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# The constitutional and historical relevance of the AFSJ and the CFSP/ESDP

### **Abstract**

The purpose of this policy paper is to analyse the historical development and legislative framework of two areas of European Union (EU) law: the area of freedom, security and justice (AFSJ), and the Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) and European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP). It considers the earlier forms of cooperation in these fields, and compares these with the recent provisions of the Treaty of Lisbon. It attempts to view these areas as essential components of a security–identity continuum, in the sense that they express a specific attitude of the EU to the global scene that can be studied from a constitutional law perspective. The evolution of the AFSJ and the CFSP/ESDP is particularly important in the light of the recent crisis in Ukraine and the relationship with the Middle East.

# 1 Introduction: The European Union from an international relations perspective

The EU has frequently been an object of study, both in the discipline of international relations and in constitutional law and theory. The discussion about the role of the EU in the world has produced analyses that have looked in various directions, focusing on its nature, or on its impact, or on it as an example of the globalization of law and policy-making. The first section of this paper contains a brief overview of international relations theories on the EU as a power. Many of these approaches take into account the developments of the CFSP/ESDP, but they very rarely link these with the policies implemented in the external dimension of the AFSJ. The second section aims to demonstrate precisely how these two areas of EU law have been growing steadily, initially at the margins of other areas. Since they embrace key aspects of State sovereignty, their intertwined development should not be underestimated, especially in the light of the complexity of the contemporary globalized world.

In fact, those scholars who represent the EU as a civilian actor (i.e. as a civilian group of countries wielding mainly economic and diplomatic power through the provision of aid and the conclusion of trade agreements) are keen to emphasize its non-coercive dimension (Duchêne 1973). This image corresponds to some extent to the EU's self-representation. For example, in a speech given in 2000, Romano Prodi, then President of the European Commission, made it clear that the ambition of the EU is to be a global civil power that ensures sustainable global development to guarantee its own strategic security. From this perspective, the EU would be a promoter of regional cooperation and would rely on persuasion and mediation to achieve long-term economic and political goals. EU action would be characterized by the development of supranational institutions, the rule of law and human rights. Critics here have an easy role arguing that the EC/EU has merely been allowed to act as a civilian power, because, both before and after the Cold War, key issues such as security and defence could always be dealt

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R. Prodi, '2000-2005: Shaping the new Europe', speech to the European Parliament, Strasbourg, 15 February 2000.

with in other (national and international) contexts.<sup>2</sup> On the other hand, it could be observed that, especially after the Cold War, the EU has been moving in a different direction, by increasingly taking up the role of a military power through its Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) and, in particular, the security and defence policy (ESDP). In some analysts' view, this heralds the beginning of a new era, in which the civilian aspects have been dismissed once and for all (Smith 2000). The updated version of this theory identifies the EU as a normative power (in the sense of a post-Westphalian, ideational project to enforce across the globe norms such as peace, liberty, democracy, the rule of law, respect for human rights, solidarity, sustainable development and good governance) (Manners 2002), but it is not immune from the same objections, even when it concedes that unreflexive militarization might undermine the EU's function of norm-diffusion (Manners 2006). Ultimately, all narratives revolving around the notion of normative power reveal a liberal-institutionalist background of communicative rationality and Kantian cosmopolitanism when they maintain that the EU is able to export a model that goes beyond traditional power politics in international relations (Nicolaïdis and Howse 2002; Eriksen 2006). As a result, they can be attacked from a realist perspective by pointing out that the EU is little more than a tool in the hands of the most powerful States for projecting their hegemonic visions on the rest of the world (Hyde-Price 2006).

This does not save instrumentalist analyses from the observation that norm-diffusion can be very effective in building up an area of influence and self-representation that is not necessarily restricted to national interests. After all, in a transnational or postnational setting, where sovereignty is contested, "(...) law becomes *particular* – the reflection of particular values and particular projects of individuals and groups, in competition with the values and projects of others" (Krisch 2010: 306). Norms and values easily migrate across legal systems regardless of national borders: "(...) the nation-state is no longer the sole focus of political loyalties", and "(...) loyalties to subnational groups meet (and conflict) with national allegiances, just as cosmopolitan leanings interact (sometimes clash) with loyalties for regional, national, subnational collectives" (Krisch 2010: 98).

