Security Council Elections 2024

Introduction: The 2024 Elections

On 6 June, the 78th session of the UN General Assembly is scheduled to hold elections for membership of the Security Council. The five seats available for election in 2024, according to the regular distribution among regions, will be as follows:

- one seat for the African Group (currently held by Mozambique);
- one seat for the Asia-Pacific Group (currently held by Japan);
- one seat for the Latin American and Caribbean Group (GRULAC, currently held by Ecuador); and
- two seats for the Western European and Others Group (WEOG, currently held by Malta and Switzerland).

The five new members elected this year will take up their seats on 1 January 2025 and will serve until 31 December 2026.
The 2024 Candidates

Five member states—Denmark, Greece, Pakistan, Panama, and Somalia—are currently running for the five available seats. All five candidates have served on the Council previously: Pakistan seven times, Panama five times, Denmark four times, Greece twice, and Somalia once. All the regional groups are running uncontested elections this year, known as a “clean slate.”

The table below shows the number of seats available by region in the 2024 election, the declared candidate(s), and their prior term(s) on the Council.

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<th>REGION</th>
<th>SEATS AVAILABLE IN 2024</th>
<th>CANDIDATES AND PRIOR COUNCIL TERMS</th>
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<td>Africa</td>
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<td>Somalia (1971-1972)</td>
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</table>

African Seat

Three non-permanent seats are always allocated to Africa. One seat comes up for election during every even calendar year, and two seats are available during odd years. Although there have been exceptions, elections for seats allocated to Africa are usually uncontested, as the African Group maintains an established pattern of rotation among its five sub-regions (North Africa, Southern Africa, East Africa, West Africa, and Central Africa), as described in greater detail below.

This pattern has been interrupted on occasion, such as when Mauritania, Morocco, and Togo ran for the two open African seats in 2011, and when Djibouti and Kenya contested the single available seat in 2020. In 2021, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) entered the race very late but withdrew in favour of Gabon, which was the AU-endorsed candidate.

This year, Somalia is running uncontested for the open African seat, which is reserved for the East Africa sub-region, according to the Africa Group’s rotation pattern. Somalia first announced its candidacy in 2018, followed by Mauritius in 2019. Tanzania subsequently followed suit, briefly creating a three-way race before dropping its candidacy. Madagascar then announced its own bid. The selection and endorsement of candidates for the African Group take place within the AU structures. At the 44th Ordinary Session of the AU Executive Council in February 2024 [EX.CL/Dec.1233-1264 (XLIV)], the body endorsed Somalia, and Mauritius and Madagascar dropped out of the race.

1 Arab countries are a sub-group within the Asia-Pacific Group.

Somalia

Somalia became a member of the UN in 1960, the year that the country gained independence. It has served on the Council once (1971-1972).

In its campaign, Somalia has emphasised the importance of conflict prevention and the need to foster international dialogue through mediation. It has called for more holistic strategies to address the root causes of conflict, including through sustainable development and humanitarian assistance.

Somalia has highlighted its national experience with peacebuilding and conflict resolution as a valuable perspective that it will bring to the Council if elected. The country hosts both the UN Assistance Mission in Somalia (UNSOM), a special political mission advising the government on political and peacebuilding issues, and the AU Transition Mission in Somalia (ATMIS), which provides governance and military capacity-building. The country also has significant experience with counter-terrorism and national reconciliation processes that it intends to draw on as a Council member.

Among cross-cutting thematic issues, Somalia plans to prioritise the women, peace, and security (WPS) and youth, peace, and security (YPS) agendas, emphasising the importance of civil society participation to both. The country also aims to leverage its status as an African country that is a member of both the League of Arab States (LAS) and the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC), which it believes positions it as an effective regional mediator.
The 2024 Candidates

Somalia has stressed the need for a more representative Council and intends to be a strong voice for African interests during its term. Drawing on the legacy of its 1971-1972 Council membership, during which the country supported global decolonisation efforts and presided over a high-level Council meeting in Addis Ababa—the first to take place in Africa—Somalia will work to build more effective partnerships among the UN, the AU, and sub-regional organisations based on the principle of complementarity. In this regard, the country may advocate for the implementation of resolution 2719 of 21 December 2023, which authorised UN funding to AU peace support operations.

Somalia does not currently have any UN peacekeepers deployed to the field.

GRULAC Seat

Two non-permanent seats are allocated to Latin America and the Caribbean, with one coming up for election every year. Starting in 2007, an informal understanding developed among GRULAC members to avoid contested elections. This followed the 2006 election for the GRULAC seat for the 2007-2008 term, contested between Guatemala and Venezuela, which was inconclusive after 47 rounds of voting between 16 October and 7 November. Panama was elected in the 48th round as the compromise candidate.

Since that election, candidates for the GRULAC seat have run unopposed, with the exception of 2019, when Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, which was the GRULAC-endorsed candidate, won the seat with 185 votes, after El Salvador submitted its candidacy just days before the 7 June election and received only six votes.

This year, Panama is running unopposed for the seat currently held by Ecuador.

Panama


During its campaign, Panama has emphasised multilateralism, human rights, and the promotion of dialogue as the basis for international peace and security. Referring to its experience as a small state in a geopolitically significant location, the country has underscored the importance of strengthening the voice of small and medium-sized countries on the Council while also highlighting its understanding of the strategic interests of the Council’s permanent members.

Panama has identified three “central themes” that it plans to focus on during its Council term. The first is to promote international peace and security through diplomacy and negotiation, seeking opportunities to strengthen the UN’s institutional architecture in this regard. The second is building national resilience against conflict, with an emphasis on developing the institutional capacity of fragile states, including in peacekeeping contexts. The third is advancing the WPS agenda, both by addressing the specific protection needs of women and girls in conflict and by promoting women’s participation in peace processes.

In addition, Panama has identified three “complementary themes” that it will promote during its Council term: climate, peace, and security; migrants and refugees; and humanitarian assistance. Finally, the country will also seek to address emerging challenges, such as the misuse of new digital technologies for criminal purposes and the potentially destabilising impacts of artificial intelligence (AI).

Panama has referred to its own experiences with international diplomacy as touchstones that inform its foreign policy. These include the 1977 Torrijos-Carter Treaties, which transferred sovereignty over the Panama Canal from the US to Panama, and the Contadora Group, which was an initiative launched in 1983 by Panama and other Central American governments to address armed conflicts in El Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua. Building on this tradition, Panama will seek to promote the peaceful settlement of disputes as the cornerstone of its Council membership.

