Introduction

After the devastating effects of two world wars, the international community decided to establish the United Nations (UN) as an intergovernmental organization with the primary responsibility of maintaining international peace and security, creating the conditions conducive to economic and social development, while advancing universal respect for human rights. The Security Council was established as one of the UN's six principal organs and was given the primary responsibility to preserve international peace and security. The Security Council held its first session on 17 January 1946 at Church House in London. After its first meeting, the Council relocated to its permanent residence at the UN Headquarters in New York City. At that time, five permanent members and six non-permanent members comprised the membership of the Council. However, over subsequent years, discussions regarding the structure of the Council began to take place.

 In 1965, the number of non-permanent members increased to ten, and although membership has not changed since, discussions regarding a change in configuration take place frequently. During the Cold War, disagreements between the United States of America and the former Soviet Union blocked the Council from being an effective institution to resolve even the simplest of issues. However, progress has taken place over the last two decades, especially in the field of peacekeeping missions, which have improved to cover a wider range of issues, including facilitating a political process, protecting human rights, and assisting with disarmament. At the same time, traditional challenges to international peace and security have shifted, forcing the Council to adapt to new scenarios, such as the challenge of addressing multiple humanitarian crises simultaneously and in different regions of the world. Since 2000, terrorism, extremism, and other thematic issues, rather than country-specific issues, have become priorities of the Council, as demonstrated by the adoption of a range of resolutions and the establishment of several subsidiary bodies on cross-cutting issues.

 Governance, Structure, and Membership

The Security Council is the only UN entity that has the power to adopt resolutions that are binding on Member States. In accordance with Article 25 of the Charter of the United Nations (1945), Member States are obliged to accept and carry out the Council's recommendations and decisions. The Security Council also has a variety of tools to address issues on its agenda. For example, the President of the Security Council may issue press statements or presidential statements to communicate the position of the Council. Although these other tools are not legally binding, they nonetheless bring attention to important issues and compel the members of the Security Council to make recommendations and resolve conflicts.

The United Nations Security Council is one of the six primary organs of the United Nations, mandated by the Charter of the United Nations to maintain international peace and security. The Council submits an annual report to the General Assembly.

The Security Council is comprised of five permanent members and ten non-permanent members. The five permanent members of the Security Council are: China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America. Every year, the General Assembly elects five of the ten non-permanent members for a two-year term. Elections for non-permanent seats on the Council can be competitive, with countries expressing interest years in advance. Countries elected to serve on the Security Council are expected to represent the interests of their region; they usually have an influence at the international level and demonstrate leadership in specific areas of interest to their foreign policy. Security Council elections for non-permanent members are

held in June, six months before the term starts. This change allows Member States ample time to prepare for their new role. The ten non-permanent members represent countries from five groups: Africa, the Asia-Pacific Group, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Eastern European Group, Western European and Other. For the 2017 calendar year, the non-permanent Member States are Bolivia, Egypt, Ethiopia, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Senegal, Sweden, Ukraine, and Uruguay. Italy and the Netherlands are sharing one of the Western European and Other seats, with the Netherlands assuming membership for the 2018 calendar year. This decision was reached after they both failed to achieve a two-thirds majority after five rounds of voting. As is customary in Security Council elections, after multiple rounds of voting, compromise was sought in order to fill the seat.

On 2 June 2017, the General Assembly elected Côte d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Kuwait, Peru, and Poland as nonpermanent members of the Security Council. Their two-year terms will commence on 1 January 2018, and they will replace outgoing Egypt, Japan, Senegal, Ukraine, and Uruguay.

Presidency

Each member of the Security Council holds the presidency of the Council for one month, rotating according to alphabetical order. Security Council meetings can be convened by the President upon the request of any Member State. Under Article 35 of the Charter, the President shall call a meeting if a dispute or situation requires the Council's attention. According to Rule 6 of the Provisional Rules of Procedure, all concerns that are brought to the attention of the Secretary-General are drafted in an agenda that is approved by the President of the Security Council.

Participation

Any Member State of the UN may attend the Council's meetings upon the invitation of the Council. Member States are invited if the Security Council is discussing an issue that directly concerns the interests of the Member 17 UN Security Council, Current members, 2017.

Voting

Every Member State of the Security Council has one vote. Votes on all matters require a majority of nine Member States. However, if one of the five permanent members of the Security Council votes "no" on a matter of substance, such as a draft resolution, the draft resolution does not pass. Despite the existence of this veto power, the Council has adopted many resolutions by consensus since the end of the Cold War and has been divided only on a very limited number of issues, a prominent example being the case of Syria.

Mandate, Functions, and Powers

The mandate of the Security Council is to maintain international peace and security, as specified in the Charter of the United Nations. Chapters VI and VII of the Charter specifically concern the Security Council and the range of actions that can be taken when settling disputes. Chapter VI aims to achieve resolution of disputes by peaceful means, whereas Chapter VII explores further actions that can be taken. Any Member State is able to report a dispute to the Security Council; the role of the Council is to determine the severity of the dispute brought before the body and the impact of the dispute internationally. The Security Council is responsible for making recommendations to broker peace that take into considerations the previously attempted measures by the parties involved. Under Chapter VII, the Security Council has the authority to implement provisional measures aimed to deescalate

the situation. If the provisional measures are ignored or are unsuccessful, the Security Council may decide to call upon military forces to act on behalf of the UN. Non-military actions that can be implemented include blockades or economic interruptions. In aggregate, the Charter provides the Security Council with the following set of powers to fulfill its mandate.

