SECURITY COUNCIL
BACKGROUND GUIDE 2015

Written By: Ashley Boyer, Director;
Emma Ogg, Assistant Director
Dear Delegates,

We are pleased to welcome you to the 2015 National Model United Nations Washington, D.C. Conference (NMUN•DC)! This year’s Security Council (SC) staff is: Director Ashley Boyer and Assistant Director Emma Ogg. Ashley is a graduate student at Georgia State University studying comparative and international politics. She currently works as a supplemental instructor for global issues at Georgia State University and in the past served as a Peace Corps Volunteer in Colombia. She is excited to serve as your Director at NMUN•DC. Emma is excited to return to NMUN•DC staff this year. Last year, she completed a fellowship at the NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security where she conducted advocacy at the Security Council at UN Headquarters in New York. She also has experience working with refugees and international education.

The topics under discussion for SC are:
I. Preventing Terrorist Acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction
II. Children and Armed Conflict

The Security Council plays a unique role within the United Nations as the primary organ tasked with maintaining international peace and security. In addressing these issues, the SC may recommend principles for a peace agreement, issue ceasefire directives, create peacekeeping and political missions and institute sanction regimes. Through its relationship with the Secretary-General, the Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Department of Political Affairs, subsidiary sanctions and advisory bodies, and other United Nations entities, the SC can investigate disputes, determine threats to peace and recommend mediation and action to respond through its mandate in order to comprehensively protect international peace and step in during security and humanitarian crises.

We hope you will find this Background Guide useful as it serves to introduce you to the topics for this committee; however, it is not meant to replace further research. We highly encourage you to explore your Member State’s policies in full detail and use the Annotated Bibliography and Bibliography as part of your research to expand your knowledge on these topics and prepare to discuss solutions with fellow delegates. Prior to the conference, each delegation will submit a position paper based on their preparation (due 1 October). 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 for 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 this committee or the Conference itself, you are welcome to contact Under-Secretaries-General Lauren Shaw (usglauren.dc@nmun.org) and Katrena Porter (usgkat.dc@nmun.org).

We wish you all the best during your preparation and look forward to seeing you at the Conference!

Sincerely,

Ashley Boyer, Director
Emma Ogg, Assistant Director

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.
Committee Overview

Introduction
The Security Council (SC) is a principal organ of the United Nations (UN) charged with maintaining international peace and security through preventing and removing threats to peace and settling international disputes, which might lead to conflict.\(^1\) Given its distinctive mandate and structure, the SC is unique in its position of having the tools necessary to protect peace and step in during security and humanitarian crises.\(^2\) The SC can adopt legally binding resolutions that Member States are obligated to carry out, authorize the use of force including missions and sanctions regimes, and oversee peacekeeping and political missions by renewing and updating their mandates.\(^3\)

History
The SC was created when the victors of World War II, who would become the five permanent members of the SC, signed and ratified *The Charter of the United Nations*.\(^4\) The SC’s structure was indicative of the balance of power in the world at the end of World War II, as the Allied Powers agreed to the final negotiations on its formation during the waning years of the war.\(^5\) The SC originally consisted of eleven members and was expanded to its current membership of 15 members in 1965 to better reflect the new post-colonial membership of the UN.\(^6\) The SC initially met on 17 January 1946 in London and deployed its first peacekeeping mission in 1948 to monitor the Armistice Agreement between Israel and its neighbors.\(^7\) During the Cold War, the SC was largely ineffective due to continual disagreement between the United States of America and the Soviet Union, who as permanent members could veto each other’s proposals.\(^8\) Since the late 1980s, the SC has become more active and has a greater presence in the international arena with more than 80% of peacekeeping missions deployed since 1988.\(^9\)

Mandate
The SC’s mandate includes developing friendly relations among states, solving international problems and promoting respect for human rights, and harmonizing the actions of states.\(^10\) Additional administrative functions include recommending the admission of new members to the General Assembly (GA), advising the GA on appointing the Secretary-General, and electing judges to the International Court of Justice together with the GA.\(^11\) The SC is unique in that it is the only UN body which can make legally binding decisions under Chapter VII of the *Charter of the United Nations*.\(^12\)

There are three levels of action the SC can take to respond to a threat to international peace and security.\(^13\) Usually the SC will first recommend a peaceful solution to the conflict.\(^14\) First level actions include recommending principles for a peace agreement, carrying out investigation and mediation measures, creating a mission or a special envoy, and requesting help from the Secretary-General.\(^15\) If hostilities are already taking place, the SC can issue ceasefire directives, send military observers, or create a peacekeeping mission to separate combatants and build conditions conducive for peaceful negotiations.\(^16\) The SC can also use stronger enforcement measures including sanctions, arms

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\(^3\) *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945.
\(^9\) Ibid.
\(^14\) Ibid.
\(^15\) Ibid.
\(^16\) UNSC, *What is the Security Council?*, 2015; *Charter of the United Nations*, 26 June 1945, Ch. 7.
embargos, travel bans, blockades, and military action, should the situation require it. Additionally, the SC can affect UN membership, recommending suspending or expelling a Member State but such action is unprecedented.

**Governance, Structure and Membership**

The SC consists of 15 members, with five permanent and ten non-permanent members. The GA elects the ten non-permanent members for two-year terms based on geographic distribution with five from Africa or Asia, two from Latin America, one from Eastern Europe, and two from Western Europe or other areas. The current non-permanent members are Chad, Chile, Jordan, Lithuania, and Nigeria, whose terms expire at the end of 2015, and Angola, Malaysia, New Zealand, Spain, and Venezuela, whose terms expire at the end of 2016. The winners of World War II (the People’s Republic of China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America) compose the five permanent members, known as the P5, and have veto power. In order to adopt a resolution, nine members must vote in favor and all of the permanent members must either vote in favor or abstain. Use of the veto is infrequent, and 60 of the 63 resolutions adopted by the SC in 2014 were unanimous. Member States that are not part of the SC may be invited to participate, without a vote, in debates that affect them and where their input is relevant.