Currently, Panama does not have any peacekeepers deployed to the field.

WEOG Seats

Two seats on the Council are allocated to the Western Europe and Others Group. These seats come up for election every even calendar year.

Denmark

Denmark is a founding member of the UN and has previously served four times on the Council (1953-1954, 1967-1968, 1985-1986, 2005-2006).

Denmark has described its campaign as part of a broader effort to contribute to global governance underpinned by the principles of the UN Charter. Under the campaign slogan “Equality, Security, Action”, the country has underscored its historical commitment to the UN as a founding member, emphasising international law, human rights, social progress, and partnership as key to the spirit of international cooperation. If elected to the Council, Denmark intends to serve as a pragmatic bridge-builder, working to strengthen the UN’s collective security framework through dialogue and conflict prevention.

Denmark has identified the promotion of international law—including international humanitarian law—and more accountable, effective, and representative Council as a cross-cutting priority for its Council membership. The country has described itself as an advocate for effective multilateralism, and its commitment to Council reform as an extension of its efforts as a member of the cross-regional Accountability, Coherence, and Transparency (ACT) Group, which strives to improve Council practices.

Denmark has also identified three thematic priorities for its Council term. One concerns conflict prevention and responses in an evolving security landscape. Denmark provides annual extra-budgetary funding to the UN Department of Peace Operations and is also among the major contributors to the UN Peacebuilding Fund. As a Council member, Denmark will work to further develop peacekeeping as a tool to meet contemporary security challenges in increasingly complex conflict environments, including through alternative multilateral mechanisms, such as UN-funded AU peace support operations or non-UN operations like the Multinational Security Support (MSS) mission set to deploy to Haiti.

Denmark’s other two thematic priorities are WPS and climate, peace, and security. Regarding the former, Denmark plans to focus on implementation gaps and improving compliance with existing frameworks—including with regard to conflict-related sexual violence—while also highlighting gender-related aspects of peacebuilding and conflict resolution to empower women in these processes. Regarding climate, peace and security, Denmark will aim to integrate
The 2024 Candidates

environmental considerations into peace and security policies, advocating an evidence-based understanding of how climate change can act as a threat multiplier in fragile contexts.

As at May 2024, Denmark has 12 personnel deployed to UNTSO.

Greece
Greece is a founding member of the UN and has previously served on the Council twice. (1952-1953, 2003-2006)

The country has campaigned under the slogan “Dialogue, Diplomacy, Democracy”. These words of Greek origin draw on the country’s historical heritage and are intended to reflect its foundational approach to international relations. The country has described itself as a firm advocate of the principles of the UN Charter and of international law as the only viable means for achieving the organisation’s objectives of international peace and security, development, and human rights.

These principles are reflected in the six priorities that Greece has selected for its Council term: peaceful settlement of disputes; respect for international law and the UN Charter; WPS; climate, peace and security; children in armed conflict; and maritime security. The last of these priorities is distinctively influenced by Greece’s interests as a maritime nation with one of the world’s largest commercial fleets. The country is a strong supporter of the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) as a guarantor of freedom of navigation and as the sole legal instrument governing the oceans.

If elected to the Council, Greece will seek to maintain good relations with all members, working to identify opportunities for strengthening cooperation both among the elected ten (E10) and with the permanent five (P5). It will engage on the basis of mutual dialogue, offering its expertise on regions with which it has significant experience, such as Southeastern Europe and the Middle East and North Africa, while seeking the perspective of other members on situations in their regions. In the context of the current Middle East crisis, Greece will build on its tradition of strong engagement with both Israel and Arab countries in the region.

While not a member of the ACT Group, Greece supports improvements to Council working methods. The country is also in favour of structural reform that expands the body’s membership and strengthens African representation.

As at March 2024, Greece has 126 military personnel deployed to UNIFIL.

Asia-Pacific Seat
Two non-permanent seats are allocated to the Asia-Pacific Group, with one coming up every election year (similar to the GRULAC seat). This year, Pakistan is running unopposed for the seat currently held by Japan.

Pakistan

In its campaign, Pakistan has affirmed its commitment to multilateralism, the principles of the UN Charter, and the primacy of the UN in international affairs. The country has called for a greater focus on conflict prevention and underscored the need to address the root causes of conflict, including those arising from violations of the UN Charter as well as from emerging threats to international peace and security such as climate change. The country has also advocated for a more democratic, inclusive, and accountable Council through reform of its membership and working methods.

One of the country’s main priorities is peacekeeping. Since deploying its first contingent to the UN Operation in the Congo (ONUC) in 1960, Pakistan has been one of the UN’s largest troop contributing countries. During its last Council presidency in January 2013, Pakistan convened an open debate on multidimensional approaches to peacekeeping, which resulted in the adoption of resolution 2086, emphasising the relationship between peacekeeping and peacebuilding. During its current campaign, the country has highlighted its support for increased women participation in peacekeeping.

Another priority for Pakistan is counterterrorism, which is one of the country’s key national security concerns. As part of its engagement on this issue, Pakistan has focused on Afghanistan as an important country-specific context with implications for regional stability. Also during its January 2013 Council presidency, Pakistan convened an open debate on comprehensive approaches to counterterrorism, which led to the adoption of a presidential statement (S/PRST/2013/1) on the topic.

A third priority for Pakistan is non-proliferation and arms control. The country considers multilateral non-proliferation regimes an important tool to promote peace and security at the global and regional levels. As part of these efforts, Pakistan presents four annual resolutions on arms control in the General Assembly, respectively addressing conventional arms control, regional disarmament, regional confidence-building measures, and the provision of Negative Security Assurances by nuclear-weapon states to non-nuclear states. The country is expected to continue its engagement on this issue in the Council.

As at March 2024, Pakistan deployed a total of nearly 4,000 personnel to the following missions: MONUSCO (1,862), MINUSCA (1,276), UNISFA (567), UNMISS (272), MINURSO (11), UNFICYP (3), and UNSOS (1).
Political polarisation in the Council is expected to persist and is likely to shape Council dynamics in 2025. While several agenda items remain contentious—ranging from thematic issues such as non-proliferation and sanctions to country situations like DPRK, Myanmar, and Syria—Russia’s invasion of Ukraine and the Israel-Hamas war have sharply raised tensions among Council members over the past two and a half years.

