SECURITY COUNCIL
BACKGROUND GUIDE 2015

Written By: Maximillian Jungmann, Angela Shively, Kaitlin Sandin, Pauline Marcou, Alexander Rudolph, Kasey Erb

NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

© 2014 National Model United Nations
Dear Delegates,

We are pleased to welcome you to the 2015 National Model United Nations Conference New York (NMUN•NY) and the United Nations Security Council! For Conference A, your staff will be: Alexander Rudolph (SC A), Maximilian Jungmann (SC B), and Kaitlin Sandin (SC C). For Conference B, your staff will be Angela Shively (SC A), Pauline Marcou (SC B) and Kasey Erb (SC C). Alexander is finishing his B.A. in International Relations with an emphasis in cyber issues at the University of Minnesota. Maximilian holds a B.A. in Political Science and Media/Communication/Society from Trier University in Germany and is a second-year Master’s candidate at the University of Heidelberg. He also works for a regional broadcasting station. Kaitlin received a B.A. in Political Science from Gonzaga University and works on criminal justice reform at the American Bar Association. Angela is completing her B.A. in Political Science and National Security Studies at the University of Houston and works within a non-profit organization that focuses on youth empowerment, the protection and conservation of animals, and environment issues. Pauline is a second-year Master’s candidate at the Yale Jackson Institute for Global Affairs, working on environmental management and clean energy solutions. Kasey earned a B.A. in International and Global Studies from the University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh and a J.D. from the University of Wisconsin Law School; he currently works at the U.S. Department of Justice.

The topics under discussion for the Security Council are:

I. The Situation in Iraq

II. Measures to Combat Terrorism in Africa

III. Maintenance of International Peace and Security: Security Sector Reform

The Security Council is the international community’s most powerful institution dedicated to maintaining peace and security. The Council may issue both binding and non-binding resolutions, release presidential statements, commission reports by the Secretary-General, and authorize peacekeeping or humanitarian missions, among other actions. The Council’s unique legal authority and broad reach makes it the leader of the international community’s efforts to maintain international peace and security.

We hope you will find this Background Guide useful as it serves to introduce you to the topics for this committee. It is not meant to replace further research and we highly encourage you explore in depth your country’s policies as well as consult the Annotated Bibliographies and Bibliographies.

In preparation for the conference, each delegation will be submitting a position paper. Please take note of the NMUN policies on the website and in the Delegate Preparation Guide regarding plagiarism, codes of conduct/dress code/sexual harassment, awards philosophy/evaluation method, etc. Adherence to these guidelines is mandatory. The NMUN Rules of Procedure are available to download from the NMUN website. This document includes the long and short form of the rules, as well as an explanatory narrative and example script of the flow of procedure. It is thus an essential instrument in preparing for the conference, and a reference during committee.

If you have any questions concerning your preparation for the Committee or the Conference itself, feel free to contact the Under-Secretaries-General for Peace and Security, Maria Luisa Ortega (Conference A) and Allison Chandler (Conference B). You can reach either USG by contacting them at: usg.ps@nmun.org.

We wish you all the best in your preparations, and we look forward to seeing you at the conference!

Sincerely,

Conference A

Alexander Rudolph, Director, SC A
Maximilian Jungmann, Director, SC B
Kaitlin Sandin, Director, SC C

Conference B

Angela Shively, Director, SC A
Pauline Marcou, Director, SC B
Kasey Erb, Director, SC C

The NCCA/NMUN is a Non-Governmental Organization associated with the United Nations Department of Public Information and a 501(c)(3) nonprofit organization of the United States.
Contents

Abbreviations .............................................................................................................................................................. 3

United Nations System at NMUN•NY .......................................................................................................................... 5

Committee Overview ...................................................................................................................................................... 6

Introduction ................................................................................................................................................................. 6
History .......................................................................................................................................................................... 6
Mandate ......................................................................................................................................................................... 7
Governance, Structure and Membership .................................................................................................................... 7
Functions and Powers ................................................................................................................................................... 8
Current Priorities ........................................................................................................................................................... 10
Recent Sessions ........................................................................................................................................................... 11
Conclusion ..................................................................................................................................................................... 11
Further Research ......................................................................................................................................................... 11
Annotated Bibliography ............................................................................................................................................... 13
Bibliography ................................................................................................................................................................. 14

I. The Situation in Iraq ................................................................................................................................................ 18

Introduction ................................................................................................................................................................. 18
International and Regional Framework ....................................................................................................................... 18
Role of the International System ................................................................................................................................ 20
Regional Context ............................................................................................................................................................ 23
Political, Electoral and Constitutional Issues ............................................................................................................. 25
Human Rights and Humanitarian Affairs .................................................................................................................. 26
Economic and Social Development ............................................................................................................................ 27
Conclusion ..................................................................................................................................................................... 27
Further Research ........................................................................................................................................................... 28
Annotated Bibliography ............................................................................................................................................... 29
Bibliography ................................................................................................................................................................. 30

II. Measures to Combat Terrorism in Africa ............................................................................................................... 38

Introduction ................................................................................................................................................................. 38
International and Regional Framework ....................................................................................................................... 38
Role of the International System ................................................................................................................................ 40
Terrorism in Africa .......................................................................................................................................................... 42
Implementing the Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy in Africa .................................................................................... 44
Conclusion ..................................................................................................................................................................... 45
Further Research ........................................................................................................................................................... 45
Annotated Bibliography ............................................................................................................................................... 46
Bibliography ................................................................................................................................................................. 47

III. Maintenance of International Peace and Security: Security Sector Reform ....................................................... 52

Introduction ................................................................................................................................................................. 52
International and Regional Framework ....................................................................................................................... 52
Role of the International System ................................................................................................................................ 54
SSR Inclusion in Peacekeeping Operations ................................................................................................................ 58
Inclusive Security Sector Reform ................................................................................................................................ 60
Conclusion ..................................................................................................................................................................... 61
Further Research ........................................................................................................................................................... 61
Annotated Bibliography ............................................................................................................................................... 63
Bibliography ................................................................................................................................................................. 64
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviations</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACSRT</td>
<td>African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFISMA</td>
<td>African-led International Support Mission in Mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMISOM</td>
<td>AU Mission to Somalia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANF</td>
<td>Al-Nusra Front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AQAP</td>
<td>Al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AQI</td>
<td>Al-Qaida in Iraq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AQIM</td>
<td>Al-Qaida in the Islamic Maghreb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIVPOL</td>
<td>Civilian police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COR</td>
<td>Council of Representatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPA</td>
<td>Coalition Provisional Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil society organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTC</td>
<td>Counter-Terrorism Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTITF</td>
<td>Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPA</td>
<td>Department of Political Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPKO</td>
<td>Department for Peacekeeping Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of the Congo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>General Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAEA</td>
<td>International Atomic Energy Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IASSRTF</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Security Sector Reform Task Force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICCPR</td>
<td>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICESCR</td>
<td>International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICODHA</td>
<td>Integrated Coordination Office for Development and Humanitarian Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGAD</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Authority on Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INGO</td>
<td>International Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRFFI</td>
<td>International Reconstruction Fund Facility for Iraq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISF</td>
<td>Iraqi Security Forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISI</td>
<td>Islamic State of Iraq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISIL</td>
<td>Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Treaty Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGOWG</td>
<td>NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAU</td>
<td>Organization for African Unity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCHA</td>
<td>Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHCHR</td>
<td>Office of High Commissioner for Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPCW</td>
<td>Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSAA</td>
<td>Office of the Special Advisor on Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBC</td>
<td>Peacebuilding Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBSO</td>
<td>Peacebuilding Support Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REC</td>
<td>Regional economic committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>Security Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRSG</td>
<td>Special Representative of the Secretary-General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSR</td>
<td>Security sector reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWAPOl</td>
<td>South West Africa Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UDHR</td>
<td>Universal Declaration of Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNAMI</td>
<td>United Nations Assistance Mission to Iraq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNCT</td>
<td>United Nations Country Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDAF</td>
<td>United Nations Development Assistance Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHQ</td>
<td>United Nations Headquarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNMIL</td>
<td>United Nations Mission in Liberia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNODC</td>
<td>United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNTAG</td>
<td>United Nations Transition Assistance Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This diagram illustrates the UN System simulated at NMUN•NY. It shows where each committee “sits” within the system, to help understand the reportage and relationships between the entities. Examine the diagram alongside the Committee Overview to gain a clear picture of the committee's position, purpose and powers within the UN System.
Committee Overview

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 and creating the conditions conducive to economic and social development while advancing universal respect to human rights. The Security Council (SC) was established as one of its six principal organs and was given the primary responsibility to preserve international peace and security.

This guide will present the Council’s history, its mandate, structure and membership. Then, the guide will present the body’s major functions and powers, its peacekeeping and peacebuilding undertakings as well as the Council’s conflict prevention activities. Subsequently, the guide will touch base upon the current priorities of the Council and some important implications of the ongoing conversation regarding socioeconomic development as a way to address the root causes of conflict. Finally, the guide will highlight some key, recent outcomes of the Council’s most recent sessions.

History

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 United Nations Headquarters in New York, New York. At that time, five permanent members and six non-permanent members comprised the membership of the Council. However, in over the subsequent years, discussions regarding the structure of the Council began to take. In 1965, the number of non-permanent members increased to ten, and although membership has not changed since, discussions regarding 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 due to lack of agreement on even the most basic of issues and topics. However, beginning in the late 1980s, the body became more active, authorizing many peacekeeping missions, such as those in the former Yugoslavia, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Kosovo and East Timor.

After the Cold War ended, traditional challenges to international peace and security shifted, forcing the Council to adapt to new scenarios, such as the challenge of addressing multiple humanitarian crisis simultaneously, in different regions of the world. After 2000, terrorism and extremism, became a priority of the Council, as evidenced by the adoption of a range of resolutions and the establishment of several subsidiary bodies.

More than half a century after the Council’s creation, the international community confronts a rather diverse range of global threats, including nuclear terrorism, upsurge of violent non-state actors, organized crime, spread of infectious diseases, and states’ collapses. The new challenges call upon Security Council Member States to engage in collaborate, preventative efforts in order to tackle them.

---

1 Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Preamble.
3 Ibid.
4 Ibid.
6 Ibid.
**Mandate**

The mandate of the SC is to maintain international peace and security and to take actions whenever peace and security are threatened. The Council’s authority is particularly relevant when looking at the United Nations’ four primary purposes, as specified in the *Charter of the United Nations* (1945): maintaining international peace and security; developing friendly relations among nations; cooperating in solving international problems; promoting respect for human rights as well as being a center for harmonizing the actions of nations. According to Article 39 of the UN Charter, the Council shall determine the existence of any threat to international security and formulate recommendations accordingly. In order to prevent the escalation of a given conflict, the Council may call upon the parties to comply with provisional measures. In addition to these responsibilities, the body may also recommend new Member States to the United Nations General Assembly (GA) as well as suggest the expulsion of a Member State if considered that it has persistently violated the UN principles, as laid out in the Charter.

**Governance, Structure and Membership**

The Security Council is the only UN body, which has the power to adopt binding resolutions. This means that when a resolution is adopted by the Council, Member States, in accordance with Article 25 of the UN Charter, are obliged to accept and carry out the Council’s recommendations and decisions. The Security Council also has a variety of other tools to address issues on its agenda. For example, the President of the Security Council may issue press statements or presidential statements, which are similar to resolutions, but are not legally binding.

**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 held at any time when convened by the President of the Security Council and by the request of any Member State. Under Article 35 of the Charter, the president shall call a meeting if a dispute or situation calls the Council’s attention. The provisional agenda for each meeting is set by the Secretary-General of the United Nations and is further approved by the President of the Security Council.

**Participation**

Any UN Member State may be invited to the Council’s sessions if the body decides to do so. Invited Member States do not have the right to vote, but are allowed to submit proposals and draft resolutions. However, such proposals may only be put to a vote at the request of a representative of the Security Council.

**Membership**

The Security Council is composed 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 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 Security Council can be extremely competitive, with countries expressing interest years in advance. Countries elected to serve on the Security Council are expected to represent the

---

15 Ibid., Art. 39.
16 Ibid., Art. 40.
17 Ibid., Art. 24.
24 Ibid.
25 Ibid.
26 Ibid.
27 Ibid.
29 Ibid.
interests of their region, and also usually have an influence at the international level and demonstrate leadership in specific areas of interest to their foreign policy.\textsuperscript{30}

\textit{Subsidiary Organs}

The Security Council has many subsidiary bodies established under Article 29 of the Charter, including: the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, sanctions committees, and ad hoc committees.\textsuperscript{31} Further, the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) reports jointly to the General Assembly and the Security Council.\textsuperscript{32}

In the wake of the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, the Security Council established the Counter-Terrorism-Committee, guided by Security Council resolutions 1373 (2001) and 1624 (2005).\textsuperscript{33} The committee’s main objective is to prevent terrorist acts both within national borders and across regions.\textsuperscript{34} In 2004, the Security Council established the 1540 Committee in order to prevent the proliferation of nuclear, chemical and biological weapons.\textsuperscript{35}

Further, the Security Council establishes and sets the mandate for all peacekeeping operations, which are planned, prepared and directed by the Department for Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO); and political missions, which are often preceded by peace agreements and overseen by the Department of Political Affairs (DPA).\textsuperscript{36}

\textit{Voting}

Every Member State of the Security Council has one vote.\textsuperscript{37} Votes on all matters require a majority of nine Member States.\textsuperscript{38} However, if one of the five permanent members of Council votes against a draft resolution, it does not pass.\textsuperscript{39} This is known as the ‘veto power’.\textsuperscript{40} While in the 1950s, SC Member States, in particular the former Soviet Union, made frequent use of their veto power, its usage declined in the 1960s and rose again in the 1970s and 1980s.\textsuperscript{41} During the last decades, however, the use of the veto power has been on a comparatively low level.\textsuperscript{42} Over the last few years, the Council has adopted many resolutions by consensus and has only been divided on a very limited number of issues.\textsuperscript{43}

\textit{Functions and Powers}

The \textit{Charter of the United Nations} (1945) provides the Security Council with a number of powers in order to guarantee international security.

- \textbf{Sanctions}: Pursuant to Article 41 in 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.\textsuperscript{44} These include economic sanctions, financial penalties and restrictions, travel bans, severance of diplomatic relations, blockades, among others.\textsuperscript{45} It may further mandate arms embargos, enforce disarmament, or call upon international criminal mechanisms to become active.\textsuperscript{46} For instance, in the last decade, the Council has

\textsuperscript{32} Ibid.  
\textsuperscript{34} Ibid.  
\textsuperscript{37} Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Art. 27.  
\textsuperscript{38} Ibid.  
\textsuperscript{40} Ibid.  
\textsuperscript{44} Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Art. 41.  
\textsuperscript{46} Cousens, \textit{Conflict Prevention}, 2004, p. 111.}
adopted several political and economic sanctions against extremist organizations such as Al-Qaida, including travel restrictions, financial measures, arms embargos and increased military presence.  