**Criticisms and Challenges**

The structure and membership of the SC has been criticized in recent years, leading to discussions on possible reform. Critics have argued that the power structure of the SC reflects the world when it was still under colonial rule and does not have the necessary membership and voting rights to effectively function because the P5 has too much power. One possible reform is the addition of new seats in the SC to expand its membership. The G-4, composed of Brazil, Germany, India, and Japan, have been pushing for permanent seats for themselves and two more for African states. Although use of the veto is rare, and decreasing since 1990, its use is still a significant deterrent for consideration of items at odds with the P5’s positions on both issues of reform and SC actions. However, the recent French proposal on P5 members committing not to use the veto in SC actions aimed at preventing or ending mass atrocities has been gaining traction in light of the recent humanitarian crisis in Syria. The Russian Federation and the People’s Republic of China have vetoed four resolutions on Syria since 2011, including calls for humanitarian access.

**Functions and Powers**

The SC has several powers to fulfill its mandate to investigate disputes, regulate arms, determine threats to peace, and recommend mediation and action. Should the situation require an aggressive response, the SC can call for sanctions and take military action against an aggressor. To fulfill its functions, the SC has created several

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18 *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. 2; Repertoire of the Practice of the SC, *Membership in the UN*, 2015.
19 *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. 5.
21 UNSC, *Current Members*, 2015.
22 *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. 5.
23 Ibid.
25 *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. 5.
27 Ibid.
34 Ibid.
subsidiary organs, including the Counter-terrorism Committee and the Peacebuilding Commission.\textsuperscript{35} Sanctions committees are also established for each regime along with a Group of Experts.\textsuperscript{36}

The SC can also establish and modify peacekeeping and political missions.\textsuperscript{37} Peacekeeping missions are led by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations and consist of military, police, and civilian personnel provided by willing Troop Contributing Countries (TCCs).\textsuperscript{38} Peacekeeping is a flexible tool to provide security, political support, and early peacebuilding support, including facilitating the political process through elections; restoring the rule of law; protecting and promoting human rights; assisting in the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration of former combatants; and protecting civilians.\textsuperscript{39} Political missions often take over for peacekeeping missions, especially following the signing of peace agreements, and are overseen by the Department of Political Affairs.\textsuperscript{40} They work on conflict prevention, peacemaking, and post-conflict peacebuilding.\textsuperscript{41}

There are several actions the SC can take to ensure it has the information and means necessary to act. It can request briefings by the UN Secretariat whenever needed to provide more specific information and updates.\textsuperscript{42} The SC also requests reports from the Secretariat or any of its subsidiary organs on missions, country situations, and recommendations on further action.\textsuperscript{43} It can hold private meetings, including meetings with TCCs and Arria-formula meetings, to receive additional information.\textsuperscript{44} Arria-formula meetings are a relatively new practice of the SC in which members meet confidentially and informally with whomever they chose to invite.\textsuperscript{45} The SC can also issue presidential statements which are official documents adopted at SC meetings.\textsuperscript{46} Although not legally binding, presidential statements do reflect consensus among SC members and are, therefore, a significant reflection of international opinion.\textsuperscript{47} While the SC submits annual reports to the GA, it does not call on it for action.\textsuperscript{48} The SC will often request action from Member States, parties to conflict, the Secretary-General, and itself.\textsuperscript{49}

**Recent Sessions**

The SC meets continuously, meaning representatives must always be at headquarters in New York City, and it has a cyclical program of work, barring any emergency meetings.\textsuperscript{50} It considers each item on its agenda on a regular cycle of reviewing reports, meeting on issues, and renewing mandates every few months to one year, depending on the agenda item.\textsuperscript{51} Most of the SC’s recent work, approximately two-thirds, has been on country or regional situations, mostly in Africa, as opposed to thematic issues.\textsuperscript{52} Recent priorities from 2014 include Sudan and South Sudan, Syria, the Middle East, Ukraine, the Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Libya, and Somalia.\textsuperscript{53}

**Conclusion**

The SC currently has 16 peacekeeping and 11 political missions on four continents, in addition to ongoing sanctions regimes.\textsuperscript{54} In the past, the SC has completed successful peacekeeping missions in Cambodia, El Salvador, etc.

\textsuperscript{35} UNSC, *Subsidiary Organs*, 2015; *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. 5.
\textsuperscript{37} UNSC, *Structure*, 2015.
\textsuperscript{38} UN Peacekeeping, *Peacekeeping Operations*, 2015.
\textsuperscript{39} UNSC, *Structure*, 2015.
\textsuperscript{40} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{41} UN DPA, *Field Operations and Good Offices Missions*, 2015.
\textsuperscript{42} UNSC, *Note by the President of the Security Council (S/2010/507)*, 2010, pp. 3, 5.
\textsuperscript{43} UNSC, *Note by the President of the Security Council (S/2010/507)*, 2010, pp. 4, 10.
\textsuperscript{44} UNSC, *Note by the President of the Security Council (S/2010/507)*, 2010, pp. 8, 12.
\textsuperscript{46} UNSC, *Presidential Statements*, 2015.
\textsuperscript{47} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{48} *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. 5.
\textsuperscript{52} UN, *Highlights of Security Council Practice 2014*, 2015.
\textsuperscript{53} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{54} UN Peacekeeping, *Current peacekeeping operations*, 2015; UN DPA, *Field Operations and Good Offices Missions*, 2015.
Guatemala, Mozambique, Namibia, and Tajikistan. As the SC continues to face new challenges in the world and shifts in its own internal structure, it will need to find new ways to use its working methods to respond to new threats to international peace and security, including non-state armed groups, mass displacement, issues of women and children in conflict, and the potential for terrorists to acquire weapons of mass destruction.

Annotated Bibliography

Given that the Security Council is a principal organ of the United Nations, delegates should read the Charter of the United Nations to learn about its mandate, structure, and function. The Charter will give delegates the most detailed and comprehensive background available on the Security Council. Delegates will be able to complete detailed research on actions the Security Council can take and how the Security Council works within the larger United Nations system when forming their own recommendations by reading the Charter of the United Nations.

The Security Council Report is a non-profit organization which provides monthly, analytical reports on the work of the Security Council. Their summary of the Security Council is a good starting point for delegates wishing to find a succinct review of the Council’s activities. Delegates will be able to find information on membership, working methods, use of vetoes, subsidiary bodies, and history of peacekeeping missions and sanctions detailed in this report. This Website is foundational so delegates gain a broader understanding of the Security Council, before proceeding with more precise and detailed research.