• Sanctions: Pursuant to Article 41 of the Charter, the Council can call its members to apply economic sanctions and other measures not involving the use of force to prevent or end violence. These include economic sanctions, financial penalties and restrictions, trav 7 and the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights, but disagreement ensued on the degree to which human rights questions should be addressed by the Security Council. Throughout the summer of 2017, the Council addressed overall threats to international peace and security, including landmines and terrorism, as well as country-specific situations. On 10 July 2017, the Council decided to establish the United Nations Verification Mission in Colombia, which will begin its work in September to support the implementation of the Final Agreement between the Colombian government and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC-EP). On 5 August 2017, in response to repeated testing of ballistic missiles, the Council strengthened the existing sanctions regime against the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK), including by prohibiting the export of coal, iron, iron ore, seafood, lead, and lead ore to other countries. The Council also called for the resumption of the Six-Party Talks between the DPRK, China, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, and the United States, with the goal of achieving "the verifiable denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula in a peaceful manner."

Conclusion

As the international community faces increasing asymmetrical and non-traditional threats to international peace and security, the Security Council has evolved by devising new working methods and holding broader, more open discussions. Nonetheless, the persistence of ongoing threats indicates significant challenges to the Security Council's ability to guarantee peace and security in all regions of the world. These situations also represent the systemic and political divides between Council members, particularly with respect to the five permanent members. However, as the Security Council represents the only body within the UN that has the power to adopt binding resolutions, it is still the entity of utmost importance for the maintenance of international peace and security.

Annotated Bibliography

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As the fundamental principles of the Security Council are written down in the Charter of the UN, this document should be the first resource to consider. Article 23, which sets the membership structure and articles 23 to 26, which discuss its basic functions and powers, are of particular importance for understanding both the structure and function of the Security Council. In addition, articles 27 to 32 explain the Council's voting procedure and its overall structure. The Charter can be particularly helpful for delegates in understanding the powers and limitations of the body. Delegates will find Chapters VI and VII most helpful when researching the mandate of the Security Council, and also while at the conference simulating the body. Council on Foreign Relations. (2013).

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The Council on Foreign Relations provides a comprehensive introduction into the structure and work of the Security Council and therefore constitutes a good starting point for more detailed research. The website discusses the Council's powers and possibilities in taking coercive actions 70 UN DPI, Security Council Must Take Human Rights into Account in All Deliberations, Secretary-General Stresses during Thematic Debate (S/12797), 2017. 71 UN Security Council, Maintenance of international peace and security: Mine action (S/RES/2365 (2017)), 2017; UN Security Council, Threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts (S/RES/2368 (2017)), 2017; UN Security Council, Threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts – Preventing terrorists from acquiring weapons (S/RES/2370 (2017)), 2017; UN Security Council, Meeting Records, 2017. 72 UN Security Council, Identical letters dated 19 January 2016 from the Permanent Representative of Colombia to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General and the President of the Security Council (S/2016/53) (S/RES/2366 (2017)), 2017. 73 UN Security Council, Non-proliferation/Democratic People's Republic of Korea (S/RES/2371 (2017)). 74 Ibid., p. 6. 75 UN Security Council, Structure, 2017; UN Security Council, 1540 Committee, 2017. 76 Security Council Report, September 2014 Monthly Forecast – Syria, 2014. 77 Security Council Report, The Permanent Members and the Use of the Veto: An Abridged History, 2013. 78 Charter of the United Nations, 1945, art. 24. 8 and addresses broadly discussed issues as criticism to the Security Council's structure as well as possible reforms. In addition, the website contains links on further resources on the Security Council and recent international security issues as, for example, the Global Governance Monitor, which evaluates the international regime for armed conflict. Cousens, E., & Malone, D. (2004). Conflict Prevention, The UN Security Council: From the Cold War to the 21st Century. Boulder, Colorado: Lynne Rienner Publishers, Inc. This volume provides readers with a very detailed overview of the Security Council and its past and present challenges. Written on a high academic level, this book touches upon many of the Council's themes, institutions, and operations, while also explaining the Council's structure in depth. As it discusses major operations on four continents, the document can be a useful tool for detailed analysis on various international security crises. Hanhimäki, J. M. (2008). The United Nations: A Very Short Introduction, New York, New York: Oxford University Press. While giving a brief

overview of the history, structure, mandate and perspective of the UN in general, this volume also includes a comprehensive section on the Security Council, as well as a separate chapter on peacekeeping and peacebuilding.

I. The Impact of Climate Change on Peace and Security

"Climate change is real, and it is accelerating in a dangerous manner. It not only exacerbates threats to international peace and security, it is a threat to international peace and security."

 Introduction

 It is widely recognized that events caused by climate change can have global security implications, as they may have consequences that affected states and societies are unable to mitigate. The United Nations (UN) Department of Economic and Social Affairs recently included a warning in its 2017 Sustainable Development Goals Report about the profound global impact of climate change: "Global temperatures continued to increase in 2016, setting a new record of about 1.1 degrees Celsius above the pre-industrial period. The extent of global sea ice fell to 4.14 million square [kilometers] in 2016, the second lowest on record. Atmospheric CO_2 levels reached 400 parts per million. Drought conditions predominated across much of the globe…. In addition to rising sea levels and global temperatures, extreme weather events are becoming more common and natural habitats such as coral reefs are declining. These changes affect people everywhere, but disproportionately harm the poorest and the most vulnerable."

