|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  | A/HRC/54/70 | |
|  | **Advance Unedited Version** | | Distr.: General  12 July 2023  Original: English |

**Human Rights Council**

**Fifty-fourth session**

11 September–6 October 2023

Agenda items 3 and 5

**Promotion and protection of all human rights, civil,  
political, economic, social and cultural rights,  
including the right to development**

**Human rights bodies and mechanisms**

Advancing racial justice and equality by uprooting systemic racism

Report of the Human Rights Council Advisory Committee[[1]](#footnote-2)\*, [[2]](#footnote-3)\*\*

Contents

*Page*

I. Introduction 3

II. Manifestations of systemic racism: A challenge to Agenda 2030 and the SDGs 5

III. New trends and accelerating factors 9

IV. National measures to advance racial justice 10

A. Inclusive and holistic country-centred process, based on the DDPA 10

B. Legal and policy reform, and institutional measures 11

C. Data disaggregated by race or ethnic origin 13

D. Structural overhaul and reprioritisation 14

E. Public advocacy, awareness-raising and antiracism education and training 15

F. Reckoning with the past 17

V. Recent initiatives 18

VI. Other recommendations 19

Annex

Selected UN mechanisms addressing racism and systemic racial discrimination 21

I. Introduction

1. In its resolution 48/18, “From rhetoric to reality: a global call for concrete action against racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance”, the Human Rights Council underscored the importance of political commitment to eliminate all forms of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance. It requested the Advisory Committee “to prepare a study in which it examines patterns, policies and processes contributing to incidents of racial discrimination and makes proposals to advance racial justice and equality, which should be firmly anchored in the fulfilment of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the attainment of its Goals (SDGs), in consultation where possible with the Office of the High Commissioner and the international independent expert mechanism to advance racial justice and equality in the context of law enforcement established by the Council in its resolution 47/21”, and to present the study to the Council at its 54th session.[[3]](#footnote-4)

2. The Committee started work on this study at its 27th session, when a drafting group was established. The current members of the drafting group are: Nurah Alamro, Noor Al Malki Al-Jehani, Buhm-Suk Baek, Nadia Bernoussi, Milena Costas Trascasas, Jewel Major, Ajai Malhotra, Javier Palummo, Vasilka Sancin, Dheerujlall Seetulsingh, Catherine Van de Heyning (Chair) and Frans Viljoen (Rapporteur). The Committee took note of and built on its report “Moving towards racial equality: study of the Advisory Committee on appropriate ways and means of assessing the situation”,[[4]](#footnote-5) in which it recommended that States develop “methodological and analytical frameworks to effectively address structural discrimination and inequality”,[[5]](#footnote-6) and concluded that “more resolute action” is needed to “effectively tackle entrenched structural and systemic racism”.[[6]](#footnote-7)

3. This study is grounded in the following: the UN human rights treaties, in particular the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD); the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP); the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action (DDPA); general comments and recommendations by UN human rights treaty bodies, in particular the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD); findings and recommendations in the reports on various aspects of racial justice and equality prepared by an array of UN special procedures, notably the Special Rapporteur on contemporary forms of racism, xenophobia and related intolerance (SRR) and the Working Group of Experts on People of African Descent (WGEPAD), as well as the International Independent Expert Mechanism to Advance Racial Justice and Equality in the context of Law Enforcement (EMLER); and the contributions of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, in particular the Four Point Agenda towards transformative change for racial justice and equality for Africans and people of African descent.[[7]](#footnote-8)  This study aims to provide a synthesis that integrates this comprehensive, rich and complex set of norms and standards.[[8]](#footnote-9) In addition, a questionnaire was circulated among States and relevant stakeholders, and experts were consulted.

4. Based on the realisation that the concept “race” has no basis in human genetics or biology, international human rights has moved beyond racial categories determined by phenotypical markers, towards an understanding of “race” as a social construct.[[9]](#footnote-10) Even if it is a social construct, race has a very real impact on people’s lives.[[10]](#footnote-11) A**s long as racism persists, “race” needs to be retained as a prohibited ground of discrimination.** Since race is not a predetermined or immutable category, but is constantly being ascribed or attributed, it is more appropriate to refer to “racialised” (rather than “racial”) communities.[[11]](#footnote-12) Race may be based on self-identification when a person is *not ascribed* but *subscribes* to a racial identity or identifier. Data based on self-identification by “race” may serve useful purposes in racialised societies, such as increasing the understanding and awareness of systemic racism, identifying particular forms of persistent inequality, and enabling policies to implement special measures.[[12]](#footnote-13)

5. “Racial discrimination” is understood as “any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference”, based on “race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin”, which undermines the equal enjoyment of rights.[[13]](#footnote-14) “Racism” is a complex system of racial hierarchies, inequities or antagonism, often rooted in a society and directed against someone or a group of a different race based on belief that one’s own “race” is superior. Some of the salient elements of “racial justice” are:[[14]](#footnote-15) systematic fairness and equity towards everyone irrespective of their race; and deliberate State measures resulting in equal opportunity, equal human dignity and welfare of all within society, particularly those racialised, marginalised, vulnerable, and poor.

6. Racism can manifest as individual conduct, in societal attitudes and behaviour, and in institutional practices.[[15]](#footnote-16) This study acknowledges that explicit manifestations of racism are only the tip of the iceberg, below which is hidden an institutional and structural base that entrenches discrimination and exclusion based on race or ethnic origin. Based on the words “patterns, policies and processes”, this study goes *beyond highlighting incidents* of racism. Racial injustice is often perpetuated by the cumulative effect on racialised persons of a *system* in which tangible or intangible interdependent parts as a whole bring about an explicitly or implicitly agreed outcome.[[16]](#footnote-17)

7. The study understands the Committee’s mandate under resolution 48/18 as aiming to draw attention to “structural” and “institutional” racism.[[17]](#footnote-18) The term “systemic racism” is used to capture both “structural” and “institutional” racism. While awareness of structural and institutional roots of racism is not new, the term “systemic racism” has since George Floyd’s murder in 2020 become a central frame of analysis.[[18]](#footnote-19) “Systemic racism” operates through an interrelated or closely coordinated network of laws, policies, practices, attitudes, stereotypes and biases. It is upheld by a wide range of actors, involving State institutions, private sector and societal structures more broadly. It results not only in express, direct, de jure, or intentional discrimination, but also in covert, indirect, de facto or unintentional discrimination, distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference on the basis of race, colour, descent or national or ethnic origin. It is frequently rooted in historical legacies of enslavement, the trade in enslaved Africans and colonialism. And it tends to govern opportunities and outcomes across generations.[[19]](#footnote-20)

8. To avoid overlap with the mandate of the EMLER to report on “the root causes of *systemic racism in law enforcement and the criminal justice system*” and other human rights violations by law enforcement officials “against Africans and people of African descent”,[[20]](#footnote-21) this report does not delve into systemic racism in law enforcement or the criminal justice system. As far as law enforcement and criminal justice are concerned, the attention of States is drawn to the recommendations emerging from the EMLER.[[21]](#footnote-22) This study focuses on persons whose “racialisation” coincides with their marginalisation, increased vulnerability, stigmatisation and exclusion. While Africans and people of African descent are included in its personal scope, the study’s focus is wider, as it takes into account the broad range of grounds for discrimination under ICERD and other relevant treaties,[[22]](#footnote-23) and includes Indigenous Peoples; Africans and people of African descent; Asians and people of Asian descent; Mestizo populations of mixed ethnic and racial origins; Jewish, Muslim and Arab communities; Palestinian people; and Roma, Gypsies, Sinti and Travellers.[[23]](#footnote-24)

9. The study recognises the importance of taking intersectionality into account. Every person has multiple intersecting identities, and can experience discrimination related to a single aspect, or based on more than one aspect of their identity. Discrimination based on race can intersect with discrimination based on ethnicity, nationality,[[24]](#footnote-25) minority status, religion, culture, language, sex, gender, gender identity, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, age, migration status, health status, (dis)ability, political affiliation, and so on. An intersectional approach to racism captures the interaction between racism and other systems of subordination, such as sexism, patriarchy, homophobia, xenophobia, agism and ableism. Women and girls of African descent in particular stand at the crossroad of intersectionality and inequality, due to persistent discrimination and harmful stereotyping based on their race and gender.

II. Manifestations of systemic racism: A challenge to Agenda 2030 and the SDGs

10. Systemic racism may manifest itself in any society in which “racially unequal opportunities and outcomes” are to some degree “inbuilt or intrinsic to the operation of a society’s structures”.[[25]](#footnote-26) Addressing the legacies of colonialism can contribute to overcoming inequalities within and among States and advance sustainable development challenges.[[26]](#footnote-27) Systemic racism is also likely to be present in States that had in place but subsequently formally abolished a legalised system of racial discrimination, such as “apartheid”. In so far as the globalised effect of racism has permeated our world, no State is left entirely unaffected by systemic racism.

11. Systemic racism challenges States’ ability to implement SDGs.[[27]](#footnote-28) Across the world, members of racially marginalised communities are more likely than general population to live in or to be vulnerable to poverty.[[28]](#footnote-29) Meeting SDGs therefore require dismantling of systemic barriers grounded in racial discrimination. The SDGs have moved inequalities centre stage by requiring that development “leaves no one behind” and “reaches the furthest behind first”.[[29]](#footnote-30) Numerous goals and targets include a focus on inequalities and the advancement of communities that have historically experienced discrimination. Systemic racism affects several aspects of the SDGs, including those related to children in care (goal 1), health (goal 3), education (goal 4), water (goal 6), energy (goal 7), employment (goal 8), housing (goal 11), environmental justice (goal 13) and political participation and representation (goal 16).

12. Also relevant is Goal 10 on reducing inequalities within and among countries. Grave economic inequalities between countries characterise the current world order, with a division between “developed” and “developing” countries along an axis that closely corresponds with the legacies of colonial conquest and dispossession. The North-South divide represents unequal economic power, and has resulted in concrete concerns, exemplified by the harmful effect of the dumping of hazardous wastes on marginalised communities and the environment in the Global South and the exploitation of natural resources of poorer countries by transnational corporations based in developed countries. The burden of the climate crisis is also falling disproportionately on communities subject to historic exploitation, discrimination and marginalisation, including Indigenous communities, besides low-lying island States, and the poor in the Global South.[[30]](#footnote-31)To make matters worse, the international development framework has neglected and exacerbated these global inequalities.[[31]](#footnote-32)

13. The SDGs and Agenda 2030 have had a limited impact on reversing systemic inequalities, partly due to not adopting an explicit human rights-based approach, as reflected in not making mention of the two UN instruments core to the attainment of racial justice, ICERD and DDPA. While some targets mention “race”, this ground disappears in indicators, data sources and monitoring processes.[[32]](#footnote-33) People in vulnerable situations, including minorities and Indigenous Peoples, have not only largely been excluded from national development activities, but have also been marginalised in the 2030 Agenda.[[33]](#footnote-34) It is crucial that antiracism and human rights national action plans are not isolated from development commitments under the 2030 Agenda.[[34]](#footnote-35) Systemic racism has lasted for generations, and continues to affect the enjoyment of human rights in every part of life, as illustrated by selected examples that follow.

