## 1st Off

There is an energy crisis and its only going to get worse in the next couple months

#### Horowitz 21

(Julia Horowitz, a senior writer. She leads CNN Business international coverage of global markets and business , October 7th, 2021, A global energy crisis is coming. There's no quick fix, CNN Business,<https://www.cnn.com/2021/10/07/business/global-energy-crisis/index.html>) SJ

**A global energy crunch caused by weather and a resurgence in demand is getting worse, stirring alarm ahead of the winter, when more energy is needed to light and heat homes**. Governments around the world are trying to limit the impact on consumers, but acknowledge they may not be able to prevent bills spiking.  Further complicating the picture is mounting pressure on governments to accelerate the transition to cleaner energy as world leaders prepare for a critical climate summit in November. **In China,** [**rolling blackouts**](https://edition.cnn.com/2021/09/28/economy/china-power-shortage-gdp-supply-chain-intl-hnk/index.html) **for residents have already begun, while in India power stations are scrambling for coal.** [**Consumer advocates in Europe**](https://twitter.com/beuc/status/1445702126336761865?s=20) **are calling for a ban on disconnections if customers can't promptly settle what they owe**. **"This price shock is an unexpected crisis at a critical juncture," EU energy chief Kadri Simson said Wednesday, confirming the bloc will outline its longer-term policy response next week.** "The immediate priority should be to mitigate social impacts and protect vulnerable households." **In Europe, natural gas is now trading at the equivalent of $230 per barrel, in oil terms — up more than 130% since the beginning of September and more than eight times higher than the same point last year, according to data from Independent Commodity Intelligence Services.** **In East Asia, the cost of natural gas is up 85% since the start of September, hitting roughly $204 per barrel in oil terms.** Prices remain much lower in the United States, a net exporter of natural gas, but still have shot up to their highest levels in 13 years. "A lot of it is feeding off of fear about what the winter's going to look like," said Nikos Tsafos, an energy and geopolitics expert at the Center for Strategic and International Studies, a Washington-based think tank. He thinks that anxiety has caused the market to break away from the fundamentals of supply and demand. **The frenzy to secure natural gas is also pushing up the price of coal and oil, which can be used as substitutes in some cases, but are even worse for the climate.** India, which remains extremely dependent on coal, said this week that as many as 63 of its 135 coal-fired power plants have [**two days or less**](https://edition.cnn.com/2021/10/06/energy/india-energy-crisis-coal-hnk-intl/index.html) of supplies. The circumstances are causing central banks and investors to worry. Rising **energy prices are contributing to inflation**, which already was a major concern as the global economy tries to shake off the lingering effects of Covid-19. Dynamics over the **winter could make matters worse.**

#### Government space programs are ineffective at innovating

#### Stossel 20

 (John Stossel, July 29, 2020, The Private Space Race,<https://www.capitalismmagazine.com/2020/07/the-private-space-race/>) SJ