Since 2007, the UN Security Council has discussed the implications of climate change for peace and security on several occasions. Nevertheless, it has so far not come to definitive conclusions or decisions to respond directly to climate change as an independent threat to international security. Instead, the Council has primarily assumed a position of a "non-response strategy," meaning that it avoids a direct response to climate change, yet continues to decide upon related phenomena, such as civil war, desertification, or natural disasters.

This Background Guide will provide an overview of the origins and current state of the debate regarding the possibility of the UN Security Council assuming an active stance towards climate change. It will first shed light on the international framework for global climate policy by referring to key international documents and treaties. The next section will then show how key actors on the level of the international system are currently working to tackle the climate change-security nexus. This will include recent historical context on how the Security Council and its Member States have approached the problem. The actual scope of the problem of climate change and its potential implications for peace and security are at the focus of the next section. Finally, to guide delegates in their policy deliberations, there will be a discussion of the Security Council's opportunities for action.

International and Regional Framework

The following paragraphs will provide background on key international documents and agreements that manifest the linkage of global climate policy with peace and security. The Charter of the United Nations (1945) does not make an explicit reference to the protection of the environment or global climate policy; it does, however, state as a fundamental purpose of the organization "to take collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace." The supreme organ responsible for the maintenance of international peace and security, according to the Charter, is the Security Council. The Council "may investigate any dispute, or any situation" that might pose a danger to international peace and security, and can add any traditional and non-traditional topics

(including topics related to climate change, for example) to its agenda. Chapters VI, VII, and VIII of the Charter determine several paths of action the Council may take, including investigation, diplomacy, sanctions, and even military action. The Charter also served as foundation for the discussions at the groundbreaking 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, which sought to enhance international cooperation on global environmental and climate policy.

Principle

Two of the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development (1992) confirms that, while states have the "sovereign right to exploit their own resources," thanks to the Charter and the principles of international law, they must "ensure that activities within their jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the environment of other States or of areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction." This no-harm principle, widely considered as the "foundation of international environmental law," also guided the establishment of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) as the primary international forum for global climate policy in 1992. The UNFCCC's main objective is the "stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system." Through mechanisms enshrined in the Paris Agreement (2015), which effectively succeeded the Kyoto Protocol (1997) and entered into force in November 2016, the parties to the UNFCCC have committed to nationally determined contributions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, as well as to international financial and technological cooperation, to keep the global temperature rise from exceeding 2 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels. At the 2012 UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20), the international community underlined in The Future We Want that climate change "is a cross-cutting and persistent crisis" that "threaten[s] the viability and survival of nations." Rising sea levels, in particular, pose a significant risk to small island developing states (SIDS) and "represent the gravest of threats to their survival and viability." When it adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015) with its 17 Sustainable Development Goals, the General Assembly reaffirmed in a similar statement that climate change "is one of the greatest challenges of our time" and that "the survival of many societies, and of the biological support systems of the planet, is at risk." It was also the General Assembly that prominently recognized climate change as a critical security issue in resolution 63/281 (2009), which invited the "relevant organs...to intensify their efforts in considering and addressing climate change, including its possible security implications."

Subsequently and as requested in resolution 63/281, UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon issued in 2009 a report on climate change and its possible security implications, which found that climate change acts as a "threat multiplier" for economic, social, and environmental problems, potentially aggravating already fragile situations. Parallel to the previously listed elements of the international framework that focus on state-level security implications of climate change, there is also "a growing recognition...of the mutual interdependence between the security of individuals and communities and the security of nation States." This concept of human security is most influentially defined in the 1994 Human Development Report as "freedom from fear and freedom from want," as well as "safety from such chronic acts as hunger, disease and repression and … protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life – whether in homes, jobs or communities." A number of international bodies have over recent years worked towards making global security policy considerations more human-centered, and in those approaches the negative effects of climate change on human security play a prominent

role. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), which serves as a scientific advisory body to the UNFCCC also bases its risk assessment on the paradigm of human security.102 In its latest Fifth Assessment Report (2014), the IPCC cites evidence that "human security will be progressively threatened as the climate changes." Although they do not directly approach climate change as a threat for international peace and security, there are several other noteworthy international agreements. The 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) provides a "fairly comprehensive regime for the protection and preservation of the marine environment and the prevention, reduction, and control of marine pollution damage to other States." Its provisions, though subject to varying legal interpretations, may become of increasing relevance for small island states and states with low-lying coastal areas as sea level rise and damage to marine ecosystems are direct threats caused by climate change.

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 (2015) must also be considered as a relevant document. Adopted at the Third UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction in Sendai, Japan, on March 18, 2015, it serves as an international accord to reduce risks stemming from disasters, "some of which have increased in intensity and have been exacerbated by climate change." The framework avoids linkages to peace and security, and rather focuses on adaptation and resilience-building.

Role of the International System

Despite periodic consideration of the issue, the UN Security Council has yet to make any formal decisions on its role in addressing climate change or to adopt any resolutions that respond directly to climate change as a discrete threat to international peace and security. The topic of climate change was first discussed during a debate convened in 2007 by the United Kingdom. At the end of another debate in 2011, initiated by Germany, the Security Council unanimously adopted presidential statement 2011/15, which reaffirmed that the UNFCCC is the key instrument to address climate change, while also expressing the Council's concern "that possible adverse effects of climate change may, in the long run, aggravate certain existing threats to international peace and security." Subsequent briefings, debates, and informal meetings on the topic took place in 2011, 2013, 2015, 2016, and 2017; however, they did not result in any formal Council decisions, and "the future of the Council's engagement with climate change [remains] uncertain." The Security Council's lack of action can be attributed to differing policies and standpoints regarding the securitization of climate policy. SIDS argue that a stronger role for the Security Council is both within its mandate and necessary to address the problem. Many SIDS face existential and security threats due to rising sea levels, which makes them, for example in the form of the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS), one of the loudest voices to call for global action against climate change, including in the Security Council. Many SIDS are also members of the Group of 77 (G77) coalition of developing countries, which is customarily supported by China. In 2007, when the topic was first on Security Council's agenda, the G77 opposed a formal consideration of climate change by the body to avoid encroachment on the work and mandate of other UN bodies. Since then, the position of the G77 has seemed to lose unanimity, as more and more countries and blocs acknowledged the direct linkage of climate change with peace and security, and declared their willingness to consider a stronger role for the Security Council.