This is a document produced annually by the United Nations to give a broader overview of the Security Council’s work. Delegates will find this to be an invaluable resource on trends in the Security Council’s program of work and will get a good sense of the type and amount of work the Council does. This document is very easy to understand as it breaks down the Security Council’s work into different graphs and diagrams. Delegates will understand the current state of the Security Council very quickly, and it is an excellent source to begin research on the modern Security Council.

This is the Website of the Security Council, which is regularly updated and will provide the latest information on relevant activities. Delegates will find this to be an invaluable resource for all stages of their research. Not only does the Website provide information on the structure, mandate, and current work of the Security Council, it also includes links to all Security Council resolutions, meeting records, reports, and presidential statements, so delegates will be able to access the most up to date work of the Security Council. Additionally, the Website includes links to documents on trends in the Security Council, mandate components of different missions, and information on subsidiary organs of the Security Council.

Bibliography


55 UN Peacekeeping, Successes in Peacekeeping, 2015.


I. Preventing Terrorist Acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction

“Let us remember that you are here not simply to avoid a nuclear nightmare, but to build a safer world for all,’ 56

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

Introduction

Globally, terrorism has pervasively impacted peace and security. Whether referring to the Charlie Hebdo attacks in France, or the suicide bombings perpetrated by Boko Haram militants in Nigeria, countless individuals fall victim to grave terrorist attacks each year. 57 These attacks, while executed without WMDs, were debilitating and negatively impacted the livelihoods of hundreds of thousands of individuals. 58 The widespread effects of terrorism are unfathomable, and thus, preventing the terrorist acquisition of WMDs, a more lethal form of weaponry, is of the utmost importance. Without proper preventative action, international security will be undermined and the terrorist acquisition of WMDs will be imminent.

The issue of terrorism remains a point of contention globally, as various conceptions of the term complicate policymaking surrounding the issue. 59 The UN has set forth extensive work attempting to address both terrorism and WMDs. 60 Much of the work has been done in isolation, however, as opposed to collectively addressing both terrorism and WMDs. 61 Several notable incidents of the terrorist acquisition of WMDs have occurred, such as the 1995 Aum Shinriko attack in Tokyo, Japan, where lethal nerve gas was deployed in the Tokyo subway system leading to the deaths of 19 people as well as numerous injuries. 62 Likewise, the emergence of the A.Q. Khan network in 2004, and the alleged proliferation and sales of WMD technology on the black market, was equally

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56 Ban Ki-Moon, Secretary-General’s address to the 2010 Review Conference of the States Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 2010.
58 Ibid.
59 UN, Terrorism, 2015.
60 UNODA, Disarmament Issues, 2015.
61 Ibid.
concerning and introduced a new dimension of peril to be considered by policy makers. The insidious nature of terrorist networks, coupled with the proliferation of WMDs, is a threat to international peace and security and must be addressed.

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

International and Regional Framework

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

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

In addition, organizations such as the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) serve as a first line of defense, preventing the spread of chemical weaponry. For instance, the CWC established three grades of chemical materials. This system regulates the usage of potentially hazardous chemical materials thus preventing

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64 UNODA, Disarmament Issues, 2015.
65 Ibid.
66 Ibid.
68 OPCW, Brief Description of Chemical Weapons, 2015.
70 UNODA, The Biological Weapons Convention, 2015.
73 UNODA, Disarmament Issues, 2015.
74 Ibid.
76 IAEA, Key Roles, 2015.
78 Ibid.
79 OPCW, About OPCW
their misuse. Likewise, similar to how the NPT provides state assistance for storing hazardous nuclear material, the OPCW provides a framework for chemical products thus safeguarding and tracking the material. 

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

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

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

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

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

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82 Ibid.
84 Ibid.
88 UN, Counter Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate, 2015.
89 Ibid.
91 Ibid.
92 Ibid.
93 UNGA, World Summit Outcome, 2005, p. 22.
94 Ibid.
95 Ibid.
96 NATO, What is Nato, 2015; OSCE, Arms Control, 2015; UNLIREC, Overview, 2015.
**Role of the International System**

*The Security Council*

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

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

Resolution 1540 also established the 1540 Committee to stamp out further proliferation of WMDs, including the spread of these weapons to non-state actors such as terrorist organizations. This committee consists of all 15 members of the SC and is divided into four sub-working groups. The working groups include: Monitoring and National Implementation; Assistance; Cooperation with International Organizations; and Transparency and Media Outreach. The purpose of this committee is to assist with implementation of SC resolution 1540 through the working group of experts under certain stipulations, such as disallowing direct assistance and funding. However, this committee also manages a database (matrices) that essentially monitors each state’s progress toward the implementation of this resolution. This matrix was initiated in 2005 and is certainly not without its critics. One such critic, Pakistan, stipulated that the SC is a poor representation of the international community and refused to allow inspections from the committee. On 27 April 2006 the SC expanded the scope of the 1540 Committee by adopting resolution 1673, which reestablished the original objectives and bolstered its efforts to advocate full implementation of the resolution. In November 2008, the SC held an open thematic debate on bolstering global security through regulation and the reduction of armaments. Today, the SC continues to combat both terrorism and the proliferation of WMDs.

Various obstacles have emerged regarding the progress of the 1540 Committee. One primary source of skepticism emerged from the fact that not all Member States agree that the acquisition of WMDs by terrorists should be their top priority. Another obstacle includes the responsibility of states to implement the resolution. While this can be
viewed as a positive with regard to sovereignty, alternatively, many “resource challenges have impeded compliance” of states.\textsuperscript{117}

\textit{Other United Nations Actions}

The GA First Committee has also played a crucial role in the eradication of the proliferation of WMDs through various resolutions.\textsuperscript{118} Some of these include GA resolutions 57/83, 59/80 and the \textit{International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, 59/290}.\textsuperscript{119} However, the ambiguity of defining terrorism has posed serious challenges to the progress of the committee.\textsuperscript{120} Other organizations that play a significant role in the international system include The United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research, the Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission, and the UNODA.\textsuperscript{121} These organizations are excellent resources for uncovering details regarding existing disarmament and non-proliferation framework.

