



BATHMUN

Conference 2025

UNEP Study Guide
Methods to Regulate Environmental
Degradation and Damage caused by Interstate
Conflicts

Table of Contents

<i>Message from the Chairs</i>	3
<i>Chair Introductions</i>	4
<i>Introduction to the Committee</i>	6
<i>History of the Committee</i>	6
<i>Committee Mandate</i>	6
<i>Specialised Rules of Procedure</i>	8
<i>Topic Introduction</i>	10
<i>Timeline</i>	10
<i>Past Attempts to Solve the Issue</i>	11
<i>Environmental Modification Convention (ENMOD)</i>	12
<i>Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court</i>	12
<i>Current Situation</i>	14
<i>Case Studies</i>	17
<i>ENMOD Convention</i>	17
<i>Points of Discussion and Guiding Questions</i>	19
<i>Key Stakeholders and Blocs</i>	21
<i>Asia</i>	21
<i>Africa</i>	22
<i>Americas</i>	23
<i>Additional Resources</i>	25
<i>Appendices</i>	26
<i>Example UNEP Treaty from BathMUN 2024</i>	27
<i>Bibliography</i>	30



Message from the Chairs

Your Excellencies,
We are delighted to welcome you all to the United Nations Environment
Programme (UNEP) at BathMUN 2025!

Since its establishment over 50 years ago, the UNEP has remained an integral part of the United Nations system, driving environmental change by providing opportunities for member states, UN agencies, private organisations, as well as civil groups to participate in meaningful discussions.

The feats and results of the UNEP are evidenced all throughout our world, however, environmental challenges continue to persist and transform along with shifting political, social, and international occurrences. The topic 'Methods to Regulate Environmental Degradation and Damage Caused by Interstate Conflicts' was chosen for our committee this year as it encourages a deeper focus into aspects of international conflicts that typically lack in-depth discussions. Understanding the importance of formulating feasible solutions to mitigate the consequences large-scale conflicts have on the environment is the first step to fostering significant solutions for situations that are ever-present in our current global climate.

We encourage delegates to examine aspects of international law that fail to adequately prevent environmental damage in real-life situations, and to focus on how accountability for the environment can be upheld by nations and organisations. Though the UNEP is a beginner committee at BathMUN, the topic at hand deals with highly complex and sensitive discussions in relation to environmental reparations and the applications of solutions through global efforts in times of turmoil. True resolution building is derived from diplomatic cooperation and mutual understanding, and we look forward to seeing how you all tackle this as a committee.

We are excited to see how discussions unfold and cannot wait to welcome you all to Bath in November!

Best wishes,
Michelle, Jaeden, and Sofia



Chair Introduction



Michelle Charles
Head Chair

Hello Delegates! My name is Michelle, and I am honoured to serve as your Chair for the UNEP at BathMUN 2025. I am a third-year psychology student at the University of Bath, who is currently on placement in London. I've been doing MUN for 10 years now and have discovered so much about the world and myself thanks to it. BathMUN has always had a special place in my heart, and I am looking forward to returning this year as a Chair. I cannot wait to see all of you debate this topic throughout the weekend, as well as meet new people and create everlasting memories. We are looking forward to meeting you all very soon!

Michelle Charles

Sofia McFadyen
Deputy Chiu



Hello Delegates! I'm Sofia and I am excited to welcome you all to UNEP! I'm a zoology student, so UNEP will always be one of my favourite committees to debate and chair. UNEP at BathMUN was the very start of my MUN journey last year (funnily enough I met co-chair Jaeden for the first time in this committee!), so I am honoured to have the opportunity to chair you all, and I hope you all have just as fantastic of a time as I did last year. Best of luck on your preparations and I look forward to meeting all of you soon!