The European Union and its Member States are typically in favor of an increased role for the Security Council. It is no coincidence that the topic was first added to the agenda by

the United Kingdom and that the only formal position of the Security Council, presidential statement 2011/15, was reached under the German presidency.

While the United States assumed a neutral position in 2007, it became one of the loudest proponents of securitization in the 2011 debate, when its delegate stated that it "is past time for the Security Council to come into the 21st century and assume our core responsibilities." The recent decision by the United States government to withdraw from the UNFCCC's Paris Agreement, however, makes a continuation of this position doubtful. China and Russia, both veto powers, remain strong opponents to Security Council action confronting climate change. Although they ratified the Paris Agreement and, especially in the case of China, seem to embrace a lowcarbon transformation of their economies, they see no added value in involving the Security Council. Russia fears "a further politicization of the issue and increased disagreements among countries," while China, regarding climate change as "fundamentally a sustainable development issue," points out that the Security Council lacks "universal representation" as well as the necessary expertise and capabilities, and therefore should not replace the UNFCCC.

 Outside the Security Council, many institutions and organizations have subscribed to the idea that climate change has implications for peace and security. The Executive Secretary of the UNFCCC, Patricia Espinosa, has recently emphasized that it is "key [to frame] climate change as a security story" and that "[climate] action reduces risk and increases stability." The UN Environment Programme (UNEP) recently published a joint strategic report with the International Police Organization (INTERPOL) entitled Environment, Peace and Security: A Convergence of Threats (2016), which focuses on environmental crime (which it finds worth up to $258 billion) and its negative consequences for peace, security, and stability. In cooperation with the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the UN University, and the Permanent Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS), UNEP also investigated the implications of climate change for livelihoods, conflict, and migration in the Sahel region. UNEP furthermore contributed to the 2011 UN Security Council's debate that resulted in presidential statement 2011/15 and provided substantial contributions to the UN Secretary-General's 2009 report on climate change and its possible security implications. The G7 group of industrialized countries has recognized that "climate change poses a serious threat to global security" and continues to formulate common climate policies, based on research such as its influential report A New Climate for Peace: Taking Action on Climate and Fragility Risks (2015). The Secretary General of the military alliance North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), Jens Stoltenberg, affirmed that "[climate] change is also a security threat" – a statement that is flanked by NATO's growing concern about the topic. Similarly, many states include the security implications of climate change in their national security strategies (or equivalent documents), including, for example, Russia and the United States.

Representatives from civil society and academia contribute to the debate about the security implications of climate change through direct contact with decision-makers, advisory contributions for international organizations and policy forums, public campaigns, and scientific and policy assessments. This includes, for example, the publication of the international climate change think tank E3G named United we stand: Reforming the UN to reduce climate risk, which argues for an active UN Security Council role in global climate policy. The Think20 dialogue process, an effort of international think tanks to inform the participants of the G20 Summit in July 2017, produced as a key policy brief Building Global Governance for 'Climate Refugees', which focused on migration and displacement

as direct consequences of climate change. More generally, academic and research institutions, such as the Center for Climate and Security (CCS) and the Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI), work as well-informed focal points for researchers, policymakers, and citizens who are interested in the debate.

Adverse Consequences of Climate Change for International Peace and Security Climate change is advancing rapidly. It is expected that by the year 2100, there will be an increase in global temperature of 2 to 7 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels, which will "cause more frequent and more severe extreme weather events such as heavy rains, drought, heatwaves and storms." Simultaneously, as the extent of global sea ice is receding due to global warming, sea levels will continue to rise, with estimates ranging from 0.36 to 0.58 meters by the year 2100. Environmental stress caused by climate change will lead to declining agricultural yields in many regions of the world, with adverse effects including food insecurity, poverty, and competition over natural resources. Droughts will become more common and reduce access to clean drinking water. These negative effects of climate change will be most problematic in regions that are already weak and fragile, further jeopardizing the livelihoods of their inhabitants and increasing "migration that people would rather have avoided." Classification of Security-Related Consequences of Climate Change Scientific literature and political documents name several key direct and indirect adverse consequences of climate change on international peace and security. An informative summary is provided by the G7-commissioned report A New Climate for Peace (2015): 1. "Local resource competition: As the pressure on natural resources increases, competition can lead to instability and even violent conflict in the absence of effective dispute resolution. 2. Livelihood insecurity and migration: Climate [change] will increase the human insecurity of people who depend on natural resources for their livelihoods, which could push them to migrate or turn to illegal sources of income. 3. Extreme weather events and disasters: Extreme weather events and disasters will exacerbate fragility challenges and can increase people's vulnerability and grievances, especially in conflict-affected situations. 4. Volatile food prices and provision: Climate change is highly likely to disrupt food production in many regions, increasing prices and market volatility, and heightening the risk of protests, rioting, and civil conflict. 5. Transboundary water management: Transboundary waters are frequently a source of tension; as demand grows and climate impacts affect availability and quality, competition over water use will likely increase the pressure on existing governance structures. 6. Sea level rise and coastal degradation: Rising sea levels will threaten the viability of low-lying areas even before they are submerged, leading to social disruption, displacement, and migration, while disagreements over maritime boundaries and ocean resources may increase. 7. Unintended effects of climate policies: As climate adaptation and mitigation policies are more broadly implemented, the risks of unintended negative effects – particularly in fragile contexts – will also increase."