**An Obama administration committee had concluded that launching such a vehicle would take 12 years and cost $36 billion. But this rocket was finished in half that time — for less than $1 billion (1/36th the predicted cost). That’s because it was built by Elon Musk’s private company, Space X. He does things faster and cheaper because he spends his own money.** “This is the potential of free enterprise!” explains aerospace engineer Robert Zubrin in my newest video. Of course, years ago, NASA did manage to send astronauts to the moon. That succeeded, says Zubrin, “because it was purpose-driven. (America) wanted to astonish the world what free people could do.” **But in the 50 years since then, as transportation improved** and computers got smaller and cheaper, **NASA made little progress.** Fortunately, President Obama gave private companies permission to compete in space, saying, “We can’t keep doing the same old things as before.” **Competition then cut the cost of space travel to a fraction of what it was.** Why couldn’t NASA have done that? Because after the moon landing, it became a typical government agency — overbudget and behind schedule. Zubrin says NASA’s purpose seemed to be to “supply money to various suppliers.” Suppliers were happy to go along. Zubrin once worked at Lockheed Martin, where he once discovered a way for a rocket to carry twice as much weight. “We went to management, the engineers, and said, ‘Look, we could double the payload capability for 10% extra cost.’ They said, ‘Look, if the Air Force wants us to improve the Titan, they’ll pay us to do it!'” NASA was paying contractor’s development costs and then adding 10% profit. The more things cost, the bigger the contractor’s profit. So contractors had little incentive to innovate. Even NASA now admits this is a problem. During its 2020 budget request, Administrator Jim Bridenstine confessed, “We have not been good at maintaining schedule and … at maintaining costs.”Nor is NASA good at innovating. **Their technology was so out of date, says Zubrin, that “astronauts brought their laptops with them into space — because shuttle computers were obsolete.”** I asked, “When (NASA) saw that the astronauts brought their own computers, why didn’t they upgrade?” “Because they had an entire philosophy that various components had to be space rated,” he explains. “Space rating was very bureaucratic and costly.” NASA was OK with high costs as long as spaceships were assembled in many congressmen’s districts. “NASA is a very large job program,” says Aerospace lawyer James Dunstan. “By spreading its centers across the country, NASA gets more support from more different congressmen.” Congressmen even laugh about it. Randy Weber, R-Texas, joked, “We’ll welcome (NASA) back to Texas to spend lots of money any time.” Private companies do more with less money. One of Musk’s cost-saving innovations is reusable rocket boosters. For years, NASA dropped its boosters into the ocean. “Why would they throw it away?” I ask Dunstan. “Because that’s the way it’s always been done!” he replies. Twenty years ago, at Lockheed Martin, Zubrin had proposed reusable boosters. His bosses told him: “Cute idea. But if we sell one of these, we’re out of business.” Zubrin explains, “They wanted to keep the cost of space launch high.” **Thankfully, now that self-interested entrepreneurs compete, space travel will get cheaper. Musk can’t waste a dollar. Space X must compete with Jeff Bezos’ Blue Origin, Richard Branson’s Virgin Galactic, Boeing, Lockheed Martin and others.The private sector always comes up with ways to do things that politicians cannot imagine. Government didn’t invent affordable cars, airplanes, iPhones, etc. It took competing entrepreneurs, pursuing profit, to nurture them into the good things we have now.** Get rid of government monopolies.

#### Solar power satellites solves the energy crisis

#### Snowden 19

 (Scott Snowden, Mar 12, 2019, has written about science and technology for 20 years for publications around the world, Solar Power Stations In Space Could Supply The World With Limitless Energy, Forbes,<https://www.forbes.com/sites/scottsnowden/2019/03/12/solar-power-stations-in-space-could-supply-the-world-with-limitless-energy/?sh=23471fec4386> ) SJ

**While on the surface of the Earth, society still struggles to adopt solar energy solutions, many scientists maintain that giant, space-based solar farms could provide an environmentally-friendly answer to the world's energy crisis.** Only last week, we reported that China [**was planning to**](https://www.forbes.com/sites/scottsnowden/2019/03/05/china-plans-to-build-the-worlds-first-solar-power-station-in-space/#51f7f9c35c94) build the world's first solar power station to be positioned in Earth's orbit. **Because the sun always shines in space, an orbital solar** power station **is seen as an inexhaustible source of clean energy.** "Above the Earth, there's no day and night cycle and no clouds or weather or anything else that might obstruct the sun's ray, so a constant power source is available," said Ali Hajimiri, professor of electrical engineering at the California Institute of Technology and co-director of the university’s [**Space Solar Power Project**](https://www.spacesolar.caltech.edu/). Collecting solar power in space and wirelessly transmitting was first described by Isaac Asimov in 1941 in his short story Reason. In 1968, American aerospace engineer Peter Glaser published the first technical article on the concept – Power From The Sun: Its Future in the journal [**Science**](http://www.sciencemag.org/). Space-based solar power attracted considerable attention in the 1970s as the necessary individual technical components – in essence, photovoltaic cells, satellite technology and wireless power transmission – were developed. Despite **the concept** being technically feasible, it **was considered economically unrealistic** at the time **and research ultimately stalled. “The idea seems to be going through a resurgence and it’s probably because the technology exists to make it happen,” said John Mankins, a former NASA scientist who was at the forefront of this field in the 1990s, before it was abandoned. Global energy demands are only going to grow, says Hajimiri. The global population is expected to reach a staggering 9.6 billion by 2050, according to a** [**United Nations report**](http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/news/population/un-report-world-population-projected-to-reach-9-6-billion-by-2050.html)**, so methods of generating large quantities of clean energy must be found.** A space-based solar power system could provide energy to everyone, even in places that don't receive sunlight all year round, like northern Europe and Russia. In April of 2015, a research agreement between Northrop Grumman and Caltech provided up to $17.5m for the development of innovations necessary to enable a space solar power system. Three Caltech professors head up the project: joining Hajimiri were Harry Atwater and Sergio Pellegrino. Caltech is just one institution working on developing this technology. We know that scientists at the Chongqing Collaborative Innovation Research Institute for Civil-Military Integration in China are constructing a facility to test the theoretical viability of the concept and plans to develop an orbital photovoltaic array [**were announced**](https://phys.org/news/2009-11-japan-eyes-solar-station-space.html) in Japan some time ago. One of the biggest issues to overcome is that of getting an array of solar panels large enough to make the project viable into orbit. Early concept designs in the 1970s featured giant arrays that would've proved very difficult to actually get into orbit. "The systems of the 70s for solar power satellites, the cost estimates suggested, at that time, that it might be as much as a trillion dollars to get to the first kilowatt hour because of the way the designs worked. Essentially a single satellite, a platform, an integrated, monolithic platform about the size of Manhattan," said Mankins**.However, with SpaceX and Blue Origin** slowly **driving the cost of orbital delivery down,** suddenly **the concept seems** alittle **closer** **to** **reality.** "Going to modular systems to allow mass production, I believe was the answer to how to get solar power satellite costs down to something more reasonable," said Mankins.