\textit{Conclusion}

Looking forward, when considering a countries respective position on preventing the terrorist acquisition of WMDs, it is important to bear in mind the role of SC in upholding international peace and security and preempting escalation of conflict. While the world has yet to see a terrorist attack utilizing WMDs on a mass scale, it is imperative to vigilantly address this issue and save “succeeding generations from the scourge of war.”\textsuperscript{122}

\textbf{Annotated Bibliography}


\textit{The Arms Control Association created a report that tracks key metrics for the upcoming Nuclear Security Summit of 2016. This report investigates over a dozen joint statements stipulated at the Nuclear Security Summit of 2014 and monitors their progress. Likewise, it details various state commitments to nuclear security and disarmament. Moreover, state progress regarding the commitments is also analyzed. This will be useful in the research process as it details agenda items that are in need of consideration when framing a countries position on disarmament, and the implementation of SC resolution 1540.}


\textit{The serious implications of terrorists’ acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction are the central theme of this report. Likewise, this report outlines comprehensive and achievable measures to be taken in order to prevent terrorists from acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction. These measures include: bolstering pertinent national security policies, restricting hazardous material usage and controlling related technologies. Moreover, General Assembly Resolution 68/41 of 2014 is discussed, which establishes universal measures preventing the acquisition of Weapons of Mass Destruction by terrorists. Additionally, selected state responses to this plan are outlined in this report, thus providing invaluable insights into this topic.}


\textit{The United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs investigates international security ranging from Weapons of Mass Destruction, acts of terrorism, to overall disarmament. This website}

\textsuperscript{116} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{117} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{118} UNGA, Resolution 57/83, 2015; UNGA, Resolution 59/80, 2015; UNGA, Resolution 59/290, 2015.

\textsuperscript{119} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{120} UN, Terrorism, 2015.


\textsuperscript{122} UN, Charter of the United Nations, 1945.
details various committees’ actions towards disarmament of Small Arms and Light Weapons as well as Weapons of Mass Destruction. Likewise, this website also links to a database of relevant General Assembly resolutions, disarmament treaties, state military expenditures as well as the global reported arms trade. In addition there are various resources that will assist with the research process when framing a countries position on this multi-faceted topic.


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


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

Bibliography


II. Children and Armed Conflict

“Children are both our reason to eliminate the worst aspects of armed conflict and our best hope for succeeding in that change.”

- What steps can be taken by policy makers to ensure that non-state actors uphold the rights of children?
- How can the international community support former child soldiers and reintegrate them into society?
- What are the root causes leading children to engage in armed conflict?

Introduction

The negative effects armed conflicts impose on children are vast. In fact, children, the most vulnerable population, are disproportionately impacted by conflict. Whether the child is simply present in the armed conflict zone, or forcibly participating in the conflict itself, the impact is life altering. Children in armed conflict situations are exposed to abductions, military recruitment, killing, maiming, and various forms of exploitation. Likewise, they

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125 Ibid.
126 Ibid.
are subject to inadequate food, water and basic living supplies. The issue of armed conflict indiscriminately impacts children. Without upholding and protecting the rights of the child, international peace and security will be undermined, and the lives of the world’s future generations will be compromised.

In the past several decades it has become increasingly clear that the nature of conflict is changing. This shift in warfare is evidenced in tactics as well as the character of conflict overall. Some of these shifts include an absence of traditional battlefields, the emergence of multi-party conflicts, and the strategic targeting of educational and medicinal establishments. For instance, the use of children to deploy suicide bombs has emerged as a weapon of warfare and is becoming all too frequent. On 10 January 2015, the militant group Boko Haram, active in Nigeria, used a ten-year-old girl as a vessel to deploy a terrorist attack. This child was strapped with a suicide bomb and forced to execute an attack in a busy market place, killing herself, along with many others. Armed conflict has long-term pervasive impacts on children both physically and mentally, thus the international community must do everything in its power to end the use of children in armed conflict.

**International and Regional Framework**

The first international acknowledgement of the rights of the child was stipulated in the *Geneva Declaration on the Rights of the Child*, which was adopted in 1924 by the League of Nations. In this document there are five major acknowledgements made for children. One of these stipulates that “[t]he child must be the first to receive relief in times of distress.” Additionally, this declaration discusses orphaned children, and calls for adult assistance to children during times of conflict. Following the creation of the UN, the rights of the child have gradually expanded and have become a central topic of discussion within the international community.

Various international human rights frameworks have paved the way for the rights of the child to be recognized. For instance, the 1948 *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (UDHR) briefly mentions the rights of children in regard to education. However, the UDHR makes no mention of the rights of children during conflict. This oversight was later addressed when the UN adopted General Assembly resolution 1386, which builds upon the aforementioned *Declaration of the Rights of the Child*. While the majority of the rights do not pertain to armed conflict directly, various articles, such as article nine, prohibit the “occupation of employment which could prejudice his health” essentially outlawing the use of child soldiers.

A notable milestone evolved out of GA resolution 48/157, which called for an independent expert to investigate the status of children and armed conflict. The resulting report was the Graça Machel’s 1996 report regarding the impact of armed conflict on children. Since its release, policymakers, NGOs, academics and the media have paid even closer attention to the issue. This groundbreaking report, which identified children as the primary recipient of

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127 Ibid.
129 Ibid.
131 Ibid.
132 Ibid.
133 Ibid.
134 Reuters, *Child Suicide Bomber Kills at least 16 in Nigeria*, 2015.
135 Ibid.
136 Ibid.
138 Ibid.
139 Ibid.
140 Ibid.
141 Ibid.
144 Ibid.
145 Ibid.
146 *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, 1946, Articles 9.
147 Ibid.
the consequences of war, led the GA to adopt resolution 51/77.\textsuperscript{149} This resolution created the mandate that appointed a Special Representative on the Impact of Armed Conflict on Children (SRSG).\textsuperscript{150} Subsequently, the first debate hosted by the SC on children and armed conflict ensued. \textsuperscript{151} In 1997, as a result of an international symposium discussing the prevention of the recruitment of children into the armed forces in Cape Town, South Africa, child soldiers were defined as:

“any person under 18 years of age who is part of any kind of regular or irregular armed force or armed group in any capacity, including but not limited to cooks, porters, messengers and anyone accompanying such groups, other than family members. The definition includes girls recruited for sexual purposes and for forced marriage. It does not, therefore, only refer to a child who is carrying or has carried arms.”\textsuperscript{152}

Establishing a definition for child soldiers was a significant benchmark, creating a level of accountability between states by standardizing an appropriate age to enlist in armed forces.\textsuperscript{153} This act indicated to the international community that children have inalienable rights that must be protected.\textsuperscript{154}