- **Diplomatic Tools**: The Council has a mandate to investigate any dispute or situation that might lead to aggressions between states or other non-state groups or within states’ national territories. In order to do so, it may “recommend methods of adjusting such disputes or the terms of settlement; formulate plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments; determine the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression and recommend what action should be taken.” More recently, the Security Council determined the existence of a threat to peace when it demanded the immediate cease of military activities in Ukraine.

- **Military Action**: Besides the above-mentioned diplomatic instruments, the Council may also take military action against a state or other entity threatening international peace and security and may further decide on the deployment of troops or observers. The Security Council may also decide upon the deployment of new UN peacekeeping operations to be led by DPKO, as well as the extensions of its mandate and subsequent modification or drawdown of any troops. In 2014, for example, the Council continued to modify the mandate of the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL), first established in 2003 by Security Council resolution 1509 (2003), as the mission prepares to drawdown and complete its work.

- **Partnerships**: The Council also cooperates with a number of international and regional organizations as well as non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to implement its decisions. Cooperation between the SC and UN-related organizations, as for example, the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW), the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), and the African Union (AU) are of paramount importance for addressing a broad range of menaces such as terrorism, disarmament, nuclear non-proliferation, extreme violence from non-state actors, beyond others. Furthermore, collaboration between the SC and local actors as well as partnerships with NGOs are especially important for the deployment of peacekeeping operations. In recognition of the importance of partnerships, in July 2014, the Security Council adopted resolution 2164 (2014), emphasizing the importance of regional partnerships in peacekeeping activities.

**Peacekeeping and peacebuilding**

The difference between peacekeeping and peacebuilding lies in their mandates, powers and institutional frameworks. While “peacemaking generally includes measures to address conflicts in progress and usually involves diplomatic action to bring hostile parties to a negotiated agreement, peacebuilding aims to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management.” Contrary to other missions, peacekeeping operations have a military or international police presence in the field.

Since the end of the Cold War, the Security Council has become more active in the establishment of peacekeeping forces, authorizing them to take robust action under Chapter VII of the Charter. Since 1992, the number of

---


50 *Cousens, Conflict Prevention*, 2004, p. 111.

51 Ibid.


peacekeeping operations has raised immensely.\textsuperscript{62} The countries that comprise the majority of troop and police-contributing countries over the last two decades has changed. In 1992, France, the United Kingdom, Canada, and the Netherlands were the highest contributors; however, over the last several years, developing countries such as Pakistan, Bangladesh and India have been the largest contributors.\textsuperscript{63}

**Conflict prevention**

Conflict prevention is among the Security Council’s highest priorities.\textsuperscript{64} The Council may stop the outbreak of a conflict through agenda-setting, fact-finding missions, diplomatic initiatives, sanctions, peace operations, and peace enforcement.\textsuperscript{65} However, if a conflict breaks out, the Security Council may establish mission mandates and authorize the level and nature of resources for conflict prevention to the UN Secretariat.\textsuperscript{66} From November 2010 to March 2012, the DPA held “horizon-scanning briefings” in order to provide the Security Council with information for improving conflict prevention measures.\textsuperscript{67} In recent years, the Council has adopted a number of resolutions on the prevention of conflicts in Africa, strengthening the partnership between the African Union and the UN.\textsuperscript{68} Member States have further discussed the issue of natural resources and conflict prevention, and in 2013, adopted resolution 2101 (2013), in which they advocated for renewing the sanctions regime against Côte d’Ivoire as its internal situation continues to pose a threat to international peace and security in the region.\textsuperscript{69}

Moreover, on 21 August 2014, the Security Council adopted resolution 2171 (2014) highlighting the United Nations’ role on conflict prevention and emphasizing that while each Member State has the primary responsibility for preventing conflicts within its territory; UN regional offices, special political missions, peacekeeping commissions and the Peacebuilding Commission itself play an important role in this regard.\textsuperscript{70} The SC has also recently addressed the issue of natural resources and conflict prevention, and in 2013, adopted resolution 2101 (2013), in which they advocated for renewing the sanctions regime against Côte d’Ivoire as its internal situation continues to pose a threat to international peace and security in the region.\textsuperscript{69}

**Current Priorities**

The Secretary-General’s Five Year Action Agenda (2012) outlined the United Nations’ priority of building a safer and more secure world, including through enhancing partnerships for peacekeeping; building a global, accountable and robust humanitarian system; revitalizing the global disarmament and non-proliferation agenda; enhancing global collaboration towards the fight against terrorism, scaling up counter-terrorism efforts, addressing organized crime, piracy and drug trafficking.\textsuperscript{73} Further, within the context of broader UN priorities, it has also been emphasized the UN has an essential role in promoting disarmament and it is essential to develop new tools and strategies for collective action to counter global security threats.\textsuperscript{74}

There is also an effort to better link peace and security with development, due in large part to the important role that development has in conflict prevention. The UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, founded in 2012 by the UN Secretary-General and composed by more than 60 UN agencies and international organizations, further recommended that peace and security be incorporated as of one of the four key dimensions of

\textsuperscript{63} Luck, UN Security Council, 2006, p. 41.
\textsuperscript{64} Cousens, Conflict Prevention, 2004, p. 106.
\textsuperscript{65} Ibid., p. 108.
\textsuperscript{66} Ibid., p. 106.
\textsuperscript{70} Cousens, Conflict Prevention, 2004, p. 108.
\textsuperscript{73} United Nations, The Secretary General’s Five Year Agenda, 2012, p. 8.
\textsuperscript{74} Ibid.
the new holistic approach of the emerging post-2015 development agenda.\textsuperscript{75} In the proposed sustainable development goals, and the broader post-2015 development agenda, freedom from violence, conflict and abuse as well as conflict-free access to natural resources, are among the relevant issues addressed.\textsuperscript{76} At the center of the post-2015 development agenda are the principles that a peaceful and secure world is key to the realization of the development framework, and further, that sustainable development and universal respect to human rights cannot be fully attained in war-torn scenarios.\textsuperscript{77}

**Recent Sessions**

Although the Security Council, unlike other UN bodies, does not have a set of predefined priorities, it has recently focused its attention on certain regions of the world, such as Sudan, South Sudan, Mali, Libya, Afghanistan, Syria, Central African Republic, among others.\textsuperscript{78} Besides this country-specific approach, a number of thematic issues such as terrorism; children and armed conflict; protection of civilians in armed conflicts; women, peace and security, and addressing human rights violations under the responsibility to protect framework, are at the core of the Council’s current debate.\textsuperscript{79}

For example, in August 2014, the Security Council adopted resolution 2175 (2014) on the “Protection of civilians in armed conflict,” emphasized the necessity of protecting humanitarian personnel and calling upon the Secretary-General to report on the safety and security of humanitarian personnel.\textsuperscript{80} The Council further adopted resolution 2170 (2014), condemning terrorist activities and reiterating its call upon Member States to take measures to counter incitement of terrorist acts and address issues related to foreign terrorist fighters and terrorist financing.\textsuperscript{81} Both of these resolutions represent the new international challenges that Security Council is facing – ways to better protect civilians in conflict situations, and how to combat the threat of violent, non-state armed groups driven by ideology and operating in fragile and conflict-affected states.

**Conclusion**

As the international community faces increasing asymmetrical threats from non-state actors and transnational organized crime, the Security Council has tried to adapt to new working methods.\textsuperscript{82} Moreover, the current situation in Syria, Iraq and Ukraine apparently demonstrates that the SC has failed to guarantee peace and security in all regions of the world.\textsuperscript{83} This lacking capacity can be partially explained by the Council’s controversial decision-making process, specifically the veto power of the five permanent members.\textsuperscript{84} However as the Security Council represents the only body within the UN that has the power to adopt binding resolutions, it is still of utmost importance for the maintenance of international peace and security.\textsuperscript{85} The inter linkages between issues previously addressed in silos is an important one to recognize and address – as the world grows more complex, so too, must the Security Council’s understanding of the world and actions taken to maintain peace and security. The Council must use all of the tools in its toolbox - peacekeeping and peacebuilding activities, conflict prevention efforts and diplomatic and coercive enforcing instruments – as part of a comprehensive approach, are key for addressing traditional and emerging global threats and therefore assuring a secure world.

**Further Research**

While doing further research on the Security Council, delegates should consider the following questions: How can the Council address more effectively the new international peace and security challenges, as for example, cyber warfare, non-state actors, extremism? How can the relationship between the Council and other peace and security regional organizations be improved? How does the post-2015 development agenda influence Security Council’s

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{75} UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, *Realizing the Future We Want*, 2012, p. 31.
\textsuperscript{76} Ibid., p. 24.
\textsuperscript{77} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{79} Ibid.
\end{footnotesize}
current activities? How can the Security Council better prevent conflict? What can the Security Council work to ensure there is not a relapse of conflict and how can they strengthen peacebuilding efforts, in this respect? How can the Council better ensure its obligations to mainstream gender across its work are met? How can the work of the Security Council ensure it is reflecting the real challenges on the ground and better connect with civilians living in conflict-affected situations? How can the Security Council better learn from and take into consideration voices from civil society in its work?
Annotated Bibliography


This website, provided by the Council on Foreign Relations, gives a comprehensive introduction into the structure and work of the Security Council and therefore constitutes a good starting ground for more detailed research. The website discusses the Council’s powers and possibilities in taking coercive actions 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.


While giving a brief overview of the history, structure, mandate and perspective of the United Nations in general, this volume also includes a comprehensive section on the Security Council as well as a separate chapter on peacekeeping and peacebuilding. The book offers a succinct explanation of the Council’s political and operational constraints, including the veto power principle. It further provides delegates with a general overview of the importance of the Security Council for international security from its creation until now. Due to its comprehensive language, this book may serve delegates as a first starting point for further research on the Security Council as well as on international power relations.


This collected 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 a large number of the Council’s themes, institutions and operations. As it discusses major operations on four continents, the document can be a useful tool for detailed analysis on various international security crises.


As the fundamental principles of the Security Council are written down in the Charter of the United Nations, this document should be among the first resources to consider. Article 23, which sets the membership structure and articles 23 to 26, which discuss the 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.


This website gives an overview of the Security Council’s history, its mandate and basic functions and powers. It should be considered as one of the most important resources and a foundation for delegates’ further research, since it provides detailed information on how the Security Council works in practice. The website contains the body’s provisional rules of procedure and a section on frequently asked questions. The latter is particularly interesting when it comes to understanding the Council’s functions and powers.
Delegates will find in this website detailed information about the Council’s recent sessions as well as other interesting outputs.


This independent non-profit organization provides information on the working methods of the Security Council, country and regional issues, thematic and general issues. It further presents monthly forecasts highlighting issues that are currently being debated on the Council. These include counter-terrorism strategies, the situation in Afghanistan, Syria or Liberia, among others. The website is a source of updated information for delegates and will prove very useful when further researching on the current activities of the Council.

Bibliography


I. The Situation in Iraq

Introduction

The current situation in Iraq takes place within a challenging cultural and political context. The country is composed of several ethnic groups: the majority of the population is Arab (75-80%), and the Kurdish minority represents 15-20% of the total population. Almost the entire population is Muslim, with a small minority of Christians (around 1%). The Muslim population is split between two denominations of Islam, with 60-65% of Shia and 32-37% of Sunnis, but the later have mostly ruled the country while the majority of the population of what is now known as Iraq was Shia. This sectarian division has been a source of tension and violence for several centuries. The Kurds also suffered from oppression under the regime of Saddam Hussein but enjoyed a de facto independence under the protection of the United States after the Iraq-Kuwait war in 1991.

The country’s and region’s security has recently been severely threatened by the continuing growth of extremism over the last decade, including, most recently, a Sunni insurgent group known as the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), which has taken control of a large part of the territory and major cities in Iraq and Syria. Since January 2014, a surge in violence between Iraqi government forces, ISIL, and other extremist groups has generated mass displacements of populations from the regions of Anbar and Mosul. The Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) has estimated that around 1.2 million Iraqi have fled their homes to find refuge in Kurdistan and within the Anbar region. More than 5,500 civilians have been killed during the first half of the year 2014, with close to 10,000 wounded. The death toll increased dramatically since the beginning of June 2014, and the United Nations has recorded a range of violations of human rights and humanitarian law perpetrated against the civilian population.

The Security Council (SC) has considered the situation in Iraq since the beginning of the 1980s, and the question of the situation in Iraq has been regularly on the agenda of the Council since the US-led invasion of 2003. In June 2014 the Security Council started focusing specifically on ISIL and other extremist groups, and the Council adopted its first resolution on that topic in August 2014. Emphasis in Council discussions has been on the humanitarian crisis, the attacks perpetrated by those groups, and on sanctions against individuals affiliated with ISIL. The situation in the region provides an opportunity for a strengthened role of the UN system and of other non-governmental organizations, in restoring peace, fortifying local and national capacities and building political, economic and social stability.

International and Regional Framework

Several instruments can be used to frame the action of the Security Council in regards to the current situation in Iraq, and two fields are of particular interest in this context: the prevention and suppression of terrorism and the protection of civilian populations.

United Nations Framework

Chapters VI and VII of the Charter of the United Nations (1945) provide the Security Council framework for action in two instances: the pacific settlement of disputes and “action with respects to threats to the peace, breaches of the security.
peace and acts of aggression.”

Member States are required to refer any dispute to the Council if all previous attempts for alternative dispute resolution have failed. After examining the existence of a threat to international peace and security, the Security Council shall decide what “measures not involving the use of armed forces are to be employed”, including sanctions. The use of force comes as a last resort in case measures under Article 41 are deemed or prove to be inadequate. It can take the form of an authorized intervention by one or several Member States, a military blockade or a peacekeeping operation.

Prevention and suppression of terrorism

The UN has adopted 13 international Conventions to combat terrorism since 1963. Each convention targets different aspects of terrorist activities, from acts committed on board aircrafts, to the taking of hostages and nuclear terrorism. In the context of the situation in Iraq, several conventions are particularly relevant. Under the *International Convention for the suppression of Terrorist Bombings* (1997), Member States are encouraged to adopt appropriate measures within their domestic legislation, in order to punish any person who “unlawfully and intentionally delivers, places, discharges or detonates an explosive or other lethal device in, into or against a place of public use, a State or government facility, a public transportation system or an infrastructure facility.” In 1999, the UN General Assembly adopted the *International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism*, which establishes the principles of cooperation and exchange of information between States parties, in order to prevent any person to provide or collect funds for terrorism purposes. At the regional level, the 1998 *Arab Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism* offers a common ground of action for the League of Arab States against terrorist organizations. It establishes a detailed set of measures for the prevention and suppression of terrorism and terrorist offenses, emphasizing the need for cooperation among Arab States in the judicial field and through the exchange of information and expertise.

UNAMI, as one of the key international actors in Iraq over the last few years, has been particularly dedicated to supporting political dialogue between political groups, in order to strengthen cooperation on addressing the threat posed by extremists. The mission’s efforts have especially focused on strengthening dialogue between the Kurdistan Regional Government and the national authorities. The Special Representative of the Secretary-General (SRSG) for Iraq, the head of UNAMI and the recently emphasized on the need for “broad political dialogue, inclusive economic and social policies and community reconciliation” within any counter-terrorism strategy at the national level. Beyond that, existing legal instruments should be used to foster regional and international cooperation in designing and implementing clear and effective strategies on the ground.