#### Energy crisis results in war

#### Klare 14

(Micheal T Klare, July 15, 2014, Twenty-first century energy wars: how oil and gas are fuelling global conflicts, a Five Colleges professor of Peace and World Security Studies,<https://energypost.eu/twenty-first-century-energy-wars-oil-gas-fuelling-global-conflicts/>) SJ

**As these conflicts and others like them suggest, fighting for control over key energy assets or the distribution of oil revenues is a critical factor in most contemporary warfare. While ethnic and religious divisions may provide the political and ideological fuel for these battles, it is the potential for mammoth oil profits that keeps the struggles alive. Without the promise of such resources, many of these conflicts would eventually die out for lack of funds to buy arms and pay troops.** So long as the oil keeps flowing, however, the belligerents have both the means and incentive to keep fighting. **In a fossil-fuel world, control over oil and gas reserves is an essential component of national power.** “Oil fuels more than automobiles and airplanes,” Robert Ebel of the Center for Strategic and International Studies [**told**](http://2001-2009.state.gov/s/p/of/proc/tr/10187.htm) a State Department audience in 2002. “Oil fuels military power, national treasuries, and international politics.” Far more than an ordinary trade commodity, “it is a determinant of well being, of national security, and international power for those who possess this vital resource, and the converse for those who do not.” If anything, that’s even truer today, and as energy wars expand, the truth of this will only become more evident**. Someday, perhaps, the development of renewable sources of energy may invalidate this dictum. But in our present world, if you see a conflict developing, look for the energy. It’ll be there somewhere on this fossil-fueled planet of ours.**

## 2nd Off

#### Mining solves Water Shortages

**Kean 15** Sam Kean December 2015 "The End of Thirst"<https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2015/12/the-end-of-thirst/413176/> (writer based in Washington DC for the Atlantic)//Elmer