In 1998, the \textit{International Convention on the Rights of the Child} (CRC) was adopted, which served as a catalyst for the international community to unite and shine light on the egregious use of children in war.\textsuperscript{155} Notably, this convention is the most rapidly and widely accepted human rights treaty in history.\textsuperscript{156} However, despite substantial progress, today more than 300,000 boys and girls under the age of 18 remain involved in armed conflict in over 30 states worldwide.\textsuperscript{157}

The main objective of the CRC is to protect international law pertaining to the rights of children.\textsuperscript{158} Essentially, the CRC attempts to expand the rights outlined in the UDHR, ICCPR, and ICESCR explicitly to children.\textsuperscript{159} Article 38 of the CRC is noteworthy and contains four provisions dedicated to children in armed conflict.\textsuperscript{160} The first provision calls on States Parties to the convention to uphold international law for children during times of armed conflict.\textsuperscript{161} The second provision stipulates that no child under 15 years of age should have a direct part in conflict, which includes the use of child soldiers.\textsuperscript{162} Provision three expands on the second provision by forbidding state recruitment of children under the age of 15.\textsuperscript{163} Moreover, this provision encourages states to target their recruitment to individuals who have reached 18 years of age.\textsuperscript{164} Lastly, the fourth provision emphasizes the responsibility of states to care for children who have been impacted by armed conflict in various capacities.\textsuperscript{165}

The Committee on the Rights of the Child was also born out of the CRC.\textsuperscript{166} This committee is composed of experts nominated by states party to the CRC, who are responsible for monitoring compliance to the convention.\textsuperscript{167} Likewise, State Parties are obliged to submit reports to the committee, which are then crosschecked with reports

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{149} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{150} \textit{UNICEF, Factsheet}, 2015.
\item \textsuperscript{151} \textit{UNICEF, Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Children}, 2015.
\item \textsuperscript{152} \textit{UNICEF, Cape Town Principles and Best Practices on the Recruitment of Children into the Armed Forces and on Demobilization and Social Reintegration of Child Soldiers in Africa}, 2015.
\item \textsuperscript{153} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{154} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{156} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{157} \textit{UNICEF, Factsheet}, 2015.
\item \textsuperscript{159} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{160} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{161} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{162} \textit{UNICEF, Convention on the Rights of the Child}, 1989, Par. 3.
\item \textsuperscript{164} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{165} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{166} Ib\textit{id}.
\item \textsuperscript{167} UNGA, \textit{Convention on the Rights of the Child}, 1989, Par. 3; United Nations Department of Public Information, \textit{Background Note: Children’s Rights}. 1995, Par. 44.
\end{itemize}
from NGOs for validation. Essentially, this committee provides a level of state accountability regarding upholding the rights enshrined in the CRC.

Building off of the work of this committee, the GA also adopted the *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict*, which was implemented in 2002. However, this protocol was not without its opposition. The primary contention arose over the age for voluntary involvement in the armed forces. This protocol forbids the recruitment of any individual under the age of 18 into a military. Additionally, this protocol encourages states to cooperate in the reintegration process for children who have been involved in conflict. It should be noted that the Committee on the Rights of the Child also monitors the implementation of the three optional protocols.

**Role of the International System**

*United Nations Security Council*

The SC works tirelessly protecting the rights of the child in armed conflict. Since 1999 over ten UNSC resolutions have been adopted directly addressing this issue. The initial resolution introduced, SC resolution 1261, emphasized the importance of this topic and why it is worthy of further attention from the international community. This was significant because for the first time the legally binding arm of the UN showcased this highly important issue. Subsequently, SC resolution 1314 highlighted the dire need for the protection of refugees and displaced persons. Additionally, this resolution introduced a component for the protection of children under the mandate of UN peacekeepers.

In 2001, SC resolution 1379 called for the Secretary-General to compile a report essentially black-listing all parties to armed conflict that disregard the rights of the child and violate international commitments. To date, the SC has advocated for the rights of the child and accordingly taken many actions related to children in armed conflict, such as initiating the working group on children and armed conflict and tracking progress on the implementation of action plans centered on children and war. Likewise, through the working group on children and armed conflict, the SC outlines what is called the six grave violations of children in armed conflict. These egregious violations include: killing and maiming children; recruitment and use of children as soldiers; sexual violence against children; attacks against schools or hospitals; denial of humanitarian access for children; and the abduction of children.

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172 Ibid.


175 OHCHR, *Fact Sheet No.10 (Rev.1), The Rights of the Child*, 2015.

176 Ibid.


179 Ibid.

180 Ibid.

181 Ibid.


183 Ibid.

184 UNSC, *Resolution 1612 S/RES/1612*, 2005

185 Ibid.
Case Study: Syrian Civil War

Since the onset of the armed conflict in Syria in 2011, various violations of international human rights law have transpired. Human Rights Watch has reported that both states and non-state actors have been sending children to the front line of the conflict. The first such report was documented in 2012 when boys as young as 14 were being used in support roles for the “Free Syrian Army”. Since then, the use of child soldiers has escalated with the emergence of extremist groups such as Jabhat al-Nusra and the Islamic State of Iraq and al-Sham (ISIS). Many children are recruited through promises of education, jobs and various other incentives, and then given no alternative but to pick up arms. Likewise, many armed groups strategically target and recruit children to bolster the group’s objectives and send them on suicide missions. While the exact number of children taking place in Syria’s armed conflict is unknown, in 2014, a Syrian monitoring group reported over 194 non-civilian male children casualties since 2011. Sadly, this case is not isolated to Syria and plagues various Member States globally.

Conclusion

The aftermath of armed conflict is not simply reflected by the number of children killed or injured, but rather, it is reflected in the number of children forced to grow up without family and without critical support for their physical and emotional needs. In fact often times this disintegration of developmental support results in not only a child being a victim, but later, the child becomes a perpetrator of conflict. Conflict drastically alters lives, thus, it is imperative that the international community ensures that our future generation, our youth, enjoy the freedom in which they are entitled. Looking forward, it is important to consider what actions the SC can take in order to improve existing mechanisms combating the use of children in armed conflict. Likewise, consider why protecting the rights of children impacts international peace and security. Lastly, it’s important to think about what issues can prevent states from protecting the rights of the child and what can be done to preemptively address potential roadblocks.