Protection of civilians

The *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (UDHR, 1948), the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (ICCPR, 1966) and the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (ICESCR, 1966) are the foundations of international human rights law. The UDHR enumerates the fundamental rights to which all human beings are entitled and that Member States have pledged to secure and protect. The ICCPR and ICESCR complement one another, as one specifically addresses civil and political rights, including the right to life, freedom from arbitrary detentions, religion and electoral rights, and provisions to prevent the recruitment of child soldiers;

---

98 *Charter of the United Nations*, 1951, Chapters VI & VII.
99 Ibid., Chapter VI.
100 Ibid., Art. 41.
101 Ibid., Art. 42.
104 Ibid.
106 Ibid., p. 89-103.
110 Ibid.
and the other focuses on economic, social and cultural rights such as the right to education, and the right of vulnerable populations to special protection and assistance. The Republic of Iraq has signed and ratified both treaties. In 2004, the League of Arab States adopted the Arab Charter on Human Rights, which entered into force in 2008. A total of 17 Arab States have now ratified the Charter, including Iraq (2012). The document covers a wide range of individual, political, social, economic and cultural rights, and guarantees the equality between men and women as well as the rights of children.

The primary instruments to protect civilians in armed conflicts and other situations of violence are the 1949 Geneva Conventions and their Additional Protocols. As a non-international armed conflict (due to the conflict primarily being between a government and a non-state armed actor, and not between two states), the current situation in Iraq primarily falls under the provisions of Common Article 3, which establishes the minimum standards for the treatment of non-combatants, the wounded and the sick. Iraq is a State party to all Conventions and to the Additional Protocol I of 1977, but is neither a signatory nor a party to the Additional Protocol relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts. This Additional Protocol II applies to “all armed conflicts […] which take place in the territory of a High Contracting Party between its armed forces and dissident armed forces or other organized armed groups which, under responsible command, exercise such control over a part of its territory as to enable them to carry out sustained and concerted military operations and to implement this Protocol.”

The Security Council has regularly covered the topic of “protection of civilians,” and has adopted several resolutions in order to build a solid framework for the protection of civilian populations in armed conflicts. As a way to guide its regular work and ensure consistent implementation of existing norms, in 2002, the Council requested that an “Aide Memoire,” listing relevant issues and good practice language, be developed. In February 2014, the Aide Memoire: For the consideration of issues pertaining to the protection of civilians in armed conflict, was updated to reflect developments in the field. Most recently, Resolution 2175 (2014) severely condemned all forms of violence and intimidation against humanitarian aid workers and urged all Member States to ratify relevant treaties and conventions as well as to comply with international humanitarian law.

Role of the International System

The international system is represented by a diverse range of organizations in Iraq, including UN agencies and programs, non-UN entities and civil society organizations, with the UN Assistance Mission to Iraq (UNAMI) and the UN Security Council playing a fundamental role driving peace and security efforts.

United Nations Security Council

The “Situation in Iraq” has been on the agenda of the Security Council for several decades, first during the Iran-Iraq war, then during the invasion of Kuwait by Iraq, and presently in the aftermath of the US-led invasion. Resolution 1267 established the sanctions regime against Al-Qaida and associated individuals and entities in 1999, by which the

---

120 Ibid.
121 ICRC, Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts (Protocol II), 1977.
123 UN Security Council and OCHA, Aide Memoire: For the consideration of issues pertaining to the protection of civilians in armed conflict (S/PRST/2014/3), 2014.
SC imposed an arms embargo and assets freeze. A total of 212 individuals and 67 groups, including the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (also known as Al-Qaïda in Iraq) have been listed by the committee. A US-led multinational force invaded Iraq in March 2003, after the government was accused of not complying with its disarmament obligations under Security Council resolution 687 (1991). Initial attempts to authorize the invasion through a Council resolution were abandoned when facing strong opposition from several permanent and non-permanent members. Acting under Chapter VII of the Charter, the Security Council adopted resolution 1483 in May 2003, which put an end to the trade sanctions against the Iraqi government and recognized the United States and the United Kingdom “as occupying powers under unified command.” This resolution also requested the appointment of a Special Representative (SRSG) for Iraq by the UN Secretary-General in order to coordinate humanitarian and reconstruction assistance, to support the rebuilding efforts of the Coalition Provisional Authority (CPA), and promote legal and political reforms as well as the protection of human rights. This resolution provides the foundation for the work of UNAMI and the UN system in general in the country.

In a context of the continuing instability that has characterized Iraq since 2003, Resolution 1618 (2005) condemned the terrorist attacks, urging “Member States to prevent the transit of terrorists to and from Iraq, arms for terrorists, and financing that would support terrorists, and re-emphasizing the importance of strengthening the cooperation of the countries in the region, particularly neighbors of Iraq, in this regard.” After issuing a Presidential Statement in January 2014 condemning the terrorist attacks perpetrated by ISIL, the Council released several press statements in June and August 2014, expressing concerns over the persecution of civilian populations and minorities. Further action was taken on 15 August 2014, with the unanimous adoption of resolution 2170. This resolution extended the Al-Qaïda Sanctions List to six individuals affiliated with ISIL and the extremist group Al-Nusra Front (ANF), and demanded that “ISIL, ANF, and all other individuals, groups, undertakings and entities associated with Al-Qaïda cease all violence and terrorist acts, and disarm and disband with immediate effect.” The Council has also repeatedly condemned the murders of foreign journalists and humanitarian aid workers by ISIL and its affiliates.

The United Nations Assistance Mission to Iraq (UNAMI)
The special political mission to Iraq was established by Security Council resolution 1500 in August 2003 in order to support the implementation of the mandate laid out in resolution 1483 (2003). Additional components of UNAMI’s mandate include coordinating humanitarian and reconstruction assistance, facilitating the political and democratic reconstruction of the country, and promoting its economic rebuilding, the protection of human rights, and the reform of the security and judicial sectors. After an initial period of 12 months, the mandate of the mission was renewed, and the Security Council has been renewing it since then on a yearly basis. Under the leadership of the SRSG for Iraq, UNAMI is currently mandated to advise and assist the Iraqi government in establishing an inclusive political dialogue for national reconciliation, building respected democratic institutions through electoral processes, resolving internal disputes and facilitating regional dialogue and cooperation; to promote and facilitate humanitarian assistance and reconstruction efforts, economic reform and sustainable development, the promotion of

131 Ibid.
human rights, legal and judicial reforms, and the work of United Nations agencies and programs in the country.\textsuperscript{140} The mission also promotes the integration of gender perspectives within its mandate, in order to support and advance women’s rights and gender equality in the Iraqi society.\textsuperscript{141} The Security Council requires the Secretary-General to report to the Council every three months on the progress made in fulfilling the responsibilities of UNAMI.\textsuperscript{142}

\textit{The United Nations System}

The UN Country Team (UNCT) serves as the umbrella for the 19 UN agencies and programs operating in the country, and works closely with the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and UNAMI – which plays a key leading and coordinating role for the UN system in Iraq across the various sectors of its mandate.\textsuperscript{143} UNCT establishes the priorities of its action through the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) in Iraq, with the most recent version covering the period 2015-2019.\textsuperscript{144} All UN Agencies and IOM have endorsed the framework and committed to fulfill its goals, which are: to strengthen the ability of public authorities to respond to the needs of the Iraqi population; and social inclusion and equity.\textsuperscript{145} UNCT members are cooperating on various fields of their intervention: the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and IOM for example are working closely to provide assistance and protection to Internally Displaced Populations (IDPs) and refugees from Syria, Iran, Palestine and Turkey present in the country, mainly through the distribution of emergency relief items and cash assistance programs.\textsuperscript{146}

\textit{Non-UN entities}

The countries involved in the US-led invasion played a significant role in rebuilding the country alongside UNAMI and UNCT. The United States and the United Kingdom, among others, established the CPA in 2003, in order to govern the country and implement a political and economic transition towards a liberal democracy.\textsuperscript{147} The economic policy implemented by the CPA mainly focused on currency, fiscal and monetary reforms, putting the Iraqi banking system back on its feet and encouraging foreign investment and openness to international trade.\textsuperscript{148} The CPA was then dissolved in June 2004, and the multinational force deployed in the country progressively transitioned towards strengthening the Iraqi Security Forces’ (ISF) capacity in preparation for withdrawal of the multinational force in 2010-2011.\textsuperscript{149} The European Union has also been contributing to the recovery and reconstruction efforts in the country since 2003, in supporting democracy, human rights, good governance, and poverty reduction.\textsuperscript{150} For the 2014-2020 period, EU development aid is focused on human rights and the rule of law, education, and sustainable energy for all.\textsuperscript{151} Furthermore, the EU recently completed a nine-year Integrated Rule of Law Mission for Iraq (EJUIST LEX-Iraq), which aimed at strengthening the rule of law and promoting a culture of respect for human rights through training and capacity-building of justice system officials.\textsuperscript{152}

\textit{Civil Society}

Civil society organizations (CSOs) have been flourishing, particularly since 2003, after several decades of control and close monitoring by the Ba’athist regime.\textsuperscript{153} The 2005 Constitution recognizes and supports the mission and independence of CSOs, and the 2010 \textit{Law on Non-Governmental Organizations} (Law No. 12) is considered one of the most progressive in the region.\textsuperscript{154} In 2008, around 6,350 organizations were registered with the Iraqi non-governmental organization (NGO) Directorate, but some estimates consider there could be up to 12,000 Iraqi NGOs

\textsuperscript{140} UN Department of Political Affairs, \textit{United Nations in Iraq: UNAMI Mandate}, 2014.
\textsuperscript{141} UN Department of Political Affairs, \textit{United Nations in Iraq: Gender}, 2014.
\textsuperscript{143} UN DPA, \textit{United Nations in Iraq: UN Agencies in Iraq}, 2014; UN Department of Political Affairs, \textit{Iraq}.
\textsuperscript{144} UNAMI, \textit{UNAMI Herald}, 2014.
\textsuperscript{145} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{147} Katzman, \textit{Iraq: Politics, Governance, and Human Rights}, 2014
\textsuperscript{149} Katzman, \textit{Iraq: Politics, Governance, and Human Rights}, 2014
\textsuperscript{150} European Union, \textit{EU-Iraq Relations}, 2014.
\textsuperscript{151} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{153} NGO Coordination Committee for Iraq, \textit{Iraq’s Civil Society in Perspective}, 2011.
\textsuperscript{154} Ibid.
operating in the country. However, most of them do not meet the requirements of impartiality, accountability and transparency that are expected from CSOs, and they are facing many challenges in their operations. The growing insecurity and sectarian tensions have threatened the existence and operations of NGOs in certain regions, and organizations have been dealing with serious government’s incapacity and corruption in the provision of basic services and economic growth to the Iraqi population.

There are approximately 70 International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs) operating directly or indirectly, through a national NGO, in Iraq. They provide key support and basic services to local populations and lay a crucial role in implementing and monitoring programs on the ground. By working closely with national NGOs, they fill in critical gaps in the national government services and policies. In 2003, a group of 14 NGOs launched the NGO Coordination Committee for Iraq in order to ensure a coordinated and effective humanitarian action at the national level. The Committee is currently composed of 39 international NGOs and 32 national NGOs, including the International Rescue Committee, Oxfam, the Norwegian Refugee Council and others. Iraqi NGOs have been playing a crucial role in reaching out to displaced populations and providing them with emergency relief and support. The organization Harikar has established legal clinics and social centers in various locations, to provide counseling and training to individuals and families. Additionally, other NGOs such as Al-Mesalla and the Civil Development Organization have distributed non-food items to IDPs in Kurdistan.

Regional Context

ISIL and other extremist groups are presenting a serious threat the security of Iraq and its neighbors, as they are now operating across borders and countries. The region has also been under strong pressure from the Syrian conflict and the flow of refugees fleeing the country. However, those issues present an opportunity for Member States in the region to deepen their cooperation and implement efficient mechanisms to restore and maintain peace and security.

The Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL)

ISIL is a predominantly Sunni jihadist group formed in April 2013 with the objective to launch a civil unrest movement in the country and establish a caliphate, which is a traditional Islamic state based on sharia law. The group grew out of Al-Qaida in Iraq (AQI), a terrorist organization founded in 2003 by Abu Musad al-Zarqawi to fight the US-led invasion of Iraq. The members of AQI initially originated from Pakistan and Afghanistan, and then integrated recruits from Syria, Iraq and neighboring countries. As the group became predominantly Iraqi, its former leader Abu Ayyub al-Masri renamed it the Islamic State of Iraq (ISI) in 2006. The alias ISI relates to larger territorial ambitions over the Middle-Eastern region, and it is now believed that foreign jihadists from the United Kingdom, France, Germany and the United States have joined the movement. ISIL is currently led by Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi, who is reportedly residing in Syria.

Over the course of 2014, the group has gained control over northern regions of Iraq and cities such as Fallujah and Mosul. It established administrative structures in territories across both sides of the Syrian-Iraqi border and declared an Islamic caliphate over the regions it controls on 29 June 2014. It is believed that ISIL used to receive financial support from individuals based in Syria, Jordan and Saudi Arabia. It now earns most of its funding from financial support from individuals based in Syria, Jordan and Saudi Arabia. It now earns most of its funding from

---

156 Ibid.
157 NGO Coordination Committee for Iraq, Iraq’s Civil Society in Perspective, 2011.
158 NGO Coordination Committee for Iraq, Operating in High Risk Environment, NGOs intervention adapted to insecurity in Iraq: Overview and Challenges, 2010.
159 NGO Coordination Committee for Iraq, About NCCI, 2014.
160 NGO Coordination Committee for Iraq, Our Members, 2014.
164 Ibid.
166 Laub & Masters, Islamic State in Iraq and Greater Syria, 2014.
167 Ibid.
oil fields it controls in Syria, tax extortion over local businesses, illegal activities such as trafficking, and the capture of Mosul in June 2014. In June 2014, the Iraqi government called for the intervention of the United States to counter the advance of ISIL in the country. On 8 August 2014, President Obama launched a series of airstrikes against the positions of the extremist groups, principally targeting the Mosul dam and Irbil. The airstrikes have now been extended to the Syrian territory following the strategy developed by the US Government. US and Jordanian armed forces have been conducting heavy airstrikes on the Kurdish town of Kobane in Syria in order to counter the advance of ISIL in the region. In parallel, the US has formed a coalition of ten countries, including Australia, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Turkey and the United Kingdom, for immediate action to combat ISIL and other extremist groups.

Regional implications of the Syrian conflict
The movement of national protest that started in March 2011 in Syria, and quickly became an armed rebellion, has had numerous implications for the region. The porous borders between Syria and its neighbors have facilitated the movements of armed groups and material from one country to the other, thus destabilizing societies and countries already under tension or in a precarious situation. The divide between pro- and anti-Assad has inflamed the sectarian tensions in Iraq, with Sunni tribes crossing the border to join the opposition forces and Shia fighters providing support to President Assad’s forces in Syria.