The Israel-Hamas war and the wider regional crisis it precipitated in the Middle East have been highly divisive issues for the Council. As Israel’s closest ally, the US has consistently emphasised the country’s right to self-defence in the wake of Hamas’ 7 October 2023 terrorist attack, while most other Council members have criticised Israel for its alleged violations of international humanitarian law in Gaza and called for an immediate ceasefire. Of the 11 draft resolutions concerning the situation that the Council has voted on since the outbreak of hostilities, it had adopted three at the time of writing (resolution 2712 of 15 November 2023, resolution 2720 of 22 December 2023, and resolution 2728 of 25 March). The regional fallout from the war has also heightened tensions in other situations on the Council’s agenda, including Iran, Iraq, Syria, and Yemen.

Tensions in the Middle East may continue to feature prominently on the Council’s agenda in 2025, depending on the course of the war in Gaza and its aftermath. Among the current cohort of candidates, Denmark, Greece, and Panama all enjoy strong relations with Israel and abstained on the 27 October 2023 General Assembly resolution calling for a humanitarian truce in Gaza. However, while Panama also abstained on the 12 December 2023 General Assembly resolution demanding an immediate humanitarian ceasefire, Denmark and Greece voted in favour of this resolution, indicating evolving positions on the conflict as humanitarian conditions in Gaza deteriorated. Pakistan and Somalia—both members of the OIC—voted in favour of both resolutions and have criticised Israel’s conduct of the war. Most recently, all five candidate countries voted in favour of the 10 May General Assembly resolution granting new “rights and privileges” to the State of Palestine and calling on the Security Council to reconsider the Palestinian request to become a UN member state.

If the war in Ukraine continues, it will remain an important issue on the Council’s agenda next year. Russia continues to justify its invasion, which it refers to as a “special military operation”, while several Council members—including France, Japan, Malta, ROK, Slovenia, Switzerland, the UK, and the US—condemn Russia for what they consider to be an act of aggression. Among the incoming members, Denmark, Greece, and Panama are expected to strongly support Ukraine, having voted in favour of all four General Assembly resolutions concerning the war (respectively, demanding that Russia withdraw its military forces from Ukraine; recognising the humanitarian consequences of the aggression against the country; suspending Russia from the UN Human Rights Council; and condemning Russia’s purported annexation of occupied territories). Pakistan abstained on all four resolutions, while Somalia voted in favour of the first and fourth and was absent from the second and third votes. On the Council, these two countries may seek a bridge-building role between Russia and Western members.

Several incoming members have a direct interest in items on the Council’s agenda. Greece is a key stakeholder in relation to the UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP), which patrols the UN buffer zone between the Greek-majority Republic of Cyprus and the self-proclaimed Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The country is also the flag state of several vessels that have been targeted by the Houthis in the Red Sea. Pakistan is likely to engage actively on Afghanistan, where the Pakistani Taliban—a terrorist group designated under the Council’s 1267/1989/2253 Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL/Da’esh) and Al-Qaeda sanctions regime—has staged cross-border attacks against Pakistan. Somalia hosts UNSOM and ATMIS and is engaged in a military campaign against Al-Shabaab, a terrorist group designated under the Council’s 2713 sanctions regime. In addition, rising tensions between Somalia and Ethiopia regarding Somaliland—a self-proclaimed republic in the country’s northern region—were the subject of closed consultations of Council members in January.

Peacekeeping is another priority for several candidates. Pakistan is one of the UN’s largest troop-contributing countries and is likely to take an active role on the issue as a Council member. Somalia also has a stake in the issue both as a host country and a proponent of UN funding for AU-led peace support missions, pursuant to resolution 2719. Denmark may similarly engage strongly on the topic, having identified innovative responses to the evolving security landscape as one of its Council priorities. Greece has a particular interest in UNFICYP, as described above.

Some of the candidates have emphasised the importance of addressing terrorism and violent extremism. Somalia has expressed an interest in sharing its national counterterrorism experience and may also draw the Council’s attention to terrorism and violent extremism in Africa more broadly, including in the Sahel. Pakistan has likewise emphasised its national counterterrorism efforts and may focus the Council’s attention on the threats posed by groups operating in its region.

In 2025, disarmament and non-proliferation issues will likely continue to garner attention in the Council. Current members ROK and Japan, whose current Council term ends this year, both have a particular interest in non-proliferation issues, especially vis-à-vis the situation on the Korean peninsula. Taking over Japan’s seat, Pakistan is likely to maintain a focus on this issue, although its regional emphasis is expected to shift to the Indian subcontinent. The country may also highlight the threat posed by the acquisition of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) by non-state actors and assiduously promote the work of the Council’s 1540 Sanctions Committee on this issue.

Most candidate countries have stressed the importance of addressing emerging threats to international peace and security. Among such issues, Denmark, Greece, and Panama have highlighted climate, peace, and security as a thematic priority for their Council terms. These countries are likely to face continued pushback from other members, such as China and Russia, which have long argued that the Council is not the appropriate forum for climate-related discussions.

Other emerging issues pertain to new technologies. One of Panama’s stated Council priorities is the misuse of digital technologies for criminal purposes, which is a concern that Pakistan and Somalia may share in the context of counterterrorism. Relatedly, Council members may continue to discuss potential threats posed by AI, building on the December 2023 Arria-formula meeting on the topic convened by then-member Albania and the July 2023 high-level briefing convened by the UK. (In March, the General Assembly adopted
Potential Council Dynamics in 2025

US-facilitated resolution 78/265 on the promotion of “safe, secure and trustworthy” AI systems, which Denmark, Greece, and Pakistan co-sponsored. In addition, the issue of WMDs in space may remain a subject of debate, following discussions on the draft resolution on the topic penned by Japan and the US, which Russia vetoed in April, and on an alternative draft put forward by Russia in May that failed to obtain the nine favourable votes required for adoption.

The WPS agenda is expected to receive considerable attention in 2025, which will mark the 25th anniversary of resolution 1325, the first thematic resolution on the issue. Among the candidate countries, Denmark, Greece, Panama, and Somalia have all highlighted WPS as a priority area. These countries may sign on to the Shared Commitments on WPS initiative, which started with the “presidency trio” of Ireland, Kenya, and Mexico in 2021. Permanent members France and the UK can also be expected to remain proponents of the agenda, while the US position may depend on the outcome of the November 2024 presidential election. Russia will probably continue to argue that the issue of gender equality is not directly linked to international peace and security and therefore not within the Council’s purview. China is likely to continue to maintain that the development gap is the most important barrier to women’s empowerment.