This puts the question of the international projection of the EU into a new perspective. What is interesting about the EU is not only its capacity for norm-diffusion, but also its peculiar nature, which belongs only to a limited extent to international law. Many definitions have been used to classify the EU: unsurprisingly, international lawyers are often puzzled by those EU lawyers who have no qualms about its constitutional nature and employ terms such as "constitutional order of states" (Dashwood 1998), "multilevel constitution" (Pernice 1999: 707), or similar expressions (Weiler and Haltern 1998: 331). For most international lawyers, the EU is just a more refined species of a genus: no matter how compelling are the reasons to emphasize its unique features, it simply represents "(...) a model for other international organizations to emulate" (Klabbers 2001: 224).

To be sure, the idea of a model that shapes practices of cooperation and integration worldwide is very popular in EU-friendly academic and bureaucratic circles. However, as can be deduced from the few references mentioned above, what exactly this model consists of is still unclear. This lack of clarity may have practical consequences - for example, when it comes to deciding whether an international provision or an EU provision should apply to a particular case. It can be reasonably argued that EU law, should it be depicted as a self-contained regime, would amount to a lex specialis in its relationship with the general norms of international law (Simma and Pulkowski 2006: 516). The ambiguous nature of the EU has in some ways been enhanced by the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU), which has, in important rulings in the CFSP field such as Kadi, on the one hand, reiterated its classic formula of "autonomous legal order" and, on the other, never explicitly denied EU law's international legal roots.3

Whilst the CJEU is very cautious at the moment, and avoids employing a more clear-cut terminology, a convincing alternative is to frame EU law as a highly developed system of transnational law. Although the very use of the expression "transnational law" is contested, it is often observed that the increasing trend towards overlapping of sources of law and *legal hybrids* has blurred the distinction between international, national and EU law (Krisch 2010;

For example, Bull noted that "the power of influence exerted by the European Community and other such civilian actors was conditional upon a strategic environment provided by the military power of states, which they did not control" (Bull 1982: 151).

Joined Cases C-402/05 P and C-415/05 P Kadi and Al Barakaat International Foundation v. Council and Commission [2008] ECR I-6351, para 285. Instead, according to the more self-referential Opinion of Advocate-General Maduro, " (...) the Community Courts determine the effect of international obligations within the Community legal order by reference to conditions set by Community law" (para 31).

Zumbansen 2010; Fichera 2014). It has even been argued that both the EU and the WTO are indicative of the need to go beyond the dichotomy between international and municipal law (Tuori 2014). Viewing EU law as transnational law does not hide the conflicts and tensions between principles and concepts belonging to different systems. This approach challenges the classical paradigm of State sovereignty and forces us to rethink legal categories by adopting many perspectives simultaneously. In other words, it is not just about the dialectic between, for example, human rights and trade or between different claims of legitimacy. It is also about in whose name the claims are made or the human rights enforced. Once the factual importance of conflict and structures of power is recognized, the idea of model takes on a more nuanced meaning. This makes it necessary to look at the historical and political context in which European integration has developed.

One of the most important elements of the EU's international identity is the joint development of the Area of Freedom, Security and Justice (AFSJ) and the CFSP/ESDP. These should be seen as tools for the projection of a model of integration though the assertion of Western values. The end of the Cold War and the attack on the Twin Towers have played a crucial role in the configuration of the European model.

Indeed, although the CFSP/ESDP and the AFSJ have been following distinct paths, there is an increasing convergence between them.

## 2 The historical and constitutional dimension of the AFSJ and the CFSP/ESDP

Let us begin with the CFSP/ESDP field. As early as the 1950s, proposals were made by France and the United Kingdom to set up a European army and a European defence minister: the Treaty establishing the European Defence Community (EDC) was signed one year after the Treaty on the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC). The EDC was to be supranational, with common institutions, a common army and a common budget (Article 1). Police forces for the maintenance of internal order could be established on the territories of the Member States

(Article 11). The Treaty's provisions drew inspiration from the Schuman Plan and the ECSC Treaty and, indeed, the assumption was that the two forms of integration, military and economic, would proceed simultaneously. Obviously, the negotiations of the two Treaties and the Pleven Plan (upon which the EDC was modelled) reflected the intention of France, the United Kingdom and the United States to contain German economic and military power through an institutional framework that relied on a form of regional collective security against external threats – so much so that the system was tied to NATO (Kunz 1953).