14. UN and national bodies have highlighted the disproportionate healthburden on ethnic and racial minorities.[[35]](#footnote-36) The Covid-19 crisis has brought into the spotlight the consequences of existing health inequalities suffered by people with a minority racial or ethnic background.[[36]](#footnote-37) As members of some racially marginalised communities do not generally have the means to acquire private health insurance, they are dependent on State-run comprehensive health insurance systems, which are often ineffective and inaccessible.[[37]](#footnote-38) Research shows that unconscious bias and misguided perceptions about pain thresholds also affect the quality of health care that racially marginalised persons receive.[[38]](#footnote-39) Due to factors such as poverty, the inability to grow traditional foods, associated changes in diet, and inadequate cultural adaptation in the delivery of health services, worldwide Indigenous Peoples experience disproportionately poor health outcomes, reduced life expectancy and higher levels of diabetes, tuberculosis and suicide.[[39]](#footnote-40)

15. Systemic racism manifests itself in housing and spatial inequality.[[40]](#footnote-41) Systemic racism in State housing and land policies and patterns of discriminatory practices by private actors have contributed to structural inequalities in housing.[[41]](#footnote-42) Settlement patterns over decades have in many countries resulted in racially marginalised populations disproportionately living in the poorest residential areas, such as isolated rural areas with little access to equal and affordable basic services, and inner-city urban and de-industrialised areas, where they are exposed to crime and overcrowding, with limited opportunities for employment, quality education, and access to health care and basic services.[[42]](#footnote-43) Historical patterns of residential segregation of racialised groups persists, including in “gated communities”.[[43]](#footnote-44) The level of homelessness is also often significantly higher among racialised groups than general population.[[44]](#footnote-45) While owner-occupied housing is common among general population in most racialised societies, due to factors such as discriminatory practices in awarding home loans, only a small proportion of ethnic minority populations owns the accommodation in which they live.[[45]](#footnote-46) Consequently, these households are much more likely to spend a higher proportion of their income on rent than general population. Indigenous Peoples who migrate to urban areas disproportionately live in marginalised areas and informal settlements with limited access to basic services.[[46]](#footnote-47)

16. Inadequate access to education of racialised communities results in the transmission of poverty from generation to generation within these communities.[[47]](#footnote-48) In some countries, learners **from ethnic and racial minority groups** are discriminated against, segregated from other learners in schools based on their perceived “special educational needs”,[[48]](#footnote-49) and disproportionately excluded from schools.[[49]](#footnote-50)Schools attended predominately by students from racialised communities that experience marginalisation are [chronically underfunded.](https://www.theatlantic.com/business/archive/2015/09/public-school-funding-and-the-role-of-race/408085/)[[50]](#footnote-51) Racial and ethnic minorities, including people of African descent, and Indigenous Peoples continue to experience disparities in access to quality education, retention and completion rates, and academic achievement.[[51]](#footnote-52) These disparities are reinforced by factors such as racial stereotyping and under-representation in or erasure from educational texts, lack of representation of teachers from these communities, and lack of mother tongue education in minority and Indigenous languages.[[52]](#footnote-53) Indigenous Peoples are less likely to access and benefit from quality education than general population.[[53]](#footnote-54)

17. Although employment discrimination on the basis of race or ethnic origin is illegal in most States, the reality is often different. Across Europe, young people of North African origin, African descent and from Roma communities are much more likely not to be “in work, education or training, compared to general population”; and to receive lower remuneration than persons in general population with similar qualifications.[[54]](#footnote-55) People of African descent across the world face barriers in obtaining employment; disproportionately work in the informal sector, often under conditions of insecurity, with low payment and without access to labour rights; and continuously experience discrimination in the workplace.[[55]](#footnote-56)

18. Racial profiling, which is a prime example of systemic racism in law enforcement and the administration of justice, seems to be prevalent in all places where racially marginalised persons live. Based on the stereotype that stigmatises or “profiles” them as potential “criminals”, young men of African descent and Roma, in particular, have in numerous countries been disproportionately targeted by law enforcement officials, are disproportionately arrested, exposed to police brutality and receive disproportionately severe sentences.[[56]](#footnote-57) The disproportionate effect of the criminal justice system on young men of African descent is exacerbated in racialised societies embarking on targeted criminalisation of drug possession.[[57]](#footnote-58)

19. Political participation of historically racialised and marginalised groups of citizens is important to ensure that these groups are included in democratic decision-making. In contemporary societies, systemic racism appears not from outright prohibition, but from more subtle ways in which the meaningful and effective exercise of the right to vote of these communities is compromised. The de facto exclusion from political participation of members of these communities is often due to redistricting of the boundaries of voting districts in first-past-the-post electoral systems that minimise the weight attached to a particular group’s votes.[[58]](#footnote-59) At face value, the disqualification from voting of persons convicted of and serving sentences for certain offences has no overt racial implications. In practice, however, prisoners from racialised minority communities are often disproportionately excluded.[[59]](#footnote-60) Restriction in the modalities for voting may also be facially neutral but disproportionately deny voting rights to an already-disadvantaged group.[[60]](#footnote-61) The requirement of a fixed address for example inhibits voter registration notably among Indigenous Peoples,[[61]](#footnote-62) and other people from marginalised racial groups who disproportionately experience homelessness. On numerous occasions, CERD and WGEPAD have decried the disproportionately low levels of political representation by people of African descent and of Indigenous Peoples in State institutions, including parliaments.[[62]](#footnote-63)

20. Racial disparities occur at almost every stage of the decision-making process in the child welfare system. In countries across the world, disproportionate numbers of children of African descent, Indigenous children and children belonging to racial and ethnic minorities are removed from their families and placed in foster care; and are less likely to be adopted.[[63]](#footnote-64) Historically, Indigenous children were removed from their families and “civilized” by placing them in state-run residential schools. Persistent overrepresentation of indigenous children in out-of-home care reveals how these practices have become systemically part of the child welfare system.

21. Environmental racism consists of the systemic contamination of the environment and the application of other environmental policies that disproportionately disadvantage particular racialised communities, in the face of insufficient measures taken by government to prevent or curb these disadvantages.[[64]](#footnote-65) Areas heavily populated by people of African descent, Roma people and other racialised minorities are in some parts of the world exposed to environmentally hazardous activities such as landfills and toxic waste disposal; they lack access to clean water; and industries, mines, factories and coal-fired powerplants are frequently constructed in close proximity to the areas where they live.[[65]](#footnote-66) Consequently, the right to a safe, clean, healthy and sustainable environment of the people living in these areas is often severely and systematically disregarded, and high rates of asthma and cancer have occurred among these populations.[[66]](#footnote-67) Projects aimed at nature conservation and extracting resources in various parts of the world displace Indigenous Peoples without their free, prior and informed consent, depriving them of their land and contaminating their livelihoods.[[67]](#footnote-68)

22. Non-nationals are particularly prone to be at the receiving end of systemic racism. Over time, patterns of migration contributed to bringing about more ethnic, cultural, linguistic and religious diversity in host countries. In many of these countries, migrant populations are racialised and discriminated against. Rise in extreme right-wing white supremacist ideology and xenophobic ethno-nationalism has resulted in increased scapegoating, hate speech, racial violence, racial and ethnic profiling, and Islamophobia. Blanket bans on immigration or immigration laws that target a particular nationality based on race are particularly harmful.[[68]](#footnote-69) The overlap between xenophobia, religious intolerance and racialisation makes racialised migrants particularly vulnerable to abuse, discrimination and exclusion along racialised lines, manifesting in unlawful deportations, excessive use of force and even deaths at the hands of migration and border officials.[[69]](#footnote-70) Deep-seated racial discrimination emerged from the difference in priority accorded to those fleeing, for example, the Ukrainian-Russian armed conflict depending on whether they were of a “European” or “non-European” origin.[[70]](#footnote-71) Digital technologies are also increasingly deployed to advance xenophobic and racially discriminatory treatment and exclusion of migrants, refugees, and stateless persons.[[71]](#footnote-72)

III. New trends and accelerating factors

23. The last decade has seen humanity confronted by challenges such as the ever-increasing digitalisation of society, accelerating climate change and the global Covid-19 pandemic. These developments drew attention to and amplified pre-existing structural inequalities and systemic racism.

24. Digitalisation amplifies existing inequalities. In rural areas without access to electricity and internet, for example, the shift to online learning prompted by Covid-19 restrictions has rendered illusory the right to quality education for many children from racialised resource-deprived rural communities. Emerging digital technologies driven by big data and artificial intelligence (AI) are further entrenching racial inequality, discrimination and intolerance.[[72]](#footnote-73) The increasing use of new technological tools, including AI, in areas such as security, border control and access to social services, has the potential to deepen racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and other forms of exclusion.[[73]](#footnote-74) Devices, applications, protocols and algorithms are being developed in disregard of existing racial inequalities and are based on existing biased assumptions.[[74]](#footnote-75) Researchers for example found that an algorithm aimed at identifying patients for enrolment in “high-risk” medical care programmes, prioritised “white” above “black” patients.[[75]](#footnote-76) The use of AI to analyse large sets of data in order to predict criminality can amplify bias and disproportionally target ethnic minorities.[[76]](#footnote-77) In addition, social media has been abused to spread hate speech and deliberate misinformation targeting people of African descent, resulting in further racism. By providing a conduit for polarisation and radicalisation, online platforms are instrumental in perpetuating world views on which systemic racism is premised. While action has been taken against some extreme forms of white supremacy, these platforms generally fail to address the software and policies that enhanced the influence of white supremacist messages through their recommendation engines, advertising interfaces, and algorithms.[[77]](#footnote-78) From a macro perspective, algorithm-driven racial discrimination can be connected to a global divide between the global North and South.[[78]](#footnote-79) At the same time, digitalisation has much potential for creating a more equal world and breaking cycles of systemic racial inequality.[[79]](#footnote-80)

25. Climate change amplifies existing racial inequalities. Within regions and countries it is reported that racially disadvantaged populations are more affected than general population by current consequences of climate change, such as droughts, storms and wildfires.[[80]](#footnote-81) Even if they have contributed least to the problem of climate change, Indigenous Peoples and the poor are disproportionately vulnerable to climate change and suffer some of its worst impacts because many of them depend on ecosystems that are particularly prone to the effects of climate change and extreme weather events.[[81]](#footnote-82) Due to limited participation in political, societal and economic power structures, the voices of racially disadvantaged communities have limited impact on climate change decision-making, resulting in polluting industries all too often being developed where these communities live.

26. Covid-19 exposed that racially marginalised persons are disproportionately impacted by crisis.[[82]](#footnote-83) Where structural and systemic racial inequalities existed before Covid-19 emerged, racially disadvantaged communities and persons were more affected than general population.[[83]](#footnote-84) Their restricted access to correct information, health care and medicine along with often lesser adequate sanitation, living conditions and pre-existing health issues connected with inequality and marginalisation, resulted in higher numbers of hospitalisation, mortality and long-term health effects for racially disadvantaged groups.[[84]](#footnote-85) Preventive measures such as lockdowns in particular affected marginalised groups, including those disadvantaged on the basis of their race, because strategies most recommended to control the spread of Covid-19 – social distancing and frequent hand washing – were often not practical for those living in highly dense communities with precarious or insecure housing, poor sanitation, and limited access to clean water. Covid-19 gave rise to xenophobia, stigmatisation and an increase in overt violence especially against persons of Asian descent.[[85]](#footnote-86) Finally, when vaccines were developed, these were in particular made available to the global North and to racially advantaged groups.[[86]](#footnote-87)

IV. National measures to advance racial justice

A. Inclusive and holistic country-centred process, based on the DDPA

27. More than two decades ago, the most comprehensive and potentially transformative roadmap towards racial justice and equality, the DDPA, was adopted through an unprecedented inclusive process. The strong consensus reached in this outcome document was subsequently eroded by persistent misinformation.[[87]](#footnote-88) It now appears that States that had been disengaged from the DDPA are re-committing themselves to antiracism efforts.[[88]](#footnote-89) States are encouraged to refamiliarise themselves with the content of the document and its true nature, engage in dialogue and support ongoing processes at the UN to implement the DDPA, and to expedite their efforts to fully implement it as a starting point for addressing systemic racism at the national and international level.[[89]](#footnote-90)

28. While some progress has been made by some States towards dismantling systemic racism, overall these efforts have failed to transform the deep-seated foundations and structures that uphold racial inequality. The DDPA states that “the obstacles to overcoming racial discrimination and achieving racial equality mainly lie in the lack of political will, weak legislation and lack of implementation strategies and concrete action by States”.[[90]](#footnote-91) These root causes still explain the lack of adequate response. Many states have not expressed sufficient political will to acknowledge or address systemic racism. Lack of progress is also linked to failure to implement interventions focused on “system transformation”.[[91]](#footnote-92) The systemic nature of racism calls for a systemic response – whole of government and whole of society approach. Such approach entails effective coordination between government departments cutting across all levels and locations. It further entails the active and meaningful involvement of all sections of society to chart a path forward for the eradication of the roots of racism in the particular State. It also calls for involvement of racially marginalised communities, including activists, in the design, implementation and evaluation of laws, policies, programmes and processes affecting them.[[92]](#footnote-93) Together, these stakeholders should take on the task of identifying and developing tailor-made country-specific initiatives to undo systemic racial barriers, and evaluating these measured against impact-oriented targets.[[93]](#footnote-94) Calling a national antiracism dialogue or “national convention” to frankly acknowledge, examine and understand racism and racial discrimination, especially its systemic aspects, as key barriers to development, and how to overcome them, is suggested as a national starting point.