The flow of Syrian refugees fleeing the conflict is presenting a significant threat to the stability of neighboring countries. As of July 2014, almost 3 million refugees from Syria have been registered by UNHCR: 1.14 million reside in Lebanon, 800,000 in Turkey, 600,000 in Jordan, more than 200,000 have fled to Iraq and 140,000 to Egypt; the majority of all refugees reside in urban areas, which adds an additional facet to an already challenging situation. The impact of those refugees on the host communities is quite significant, as strong constraints are placed on local economy, resources, infrastructures and services. In Iraq, this adds up to an already-existing situation of domestic instability and poses an additional burden on a country struggling with its own internal population displacements.

Potential for regional cooperation
The regional spillover of the Syrian crisis and the rising of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant outside of the Iraqi borders are putting great pressure on the countries of the region. When facing a terrorist organization that is directly threatening their integrity and the security of their populations, Member States have an opportunity to unite against a common adversary and to strengthen their cooperation. Iran has, for example, the potential to offer military assistance to the Iraqi government, under the form of training and coordination, information and intelligence, and military supplies. The Syrian government could also gain from joining forces with its neighbors in order to fight ISIL. At the political level, strict measures to freeze assets and prevent ISIL and other terrorist groups from acquiring arms are also necessary and can be implemented through existing or new mechanisms. However, they can only be fully effective with a strong commitment of all Member States concerned in the region. The Arab League took a step towards potential coordinated action against ISIL in early September, when its

---

174 Aljazeera, US steps up air strikes on ISIL in Syria, 2014.
175 Wintour, US forms ‘core coalition’ to fight Isis militants in Iraq, 2014.
176 Calabrese, The Regional Implications of the Syria Crisis, 2012.
178 UN High Commissioner for Refugees, Syria Regional Refugee Response, 2014.
183 UN Security Council, Third report of the Secretary-General submitted pursuant to paragraph 6 of resolution 2110 (S/2014/485), 2014.
members agreed to take “all necessary measures” to confront ISIL and enhance its cooperation with international, regional and national efforts currently in place.\(^{185}\)

**Political, Electoral and Constitutional Issues**

The sectarian tensions between Sunnis and Shias, and between Arabs and other ethnic groups, have made the democratic transition process after the fall of Saddam Hussein in April 2003 particularly difficult. Under the 2005 Constitution, the President, traditionally of Kurdish identity, and Prime Minister, traditionally a Shia Arab, share the power to authorize executive decisions, which have to be approved by a Sunni speaker of parliament and the Iraqi Council of Representatives (COR).\(^{186}\) However, frustration among Sunnis became strong, as their positions in the power structure diminished and they demanded that the newly elected government fulfill its promise of justice and equal security.\(^{187}\) The Government has been criticized for not including the Sunni minority in the political process, and this marginalization has heightened the grievances of the Sunni population.\(^{188}\) In this context, despite the fact that most Iraqi Sunnis reject terrorism and ISIL, the discontent among the Sunni Arab population provides grounds and opportunities for the organization to expand its presence and target the government.\(^{189}\) In parallel, tensions have been growing between the Kurdish minority and the Iraqi government, mainly around unclaimed territory in the north, the distribution of oil revenues and acceptance of contracts from foreign oil companies.\(^{190}\)

The Iraqi people elected a new COR in April 2014, and the State of Law coalition, which includes Mr. Maliki’s Da’wa party, won more than 90 seats out of 325 in total.\(^{191}\) The Kurdish parties won 62 seats, and the Sunni bloc composed of three different parties won 53 seats in total.\(^{192}\) Confronted with a growing security crisis and the advance of ISIL in the country, the COR reached an impasse in designating the new leaders of the government.\(^{193}\) On 15 July 2014, Sunni Salim al-Jabouri, a moderate, was finally elected as speaker of the parliament, a first step towards forming a new government.\(^{194}\) On 24 July 2014, the COR chose Fouad Massoum, a Kurdish politician, to replace Jalal Talabani as the country’s president.\(^{195}\) On 11 August 2014, Nouri al-Maliki agreed to step down and the COR nominated Shiite politician Haider al-Abadi to form a new government.\(^{196}\)

**Role of UNAMI**

The political mission to Iraq played a leading role in the first steps of the Iraqi democratic transition, by assisting in the drafting of the Constitution and supporting the Independent High Electoral Commission of Iraq, the Interim Government and the Transitional National Assembly.\(^{197}\) In 2007, the Security Council expanded the Mission’s political mandate with resolution 1770, which provides that UNAMI shall assist the Government and the people of Iraq in strengthening political dialogue, developing processes for holding free and fair elections and resolving disputed internal boundaries.\(^{198}\) UNAMI’s Office of Political Affairs has made the latest issue a priority, working to enhance regional dialogue and cooperation between communities at the local level.\(^{199}\) UNAMI also provided advice and assistance to the Electoral Commission in organizing the most recent COR and Governorate Council elections, and in implementing gender-specific activities to collect gender-focused election data and promote the role of women in democratic processes.\(^{200}\)

---

\(^{185}\) Aljazeera, *Arab League pledges to tackle Islamic State*, 2014.


\(^{188}\) Wicken, *Iraq’s Sunnis in Crisis*, 2013.

\(^{189}\) Ibid.


\(^{191}\) UN Security Council, *Third report of the Secretary-General submitted pursuant to paragraph 6 of resolution 2110 (S/2014/485)*, 2014.


\(^{200}\) UN Security Council, *Third report of the Secretary-General submitted pursuant to paragraph 6 of resolution 2110 (S/2014/485)*, 2014.
**Human Rights and Humanitarian Affairs**

On the ground, the OCHA is supervising the humanitarian response to the ongoing crisis and the efforts to provide shelter, clean water, food, basic supplies, health services and protection to the displaced populations and the people in conflict areas. OCHA has estimated that more than half of the national population has been affected by the violence between armed groups and government forces and that 1.5 million Iraqis are in need of humanitarian assistance. Among the populations in need, women-headed households, children and persons with disabilities have been identified as particularly vulnerable to violence and human rights violations.

ISIL has been accused of committing serious human rights violations, including crimes against humanity in the Syrian province of Raqqa. In Iraq, the organization has been deliberately targeting civilians through suicide attacks and bombings, kidnappings and abductions, and acts of sexual violence. Sharia law has been imposed in certain parts of the territory controlled by ISIL, and further, fundamental rights such as the freedom of movement and religious observance, are being restricted. In Mosul, which has been under control of ISIL since mid-2014, death threats were made against the Christian minority if they did not convert to Islam, and massacres, abductions and torture of Turkmen, Shabaks and Yazidis have been documented. ISIL has also taken hostage and executed on multiple occasions foreign and national journalists and humanitarian aid workers. There have also been reports of human rights violations by the security forces of the Iraqi government and government-backed militias. The ISF air strikes against armed groups have resulted in large numbers of civilian casualties, with at least 75 civilians killed in June and July 2014. Unlawful executions of more than 250 detainees have also been reported, with the large majority of those prisoners being Sunni Arabs. Children have been particularly affected by the conflict, with a serious lack of access to basic services and education. There have also been reports of children being enrolled in fighting forces on both sides. Women have been victims of sexual and other physical violence, sexual exploitation and forced marriage, and the conflict has posed serious threats to their security.

**Role of UNAMI**

The political mission to Iraq has played a crucial role in monitoring, documenting and investigating reports of human rights violations in the country. Under Security Council resolution 1770 (2007), UNAMI is mandated to “promote the protection of human rights and judicial and legal reform in order to strengthen the rule of law”, but also to “promote, support and facilitate […] the coordination and delivery of humanitarian assistance and the safe, orderly and voluntary return, as appropriate, of refugees and displaced persons.” Its Human Rights Office works with the public authorities, civil society partners, NGOs, UN funds and programs in promoting practices and institutions respectful of political, social, economic and cultural rights. They organize the training of ISF and assist the government in establishing an Independent High Commission for Human Rights based on international standards. UNAMI’s Integrated Coordination Office for Development and Humanitarian Affairs (ICODHA) is in charge of monitoring and informing the Mission’s headquarters of the evolution of humanitarian needs across the country, and works closely with OCHA in coordinating initiatives implemented by the national government and the humanitarian community, including UN agencies and NGOs. In early October, OCHA released the Immediate Assistance.

---

205 Ibid.
206 Ibid.
207 Ibid.
212 Ibid.
216 Ibid.
Response Plan signed with the Iraqi Government to respond to the IDP crisis in Kurdistan.\textsuperscript{218} However, the humanitarian access to populations in western and central Iraq is severely constrained by the conflict and the lack of resources from the humanitarian community.\textsuperscript{219}

**Economic and Social Development**

Many obstacles, such as the political and security situation, corruption, the lack of funding and the poor coordination among aid organizations, have obstructed the path towards a sustainable economic growth and inclusive social development.\textsuperscript{220} Oil has been dominating the Iraqi economy, considering the country has the fifth largest oil reserves.\textsuperscript{221} Oil accounts for 95\% of Iraq’s foreign exchange, and non-oil economic sectors have been largely ignored by development policies and investments.\textsuperscript{222} The unemployment rates in the country are estimated at 15\% for the national population and 22.5\% for the youth.\textsuperscript{223} As of 2011, more than 11\% of the population was still living with less than USD 2.5 per day.\textsuperscript{224} Enrollment in primary education has been increasing steadily, to reach 95\% in 2015, but severe disparities persist between males and females.\textsuperscript{225} Similarly, employment opportunities for women remain unequal in labor markets, with only one out of six people employed in the non-agricultural sector being female.\textsuperscript{226} Those problems are also direct obstacles to the foundation of sustainable and inclusive peace in Iraq, and require the Security Council to consider diverse aspects of international peace and security including when linked to economic and social development.

**Role of UNAMI**
The UN Assistance Mission to Iraq is mandated, under Security Council resolution 1770 (2007), to promote and support economic reform and sustainable development policies, the implementation of socio-economical programs, and the coordination of donor contributions through the International Reconstruction Fund Facility for Iraq (IRFFI).\textsuperscript{227}

UNAMI’s ICODHA plays a key role in enhancing collaboration and dialogue between the public authorities and the civil society, as it is coordinating development activities between the UN, the government and NGOs.\textsuperscript{228} The Gender Unit also works at supporting the advancement of gender equality in Iraq, through advocacy, advice and technical support, partnerships and training, in close cooperation with the government, the civil society and UN agencies.\textsuperscript{229} For example, UNAMI supported in April 2014 the organization of a conference to review and discuss the recommendations of the committee charged with upholding implementation of the *Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women* (CEDAW).\textsuperscript{230} The Mission’s mandate and current activities thus provide a large range of options to support the Iraqi government and local populations in implementing an inclusive and sustainable model of development, in order to address the root causes of conflict and establish lasting peace as well as strong security in the country and the region.

**Conclusion**
The ongoing security situation in Iraq finds its origins in the enduring tensions between religious, ethnic and tribal groups, and exacerbated by the government’s lack of capacity promote socioeconomic development, establish a strong governance infrastructure, and now, respond to the crisis. The scale of the conflict between armed groups and government forces now goes beyond Iraq’s borders and ISIL is posing a threat to the security of the entire region. In

\textsuperscript{222} Ibid; Tamimi, *Iraq Struggles 10 Years After Change*, 2013.  
\textsuperscript{225} Ibid.  
\textsuperscript{226} Ibid.  
\textsuperscript{230} UN Security Council, *Third report of the Secretary-General submitted pursuant to paragraph 6 of resolution 2110 (S/2014/485)*, 2014.
the end, building lasting peace in Iraq and protecting local populations requires improving the capacity of the government to maintain security in the country, to implement inclusive social, political and economic policies for all ethnic groups and genders, to respond to the specific needs of vulnerable populations and to effectively protect human rights. Solving the current security crisis furthermore requires an enhanced cooperation between affected and neighboring countries, both at the military and political levels. In this context, the Security Council should play a key role in restoring peace and stability in Iraq and in the region, and should make use of its mandate to ensure that all relevant actors, such as UN Agencies and CSOs, are included in the process.

Further Research

Moving forward, delegates should consider the following questions: what regional and international mechanisms and tools could be used to counter the advance of ISIL and other armed groups? How can existing forums, both at the regional and international levels, play a stronger role in restoring peace and security in the region? In Iraq, what policies and mechanisms could be considered to strengthen territorial integrity and enhance dialogue between national and local governments, as well as between the various groups that make up the Iraqi society? What role does development play in restoring and maintaining peace and security, and how can the SC support economic and social development? What kind of response would be necessary from the Security Council in this context? More specifically, should it be addressed by a military intervention conducted by a coalition of Member States or should the Security Council take further action to fight ISIL and other extremist groups, through a peacekeeping mission for example? Does the current threat to regional and international peace and security require a stronger UN response? Overall, how can the UN system better support the Iraqi government and CSOs in building a path for sustainable development and national stability?
Annotated Bibliography

The Sunni-Shia divide has played a major role in the ongoing ISIL crisis, and has been a factor of severe instability in Iraq and in the Middle-eastern region. Considering the complexity of the religious dynamics in place, it is very important for delegates to get a good understanding of the underlying issues. This guide presented by the Council on Foreign Relations provides a clear and extensive background on the problem and does a good job at presenting what is at stake in this conflict.

The Fourth Geneva Convention is one of the foundational documents of international humanitarian law and for this reason should be a source of reference for delegates. The document lists the various rights of civilian populations in times of war and conflict, and all signatory States are required to abound by those principles. The 1977 Protocol to the Convention is of particular relevance for the situation in Iraq and delegates should consider ways to strengthen its implementation on the ground.

The Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant currently poses the most severe threat to the security of Iraq and neighboring States. Even if the delegates’ efforts should not solely focus on ISIL, it is important for them to get a good understanding of the group’s origins, dynamics and strategy. This guide from the Council on Foreign Relations is an excellent resource for that purpose.

The Arab Charter on Human Rights is a very recent effort from Arab States to improve the status of human rights in the region and ensure they are effectively promoted and protected. It was inspired by the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, and adapted to align with regional and cultural sensibilities. Delegates should emphasize the importance for Member States to become parties to human rights conventions, including the Arab Charter on Human Rights, in order to ensure better protection of civilian populations.

This document compiles all regional and international legal instruments currently in place, for the prevention and suppression of terrorism. Delegates will find there the key conventions that can be used to combat the terrorist organizations currently operating in Iraq. At the regional level, the Arab Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism is particularly relevant for the topic at hand, and delegates should consider ways to apply its provisions in order to enhance regional cooperation.

The website of the UN System in Iraq is a great resource for delegates who wish to get a complete overview of the work of the UN in the country, across a large set of sectors and agencies. The webpage dedicated to the UN Assistance Mission to Iraq summarizes the role and mandate of the mission and references all key documents related to it. It should help delegates get a clear
understanding of the current UN involvement in the country in order to define relevant and effective solutions to the security situation.


The UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs is responsible for ensuring a coherent response to emergencies by all humanitarian actors. The revised version of the 2014 Strategic Response Plan for Iraq provides the delegates with updated estimations of the populations’ needs, an overview of the current humanitarian assistance in place in the country and an understanding of the different issues faced by humanitarian actors on the field. It is a very useful document to understand the situation in Iraq at the humanitarian level and it should help delegates to research and design appropriate actions to protect civilian populations.