The co-chairing of the Informal Experts Group (IEG) on WPS will transition in 2025: current co-chair Switzerland will conclude its Council term this December, paving the way for another member to join Sierra Leone as co-chair.

Two members of the ACT Group—Ecuador and Switzerland—will leave the Security Council at the end of 2024. Among the current candidates, only Denmark is a member of the group. The other ACT Group member who will continue on the Council in 2025 is Slovenia. These two members are likely to take the lead in pushing for improved Security Council working methods, including proposals advocated by the ACT Group. Other incoming members may also support such proposals, however, as illustrated by the fact that Greece, Panama, and Somalia have all signed the ACT Group’s Code of Conduct regarding Security Council action against genocide, crimes against humanity, or war crimes, which calls on all Council members to not vote against any credible draft resolution intended to prevent or halt mass atrocities.

With Somalia joining Algeria and Sierra Leone on the Council, the three African members (A3) are likely to continue working closely in coordinating their positions and advancing a common African position on regional and thematic items on the Security Council’s agenda. These members will also continue their partnership with Guyana, a member of the Caribbean Community (CARICOM), which aligns with the Council’s African members on certain issues, replicating the A3+1 constellation first formed with former Council member Saint Vincent and the Grenadines in 2020-2021. While not a member of CARICOM, incoming GRU-LAC member Panama could weigh joining this grouping as well, potentially expanding it to “A3+2”.

Elected members continue to seek active roles in the Council, including as penholders, the informal designation of those that take the lead in drafting outcomes and convening negotiations on particular agenda items, a role most often assumed by one of the P3 (France, the UK, and the US). Co-penholding by an elected member and one of the P3 had been non-existent until 2019, when Germany succeeded in sharing the pen with the UK on Sudan. Recently, more elected members have served as co-penholders with a permanent member, including, among current members, Slovenia with the US on Ukraine political issues, Ecuador with France on Ukraine humanitarian issues, and Ecuador with the US on Haiti. Elected members usually hold the pen on the Syria humanitarian file, and some candidate countries may seek this role, which is currently assumed by Switzerland. One or more elected members also traditionally hold the pen on Afghanistan, which is currently held by Japan. In December 2023, the Informal Working Group on Working Methods adopted a presidential note on penholderships (S/2023/945) that encouraged continued efforts to “ensure that the arrangement of penholder or co-penholder reflects openness, a shared responsibility and fair burden-sharing”.

The Process of Election

Elections to the Council, as with other principal organs of the UN, require formal balloting even if candidates have been endorsed by their regional group and are running unopposed. A Council candidate country must always obtain the votes of two-thirds of the member states voting at the General Assembly session. This means that at least 129 votes are required to win a seat if all 193 UN member states vote. Member states that abstain are considered not voting, and blank ballots are not counted. Votes are secret. Under Article 19 of the UN Charter, a member state can be excluded from voting as a result of arrears in payment of financial contributions. At press time, Afghanistan and Venezuela are not permitted to vote in the General Assembly because of their arrears.

Member states vote for five candidates representing the various regional groups in each round of voting. In theory, it is possible that a country running unopposed might not garner the required number of votes of those present in the General Assembly in the first round of voting. Such a country may then be challenged in subsequent rounds by hitherto undeclared candidates and could ultimately fail to obtain a seat. However, this has never happened.

In a contested election, if no candidate obtains sufficient votes to be elected in the first round, voting in the next round would be restricted. In this restricted ballot, the number of candidates is limited to twice the number of seats available, and the candidates are those that received the highest number of votes in the first round. For example, if one seat is available, only two countries can contest this round—the two that received the most votes in the first round. Any votes for other candidates during this restricted voting round are considered void. This restricted voting process can continue for up to three rounds of voting.

If no candidate has garnered the required number of votes,
The Election Process

unrestricted voting is reopened for up to three rounds. This pattern of restricted and unrestricted voting continues until a candidate is successful in securing the required two-thirds majority.

Historically, there have been several instances in which extended rounds of voting were required to fill a contested seat. This was more common before the Council’s enlargement from 11 to 15 members in 1966, when it led to several agreements to split terms, such as the 1961-1962 term, split between Liberia and Ireland. Since 1966, such situations have been resolved by the withdrawal of one of the contenders or the election of a compromise candidate, with the sole exception being the 2016 agreement between Italy and the Netherlands to split the 2017-2018 term. A summary of the recent voting in General Assembly elections for non-permanent seats on the Security Council is contained in Annex 3 of this report.

Regional Groups and Established Practices

For purposes of election to the Security Council, the regional groups have been governed by a formula set out in General Assembly resolution 1991 A (XVIII), which was adopted in 1963 and took effect in 1966. The main feature of the resolution was to amend the UN Charter to increase the number of Council members from 11 to 15. Under this resolution, the seats previously assigned to the African and Asia-Pacific states were combined. In reality, however, the determination of candidates for election to the African and Asia Pacific seats operates separately, and this report reflects that customary practice.

Article 23 of the Charter, which establishes the number of Council members, also specifies the criteria that the members of the General Assembly are to apply when considering which countries should be elected to serve on the Council. It provides that due regard shall be “specially paid, in the first instance, to the contribution of Members of the United Nations to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the other purposes of the Organization, and also to equitable geographical distribution”.

The Charter does not define equitable geographical distribution, stipulate how it should be achieved, or suggest the composition of appropriate geographical groups. However, the principle of equitable geographical distribution gave rise to the establishment of regional electoral groups as a vehicle for achieving that goal. The regional groups, as they now operate, are as follows:

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<tr>
<th>Regional Group</th>
<th>Members</th>
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<td>African Group</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia-Pacific Group</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern European Group</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and Caribbean (GRULAC)</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western European and Others Group (WEOG)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Theoretically, under this system, every country in Africa should eventually get a turn as a candidate for a Council seat.