**Imagine turning on your tap and seeing no water come out**. Or looking down into your village’s only well and finding it dust-dry. Much of **the developing world** **could** soon **face such a scenario.** According to the United Nations, **1.2 billion** people already **suffer from** severe **water shortages**, and that number is **expected to increase to 1.8 billion** **over the next decade**, in part because of climate change. **Developed countries probably won’t be immune**. California and other states in the western U.S. are already experiencing extreme drought, and **climate experts warn of** even worse to come—multi-decade **megadroughts**. Mass migrations and wars over freshwater loom as real possibilities. Staving off disaster will require conservation, especially in agriculture, which consumes more than two-thirds of all the water humans use. Basic infrastructure maintenance would also go a long way: Some developing countries lose more than half their water through leaky pipes. But **conservation** and maintenance **won’t solve** all our water woes, especially as the planet warms and people continue to pack into cities. As a result, governments around the world are investing in new water-recycling and water-harvesting technologies. Here’s what the future of water might look like. 1. Drinking From the Sea … One obvious solution would be to drink ocean water. Converting seawater into freshwater by stripping out the salt—a process called desalination—offers several advantages. Roughly half the world’s population lives within 65 miles of an ocean, and saltwater accounts for about 97 percent of all water on Earth. Still, desalination presents obstacles. Older plants that boil seawater and collect the vapors, as many of those in the Middle East do, use ungodly amounts of energy. Newer plants that use reverse osmosis—whereby seawater is forced through membranes at high pressure—are more efficient, but still expensive and energy-intensive. The process also produces a briny waste that can harm marine life if not disposed of properly. We can nevertheless expect to see more desalination plants soon—thanks in part to Israel, which all but eliminated its chronic water shortages in the past decade by building four large reverse-osmosis plants, inspiring other countries to follow suit. A $1 billion plant operated by an Israeli company is about to open north of San Diego; it will be the largest in the Western Hemisphere, providing up to 50 million gallons of water a day to Californians. 2. … Or From the Toilet Instead of desalination, some experts favor recycling wastewater—cleaning the water from showers, washing machines, and, yes, toilets—for human consumption. Most water-recycling plants clean water in two basic ways. First, they force it through filters, some of which have holes hundreds of times narrower than a strand of human hair. These filters remove waste particles, organic chemicals, bacteria, viruses, and other dreck. Second, chemicals like hydrogen peroxide or ozone and pulses of ultraviolet light destroy any pathogens that have slipped through. Water recycling is a proven technology: California recycles hundreds of millions of gallons each day for irrigation and other uses. So what’s stopping recycled wastewater from going directly to our taps? Human psychology. The very idea of drinking it disgusts many people. They view such water as irredeemably dirty, little better than toilet water. In reality, recycled water is some of the cleanest drinking water around—as good as or better than the best bottled water. (Breweries in Oregon and California have plans to make beer with recycled water for this very reason—it’s so clean that it’s tasteless, a blank slate.) More to the point, recycled water is far purer than most tap water. By the time the water in the Mississippi reaches New Orleans, for instance, every drop has been used by cities along the river multiple times, and the treatment it gets before going through the taps is nowhere near as extensive as what a water-recycling plant provides. Singapore and Namibia have recycled water for years with no adverse health effects, and nasa began recycling water on the International Space Station in 2008. (The Russian cosmonauts there don’t recycle their pee, but they give the Americans bags of it to recycle and then drink.) In the United States, a few parched towns in Texas and New Mexico drink recycled wastewater already, and last year the city of San Diego—which gets most of its water from rivers that are running dry—approved a $3 billion recycling plant that would provide one-third of its tap water, 83 million gallons a day, by 2035. San Diego had rejected essentially the same plan in 1998, but this time the city decided it had no other choice. 3. Microbe Power Rather than filtering out organic waste, water-recycling plants might one day be able to break it down with microbes, a process that could bring an ancillary benefit: electric power. As they digest the gunk in wastewater, certain species of bacteria, called electricigens, can liberate electrons, the stuff of electricity. Producing electrons is actually common in nature—much of photosynthesis involves shuttling them around. Unlike plants, though, electricigens don’t store electrons internally. They use microscopic appendages that look like hairs to deposit the electrons onto external surfaces, usually minerals. In experimental fuel cells, scientists have replaced the minerals with wires and harvested electrons. Someday the bacteria might even generate enough power to run a water-recycling plant, making it self-sufficient. 4. Keeping It Simple Some up-and-coming water technologies are startlingly straightforward. People on arid plateaus, for instance, can string a fine plastic mesh between two posts and use it to capture water from fog that rolls through, collecting the drops in storage tanks. Existing systems in one small Guatemalan village can collect 6,300 liters a day, and more during the wet season. Scientists think that updating the mesh with new materials and tighter weaves could dramatically improve yields. People could even channel the water into hydroponic gardens to grow food. Imagine famously foggy San Francisco with a farm on every rooftop. Oil films present another low-tech opportunity. Reservoirs lose appalling amounts of water to evaporation: By some estimates, more water escapes into the air than is used by humans. But covering the surface with an extremely thin layer—even just one molecule thick—of nontoxic chemicals derived from coconut or palm oil can cut evaporative losses. Wind tends to break up layers of oil, re-exposing the water to the elements. But drones or blimps equipped with sensors could someday monitor reservoirs and signal where oil needed to be re-applied. In one recent test, spreading oil over a lake in Texas (via boats) appears to have cut evaporation by about 15 percent. 5. Making It Rain Of course, for every modest proposal to save water, there’s an audacious one floating around. Take weather modification. Advocates of the idea hope to significantly boost precipitation using a process called “cloud seeding”: spraying clouds with a chemical like silver iodide, which acts as a nucleus around which water droplets collect. The droplets then fall to Earth as rain or snow. That’s the theory, at least. The first large-scale experiments, in the 1940s, generated a lot of excitement. More recently, weather modification has been dogged by accusations of hype and questions about its reliability. A six-year program in Wyoming claimed to have squeezed 5 to 15 percent more precipitation out of the clouds it seeded. Unfortunately, conditions were suitable for seeding only 30 percent of the time, so the total increase in precipitation was closer to 3 percent. That’s not nothing, especially during droughts. But weather modification may be the flying car of water technology—a tantalizing idea that’s forever on the horizon. 6. The Moon Shot I**f Earth** does **run dry**, **we might** be able to **save ourselves by mining water from asteroids** and comets. Scientists have landed probes on these space rocks to study them. Future landers could mine them in deep space or possibly even drag them back toward Earth. Though the idea sounds far-fetched, space-mining companies already exist, and one of them, Planetary Resources, expects to start harvesting resources from asteroids in about a decade. According to Planetary Resources, **a single 1,600-foot-wide asteroid could yield** more platinum than has ever been mined in human history. But **water** could prove to be the real prize for space-mining companies. Some astronomers believe that **the asteroid Ceres**, which sits between Jupiter and Mars, may **contain** **more freshwater** (as ice) **than all of Earth does.** In addition to quenching people’s thirst, this water could be turned into fuel for interplanetary spaceships. In that case, an ample supply of water would be the key to a happy future not just down here on the ground, but up among the stars as well.