Sofia McFadyen





Jaeden Tee Jien Ren
Co-Chair

Hello! I'm Jaeden, a second year International Relations student at the London School of Economics, and I'm from Malaysia! Though I only began my MUN journey last year, it's quickly become one of my favourite hobbies. BathMUN last year was my second ever MUN conference, and was what ultimately cemented my love for MUN, and so I am truly honoured to have the opportunity to chair UNEP for BathMUN 2025. Outside of MUN, you'll probably find me at one of London's many restaurants (I am Southeast Asian, after all), fawning over retro technology, or ranting about global politics with my friends. I hope you'll have a fantastic time at the conference this year, and for those of you starting your MUN journeys for the first time, I truly hope you'll come to enjoy MUNing just like I did last year! **Jaeden Tee**



Introduction to the Committee

History of the Committee

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) was founded in 1972, after the UN had its first global conference solely for discussing environmental issues, the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (UNEP, 2022). Following this convention, the General Assembly, through resolution 2997 (XXVII), established the UNEP and its corresponding Governing Council. At the time there were 58 members in the council. In 2013, the UNEP Governing Council shifted to the United Nations Environmental Assembly (UNEA). This change also resulted in the UNEA having universal membership, changing from 58 members to all 193. The importance given to environmental discourse and the creation of formalised, global environmental law can be heavily credited to the existence and work of the UNEP.

Committee Mandate

UNEP is a body within the United Nations made to inform all decisions on matters relating to the environment.

The United Nations Environment Assembly (UNEA) is the main governing body of the UNEP and is the highest decision-making body within the United Nations for all environmental issues, in this simulation, UNEP will work similarly to UNEA. Through its work in recommending policy changes and addressing agendas related to climate change, biodiversity loss, and pollution, the UNEP aids its 193 members in working towards sustainability and environmental peace. The UNEP headquarters are situated in Nairobi, Kenya (UNEP, 2024).



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The main responsibilities of UNEP are to promote international cooperation within all matters related to the environment, to encourage policy advancement and guidance, to provide suitable platforms for various stakeholders to discuss methods of environment protection, in addition to the continuous reviewing of both national and international policies and situations, aiming to provide help in various capacities. Although resolutions formed by UNEP are not legally binding (unlike treaties), they advise on international standards and solutions that are encouraged to be adopted by member states of the committee.



Specialised Rules of Procedure

Unlike most UN committees, the UNEP is uniquely able to write and ratify treaties. A treaty is an internationally, legally binding document that sets out the goals or objectives that must be adhered to by all ratifying parties. It differs from a resolution as a resolution is a declaration of intent to address a problem but carries no actual legally binding power or obligation, whereas in a treaty a member state is legally bound to enact the directives within it if they choose to ratify it. Writing a treaty uses slightly different language compared to a resolution, given that it is binding. Laid out below are the guidelines for writing a treaty. An example treaty has also been added to the [appendix](#) of this study guide.

Treaty

- ◆ Two to three 'Depositories' (sponsors), for a UNEP treaty this must include Kenya as the official headquarter nation of UNEP **and** the **UK** as the guest host nation (where this conference is being held) and an additional country that has volunteered itself.
- ◆ A Preamble, like the preambulatory clauses of a resolution.
- ◆ Control Measures, the directives section, similar to the body of a resolution. These can be considered 'instructions' to the ratifying parties.
- ◆ Definitions, if needed. Where any point of ambiguity or newly adopted language, terminology or literal definitions exist, they should be defined clearly.
- ◆ A Withdrawal Article, allowing any ratifying state to exit the treaty after a certain time period has elapsed - normally 4 years - this is only if all the obligations within the treaty have been met by the withdrawing state.
- ◆ An Authentic Texts article, any translations to the official languages of the UN are considered to be equally authentic to the original written language version, as is standard UN procedure.



- ◆ A page for signatures. Physical signatures in pen on printed document are required for it to be valid. A treaty must be signed in witness of the chair(s) in committee (if a delegate is unable to be present, they may authorise the chair to sign on their behalf).

A treaty, upon signing and ratification, must be physically presented to the depositories prior to the close of the conference.



Topic Introduction

Timeline

1939-1945

The events of World War II resulted in severe damages to the environment on a global scale. With significant ozone layer degradation, deforestation, and nuclear radiation occurring.