The Security Council resolution 1500 (2003) established the UN Assistance Mission to Iraq to strengthen the work of the UN system in the aftermath of the US-led invasion of the country. In 2007, SC resolution 1770 expanded the Mission’s mandate to reinforce the long-term dimension of its work on the ground. It is important for delegates to know very well the provisions of UNAMI’s mandate in order to make a valuable use of it when suggesting solutions and negotiating in Committee; this resolution should be their main document of reference for that purpose.


In resolution 2110 (2013) which renewed UNAMI’s mandate for 12 months, the Security Council requested the UN Secretary-General to report every four months on the progress made towards the mission’s mandate. The latest report submitted in July 2014 provides delegates with a detailed overview of the most recent political and security situation in Iraq and of the activities of the Organization in the country. It is a reliable source of reference for their research and should help gain a solid understanding of the situation and recent developments.


On 28 July 2014, the Security Council unanimously adopted resolution 2169 (2014), which renews the mandate of UNAMI for another 12 months. Considering the security situation in the country, the Council requested the Secretary-General to report every three months instead of four, with the next report expected in November 2014. This resolution is the legal foundation of the work of the UN Mission in the country and is a key document for delegates to understand the role of the Security Council on the topic.

Bibliography


II. Measures to Combat Terrorism in Africa

Introduction

While combating terrorism has been on the United Nations Security Council’s agenda for decades, globalization has given new urgency to the issue.\(^{231}\) Easier travel and communications led to a noticeable increase in terrorist attacks in the 1990s, escalating markedly with the bombing of embassies in Kenya and Tanzania in 1998 and culminating with the unprecedented terrorist attacks perpetrated against the United States on 11 September 2001.\(^{232}\) The proliferation of terrorist groups since 2001 has left no region of Africa untouched by the taint of extremism.\(^{233}\) Though there is still no official United Nations (UN) definition of terrorism, the Security Council (SC) defines terrorism in resolution 1566 (2004) as “criminal acts, including against civilians, committed with the intent to cause death or serious bodily injury, or taking of hostages, with the purpose to provoke a state of terror in the general public or in a group of persons or particular persons, intimidate a population or compel a government or an international organization to do or to abstain from doing any act.”\(^{234}\) A terrorist is anyone who “supports, facilitates, participates or attempts to participate in the financing, planning, preparation or commission of terrorist acts or provides safe havens.”\(^{235}\)

Terrorism has been on the UN’s agenda since its inception and many UN bodies, chief among them the Security Council, play an active role in implementing the UN’s counter-terrorism framework.\(^{236}\) The UN’s capacity to combat terrorism has improved significantly since 2001, but recent events, particularly in Africa, have demonstrated that renewed efforts are required to eradicate terrorism and combat violent extremism.\(^{237}\) In the past two years alone, terrorist groups in Africa have led an armed insurgency in Mali, carried out a deadly attack on a Kenyan mall, and kidnapped more than 200 Nigerian schoolgirls.\(^{238}\) Aggravating factors such as, weak border security, corruption, and dire economic situations plague many African states, allowing terrorist groups to operate and recruit.\(^{239}\) If left unchecked, violent extremism will continue to threaten the security, economic development, and governance of all African Member States.\(^{240}\) The responsibility to maintain international peace and security, as proscribed in the Charter of the United Nations (1945), requires all Member States to take firm action to combat terrorism “committed by whomever, wherever and for whatever purposes.”\(^{241}\)

This guide will first discuss the international and regional counter-terrorism framework and highlight the difference in approach before and after the events of 11 September 2001. It will then describe the role of the international community with a particular focus on the Security Council, the General Assembly, and African regional economic committees (RECs). The guide explores the regional conditions that make combating terrorism in Africa particularly difficult and provides a brief description of the three largest extremist groups operating in Africa: Al-Qaida in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), Boko Haram, and Al-Shabab. It then discusses the implementation of the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy in Africa. Finally, the guide concludes with questions to guide further research.

International and Regional Framework

Combating terrorism has been on the agenda of the international community since before the founding of the United Nations.\(^{242}\) In 1937, the League of Nations adopted a convention to outlaw and prevent terrorism, though it never

---


\(^{233}\) UN Security Council, Peace and security in Africa (S/PRST/2013/5), 2013.


\(^{242}\) United Nations, UN Action to Counter Terrorism: International Legal Instruments.
came into force.\textsuperscript{243} Similarly, the UN recognized terrorism as a grave threat, requesting Member States to maintain international peace and security.\textsuperscript{244} Article VII of the Charter endows the Security Council with the authority to pass binding resolutions and take action, including the use of force against non-state actors or Member States that pose a grave threat to international peace and security.\textsuperscript{245}

The UN and its specialized agencies have passed 14 international legal instruments and four amendments on terrorism.\textsuperscript{246} The first legal instrument adopted was the \textit{Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed On Board Aircraft} (1963), signed by States Parties to the International Civil Aviation Organization, outlawing any attempt to endanger passengers or flight crew on international flights.\textsuperscript{247} Six additional treaties outlaw terrorist acts in the aviation sphere, while another three outlaw terrorist acts at sea and in the maritime industry.\textsuperscript{248} Threats to international travel and commerce dominated the UN’s counter-terrorism agenda for several decades.\textsuperscript{249} Other important instruments adopted by the UN General Assembly (GA) include the \textit{International Convention on the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism} (1999) and the \textit{International Convention on the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism} (2005).\textsuperscript{250}

Though terrorism was a debate topic since the early days of the UN, most Member States failed to ratify a majority of the treaties against terrorism before 11 September 2001.\textsuperscript{251} Only Botswana and the United Kingdom ratified all 12 of the treaties against terrorism in existence before the attacks.\textsuperscript{252} Implementation varied significantly by region, resulting in a weak international framework that was sharply criticized after the events of 11 September 2001.\textsuperscript{253} In recent years, the UN and its Member States have recommitted themselves, multilaterally and unilaterally, to combating terrorism, but many states, especially in Africa, lack the resources and technical capacity to fully implement UN mandates.\textsuperscript{254} Despite the increased efforts to combat terrorism, most of the international instruments addressing the issue are still not universally ratified.\textsuperscript{255}

One of the most important contributions to the UN’s counter-terrorism regime is the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy (A/RES/60/288), which was unanimously adopted by the GA in 2006.\textsuperscript{256} The UN Strategy was created to address the recommendations of the 2005 High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, which called on the UN to create a global framework for combating terrorism.\textsuperscript{257} The Strategy contains four pillars: “addressing conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism; preventing and combating terrorism; building the capacity of Member States to prevent and combat terrorism and to strengthen the role of the United Nations system in that regard; and preserving respect for human rights and the rule of the law while combating terrorism.”\textsuperscript{258} The Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy guides the UN’s system-wide approach to counter-terrorism.\textsuperscript{259}

\textit{The African Union}

The African Union (AU), formerly known as the Organization for African Unity (OAU), created its own framework to countering terrorism in addition to working with the UN. The AU built upon the OAU’s existing counter-terrorism framework, including the \textit{1992 Resolution on the Strengthening of Cooperation and Coordination among African States} and the \textit{OAU Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Terrorism} (1999), adopted in response

\textsuperscript{243} United Nations, \textit{United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: International Legal Instruments}.
\textsuperscript{244} Charter of the United Nations, 26 June 1945.
\textsuperscript{245} Charter of the United Nations, 26 June 1945.
\textsuperscript{246} United Nations, \textit{United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: International Legal Instruments}.
\textsuperscript{248} United Nations, \textit{United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: International Legal Instruments}.
\textsuperscript{249} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{250} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{251} UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa, \textit{Africa and International Counterterrorism Imperatives}, 2010, p. 4.
\textsuperscript{252} Ibid., p. 52.
\textsuperscript{253} Ibid., p. 9.
\textsuperscript{254} Ibid., pp. 4-5.
\textsuperscript{255} Ibid., p. 20, 27.
\textsuperscript{256} UN General Assembly, \textit{The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy (A/RES/60/288)}, 2006.
to the bombings in Kenya and Tanzania perpetrated by Al-Qaida in 1998.\textsuperscript{260} The AU also rejected terrorism in all forms in the Dakar Declaration Against Terrorism in 2001.\textsuperscript{261} In 2002, the AU adopted the AU Plan of Action to provide a “roadmap” for African states to implement the mandates of the OAU Convention and relevant SC resolutions.\textsuperscript{262} Finally, in 2004, the Protocol to the OAU Convention gave the AU Peace and Security Council responsibility for coordinating the implementation of regional and UN counter-terrorism mandates.\textsuperscript{263} The Protocol also created the African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism (ACSRT), which functions as the operational arm of the African Union’s counter-terrorism regime.\textsuperscript{264} The ACSRT is responsible for working directly with AU Member States on capacity-building measures.\textsuperscript{265} For instance, the ACSRT, the AU Peace and Security Department, and the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) recently collaborated to create the “African Model Law for Combating Terrorist Financing.”\textsuperscript{266} A model law is a tool that helps states write or amend national laws that comply with international treaty obligations, in this case, preventing the financing of terror groups.\textsuperscript{267} Under this initiative, the ACSRT will assist AU Member States in drafting legislation based on the model law.\textsuperscript{268}

The United Nations considers cooperation with regional and subregional bodies essential to implementing its counter-terrorism strategy in Africa.\textsuperscript{269} Since 2007, the Security Council and the AU Peace and Security Council have met annually to discuss joint areas of concern and increase cooperation between the two bodies.\textsuperscript{270} At their most recent meeting on 6 June 2014, the councils discussed the situations in Somalia and Mali, among other topics.\textsuperscript{271}

\textit{Role of the International System}

As the primary organ charged with the maintenance of international peace and security, the Security Council issues mandates and technical measures to combat terrorism.\textsuperscript{272} Before 2001, the Council’s counter-terrorism agenda focused primarily on sanctioning Member States that sponsored terrorism, including Libya, Sudan, and Afghanistan.\textsuperscript{273} Security Council resolution 1267 (1999) established the Al-Qaida Sanctions Committee to oversee sanctions against the Taliban and later Al-Qaida.\textsuperscript{274} However, most of the Council’s counter-terrorism resolutions were not issued under Article VII of the \textit{Charter of the United Nations} (1945), therefore they are not legally binding and compliance is voluntary.\textsuperscript{275} The events of 11 September 2001 prompted a significant change in the way the SC addressed terrorism.\textsuperscript{276} On 28 September 2001, the Security Council passed resolution 1373, under Article VII of the UN Charter, requiring Member States to address gaps in the global counter-terrorism regime through enacting national legislation that criminalizes acts of terrorism and makes terrorism an extraditable offense, preventing its financing, and denying refuge to terrorist groups within their borders.\textsuperscript{277} In 2004, the Security Council adopted resolution 1535 which established the Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate in order to assist Member States with technical implementation of resolution 1373.\textsuperscript{278}


\textsuperscript{262} UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa, \textit{Africa and International Counterterrorism Imperatives}, 2010, p. 31.


\textsuperscript{264} UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa, \textit{Africa and International Counterterrorism Imperatives}, 2010, p. 33.


\textsuperscript{266} UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa, \textit{Africa and International Counterterrorism Imperatives}, 2010, p. 33.

\textsuperscript{267} UN Office on Drugs and Crime, \textit{Model Laws and Treaties}, 2014.

\textsuperscript{268} UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa, \textit{Africa and International Counterterrorism Imperatives}, 2010, p. 33.

\textsuperscript{269} UN Security Council, \textit{Peace and security in Africa (S/PRST/2013/5)}, 2013, p. 4.


\textsuperscript{273} United Nations, \textit{United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: Security Council Actions to Counter Terrorism}.

\textsuperscript{274} UN Security Council, \textit{Security Council Committee pursuant to resolutions 1267 (1999) and 1989 (2011) concerning Al-Qaida and associated individuals and entities: General Information on the Work of the Committee}.


\textsuperscript{276} UN CTC, \textit{UN Security Council Counter-Terrorism Committee Meets on the Occasion of the 13th Anniversary of 9/11}, 2014.


\textsuperscript{278} United Nations, \textit{United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: Security Council Actions to Counter Terrorism}. 


In resolution 2122 (2013), the Council called for the integration of gender and consideration of the role of women across its thematic work on counter-terrorism, building on the normative framework of the women, peace and security agenda, as established in resolution 1325 (2000). The Council explicitly committed in resolution 2122 to mainstream a gender perspective to areas such as peacebuilding, the rule of law, peace and security in Africa, and addressing threats to international peace and security, among others. In this regard, the Council has increasingly considered both the impact of extremism and terrorism on women, as well as ways to ensure responses to counter extremism and terrorism, both promote the role of women, as well as adopt a gender perspective.

On 13 May 2013, the SC held an open debate on the challenges of combating terrorism in Africa. Soon after, the Council published a Presidential Statement, which expressed concern over increased violence caused by terrorism in Africa and threatened to sanction groups and individuals who were associated with African extremist groups, including Al-Qaida in Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), the Movement for Unity and Jihad (MUJAO), and Ansar Eddine. At the Council’s request, in January 2014, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon issued a report on “the Work of the United Nations to help States and subregional and regional entities in Africa in fighting terrorism” (S/2014/9). The report noted with concern factors unique to Africa that create conditions conducive to extremism, including porous borders, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, transnational crime, social exclusion, and a lack of good governance, and recommended increased efforts in building the rule of law and empowering women and young people.

Due to the strong relationship between development and security, many UN bodies have important roles to play in the fight against terrorism. The GA plays an important role as a norm-setting body. The GA first addressed terrorism in 1972 with the adoption of resolution 3034 (XXVII) on “measures to prevent terrorism.” In subsequent years, the GA adopted the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons (1973) and the International Convention against the Taking of Hostages (1979). In the 1990s, the GA began to consider issues related to terrorism on a more regular basis, and created, the Ad Hoc Committee on Terrorism in 1996. The Ad Hoc Committee regularly works with the Sixth Committee, which considers legal questions before the Assembly, to strengthen international legal norms against terrorism. The GA also continues to support the implementation of the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy through periodic reviews, the most recent of which was conducted in 2012.

Many other UN entities, such as the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF), contribute to the implementation of Security Council counter-terrorism mandates by providing technical assistance to Member States. UNODC is an important partner in combating transnational crime, with which terrorism is inextricably linked, because of its mandate to provide technical assistance to Member States to combat drugs, crime, and terrorism. The body performs on the ground capacity-building programs that assist Member States with the implementation of international legal instruments against terrorism, train criminal justice officials, and counter terrorist financing. CTITF, created by the Secretary-General in 2005, implements the UN’s system-wide counter-terrorism efforts and provides assistance to all Member States. Other UN bodies that regularly work to eradicate terrorism and address the root causes of extremism and terrorism.