#### Water Wars cause:

#### a] Indo-Pak War – goes Nuclear

**Klare 20** — Five College professor emeritus of peace and world security studies, and director of the Five College Program in Peace and World Security Studies (PAWSS), holds a B.A. and M.A. from Columbia University and a Ph.D. from the Graduate School of the Union Institute. (Michael; Published: 2020; "Climate Change, Water Scarcity, and the Potential for Interstate Conflict in South Asia"; Journal of Strategic Security 13, No. 4, Pages 109-122; https://doi.org/10.5038/1944-0472.13.4.1826 Available at: https://scholarcommons.usf.edu/jss/vol13/iss4/8)//CYang

Interstate conflict over water might occur, the ICA indicated, when several states rely on a shared river system for much of their water supply and one or more of the riparian states sought to maximize the river’s flow for their own benefit at the expense of other states in the basin, amplifying any scarcities already present there. “We judge that as water shortages become **more acute** beyond the next ten years, water in shared basins will **increasingly be used** as leverage,” the ICA stated. An upstream state enjoying superior control over a river’s flow might exploit its advantage, say, to extract advantage in international negotiations or to attract international aid for infrastructure projects. As the ICA further noted, “…we assess that states will also use their **inherent ability** to construct and support major water projects to obtain **regional influence** or preserve their water interests.”16

The utilization of a state’s superior position in a shared river system to extract political or economic advantage can prove **especially destabilizing**, the ICA suggested, when weaker states in the system (typically the downstream countries) are especially vulnerable to water scarcity because of long-standing social, economic, and political conditions. Without identifying any particular states by name, the study suggested that this could occur when downstream states suffer from endemic corruption, poor water management practices, and systemic favoritism when it comes to the allocation of scarce water supplies. In such cases, any reduction in the flow of water by an upstream country could easily combine with internal factors in a downstream country to provoke **widespread unrest** and conflict. “Water shortages, and government failures to manage them, are likely to lead to social disruptions, pressure on national and local leaders, and potentially political instability,” the report noted.17

Although most discussion of the climate and water security nexus has continued to emphasize the risk of internal conflict arising from warming-related water scarcities, some analysts have pursued the line of inquiry introduced by the 2012 ICA, focusing on interstate tensions arising within shared river basins. This was a prominent theme, for example, of a 2013 study conducted by the National Research Council (NRC) on behalf of the IC. Entitled Climate and Social Stress: Implications for Security Analysis, the 2013 NRC report sought to better identify the links between global warming, pre-existing social vulnerabilities, and the likelihood of conflict. While it echoed earlier studies by the CNA and NIC in identifying internal factors like poverty, ethnic discord, and governmental ineptitude as likely pre-conditions for climate-related conflict, it also examined dangers arising from dependence on shared river systems, especially in cases where cooperation among the riparian powers in managing the system is limited and global warming is expected to reduce future water flows.18

For the NRC, the river systems of greatest concern in this respect were those that originate in the Himalayan Mountains and depend, for a significant share of the annual flow, on meltwater from the Himalayan glaciers. These glaciers are an important source of meltwater for many of Asia’s major rivers, including the Indus, Ganges, Brahmaputra, and

Mekong Rivers. These rivers originate in China but travel through India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Laos, Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam—countries with a combined population of over 3.4 billion people, or approximately 44 percent of the world’s total population.19 A large share of the population in these countries depends on agriculture for its livelihood, so ensuring access to adequate supplies of water is a prime local and national priority. During the monsoon season, heavy rains provide these rivers with abundant water, but during dry seasons they are dependent on glacial meltwater—and, with the rise in global temperatures, the Himalayan glaciers are melting, jeopardizing future water availability in these river basins. Given a history of ethnic and social discord within many of these countries and long-standing tensions among them, analysts fear that such shortages could aggravate both internal and external tensions and ignite interstate as well as intrastate conflict.20