1954-1975

Use of chemical warfare was rampant during the Vietnam War, with defoliants and herbicides like Agent Orange devastating farms and forests, in addition to contaminating water bodies and soil.

1990-1991

The most extensive environmental damage during the Gulf War were the multitudes of oil spills and oil fires. The destruction of Kuwaiti oilfields caused major loss of biodiversity and a significant increase in atmospheric pollution.

1999

The aerial bombings conducted by NATO within the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia were said to have caused measurable environmental damage to the territories targeted. The area of Pancevo was alleged to have had thousands of toxic chemicals released into the area due to the bombing of their chemical factory complex.

2001-2021:

The Afghanistan War was catastrophic to the agricultural land and existing irrigation systems. Along with the direct environmental impacts of the conflict, there continue to be indirect consequences, such as the reliance on oil and finite resources, in addition to the increase in deforestation and soil degradation due to refugees and Internally Displaced People (IDPs).



2022-present

The ongoing war in Ukraine has produced countless devastations to the environment. The destruction of the Kakhovka Dam in 2023 caused massive flooding downstream, as well as impacts to irrigation systems and overall land quality both downstream and upstream.



A few of the 700 oil wells ignited or destroyed by retreating Iraqi forces in the 1991 Gulf War. Credit: Adel Al-Yousifi, (1991), Kuwait Invasion, The Evidence, The South.

Past Attempts to Solve the Issue

The problem of environmental degradation from conflict is an issue that state actors and international institutions have attempted to tackle via the use of international laws and conventions. These mechanisms serve as important instruments in the regulation of warfare, in the interests of preventing excessive environmental damage, as well as serving as a method to hold states accountable for their actions. An example of a key policy instrument will be listed to serve as examples of past attempts at solving this issue. Delegates are recommended to research in detail both the conventions and laws listed, as well as other relevant international laws on this topic, in order to better inform their own proposals during the conference.



Environmental Modification Convention (ENMOD)

The Environmental Modification Convention (ENMOD) was initially drafted in December 1976, before entering into force in October 1978. As a result of escalating tensions during the Cold War and technological progress by both the US and USSR, the convention was called to ban the use of “weather warfare”, which includes attempts by states to weaponize weather modification techniques during conflict, for the explicit purposes of inflicting long-term damage. Article 1 of the convention prohibits parties to the convention from utilizing “military or any other hostile use of environmental modification techniques having widespread, long-lasting or severe effects as the means of destruction, damage or injury to any other State Party”, whilst Article 2 specifies what is meant exactly by the term “environmental modification techniques” (IHL, 2024).

Notably, however, the convention only banned deliberate environmental modification as a weapon, and not environmental destruction caused as a side effect to conventional warfare. As such, actions such as the deployment of Agent Orange by the US during the Vietnam War would not be explicitly prohibited by ENMOD, as such actions would fall under the scope of conventional warfare. Other limitations, such as limited participation globally in the convention, also exist.

Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court

The Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, adopted in 1998 and which entered into force in 2002, establish four core international crime: genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes, and the crime of aggression (ICC, 2021). Environmental warfare is directly addressed under Article 8 (2)(b)(iv), which characterized such actions as “serious violations of the laws”. Specifically, the Statute criminalizes, “Intentionally launching an attack in the knowledge that such attack will cause incidental loss of life or injury to civilians or damage to civilian objects or widespread, long-term and severe damage to the natural environment which would be clearly excessive in relation to the concrete and direct overall military advantage anticipated” (ICC, 2021).



Notably, under the Rome Statute, the ICC can only investigate and prosecute the four core crimes, including environmental warfare, in cases where states are “unwilling or unable” to do so themselves. Other limitations also exist, including the inability of the Court to prosecute crimes committed by nations that do not accept the Court’s jurisdiction, including countries such as the United States, China, Russia, and India, leading to the Court’s limited effectiveness in criminalizing the act of environmental warfare.