These key findings are also echoed in the Secretary-General's report on climate change and its possible security implications (2009), which identifies five channels through which security could be affected: 1. "Vulnerability: climate change threatens food security and human health, and increases human exposure to extreme events; 2. Development: if climate change results in slowing down or reversing the development process, this will exacerbate vulnerability and could undermine the capacity of [s]tates to maintain stability; 3. Coping and security: migration, competition over natural resources, and other coping responses of households and communities faced with climate-related threats could increase the risk of domestic conflict as well as have international repercussions; 4.

Statelessness: there are implications for rights, security, and sovereignty [or] the loss of statehood because of the disappearance of territory; 5. International conflict: there may be implications for international cooperation from climate change's impact on shared or undemarcated international resources." A significant example is the disappearance of the Arctic's sea-ice and permafrost due to global warming, which brings new opportunities for more human presence and economic activities, such as shipping lanes, trade passages, and resource exploration. As the strategic importance of the Arctic regions increases, there may be a higher potential for interstate conflict.

Case Study: Lake Chad

Insightful evidence of how climate change fuels conflict can be found in the Lake Chad region, which extends to the territories of Cameroon, Chad, Niger, and Nigeria. In the last 50 years, Lake Chad has lost 90% of its original size of 25,000 square kilometers due to the changing climate, unsustainable use of resources, as well as population growth in the surrounding area (from 13 million in 1960 to around 50 million in 2015, with prospects for further rapid growth). As a consequence, "water scarcity, health issues, food insecurity and poverty have increased dramatically" for populations both directly and indirectly dependent on the lake's natural resources and economic opportunities. The resulting competition over natural resources, territorial disputes, and migration have led to heightened tensions in the Lake Chad region, increased the occurrence of violent conflicts, and even become "a factor driving recruitment by the terrorist group Boko Haram," which is very active in the region.

Mohammed Ibn Chambas, in his function as Special Representative of the Secretary-General and Head of the UN Office for West Africa and the Sahel, reported to the Security Council in 2016 that 9.2 million people in the region were in need of humanitarian assistance and 2.4 million people (among them 1.5 million children) had been displaced due to violent conflict, with most of them finding refuge in the region. Chambas concluded that the Lake Chad region is proof that climate change "affects security, development and stability [and] becomes a fundamental threat to human security."

With resolution 2349 (2017), the Security Council condemned Boko Haram's activities in the Lake Chad region and encouraged enhanced regional military cooperation to fight against the terrorist organization. Moreover, the Council recognized "the adverse effects of climate change and ecological changes among other factors on the stability of the Region, including through water scarcity, drought, desertification, land degradation, and food insecurity." The resolution thus reveals "a growing willingness in the Council to recognize the security implications of climate change," but it remains to be seen whether this will lead to direct action. Potential Security Council Actions With resolution 1625, adopted unanimously at the 2005 World Summit, the Security Council acknowledged "the need to adopt a broad strategy of conflict prevention, which addresses the root causes of armed conflict and political and social crises." This exemplified the Council's intention to assume a more active and preventive stance towards global threats, as resolution 1625 opened the door to focus on non-traditional international peace and security aspects. For this reason, resolution 1625 also represents an important precedent for proponents of an increased role for the Security Council in global climate policy. The Council has moreover proved its capacity and willingness to assume de facto global lawmaking competence when it criminalized terrorism with resolution 1373 (2001) and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction with resolution 1540 (2004).

Following these precedents, and pursuant to its mandate in the Charter, the Security Council could add climate change to its work agenda and become actively involved. In this case, the Council would have to determine its role in relation to the UNFCCC accords (for example, acting as an enforcement agency) or to establish its own set of norms, objectives, and procedures. Based on the Charter, the Council may assume a role of soft compliance through investigating the issue (Article 34), calling for peaceful settlement of a conflict through arbitration (Article 33 (2)), and making recommendations to the involved conflict parties (Article 38). It may also call upon states to comply with provisional measures to "prevent an aggravation of the situation" (Article 40), such as urging them to ratify certain treaties or conventions, simply resorting to adopting a public resolution condemning certain actions or lack of actions, or calling upon the International Court of Justice (ICJ) to issue (non-binding) advisory opinions on states' climate action. A hard compliance policy, in the sense of Chapter VII of the Charter, could become manifest in the form of economic and diplomatic sanctions (Article 41), which could even be directed at certain polluting industries or climate-endangering markets. Based on its quasi-lawmaking competence (resolutions 1373 and 1540), the Security Council could also empower itself to investigate, regulate, and impose compliance, or create subsidiary bodies to do so. However, the use of military force (Article 42) is, even in this theoretical debate, by most commenters rejected on "practical and moral grounds." These concerns also point towards the limitations associated with the Security Council's potential actions. Even if the Council were willing to act, it may be limited by its lack of universal and equal representation, and accordingly, a perceived deficit in legitimacy.

