck (n 10) 481.

¹⁴¹ Human Appeal, 'Hunger as a Weapon of War: How Food Insecurity Has Exacerbated in Syria and Yemen' (15 March 2018) 14.

¹⁴² Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic 'Sieges as a Weapon of War: Encircle, starve, surrender, evacuate' (26 May 2018) para 1.

¹⁴³ Martin Chulov, 'Starvation in Syria remains weapon of war despite partial ceasefire' (*Guardian*, 8 April 2016) https://www.theguardian.com/world/2016/apr/08/starvation-in-syria-remains-weapon-of-war-despite-partial-ceasefire> accessed 15 March 2019.

¹⁴⁴ OHCHR 'Living under siege: The Syrian Arab republic' (February 2014) https://www.ohchr.org/en/countries/menaregion/pages/syindex.aspx> accessed 29 March 2019, 8; Special Rapporteur Interim Report para 28.

¹⁴⁵ ICRC 'Customary IHL Database: Rules 53 and 54' <https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/customary-ihl/eng/docs/v1_rul> accessed 30 April 2019.

¹⁴⁶ Ministry of Defence Joint Service Manual on the Law of Armed Conflict (2004) JSP 383, 5.27.2.

¹⁴⁷ Lattimer (n 88).

¹⁴⁸ ECOSOC, 'Report on the situation of human rights in Kuwait under Iraqi occupation prepared by Mr. Walter Kälin, Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights, in accordance with Commission resolution 1991/67' (16 January 1992) UN Doc E/CN.4/1992/26 (Kälin) para 222.

¹⁴⁹ ibid para 223.

¹⁵⁰ ibid para 234-235.

scenario.¹⁵¹ Thus, it could be determined that the duty to respect the right to food applies in armed conflict, but it needs clearer definition.

4.2 How can States protect the right to food?

The duty to protect requires States to maintain that other groups do not prevent human rights abuses against their citizens.¹⁵² This has been interpreted to mean that States should prevent third parties from interfering with the enjoyment of rights.¹⁵³ Third parties are defined as 'individuals, groups, corporations and other entities as well as agents acting under their authority.'¹⁵⁴ This duty to protect does not change in times of armed conflict.¹⁵⁵ In its Concluding Observations of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the CESCR determined that, despite the armed conflict situation in the country, it was crucial that illegal exploitation of the natural resources by foreign companies was prevented by the government.¹⁵⁶ It was essential that the party ensured security in its territory and protected its civilians with the respect to the rule of law.¹⁵⁷

Nonetheless, the definition of third parties including 'other entities' could also apply to any group including other States or non-State actors. The implications of this in the context of armed conflicts are compelling, as it would suggest that a State Party is required to protect access to the right to food to the best of their ability from enemy combatants. One demonstration of this could be found in the CESCR's recent Concluding Observations on Cameroon. Terrorist attacks by Boko Haram in the far north, compounded with an internal conflict in the North-West and South-West regions have created a severe security crisis.¹⁵⁸ Food instability has occurred as a consequence of farmers being unable to go back to their homes.¹⁵⁹ The CESCR urged Cameroon to adopt a comprehensive strategy to ensure the right to adequate food and to combat hunger and chronic malnutrition, particularly in rural areas and the far north.¹⁶⁰ The CESCR indicated that the Cameroonian government had a

¹⁵¹ Doswald-Beck (n 10) 487.

¹⁵² ESCR Manual (n 134) 14.

¹⁵³ General Comment 14 para 35; General Comment 15 para 23.

¹⁵⁴ General Comment 15 para 23.

¹⁵⁵ Eibe Reidel, 'Economic, Social and Cultural Rights' in Clapham, Andrew and Gaeta, Paola (eds) The Oxford Handbook of International Law in Armed Conflict' (OUP 2014) 451-452.

¹⁵⁶ CESCR 'Concluding observations of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights: Democratic Republic of the Congo' (16 December 2009) E/C.12/COD/CO/4 para 6.
¹⁵⁷ ibid.

¹⁵⁸ FAO 'Monitoring food security in countries with conflict situations: A joint FAO/WFP update for the United Nations Security Council' (January 2019) CA3113EN/1/01.19, 14.

¹⁵⁹ Henry Kam Kah, 'Boko Haram is Losing, but so is Food Production': Conflict and Food Insecurity in Nigeria and Cameroon' (2017) 42(3) Africa Development 177, 183-186.

¹⁶⁰ CESCR 'Concluding observations concerning the fourth quarterly report period of Cameroon' (8 March 2019) E/C.12/CMR/CO/4, para 51.

positive obligation to implement measures that would combat the issues caused by Boko Haram.

One of the primary issues with the duty to protect, however, is that it reflects the State-centric nature of international law.¹⁶¹ States are more reluctant to claim responsibility for their actions if they are unable to control a territory affected by insurgent forces. Conversely, many States would refuse to acknowledge these non-State groups through the paradigm of international law, amid concerns it provides them with legitimacy.¹⁶² The duty to protect demonstrates the limitations of IHRL as it frames the right to food as being solely the responsibility of States, as opposed to non-State armed groups in armed conflict. A further appreciation that non-State actors commit human rights offences could strengthen the right to food, although challenges may arise as to how this accountability is implemented.