Overall, though there currently exist global mechanisms and instruments that attempt to outlaw environmental degradation and criminalize the intentional waging of environmental warfare by state actors, they remain limited in effectiveness. This is primarily due to the limited jurisdiction international courts have over countries that choose to reject participation in international conventions, and the limited options institutions have to hold states accountable for their actions. As such, delegates of UNEP are advised to take into account the limitation of current solutions in their proposals regarding this topic.



Current Situation

Conflicts and war cause serious and permanent damage to the environment. Although political outcomes and human losses receive most of the immediate attention and resources, the environment is also a victim of conflict. Ecosystems that are damaged by wars can take decades to recover, and the damage is often irreversible. Both the environment and those that rely on these resources for survival are directly impacted when farmland, forests, water supplies, and industrial infrastructure are destroyed, so understanding how wars affect the environment is essential to regulate and prevent harm.

Warfare causes damage in many forms, the most evident being the destruction of land. Heavy bombing and artillery fire destroy fertile soil, while landmines can make agricultural land unusable, turning farmland into wasteland and making it difficult for communities to rebuild their lives after fighting ends. In conflicts such as the Vietnam War, the use of chemical agents like Agent Orange to destroy forest cover damaged the ecosystems severely, reduced biodiversity, and left areas barren. In recent conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan, movement of heavy military machinery has contributed to desertification, disrupting fragile environments.



Vast swaths of forest and farmland in South Vietnam were denuded by the U.S. military's spraying of herbicides (Archive Image/Alamy)



Another major impact of conflicts on the environment is pollution and contamination. Oil refineries, power facilities, and chemical plants are frequently targeted during wars, causing hazardous materials to spill into the air, soil, and water. One of the most severe examples of this was in 1991 during the Gulf war when retreating troops set fire to hundreds of Kuwaiti oil wells, causing clouds of toxic smoke to spread across the region and contaminating the soil and groundwater around the area. Recent conflicts such as in Syria and Ukraine, have endured similar instances of environmental contamination due to damaged industrial sites and fuel storage facilities. In Syria, large crude oil spills caused by damage to oil fields resulted in soil and river contamination that still affects human health. Modern warfare can create "toxic hotspots," as the ongoing crisis in Ukraine has demonstrated. Shelling of industrial facilities has leaked toxic chemicals into rivers, affecting not just the local population but also adjacent countries with shared water systems. The unsustainable exploitation of natural resources is also encouraged by conflict. Forests, minerals, and oil fields are used by governments to fund military operations. Deforestation, soil erosion, and biodiversity loss are often results of exploitation which mostly occurs with little or no consideration for the environment or its protection.

The environmental crisis is often made worse by the indirect effects of conflict. During crises, millions of people are displaced from their homes and forced to live in refugee camps that strain the environment as they need land, water, and wood, potentially resulting in pollution, deforestation and burden on nearby resources.

Although progress has been slow, environmental concerns and being addressed internationally. International humanitarian law, including the 1977 Additional Protocol I to the Geneva Conventions, states that war must not cause "widespread, long-term, and severe damage" to the environment, however it is difficult to hold parties accountable, so they are rarely used. In countries such as Afghanistan, Sudan, and the Balkans, UNEP has assisted in estimating post-conflict environmental damage, demonstrating the necessity of environmental restoration and maintenance. Large-scale environmental damage, or "ecocide," has been advocated as an international crime in recent years, however, despite the fact that this idea has grown in favour, international law has not adopted it yet.



Although there is growing awareness of environmental issues, there are still major challenges in regulating the damage caused by conflict. Monitoring environmental damage in active war zones is difficult, making enforcement of international war weak. In recent conflicts, such as in Syria, Ukraine, and Yemen, the environmental impacts have been severe and often extend beyond national borders.



Case Studies

ENMOD Convention

In accordance with UNEP's goals of working towards sustainability and environmental peace (UNEP, 2024), the organization has taken significant steps to alleviate the environmental damage caused by conflicts, and hold states that participate in environmental warfare accountable. The case study provided will show examples of how the UNEP operates in these situations.