The process of selecting a candidate within the African Group usually follows a defined path in accordance with the AU rules of procedure cited above. First, the subregional groups select the potential candidate countries and forward their names to the African Group for endorsement. The African Group submits all candidate countries’ names to the Committee on Candidatures of the African Group in New York: at this stage, subregional organisations may add their endorsement before the list goes to the AU Ministerial Committee on Candidatures. This committee follows its written rules of procedure in selecting candidates.

Today, every member of the African Group is a member of the AU, Morocco having joined in 2017. The AU Executive Council makes the final decision on which members to endorse during an AU summit meeting. The written rules of procedure for candidate selection notwithstanding, some countries have submitted their candidature directly to the AU Ministerial Committee on Candidatures, bypassing the process in New York.

The African rotation generally follows a cycle based on the following principles:

• Northern Africa and Central Africa rotate running for one seat every odd calendar year;
• Western Africa runs for one seat every odd calendar year; and
• Eastern Africa and Southern Africa rotate running for one seat every even calendar year.

Broad adherence to this system has meant that African candidates generally run on “blank slates”, or uncontested. This is not always the case, however. When Sudan was the endorsed candidate for the 2000 election, Mauritius contested the seat and won election to the Council. In 2011, Mauritania contested Morocco’s candidature for the Northern Africa/Arab swing seat, but lost. In 2020, Djibouti contested the seat allocated to the East Africa region but lost to Kenya, which was the endorsed candidate. For this year’s open seat, Somalia initially faced competition from Madagascar, Mauritius, and Tanzania, but all three countries eventually dropped their candidacies. In addition to rival candidates emerging within a given subregional grouping, there have been times when countries that can claim to straddle more than one geographic region have shifted from one subgroup to another.

A factor that seems to be coming into play is the growing desire by

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Regional Groups and Established Practices

Some member states in the region to be elected more regularly than the—admittedly informal—rotation system would allow. Nigeria was elected for the 2014-2015 term two years after its Council membership of 2010-2011. South Africa was on the Council in 2007-2008, in 2011-2012, and again in 2019-2020. By declaring their candidacies ahead of their “turn”, these countries need to either persuade other candidates to withdraw or face a contested election.

**Asia-Pacific Group**

In 2011, the Asian Group officially changed its name to the Group of Asia and the Pacific Small Island Developing States, also known as the Asia-Pacific Group. The name change reflects the fact that more than a quarter of the group’s members are island countries in the Pacific.

The Asia-Pacific Group has no formally established practices of rotation to fill the two seats, one of which becomes available every year. While it has the same number of countries as the African Group, the Asia-Pacific Group’s wide geographic span—from the Middle East to Polynesia—has led to much looser regional coordination.

Until the mid-1990s, there was a fairly consistent South Asian presence on the Council, with Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan rotating seats. In practice, South Asian countries rarely run against each other. One exception occurred in 1975 when India and Pakistan contested the same seat, and eight rounds of voting were needed before Pakistan prevailed. By the time Pakistan completes its upcoming 2025-2026 term, it will have served a total of 16 years on the Council, the same duration as India.

In the absence of a formal rotation system, larger member states have tended to declare their candidacy closer to the election year, while smaller candidate countries from the region have often announced their decision to run many years ahead of time. The only subgroup within the Asia-Pacific Group that endorses its candidates is the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), comprised of Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet Nam.

**The Arab Swing Seat**

There is an established practice that spans the Asia-Pacific and African Groups. As discussed in greater detail in Annex 2, General Assembly resolution 1991 A (XVIII) provided five seats for “Asia and Africa”, and, in practice, the seats have been divided into three seats for Africa and two for Asia. In 1967, after Jordan ended its two-year term in what had been the Middle East seat, there was a year with no Arab state on the Council, which coincided with the Six-Day War. It appears that at some point, there was an informal agreement, although there are no known records, to reserve one seat for an Arab state and that Asia and Africa would take turns every two years to provide a suitable candidate. As a result, this seat is often called the “Arab swing seat”. An Arab country has always held a seat on the Council since 1968.

**Eastern European Group**

The Eastern European Group is the smallest regional group, consisting of 23 member states, with an election for one seat every odd calendar year. This is also the group that has expanded the most in recent decades, with 15 new members added since 1991 because of the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the splitting of both Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. Today, 11 of its countries are EU members, and eight—Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, the Republic of North Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, and Ukraine—are formal candidates for EU membership. An Eastern European seat was included in the permanent members’ “gentlemen’s agreement” in 1946 (see Annex 2), but soon thereafter, the meaning of that agreement was contested, with the Soviet Union and the West vying for 20 years to place their preferred candidates in this seat. The seat also became hotly contested among new member states that lacked a clear regional grouping. (For example, in 1955, before there was an Asian seat, the Philippines competed for a seat with members of the Eastern European Group. When voting remained deadlocked between Yugoslavia and the Philippines after 36 rounds, the two countries agreed to accept a split term: Yugoslavia served on the Council in 1956 and the Philippines in 1957.)

**Latin American and Caribbean Group**

After the expansion of the Council and the reorganisation of the regional groups that occurred as a result of General Assembly resolution 1991 A (XVIII), the Latin American Group incorporated the Caribbean states, several of which were members of the British Commonwealth, and became the Group of Latin American and Caribbean States (GRULAC). It currently has 33 members.

Like most of the other groups, GRULAC has no formal rules regarding rotation. For much of the last 60 years, non-Caribbean countries have tended to dominate regional representation. Historically, the group was often able to reach consensus on “clean slates”, although there have been notable exceptions.³ Brazil has served the highest number of terms among GRULAC members, with a total of 22 years on the Council by the end of its last term in 2022-2023.

**Western European and Others Group**

With 28 members, WEOG is the second smallest regional group, and two seats become available to it every even calendar year. Strictly speaking, it is not a geographical group, as it comprises Western Europe plus “others”, but its members share broadly similar political values and levels of economic development. The “others” subgroup is made up of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand, who were members of what was previously called the British Commonwealth Group. Israel is the other non-European state that participates in WEOG, while the Holy See is an observer. With the US also attending meetings as an observer and France and the UK as members, WEOG includes three of the five permanent members of the Council. WEOG practices what might be called an open-market approach to elections, which produces regularly contested candidatures, a pattern likely to continue in the coming years.