Although the EDC Treaty was not particularly lucky, attempts were made up until the 1980s to create a common foreign and defence policy, despite (or perhaps thanks to) the long shadow cast by NATO. For example, the United Kingdom, France, Benelux and later Germany and Italy signed a Treaty setting up the Western European Union (WEU).5 The WEU was, just like the EDC, a system for collective security, linked to the United Nations (UN): each of the State Parties was committed, in accordance with Article 51 of the UN Charter, to afford assistance to the others in case of armed attack (Article V), and the Treaty was not to be interpreted in any way that could undermine the authority of the UN Security Council as regards the maintenance of international peace and security (Article VI). The WEU, too, had supranational elements. While created to counter-balance the influence of the Soviet Union in central Europe, its purpose was ultimately to promote unity and to encourage "the progressive integration of Europe" (Article VIII).6 It seems that the WEU worked mainly as a framework for consultation between countries and for joint actions in the context of regional conflicts, such as the Gulf War or the war in the former Yugoslavia. However, its mandate potentially extended to a wide range of issues: the WEU Council could be convened in case of a "threat to peace, in whatever area this threat should arise, or a danger to economic stability" (Article VIII). In practice, the expansive nature of security can have an impact not only on the powers and responsibilities conferred upon supranational bodies but also on their geographical extension: in subsequent years Portugal and Spain (1990) and Greece (1995) joined the WEU.7 The WEU was

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Traité instituant la Communauté Européenne de Défense, Paris, 27 May 1952.

Treaty on Economic, Social and Cultural Collaboration and Collective Self-Defence, Brussels, 17 March 1948 and the Protocol Modifying and Completing the Brussels Treaty, Paris, 23 October 1954 (Paris Agreements).

<sup>6</sup> See also www.weu.int.

Document WEU/SG (2003) 81 revision 5 'What is WEU Today?', December 2009, at www.weu.int.

terminated in 2011, but is a prototype of the current CFSP, as will be seen below.<sup>8</sup>

In a similar vein, experiments were made with the Fouchet Plans and with European Political Cooperation (EPC). The Fouchet Plans (I and II) were not successful because of the failure by the French President, De Gaulle, and the representatives of the other State Parties, including Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, to reach a compromise (Wessel 2003: 269). The EPC was an attempt to revive the project by way of a framework of cooperation between foreign ministers, initially outside the formal structure of the EC.9 The EPC developed gradually through periodic meetings; however, these produced only common institutional positions on matters of foreign affairs (declarations and communiqués). This practice continued throughout the 1970s and 1980s before being incorporated into the Single European Act (SEA), which amended the Treaties of Rome and represented an important step in the process of European integration.<sup>10</sup> However, the SEA, while establishing the European Council (bringing together the Heads of State or of Government of the Member States and the President of the Commission), conferring upon the EPC binding force under international law and committing the Member States to a common policy, kept the EPC formally separate from the European Community, with a distinct legal basis (Murphy 1989: 349). This formal separation is still reflected today, after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon, in the current formulation of the CFSP.<sup>11</sup>

This should not deceive the reader. The CFSP, as established by the Treaty of Maastricht in accordance with a proposal by the French and German Presidents, is functionally related to the EC/EU.<sup>12</sup> One of the most important aspects of this is precisely the link between the CFSP and the AFSJ (which was originally named justice and home affairs by the Treaty of Maastricht). This is not just about framing paradigmatic areas of State sovereignty, such as foreign

policy, defence, criminal law, immigration and asylum, within an intergovernmental mechanism of decisionmaking, i.e. the Second and Third Pillars of the EU. It is also about the symbolic force of this move. For example, the Rhodes Declaration on the International Role of the European Community (1988) already emphasized that coordination of the political and economic aspects of security had to be ensured for the protection of human rights, the free movement of people, "the establishment of a secure and stable balance of conventional forces in Europe" and "the strengthening of mutual confidence". In this light, the European Council invited all countries "(...) to embark with the European Community as a world partner on an historic effort to leave to the next generation a Continent and a world more secure, more just and more free". 13 This statement expresses a trait d'union between the internal and the external dimensions of security. Indeed, the end of the Cold War meant that the ideological divide between capitalism and communism, which had been in the background during the construction of the European space, no longer had any reason to exist. The political and military threat of Europe's political enemy, the Soviet Union, was over or, at the very least, had changed its nature. Partly in response to this, on the one hand, security no longer needed to be restricted to military strategies and, on the other, the European project could expand towards the East and commit itself to a deeper level of integration. This bi-directional move, towards the outside and towards the inside, was fundamental for the emergence of the binomial security-identity.