Though the aforementioned ENMOD Convention has attempted to prohibit warfare that could cause "widespread, long-term and severe damage to the natural environment", its effectiveness as a tool for international institutions to hold states accountable was called into question by the 1990-1991 Gulf War. During the conflict, the Iraqi army deliberately destroyed over 600 oil wells in Kuwait during its retreat, as part of a "scorched-earth" campaign that resulted in over US\$85 billion in environmental damage (UNEP, 2019). The environmental impact of Iraq's actions is evident: an estimated 10 million oil barrels had been discharged into the Persian Gulf (the largest oil spill in history), leading to the formation of "oil lakes" that contaminated water supplies and impacted long-term water security in the region, whilst the resulting fires caused temperature drops up to 10C in the region (Linden, Jerneloev and Egerup, 2004).

In response, UNEP mobilized scientists in order to assess the extent of environmental damage caused by Iraq's actions, whilst also assisting Kuwaiti and Saudi Arabian authorities with oil-contamination cleanup. Surveys were undertaken immediately after the spill to assess the impact to local environments and ecosystems in the region, with a proposal prepared in which the costs of cleaning all of the contaminated shorelines was estimated to be \$540 million (Tawfiq and Olsen, 1993).





Oil fires in Kuwait 1991 (Source: UNODA, Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques)

The issue of accountability was settled by United Nations Security Council Resolution 687 (1991) which found that Iraq was “liable, under international law, for any direct loss, damage, including environmental damage and the depletion of natural resources, or the injury to foreign governments, national and corporations, as a result of Iraq’s unlawful invasion and occupation of Kuwait”. Accordingly, Resolution 692 then established the United Nations Compensation Commission (UNCC), a subsidiary body of the Security Council that was to process claims and hold Iraq accountable through reparations, to its victims. Notably, Kuwait submitted 5 claims under UNCC, including (1) damage to groundwater resources; (2) damage related to the formation of lakes of oil in the desert; (3) damage to terrestrial resources; (4) damage to marine and coastal resources; and (5) damage to public health (Dickie and Gerking, 2002). The UNEP reaffirmed the findings from UNCC, leading to over US\$5 billion being awarded from environmental claims, as part of the over US\$50 billion Iraq had to pay as reparations overall.

Importantly, UNEP’s actions during the Gulf War laid the groundwork for its Post-Critical Environmental Assessment (PCEA), which has helped guide its actions in subsequent conflicts in regions like the Balkans, Afghanistan, Ukraine, and more (UNEP, 2017). Additionally, the UNCC’s establishment also set a precedent, showing that states could be held accountable for engaging in environmental warfare, and allowed for reparations to be paid by offending states. Delegates are encouraged to research UNEP’s responses during conflicts, to help improve their own proposals during the committee.



Points of Discussion & Guiding Questions

Non-binding nature of UNEP

It must be considered that any resolution created by UNEP is not legally binding, only advisory, unless ratified, such as in a treaty. Due to this, enforcement is one of UNEP's biggest challenges. Although "widespread, long-term, and severe damage" is already prohibited under International Humanitarian Law, these rules are rarely enforced. UNEP and UNEA resolutions have the risk of never being enforceable without sufficient accountability mechanisms.

- ◆ Should UNEP advocate that existing organisations, like the International Criminal Court, expand their mandate to cover environmental crimes, or should it propose the creation of a more powerful international enforcement body?
- ◆ How can the international community ensure compliance when strong states are opposed to introducing legally enforceable restrictions?

Ecocide and International Law

Another issue to consider is determining what level of environmental damage is unacceptable during war. Some governments have argued for the recognition of "ecocide" as a crime under international law, but others remain concerned that this will limit military operations or violate national sovereignty.

- ◆ Would it be best to create a set of guiding standards for determining when environmental harm qualifies as a violation of international law, a case-by-case approach, or should this committee provide a universally accepted definition of "ecocide"?
- ◆ Should UNEP advocate for worldwide recognition immediately or should governments include definitions in their national laws first?