B. Legal and policy reform, and institutional measures

1. International human rights legal framework

29. Formal adherence to international human rights treaties provides an important normative anchor to advance racial justice. ICERD enjoys near-universal ratification.[[94]](#footnote-95)The principle of non-discrimination based on race is enshrined in all other core UN human rights treaties, notably the Internaional Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights,[[95]](#footnote-96) and the Convention on the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers.[[96]](#footnote-97) Other treaties adopted at the global level, such as the Convention on the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol thereto, the Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons, the Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness, andthe ILO Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention 169 of 1989 (ILO 169),[[97]](#footnote-98) are also of relevance to refugees and Indigenous Peoples. Bearing in mind the indivisibility of all human rights, regional human rights treaties complement UN treaties, and often deal with thematic concerns in a region-specific and more detailed way than UN treaties.[[98]](#footnote-99) States that have not become party to all relevant UN and regional treaties are encouraged to do so. Treaty ratification must be followed by State parties meaningfully implementing the treaty provisions.[[99]](#footnote-100) Reservations detract from the full effect of human rights treaties.[[100]](#footnote-101) State parties to ICERD are reminded that reservations incompatible with the object and purpose of the Convention are not permitted, and are encouraged to withdraw any that may exist.

30. State parties to most of these treaties are required to submit periodic reports in which they set out and assess the extent of the domestic implementation of treaty commitments. Irregular or infrequent reporting deprives the treaty bodies from opportunities to examine the human rights record of State parties. This examination often reveals concerns of a systemic nature, which if left unaddressed, may escalate to widespread violations and reinforce systemic racism. Too often, subsequent reports or visits reveal inadequate responses and lethargy by States. By going beyond individual redress, recommendations issued by the CERD to remedy violations often address discrimination of a systemic nature.[[101]](#footnote-102) All State parties to ICERD should therefore consider making the optional declaration under article 14 of the Convention allowing for individual complaints. Unfortunately, less than a third of State parties have done so.[[102]](#footnote-103) States are strongly encouraged to accept visit requests from EMLER and relevant special procedures. The UPR mechanism of the Council provides a further opportunity to all UN Member States to make and be guided by recommendations from other States, foregrounding systemic racism.[[103]](#footnote-104) All States should in their national UPR reports include information on the measures taken to prevent and combat all forms of racism.

2. National law

31. States should in their Constitutions explicitly prohobit discrimination on the ground of race, and entrench as principles the values of equality and non-discrimination. Because rights and obligations are in their most accessible form set out in national legislation, comprehensive anti-discrimination laws provide an important starting point towards eradicating discrimination in all areas of life. Existing anti-discrimination laws, even if not exclusively focused on race, can be used to address systemic racism. Yet, despite repeated commitments, many States lack effective and comprehensive legal frameworks for the prevention of discrimination and promotion of equality. States should therefore expedite the adoption of comprehensive legislation prohibiting discrimination, including multiple, direct and indirect discrimination, in all spheres, in both the public and the private sectors, on all the grounds prohibited under international human rights law, and ensure access to effective and appropriate remedies for victims of discrimination.[[104]](#footnote-105) Anti-discrimination legislation should be contextual and, where relevant or required, deal specifically with systemic racism, its root causes and their eradication. The legislative framework should criminalise racist hate crime and hate speech, taking into account CERD’s General Recommendation 35 (2013), and ensure prompt action to investigate and punish such acts. More than twenty years after the Durban Conference, States with legislation prohibiting racial discrimination remain the exception.[[105]](#footnote-106)

32. States should review their legislation to eliminate indirect targeting of particular racialised communities. For example, laws that are used disproportionately against racially marginalised communities and do not serve a justifiable social need, such as vagrancy or nuisance laws, should be abolished. States should also consider alternative, non-custodial measures for persons accused of minor, non-violent drug-related offences, as part of a shift towards effective prevention, early intervention, treatment, care, recovery, rehabilitation and social reintegration, to curb the racialised impacts of drug prohibition.[[106]](#footnote-107) States should further adopt legislation to require the strict assessment and regulation of the design, development and use of AI systems to prevent potential algorithmic bias powered by racialised data.

3. Antiracism National Action Plans against Racial Discrimination

33. The adoption of national action plans against racial discrimination is an offshoot of the adoption of national human rights action plans. While it remains desirable that national action plans be adopted and implemented to address *all* human rights, the DDPA called for the adoption of *specific* national action plans to promote diversity and combat racism in close collaboration with civil society towards addressing systemic issues underlying the socio-economic situation of those most marginalised.[[107]](#footnote-108) Such action plans against racial discrimination signal the priority accorded by States and acknowledge the urgency of the need to address issues of racism. They acknowledge that racial discrimination is multifaceted and complex and that its uprooting calls for a targeted and coordinated response.[[108]](#footnote-109) Most importantly, they are grounded in the premise that racism tends to be systemic in nature, and that it can only be uprooted by very concerted attempts to address foundational and deep-seated causes. Despite the DDPA’s call and its subsequent reaffirmation,[[109]](#footnote-110) a very limited number of States have subsequently adopted national policies against racism.[[110]](#footnote-111)

4. Public equality bodies

34. States should set up independent structures dedicated to address systemic racism within the executive and other branches of government. States should create and resource, at a minimum, a division within existing national human rights institutions, established in accordance with the Paris Principles, or, ideally, a separate independent anti-discrimination body dedicated to promote and protect the rights of racially marginalised communities; monitor and enforce anti-discrimination legislation; and receive and act upon individual complaints of discrimination from nationals and non-nationals against both public and private entities.

C. Data disaggregated by race or ethnic origin

35. Accurately assessing the extent to which various racial and ethnic minorities or communities suffer discrimination – and thereby designing, implementing and monitoring appropriate and effective responses – requires reliable disaggregated data. Calls for such data recur in all UN mechanisms dealing with issues of racism and racial discrimination.[[111]](#footnote-112) Disaggregated data enables the design and monitoring of progress towards reversing trends and undoing patterns, and provides evidence to counter arguments based on the perception that systemic racism does not exist.[[112]](#footnote-113) However, disaggregation without an adequate legal framework for effective use of this data, and concerted and comprehensive governmental action aimed at eliminating the identified disparities, would not only be futile, but potentially endanger social cohesion.

36. To address systemic racism, data-gathering, use and analysis should meet the following requirements:[[113]](#footnote-114) (i) It should follow a human rights-based approach, which entails that disaggregated data is used to identify multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination towards a particular group;[[114]](#footnote-115) and to ensure accountability, through tools such as race disparity audits, equality impact assessments and human rights impact assessments that include data on race disparities.[[115]](#footnote-116) (ii) A country’s national, regional and local administrations should be co-responsible to collect and keep up-to-date and reliable information about the population, generally, and about racialised groups, specifically. (iii) The categories and definitions used to identify groups should be clear and applied consistently to make comparison possible. These categorisations should reflect the diversity among and within these groups. A person’s choice of category should, if no justification exists to the contrary, be based on the principle of self-identification.[[116]](#footnote-117) (iv) Data should be collected to shed light on country-specific economic, social and political indicators in domains most likely to reveal patterns of racial discrimination.[[117]](#footnote-118) (v) Data-collection should identify patterns and trends over time. (vi) To ensure transparency and facilitate participation, data should be published in freely and easily accessible formats. (vii) Explicit consent must be provided for the collection of data, in conformity with data protection regulations and privacy and non-discrimination guarantees. (viii) States should ensure the meaningful participation of people from different racial or ethnic groups, and collaborate with private institutions and civil society partners in data collection. (ix) Under SDG target 17.8, countries in need of capacity-building to collect high-quality disaggregated data should seek technical cooperation.

D. Structural overhaul and reprioritisation

1. Racial equity budgeting

37. Whatever course is chosen to uproot systemic racism, governments must be prepared to devote the required resources to support the development and implementation of national action plans and strategies. An overhaul of priorities necessitates that resources be redirected to those most in need, who are often part of racialised communities. This redirection should be deliberate and be made part of budgetary planning and prioritisation. States are therefore encouraged to develop and systematically apply racial equity budgeting tools by adopting a racially-sensitive lens to public financing, based on racial equity and equality goals at every stage of the budgeting process.[[118]](#footnote-119)

2. Special measures

38. Special measures, including affirmative action, are required to eliminate historical, systemic and persistent disparities between racialised minorities and another segment of the population, which impede the attainment of equality and racial justice. Such measures may be executive, administrative, budgetary and regulatory in nature, and take the form of plans, policies, programmes and preferential regimes in favour of disadvantaged racialised groups, in both the public and private sphere. Human rights treaties, including ICERD, recognize the need for affirmative action measures to act as an exceptional and temporary tool to remedy structural discrimination against racialised groups that have been systematically disadvantaged.[[119]](#footnote-120) Human rights bodies have repeatedly urged States to adopt special measures to eradicate poverty and social exclusion of people of African descent and Indigenous Peoples, and particularly women and persons with disabilities within these groups, with a focus on higher education, public sector employment, health, housing, social security, representation in decision-making bodies, and measures to revive the languages of Indigenous Peoples and people of African descent.[[120]](#footnote-121) States should adopt detailed implementation plans and targets with specific time frames setting out special measures across all relevant public and private bodies.[[121]](#footnote-122) The temporary nature of such measures is crucial and such measures should not lead to establishing permanent special measures but should be discontinued as soon as the objectives of the special measures have been attained.[[122]](#footnote-123) Affirmative action should not be seen as a substitute for structural measures, such as investment in social housing in poor neighbourhoods, increased funding for schools or employment policies.[[123]](#footnote-124)

3. Prioritise eradication of poverty

39. Poverty is both a cause and consequence of systemic racism.[[124]](#footnote-125) States should prioritise measures to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, and invest in quality health services, education, housing programmes and social protection, with a focus on the most marginalised. Achieving the SDGs requires a dismantling of the structural and systemic barriers to sustainable development that exist for racialised communities. Persistent and widening wealth inequalities fundamentally impede opportunities to those with the least wealth, which disproportionately include racialised communities. Home ownership is critical to access comprehensive public services and accumulate wealth. Having employment is also crucial to a life free from poverty. States should therefore prioritise targeted measures to bridge wealth inequalities.

4. Access to quality education for children of racially marginalised groups

40. Access by racially marginalised communities to quality education has to be prioritised as a cornerstone in the pathway to racial justice.[[125]](#footnote-126) One of the reasons why racialised groups remain trapped in poverty is the continued marginalisation they suffer in accessing education. Realising the right to quality education for all children should be the cornerstone of strategies directed at reducing poverty and discouraging discrimination. Quality education enhances other human rights and freedoms, such as the right to work and freedom of expression, and equips groups with the skills to achieve economic and social mobility. States should therefore take all necessary measures to ensure that members of marginalised racialised groups gain access to available, acceptable and adaptable education, including pre-school and higher education. States should take measures such as ensuring culturally appropriate education to Indigenous children, in their Indigenous languages when possible;[[126]](#footnote-127) offering education in the country’s minority languages; and taking urgent measures to eradicate the additional barriers faced by girls.[[127]](#footnote-128)

E. Public advocacy, awareness-raising and antiracism education and training

41. Initiating advocacy and awareness-raising interventions to alter mindsets toward racial justice will have great reverberating effects across the system. National pride should be cultivated through multi- and interdisciplinary endeavours, including the arts and culture, to promote a cohesive non-racial, non-sexist and inclusive national identity.