As was the case of previous IC-initiated studies, the authors of the 2013 NRC report were reluctant to identify specific countries in their findings, referring again to “countries of security concern” or other such euphemisms. However, they did select one of these countries in particular: Pakistan. They chose that country for special analysis, the report indicated, because “Pakistan presents a **clear example** of a country where social dynamics and susceptibility to harm from climate events combine to create a potentially unstable situation.”21 Pakistan was said to suffer from **multiple risk factors**: Its economy is largely dependent on agriculture; much of the water used for irrigation purposes comes from just one source, the Indus River; control over the allocation of irrigation waters is often exercised by privileged elites, leaving millions of Pakistanis vulnerable to water shortages; and much of the water flowing into the Indus comes from China or from tributaries originating in India, leaving Pakistan in an unfavorable (downstream) position in the system. These conditions have led, in the past, to internal squabbles over water rights and to tensions with India over control of the Indus; now, with the likelihood of diminished meltwater from the Himalayan glaciers, the risk of water scarcity triggering **violent conflict** of one sort or another becomes that **much greater**.22

Pakistan, the Indus, and U.S. Security

There is no doubt that Pakistan is considered by U.S. security analysts as a “state important to U.S. national security interests,” the term used by the Defense Intelligence Agency to describe countries of concern in the 2012 ICA on water. Not only is Pakistan a critical—if not always wholehearted—partner in the global war on terror, but it also possesses a **substantial arsenal** of nuclear weapons whose security is a matter of **enormous concern** to American leaders.23 Should those munitions wind up with rogue elements of the Pakistani military (some of whose members are believed to maintain clandestine links to radical Islamic organizations), or even worse, should Pakistan descend into civil war and the weapons fall into untrustworthy or hostile hands, the safety of India and other US allies—as well as of American forces deployed in the region—would be at **grave risk**.24 Ensuring Pakistan’s stability therefore, has long been a major U.S. security objective, prompting regular deliveries of American arms and other military aid. Yet, despite billions of dollars in American aid, Pakistan remains vulnerable to social and ethnic internal strife.25

As noted, farming is the principal economic activity in Pakistan, and ensuring access to water is an overarching public and **government concern**. This means, above all, **managing the use** of the Indus—the country’s main source of water for irrigation and its **major source** of power for electricity generation. Pakistan’s rising population and growing cities, with their rings of factories, are placing an immense strain on the Indus, leading to competition between farmers, industrialists, and urban consumers. With water and power shortages becoming an increasingly frequent aspect of daily life, public protests—sometimes turning violent—have erupted across the country. In one particularly intense bout of rioting, following a prolonged power outage in June 2012, protestors burned trains, blocked roads, looted shops, and damaged banks and gas stations.26

However bad things might be in Pakistan today, climate change is likely to make conditions far worse in the years ahead. Prolonged droughts, climate scientists believe, will occur with increasing regularity, posing a severe threat to the nation’s agricultural sector and further reducing the supply of hydroelectric power. At the same time, warming is expected to increase the intensity of monsoon downpours, resulting in massive flooding (as occurred in 2010) and the loss of valuable topsoil, further adding to Pakistan’s woes. As the Himalayan glaciers melt, moreover, water flow through the Indus will diminish.27 With the competition for land and water resources bound to increase and with Pakistan already divided along ethnic and religious lines, widespread civil strife will become ever more likely, possibly jeopardizing the survival of the state.

It is impossible to predict exactly how the United States might respond to a systemic breakdown of state governance in Pakistan. One thing is clear, however: At the earliest sign that the country’s nuclear weapons are at risk of falling into the hands of hostile parties, the American military would respond with decisive force. In fact, research conducted by the nonpartisan Nuclear Threat Initiative (NTI) has revealed that the Joint Special Operations Command (JSOC) and specialized Army units have been training for such contingencies for some time and have deployed all the necessary gear to the region. In the event of a coup or crisis, the NTI revealed, “U.S. forces would rush into the country, crossing borders, rappelling down from helicopters, and parachuting out of airplanes, so they can secure known or suspected nuclear-storage sites.” Recognizing that any such actions by American forces could trigger widespread resistance by the Pakistani army and/or various jihadist groups, the U.S. Central Command, which has authority over all American forces in the region, has developed plans for backing up JSOC personnel with full-scale military support.28