280 Ibid., p. 4.
282 UN Security Council, Peace and security in Africa (S/PRST/2013/5), 2013, p. 3.
284 Ibid., p. 22.
286 United Nations, United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism.
287 United Nations, United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: General Assembly Actions to Counter Terrorism.
288 Ibid.
289 Ibid.
290 United Nations, United Nations Action to Counter Terrorism: General Assembly Actions to Counter Terrorism.
293 UN Office on Drugs and Crime, Mandate of the Terrorism Prevention Branch, 2014.
294 Ibid.
295 United Nations, Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF).
radicalization include the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), the UN Development Programme (UNDP), and the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).\(^{296}\)

Regional economic committees (RECs) are also important partners in the fight against terrorism in Africa.\(^{297}\) Their primary purpose is to facilitate trade within their respective regions, yet several have recognized the important link between security, development, and economic growth and have created counter-terrorism programs as a result.\(^{298}\) The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has been one of the most active counter-terrorism programs of the RECs.\(^{299}\) ECOWAS regularly works with UNDP to address both traditional security concerns and other conditions conducive to terrorism in the region.\(^{300}\) In addition to ECOWAS, the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), a REC composed of East African states, launched the IGAD Capacity-Building Program against Terrorism in 2006 to assist Member States building counter-terrorism capacities and facilitate regional security.\(^{301}\) However, ECOWAS and IGAD are the only two of the eight African RECs with formal counter-terrorism capacity-building programs.\(^{302}\) Most RECs, and the African Union itself, are significantly under-resourced and do not possess the manpower or the technical capacity to implement their own counter-terrorism measures.\(^{303}\)

**Terrorism in Africa**

In contrast to the US and European approach to countering terrorism, which, in the aftermath of the events of 11 September 2001, focused primarily on hard security measures such as strengthening police and military capacities, the UN system is increasingly focusing on addressing conditions that allow terrorist groups to operate and recruit freely.\(^{304}\) Many of these root causes exist in Africa, including weak state structures, corruption and a lack of rule of law; porous borders; vast swaths of ungoverned territory and territory difficult to govern; and scarce economic opportunity, especially for young people.\(^{305}\) For instance, unsecured borders in southern Libya allowed small arms and light weapons to be transported to AQIM, who in turn carried out attacks across Mali, Niger, and Algeria.\(^{306}\) State corruption and persecution, whether real or perceived, is another aggravator that allows terrorist groups to thrive and recruit new members. In Nigeria, Boko Haram uses the Nigerian army’s heavy-handed tactics as evidence of supposed persecution of Muslim communities in the north of the country by national authorities.\(^{307}\) Additionally, the CTITF has concluded that terrorist groups in Africa have been particularly successful at exploiting and radicalizing groups that lack economic opportunities.\(^{308}\)

AQIM has especially benefited from the lack of border security in the Maghreb and Sahel regions.\(^{309}\) The group was founded during Algeria’s civil war in the 1990s in opposition to the secular government and eventually “rebranded” by aligning themselves with Al-Qaeda in 2006.\(^{310}\) The group’s goal is to overthrow the governments of Algeria, Libya, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, and Tunisia and impose sharia law.\(^{311}\) AQIM is financed through transnational crime including arms and drug smuggling and kidnapping for ransom.\(^{312}\) In 2012, a group of Tuaregs, a disaffected ethnic group seeking independence, seized control of a broad swath of territory in northern Mali.\(^{313}\) AQIM and allied

---


\(^{298}\) Ibid., p. 36.

\(^{299}\) Ibid., p. 37.

\(^{300}\) Ibid.

\(^{301}\) Ibid., p. 38.

\(^{302}\) Ibid., p. 37.

\(^{303}\) Ibid., p. 36.


\(^{313}\) Arieff, *Crisis in Mali,* 2013, p. 1.
terrorist groups MUJAO and Ansar Eddine initially fought with the Tuaregs against the Malian military but later discarded the alliance and took direct control of the captured territory. While in control, they carried out stonings and amputations as well as destroyed several UNESCO World Heritage Sites. In response to the dire security and humanitarian situation, the Security Council authorized the joint AU/ECOWAS African-led International Support Mission in Mali (AFISMA) to help Malian forces recapture the north. However, the Malian government invited French forces to intervene directly. While the combined French/Malian force was successful in recapturing the lost territory, violence continues and lasting peace has not been achieved. Further complications include the transition from a military coup to a democratically elected government in August 2014, pervasive corruption, drought, and a bleak economic forecast.

Boko Haram was founded in Nigeria in 2002 to protest pervasive inequality and corruption. Poverty rates in Nigeria fuel Boko Haram’s narrative of persecution. The group evolved into an internationally-recognized “terrorist” organization after continued violent clashes with state forces. Nowadays, Boko Haram aims to abolish the governmental power-sharing agreement between Christians and Muslims and establish an Islamic Nigeria ruled by sharia law. The group has escalated the number and scope of its assaults in recent years. Their tactics include attacks on schools, assassinations, burning of villages, suicide bombings, and abductions. In fact, the kidnapping of more than 200 schoolgirls in 2014 led the Security Council to add Boko Haram to the Al-Qaida Sanctions Committee list. Though their cause is local, Boko Haram has widened its sphere of influence by crossing the border into Cameroon as well as procuring training, arms, and funds from AQIM, MUJAO, Ansar Eddine, and Al-Shabab. The Nigerian government declared a state of emergency in 2013 and successfully pushed Boko Haram out of several northern cities, but attacks on rural areas continue unabated.

Al-Shabab is a major source of instability in Eastern Africa. It began as the hardline wing of a militant extremist group that rose to power during Somalia’s civil war in the 1990s. Al-Shabab is funded by illegal activities including piracy, state sponsorship, and extortion of local populations. The group benefits from Somalia’s lack of governance and uses the country as a training ground and base for terrorist attacks across the region, including the 1998 bombings in Kenya and Tanzania, and more recently, the 2013 attack in a Kenyan mall. It has also carried out attacks against neighboring states that have contributed to the AU Mission to Somalia (AMISOM). The group has strong ties to both Al-Qaida’s main branch and Al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula (AQAP) and has reportedly

315 Ibid.
317 Al Jazeera, French troops launch ground combat in Mali, 2013; Arieff, Crisis in Mali, 2013, p. 1.
321 Ibid.
322 Ibid.
326 UN Department of Public Information, Security Council Al-Qaida Sanctions Committee Adds Boko Haram to its Sanctions List, 2014.
331 Ibid.
trained fighters from all across Africa. While AMISOM has had some success, rebuilding state structures is essential to achieving long-term peace in Somalia.

Implementing the Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy in Africa

Much of the Security Council’s work to combat terrorism in Africa is focused on implementing the Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy. The Security Council’s Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) Executive Directorate, in partnership with the UNODC and CTITF, is responsible for assisting Member States with the Strategy’s implementation. The CTC Executive Directorate monitors and coordinates the implementation of Security Council counter-terrorism mandates, while the UNODC and CTITF provide Member States with direct technical assistance. The Strategy seeks to build Member States’ capacities to combat terrorism and diminish conditions that allow it to flourish while maintaining respect for human rights and the rule of law. The Secretary-General’s report (S/2014/9) identifies several areas in need of refocused attention, chief among them building criminal justice capacities of Member States, and increasing cooperation between states and the UN.

The criminal codes of many African states define terrorism as a domestic offense, which means that perpetrators cannot be extradited to face charges in other states. Others define terrorism very broadly, which increases the danger of state security forces improperly charging defendants with terrorism. The lack of an official UN definition of terrorism impedes states’ cross-border cooperation and information sharing. The Secretary-General’s report (S/2014/9) found that police, prosecutors, and judicial officials are in need of tailored training to detain and prosecute terrorists, as investigations were often “delinked from human rights considerations in comparison to regular criminal policing situations.” The Security Council recognized the link between the rule of law and terrorism in resolution 1624 (2005), which calls for the criminalization of incitement of terrorist acts and the denial of safe haven to those who are guilty of incitement. Addressing the rule of law is essential to combating terrorism as it helps African states build law enforcement capacities and decreases public perception of state corruption. It is also an important part of strengthening gender equality as called for in Security Council resolution 2122 (2013) on “women and peace and security.”

Another barrier to implementing the Strategy in Africa is the presence of both a communication and perception gap between African states and the UN. A report by the UN Office of the Special Advisor on Africa (OSAA) found that some Member States and regional institutions believe that there is a fundamental disconnect between their respective approaches to counter-terrorism. For instance, some developing Member States believe that the Security Council too often focuses on strengthening “hard” security measures such as military and police capabilities. Most African states believe that addressing the issues conducive to radicalization, or “soft” security, is a more effective approach to counter-terrorism. The report also found that the UN fails to fully appreciate how a lack of resources hampers Member States’ abilities to communicate effectively with the UN, let alone enact counter-

338 Ibid.
342 Ibid.
345 Ibid., p. 5.
348 Ibid., p. 48.
349 Ibid.
terrorism measures: “There is a presumption at UN Headquarters (UNHQ) that posting documents on the websites in New York should make them easily accessible to the national bureaucracies of African states and intergovernmental organizations.” However, many states do not have the capabilities to turn these prescriptions into policy. Participants at the CTITF’s Workshop on the Regional Implementation of the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy in Eastern Africa echoed the report’s findings, stating that a lack of awareness of available resources hampered efforts to implement UN counter-terrorism mandates in Africa. Similarly, the Security Council Report, an independent monitoring organization, noted that, despite good intentions, there remains a lack of follow-through after the joint annual meetings between the UN SC and the AU Peace and Security Council. Improved communication between African Member States and the United Nations is vital to implementing the Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy in the region.

Conclusion

Africa faces many challenges in combating terrorism beyond weak criminal justice systems and disagreement with United Nations’ policy. Traditional security competencies, such as border security and military capacity must be addressed to prevent the operation of terrorist groups such as AQIM, Boko Haram, and Al-Shabab. However, social measures like promoting education and reducing poverty and unemployment are also essential to addressing extremism. Terrorism, especially in Africa, will continue to proliferate if either security or development is neglected. The UN has the opportunity to significantly improve millions of lives by integrating both security and development goals in its approach to counter-terrorism. The Security Council has a unique authority to set mandates and compel Member States to take action. Only through strong leadership by the Security Council, the UN Secretariat, and Member States themselves can terrorism be eliminated in Africa.

Further Research

There are many questions to be addressed by delegates given the complexity of the topic. How should regional conditions shape the UN’s counter-terrorism efforts in Africa? How can the Security Council incorporate African perspectives into its counter-terrorism implementation efforts? How should the Council balance the need for both hard and soft security reforms? How can the Security Council use its mandate to prevent conflict to address conditions conducive to terrorism? How can the UN mainstream gender considerations throughout its counter-terrorism agenda? What actions can the Security Council take to hamper African terrorist groups’ ability to operate? How can communication between African states and relevant UN bodies be improved?

352 Ibid.
Annotated Bibliography

This document published by the Council on Foreign Relations is a detailed and easy-to-read introduction to Al-Shabab. The author describes the origins, tactics, and recent activities of the group. Masters details the actions taken by Kenya and Ethiopia to combat Al-Shabab’s influence, which is essential to understanding the terrorist group’s political motivations. It also contains links to more information.

This independent website is an excellent source of information on the activities of the UN Security Council. It publishes monthly summaries of the Council’s actions, in-depth reports on select issues, and a blog devoted to the daily activities of the Council. The blog, What’s in Blue, serves as a companion to the main site, and serves as an especially useful source for delegates to better understand the daily functioning of the Security Council beyond formal resolutions and press releases. This website is also a good source of information on how the Council is addressing peace and security in Africa and should be utilized extensively by all delegates.

This document examines the origins of Nigerian terrorist group Boko Haram. It describes the political motivations of the group and the underlying conditions, such as extreme poverty and a lack of economic opportunity that allow the group to recruit and operate. The authors describe how weak borders allow Boko Haram to operate across multiple states and in concert with other extremist groups like AQIM. The document is helpful in understanding the national and regional conditions that enable Boko Haram to perform attacks in Western Africa.

This handbook provides a detailed contextual analysis of the crisis in Mali by describing the interconnected destabilizing events, including a military coup, a rebellion by separatists, and violence carried out by extremist groups. It details the origins of each involved group and its impact on the crisis. It also contains a timeline of events and links to more information, all of which will prove very helpful to delegates seeking to understand the situation in Mali.

This website is an excellent starting point for delegates’ research. It briefly summarizes the UN’s efforts to combat terrorism, including actions of the Security Council, the GA, the Economic and Social Council, the CTITF, and the Secretary-General. It provides a broad analysis of the UN’s efforts to combat terrorism and describes the difference in approach from the early days of the organization to present day. It also contains links to all UN treaties, reports, and resolutions related to terrorism.

The UN Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF) determined that one of the greatest barriers to full implementation of the United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy is a lack of understanding of the Strategy by key government entities and civil society. In cooperation with the Government of Ethiopia, CTITF held a Regional Workshop for Member States of the Eastern African region to promote implementation of the Strategy. The Summary and Conclusions of this workshop contain practical steps to implementing the Strategy in Eastern
Delegates should also consult the summary and conclusions of similar workshops held by CTITF on implementing the Strategy in West and Southern Africa.

The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, adopted in 2006, represents the first time UN Member States agreed to a common approach to combating terrorism. The Plan of Action contains four pillars: addressing the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism; preventing and combating terrorism; building States’ capacity to prevent and combat terrorism and strengthening the role of the United Nations system, and; ensuring respect for human rights for all and the rule of law as the fundamental basis of the fight against terrorism. It is essential that delegates review the Strategy as it guides the counter-terrorism efforts of the entire UN system.

This expert paper is essential to understanding the UN’s efforts to combat terrorism in Africa. The report reviews the contributions to counter-terrorism made by the UN Security Council, General Assembly, UNODC, and the CTITF. It also describes the counter-terrorism efforts of the AU and several African regional economic committees (RECs). It discusses in detail how the UN’s counter-terrorism programs have evolved to reflect the relationship between development and security. Most importantly, the report identifies areas in which the UN’s efforts can improve.

This May 2013 Presidential Statement notes with concern the increased violence caused by terrorist groups in Africa. The statement describes the specific conditions that allow terrorism to spread, including porous borders, illegal arms trafficking, and a lack of economic opportunity. The document also contains brief descriptions of relevant Security Council resolutions, UN actions, and regional partnerships. This concise and up-to-date document is an essential read for delegates seeking to understand the Security Council’s actions to combat terrorism in Africa.

Commissioned by the Security Council in its May 2013 Presidential Statement on peace and security in Africa (S/PRST/2013/5), the Secretary-General’s report is an up-to-date review of the United Nations’ and other international bodies’ efforts to fight terrorism in Africa. This document describes the negative effects of terrorism on the development and socioeconomic wellbeing of African states, the efforts made by many UN bodies in capacity-building to prevent and address terrorism. Moreover, the report contains the Secretary-General’s recommendations for future areas of focus. This document is an excellent starting point for delegates’ research.

Bibliography


III. Maintenance of International Peace and Security: Security Sector Reform

“[A] professional and accountable security sector under the framework of the Rule of Law can strengthen public confidence in the State and provide the stability necessary for peacebuilding and development.”