There are three subgroups within WEOG: the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden), CANZ (Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden), and WEOG (except for Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden). ³ GRULAC produced two of the most protracted and bitterly contested voting sessions in UN history. The 1979 contest between Colombia and Cuba went to 155 rounds 26 October 1979 until 7 January 1980 before Mexico was elected as a compromise candidate, and between 16 October and 7 November 2006 47 rounds of voting were needed between Guatemala and Venezuela before Panama was elected in the 48th as a compromise candidate.
Regional Groups and Established Practices

Australia, and New Zealand), and Benelux (Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg). There are informal understandings within the Nordic and CANZ subgroups that have encouraged members to support each other’s campaigns.

In its first term on the Council (1951-1952), Türkiye served as the Middle Eastern Council member. After twice holding the Eastern European seat, in 1954-1955 and 1961, it has run for the WEOG seat. Türkiye participates fully in both the WEOG and Asian Group but, for electoral purposes, is considered a member of WEOG.

Becoming a Candidate

The path most candidate countries follow in announcing and pursuing their bids for the Council usually begins by informing members of their regional (or subregional) group of the intention to run and seeking its support. The group’s endorsement becomes an important factor in the next step. (The more complex process within the African Group is described above.)

A candidate country then formalises its intention to seek a Council seat by notifying the rotating monthly chair of its regional group in New York. This is done in writing, specifying the two-year term the country seeks. The chair incorporates that information into the UN candidacy chart of the regional group in question; this chart is maintained by each group and reviewed at monthly group meetings. Most candidate countries then prepare a circular note to all missions in New York informing them of the candidacy. Most also send a note to the Secretariat or the president of the General Assembly, or both, although this is not required by the General Assembly’s rules of procedure.

As the relevant election year approaches, the regional group may decide to give its endorsement, and, nearer to the election date, the chair of the regional group will inform the president of the General Assembly whether elections will be contested or not. This allows the Secretariat to prepare documentation for the election process.

Campaigning for the Council

Candidates seek voting pledges from member states, often years in advance of the election, and may continue to do so up until the vote. Campaigning for the Council can involve significant investments of time and financial resources, although funds brought to bear vary greatly depending on a number of factors, including the wealth of the candidate and whether the candidacy is contested. (Candidates predictably tend to spend less in unopposed elections.)

Commitments are sought in writing, orally, or both. Votes are cast by secret ballot, making it impossible to determine whether member states have kept their promises. There are several reasons why pledges may be broken. A high-level official in the capital may pledge the country’s vote to a particular candidate but fail to convey the commitment to the permanent mission to the UN in New York, where the votes are cast. Or, if there is a change in government, the new government may not consider itself bound by the pledges of a previous administration. Knowing that commitments are not always secure, some candidate countries persistently cultivate countries that have already promised to vote for them, seeking reassurance that they have not changed their minds. Candidates often seek pledges from member states at many levels of government.

As candidate countries generally focus their campaigns on influencing the voting decisions of diplomats in member state capitals and at UN headquarters, their foreign minister and permanent representative to the UN in New York play significant roles in the campaign process. Additionally, particularly in contested elections, many candidates employ special envoys, usually former senior government officials or diplomats, who travel to capitals seeking voting pledges from high-level officials. Depending on their campaign strategies and resources, candidate countries may use multiple envoys, often focusing their efforts on regions where they lack strong diplomatic representation.

To secure voting commitments from member states, candidate countries may volunteer, or be asked for, inducements, such as development assistance or promises to promote—or avoid—particular issues while serving on the Council. Several candidate countries have arranged trips to their capital or held workshops on (uncontroversial) issues of interest in attractive locations to raise their campaign profile. “Swag bags” with items imprinted with the candidate’s logo may be distributed within UN circles to increase campaign visibility.

Until recently, permanent representatives were customarily offered gifts on election day by most candidates, even those running unopposed. On 8 September 2017, however, the General Assembly adopted resolution 71/323 on the revitalisation of the work of the General Assembly, which decided that “on the day of election...the campaign materials distributed in the General Assembly Hall...shall be limited to a single page of information regarding the candidates, with a view to preserving the decorum of the Assembly”. The following year, on 17 September 2018, resolution 72/313 welcomed the “efficient implementation” of this provision and decided “to continue to consider, within the Ad Hoc Working Group [on the Revitalization of the Work of the General Assembly], the potential concept and scope of guidelines on how to conduct the election campaigns by Member States, with a view to improving the standards of transparency and equity”.

As contested elections may continue for several rounds, candidates try to ensure that member states that voted for them in the first round continue to do so while also attempting to secure support from uncommitted members. Some member states have
Campaigning for the Council

said when they commit their vote to a candidate, they do so for the duration of the electoral process, regardless of the number of rounds. In protracted elections that come down to two candidates vying for a single seat, however, member states may shift their vote if it appears that their candidate of choice is losing ground and seems unlikely to prevail.

UN Documents on Security Council Elections

Security Council Documents
S/2023/945 (1 December 2023) was a Security Council Presidential note on penholderships.
S/2018/1024 (13 November 2018) was a letter to the president of the Security Council from the elected ten and incoming five members advocating a more equal distribution of work among all members.
S/2017/507 (30 August 2017) was the updated compendium of Security Council working methods.
S/2016/619 (15 July 2016) was a note by the Council president concerning transitional arrangements for newly elected Council members, which among other matters, called on Council members to agree provisionally on the appointment of chairs of subsidiary bodies by 1 October.

General Assembly Documents
A/77/PV.75 (6 June 2023) was the meeting record of the 2023 election of five non-permanent members.
A/76/PV.79 (9 June 2022) was the meeting record of the 2022 election of five non-permanent members.
A/75/PV.78 (11 June 2021) was the record of the 2021 election of five non-permanent members.
A/RES/72/313 (17 September 2018) was on the revitalisation of the work of the General Assembly and welcomed the “efficient implementation” of this provision and decided “to continue to consider, within the Ad Hoc Working Group [on the Revitalization of the Work of the General Assembly], the potential concept and scope of guidelines on how to conduct the election campaigns by Member States, with a view to improving the standards of transparency and equity”.
A/72/PV.93 (8 June 2018) was the record of the 2018 election of five non-permanent members.
A/RES/71/323 (8 September 2017) was on the revitalisation of the work of the General Assembly and decided that “on the day of election...the campaign materials distributed in the General Assembly Hall...shall be limited to a single page of information regarding the candidates, with a view to preserving the decorum of the Assembly”.
A/71/PV.86 (2 June 2017) was the record of the 2017 election of five non-permanent members.
A/70/PV.108 (30 June 2016) was the record of the 2016 elections for the remaining non-permanent member from WEOG.
A/70/PV.107 (28 June 2016) was the record of the 2016 elections of the non-permanent members for the remaining candidates from WEOG when Italy and the Netherlands announced that they would split the term.
A/70/PV.106 (28 June 2016) was the record of the 2016 elections of four non-permanent members.
A/70/PV.33 (15 October 2015) was the record of the 2015 elections of non-permanent members.
A/69/PV.25 (16 October 2014) was the record of the 2014 elections of non-permanent members.
A/RES/68/307 (18 September 2014) decided that elections of the non-permanent members of the Security Council would take place about six months before the elected members assumed their responsibilities.
A/59/881 (20 July 2005) was a note verbale from Costa Rica containing information on elections from 1946 to 2004.
A/RES 1991 A (XVIII) (17 December 1963) was the resolution adopting amendments to the Charter on the composition of the Council and establishing the allocation of seats to various regions.