In parallel to the unfolding of the EC/EU foreign policy, described above, the predecessor of the AFSJ, TREVI, was also developed through informal structures in the 1970s. TREVI itself operated as part of the EPC and was a group of law enforcement officials meeting periodically and coordinating the fight against terrorism and, later, drug trafficking and organized crime (Anderson 1995: 53; Peek 1995).

Statement of the Presidency of the Permanent Council of the WEU on Behalf of the High Contracting Parties to the Modified Brussels Treaty, Brussels, 31 March 2010 at www.weu.int; Council Decision 2011/297/CFSP of 23 May 2011 amending Joint Action 2011/555/CFSP on the establishment of a European Union Satellite Centre, OJ L 136, 24.05.2011.

Final Communiqué of The Hague Summit, The Hague, 1-2 December 1969; Davignon or Luxembourg Report by the Foreign Ministers of the Member States on the problems of political unification, Luxembourg, 27 October 1970, both at www.cvce.eu.

Single European Act, 17 February 1986 OJ L 169 1.

Art. 24 Consolidated Version of the Treaty on European Union OJ C 326, 26.10.2012. For example, the CFSP is subject to specific rules and procedures and in most cases the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) has no jurisdiction.

Treaty on European Union, 29 July 1992 OJ C 191; Letter from the German Chancellor Helmut Kohl and the French President François Mitterrand to the Irish Presidency of the EC, 19 April 1990, Agence Europe, 20 April 1990

Rhodes Declaration on the International Role of the European Community, Rhodes European Council Presidency Conclusions, 2-3 December 1988, at www.europarl.europa.eu/summits/rhodes/default\_en.htm.

The impulse for the formalization of the internal aspects of security also came from the Rhodes European Council (mentioned above), which observed that the internal market (especially the free movement of people) and the fight against cross-border crime were to be inseparable. As a result, a group of civil servants, later replaced by the so-called K4 Committee, produced a report (the Palma Document) suggesting the possibility of approximating national laws, with a view to achieving an area without internal frontiers. <sup>14</sup>

Rhodes, Maastricht and the fall of the Berlin Wall thus represent a turning point. Between the end of the 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s the EC/EU acquired a renewed self-awareness. Its role was no longer merely that of an economic organization: as mentioned in the previous section, its real ambition was to become a transnational and fluid space, acting as a catalyst for the transformation of the world – a world that would have to be shaped in accordance with its values and aspirations. The binomial security—identity is an essential component of this reconfiguration.

The second turning point for the development of the CFSP/ESDP and the AFSJ is located between the end of the 1990s and the beginning of the new century. The Treaty of Amsterdam<sup>15</sup> coined the term AFSJ and explicitly mentioned that the CFSP would be implemented, *inter alia*, to safeguard the independence and integrity of the EU in conformity with the principles of the UN Charter, to strengthen its security *in all ways* and to promote international security. The Treaty stated that the WEU would be integrated into the EU: in fact, the WEU would be gradually dismantled following the conclusions of the European Council in Cologne.<sup>16</sup> However, it was the Franco–British meeting in Saint-Malo that explicitly agreed that the EU "(...) must have the capacity for autonomous

action, backed up by credible military forces, the means to decide to use them and a readiness to do so, in order to respond to international crises". 17 Saint-Malo crystallized a change in the attitude of the United Kingdom, which lifted its objections to an EU defence policy that was autonomous (but by no means detached) from NATO, as later confirmed by the Treaty of Nice.<sup>18</sup> Interestingly, the United Kingdom was also behind the negotiations at Tampere leading to the establishment of the principle of mutual recognition in criminal matters, a key feature of the AFSJ.<sup>19</sup> The events of 9/11 and the subsequent terrorist attacks in Madrid and London did not merely help to accelerate the Tampere agenda, as has been noted by many (Gilmore 2003). They also enhanced the security dimension of European integration by describing a new, undefined "enemy", i.e. international terrorism, drawing inspiration from the United States' global strategy.<sup>20</sup> Inevitably, this had an impact on the link between the CFSP/ESDP and the AFSJ, not merely from a symbolic point of view, but also in terms of legal ties.<sup>21</sup>

For example, even under the Treaty of Lisbon<sup>22</sup> the CFSP/ESDP and the external dimension of the AFSJ potentially overlap and the distinction between them is not clear-cut. As a matter of fact, Article 3(5) TEU, according to which "in its relations with the wider world" the EU must contribute to peace and security, covers both areas. Article 24(1) TEU clarifies that the CFSP covers *all* questions relating to the EU's security, and Article 43(1) TEU specifies that the EU tasks performed for the maintenance of international security (the so-called "Petersberg tasks"<sup>23</sup>) may contribute to the fight against terrorism, and may include the support of third countries. These TEU provisions may be compared with TFEU provisions relating to the AFSJ, such as Article 75 TFEU, which requires the adoption of measures

<sup>14</sup> See www.statewatch.org.