Introduction

Since the end of World War II, the UN has worked to prevent the scourge of war, conflict, and armed violence that has ravaged all regions of the world. According to the Charter of the United Nations (1945), among the purposes of the United Nations (UN), the maintenance of international peace and security is listed first. One of the ways the UN has attempted to maintain international peace and security has been through the promotion of respect for the rule of law. The most significant and recent trend for the UN to promote respect for the rule of law has been through security sector reform.

In 1998, the concept of the security sector or security sector reform (SSR) was first referenced in a speech by the United Kingdom’s Secretary of State for International Development, Clare Short, reiterating a broader call “for a comprehensive and integrated approach to the security sector in development contexts.” Previously, the international community focused on improving security through direct aid to the state and military forces and did not focus on the governance and oversight of security institutions. Since the end of the Cold War, a transition towards a people-centered security approach has taken place with the goal of achieving human security.

In the Millennium Declaration (2000), the UN placed human security as the defining motive to ensure that people have a right to dignity and freedom from hunger, violence, oppression or injustice. The UN recognizes the State as the primary actor that should be supported by the UN in order to achieve these goals through prevention of conflict.

In 2006, the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations adopted a stance for the inclusion in peacekeeping operations of supporting the development of an effective, professional, and accountable security sector in order to foster sustainable peace and development. This topic covers a history of SSR in UN and some of the most important areas in SSR that the UN and other international organizations seek to improve at the national level in order to maintain international peace and security.

International and Regional Framework

Although there is no universal definition of the security sector, the Secretary-General of the UN has described many facets of the security sector. The security sector encompasses institutions such as the armed forces, police, intelligence agencies, and other security services. The security sector also includes governance and management institutions like civil management and oversight bodies; national security advisory bodies; the courts and judiciary; corrections systems; human rights commissions; other security firms including private security companies and militia groupings; civil society actors; non-governmental organizations (NGOs); and even the media. The security sector should be built around three key principles. First, a security sector is based on a legal framework for the

---

355 UN Department of Public Information, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon’s Statements, 2014.
360 Ibid.
361 Ibid.
legitimate and accountable use of force in line with international human rights norms. Second, the State implements security measures by governing and managing the agencies and institutions charged with various security duties. Third, the security sector is imbued with a culture of service that encourages unity, integrity, discipline, impartiality and respect for human rights.

The definition of security sector reform is not considered universal. The Secretary-General has, however, begun defining the general principles of security sector reform. The most important principle is that any security sector reform process should begin with the State establishing strong national ownership so as to be sensitive to the particular needs of the country. Described by the Secretary-General, security sector reform is “a process of assessment, review and implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation led by national authorities that has at its goal the enhancement of effective and accountable security for the State and its peoples without discrimination and with full respect for human rights and the rule of law.” This definition goes beyond military and police and encompasses an overarching view of security institutions that are effective, accountable and responsive to citizen concerns.

While SSR has been a success in many countries, the political context has proven vital in determining long-term, favorable results for reform efforts. In order to create improved trust between citizens and State security institutions, SSR must be closely integrated with post-conflict peace processes such as truth and reconciliation or transitional justice. In order to ensure that SSR is streamlined into these transformative processes, the host government’s leadership is necessary and crucial. National ownership over such processes will help shape the relationship between the citizens and State security institutions while also improving the provision, quality, and governance of these institutions.

Regionally, there have been efforts to establish guidelines for SSR projects. Many countries, particularly those located in North America and Europe, have advocated for strengthening security governance and creating professional security personnel as shown in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) “Handbook on Security Sector Reform.” A clear institutional framework is stressed for the synchronization of security and development policies. Because there is a limited pool of security officers from donor governments to support SSR missions, other organizations such as non-governmental organizations, consultants, and even private military and security companies are necessary provide the technical expertise needed for training security personnel. Other regions have focused on adapting SSR programs to national interests.

SSR programs must be based in the unique context of the national government. Although most donors are foreign actors, their support must not deviate from the national government’s plan for SSR. As evidenced in the African Union’s Policy Framework on Security Sector Reform, this includes tailoring projects according to the unique history and culture, informal, customary, and traditional security providers within the country. Other concerns within the international community have included gender equality and women’s empowerment in any SSR program.

--

368 Ibid.
369 Ibid.
370 Ibid.
371 Ibid.
372 Ibid.
374 Ibid.
375 Ibid.
376 Ibid.
378 Ibid.
379 Ibid.
381 Ibid.
The necessity for women’s participation in the peacebuilding process has been firmly established through Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) on “Women and Peace and Security,” as well as subsequent resolutions. Resolution 1325 (2000) stressed that women needed an increased representation in conflict prevention and management as a means to import gender perspectives in the decision-making process. This can be supported in SSR projects by addressing cultural norms that may prevent women from participating and rising through the ranks in security sector institutions. One of the most important methods for making a gender-responsive security sector is by simply increasing the number of women serving in the security sector. Addressing these and other particular concerns will lead to a more effective and professional security sector.

Equal and effective participation of women across all stages and levels SSR is crucial to the prevention and mitigation of conflict. Gender-sensitive policies in the security sector will help to create more adept security services and reduce instances of gender-based violence committed by the security sector and within communities. In addition to Resolution 1325 (2000), the Security Council has also stressed addressing sexual violence in armed conflict at all levels, including SSR, by preventing sexual violence, providing assistance to victims, and holding perpetrators criminally accountable as shown in Resolution 1820 (2009) and Resolution 1888 (2009).

Role of the International System

In 2007, the Security Council released a Presidential Statement acknowledging the growing significance of SSR as a crucial factor in all peace operations. In a statement, the Security Council called for a comprehensive report to be prepared by the Secretary-General on UN approaches to SSR. This report would examine the implementation of SSR in peacebuilding operations, lessons learned in previous undertakings, and the role and responsibilities of UN agencies and their coordination with national and international actors.

Security Council support for SSR

As displayed through the actions of the Security Council, SSR is becoming a more significant topic in the international agenda. An important moment took place in April 2014 as the Security Council passed its first resolution on SSR, Resolution 2151 (2014). At a time when the demand for SSR is at an all-time high, Resolution 2151 (2014) stresses the importance of having national governments direct their own SSR processes. One of the foremost methods for the UN to support national ownership of these processes is by including the perspectives of host countries in the mandates of UN peacebuilding missions. In tandem with national ownership, reform of local security institutions, such as police, corrections, and military, must be part of a larger initiative seeking to enhance the overall governance and capacity of all security institutions. The UN was noted as a leader among international actors in facilitating and coordinating sector-wide reforms of security architectures that address strategic governance, management, and oversight aspects. In line with Chapter VII of the United Nations Charter,

384 Ibid., p. 40.
389 Ibid.
390 Ibid.
392 Ibid.
393 Ibid.
394 Ibid.
partnerships with regional and subregional organizations are encouraged to serve in a multitude of capacities ranging from financial assistance to technical support through South-South cooperation.\footnote{UN Security Council, \textit{The maintenance of international peace and security: Security sector reform: challenges and opportunities (S/RES/2151 (2014))}, 2014.}

Resolution 2151 (2014) also stressed the inclusion of diverse groups in SSR agendas are necessary to address the needs of the people. Protection of children was highlighted through the development standard operating procedures on child protection in military training.\footnote{Ibid.} Other measures to prevent abuses against children cited mechanisms for preventing recruitment of child soldiers, child protection training for the military, and preventing attacks on school and hospitals.\footnote{Ibid.} The security sector must abide by international law including the Convention on the Rights of the Child and its Optional Protocols (1989).\footnote{Ibid.}

\textbf{Strengthening UN support for SSR}

The Secretary-General’s report, \textit{Securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in support security sector reform} (A/62/659), was released in 2008 highlighting the nature of the UN’s activities thus far and areas for increased involvement. Although the UN had mandated security sector reform be included in many prior peacekeeping operations, it was found that successful SSR is only capable through a firm national commitment, coordination among national actors, and an inclusive process where national and local leaders, prominent civil society leaders, and minorities were engaged.\footnote{UN General Assembly, \textit{Securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in supporting security sector reform, Report of the Secretary-General (A/62/659)}, 2008.} This, especially, includes the streamlining of gender perspectives into policies to build non-discriminatory security institutions that reflect local populations and responsive to the security needs of the people.\footnote{Ibid.} More attention must also be afforded to civilian governance and management institutions that supervise the security sector.\footnote{Ibid.} Along with civil society organizations and the media, civilian oversight will lead to a more effective and responsible security sector in the long-term.\footnote{Ibid.} The UN is well-positioned to provide much support and leadership for SSR processes.

Recently, the UN has completed an overview of the intergovernmental organization’s support for SSR. In 2013, the Secretary-General released his report, “Securing States and societies: strengthening the United Nations comprehensive support to security sector reform” (A/67/970), which is only the second effort in reviewing and recommending improved system-wide coherence and coordination of SSR and SSR-related projects.\footnote{UN General Assembly, \textit{Securing States and societies: strengthening the United Nations comprehensive support to security sector reform: Report of the Secretary-General (A/67/970)}, 2013.} The report reiterated the core principle of SSR efforts is the establishment of human security by stating that “when populations are not secure, neither is the state.”\footnote{Ibid.} Although significant progress had been made the UN since the Secretary-General’s first report on SSR, many challenges still remained serving as obstacles to successful SSR programs.

At the onset, the political environment of the host country may determine whether attempts to reform the security sector are successful or not.\footnote{Ibid.} In order for any SSR program to be successful, broader efforts to resolve political disputes is necessary, which may also include facilitating national dialogues, truth and reconciliation processes, or transitional justice.\footnote{Ibid.} The UN also needs to cast a wider net by engaging more than just the federal government if SSR processes are going to be truly inclusive of civil society, women, and other diverse groups.\footnote{Ibid.} However, other challenges evidence the growing demand for support in several SSR processes.\footnote{Ibid.} The Special Committee on
Peacekeeping Operations and the Security Council have both noted the increase in requests and the resulting mandates for SSR in peacekeeping and special political missions.\footnote{UN Security Council, \textit{Statement by the President of the Security Council (S/PRST/2011/19)}, 2011; UN General Assembly, \textit{Report of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations and its Working Group (A/66/19)}, 2012.}

Inclusion in SSR agendas for diverse groups is only the beginning for creating trust between citizens and security institutions.\footnote{UN General Assembly, \textit{Securing States and societies: strengthening the United Nations comprehensive support to security sector reform: Report of the Secretary-General (A/67/970)}, 2013.} Security institutions must maintain professionalism and accountability during the delivery of security services.\footnote{Ibid.} The improvement of public trust and addressing the delivery of security services may be accomplished through initiatives such as community-oriented policing, which enhances the protection of civilians.\footnote{Ibid.} Strengthening civilian protection measures and adequate training of security personnel may also be accomplished through participation of women.

\textit{Inter-Agency Security Sector Reform Task Force}
Prior to 2007, the UN lacked system-wide coherence on principles and standards for SSR efforts. With no single institution coordinating UN SSR policies, a forum was built for discussions regarding any and all SSR projects and a Security Sector Reform Unit was established to formulate common principles and standards for SSR. To coordinate all the relevant stakeholders involved in SSR, the Inter-Agency Security Sector Reform Task Force (IASSRTF) was created in 2007.\footnote{UN General Assembly, \textit{Report of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations and its Working Group (A/61/19/Rev. 1)}, 2007.} The Secretary-General brought together seven agencies to enable UN system-wide coherence to deliver efficient and effective support for SSR efforts: the Department of Political Affairs (DPA), the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), the Office of High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), the Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Development Fund for Women (now part of UN Women), and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).\footnote{Ibid.} Many other UN bodies and agencies have joined the IASSRTF since its creation, doubling its membership to 14.\footnote{Ibid.} While the DPKO and the UNDP serve as co-chairs of the IASSRTF, the SSR Unit serves as the secretariat, organizes meetings, providing SSR-specific policy guidance and other daily tasks.\footnote{Ibid.}

The Security Sector Reform Unit was established based on the decision of the Secretary-General’s Policy Committee.\footnote{UN General Assembly, \textit{Securing States and societies: strengthening the United Nations comprehensive support to security sector reform: Report of the Secretary-General (A/67/970)}, 2013.} Located within the DPKO, the SSR Unit formulates common principles and standards for SSR, as well as providing personnel in the field with guidance on strategies and technical advice.\footnote{Ibid.} After much discussion with the other agencies in the IASSRTF, the first edition of the Integrated Technical Guidance Notes was released.\footnote{Ibid.} These notes are the first compilation of the principles and standards for efforts where the UN has a comparative advantage over other international actors in assisting national governments such as gender-sensitive SSR, peace processes, and democratic governance of the security sector.\footnote{Ibid.} Establishment of a common policy on SSR has been heralded as a momentous achievement for the UN and SSR.\footnote{Ibid.}

\textit{Department of Peacekeeping Operations}
Through its SSR Unit, the DPKO serves as the lead UN agency for SSR, as well as the point-of-contact for other national and international partners on SSR.\footnote{United Nations, \textit{Security Sector Reform – DPKO}, 2009.} The SSR Unit is located within DPKO’s Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions and works on a wide range of areas that include “police, justice, corrections, mine action, disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of ex-combatants.” Through the SSR Unit, DPKO has been able to...
expand its peacekeeping operations to include assistance on national security sector development plans and strategies, legislation, national debates regarding security, management and supervision, and national coordination of agencies. This has coincided with the growth of SSR inclusion in peacekeeping mandates from only 14 in 2008 to 37 in 2012. As a result, the number of dedicated SSR teams in peacekeeping operations, in the same time period, expanded from only three to eleven. As SSR continues to gain significance in the international agenda, and the demand grows for SSR processes, DPKO will continue to find ways to integrate SSR into peacekeeping and peacebuilding operations.

**United Nations Development Programme**

Under UNDP, the Rule of Law, Justice and Security Unit and the Access to Justice and Rule of Law Team work together on all SSR-related projects that UNDP is tasked with. With the help of these two sub-agencies, UNDP is able to pull from its vast experiences in many areas to support SSR efforts, such as corrections, small arms control, and gender awareness. UNDP has also provided political, as well as technical, assistance to several developing countries including the development of national frameworks and priority plans on SSR.

Much of the work of UNDP in supporting SSR focuses on building the capacity of governments to develop sustainable justice and security frameworks. For instance, in Somalia and Sudan, UNDP has aided programs implementing comprehensive rule of law reforms strengthening the capacity of the justice, judicial, and law enforcement institutions, as well as encouraging the promotion of access to justice. UNDP has also worked to facilitate debates at the national level on issues regarding governmental supervision of the security sector by parliaments, civil society, and the media in both Latin America and Central Asia. National actors have been assisted by UNDP in Haiti, Kosovo, and Timor-Leste in the structure and facilitation of policies to effectively manage and oversee the police and the judiciary.

**Civil Society**

Civil society is able to reinforce various roles and functions that at times public institutions are unable to fulfill. Often, governments are hesitant to include the role of civil society in the reform of the military and defense sectors as it is not always clear how civil society contributes to SSR. Broadly, civil society serves as an informal oversight mechanism on the security sector by increasing transparency by informing and educating the public on the conduct of security institutions, analyzing security policies and practices, and supporting the developing of policies to better protect citizens.