Monitoring and Assessment

There are more difficulties in monitoring and assessment. Since active fighting zones are typically inaccessible, it is difficult to assess the environmental damage.

- ◆ Should the committee propose establishing a global system to recognise environmental harm caused by conflicts, to serve as a guide for post-war restoration and a method of enforcing accountability?
- ◆ Who would pay for and operate this system?

Monitoring and Assessment

Reconstruction and post-conflict restoration also require attention. Long-term stability is reliant on restoration of the environment, which is often overlooked in peace-making efforts.

- ◆ Should UNEP urge that environmental restoration clauses be included in all upcoming peace agreements?
- ◆ Could the committee propose the creation of a worldwide fund to help environmental rehabilitation following a conflict, funded by either contributions from UN member states or reparations?
- ◆ And how should the international community and the states that are actively in conflict share or determine responsibility?

Humanitarian Demands and Environmental Preservation

The conflict between urgent humanitarian demands and long-term environmental preservation should be addressed by the committee. Although camps for internally displaced people and refugees can put stress on environments, they are still essential during times of conflict.

- ◆ Should UNEP provide recommendations for more environmentally conscious camp management methods, such as renewable energy, water conservation, and sustainable forestry?
- ◆ Could UNEP form collaborations with other organisations to guarantee that environmental protections are incorporated into disaster response efforts from the beginning?



Key Stakeholders and Blocs

Asia

Asia consists of 48 countries with distinct regions such as South Asia, Southeast Asia, East Asia, Central Asia, and West Asia. The continent is extremely biodiverse, however, many regions within Asia face conflicts that often result in environmental degradation, both through intentional actions and collateral damage.

One such example of this is India's suspension of the Indus Water Treaty (IWT). The suspension of the treaty by India was a result of the continued conflict between India and Pakistan, directly following the severe Pahalgam attack in India-administered Kashmir earlier this year (BBC, 2025). The IWT, brokered by the World Bank, was created in 1960 to establish and uphold the rights and delimitations of the Indus water system (United Nations, 1960). The Indus system provides crucial resources to both nations, providing foundations to the agriculture of these countries in addition to being utilised for hydropower. Along with establishing delimitations for the rivers in the system, the IWT also highlights the necessity for the exchange of data between the countries in relation to the system (Article VI) and the continuation of cooperation between the parties (Article VII). The recent suspension highlights how elements of the environment are often weaponised and caught in the middle of disputes. With India being the upstream country, more power and control over the water system is naturally theirs. The implications of this act can result in devastating droughts during the dry season, increases in agricultural damage and food insecurity, and drastic change to the biodiversity of the region.



A multitude of countries in Asia have faced their fair share of environmental degradation, from the severe after-effects of the Vietnam War to the continued damage witnessed in West Asia due to the many conflicts in the region. The suspension of the IWT highlights how long-standing agreements can be cast aside and weaponised during disputes, in addition to how the state of the environment can so easily be damaged in the crossfire.

Africa

Africa consists of 54 nations that are recognised as member states within the United Nations. Though arid conditions are often characteristic to many countries in the continent, Africa is home to many mineral rich areas and large amounts of varying flora and fauna.

Conflicts between nations and the taking over of regions can result in areas of environmental protection being at-risk of long-term damage. A notable example of this is the current dispute between the March 23 Movement (M23) rebel group and the Congolese government. The dispute between the parties has been further complicated by the alleged involvement of the Rwandan government through their support of the M23 rebel group, in addition to other militia groups in the region (Center for Preventive Action, 2025). Since 1996, there have been persistent conflicts across the DRC. These disputes have resulted in lives lost, individuals displaced, and severe damage to the ecology of the region. Virunga National Park, Africa's oldest national park is majorly located within M23's main operational zone. With the rebel group controlling surrounding towns and having their training base located next to the southern areas of the park, it has faced significant environmental turmoil. Increases in deforestation largely in charcoal production areas of the park are a consequence of the greater need for the resource during times of conflict. Virunga National Park is not the only park to face this, with a similar situation occurring in Kahuzi-Biega National Park (Mongabay Environmental News, 2025).