<sup>15</sup> Treaty of Amsterdam, 10 November 1997 OJ C 340.

Cologne European Council Presidency Conclusions, 3-4 June 2000, at http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms\_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/kolnen.htm.

<sup>17</sup> Joint Statement by the British and French Governments, Saint-Malo, France, 4 December 1998, at www.cvce.eu.

Treaty of Nice, 10 March 2001 OJ C 80. According to (then) Article 17 of the TEU, as amended by the Treaty of Nice, the EU would have "humanitarian and rescue tasks, peacekeeping tasks and tasks of combat forces in crisis management, including peacemaking".

Tampere European Council Presidency Conclusions, 15-16 October 1999, at http://www.europarl.europa.eu/summits/tam\_en.htm.

<sup>20</sup> United States National Security Strategy, September 2002, speech of President Bush, New York, 'Prevent Our Enemies from Threatening Us, Our Allies, and Our Friends with Weapons of Mass Destruction', p. 13.

See e.g. European External Action Service, 'Strengthening Ties Between CSDP and FSJ: Roadmap Implementation', Second Annual Progress Report, Brussels, 14 November 2013, Doc. 02230/13.

Consolidated version of the Treaty on European Union (TEU) and of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) OJ C 326 26.10.2012.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> The "Petersberg tasks" were laid out in the framework of the WEU in 1992 (Petersberg Declaration, WEU Council of Ministers, Bonn, 19 June 1992) and are now part of the ESDP. They include, *inter alia*, humanitarian and rescue tasks, peace-keeping and peace-making.

affecting the movement of capital, such as the freezing of funds, for the purposes of fighting terrorism, or Article 77 TFEU, concerning border control and policing. Neither the nature of the EU competence in the CFSP (either shared or exclusive) nor its scope are clear, even after the merging of the Pillars, and this, of course, leaves the executive powers ample room for manoeuvre (Eeckhout 2011: 165). The CJEU has in the past ruled on the delimitation of competences between the CFSP and other areas of EU external action, but it is not clear whether its case law is binding after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon.<sup>24</sup>

The question of the choice of the legal basis is certainly constitutionally relevant as regards the relationship between the CFSP/ESDP and the AFSJ. One can imagine a few situations in which it is not certain whether a measure falls within the scope of the AFSJ or that of the CFSP - such as, for example, an agreement on data protection with a third country<sup>25</sup> or individual sanctions against natural persons.26 In a recent case, European Parliament v. Council, the CJEU ruled that Article 215(2) TFEU was a sufficient legal basis for Council Regulation 881/2002 on restrictive measures against certain terrorist organizations. By this ruling, it dismissed the Parliament's argument in favour of the application of Article 75 TFEU, which would have allowed the Parliament to participate more extensively in the adoption of the measure.<sup>27</sup> The core of the reasoning of the Court is that, whilst the fight against terrorism and its financing fall within the scope of the AFSJ, in line with Article 3(2) TEU, nevertheless preserving international peace and security is a general aim that is also pursued by the Treaty provisions on EU external action. The more limited role of the Parliament in CFSP matters is simply a choice made by the drafters of the Treaty of Lisbon.

More generally, the external dimension of the AFSJ stretches across the whole spectrum of external policies of the EU, including not only the CFSP/ESDP, but also, for example, development cooperation, the European Neighbourhood Policy and the relationship of the EU with the Mediterranean region (Koutrakos 2011; Longo 2011). As regards the external dimension of the AFSJ, it has been argued that it "appears as a necessary external instrument

and complement to the internal efforts to construct an AFSJ without internal borders" (Monar 2012: 13).