Other
A/S20/Rev15 and amendments 1 and 2 are the Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly, including amendments and additions.
See http://www.un.org/en/sc/repertoire/ for the online version of the Repertoire of the Practice of the Security Council. (The Repertory and the Repertoire are different resources.)

Useful Additional Sources


**Charter Provisions on Election to the Council**

The UN Charter, in Article 23, specifies the number of non-permanent members to be elected, as amended in 1963:

*The General Assembly shall elect ten other Members of the United Nations to be non-permanent members of the Security Council...*  

Article 23(2) also stipulates the length of their term:  

*The non-permanent members...shall be elected for a term of two years.*

The practical impact of rotation occurring every two years is mitigated by staggering the cycle, so that the General Assembly elects five members each year for the stipulated two-year period. This was determined by Rule 142 of the Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly.

Despite the specification of a two-year term, there have been exceptions when members have served shorter terms. There have been one-year terms, either to establish the required rotational cycle or to break electoral deadlocks.

Article 23(2) also contains a provision that ensures that no member can become a de facto permanent member by being re-elected to serve continuously in the Council:  

*A retiring member shall not be eligible for immediate re-election.*

This is further reinforced by Rule 144 of the Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly, which also says that a retiring member of the Council is not eligible for immediate re-election. In addition to the provisions cited above, the Charter specifies the criteria that the members of the General Assembly shall apply when considering which countries should be elected to serve on the Council. It provides in Article 23 that due regard shall be:  

*specially paid, in the first instance to the contribution of Members of the United Nations to the maintenance of international peace and security and to the other purposes of the Organization, and also to equitable geographical distribution.*

“Contribution to the maintenance of international peace and security” is often interpreted in this context as the personnel or financial contributions for peacekeeping operations and peace processes. “Contribution to the other purposes of the Organization”, by contrast, is a very wide term. In recent years, most discussions regarding Article 23 at the General Assembly have focused on the criteria of equitable geographical distribution, with issues related to the candidates’ contribution to international peace and security being left aside.

A key procedural provision of the Charter that is relevant to Security Council elections is Article 18(2). This requires a two-thirds majority vote in the General Assembly on important questions. Under that article, election to the Council is defined as an important question.

In addition, Article 18(3) defines the required majority by reference to members present and voting. This refers to members casting an affirmative or negative vote. Members who abstain from voting are considered not voting.

**Relevant Rules of Procedure**

Voting, especially during elections to the Security Council, can sometimes produce tense and dramatic situations on the floor of the General Assembly. In such circumstances, understanding the relevant rules of procedure can become very important.

Rule 88 of the Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly indicates that once the president of the General Assembly announces the commencement of voting, the process can only be interrupted on a point of order regarding the conduct of the vote. Furthermore, explanations of vote are not permitted when votes are cast by secret ballot.

Elections are governed by Rules 92, 93, and 94 of the Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly.

Under Rule 92, elections to the Council are held by secret ballot. Nominations are not required. Countries simply declare their intention to run, sometimes many years ahead, either by circular note to all members of the UN or to the chair of their regional grouping, or both.

Rule 93 sets out the procedure that applies when there is only one vacancy to be filled and no candidate obtains the required two-thirds majority in the first ballot. It provides that:  

*...a second ballot shall be taken, which shall be restricted to the two candidates obtaining the largest number of votes...if a two-thirds majority is required, the balloting shall be continued until one candidate secures two-thirds of the votes cast...*

What this first part of Rule 93 means is that if there are more than two candidates and there is no clear winner on the first ballot, the lower-polling candidates drop out, and the contest then continues to a second ballot between the top two candidates. The effect of Rule 93 is that voting simply continues until one candidate prevails, either by securing the required majority or because the other withdraws.

If neither candidate receives the required majority on the second and third ballots, Rule 93 says that after the third inconclusive ballot, votes may be cast for “an eligible … Member”. This allows new candidates to come into the process, and the fourth ballot is therefore technically referred to as an unrestricted ballot. (It also allows any candidate excluded after the first restricted ballot to come back again.)

If a result is not achieved after three of these unrestricted ballots, Rule 93 requires that the pool again be reduced to the top two. This cycle then repeats until a result is achieved. The emergence of new candidates during the unrestricted stage is rare but not unprecedented. If a trend is starting to emerge in one direction after a succession of inconclusive ballots, it is not unusual for the candidate with fewer votes to withdraw.

Rule 94 is similar to Rule 93 but is applied when there are two or more seats to be filled.

When two or more elective places are to be filled at one time under the same conditions, those candidates obtaining in the first ballot the majority required shall be elected.

Rule 94 also specifies that if additional rounds of voting are required, the pool is reduced by a formula that says that the remaining candidates should not be more than twice the number of places available.

Annex 2: Historical Background

When the UN was established in 1945, the Charter provided for 11 members of the Security Council: five permanent members and six elected members.

Article 23(2) included a provision that in the first election of Council members, three members would be chosen for a period of one year so that in the future, three new members could be elected annually. This was decided by drawing lots for the one- and two-year terms.

In the first election, on 12 January 1946, the following countries were elected: Australia, Brazil, Egypt, Mexico, the Netherlands, and Poland. The pattern of geographical distribution was: two seats for Latin America, one for the Middle East, one for Eastern Europe, one for Western Europe, and one for the British Commonwealth.