4.3 How can States fulfil the right to food?

The duty to fulfil is divided by the obligations to States to facilitate and provide ESCRs.¹⁶³ It can be inferred that during an armed conflict, human rights bodies acknowledge that State Parties are limited by their availability of resources to meet their duties to human rights obligations. Despite this, it remains important for States to seek any possible means to supply food to those most affected by food deprivation. Likewise, State Parties must prove that they have taken a comprehensive strategy to meet ESCR standards.¹⁶⁴

The situation in Afghanistan serves as a profound example of the importance of long-term rights protection in armed conflicts. In 1990, the Afghanistan State report to the CESCR claimed that they were unable to fulfil their full realization of ESCRs due to the 'ongoing civil strife'.¹⁶⁵ The CESCR took the approach that it had to do everything in its power to fulfil its obligation to the ICESCR.¹⁶⁶ This was followed in the next reporting cycle in 2010. In its Concluding Observations, the CESCR, whilst aware that Afghanistan had made some progress in policies, were concerned that the government had failed to effectively implement them. It emphasised that 'an inter-ministerial policy and strategy [...] to address food security

¹⁶¹ Robert McCorquodale, 'Non-state actors and international human rights law' in Sarah Joseph and Adam McBeth (eds) *Research Handbook on International Human Rights Law* (Elgar 2010) 97.

¹⁶² Sandesh Sivakumaran, The Law of Non-International Armed Conflict (OUP 2012) 3.

¹⁶³ ESCR Manual 14.

¹⁶⁴ ibid.

¹⁶⁵ Reidel (n 155) 449.

¹⁶⁶ ibid.

and malnutrition [...] should be envisaged.^{'167} In both reporting cycles, the CESCR did not draw the connection between ESCRs violations and the armed conflict except in very specific situations relating to the treatment of women and children.¹⁶⁸ Whilst this can be an indication of the Committee not differentiating between peacetime and armed conflict, it remains ambiguous.

Nonetheless, one of primary issues with the duty to fulfil is that it is more difficult to determine whether the State has breached IHRL in armed conflict within this obligation. As Giacca noted, it is a difficult line to draw between inability and unwillingness.¹⁶⁹ A State could always fall back on the defence that they cannot realise the full enjoyment of rights through policy. Regardless of this, States can still be found in violation if they fall under the minimum core of human rights, as indicated by Kälin in his report on Kuwait.¹⁷⁰

 ¹⁶⁷ CESCR 'Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under articles 16 and 17 of the Covenant: Concluding observations of the Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights' (7 June 2010) *E/C.12/AFG/CO/2-4*, para 37.
 ¹⁶⁸ Reidel (n 155) 449.

¹⁶⁹ Giacca (n 32) 45.

¹⁷⁰ Kälin (n 148) para 52.

5. Conclusion

From what we have identified throughout this memorandum, how human rights bodies address the right to food in armed conflict needs further clarification. From our research, we believe that recent developments demonstrate a complementarity between IHL and IHRL.¹⁷¹ This parallelism and growing convergence can enrich the two disciplines and allow each to contribute to the other.¹⁷² The right to food can thus receive greater protection due to its broader recognition by the two branches.

However, the right to food is not simply a single right in of itself, it exists in multiple forms throughout various principles of IHRL. As we have demonstrated, the right to food formally exists through IHRL mechanisms, however right to food violations during armed conflict can also be perceived from different angles. From our research we propose the following recommendations to GRC:

First, whilst it is feasible to submit a complaint of the right to food under OP-ICESCR, there are significant challenges in the context of armed conflict. For one, OP-ICESCR is limited by its relative infancy to other protocols as well as a lack of ratifying parties. GRC could advise litigants to consider those States which are party to OP-ICESCR for right to food violations during armed conflict, but further expansion into other mechanisms could be useful. Second, the right to food in armed conflict shouldn't be solely understood as an ESCR. Utilising food as a weapon through means such as forced starvation cannot be explored without appreciating the right to life and freedom from torture. Thus, applying the right to food within the framework of a CPR can widen protection by bringing complaints against perpetrators to other bodies, such as the CCPR and CAT, as well as regional bodies including the ECtHR, IACtHR and ACtHPR. Third, the right to food is fundamental in customary international law. It is beneficial to recognise the right to food in this way because some States have not taken any action to ratify human rights treaties, appreciating the right to food in this context expands consideration for litigations against parties during armed conflict. The right to food also applies extraterritorially, but when identifying who is accountable, litigants should be mindful of the complications human rights bodies have had considering jurisdiction. Finally, litigants can use the human rights obligations of respect, protect and fulfil to understand the various forms of violations that can be employed during armed conflict, the concluding observations of CESCR

¹⁷¹ Daniel Bethlehem, Sandesh Sivakumaran, Noam Lubell and Philip Leach, 'Classification of Conflicts: The Way Forward'

https://www.chathamhouse.org/sites/default/files/public/Research/International%20Law/011012summary.pdf accessed 25 April 2019.

¹⁷² Meron (n 31) 266.

can aid in framing how they have already been applied. Nonetheless, the scope remains limited and focused on certain aspects.¹⁷³ This is something which GRC can consider.

Word Count: 6486

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¹⁷³ Reidel (n 155) 449.

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