In the Secretary-General’s 2008 report on SSR (A/62/659), the UN supported the inclusion of civil society in SSR and noted that civil society organizations are a critical factor in strengthening the effectiveness of governance and oversight mechanisms of the security sector. For instance, in Nepal, OHCHR helped a civil society network monitor security personnel during protests, which led to the formulation of recommendations based on their observations. In other instances, community-based women’s organizations have facilitated discussions among communities and security actors to highlight threats to citizen safety and develop appropriate responses.

---

427 Ibid.
428 Ibid.
429 Ibid.
431 Ibid.
432 Ibid.
433 Ibid.
434 Ibid.
436 Ibid.
438 Ibid.
439 Ibid.
September 2014, the International Committee of the Red Cross and Red Crescent (ICRC) hosted a workshop for senior officials on International Rules Governing Military Operations in Xi’an, China. This workshop provided training for senior military officers from more than 50 different military organizations on how to better comply with international humanitarian law in combat and law enforcement operations. Civil society can serve as unique partners in the development of SSR.

**SSR Inclusion in Peacekeeping Operations**

Peacekeeping operations are uniquely situated for the inclusion of SSR processes. Peacekeeping operations are mostly deployed once there is a peace agreement between the parties in conflict, which fosters an amenable environment for SSR. The agreement might, in some cases, spell out specific security sector reforms which must take place as part of the cessation of hostilities, or security sector reform might be considered as part of the mandate of the peacekeeping operation and a component of broader peacebuilding efforts. Comprehensive peacebuilding efforts, particularly those that include SSR, contribute to sustainable peace, which can drastically improve the rate of economic growth and lead to long-term sustainable development. With the help of SSR, national governments are able to develop "responsive, effective and accountable security and justice institutions … and prevent a slide back into conflict."

**Military**

Typically, UN peacekeeping operations are deployed in countries where the national security capacity has deteriorated or even absent in some regions. In rare occasions on past peacekeeping operations, UN peacekeepers and others have replaced national security authorities in order to provide security and foster the establishment of local institutions. Since 1989, security sector reform has been a part of peacekeeping operations in developing effective and efficient military and defense sectors under the leadership of civilian governments.

Development of an effective military institution is crucial to national defense and the development of the country, but it must remain under the civilian control of a democratic society and respond to legitimate demands of the people. In order to have an effective military, soldiers must have proper training and development, as well as career transition and resettlement plans for when soldiers leave the armed forces. Besides defending from armed aggression, the military is also a key actor in responding to humanitarian emergencies, providing internal security and influencing security reform in other institutions such as police and other emergency services. Professional and properly trained soldiers are also able to prevent human rights abuses. As an example, the OHCHR monitored the implementation of internal control measures by Colombian defense forces for the preventing human rights violations during the internal armed conflict.

**Police Reform**

Although the military may influence the police, there needs to be adequate supervision to ensure that there are no security gaps between the military and police and no overlaps in responsibility. A properly trained police sector may help improve respect for human rights, upholding the rule of law, and provide security to communities and

---

441 Ibid.
443 Ibid.
444 Ibid.
446 Ibid.
447 Ibid.
449 Ibid.
450 Ibid.
452 Ibid.
However, human rights abuses and corruption frequently occur within police forces. Strong government and civilian supervisory institutions are vital to ensure that the public trust in police forces is maintained.

As part of UN peacekeeping operations, UN Police are deployed to serve as interim law enforcement and foster the development of state police and law enforcement institutions. According to the Secretary-General, more than 11,000 UN Police are deployed around the world. UN Police are often deployed alongside the national police force to facilitate professional development and adequate training of police officers, such as can be seen in the co-location of CIVPOL along SWAPOL in Namibia. In Haiti, the UN peacekeeping mission aided in a joint assessment of the national police force that led to a strategic policing plan for increasing security at UN camps for internally displaced people. In Comoros, the Office for Disarmament Affairs facilitated the creation of a code of conduct for police officers on the use of force and firearms, as well as a national strategic policing plan.

**Strengthening the Rule of Law**

The concept of the “rule of law” is defined by the United Nations as “a principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards.” One of the most vital aspects to strengthening the rule of law is an effective civilian governance and oversight of security institutions. Strong leadership from the national government is necessary for proper management and establishment of norms within the country on policies and procedures, which enables economic growth.

Strengthening the rule of law through reformed governance and oversight can develop the necessary institutional infrastructure that fosters durable and sustainable peace. In 2013, the Security Council underlined the importance of critical rule of law priorities and provided strategies to address the needs of judicial institutions, law enforcement and corrections systems in Resolution 2086 (2013). Other SSR projects may also be necessary for enhancing respect for the rule of law, such as legal empowerment of the poor and other vulnerable groups, increasing access to justice, helping communities deal with the atrocities from conflict through truth and reconciliation commissions, and prosecuting conflict-related crimes. The UN has coordinated with both Liberia and Guinea-Bissau to develop legal structures that facilitate the monitoring of intelligence agencies by the legislature. Although the national government is the leader in strengthening the rule of law, non-state actors like civil society organizations and the media can provide significant assistance in establishing the norms necessary for good governance to take hold.

**UN’s first attempts at SSR**

---

455 Ibid., p. 124.
456 Ibid.
461 Ibid.
464 Ibid.
465 Ibid.
The first peacekeeping operation to address the security sector was in Namibia in 1989. Mandated with monitoring the South West Africa Police (SWAPOL), the UN Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG) included a civilian police (CIVPOL) component that was tasked with accompanying SWAPOL on patrols and assuring that elections were conducted freely and fairly without intimidation.470 CIVPOL was able to monitor SWAPOL’s activities and ensured that the police forces maintained law and order as an efficient, professional, and impartial force.471 CIVPOL had a limited amount of authority to influence SWAPOL, but UNTAG was able to assure that the political process was unhindered.472 After elections, UNTAG also assisted in establishing a new, integrated Namibian military force comprising members from all parties to the conflict.473 UNTAG’s efforts to promote a more effective and accountable security sector led to the successful independence of Namibia.

**Inclusive Security Sector Reform**

**Women**

As noted by the Security Council in Resolution 2151 (2014), women play an important role in the prevention and resolution of conflict and peacebuilding.474 As a principle of SSR, improving respect for human rights and upholding the rule of law cannot be achieved without being able to handle post-conflict security issues such as gender and sexual violence, sexual exploitation, human trafficking, and gender discrimination.475 Women must have equal and effective participation in justice and security institutions.476

The Security Council has highlighted the importance of including women in the security sector throughout its resolutions on “Women, Peace and Security,” including Resolution 1960 (2010).477 This resolution emphasized that women needed to constitute a greater percentage of military and police personnel in peacekeeping operations.478 Promotion of gender balance, as well as equal and effective participation of women in SSR, is necessary for an effective and accountable security sector.479 The inclusion of women must also be met with adequate training for military and police personnel on preventing sexual and gender-based violence. Often, the security sector is plagued with perpetrators of sexual violence and lack female security personnel and adequately trained security personnel for gender-sensitive cultures and other various scenarios.480 When justice and security institutions are inclusive of women and also address gender perspectives, thus reflecting the composition and concerns of its entire population, peace is more likely achievable and sustainable due to increased responsiveness to the different needs and priorities of communities.481

Including gender strategies in SSR plans can lead to peace and security dividends that may not be recognized as valuable at the outset of peacebuilding efforts. Higher rates of participation in police forces by women have been shown to correlate with higher rates of reported sexual assault.482 A security sector recognized for the ability to respond to security threats can lead to the acceptance of and participation by minority groups in the security sector to resolve other security needs.483 Women’s participation in national legislatures, such as South Africa’s Multiparty Women’s Caucus and Colombia’s bicameral Bancada de Mujeres, help promote gender-sensitive policies in the security sector.484 A more recent and disturbing trend has been the rise of sexual violence used as a “tactic of warfare,” which needs to be countered with both a political and judicial response according to the Inter-agency SSR

---

471 Ibid.
472 Ibid.
473 Ibid.
478 Ibid.
481 Ibid.
482 Ibid., p. 38.
483 Ibid.
484 Ibid., p. 48.
Task Force.\textsuperscript{485} One method to combat sexual violence may be to have the Team of Experts on Rule of Law and Sexual Violence in Conflict, which was created by Resolution 1888 (2009), to promote national efforts in investigating and prosecuting cases of sexual violence, as was done in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.\textsuperscript{486} Although gender mainstreaming of SSR will not solve all gender issues, it is a start to creating an environment conducive to responding to the unique security needs of women, girls, men, and boys.\textsuperscript{487}

Children

Another marginalized group that needs to be included in SSR programs is children. Although efforts to prevent the recruitment of children into armed forces has gained international attention, it is equally important to incorporate children’s rights and child protection into national legal frameworks through SSR. As a member of the IASSRTF, the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) works to implement the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and other international standards in SSR processes.\textsuperscript{488} UNICEF has assisted many peacebuilding operations with support for inclusion of child rights provisions into national constitutions, which ensures that children will be part of security processes long after SSR has concluded.\textsuperscript{489} While it may be an afterthought in developing countries, the establishment of juvenile justice systems fosters the reintegration of children into society, especially if the youth were forced to become soldiers.\textsuperscript{490} In 2010, Sierra Leone finished constructing a new courthouse with a courtroom specially designed for children and their special circumstances.\textsuperscript{491} Hybrid courts have also been proposed as a means to address the unique challenges children face in post-conflict environments.\textsuperscript{492} Differentiation must be made among the many situations children experience in post-conflict situations such as witnesses to crimes, victims, and even perpetrators of crimes.\textsuperscript{493} Hybrid courts, along with child rights mechanisms, allows for a more effective and quicker resolution of justice for children.\textsuperscript{494} This will enable children to seek medical care, resume education, and rejoin society in a manner conducive to sustainable peace.

Conclusion

As the first role of the UN Security Council, the maintenance of international peace and security will remain at the forefront of its agenda. Security Sector reform has gained widespread recognition as an effective tool for preventing and mitigating outbreaks of armed conflict that have plagued the world for many years. Not every SSR program has been considered a success, but much progress has been made in recent years since the Security Council has highlighted the importance of SSR in peacebuilding. Still, much remains to be learned on how to implement SSR most effectively for the development of a reliable, accountable, and transparent security sector responsive to the needs of the people. Women and children must participate in the reform of security institutions at all levels. While traditionally reform has focused on the military and police, greater focus must be placed on civil society and civilian governance and management in order to holistically develop a security sector able to sustain peace in the long-term. Above all, SSR should insert the principle of the rule of law into a society at its core for any reforms to take root. The role of the UN and the Security Council will continue to shape SSR at the international, regional, and national levels.

Further Research

In preparation, delegate should consider the role of the UN Security Council in SSR and if their own country has addressed security sector reform. Delegates should also consider the following: How can the international community help States improve their legal framework governing security institutions and the rights of the people? Are women participating in the security sector equally and effectively the same as men? Are diverse groups like women, children, and minorities having their security needs met by the security sector? Bearing in mind that every society has its own marginalized populations, delegates should consider what obstacles remain preventing the security needs of certain populations from being addressed? Delegates should also be wary of the logistical support

\textsuperscript{486} Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Sexual Violence in Conflict, Team of Experts, 2014.
\textsuperscript{489} UN Security Council, Children and Armed Conflict (S/RES/1612 (2005)), 2005.
\textsuperscript{490} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{491} Samba, In Sierra Leone, Judiciary Commissions Two New Courts, 2010.
\textsuperscript{492} Nosworthy, Children and Security Sector Reform in Post-Conflict Peace-Building, 2010, p. 17.
\textsuperscript{493} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{494} Ibid.
States need in order to accomplish these goals. Finally, delegates should look into engaging possible partners such as regional organizations in national SSR projects or obtaining greater policy guidance and expertise from UN agencies.
Annotated Bibliography


As the African Union’s first Policy Framework on Security Sector Reform, many unique perspectives on SSR are provided that are not considered by the West. These perspectives will likely become part of future national SSR programs as Africa continues to develop its security sector. As SSR becomes more significant, African concerns on security may become more crucial concerns for other countries. Many African priorities for SSR may become accepted among developing countries and thus useful in your research.


Although SSR has been part of the international agenda for some time, only recently has gender gained recognition as a necessary component of such processes. Ensuring the security of women is crucial for any security sector to be considered an adequate and effective provider of security. This report covers a two-day conference held in Canada examining the role of gender awareness in SSR and is useful in highlighting gender-sensitive policies for SSR.


Just as it is named, this beginner’s guide provides a great introduction into SSR and the significance of SSR processes for a developing country. Including a basic introduction into the multiple areas of security sector reform, this guide breaks down the fundamentals and explains the necessities for a country and what can go wrong if certain institutions fail to maintain security. This guide is crucial for those looking to thoroughly understand the topic area.


This document provides the IASSRTF’s overview of the cross-cutting issues encountered by SSR processes. Issues ranging from gender to democratic governance and national ownership to developing a national security policy. Although there are many other notes, this one in particular covers many best practices that have been developed over many years through the work of the UN’s agencies and peacekeeping missions.


The OECD’s Handbook is the first holistic guide to one specific SSR process encompassing all of the possible routes and topic areas to consider. Many international donors are part of the OECD and, often times, look for SSR programs that follow the guidelines outlined in the Handbook. Specific information on the role of security institutions and security needs are addressed that may be of concern to your delegation, especially those in the West.


This e-book compiles a great number of essays on the security sector reform agenda and the possibilities of future issues in SSR. Leading international scholars provide an in-depth look on what has worked and what has not in developing a reliable state security architecture. This is a great source for examining theories of SSR that have been proposed and the realities of SSR in practice. With such a broad look at SSR, this source will be helpful setting a position on the topic.

This Secretary-General report is the most recent comprehensive review of SSR by the United Nations. Within the report, the Secretary-General reviews the developing trends and challenges of projects implementing SSR. The role of the UN and the Security Council is highlighted in current and future projects. Recommendations for future SSR projects are included along with the lessons learned that they are based on. This report serves as a great guide to the current situation of SSR within the UN.


As the first Secretary-General report, this document provides a great overview of the UN’s role in leading the development trend of Security Sector Reform. A history of SSR and possible future roles for the UN and other agencies is discussed. Recommendations are included for future roles that the UN has embraced and may embrace in the future. A great guide to the history of SSR within the UN and need for a change at the international level for SSR.


Resolution 2151 is the first stand-alone resolution adopted by the Security Council on SSR. Many significant and important objectives of the Security Council within SSR are outlined throughout the document. Other stakeholders in SSR are also included such as national institutions and the Peacebuilding Commission. More importantly, the resolution focuses on the participation of civil society and vulnerable populations in SSR and is important in understanding the role each can play.


An early NGO report, many conclusions and recommendations are made based on early SSR programs. Although not far from the UN’s conclusions and recommendations, this report does provide a different perspective on the challenges and dilemmas faced by SSR processes. Specific to this report is a list of priorities for SSR programs that may be necessary when faced with difficulties in funding reform projects, which gives helpful insight on what are the most significant developments a country needs to maintain security. This report shall prove useful when considering the development of future SSR projects and the challenges to implementation.

Bibliography