1. Sensitisation and awareness-raising of the general public

42. The way in which people with a minority racial or ethnic background are portrayed in the media,and whether they are represented at all, can reinforce negative stereotypes, with their under-representation in media professions further reinforcing this trend. Promoting balanced and positive narratives, increasing the awareness and knowledge of journalists, and fostering media literacy, are crucial ways to contribute to inclusive societies.[[128]](#footnote-129) States must invest resources in awareness-raising campaigns to sensitise the public to the realities and challenges faced by victims of racism, intolerance and discrimination. Redirecting deeply embedded and society-wide attitudes and worldviews pertaining to race and ethnicity requires large-scale measures with a wide reach and a broad appeal. Positive portrayals of all racialised groups in mass media have been shown to positively affect stereotypes and attitudes on race, and reduce prejudice. Media representations of ethnic, indigenous and other groups should therefore be based on principles of respect, fairness and the avoidance of stereotyping or intolerance. States should encourage media pluralism, including facilitation of access to and ownership of media by minority, indigenous and other groups, including media in their own languages. An independent and pluralistic media is necessary for balanced democratic debate. States should put in place measures and procedures that encourage all actors including the media not to perpetuate prejudices, and establish an independent and impartial body with adequate resources to monitor these measures. Voluntary professional codes of conduct reflecting the principle of equality can be considered. Human rights sensitisation training, focused on attaining racial justice, should be made available to non-state actors such as journalists, civil society organisations and business people.

2. Formal education to undo racism

43. Formal education at all levels is a means to change deep-seated biases and prejudices, and transform the societal fabric by ending cycles that reproduce systemic racism.[[129]](#footnote-130) Education that inculcates the values of respect for diversity and non-discrimination should start at the pre-school level, since at an early age children are more susceptible to absorb values that may interrupt the perpetuation of intergenerational racism. This education should continue to the secondary and tertiary level. Public and private educational institutions should ensure that the contents of textbooks and education curricula reflect the contemporary diversity of the society, deal with the history and culture of racially marginalised groups, and provide a better understanding of contemporary inequalities.[[130]](#footnote-131) Multicultural pedagogies, which celebrate diversity and focus on preparing learners for life in a heterogeneous society, and pedagogical approaches that promote antiracism, aimed at fostering critical analytical skills to reveal the power relations reinforcing institutionalised racism, both have a role in diverse societies. It is important that this education enables an inclusive coexistence and an authentic sense of belonging to everyone making up multi-racial nations. States should effectively finance and robustly implement such programmes, and establish indicators to measure the effectiveness of the programmes.[[131]](#footnote-132) Teachers at all levels of education should undergo specialised training in how to prevent racism, xenophobia and other forms of discrimination. Educational authorities should develop and oversee the implementation of such curricula in collaboration with affected communities.

3. Training of public servants

44. All public bodies need to be equipped to understand, pay attention to and address any form of discrimination, including systemic discrimination. States should implement mandatory training for public servants and other State officials (in particular, law enforcement officials, lawyers, judges, teachers, military personnel, humanitarian workers, staff involved in peacekeeping and peace-building operations, and local government entities and associations), based on international standards and relevant national legislation and policies where they comply with international norms and standards, to combat institutional racism within all public institutions. These trainings should produce a public administration free from racial stereotypes and prejudice. Indicators should be established to measure the extent to which officials implement such training.

4. Research related to systemic racism

45. Considerable research has been conducted, and numerous recommendations made by UN, regional and national bodies on various aspects of racism and racial discrimination. However, States should encourage further research and allocate resources for research aimed at examining the underlying causes of and solutions to systemic racism in various spheres of human endeavour. While in some contexts there may be a need for greater inclusion of ethnic minorities in these forms of research,[[132]](#footnote-133) the “burden of noticing race” should not be transferred to members of racialised groups or communities.[[133]](#footnote-134) Relatively little research has been devoted to evaluating the effectiveness of measures taken against racism and racial discrimination. Research is needed to identify the most effective strategies to reduce negative stereotypes, racial prejudice, and discrimination among the general public and within societal institutions. Fully understanding the cross-cutting, intersectional and multi-pronged nature of systemic racism requires multi-, inter- and transdisciplinary research that interrogates the social determinants of racism.[[134]](#footnote-135) Much research has been done to conceptualise reparations,[[135]](#footnote-136) but more work needs to be done to facilitate their operationalisation.

F. Reckoning with the past

46. Where problems are rooted in history, solutions must reckon with the relevant historical legacies. Contemporary structures of racial discrimination, inequality and subordination are among the most salient legacies of enslavement and colonialism, and need urgent attention in the context of addressing past wrongs.[[136]](#footnote-137) Reckoning with the past should include addressing persisting structures of racial inequality built upon slavery and colonialism.[[137]](#footnote-138) The DDPA acknowledged that “slavery and the slave trade … are a crime against humanity, and should always have been so”,[[138]](#footnote-139) and that victims of violations of their human rights as a result of racism and related wrongs should have “the right to seek just and adequate reparation or satisfaction”.[[139]](#footnote-140) Despite reparations being paid for example with regard to the Holocaust and the internment of Japanese-Americans during World War II,[[140]](#footnote-141) the reparations “movement” for the victims of enslavement and the trade in enslaved Africans has for long made only limited progress.[[141]](#footnote-142) Since 2020 there has been a renewed impetus for some forms of reparation.[[142]](#footnote-143) The General Assembly convened a high level meeting on reparations as part of the 20th anniversary of the DDPA,[[143]](#footnote-144) and the African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights in 2022 affirmed that “redress for legacies of the past including enslavement is integral to combatting systemic racism”.[[144]](#footnote-145) Even if monetary compensation and criminal accountability may be complex and challenging, possible avenues towards reparatory justice have been presented, such as historical truth-seeking, memorialisation and review of public spaces, official recognition of and apologies for past harm, the development of institutions to advance knowledge about enslavement and colonialism, return of cultural artefacts, and developmental programmes in the form of bursaries. These are not only possible and feasible, but also indispensable to achieve reparatory justice, redress and reconciliation. The collective scope of truth-seeking and symbolic reparation makes them particularly appropriate to address systemic forms of racism rooted in enslavement.[[145]](#footnote-146) Even if some modest progress has been made,[[146]](#footnote-147) States have not yet adopted comprehensive measures of redress or reconciliation, or to sufficiently acknowledge and mitigate the legacies of the past.[[147]](#footnote-148) At the very least, slavery era and colonial era-crimes need to be acknowledged and appropriate collective and individual reparation devised and implemented. Former colonising Powers and States in which the colonisation of Indigenous Peoples and the oppression of people of African descent and other historically marginalised communities persists should establish truth, reconciliation and reparations commissions to find the truth, come to a common shared narrative about the country’s history, and shed light on colonial violence and on the oppression, racism, discrimination and exclusion that affect those peoples today.[[148]](#footnote-149) States should acknowledge the historical roots of racism by commemorating key dates most relevant to race and racism in their own histories so as to ensure remembrance and encourage inclusion and understanding.[[149]](#footnote-150)

V. Recent initiatives

47. Despite inadequate progress, there are some examples of changes since 2020 that could make a difference on the ground.

48. The UK Race Disparity Audit, Inclusive Britain: An Action Plan and updated Ethnicity Facts and Figures website presents transparent and comprehensive disaggregated data to highlight domestic disparities in treatment and outcomes for people of different ethnicities across public services, by breaking down in granular detail the disparities between them.[[150]](#footnote-151)

49. Advertising often serves to stereotype and stigmatise, also on the basis of race. The South African Human Rights Commission in 2022 conducted a live-streamed inquiry into complaints of racial discrimination in advertising within South Africa, to understand how discriminatory adverts come to be created and published, with a view to making recommendations to prevent the further creation and publication of discriminatory adverts and instil a culture of human rights in the advertising industry.

50. The Yoorrook Justice Commission, established in May 2021, sets a precedent for truth-telling processes.[[151]](#footnote-152) It aims to provide a public record of historic and ongoing systemic injustice towards the First Peoples’ colonised in Victoria, Australia, since 1788, and to establish accountability. Yoorrook is under First Peoples’ leadership and is conducted in line with First Peoples’ ways of knowing, being and doing. Yoorrook’s period of inquiry extends from colonisation to the present day, and covers all injustices by state and non-state entities against First Peoples.

51. Several states have recently begun taking more concerted strides to put national action plans against racial discrimination in place. All EU members have either adopted or are developing antiracism action plans or strategies, in line with t[he EU Action Plan Against Racism (2020-25)](https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/default/files/a_union_of_equality_eu_action_plan_against_racism_2020_-2025_en.pdf), and in collaboration with civil society and equality bodies.[[152]](#footnote-153) Finland for example adopted its first such action plan in consultation with regional advisory boards on ethnic relations and Roma affairs, and the Sámi Parliament.[[153]](#footnote-154)

52. The quest for racial justice should be not only be focused on the national (federal) level, but should also be decentralised and localised. An example of such decentraliaation is the municipality of Nova Iguaçu, Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil, which published a human rights plan with actions on data collection, including on police violence and created a psychosocial and legal support group and a municipal fund for families of victims of State violence.[[154]](#footnote-155)

53. State action may be complemented by non-state actors. The public apology and reparatory payments by the descendants of British slave owners in the Caribbean,[[155]](#footnote-156) and the symbolic and financial reparations by prominent universities in the United States of America (USA) based on their historical involvement in slavery, are illustrative examples.

VI. Other recommendations

54. This study directs itself mainly to States as the primary duty bearers to advance racial justice. However, the private sector is also crucial in this process, particularly in ensuring fair and inclusive workplaces. The private media should wield its considerable influence to promote tolerance and respect for diversity, and highlight the benefits of an inclusive multicultural society.

55. The massive antiracism protests in 2020 illustrate the importance of civil society in garnering groundswell support to combat racial discrimination and uproot systemic racism. Local and national antiracism coalitions should foster a national politics of combating racism and racial discrimination, while forging transnational solidarity. Civil society is crucial to ensure better documentation and tracking of programme performance. Strategic public interest litigation, in particular through class actions involving racialised communities, should be explored as a tool to undo patterns of systemic racism in the application of laws and policies. However, members of civil society working against racism have increasingly become targets of intimidation, surveillance, harassment, threats, hate speech, attacks and reprisals. States should refrain from restricting civic space, should ensure an open space for the operation of civil society, including through protests, and adopt all measures necessary to protect members of CSOs, particularly human rights defenders and journalists, and investigate and ensure accountability for acts against them.[[156]](#footnote-157)

56. The UN itself should continue to provide leadership in renewed efforts to root out systemic racism. In January 2022, the Secretary-General launched the strategic action plan on addressing racism and promoting dignity for all in the UN Secretariat, setting up the Task Force on Addressing Racism and Promoting Dignity for All in the UN. One of the challenges highlighted in the accompanying report is that “professional, substantive and decision making roles” within the UN were “disproportionately staffed by one regional group over the past three years, possibly indicating structural biases”.[[157]](#footnote-158) The more meaningful representation of States from the global South in decision-making, also within the UN, should also be prioritised. The UN should further effectively implement ongoing communications strategies to raise awareness about and mobilise global public support for racial equality, notably of the DDPA.[[158]](#footnote-159) The OHCHR should further develop and refine indicators to measure racial equality.

57. The development of a UN treaty on the right to development and UN declaration on the promotion of and full respect for the human rights of people of African descent, in full collaboration with Indigenous Peoples, people of African descent, and other racial or ethnic minorities, and specifically addressing issues of relevance to systemic racism, should be fast-tracked. An additional protocol to the ICERD is another important standard setting track that could close existing normative gaps. Former colonial powers should review their normative opposition to these processes, which can be seen as a reflection of the continuing negative legacy of colonialism.