Annotated Bibliography

This document is highly important and outlines the inalienable rights of the child. Understanding this framework is essential in addressing this topic as it paves the way for subsequent global initiatives pertaining to the rights of the child. Likewise, this document can assist delegates with framing their country’s position regarding what policy concerns are most pressing according to their country. This document is essential in international law and attempts to standardize the rights that all children are inherently entitled globally. This document will aide delegates’ research processes by providing an overarching understanding of the rights of the child overall.

The optional protocol on Convention on the Rights of the Child is highly important and discusses children and armed conflict specifically. In addition, this protocol will guide delegates in understanding the manner in which the General Assembly is attempting to address this issue child soldiers and the many ways in which children are negatively impacted in armed conflict. Likewise, whether or not a delegate’s represented Member State has signed or ratified this protocol will clarify their position on many issues pertaining to children in armed conflict.

Resolution 1261 is the foundation on the topic of children and armed conflict. In fact, this resolution was the first adopted addressing this issue. This resolution set the stage for the rights of the child being an integral focal point of the UNSC. Resulting, from the actions of the SC prioritizing the issue of children in armed conflict, States began to follow suite and consider ensuring overall rights of the child.

Security Council resolution 1539 (2004) outlines six grave human rights violations against children during times of armed conflict. This resolution stipulates the six most egregious violations of child rights which include: use and recruitment of child soldiers, abducting, killing, maiming, raping or using other forms of sexual violence towards children, as well as carrying out armed attacks on schools. Likewise, the resolution attempts to establish a level of State accountability for infringing on the rights of the child. This resolution is foundational for subsequent international actions regarding children and armed conflict.

This strategic plan was instrumental in framing the discussion of the rights of the child globally. Likewise, this report, garnered the attention of policy-makers, scholars and the media regarding the issue of children in armed conflict. This comprehensive report can help delegates understand the wide array of influence that armed conflict has on the youth. Likewise, this report can be useful for framing a plan of action in order to address the gaps in international framework.

Bibliography


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- How can the Security Council consistently implement resolution 1325 and the entire women, peace and security agenda in peacekeeping missions?
- How can the Security Council effectively implement resolution 1325 in the contexts of mass displacement and violent extremism?
- In light of the fifteenth anniversary of resolution 1325, what gaps in the women, peace and security agenda can the Security Council address, and what next steps can it take on gender mainstreaming?

Introduction

Security Council resolution 1325 resulted from efforts by women peace activists and civil society organizations working to prevent conflict and ensure women’s participation in all aspects of peace and security. The resolution emerged from the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) (CEDAW) and the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, China. The commitments of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action are included in resolution 1325’s preamble. CEDAW established the legal standards for achieving gender equality in national governments and acts as the “international bill of rights for women.” There is a synergy between CEDAW and resolution 1325, in which CEDAW serves as a guide for strategic action and resolution 1325 broadens the scope of CEDAW to peace and security issues. Women, peace and security (WPS) is the term used to refer to women’s right to participate in conflict prevention, resolution, peacebuilding processes, and post-conflict reconstruction. WPS also includes special measures to protect women, ending to impunity for crimes of violence against women, and mainstreaming gender issues in peacekeeping operations. As the fifteenth anniversary of resolution 1325 approaches, there are still structural obstacles in the UN system that prevent a fully gender-informed approach to peace and security issues.

International and Regional Framework

Resolution 1325, the foundation of the WPS framework, formally recognized that conflict affects women and men differently and that women have critical roles to play in peace and security processes and institutions. The SC integrates WPS as a cross-cutting issue in its work, as gender equality is a prerequisite for peaceful, inclusive and just societies. Since the adoption of resolution 1325, the SC has expanded the WPS framework by adopting six subsequent resolutions, which developed the SC’s response to women’s participation and protection. The WPS resolutions act as a call to action for the SC, the UN system, and Member States, reflecting that a, “non-gendered understanding of conflict significantly undermines international peace and security efforts.”

National and regional action plans aim to institutionalize resolution 1325 in all areas of society through increased coordination and mobilization. Over eighty states have committed to WPS through regional organizations and national action plans on the implementation of resolution 1325. The African Union (AU), for example, has incorporated gender expertise in field missions and needs assessment teams and appointed their first Special Envoy for WPS. They have also launched a major five year program from 2015-2020 on gender, peace and security.

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196. Ibid.
200. Ibid.
204. UNSC, Statement by the President of the Security Council (S/PRST/2014/21), 2014.
208. UNSC, Report of the Secretary-General on women, peace and security (S/2014/693), 2014, p. 16.
The AU has, additionally, worked on finalizing their zero-tolerance policy of sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA), although there are still gaps in accountability. In another example, the European Union has deployed gender advisors or trainers with 70 percent of their missions, and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe had gender focal points in all of their field operations in 2013. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization also has a new project on indicators for the implementation of resolution 1325.

**Role of the International System**

WPS has been incorporated into the SC’s working methods through two open debates on WPS in October and Sexual Violence in Conflict in April. Arria-formula meetings provide a confidential opportunity for the SC to receive additional briefings on WPS and exchange views and engage in direct dialogue outside the official SC chamber. The most recent meeting in May 2015 focused on the 1325 Global Study and the High-Level Review. The SC has also started considering WPS in thematic issues, including small arms and light weapons (SALW) and counter-terrorism, as well as sanctions regimes. Less progress has been made incorporating WPS into the SC’s field visits, with many inconsistencies in the 2013 visits to Yemen, the Great Lakes region, and Addis Ababa.

The UN has expanded WPS in its internal structure through the foundation of the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) in 2010. UN Women leads and coordinates the UN’s work on all aspects of gender equality, including elimination of discrimination and empowerment of women. The Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Sexual Violence in Conflict (SRSG SViC) has a narrower mandate focusing only on sexual violence. SViC includes rape, sexual slavery, forced prostitution, forced pregnancy, and enforced sterilization related to conflict, which “take place against a backdrop of structural gender-based discrimination.” Recent use of sexual violence by non-state actors as a form of persecution has brought new urgency to the SRSG SViC’s work.

**The Four Pillars of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda and Areas for Improvement**

The pillars of WPS are protection, participation, prevention, and relief and recovery. The protection pillar is the mostly widely known and requires protecting women and girls from sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), as well as protecting their broader human rights in conflict and post conflict. The participation pillar seeks to include women in all aspects of peace and security, including peace negotiations, elections, and peacekeeping missions. Conflict prevention links gender equality and accountability and justice for crimes against women with the likelihood of future outbreaks of conflict. There are numerous aspects of relief and recovery to protect women’s rights and empower them post-conflict, from access to economic opportunities to education and healthcare.