Another scenario that has some analysts worried is the possibility that a time of **sharply reduced** water flow through the Indus will coincide with efforts by India to exploit its advantageous position as the upper riparian on three key tributaries of the Indus—the Ravi, the Beas, and the Sutlej—to divert water for its own use, thereby depriving downstream Pakistan of vital supplies and provoking a war between these two countries. India was granted control over the three tributaries under the Indus Water Treaty of 1960, and various Indian leaders have threatened at times to dam the rivers or otherwise reduce their flow into Pakistan as a reprisal for Pakistani attacks on Indian bases in the disputed territory of Kashmir (through which the tributaries flow); this, in turn, has provoked counter-threats from Pakistani leaders.29 What analysts fear most, in such a situation, is that India, possessing **superior conventional forces**, would overpower Pakistan’s equivalent armies, leading Pakistan’s leaders to order the use of nuclear weapons against India, igniting a regional nuclear war. Such a conflict, scientists have calculated, would result in 50 to 125 million fatalities, and produce a **dust cloud** covering much of the Earth, decimating **global agriculture**—an outcome with enormous implications for American national security.30

#### b] Sino-India Conflict – goes Nuclear

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China, India, and the Brahmaputra River

The potential for interstate conflict—even nuclear conflict—over shared water supplies arises in the case of another **major river** at risk from climate change: The Brahmaputra, which originates in China and traverses much of northeastern India before merging with the Ganges in Bangladesh and emptying into the Bay of Bengal. The fifth-largest river in the world by volume of water flow, the Brahmaputra starts on the northern slopes of the Himalayas and flows easterly across the southern Tibetan plateau (where it is known as the Yarlung Tsangpo) before making a nearly 180-degree turn and crossing into the Indian state of Arunachal Pradesh; from there, it flows in a southwesterly direction towards its confluence with the Ganges and thence its exit into the Bay of Bengal. For the Chinese, the Brahmaputra is an **important engine** of hydroelectric power; they have already installed one dam on the river, at Zangmu, and have announced plans for at least three more. For the Indians, it is a **valuable source** of irrigation water, especially in agriculture-dependent regions of the northeast. Leaders of both countries are **fully aware** of their counterparts’ interests and concerns over the river but have made little effort to reach a mutual understanding—let alone any formal agreements—regarding its future development.31

Several factors make the future status of the Brahmaputra a matter of **deep concern** to security analysts. To begin with, the river enters India through the state of Arunachal Pradesh, an area of northeastern India abutting Tibet that is claimed by both countries. Beijing insists that this region was once part of the kingdom of Tibet, and so belongs to China; New Delhi claims it is a legitimate part of India under a 1914 treaty between Tibet and Great Britain. The two sides fought a war here in 1962, with India suffering significant battlefield setbacks but China agreeing to restore the status quo ante. The countries have not been able to resolve the ownership dispute in subsequent years, despite intermittent negotiations, and both continue to maintain substantial military forces in the region. To this day, discord over Arunachal Pradesh remains a **continuing source** of friction in Sino-Indian relations and a **potential spark** for violent conflict.32

Another potential source of friction between China and India arises from Chinese plans (or rumors of such plans) to divert water from the upper Brahmaputra and funnel it via a series of tunnels and canals to northeastern China, where existing supplies are hugely inadequate.33 While dismissed by many Chinese experts as overly ambitious and costly, the notion of diverting water from the Brahmaputra has generated considerable anxiety in India, where experts fear that the resulting decline in water flow into the Indian section of the river would threaten agricultural productivity. Given the centrality of farming in the Indian economy and political system, any Chinese move to proceed with such a diversion project could lead to increased tension between the two countries. 34

Few analysts believe that a Sino-Indian conflict over the Brahmaputra is likely in the years immediately ahead. Both countries have strong motives for maintaining friendly—if not necessarily, warm—relations between them, and water issues have not yet dominated the bilateral agenda. This, however, is where global warming enters the picture. The Brahmaputra, like the Indus, draws much of its flow during dry seasons from the melting of Himalayan glaciers—and these, as has already been noted, are melting as a result of climate change, and could **eventually disappear**. For both China and India, the melting of the Himalayan glaciers will have **momentous consequences**. Given the Brahmaputra’s **critical importance** to agriculture and economic activity in both countries, any significant long-term decline in its flow would be **highly disruptive**, causing widespread hardship and social unrest.35