58. Many UN organs, agencies, treaties and treaty bodies are devoted to achieving a world in which racial justice prevails.[[159]](#footnote-160) Treaty bodies and special procedures with mandates not specific to racial discrimination or racial justice have, resulting from the intersectional nature of marginality and the interrelatedness of mandates, provided guidance on aspects related to systemic racism. While the multiplicity of measures signals the determination to make a difference through mutually reinforcing means, the very multiplicity may lead to lacking coordination and potential duplication. The focus should therefore now fall on consolidation and coordination in an attempt to maximise impact. Consideration should be given to an inclusive high-level Council special session to explore closer collaboration and synergy towards resolute, coordinated and accelerated action by a broad coalition to advance racial justice. This event could potentially coincide with the final assessment of the International Decade for People of African Descent (2015-2024).[[160]](#footnote-161) Serious consideration should be given to extending the Decade. In addition, the need for adequate support to UN antiracism bodies, some of which have been constrained by lack of funding, has to be addressed. The UN and its Members States should increasingly deepen their work of both foregrounding the persistence of systemic racism and other forms of racial discrimination, and offering perspectives on the possibilities of racial justice and equality.

Annex

Selected UN mechanisms addressing racism and systemic racial discrimination

| *Mechanism* | | *Established; Membership (duration)* | *Thematic area: Subject scope/treaty* | *Target group* | *Mandate related to racial discrimination* | *Thematic contribution/standard-setting on systemic racial discrimination* |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Treaty bodies (selected)** | | | | | | |
| **Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD)** | | 1969; 18 independent experts (4-year terms) | Specific to racial discriminationCERD (1965/1969) | CERD State parties (182) | examine state reports; decide inter-state complaints; early warning and urgent procedures; country visits; decide individual complaints (under art. 14 of ICERD) | *General Recommendations:*  2020: General Recommendation 36 on preventing and combating racial profiling by law enforcement officials  2013: General Recommendation 35 on combating racist hate speech  2011: General Recommendation 34 on racial discrimination against people of African descent  2009: General Recommendation 33 on follow-up to the Durban Review Conference  1997: General recommendation 23 on the rights of indigenous peoples  *Concluding Observations (examples):* 2022: Concluding observations on the combined 10th to 12th reports of the United States of America  2017: Concluding observations on the 18th to 20th periodic reports of Australia  2007: Concluding observations on the 15th to 19th periodic reports of India  *Thematic Discussions:*  2022: Thematic discussion on racial discrimination and the right to health  2017: Thematic discussion on racial discrimination in today’s world: racial profiling, ethnic cleansing and current global issues and challenges  2011: Thematic discussion on racial discrimination against people of African descent |
| **Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights** | | 1985; 18 independent experts (4-year terms) | General treaty (socio-economic rights) ICESCR (1966/1976) | ICESCR State parties (171) | examine state reports; decide individual complaints (under Optional Protocol to ICESCR); decide inter-state complaints | *General Comments*  2022: General Comment 26 on land and economic, social and cultural rights (para. 36)  2017: General Comment 24 on State obligations under the ICESCR in the context of business activities (para. 8)  2009: General Comment 20 on non-discrimination in economic, social and cultural rights (para. 19).  *Concluding Observations* |
| **Human Rights Committe (HRCtee)** | | 1976; 18 independent experts (4-year terms) | General treaty (civil and political rights) ICCPR  (arts. 20(2), 27) (1966/1976) | ICCPR State parties (173) | examine state reports; decide individual complaints (under Optional Protocol I to ICCPR) | *General Comments*  2020: General Comment 37 on the right of peaceful assembly  2019: General Comment 36 on the right to life  2007: General Comment 32 on right to equality before courts and tribunals and to a fair trial  2001: General Comment 29 on states of emergency  1996: General Comment 25 on the right to participate in public affairs, voting rights and the right of equal access to public service  1994: General Comment 18 on non-discrimination  1992: General Comment 21 on humane treatment of persons deprived of their liberty  *Concluding Observations* |
| **Committee on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (CMW)** | | 2003; 14 independent experts (4-year terms) | Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (CMW, 2000/2003) | CMW State parties (58) | examine state reports; decide individual complaints; decide inter-state complaints; conduct inquiries; organise days of general discussion | *General Comments*  2021: General Comment 5 on migrants’ rights to liberty, freedom from arbitrary detention and their connection to other human rights  2017: Joint General Comment 4 of the CMW and 23 of the CRC on State obligations regarding the human rights of children in the context of international migration in countries of origin, transit, destination and return  2017: Joint General Comment 3 of the CMW and 22 of the CRC on the general principles regarding the human rights of children in the context of international migration  2013: General Comment 3 on the rights of migrant workers in an irregular situation and members of their families  2011: General Comment 2 on migrant domestic workers  *Concluding Observations* |
| **2001 Durban Conference, Durban Declaration and Programme of Action follow-up mechanisms** | | | | | | |
| **Intergovernmental Working Group on the effective implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action (IGWG)** | | 2002; 5 independent regional experts | Durban Declaration and Programme of Action (DDPA); Universal Declaration of Human Rights; ICCPR; ICESCR;CERD | All UN Member States | make recommendations with a view to the effective implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action (DDPA); coordinate elaboration of the draft UN declaration on the promotion and full respect of the human rights of people of African descent | 2022: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its nineteenth session (A/HRC/49/89)  2021: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its eighteenth session (A/HRC/46/66)  2020: Preliminary exchange of views on the preparations of the twentieth anniversary of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action - Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its seventeenth session - Addendum (A/HRC/43/73/Add.1)  2020: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its seventeenth session (A/HRC/43/73)  2019: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its sixteenth session (A/HRC/40/75)  2018: Group of independent eminent experts on the implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action - Note by the Secretary-General (A/73/98)  2018: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its fifteenth session (A/HRC/37/77)  2017: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its fourteenth session - Note by the Secretariat (A/HRC/35/45)  2017: Report of the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Effective Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action on its fourteenth session (A/HRC/34/78) |
| **Working Group of Experts on People of African Descent (WGEPAD)** | | 2002 CHR Resolution 2002/68; 5 regional experts (3-year terms) | DDPA, ICCPR; ICESCR; CERD; CEDAW; Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice; Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities | All UN Member States | study problems of racial discrimination faced by people of African descent living in the diaspora and gather all relevant information from Governments, non-governmental organizations and other relevant sources, including through public meetings; propose measures to ensure full and effective access to the justice system by people of African descent; make recommendations on the design, implementation and enforcement of effective measures to eliminate racial profiling of people of African descent; elaborate short-, medium- and long-term proposals for the elimination of racial discrimination against people of African descent | 2022: Children of African descent  (A/HRC/51/54)  2022: Ukraine: UN experts concerned by reports of discrimination against people of African descent at border (Joint Statement with the Special Rapporteur on Racial Discrimination)  2021: Environmental justice, the climate crisis and people of African descent (A/HRC/48/78)  2021: The urgency of now: Systemic racism and the opportunities of 2021 (A/76/302)  2020: The Urgency of Now: Systemic Racism and the Lessons of 2020 (27th virtual session)  2020: COVID-19, systemic racism and global protests (A/HRC/45/44)  2019: The role of negative racial stereotypes of people of African descent in perpetuating racial injustice and development (A/74/274)  2016: Interlinkages between recognition, justice and development  (A/HRC/33/61) |
| **Group of Independent Eminent Experts on the Implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action** | | 2002; 5 independent regional experts | DDPA; racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia, and related intolerance | All UN Member States | hold sessions to examine the progress on the implementation and follow-up to the DDPA; mobilise States to implement the DDPA | Produces reports on implementation of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action, after sessions are held (eg 8th session in August 2023) |
| **Ad Hoc Committee of the Human Rights Council on the Elaboration of Complementary Standards** | | 2006 Decision 3/103 of 8 December 2006; 2007 HRC Resolution 6/21 Elaboration of international complementary standards to CERD; 5 independent experts | DDPA;CERD | All UN Member States | elaborate complementary standards in the form of either a convention or additional protocols to CERD;provide new normative standards aimed at combating all forms of contemporary racism | 2022: Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on the Elaboration of Complimentary Standards on its eleventh session (A/HRC/51/56)  2019: Report of the Ad Hoc Committee on the Elaboration of Complementary Standards on its tenth session (A/HRC/42/58)  2007: Report on the study by the five experts on the content and scope of substantive gaps in the existing international instruments to combat racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance (A/HRC/4/WG.3/6) |
| **Special procedures (selected)** | | | | | | |
| **Special Rapporteur on freedom of religion and belief** | | 1986; independent expert (3-year terms) | Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief | All UN Member States | promote the adoption of measures at the national, regional and international levels to ensure the promotion and protection of the right to freedom of religion or belief; identify existing and emerging obstacles to the enjoyment of the right to freedom of religion or belief and present recommendations on ways and means to overcome such obstacles; continue efforts to examine incidents and governmental actions that are incompatible with the provisions of the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief and to recommend remedial measures as appropriate; continue to apply a gender perspective | 2021: Countering Islamophobia/anti-Muslim hatred to eliminate discrimination and intolerance based on religion or belief (A/HRC/46/30)  2019: Report on combating antisemitism to eliminate discrimination and intolerance based on religion or belief (A/74/358)  2006: Report on incitement to racial and religious hatred and the promotion of tolerance (joint report with SRR) (A/HRC/2/3) |
| **Special Rapporteur on contemporary racism, xenophobia and related intolerance (SRR)** | | 1993; independent expert (3-year terms) | contemporary racism, xenophobia and related intolerance on grounds of race, colour, descent or national and ethnic origin | All UN Member States | thematic and country reports to address racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance against Africans and persons of African descent, Arabs and Muslims, Asians and persons of Asian descent, migrants and non-nationals, persons belonging to indigenous peoples and minorities, as well as all other victims mentioned in the [Durban Declaration and Programme of Action](http://www.un.org/en/durbanreview2009/pdf/DDPA_full_text.pdf); examine the efficiency of the measures taken by Governments; address impunity, and maximizing remedies for the victims of these violations | 2022: Report on ecological crisis, climate justice and racial justice (A/77/549)  2022: 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Sustainable Development Goals and the fight against racial discrimination (A/HRC/50/60)  2022: Combating Glorification of Nazism, neo-Nazism and Other Practices that Contribute to Fuelling Contemporary Forms of Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (A/HRC/50/61)  2021: Contemporary Forms of Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (A/76/434)  2021: Digital technologies deployed to advance the xenophobic and racially discriminatory treatment and exclusion of migrants, refugees, and stateless persons (A/HRC/48/76)  2020: Combatting Glorification of Nazism, neo-Nazism and Other Practices that Contribute to Fuelling Contemporary Forms of Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (A/HRC/44/58)  2020: Report on technological discrimination in the immigration and border management context (A/75/590)  2020: Racial discrimination and emerging digital technologies: a human rights analysis (A/HRC/44/57)  2019: Global Extractivism and Racial Equality (A/HRC/41/54)  2016: The role of National Human Rights Institutions and national action plans (A/71/301)  2016: Xenophobia: Its conceptualization, trends and manifestations (A/HRC/32/50)  2006: Report on incitement to racial and religious hatred and the promotion of tolerance  (joint report with SRR) (A/HRC/2/3) |
| **Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights** | | 1998; independent expert (3-year terms) | ICESCR; CRC; CERD; CEDAW; CRPD; CMW | All UN Member States | prepare thematic and country reports studying the impact of discrimination; responds to information received concerning the human rights situation of people living in extreme poverty; develop constructive dialogue with Governments, international organizations, civil society and other relevant actors with a view to identifying ways to remove all obstacles to the full enjoyment of human rights for people living in extreme poverty;  communicate with States and other concerned parties with regard to alleged cases of violations of the human rights of people living in poverty and social exclusion and other issues related to the mandate | 2022: Banning discrimination on grounds of socioeconomic disadvantage: an essential tool in the fight against poverty (A/77/157)  2022: Non-take-up of rights in the context of social protection (A/HRC/50/38)  2021: The persistence of poverty: how real equality can break the vicious cycles (A/76/177)  2020: The parlous state of poverty eradication (A/HRC/44/40)  2019: Digital welfare states and human rights - Report of the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights (A/74/493)  2018: Report of the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights (A/73/396)  2017: Report of the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights - Note by the Secretary-General (A/72/502)  2016: Marginalisation of economic and social rights, extreme poverty and human rights: Report (A/HRC/32/31) |