The conflicts seen in the DRC and other parts of Africa often result in conservation groups and NGOs being put in a tough spot in terms of geopolitical backing. Virunga National Park has been aided by its partnership with the Congolese Institute for the Conservation of Nature (ICCN), including having their park rangers armed by them. The ICCN has had instances of backing the Congolese armed forces (FARDC). With M23's presence being overwhelmingly strong within that area currently, the park could face challenges in navigating its way forward under new de facto leadership. Areas facing similar situations must find ways to continue their conservation efforts to the best of their abilities during such conflicts.

Americas

The Americas are a region that consist of 35 countries within North and South America. The existence of multiple conflicts within South America have caused surges in environmental degradation, whilst USA's involvement in international disputes in other nations have not only resulted in damages to the other counties eco-systems, but to their own as well.

Many countries in South America have laws and legislation requiring their environment be protected against harm, such as the Colombian constitution forbidding the destruction and devastation of natural environments during armed conflicts (International Review of the Red Cross, 2024). The existence of such regulations has not stopped armed conflicts from disrupting the surrounding natural areas. Armed groups have caused significant levels of deforestation, biodiversity loss and water contamination through their warfare and extraction of minerals and other resources. Instances of agriculture producers partaking in disputes by financing paramilitary and guerrilla groups have worsened soil quality amongst many regions, creating long-term damage in the environment.



With many countries being perpetrators of environmental damage due to conflicts within their own regions, the USA has caused significant degradation to the eco-systems of other nations through their involvement in global disputes and wars. In a study conducted in 2019, it was found that if the US military were to exist as a country, their greenhouse gas emissions would rank 47th in the world (Lancaster University, 2019). As mentioned previously, Iraq has faced devastating consequences because of their conflicts, and the US intervening only furthered the environmental damage, causing increased levels of desertification, pollution and depletion of natural resources (Earth, 2021). Alongside direct involvement in conflicts, the environmental damage non-US and US areas have faced due to military training in preparation for such events is extreme.

Though legislation might exist within the constitutions of many countries, nations seldom abide by the very rules they set. Though the United States is a party to agreements such as the 1978 ENMOD Convention and the 1949 Geneva Conventions, it is not a party to the Additional Protocol I, which is the first treaty to provide special protection and considerations for the environment during armed conflict (International Review of the Red Cross, 2023). A nation's participation in certain agreements and treaties can provide insight into their stance on what should be the permitted scales and responses to environmental damage from conflicts.



Additional Resources

https://www.undrr.org/understanding-disaster-risk/terminology/hips/so02_02

<https://treaties.un.org/doc/Publication/UNTs/Volume%20419/volume-419-I-6032-English.pdf>

<https://ihl-databases.icrc.org/en/ihl-treaties/api-1977/article-55?activeTab=>



Appendices

Example UNEP Treaty from BathMUN 2024

On the next page is an example Treaty from BathMUN 2024. Use this example to inform your BathMUN 2025 Treaty.



Sponsors: Republic of Kenya, UK, France

Signatories: Federative Republic of Brazil, Indonesia, Tajikistan, Republic of Peru, Canada

The Claverton Down Protocol on Acts Defined as Ecocide

The Parties to this Protocol, Being Parties to the Bath Convention on Ecocide Prevention, Regarding the ongoing environmental crisis, and the impacts of human activities on the Environment.