areas of EU law discussed both above, intergovernmentalism and flexible legislation (such as enhanced cooperation and emergency brake procedures) have been a constant feature and have survived the collapse of the Pillars. This has led to considerable criticism, mainly from two points of view: consistency and respect for the rule of law. Concerning the latter, many aspects can be highlighted. For example, Article 36 TEU provides for a limited role (mostly involving the right of consultation) for the European Parliament in CFSP matters; and Article 275 TFEU and Article 24(1) TEU, whilst enabling the CJEU to review the legality of CFSP acts providing for restrictive measures against natural or legal persons, still exclude the CIEU's jurisdiction in most cases. Although an argument can be made in favour of the Court's jurisdiction whenever international agreements covering the CFSP are concluded by the EU (Article 218 TFEU), there are still many obstacles to the full constitutionalization of the CFSP. Similarly, in the AFSJ the CJEU cannot scrutinize the validity or proportionality of law enforcement operations or the exercise of municipal responsibilities concerning law and order and internal security (Article 276 TFEU); unanimity still applies in certain sensitive areas; and Member States continue to share a right of legislative initiative with the Commission in some situations. Concerning the weak consistency of the CFSP and the AFSJ, many examples may again be cited, in the context of both internal and external consistency. After all, even though the EU is to comply with the obligation to "ensure consistency between the different areas of its external action and between these and its other policies", as provided in Article 21(3) TFEU, the CFSP is "subject to specific rules and procedures" and is "defined and implemented by the European Council and the Council acting unanimously", as specified by Article 24(1) TEU. Similarly, the areas in which the UK, Denmark and Ireland may "opt out" of the AFSJ provisions of the Treaty have been expanded and now include not only immigration, asylum and judicial cooperation in civil matters, but also judicial and police cooperation in criminal matters. This has, of course, increased the complexity and weak consistency of AFSJ law.<sup>28</sup>

ECJ C-91/05 Commission v. Council [2008] ECR I-3651. The Court annulled a decision containing elements from both the CFSP and the area of development cooperation, neither of which are incidental to the other, following the former Article 47 TEU.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Article 16 TFEU; Article 39 TEU.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Articles 75 and 215(2) TFEU.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> ECJ C-130/10 European Parliament v. Council [2012] nyr.

Treaty of Lisbon, Protocol 21 on the position of Ireland and United Kingdom in respect of the Area of Freedom, Security and Justice; Protocol 22 on the position of Denmark, OJ C 83, 30.03.2010.

# 3 The relationship between the AFSJ and the CFSP/ESDP and the international role of the EU

How is the connection between the AFSJ and the CFSP/ ESDP reflected in the international role of the EU?

The general attitude of the EU is, first, in favour of cooperation with third countries to improve democratic governance and the protection of human rights and, second, in favour of multilateralism within the framework of global institutions such as the United Nations, the OSCE, the Council of Europe and the World Bank.<sup>29</sup> Two examples are particularly significant: the EU-Russia Common Spaces on Freedom, Security and Justice and on External Security, and the European Security Strategy. Both should be considered in the context of the expansion of the external competence of the EU in security matters. This expansion has been confirmed by the European Council in the Stockholm Programme, which emphasized the relevance of the external dimension of the AFSJ and clarified that "addressing threats, even far away from our continent, is essential to protecting Europe and its citizens".30 Moreover, the European Council has confirmed that the CFSP and the external dimension of the AFSJ pursue shared objectives and should be more coherent.

The EU–Russia Common Spaces on Freedom, Security and Justice and External Security were launched in 2005.<sup>31</sup> They are just one example among many that demonstrate the increasingly active role of the EU in promoting partnership or association agreements with international organizations, countries or groups of countries across the world (Mitsilegas 2007; Lavenex 2011), including the United States.<sup>32</sup> What is more, freedom, security and justice are an important component of the EU Enlargement strategy, as can be seen in the Progress Reports on Croatia and Turkey.<sup>33</sup>

There are four EU-Russia Common Spaces (freedom, security and justice; external security; economy; and research

and education), and they were agreed upon at the Saint Petersburg Summit in 2003 to improve the relationship between Russia and the EU. It is noteworthy that the part devoted to security (for example, the fight against terrorism, money laundering, and organized crime) is more developed than those relating to freedom and justice. It remains to be seen to what extent the creation of a common space with Russia (which was a political enemy during the Cold War) is part of a policy of the universalization of European values or is, more modestly, a piece in the jigsaw of inter-regional cooperation.