| **Independent Expert on the effects of foreign debt and other related international financial obligations of States on the full enjoyment of all human rights, particularly economic, social and cultural rights** | | 2000; independent expert (3-year terms) | ICESCR, CRC, CRPD | All UN Member States | prepare thematic reports examining the debt-burden of developing countries; examine the social impact of measures arising from foreign debt; examine the impact of illicit financial flows for enjoyment of human rights | 2021: Report on taking stock and identifying priority areas: a vision for the future work of the mandate holder (A/HRC/49/47), para. 38  2021: Report on effects of foreign debt and other related international financial obligations of States on the full enjoyment of all human rights, particularly economic, social and cultural rights (A/HRC/76/167) |
| **Special Rapporteur on adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, and on the right to non-discrimination in this context** | | 2000; independent expert (3-year terms) | ICESCR; CERD; CEDAW; CRC; CMW; CRPD | All UN Member States | prepare thematic reports; promote the full realization of adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living; identify practical solutions, best practices, challenges, obstacles and protection gaps | 2023: Report on towards a just transformation: climate crisis and the right to housing (A/HRC/52/28), para. 26  2022: Report on spatial segregation and the right to adequate housing ([A/HRC/49/48](https://www.ohchr.org/en/documents/thematic-reports/ahrc4948-spatial-segregation-and-right-adequate-housing-report-special))  2021: Report on discrimination in the context of housing ([A/76/408](https://www.ohchr.org/en/documents/thematic-reports/a76408-discrimination-context-housing-report-special-rapporteur-adequate))  2019: Right to housing for Indigenous People (A/74/183) |
| **Special rapporteur** **on the right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health** | | 2000; independent expert (3-year terms) | ICESCR; CERD; CEDAW; CRC; CMW; CRPD | UN Member States | prepare thematic reports monitoring the situation of the right to health throughout the world and identifying trends related to the right to physical and mental health; undertake country visits | 2022: Report on racism and the right to health (A/77/197)  2022: Report on violence and its impact on the right to health (A/HRC/50/28, paras. 34, 70)  2021: Strategic priorities of work  (A/HRC/47/28, paras. 66, 87, 91) |
| **Special Rapporteur on the rights of Indigenous Peoples** | | 2001; independent expert (3-year terms) | UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP) | All UN Member States | prepare thematic reports studying promote good practices on the promotion of rights of indigenous people; comment on legislation and policies; conduct country visits; address specific cases of alleged violations of indigenous peoples’ rights | 2021: Report on Indigenous Peoples and coronavirus disease recovery (A/HRC/48/54)  2017: Report on the impacts of climate change and climate finance on Indigenous Peoples’ rights (A/HRC/36/46)  2013: Report on extractive industries and Indigenous Peoples (A/HRC/24/41) |
| **Special Rapporteur on minorities** | | 2005; independent expert (3-year terms) | 1992 Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities | All UN Member States | promote the implementation of the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities, examine ways and means of overcoming existing obstacles to the full and effective realization of the rights of persons belonging to minorities; identify best practices and possibilities for technical cooperation with the OHCHR, at the request of Governments; guide the work of the Forum on Minority Issues, prepare its annual meetings, to report on its thematic recommendations and to make recommendations for future thematic subjects | 2023: Mainstreaming minority rights at the UN and elsewhere: An Assessment of the 2013 UN Secretary General's Guidance Note and 30 years of the UN Declaration - Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues - Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues (A/HRC/52/27)  2022: Protection of the rights of minorities in the institutions, structures and initiatives of the United Nations (A/77/246)  2022: Conflict prevention through the protection of the human rights of minorities - Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues (A/HRC/49/46)  2021: Widespread targeting of minorities through hate speech in social media (A/HRC/46/57)  2020: Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues, Fernand de Varennes - Effective promotion of the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities (A/75/211)  2020: Education, language and the human rights of minorities (A/HRC/43/47)  2019: Effective promotion of the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities (A/74/160)  2019: Minority issues - Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues (A/HRC/40/64)  2018: Statelessness: a minority issue (A/73/205)  2018: Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues (A/HRC/37/66)  2017: Effective promotion of the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities (A/72/165)  2017: Report of the Special Rapporteur on minority issues (A/HRC/34/53) |
| **Special Rapporteur on the human rights to safe drinking water and sanitation** | | 2008;  independent expert (3-year terms) | ICESCR; [Guidelines for the Realization of the Right to Drinking Water and Sanitation](https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/Documents/Issues/Water/SUb_Com_Guisse_guidelines.pdf) | All UN Member States | undertake thematic research; undertake country missions; collects good practices, and works with development practitioners on the implementation of the rights to water and sanitation | 2022: Report on human rights to safe drinking water and sanitation of people living in impoverished rural areas (A/77/167)  2022: Report on human rights to safe drinking water and sanitation of indigenous peoples: state of affairs and lessons from ancestral cultures (A/HRC/51/24) |
| **Special Rapporteur on the promotion of truth, justice, reparation and guarantees of non-recurrence** | | 2011; independent expert (3-year terms) | United Nations Charter, Universal Declaration of Human Rights Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide; CEDAW; ICESCR; ICCPR Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment | All UN Member States | contribute, upon request, to the provision of technical assistance or advisory services on the issues pertaining to the mandate; gather relevant information on national situations relating to the promotion of truth, justice, reparation and guarantees of non-recurrence in addressing gross violations of human rights and serious violations of international humanitarian law, and to study trends, developments and challenges and to make recommendations thereon; identify, exchange and promote good practices and lessons learned | 2023: Contemporary Perspectives on Transitional Justice Issues  2022: Role and responsibilities of non-State actors in transitional justice processes - Report of the Special Rapporteur on the promotion of truth, justice, reparation and guarantees of non-recurrence (A/HRC/51/34)  2021: Promotion of truth, justice, reparation and guarantees of non-recurrence - Note by the Secretary-General (A/76/180)  2020: Memorialization processes in the context of serious violations of human rights and international humanitarian law: the fifth pillar of transitional justice - Report of the Special Rapporteur on the promotion of truth, justice, reparation and guarantees of non-recurrence (A/HRC/45/45)  2018: Joint study on the contribution of transitional justice to the prevention of gross violations and abuses of human rights and serious violations of international humanitarian law, including genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity, and their recurrence - Report of the Special Rapporteur on the promotion of truth, justice, reparation and guarantees of non-recurrence and the Special Adviser to the Secretary-General on the Prevention of Genocide (A/HRC/37/65) |
| **Independent Expert on the promotion of a democratic and equitable international order** | | 2011; independent expert (3-year terms) | HRC Resolution 18/6 on the promotion of a democratic and equitable international order | All UN Member States | identify possible obstacles to the promotion and protection of a democratic and equitable international order; identify best practices in the promotion and protection of a democratic and equitable international order; raise awareness concerning the importance of promoting and protecting of a democratic and equitable international order; work in cooperation with States in order to foster the adoption of measures at the local, national, regional and international levels aimed at the promotion and protection of a democratic and equitable international order; integrate a gender perspective and a disabilities perspective | 2019: Report on public participation and decision-making in global governance spaces and its impact on a democratic and equitable international order (A/HRC/42/48) |
| **Special Rapporteur on the right to development** | | 2016; independent expert (3-year terms) | Universal Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples | All UN Member States | prepare thematic reports; receive complaints on the violations of the right to development; conduct country visits; promoting the right to development | 2022: Response and recovery plans and policies on the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic from the perspective of the right to development at the national level (A/HRC/51/30, para. 78) |
| **Subsidiary expert mechanisms of Human Rights Council** | | | | | | |
| **Expert Mechanism on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (EMRIP)** | 2007;  7 independent experts | | United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP) | All UN Member States | conduct studies; provide research-based advice to HRC; make proposals to HRC; provide technical advice to States and Indigenous Peoples | 2022: Study on treaties, agreements and other constructive arrangements, including peace accords and reconciliation initiatives, and their constitutional recognition (A/HRC/51/50)  2021: **Study on the Rights of the Indigenous Child**  A/HRC/48/74 (paras. 58-71)  2019: Report on recognition, reparation, and reconciliation (A/HRC/EMRIP/2019/3/Rev.1)  2015: Study on promotion and protection of the rights of indigenous peoples with respect to their cultural heritage (A/HRC/30/53) |
| **Expert Mechanism on the Right to Development** | 2019; 5 independent experts (3-year terms) | | Human Rights Council Resolution 42/23 | All UN Member States | prepare thematic studies; undertake study visits; undertake outreach and communication initiatives | 2022: Racism, racial discrimination and the right to development (A/HRC/51/37, para. 70)  2021: Rights of the indigenous child under the UNDRIP (A/HRC/48/74) |
| **International Independent Expert Mechanism to Advance Racial Justice and Equality in the context of Law Enforcement (EMLER)** | 2021; 3 independent experts (3-year terms) | | law enforcement; public protests HRC [resolution 47/21](https://undocs.org/A/RES/47/21) | All UN Member States | examine systemic racism, including as it relates to structural and institutional racism, faced by Africans and people of African descent, the excessive use of force and other violations of international human rights law against Africans and people of African descent by law enforcement officials | 2022: Promotion and protection of the human rights and fundamental freedoms of Africans and of people of African descent against excessive use of force and other human rights violations by law enforcement officers – Report of the International Independent Expert Mechanism to Advance Racial Justice and Equality in Law Enforcement (A/HRC/51/55) |
| **Consultative mechanism to people of African descent and advisory body to Human Rights Council** | | | | | | |
| **Permanent Forum on People of African Descent** | | 2021; 10 independent experts | General Assembly resolution [69/16](https://undocs.org/en/A/RES/69/16) of 18 November 2014; General Assembly resolution [75/314](https://undocs.org/A/RES/75/314), August 2021 | All UN Member States | identify and analyse best practices, challenges, opportunities and initiatives for improving the safety, quality of life and livelihoods of people of African descent; serve as an advisory body to the Human Rights Council, the General Assembly and the wider United Nations, providing expert advice and recommendations for countering all forms of racism, discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerances; draft a collective declaration on the promotion and full respect of the human rights of people of African descent | [Preliminary Submission of the Permanent Forum of People of African Descent on a draft United Nations Declaration on the promotion, protection and full respect of the human rights of people of African Descent](https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/documents/issues/racism/forum-people-african-descent/declaration/2022-10-13/ppad-prelim-submission-declaration-pad.pdf) |
| **Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights** | | | | | | |
| **Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights** | | High Commissioner for Human Rights | coordinate the programme of activities for the International Decade of People of African Descent 2015-2024; various GA and HRC resolutions requesting the HC to present reports/organise panels (eg on the negative impact of colonialism on human rights) | All UN Member States | Human Rights Council resolution 47/21 Operative paragraph 15 requests the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights to prepare a written report, on an annual basis, on the “Promotion and protection of the human rights and fundamental freedoms of Africans and of people of African descent against excessive use of force and other human rights violations by law enforcement officers through transformative change for racial justice and equality” | 2022: Promotion and protection of the human rights and fundamental freedoms of Africans and of people of African descent against excessive use of force and other human rights violations by law enforcement officers through transformative change for racial justice and equality - Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (A/HRC/51/53)  2021: “Fighting Racism and Discrimination: The Durban Declaration and Programme of Action at 20”  2021: Promotion and protection of the human rights and fundamental freedoms of Africans and of people of African descent against excessive use of force and other human rights violations by law enforcement officers agenda towards transformative change for racial justice and equality (20 actions) (A/HRC/47/53)  2020: Mid-term report of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (A/HRC/45/47)  2019: Preventing and countering racial profiling of people of African descent  2018: Women and girls of African descent: Human rights achievements and challenges  2014: Developing National Action Plans against Racial Discrimination: A Practical Guide  2009: Durban Review Conference, Geneva, Switzerland  (A/CONF.211/8)  2001: World Conference  Against Racism, Racial   Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance, Durban, South Africa  (A/CONF.189/12) |
| **Secretary-General** | | | | | | |
| **Secretary -General** | |  | General | All UN Member States | mandated to report under General Assembly Resolution 77/205 on implementation of ‘A global call for concrete action for the elimination of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance and the comprehensive implementation of and follow-up to the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action (to be presented to the seventy-eighth session of the UN General Assembly, September 2023) | 2021: Report of the Secretary-General’s Task Force on Addressing Racism and Promoting Dignity for All in the United Nations Secretariat |
| **Universal Periodic Review mechanism** | | | | | | |
| **Universal Periodic Review Working Group** | | 2008 (now in 4th cycle);  47 members of the Council | [UN Charter](http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/index.html);  [Universal Declaration of Human Rights](https://www.ohchr.org/EN/UDHR/Pages/60UDHRIntroduction.aspx); human rights treaties ratified by the State concerned; voluntary pledges and commitments made by the State; applicable international humanitarian law | All UN Member States | assess States’ human rights records and address human rights violations wherever they occur; provide technical assistance to States and enhance their capacity to deal effectively with human rights challenges and to share best practices |  |