Conclusion

This Background Guide section has introduced the reader to the debate about climate change and its implications for international peace and security. It has shown that the topic receives great attention from a wide variety of international bodies, and that there are several manifest indicators of the adverse consequences of climate change in the realm of international peace and security. The Security Council has been debating the topic for ten years now; yet – besides a presidential statement – it has not assumed an active role or even been able to formulate a common position. If the Council decides to become more involved in global climate policy, there is a wide range of potential steps it can take that range from soft compliance to hard compliance measures.

Further Research

To guide delegates in their research and policy formulations, there are several noteworthy questions to consider: Is there a window of opportunity for a common position among all Member States of the Security Council and, if so, what would it look like? If the Council decides to seize the matter, how would it work alongside relevant international institutions – including, most importantly, the UNFCCC? What potential tools and measures are most likely to succeed?

Annotated Bibliography

Bhatiya, N. (2017, May 2). Ukraine, Germany, Sweden Urge UN Security Council to Address Climate Change Threat. The Center for Climate and Security. Retrieved 6 June 2017 from: https://climateandsecurity.org/2017/05/02/ukraine-and-germany-urge-un-security-council-to-address-climatechange-threat/

> The author is an eminent researcher in the field of climate change securitization. In this blog *article, the author provides an update on the Security Council's latest informal debate on climate change and security, which was convened by Ukraine in April 2017. Since there was no formal resolution, the article introduces the debate and summarizes the statements of its participants and their diverging views. The source is valuable, as it highlights the most recent developments of the Council's ongoing consideration of climate change. Born, C. (2017, January). A resolution for a peaceful climate: Opportunities for the UN Security Council. SIPRI Policy Brief. Retrieved 5 June 2017 from: https://www.sipri.org/sites/default/files/Resolution-for-peacefulclimate.pdf The Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI) is a government-sponsored research institute on global security based in Sweden. The author, an eminent climate policy analyst and advisor, provides a timely and precise overview of the Security Council's stance vis-à- vis climate change and outlines potential benefits of a more active role of the Council. The source is especially valuable for delegates, as is provides a current, comprehensive, and authoritative analysis of the topic. United Nations, General Assembly, Sixty-fourth session. (2009). Climate change and its possible security implications: Report of the Secretary-General (A/64/350). Retrieved 5 June 2017 from: http://undocs.org/A/64/350 As requested by the UN General Assembly in its resolution 63/281 on "Climate change and its possible security implications" (2009), the Secretary-General presented this comprehensive report. The report outlines key channels how climate change, essentially a "threat multiplier," may affect security and desirable conditions or paths of action that would minimize risks for international peace and security. The report served and still serves as the most comprehensive and defining document produced on the level of the UN on this topic, which is why delegates should not miss it. 166 Mobjörk et al., Climate-Related Security Risks: Towards an Integrated Approach, 2016, p. 28. 167 Warren, Climate Change and International Peace and Security, 2015. 20 United Nations, Security Council, 6587th meeting. (2011).*

Maintenance of international peace and security (S/PRST/2011/15) [Presidential Statement]. Retrieved 5 June 2017 from: http://undocs.org/S/PRST/2011/15

> *The Security Council considered in its 6587th meeting the impact of climate change as part of its debate on "Maintenance of international peace and security." It is the first time that the Council acknowledged possible security implications due to climate change and that this acknowledgment warrants further observation. Although the Council did not adopt a resolution, this presidential statement, made on behalf of the Council, represents the minimum consensus and is regarded a milestone in the securitization of climate change. Warren, D. (2015). Climate Change and International Peace and Security: Possible Roles for the U.N. Security Council in Addressing Climate Change. Sabin Center for Climate Change Law / Columbia Law School. Retrieved 5 June 2017 from: https://web.law.columbia.edu/sites/default/files/microsites/climate-change/warren_- _cc_and_international_peace_and_security_- _roles_for_the_un_security_council.pdf Columbia Law School's Sabin Center for*

Climate Change is a private research institute with a distinguished reputation for its North American and international climate law and regulation analysis. The author of this paper presents a basic and introductory analysis of the Security Council's actual and potential role in climate change, as well as an overview of relevant literature and sources. Delegates might consider this source as a first step to gaining a general idea of the topic and its implications.

II. Preventing Terrorist Acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction

"Let us remember that you are here not simply to avoid a nuclear nightmare, but to build a safer world for all."

- How can the international community increase confidence-building measures in order to advance Member State consensus to prevent the terrorist acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMDs)?
- What methods can the international community use to ensure access to nuclear energy for peaceful purposes while still monitoring production of hazardous materials?
- Can organizations that combat terrorism and the proliferation of WMDs coordinate their policy goals?

Introduction

Globally, terrorism has pervasively impacted peace and security. Whether referring to the Charlie Hebdo attacks in France, or the suicide bombings perpetrated by Boko Haram militants in Nigeria, countless individuals fall victim to grave terrorist attacks each year. These attacks, while executed without WMDs, were debilitating and negatively impacted the livelihoods of hundreds of thousands of individuals. The widespread effects of terrorism are unfathomable, and thus, preventing the terrorist acquisition of WMDs, a more lethal form of weaponry, is of the utmost importance. Without proper preventative action, international security will be undermined and the terrorist acquisition of WMDs will be imminent.