The primary concern of the protection pillar is SGBV, which includes incidents of rape, harassment, sexual slavery, and forced marriage, and remains underreported due to stigmatization of survivors and lack of access to health,

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218 UN-Women, About UN Women.
219 Ibid.
221 Ibid.
222 Ibid.
reproductive, and psychosocial services. General Roméo Dallaire, Force Commander for the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda, noted that sexual violence is being used as a weapon of war on a massive and deliberate scale which impacts several generations, including through HIV infections. The protection pillar also includes sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) by UN personnel. Consistently implementing the zero tolerance policy to address SEA is another component of women’s protection in the context of SC mandates. In regard to women’s protection, there are examples of good practice across the breadth of the UN’s work to build upon. Such examples include identifying security concerns for female internally displaced persons in Darfur, engaging men and boys in changing attitudes about SGBV in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, efforts to combat impunity through the use of mobile courts in the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, and the “Right Up Front” initiative to strengthen the UN’s ability to respond to and prevent serious human rights violations, including in WPS. In his 2014 report, the Secretary-General also noted the importance of including women’s broader protection concerns, including discrimination, in SC mandates to address violations against women human rights defenders and women’s civil society organizations.

The importance of women’s participation established in resolution 1325 was built upon in Security Council resolution 2122, especially as women have been systematically excluded from conflict prevention, resolution, and rebuilding efforts, which threatens the sustainability of peace agreements. A key component of women’s participation is the inclusion of women as negotiators in peace processes, with Colombia and Afghanistan being positive examples. Women’s participation in elections as both voters and candidates is also necessary to close the global gender gap in elected officials. Women’s participation in peacekeeping missions is, additionally, an important component of WPS in the UN system, although targets of 20% female police officers and increasing the number of female military personnel are still distant. While the SC’s work in Afghanistan, Libya, Sierra Leone and Cote D’Ivoire were the strongest policy examples of women’s participation, more needs to be done to translate policy into action and link women’s empowerment with women’s protection to fulfill resolutions 1325 and 2122.

Conflict prevention, and resolving conflict non-violently, was one of the primary reasons for the adoption of resolution 1325. Prevention of conflict and violence against women is incorporated into the SC’s work through promoting gender equality, accountability, and justice, along with control of SALW. Security Council resolution 2117 linked the accumulation and use of SALW with not only fueling armed conflict but also exacerbating SGBV and violence perpetrated against women. Including a gender lens in security sector reform and access to justice, along with reparations, increases the promotion of women’s human rights and acts as a deterrent for violations against women post-conflict. Although the prevention aspect of WPS has been the least explored, there is great potential in the normative framework of resolutions 1325 and 2122 to address the root causes of conflict and strengthen early warning mechanisms.

There are numerous aspects of relief and recovery in WPS. Disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration is an essential area in which to include WPS to address the needs of women in insecure areas who are former combatants.

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228 UNSC, Report of the Secretary-General on women, peace and security (S/2014/693), 2014, pp. 6-7.
231 Ibid.
245 UNSC, Report of the Secretary-General on women, peace and security (S/2014/693), 2014, p. 3.
associated with armed groups, or living in the communities where ex-combatants are returning. Additionally, women in situations of displacement suffer disproportionately from SGBV and other human rights violations. Since the number of displaced persons is currently the highest it has been since World War II, it is critical to include a gender lens in humanitarian aid and empower displaced women.

**Inconsistency in Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Situations of Mass Displacement**

Although there has been growth of a normative framework in the SC through the WPS resolutions, there are substantive inconsistencies in the SC’s implementation of the entire agenda across different missions’ mandates and reporting to the SC. The SC’s lack of internalization of WPS and the need to strengthen working methods is evident in their responses to crisis situations at the country level. As of April 2015, over 1.5 million people were displaced in South Sudan and over 100,000 people were displaced in Abyei area between Sudan and South Sudan. Women and girls have been disproportionately impacted by mass displacement in the region, facing significant security risks, yet the SC’s response has not been consistent. In the missions of the United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) and the United Nations Interim Security Force for Abyei (UNISFA), although they were mandated within weeks of each other and are very close geographically, there is a large disparity in their WPS mandates. UNISFA is mandated to aid mediation in the border dispute between Sudan and South Sudan, protect civilians, and assist delivery of humanitarian aid. Its mandate, however, contains no WPS, except for a brief mention of SEA. On the other hand, although not a perfect example across all WPS pillars, UNMISS’s mandate does include WPS. It incorporates women’s participation in peace processes, conflict prevention, and mission staffing; women’s protection, including Women’s Protection Advisors, SGBV, and SEA; and accountability and justice in regard to SGBV. Although there is variability in reporting, UNMISS’s report from November 2014 comprehensively responded to the WPS components in its mandate. It reported on combating SGBV, with women’s participation, accountability, and services for survivors; and women’s participation in peace talks.

**Obstacles and Challenges, and the Fifteenth Anniversary of Security Council Resolution 1325**

There are still challenges in WPS at the implementation level that can be addressed as part of the High-Level Review in October 2015 at the fifteenth anniversary of resolution 1325. The UN is reviewing a significant portion of its agenda with these reviews and the Peace Operations and Peacekeeping Architecture Reviews, and will receive recommendations from all three. Deputy Secretary-General Jan Eliasson stated the importance of all of the reviews mutually reinforcing each other and bringing all three processes together to fully implement WPS. While the number of resolutions, which mention WPS is increasing, there is inconsistency in mandating and implementing all four pillars of WPS. There is also a lack of mainstreaming across the entire UN system, including action and accountability of the SC, with WPS being advocated for by individuals. Gender mainstreaming is a strategy to

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246 Ibid.
250 Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, South Sudan IDP Figure Analysis, 2015.
253 UNSC, Reports of the Secretary-General on the Sudan and South Sudan (S/RES/2205 (2015)), 2015.
254 Ibid.
255 UNSC, Reports of the Secretary-General on the Sudan and South Sudan (S/RES/2187 (2014)), 2014.
256 Ibid.
257 Ibid.
258 Ibid.
261 Ibid.
ensure gender equality is central to all UN initiatives, including peacekeeping and committee work.264 WPS is, furthermore, not consistently implemented at the country level in various missions and at the broader thematic level, especially the participation pillar.265 Actions the SC can take at the High-Level Review to improve their work on WPS include mandating gender in all missions, sanctions regimes, and thematic issues.266