1. \* Agreement was reached to publish the present report after the standard publication date owing to circumstances beyond the submitter’s control. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
2. \*\* The annexes are being circulated as received, in the language of submission only. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
3. A/HRC/RES/48/18, para. 14. [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
4. A/HRC/48/72. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
5. Para. 77(f)). [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
6. Para. 65. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
7. A/HRC/47/53, annex and accompanying conference room paper (A/HRC/47/CRP.1); A/HRC/51/53. For the [UN’s antiracism architecture](file:///\\fshq.ad.ohchr.org\Users\fransviljoen\Downloads\Systemic%20racism%20study%20\UN’s%20antiracism%20architecture), see <https://www.ohchr.org/en/topic/racism-xenophobia-intolerance>. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
8. A/47/53, para. 67; see Annex 1 to this study for a succinct exposition. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
9. A/HRC/41/54, paras. 12 & 13; DDPA, Declaration, para. 6. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
10. Charles Ngwena, *What is Africanness?: Contesting Nativism in Race, Culture and Sexualities* (Pretoria, Pretoria University Law Press, 2018) p. 43. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
11. ECRI’s opinion on the concept of “racialisation”, 8 December 2021. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
12. A/68/333, para. 82; A/70/335, para. 57. [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
13. ICERD, art. 1(1). [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
14. L Patel & A Price, ‘The origins, potentials, and limits of racial justice’, *Critical Ethnic Studies,* vol. 2, no. 2 (2016) pp. 61-81. [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
15. Art. 2(2) 1978 UNESCO Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
16. ER Watson & CR Collins, ‘Putting the system in systemic racism: A systems thinking approach to advancing equity’, *American Journal of Community Psychology,* vol. 71 (2023) pp. 274-286. [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
17. A/HRC/48/72, para. 18; A/HRC/44/57/Add.1, para. 14. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
18. See eg CESCR, General Comment No. 20 (2009), para. 12; A/HRC/33/61/Add.2, para. 43; European Committee of Social Rights, *European Roma and Travellers Forum v. France* Complaint 64/2011, para. 41; IACHR, Human Rights in the Dominican Republic (2015), para. 368; A/76/322; A/HRC/RES/43/1, para. 3; A/HRC/45/44; A/76/302; A/HRC/51/54/Add.2, para. 38; A/HRC/51/53; A/HRC/48/72, paras. 63 & 64; CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, paras. 12 & 13; ACHPR/Res.543 (LXXIII) 2022; Inclusive Britain: An Action Plan, para. 1. [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
19. A/HRC/47/53, para. 9; MR Banaji & others, ‘Systemic racism: Individuals and interactions, institutions and society’, *Cognitive Research: Principles and Implications*, vol. 6, no. 1 (2021) p. 82. [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
20. A/HRC/RES/47/21, para. 11(b), emphasis added. [↑](#footnote-ref-21)
21. A/HRC/51/55; A/HRC/51/53. [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
22. ICERD, art. 1(1); Annex 1. [↑](#footnote-ref-23)
23. A/76/434, para. 28; DDPA, Declaration, paras. 22, 30, 35-36, 48, 53, 56, 60-61, 63, 66, 68-69, 72 and 75; and DDPA, Programme of Action, para. 57. [↑](#footnote-ref-24)
24. A/HRC/44/57/Add.1, para. 16. [↑](#footnote-ref-25)
25. MR Banaji & others, ‘Systemic racism: individuals and interactions, institutions and society’, *Cognitive Research: Principles and Implications,* vol. 6, no. 1 (2021) pp. 1-21. [↑](#footnote-ref-26)
26. HRC interactive dialogue on the negative impact of the legacies of colonialism on the enjoyment of human rights, 28 September 2022. [↑](#footnote-ref-27)
27. A/HRC/50/60, paras. 56-68. [↑](#footnote-ref-28)
28. A/HRC/47/CRP.1, paras. 20-21. [↑](#footnote-ref-29)
29. A/RES/70/1, para. 4. [↑](#footnote-ref-30)
30. A/HRC/48/78, para. 58. [↑](#footnote-ref-31)
31. A/HRC/17/25; A/76/162, para. 69; A/HRC/50/60, paras. 29-36. [↑](#footnote-ref-32)
32. IT Winkler & ML Satterthwaite, ‘Leaving no one behind? Persistent inequalities in the SDGs’, *The International Journal of Human Rights,* vol. 21, no. 8 (2017) pp. 1073-1097; UN Network on Racial Discrimination and the Protection of Minorities, ‘Leave No One Behind: Racial Discrimination and the Protection of Minorities in the COVID-19’ (2020). [↑](#footnote-ref-33)
33. A/76/162. [↑](#footnote-ref-34)
34. A/HRC/50/60, para. 91(g)(ii); A/77/294, para. 95; WGEPAD, Operational Guidelines on the inclusion of People of African Descent in the 2030 Agenda (2020). [↑](#footnote-ref-35)
35. See e.g. A/77/197, paras. 7, 26, 27; A/HRC/45/44/Add.2, para. 56; Inclusive Britain (2022), para 3.13; CERD/C/GBR/CO/21-23, para. 30. [↑](#footnote-ref-36)
36. See e.g. Cities & Health and National Center for Immunization and Respiratory Diseases, ‘The COVID-19 pandemic: power and privilege, gentrification, and urban environmental justice in the global north’. [↑](#footnote-ref-37)
37. A/77/197, paras. 66, 67; CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, para. 33. [↑](#footnote-ref-38)
38. A/74/274, para. 70; A/77/197, para. 49. [↑](#footnote-ref-39)
39. A/76/202, para. 37; A/77/197, para. 23. [↑](#footnote-ref-40)
40. A/HRC/49/48, paras. 22-25. [↑](#footnote-ref-41)
41. A/76/408, para. 53. [↑](#footnote-ref-42)
42. See Latin America 2011 study para. 45; Inclusive Britain: An Action Plan (2022), para. 2.2; UK Race Disparity Audit, para. 2.16. [↑](#footnote-ref-43)
43. CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, paras. 37 & 38; CERD/C/ISR/CO/17-19, paras. 21 & 23; CERD/C/SVK/CO/13, paras. 26 & 27. [↑](#footnote-ref-44)
44. IACHR, ‘African Americans, Police Use of Force, and Human Rights in the United States’ (2018), para. 167. [↑](#footnote-ref-45)
45. European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA), Being Black in the EU, para. 2.5.1; CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, para. 37. [↑](#footnote-ref-46)
46. A/76/202, para. 22. [↑](#footnote-ref-47)
47. P Bourdieu & JC Passeron, *Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture* (Sage, 1990). [↑](#footnote-ref-48)
48. See e.g. CERD/C/JAM/CO/21-24, paras. 13 &14(d); and European Court of Human Rights, *DH v Czech Republic,* para. 192. [↑](#footnote-ref-49)
49. A/HRC/47/CRP.1, para. 27. [↑](#footnote-ref-50)
50. The Education Trust, ‘Equal Is Not Good Enough; An Analysis of School Funding Equity Across the U.S. and Within Each State’ (2022). [↑](#footnote-ref-51)
51. See e.g. CERD/C/BRA/CO/18-20, para 17; FRA, Roma Survey 2021. [↑](#footnote-ref-52)
52. CERD/C/CHL/CO/22-23, para. 34; FRA, Roma Survey 2021; CERD/C/ARG/CO/21-23, para. 27; CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, para. 31. [↑](#footnote-ref-53)
53. A/76/202, para. 33. [↑](#footnote-ref-54)
54. A/HRC/45/44/Add.1, para. 59; FRA, Being Black in the EU (2018), para. 2.4. [↑](#footnote-ref-55)
55. CERD/C/DOM/CO/13-14; A/HRC/51/54/Add.1, para. 51; A/HRC/45/44/Add.1, para. 63; A/HRC/45/44/Add.2, paras. 89, 90; A/HRC/42/59/Add.1, paras. 51-56; A/74/274, para. 73. [↑](#footnote-ref-56)
56. See e.g. CCPR/C/NZL/CO/6, paras. 23-26; CAT/C/ARG/CO/5-6, para. 35; A/HRC/51/54/Add.2, paras. 26-32; A/HRC/54/CRP.1, para. 29; CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, para. 26. [↑](#footnote-ref-57)
57. Submission by Open Society Foundations. [↑](#footnote-ref-58)
58. A/76/202, para. 60; A/HRC/EMRIP/2019/2/Rev.1, para. 47. [↑](#footnote-ref-59)
59. <https://www.libertyhumanrights.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/Libertys-Briefing-on-Prisoners-Voting-Rights.pdf>, para. 16; *Sauvé v Canada (Chief Electoral Officer of Canada)* [2002] 3 SCR 519. [↑](#footnote-ref-60)
60. US Supreme Court *Husted v. A. Philip Randolph Institute* 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-61)
61. A/76/202, para. 60. [↑](#footnote-ref-62)
62. CERD/C/BRA/CO/18-20, para. 25; CERD/C/RWA/CO/18-20, paras. 16 & 17. [↑](#footnote-ref-63)
63. Inclusive Britain, para 4.2; CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, para. 43; submission by Aotearoa New Zealand; Maine Wabanaki-State Child Welfare Truth and Reconciliation Commission. [↑](#footnote-ref-64)
64. A/77/549, para. 45; A/HRC/48/78, para. 21; RD Bullard, ‘Confronting environmental racism in the twenty-first century’, *Global Dialogue*, vol. 4, no. 2 (2002) p. 35. [↑](#footnote-ref-65)
65. CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, paras. 45 & 46; A/77/549, para. 25. [↑](#footnote-ref-66)
66. A/HRC/48/78, paras. 57, 60 & 66. [↑](#footnote-ref-67)
67. A/HRC/45/34/Add.1, para. 94; A/HRC/33/42/Add.1, paras. 34, 46, 49; [A/HRC/41/54](http://ap.ohchr.org/documents/dpage_e.aspx?si=A/HRC/41/54), para. 51; *Centre for Minority Rights Development (Kenya) & Others v Kenya* (2009) African Human Rights Law Reports 75 (African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights) 2009), para. 290. [↑](#footnote-ref-68)
68. [A/HRC/38/52](https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/G18/117/79/PDF/G1811779.pdf?OpenElement), para. 21. [↑](#footnote-ref-69)
69. A/HRC/51/53, para. 34. [↑](#footnote-ref-70)
70. https://www.ohchr.org/en/press-releases/2022/03/ukraine-un-experts-concerned-reports-discrimination-against-people-african. [↑](#footnote-ref-71)
71. [A/HRC/48/76](https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/2021-11/A_HRC_48_76_AdvanceUnEditedVersion.docx) & [A/75/590](https://undocs.org/A/75/590). [↑](#footnote-ref-72)
72. A/75/590. [↑](#footnote-ref-73)