Under these **more stressful conditions**, the Chinese leadership, desperate to provide additional supply to China’s water-starved northeast, might be more inclined to proceed with water diversion projects on the Brahmaputra and other shared river systems.36 Coming at a time of equivalent water scarcity in India, such an effort is almost certain to trigger a **harsh Indian response**. “The most salient climate-related point of conflict [between China and India] could be China’s move to divert the upstream waters of rivers originating in the Himalayan watershed,” the NIC warned in a special report on climate change and India. “If China was determined to move forward with such a scheme, it could become a **major element** in pushing China and India towards an adversarial rather than simply a competitive relationship. Border clashes related to control of the rivers are not out of the question.”37

Any conflict between China and India over the waters of the Brahmaputra, should one occur, is most likely to remain a localized affair, without provoking a full-scale mobilization of forces on both sides. During the 1962 war over Arunachal Pradesh, Chinese army troops engaged their Indian counterparts in disputed areas along the border, but neither side escalated to large-scale combat. However, once fighting breaks out, it is impossible to predict the **succeeding chain** of events, and any outcome is conceivable. A minor skirmish along the Indo-Chinese border might not be a cause for alarm in the United States, but a larger war between those two countries undoubtedly would be. Both are armed with nuclear weapons, and Washington views India as a strategic counterweight to China.38 A crushing defeat of India would be viewed as a **potential threat** to American national interests and might conceivably precipitate U.S. **military intervention**. Where that might lead is anyone’s guess, but the mere possibility of such combat has made this scenario a matter of deep concern for security analysts in Washington.39

#### Nuke war causes extinction AND outweighs other existential risks

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**PND 16**. internally citing Zbigniew Brzezinski, Council of Foreign Relations and former national security adviser to President Carter, Toon and Robock’s 2012 study on nuclear winter in the Bulletin of Atomic Scientists, Gareth Evans’ International Commission on Nuclear Non-proliferation and Disarmament Report, Congressional EMP studies, studies on nuclear winter by Seth Baum of the Global Catastrophic Risk Institute and Martin Hellman of Stanford University, and U.S. and Russian former Defense Secretaries and former heads of nuclear missile forces, brief submitted to the United Nations General Assembly, Open-Ended Working Group on nuclear risks. A/AC.286/NGO/13. 05-03-2016.<http://www.reachingcriticalwill.org/images/documents/Disarmament-fora/OEWG/2016/Documents/NGO13.pdf> //Re-cut by Elmer

Consequences human survival 12. Even if the 'other' side does NOT launch in response the smoke from 'their' burning cities (incinerated by 'us') will still make 'our' country (and the rest of the world) **uninhabitable**, potentially inducing global famine lasting up to **decades**. **Toon and Robock** note in ‘Self Assured Destruction’, in the Bulletin of Atomic Scientists 68/5, 2012, that: 13. “A nuclear war between Russia and the United States, even after the arsenal reductions planned under New START, could produce a nuclear winter. Hence, an attack by either side could be suicidal, resulting in **self assured destruction**. Even a 'small' nuclear war between India and Pakistan, with each country detonating 50 Hiroshima-size atom bombs--only about 0.03 percent of the global nuclear arsenal's explosive power--as air bursts in urban areas, could produce so much smoke that temperatures would fall below those of the Little Ice Age of the fourteenth to nineteenth centuries, shortening the growing season around the world and threatening the global food supply. Furthermore, there would be massive ozone depletion, allowing more **ultraviolet** radiation to reach Earth's surface. **Recent studies** predict that agricultural production in parts of the **U**nited **S**tates and **China** would decline by about **20 percent** for four years, and by 10 percent for a decade.” 14. A conflagration involving USA/NATO forces and those of Russian federation would most likely cause the deaths of most/nearly all/**all humans** (and severely impact/extinguish **other species**) as well as destroying the delicate interwoven techno-structure on which latter-day 'civilization' has come to depend. Temperatures would drop to below those of the last ice-age for up to 30 years as a result of the lofting of up to 180 million tonnes of very black soot into the stratosphere where it would remain for decades. 15. Though human ingenuity and resilience shouldn't be underestimated, human survival itself is arguably problematic, to put it mildly, under a 2000+ warhead USA/Russian federation scenario. 16. The Joint Statement on Catastrophic Humanitarian Consequences signed October 2013 by 146 governments mentioned 'Human Survival' no less than 5 times. The most recent (December 2014) one gives it a highly prominent place. **Gareth Evans**’ ICNND (International Commission on Nuclear Non-proliferation and Disarmament) Report made it clear that it saw the threat posed by nuclear weapons use as one that at least threatens what we now call 'civilization' and that potentially **threatens human survival with an immediacy that even climate change does not**, though we can see the results of climate change here and now and of course the immediate post-nuclear results for Hiroshima and Nagasaki as well.