The issue of terrorism remains a point of contention globally, as various conceptions of the term complicate policymaking surrounding the issue. The UN has set forth extensive work attempting to address both terrorism and WMDs. Much of the work has been done in isolation, however, as opposed to collectively addressing both terrorism and WMDs. Several notable incidents of the terrorist acquisition of WMDs have occurred, such as the 1995 Aum Shinrikyo attack in Tokyo, Japan, where lethal nerve gas was deployed in the Tokyo subway system leading to the deaths of 19 people as well as numerous injuries. Likewise, the emergence of the A.Q. Khan network in 2004, and the alleged proliferation and sales of WMD technology on the black market, was equally concerning and introduced a new dimension of peril to be considered by policy makers. The insidious nature of terrorist networks, coupled with the proliferation of WMDs, is a threat to international peace and security and must be addressed.

There are three types of WMDs, including, nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons. The United Nations Office of Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) describes nuclear weapons as "the most dangerous weapon on earth." A single detonation of a nuclear weapon can wipe out an entire city, kill millions of people, and destroy the environment and livelihood of future generations through the long-term effects. Likewise, biological weapons are highly destructive. The UN defines biological weapons as "complex systems that disseminate disease-causing organisms or toxins to harm or kill humans, animals or plants." Lastly, chemical weapons, also lethal, are defined as "toxic chemicals contained in a delivery system, such as a bomb or shell." All WMDs are highly dangerous and thus preventing their proliferation must be given precedence in international policy considerations.

International and Regional Framework

The UN has striven to prevent the spread and deployment of WMDs by initiating numerous treaties. Some of the treaties include the *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons* (NPT) of 1970, the *Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction* (BWC) of 1972, the *Convention of the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction* (CWC) of 1993, and the *Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty* (CTBT) of 1996. Collectively, states established these treaties to mitigate the risks of the proliferation of WMDs. However, the treaties are state centric and the impact of the aforementioned treaties on non-state actors, such as terrorists, has not been adequately considered and addressed.

In order to address the threat of the proliferation of WMDs, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), created in 1957, has hosted numerous security conferences and implemented the IAEA Illicit Trafficking Database in an effort to analyze and prevent further proliferation. The IAEA is worth noting as it monitors States Parties' compliance with the NPT. The NPT forbids the proliferation of nuclear weapons and provides assistance to states possessing nuclear materials with storage and security of material. This established infrastructure is crucial in ensuring that nuclear material is not accessible to non-state actors, thus providing safeguards against the terrorist acquisition of nuclear capabilities.

In addition, organizations such as the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) serve as a

first line of defense, preventing the spread of chemical weaponry. For instance, the CWC established three grades of chemical materials. This system regulates the usage of potentially hazardous chemical materials thus preventing their misuse. Likewise, similar to how the NPT provides state assistance for storing hazardous nuclear material, the OPCW provides a framework for chemical products thus safeguarding and tracking the material.

It is noteworthy that conventions in place for biological weapons, including the BWC, lack oversight in regard to implementation. While still highly dangerous, biological weapons are considered extremely difficult to obtain, thus, less of a threat to international peace and security. However, that does not mean that this form of weaponry should be taken lightly. In fact, organizations such as the UNODA work toward increasing universality of the BWC. However, much of the responsibility regarding safeguarding biological threats falls on each individual Member State.

The UN also has a long-standing involvement combating terrorism globally. In 1972, following the attack on the Israeli athletes at the Munich Olympics, the issue of terrorism made its way on to the agenda of the UN General Assembly at the urging of Secretary General Kurt Waldheim. In fact, the UN has established "16 international instruments that criminalize nearly every imaginable terrorist offense and facilitate international legal cooperation." The outcome has created a legal basis and international strategy for combating terrorism.

Following the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, Member States have taken steps against militant non-state actor groups in an effort to combat terrorism. However, these efforts have not been without consequences. The root causes of terrorism, identified by the High Level Panel on Threats Challenges and Change as "despair, humiliation, poverty, political oppression and human rights abuse" are often exacerbated in these anti-terrorism efforts. When a state fails to uphold fundamental human rights in their counter terrorism efforts, terrorist networks often bolster recruitment efforts by targeting individuals who fall victim to human rights violations.

In addition to actions taken by Member States, the GA has also bolstered efforts through initiatives such as the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, set out in resolution 60/288. This effort synthesizes all existing counter-terrorism resolutions and treaties into a single document that is universally accepted by all Member States. Additionally, this strategy "underscores the need for all states to respect human rights and promote the rule of law while fighting terrorism." However, much preventative work remains to be done to bridge the gap between anti-terrorism policy and WMDs.

Various regional organizations, such as the United Nations Regional Centre for Peace, Disarmament and Development in Latin America (UNLIREC), other regional organizations, along with many non-UN entities such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), combat issues of terrorism and the proliferation of WMDs. These organizations can be used as a good point of reference during the research process in uncovering the relationship between terrorism and ensuring the non-proliferation of WMDs.

Role of the International System

The Security Council
The SC leads international counter-terrorism efforts. Following the 11 September 2001 attacks, the SC adopted resolution 1373 (2001), which combats terrorism by restricting all forms of fiscal support by states to terrorist organizations. Likewise, it requires all states participate in inter-governmental information sharing regarding potential attacks and to fully prosecute terrorists and their supporters. Based off of article seven of the resolution, addressing threats to international peace and security, the SC initiated the Counter Terrorism Committee (CTC). This committee tracks state compliance to the principles set forth in the guidelines. Unfortunately, the lack of clarity surrounding the definition of terrorism continues to be an obstacle, stunting substantial progress in disarmament.