The interpretation of what equitable geographic distribution should mean in terms of seats was based on an informal agreement among the permanent members, sometimes known as the London Agreement. From the start there was a lack of agreement about what had been agreed to. The US saw the 1946 formula as applying only to the first election, but the Soviet Union maintained that there had been a gentlemen’s agreement of a more general nature for the future meaning of geographic distribution.

The Charter clearly specifies a two-year term for elected members of the Council, but in addition to the 1946-1947 period, split terms started to occur in the late 1950s until the Council was enlarged in 1966. This was driven in part by fallout from the disagreement over regional rotation and associated Cold War politics. But the aspirations of newly independent countries were also an important factor. The first example of this was seen in 1955 when the Philippines and Poland contested a seat. After four inconclusive ballots, Poland withdrew, and Yugoslavia declared its candidacy. However, the stalemate continued, and after two months and more than 30 rounds of voting, it was informally agreed that the Philippines would withdraw and that Yugoslavia would resign after one year, at which point the Philippines would run as the only candidate for that seat. Over the next few years, this became a common occurrence.

By the early 1960s, there was a growing acceptance that the original composition of the Council had become inequitable and unbalanced. Between 1945 and 1965, UN membership rose from 51 to 117 member states, with the proportion of Asian, African, and Caribbean states increasing from 25 percent to about 50 percent. On 17 December 1963, the General Assembly adopted resolution 1991 A (XVIII), which contained amendments to the Charter to address the issue by increasing the number of elected members to ten. The resolution also dealt with the issue of geographic distribution, which was resolved as follows:

• five elected members from the African and Asian states (this was subsequently subdivided in practice into two seats for the Asian Group and three seats for the African Group);
• one from the Eastern European states;
• two from the Latin American states (this included the Caribbean); and
• two from the Western European and other states (this included Australia, Canada, and New Zealand).

At the same time, Article 27 was altered so that resolutions of the Council required the vote of nine members instead of seven. This also meant that for the first time, the permanent members could be outvoted by non-permanent members, although only on procedural questions, which are not subject to vetoes by permanent members, and when the permanent members choose not to cast a veto.
### Annex 3: Results of Recent Elections for Non-Permanent Members of the Security Council

The left-hand column lists the year and the UN General Assembly Session in which the voting was held, as well as the number of the plenary meetings (the ordinal numbers) and the date of meetings. The middle column reflects the highest number of votes and abstentions in a given round of elections. (The number of votes cast to fill the different seats in a given round is not always the same.) Candidate countries that won the election are in bold.

| Year | Session | Rounds | Year | Session | Rounds | Countries
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<td>2023</td>
<td>UNGA 77</td>
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<td>2022</td>
<td>UNGA 76</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sierra Leone 188, Algeria 184, Republic of Korea 180, Slovenia 153, Belarus 38, Guyana 191</td>
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<td>75th 06-06-2023</td>
<td>79th 09-06-2022</td>
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<td>Mozambique 192, Ecuador 190, Switzerland 187, Malta 185, Japan 184, Mongolia 3</td>
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<td>1 ROUND</td>
<td>1 ROUND</td>
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<td>Ghana 185, Gabon 183, Brazil 181, United Arab Emirates 179, Albania 175, Democratic Republic of the Congo 3, Islamic Republic of Iran 1, Peru 1</td>
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<td>78th 11-06-2021</td>
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<td>2020</td>
<td>UNGA 74</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>UNGA 73</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Djibouti 78, India 184, Ireland 128, Kenya 113, Mexico 187, Norway 130</td>
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<td>17-06 2020*</td>
<td>16-06-2020*</td>
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<td>Kenya 129, Djibouti 62</td>
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<td>Viet Nam 192, Niger 191, Tunisia 191, Estonia 111, Romania 78, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines 185, El Salvador 6, Georgia 1, Latvia 1</td>
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<td>78th 07-06-2019</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Estonia 132, Romania 58</td>
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<td>2018</td>
<td>UNGA 72</td>
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<td>2017</td>
<td>UNGA 71</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dominican Republic 184, Germany 184, South Africa 183, Belgium 181, Indonesia 144, Maldives 46</td>
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<td>93rd 08-06-2018</td>
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<td>Spain 120, Turkey 73</td>
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<td>1 ROUND</td>
<td>1 ROUND</td>
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<td>Spain 132, Turkey 60</td>
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<td>2016</td>
<td>UNGA 70</td>
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<td>2015</td>
<td>UNGA 69</td>
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<td>Ethiopia 185, Bolivia 183, Sweden 134, Netherlands 125, Kazakhstan 113, Italy 113, Thailand 77, Colombia 1, Cuba 1, Belgium 1</td>
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<td>108th 30-06-16</td>
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<td>Netherlands 96, Italy 94</td>
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<td>6 ROUNDS</td>
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<td>Netherlands 96, Italy 95</td>
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<tr>
<td>106th 28-06-2016</td>
<td>108th 30-06-16</td>
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<td>Italy 179, Netherlands 4, San Marino 1</td>
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<td>Round 1: 191 votes, 8 abstentions</td>
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<td>Round 2: 193 votes, 2 abstentions, restricted</td>
<td>Round 3: 190 votes, 3 abstentions, restricted</td>
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<td>UNGA 69</td>
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<td>2014</td>
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<td>Senegal 187, Uruguay 185, Japan 184, Egypt 179, Ukraine 177</td>
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<td>33rd 15-10-2015</td>
<td>25th 16-10-2014</td>
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<td>Angola 190, Malaysia 187, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela 181, New Zealand 145, Spain 131, Turkey 109, Democratic Republic of the Congo 1, Brazil 1</td>
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<td>1 ROUND</td>
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<td>Spain 120, Turkey 73</td>
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<td>Round 2: 193 votes, restricted</td>
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<td>Round 3: 192 votes, 1 abstention, restricted</td>
<td>Round 3: 192 votes, 1 abstention, restricted</td>
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<td>2013</td>
<td>UNGA 68</td>
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<td>2013</td>
<td>UNGA 68</td>
<td>1 ROUND AND A SPECIAL ELECTION</td>
<td>Lithuania 187, Chile 186, Nigeria 186, Chad 184, Saudi Arabia 176 (declined), Senegal 2, The Gambia 2, Lebanon 1, Croatia 1</td>
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*General Assembly decided “to hold the election of non-permanent members of the Security Council in June 2020, simultaneously, without holding a plenary meeting of the General Assembly” A/74/L.67*