73. CERD, General Recommendation 36; [A/HRC/48/31](https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/HRBodies/HRC/RegularSessions/Session48/Documents/A_HRC_48_31_AdvanceEditedVersion.docx). [↑](#footnote-ref-74)
74. Ruha Benjamin, ‘Assessing risk, automating racism’, *Science,* vol. 366, no. 6464 (2019) pp. 421-422. [↑](#footnote-ref-75)
75. Ziad Obermeyer & others, ‘Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of populations’, *Science,* vol. 366, no. 6464 (2019) pp. 447-453. [↑](#footnote-ref-76)
76. [A/HRC/44/57](https://undocs.org/A/HRC/44/57); FRA, ‘Bias in algorithms – Artificial intelligence and discrimination’ (2022). [↑](#footnote-ref-77)
77. Ariadna Matamoros-Fernández, ‘[Platformed racism: The mediation and circulation of an Australian race-based controversy on Twitter, Facebook and YouTube](https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2017.1293130)’, *Information, Communication & Society,* vol. 20, no. 6 (2017) p. 940. [↑](#footnote-ref-78)
78. Shmyla Khan, ‘Global inequities in algorithms’, *Verfassungsblog:  On Matters Constitutional* (2022). [↑](#footnote-ref-79)
79. As exemplified by Darnella Frazier, who recorded the murder of  [George Floyd](https://www.nytimes.com/live/2021/04/01/us/derek-chauvin-trial-live/jurors-are-gaining-new-understanding-of-the-day-george-floyd-died), *New York Times*, 25 May 2021. [↑](#footnote-ref-80)
80. A/77/549; [A/HRC/48/78](https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/2021-10/A_HRC_48_78_AEV_EN.docx). [↑](#footnote-ref-81)
81. A/HRC/36/46. [↑](#footnote-ref-82)
82. A/HRC/49/48, para. 6. [↑](#footnote-ref-83)
83. See e.g. A/HRC/51/30, para. 78, and Cities & Health and National Center for Immunization and Respiratory Diseases, ‘The COVID-19 pandemic: power and privilege, gentrification, and urban environmental justice in the global north’. [↑](#footnote-ref-84)
84. A/HRC/45/44. [↑](#footnote-ref-85)
85. RY-N Chung & MM Li, ‘Anti-Chinese sentiment during the 2019-nCoV outbreak’, *Lancet,*vol. 359 (2020) pp. 686-687. [↑](#footnote-ref-86)
86. Open Letter from the SRR to the World Trade Organization’s Twelfth Ministerial Conference (13 June 2022). [↑](#footnote-ref-87)
87. A/76/434, paras. 79-87. [↑](#footnote-ref-88)
88. The EU in 2020 adopted its first ever Action Plan against Racism (2020-2025). [↑](#footnote-ref-89)
89. A/77/294, para. 88. [↑](#footnote-ref-90)
90. DDPA, Declaration, para. 79. [↑](#footnote-ref-91)
91. ER Watson & CR Collins, ‘Putting the system in systemic racism: A systems thinking approach to advancing equity’,  *American Journal of Community Psychology,* vol. 71 (2023) pp. 274-286. [↑](#footnote-ref-92)
92. A/HRC/51/53. [↑](#footnote-ref-93)
93. E.g. CERD/C/PRT/CO/18-19, paras. 13 & 14. [↑](#footnote-ref-94)
94. 182 State parties. [↑](#footnote-ref-95)
95. 171 State parties. [↑](#footnote-ref-96)
96. 58 State parties. [↑](#footnote-ref-97)
97. Only 24 State parties. Only 2 States ratified ILO 169 in the last decade. [↑](#footnote-ref-98)
98. E.g. Inter-American Convention against Racism, Racial Discrimination and Related Forms of Intolerance. [↑](#footnote-ref-99)
99. A/HRC/51/53, para. 15. [↑](#footnote-ref-100)
100. CERD/C/USA/CO/10-12, paras. 14 & 15. [↑](#footnote-ref-101)
101. See e.g. CERD/C/102/D/54/2013, para. 8. [↑](#footnote-ref-102)
102. 59 out of 182. [↑](#footnote-ref-103)
103. A/HRC/52/14, para. 149; A/HRC/52/14/Add.1; A/HRC/47/8, para. 146.90; A/HRC/47/8/Add.1 [↑](#footnote-ref-104)
104. OHCHR, [Protecting Minority Rights: A Practical Guide to Developing Comprehensive Anti-Discrimination Legislation](https://www.ohchr.org/en/minorities/minority-rights-equality-and-anti-discrimination-law). [↑](#footnote-ref-105)
105. OHCHR, Fighting Racism, 20 Years on from the adoption of the DDPA. [↑](#footnote-ref-106)
106. A/RES/77/238, paras. 18 & 53. [↑](#footnote-ref-107)
107. DDPA, Programme of Action, paras. 30(a), 66, 99 & 191(a). [↑](#footnote-ref-108)
108. CERD/C/USA/CO/8-10, paras. 12 & 13. [↑](#footnote-ref-109)
109. A/CONF.211/8, chap. I, paras. 28 & 114. [↑](#footnote-ref-110)
110. OHCHR, Fighting Racism, 20 Years on from the adoption of the DDPA. [↑](#footnote-ref-111)
111. CERD/C/FIN/CO/23, paras. 6 & 7; CERD/C/KHM/CO/8-13, para. 12; CERD/C/BOL/CO/17-20, para. 12; A/HRC/39/69, para. 69; A/HRC/42/59, para. 68; A/HRC/47/53; A/77/333; A/HRC/51/55, paras. 84-97. [↑](#footnote-ref-112)
112. A/HRC/48/72, para. 55. [↑](#footnote-ref-113)
113. A/HRC/42/59; A/HRC/48/72; A/77/333; OHCHR’s ‘A human rights-based approach to data: leaving no one behind in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development’; A/70/335. [↑](#footnote-ref-114)
114. A/HRC/42/59, para. 3. [↑](#footnote-ref-115)
115. A/HRC/51/37, para. 70. [↑](#footnote-ref-116)
116. CERD General Recommendation 8 (1990). [↑](#footnote-ref-117)
117. See e.g. CERD/C/RUS/CO/25-26, paras. 6-7. [↑](#footnote-ref-118)
118. MF McShea & others, ‘Promises and challenges of racial equity budgeting from the perspective of Generally Accepted Performance Principles (GAPP)’, *Public Performance & Management Review*  (2022) pp. 1-25. [↑](#footnote-ref-119)
119. ICERD arts. 1(4) & 2(2); General Recommendation 32 (2009). [↑](#footnote-ref-120)
120. CERD/C/BRA/CO/18-20, para. 27; CERD/C/URY/CO/21-23, para. 17; IACHR, 2011 The situation of people of African descent in the Americas, para. 22; International Decade on Indigenous Languages, and Global Action Plan of the IDIL 2022-2032. [↑](#footnote-ref-121)
121. CERD/C/BRA/CO/18-20, para. 27. [↑](#footnote-ref-122)
122. CERD, General Recommendation 32 (2009). [↑](#footnote-ref-123)
123. A/76/177, para. 60. [↑](#footnote-ref-124)
124. DDPA, Declaration, paras. 11, 19, 69, 74; Programme of Action, paras. 157-158; [A/68/333](http://ap.ohchr.org/documents/dpage_e.aspx?si=A/68/333), paras. 20-25. [↑](#footnote-ref-125)
125. A/68/333, para. 26. [↑](#footnote-ref-126)
126. A/HRC/48/74, paras. 58-71. [↑](#footnote-ref-127)
127. CERD/C/URY/CO/21-23, para. 21. [↑](#footnote-ref-128)
128. CERD/C/URY/CO/21-23, para. 36. [↑](#footnote-ref-129)
129. ICERD, art. 7; A/HRC/26/49/Add.1, para. 70. [↑](#footnote-ref-130)
130. IACHR, The situation of people of African descendants in the Americas (2011), para. 217. [↑](#footnote-ref-131)
131. CERD/C/BRA/CO/18-20, para. 58. [↑](#footnote-ref-132)
132. A/HRC/13/59, para. 78. [↑](#footnote-ref-133)
133. J Daniels, ‘Race and racism in Internet studies: A review and critique’, *New Media & Society,* vol. 15, no. 5 (2012) pp. 695-719 at 707. [↑](#footnote-ref-134)
134. See eg JR Feagin, *Systemic Racism: A Theory of Oppression* (Routledge 2006). [↑](#footnote-ref-135)
135. A/74/321; A/HRC/47/CRP.1, para. 300; A/76/180. [↑](#footnote-ref-136)
136. A/76/180. [↑](#footnote-ref-137)
137. A/74/321, para. 7 [↑](#footnote-ref-138)
138. Declaration, para. 13. [↑](#footnote-ref-139)
139. Declaration, para. 104. [↑](#footnote-ref-140)
140. From 1953, under the Reparations Agreement between Israel and the Federal Republic of Germany, (West) Germany paid 3 million Marks compensation to Israel for the Holocaust; and in 1988, the USA paid USD 20,000 each as compensation to Japanese-Americans placed in internment camps during World War II. [↑](#footnote-ref-141)
141. CARICOM in 2014 issued its ‘Ten Point Plan for Reparatory Justice’. [↑](#footnote-ref-142)
142. California State Legislature Task Force to Study and Develop Reparation Proposals for African Americans. [↑](#footnote-ref-143)
143. A/HRC/47/53. [↑](#footnote-ref-144)
144. ACHPR/Res.543 (LXXIII) 2022. [↑](#footnote-ref-145)
145. A/74/321; A/HRC/47/CRP.1, para. 300. [↑](#footnote-ref-146)
146. For example, Germany agreed to pay Namibia $1.3 billion for genocide committed during its colonial-era occupation of the country, but did not use the work “reparation” and did not issue an apology. [↑](#footnote-ref-147)
147. A/HRC/47/53, para. 60. [↑](#footnote-ref-148)
148. A/HRC/EMRIP/2019/3/Rev.1; A/76/180; A/HRC/EMRIP/2019/3/Rev.1; High Court of Justice, *Ndiki Mutua & Others v. The Foreign and Commonwealth Office*, Case No. HQ09X02666, Judgment, 10 October 2012, para. 43. [↑](#footnote-ref-149)
149. E.g. International Holocaust Remembrance Day (27 January), International Day Against Racial Discrimination (21 March), European Roma Holocaust Memorial Day (2 August), UNESCO Day of Remembrance of Abolition of Slave Trade (23 August), International Day for People of African Descent (31 August). [↑](#footnote-ref-150)
150. End of mission statement by the WGEPAD following its country visit to the UK (18-27 January 2023), para. 7; <https://www.ethnicity-facts-figures.service.gov.uk/>; A/HRC/41/54/Add.2, para. 16. [↑](#footnote-ref-151)
151. Yoorrook Justice Commission, Yoorrook with Purpose: Interim Report (2022). [↑](#footnote-ref-152)
152. European Commission, Subgroup on the national implementation of the ‘EU anti-racism action plan 2020-2025’, Common guiding principles for national action plans against racism and racial discrimination, para. 3. [↑](#footnote-ref-153)
153. FRA, 2022 Report, para. 4.3.1. [↑](#footnote-ref-154)
154. A/HRC/51/53, para. 51. [↑](#footnote-ref-155)
155. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2023/feb/04/british-slave-owners-family-apologise-reparations-trevelyans>. [↑](#footnote-ref-156)
156. A/HRC/47/CRP.1, paras. 232-246; A/HRC/51/53; CERD/C/PRT/CO/18-19, para. 37, 38; CERD/C/RUS/CO/25-26, paras. 18-21; CERD/C/PHL/CO/21-25, paras. 23 & 24. [↑](#footnote-ref-157)
157. Strategic Action Plan (2022) p. 29; see also A/HRC/50/60, para. 91(b). [↑](#footnote-ref-158)
158. A/77/294, paras. 79-84. [↑](#footnote-ref-159)
159. The UN Network on Racial Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, created by decision of the Secretary-General in 2012, with OHCHR as permanent chair, is a platform to address issues of racial discrimination and minorities, bringing together more than 20 UN Departments, Agencies, Programmes and Funds. [↑](#footnote-ref-160)
160. A/RES/69/16 , para 29(n). [↑](#footnote-ref-161)