Mindful of their obligation under that Convention to take appropriate measures to protect human health and the environment against adverse effects resulting or likely to result from human activities which are considered ecocide,

Aware that measures taken to prevent ecocide should be based on relevant scientific knowledge, taking into account technical and economic considerations,

Acknowledging that special provision is required to meet the needs of developing countries to prevent ecocide,

Noting the precautionary measures for limiting acts of ecocide that have already been taken at national and regional levels,

Considering the importance of promoting international co-operation in the research and development of science and technology under the Environmentally relating to the control and reduction of acts of ecocide, bearing in mind in particular the needs of developing countries,

Article 1 Definitions

"Ecocide" is 'the unlawful or wanton acts committed with knowledge that there is a substantial likelihood of severe and either widespread or long-term damage to the environment being caused by those acts'. Those acts equivalent to ecocide being:

- the discharge, emission, or introduction of a quantity of materials or ionising radiation into air, soil, or water, which causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;
- the collection, transport, recovery or disposal of waste, including the supervision of such operations and the after-care of disposal sites, and including action taken as a dealer or a broker (waste management), which causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;
- the operation of a plant in which a dangerous activity is carried out or in which dangerous substances or preparations are stored or used and which, outside the plant, causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;
- the production, processing, handling, use, holding, storage, transport, import, export or disposal of nuclear materials or other hazardous radioactive substances which causes or is likely to cause death or serious injury to any person or substantial damage to the quality of air, the quality of soil or the quality of water, or to animals or plants;
- Operating legal waste facilities illegally - for example, by accepting types of waste that are prohibited under a waste permit;



- the killing, destruction, possession or taking of specimens of protected wild fauna or flora species, except for cases where the conduct concerns a negligible quantity of such specimens and has a negligible impact on the conservation status of the species; (Illegally killing protected wild species]
- trading in specimens of protected wild fauna or flora species, parts, or derivatives thereof, except for cases where the conduct concerns a negligible quantity of such specimens and has a negligible impact on the conservation status of the species; (Illegally trafficking wildlife.)
- any conduct which causes the significant deterioration of a habitat within a protected site; (Destroying or damaging protected wildlife sites without permission);
- the production, importation, exportation, placing on the market or use of ozone-depleting substances.
- unlawful ship recycling and water extraction
- serious breaches of EU chemicals and mercury legislation
- placing on the market and export of relevant commodities and products in breach of the Union Anti-Deforestation Regulation.

“Non-state actors” are defined by individuals or organisations that wield political influence whilst not being directly affiliated with any particular country or state.

“Environmental Regulatory Body” refers to the organisation created by the Bath Convention on Ecocide Prevention, whose powers are granted by the mentioned resolution.

Article 2: Control Measures

Any accusations of ecocide by Parties to this Treaty, and violations of the Treaty by Parties, when confirmed by the Environmental Regulatory Body, will be referred to The International Criminal Court and the International Court of Justice.

As such:

1. Demands countries adopt the above definition of ecocide into national law, for legal repercussions to be enacted on those committing the crime of ecocide.
2. Proposes the below legal repercussions to the crime of ecocide when committed by state actors:
 - a. A fine equal to the value of the environmental damage done,
 - b. Humanitarian aid to rebuild and repair the result of the ecocidal acts.
3. Holds each state accountable for any actions defined as ecocide by a company headquartered within their state, and outlines the following consequences for any state that fails to prosecute perpetrators of ecocide:
 - a. A fine equal to the value of the environmental damage done, paid to the state in which natural resources are damaged, capped at 18 billion USD per case,
 - b. Humanitarian aid to rebuild and repair the damage done as a result of the ecocidal acts.
4. In the case of ongoing conflict between states, an assessment must be conducted by the Environmental Regulatory Body to determine whether their actions are definable as ecocide.

Article 3 Withdrawal:

For the purposes of this Treaty, this provision of the protocol shall permit withdrawal shall apply, except with respect to Parties referred to in paragraph at the start of this Treaty. Withdrawal shall be given through written notification to the Depositories at any time after four years of assuming the obligations specified in (Articles 1 and 2). Any such withdrawal shall take effect upon expiry of one year after the date of its receipt by the Depositary, or on such later date as may be specified in the notification of the withdrawal.



AUTHENTIC TEXTS: The original of this Protocol, of which the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary General of the United Nations.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF: the undersigned, being duly authorised to that effect, have signed this Protocol. DONE at Bath this twenty-fourth day of November, two thousand and twenty-four.

Article 4: Signatures

This Treaty shall be open for signature by the States in Bath on November 24th, 2024.



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