Case Study: Violent Extremism in Nigeria: Use of Resolution 1325 by Civil Society and UN Women

Deputy Secretary-General Jan Eliasson noted at a recent panel discussion on the High-Level Review that violent extremism is directly targeting women, restricting their education and political participation, and controlling their bodies through horrific violence.267 Forced marriage, enslavement, and sale of women and girls is central to Boko Haram’s operations, including the kidnapping of 276 Chibok school girls in 2014, in spite of Nigeria’s national action plan.268 Women and girls rescued from Boko Haram described how militants killed the men and boys in their families in front of them when they were abducted.269 During captivity, they survived near starvation, constant monitoring including bondage, and, when it appeared they might be rescued, stoning.270 In response, UN Women and women’s civil society organizations have partnered on a number of initiatives using resolution 1325 to empower women, including a “Women’s Situation Room” to ensure women’s participation in elections and “Orange Ur ‘hood” and “Orange Street” events for the International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women.271 Women’s civil society organizations in northeastern Nigeria are meeting with armed groups, rescuing women and girls, and providing services to survivors.272 Organizations like the women-led Nigeria Stability and Reconciliation Program are advocating for the full implementation of resolution 1325, mobilizing the most marginalized, poor, and illiterate women who have been transformed by their ordeals into peace builders.273 These women are now speaking on community radio and establishing safe spaces and peace clubs to equip survivors with life skills.274 Women’s civil society organizations already working on countering, reducing, and preventing violent extremism can be prioritized and supported by the SC as part of its thematic consideration of the issue.275

Conclusion

Challenges in the consistent implementation and operationalization of WPS commitments can be overcome to adequately respond to the needs of women, and the upcoming High-Level Review is an optimal time for action.276 Specific areas to improve information on WPS in the SC include briefings, reports, field missions, and cooperation with civil society and UN Women.277 The SC can increase implementation of resolution 1325 and WPS as a cross-cutting issue by including all pillars of WPS in all mandates, reports, and briefings to incorporate WPS at the basis of all country-specific missions and thematic agenda items.278 As Deputy Secretary-General Jan Eliasson stated, women’s issues are cross-cutting in the widest definition of the word.279 Such work is imperative, since any peace and security processes cannot “be effective if half the population is left on the sidelines.”280

264 UN-Women, Gender Mainstreaming.
270 Ibid.
272 UNSC, Summary record of 7428th meeting (S/PV.7428), 2015.
273 Ibid.
274 Ibid.
275 NGO WG on Women, Peace and Security, Open Letter to Permanent Representatives to the UN, 2015.
Annotated Bibliography


The Consortium on Gender, Security and Human Rights was founded in 2002 to integrate the study of gender and human rights, security, and armed conflict. Although this lecture record is older, it is an excellent and still very relevant example of field practitioners explaining barriers to implementation of Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), the importance of gender mainstreaming, and an example of one attempt to do so, and ways in which local women's organizations took ownership of resolution 1325 shortly after its adoption. Delegates should find this source helpful after they have researched Security Council resolution 1325 and are ready to look in more detail at possible challenges and next steps. In particular, the first two speakers, Carol Cohn and Nadine Puechguirbal, cover issues still relevant and are still working in the field today. Delegates should find Dr. Puechguirbal’s description of the relations among different United Nations entities and offices particularly enlightening on how to better incorporate gender into United Nations missions.


The NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security published this trends and recommendations document in January of 2015. It includes information on broader trends within the Security Council’s implementation of women, peace and security resolutions, including resolution 1325 (2000). Although quite brief, delegates will find this to be a good starting point for research and compiling recommendations on the consistent and effective implementation of women, peace and security in the Security Council, along with other Working Group documents, including the 2015 Civil Society Women, Peace and Security Roadmap. The recommendations noted in this document aim to improve the internalization of women, peace and security within the Security Council to better meet the world’s needs fifteen years after resolution 1325.


In 2000, the Security Council adopted the first resolution on women, peace and security, resolution 1325 (2000), establishing the mandate for the incorporation of the four pillars of women, peace and security into its future work. Delegates will find reading the original resolution key to understanding the foundation and scope of the women, peace and security agenda in the Security Council’s work. Delegates will, additionally, find this resolution useful when researching types of action the Security Council can take in this thematic area, including areas of the women, peace and security agenda not fully covered in this background guide, like women’s participation in the United Nations system. This resolution also serves as a good starting point for those delegates wishing to read all the women, peace and security thematic resolutions to understand the trajectory, growth, and development of the Security Council’s work in this important area. The six succeeding women, peace and security resolutions are 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013), and 2122 (2013) and can be accessed through the Security Council’s Website, http://www.un.org/en/sc/documents/resolutions/, organized by year. Reading all the resolutions will give delegates a complete understanding of the Security Council’s current capacities and scope of work on women, peace and security.


In October 2014, the Security Council considered women, peace and security by holding their annual open debate on the thematic issue. In preparation for that meeting, the Security Council reviewed this annual Report of the Secretary-General. The report gives an overview of progress
made in all areas of the women, peace and security agenda, including gaps and challenges. The report uses indicator data for implementing Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), and it also makes recommendations for consideration by the Security Council. Delegates should find this source useful for learning about the current state of the women, peace and security agenda in the Security Council and perhaps acquiring inspiration for possible future action and next steps. The report is also an excellent source to research portions of the women, peace and security agenda not fully covered in the background guide, including the diverse and varied aspects of women, peace and security in relief and recovery and women, peace and security in thematic issues, including small arms and light weapons.


The United States Institute of Peace was founded by Congress in 1984 as a non-partisan organization working on preventing, mitigating, and resolving conflict. Delegates will find this Website to be a very useful source to use at the beginning of their research, as it provides in depth and detailed explanations of Security Council resolution 1325 and the other women, peace and security resolutions. Delegates will be able to access the annotated text of 1325, explaining the significance of each preambulatory and operative paragraph. Delegates will also find links to information on why women need to be included in peace and security process, the importance of involving men, why resolution 1325 is important, and an explanation of the four pillars of women, peace and security and national action plans on this Website.

Bibliography