Following the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 in the United States of America and subsequent global terrorist attacks, the international community enhanced its understanding of terrorist objectives regarding the acquisition of WMDs. Guided by Article 26 of the *Charter of the United Nations*, the SC adopted resolution 1540 on 28 April 2004. This resolution requires collaboration of all Member States to prevent the spread of nuclear, chemical and biological weapons and monitor their stockpiles.

Resolution 1540 also established the 1540 Committee to stamp out further proliferation of WMDs, including the spread of these weapons to non-state actors such as terrorist organizations. This committee consists of all 15

members of the SC and is divided into four sub-working groups. The working groups include: Monitoring and National Implementation; Assistance; Cooperation with International Organizations; and Transparency and Media Outreach. The purpose of this committee is to assist with implementation of SC resolution 1540 through the working group of experts under certain stipulations, such as disallowing direct assistance and funding. However, this committee also manages a database (matrices) that essentially monitors each state's progress toward the implementation of this resolution. This matrix was initiated in 2005 and is certainly not without its critics. One such critic, Pakistan, stipulated that the SC is a poor representation of the international community and refused to allow inspections from the committee. On 27 April 2006 the SC expanded the scope of the 1540 Committee by adopting resolution 1673, which reestablished the original objectives and bolstered its efforts to advocate full implementation of the resolution. In November 2008, the SC held an open thematic debate on bolstering global security through regulation and the reduction of armaments. Today, the SC continues to combat both terrorism and the proliferation of WMDs.

Various obstacles have emerged regarding the progress of the 1540 Committee. One primary source of skepticism emerged from the fact that not all Member States agree that the acquisition of WMDs by terrorists should be their top priority. Another obstacle includes the responsibility of states to implement the resolution. While this can be viewed as a positive with regard to sovereignty, alternatively, many "resource challenges have impeded compliance" of states.

Other United Nations Actions
The GA First Committee has also played a crucial role in the eradication of the proliferation of WMDs through various resolutions. Some of these include GA resolutions 57/83, 59/80 and the *International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism*, 59/290. However, the ambiguity of defining terrorism has posed serious challenges to the progress of the committee. Other organizations that play a significant role in the international system include The United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research, the Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission, and the UNODA. These organizations are excellent resources for uncovering details regarding existing disarmament and non-proliferation framework.

Conclusion

Looking forward, when considering a countries respective position on preventing the terrorist acquisition of WMDs, it is important to bear in mind the role of SC in upholding international peace and security and preempting escalation of conflict. While the world has yet to see a terrorist attack utilizing WMDs on a mass scale, it is imperative to vigilantly address this issue and save "succeeding generations from the scourge of war."

Annotated Bibliography

Arms Control Association. (2015). *The Nuclear Security Summit* [Report]. Retrieved from: http://www.armscontrol.org/files/ACA_NSS_Report_2015.pdf
> *The Arms Control Association created a report that tracks key metrics for the upcoming Nuclear Security Summit of 2016. This report investigates over a dozen joint statements stipulated at*
> *the Nuclear Security Summit of 2014 and monitors their progress. Likewise, it details various state commitments to nuclear security and disarmament. Moreover, state progress regarding the commitments is also analyzed. This will be useful in the research process as it details agenda items that are in need of consideration when framing a countries position on disarmament, and the implementation of SC resolution 1540.*

United Nations, General Assembly, Sixty-ninth Session. (2014). *Measures to Prevent Terrorists from acquiring weapons of mass destruction: Report of the Secretary-General (A/69/138)* [Report]. Retrieved from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/69/138
> *The serious implications of terrorists' acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction are the central theme of this report. Likewise, this report outlines comprehensive and achievable measures to be taken in order to prevent terrorists from acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction. These measures include: bolstering pertinent national security policies, restricting hazardous material usage and controlling related technologies. Moreover, General Assembly Resolution 68/41 of 2014 is discussed, which establishes universal measures preventing the acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction by terrorists. Additionally, selected state responses to this plan are outlined in this report, thus providing invaluable insights into this topic.*

United Nations, Office for Disarmament Affairs. (2015). *Disarmament Issues* [Website]. Retrieved from: http://www.un.org/disarmament/WMD/SGReport_Terrorism/

> *The United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs investigates international security ranging from Weapons of Mass Destruction, acts of terrorism, to overall disarmament. This websitedetails various committees' actions towards disarmament of Small Arms and Light Weapons as well as Weapons of Mass Destruction. Likewise, this website also links to a database of relevant General Assembly resolutions, disarmament treaties, state military expenditures as well as the global reported arms trade. In addition there are various resources that will assist with the research process when framing a countries position on this multi-faceted topic.*

United Nations, Security Council. (2015). *Counter-Terrorism Committee* [Website]. Retrieved from: http://www.un.oeg/en.sc.ctc/

> *This resource is highly relevant and provides crucial background information on the terrorism component of this topic. This committee was created by the Security Council via Resolution 1373 in 2001 and specifically works to address the growing international threat of terrorism. Likewise, it serves as a support network to Member States countering terrorism. Additionally, this resource provides comprehensive information regarding the international legal protocol and procedures that have been adopted in order to address this issue.*

United Nations, Treaty Collection. (2015). *Text and Status of the United Nations Conventions on Terrorism* [Website]. Retrieved from: http://treaties.un.org/Pages/DB.aspx?path=DB/studies/page2_en.xml

> *The United Nations Treaty Collection provides a listing of pertinent resolutions and treaties related to terrorism. This website provides comprehensive information regarding signatories, sponsors and the current status of each treaty. It is important for delegates to consider related treaties, their scope, and understand to which treaties their assigned Member State subscribes.*