On the other hand, the European Security Strategy (ESS)<sup>34</sup> is rather straightforward. It condenses the key elements of the EU security discourse: the interdependence of the internal and external dimensions of security; the representation of Europe as a transnational, fluid space that has succeeded in preserving peace and prosperity; the existence of undefined threats to this space, which makes it necessary to act at the global level; and the repositioning of the EU as a multilateral actor promoting democracy and human rights worldwide.

The ESS is, in this sense, the epitome of European complacency. In the post-Cold War environment, which is characterized by "increasingly open borders", security is essential to prosperity. The notion of security relies on the idea of existential threat, which is expanded both geographically and conceptually. On the one hand, because security is "a precondition of development",35 particularly sustainable development, it becomes necessary to address not only classic threats such as terrorism, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, organized crime, regional conflicts and state failure, but also threats to social infrastructure, economic activities, energy and natural resources.<sup>36</sup> On the other hand, modern threats no longer come merely from military aggression towards one State. They are "dynamic" and stretch worldwide: "[i]n an era of globalization, distant threats may be as much a concern as those that are near at hand".37 Because threats are undefined

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, *The European Union and the United Nations: The choice of multilateralism*, COM (2003) 526 final, Brussels, 10 September 2003.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> European Council, The Stockholm Programme – An Open and Secure Europe Serving and Protecting Citizens, 04 May 2010, OJ C 115, p. 33.

<sup>31 2005</sup> Road Map for the Common Space on Freedom, Security and Justice, http://eeas.europa.eu/russia/common\_spaces/index\_en.htm.

<sup>32</sup> See the very recent Joint Statement on enhancing transatlantic cooperation in the area of Justice, Freedom and Security, Riga, 3 June 2015.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup> Croatia Comprehensive Monitoring Report, SWD (2012) 338 final, Brussels 10.10.2012 p. 12; Turkey 2012 Progress Report, SWD (2012) 336 final, Brussels 10.10.2012 p. 75.

European Council, A Secure Europe in a Better World – European Security Strategy, Brussels, 12 December 2003.

European Security Strategy, supra, p. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> Ibid. pp. 3-5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> Ibid. p. 6.

and can emerge at any time, Europe should always be ready to face them, with whatever means are necessary: not merely with military means, but also through the police and the judiciary, and humanitarian and economic methods. Threats are potentially everywhere. As a result, the powers necessary to manage them must be as broad as possible and must allow intervention not only in neighbouring regions, but also in any area of the world in which a regional conflict arises. This should occur within a "rule-based international order", under the auspices of the United Nations. There are no limits to this global project and nobody should stand in its way: a new world is coming and the EU is its herald. Those countries that "(...) have placed themselves outside the bounds of international society", quite simply, "(...) should understand that there is a price to be paid, including in their relationship with the European Union".38

In much the same tone, the 2008 Report on the Implementation of the ESS points out that "[p]reventing threats from becoming sources of conflict early on must be at the heart of our approach" and, as a result, "[t]o build a secure Europe in a better world, we must do more to shape events. And we must do it now." Recent reports on the implementation of the Internal Security Strategy (ISS) highlight the emergence of new threats, such as cybersecurity, together with old ones, such as organized crime. 40

In fact, the EU's emphasis on a broad conception of security, going beyond the militaristic approach to include such things as development or the environment, reflects a trend of recent decades, as has been noted in the discipline of international relations (Buzan and Hansen 2009). This expansion plays an important role in the construction of the EU international identity, especially after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon, which has conferred upon the EU a single legal personality and has replaced the Pillar structure with a single structure. Although there are still elements of complexity, the spirit of the Treaty is to ensure

consistency and coherence between the areas of external action as well as between external and internal policies.<sup>41</sup> The Treaty's provisions clearly depict the image of a space of prosperity and peace, with the EU seeking to uphold and promote its values across the world, in compliance with international law.<sup>42</sup>

European values are, in this vision, a high achievement of humanity, and must, as a result, be spread as much as possible. As the European Commission often points out, the EU "(...) is ultimately a union of values".<sup>43</sup>

#### 4 Conclusions

Our brief overview of the connection and interaction between the AFSJ and the CFSP/ESDP helps us point out a few key aspects. First, the parallel development of the AFSJ and the CFSP/ESDP is very important for the configuration of the international role of the EU. This is particularly true after the end of the Cold War and the 9/11 attack on the Twin Towers. Second, it is no longer possible to ignore or underestimate the constitutional relevance of these two areas for the functioning and the self-representation of the EU. This observation should alert us not only to the question of the legitimacy of the policies pursued in this context, but also to the challenges deriving from their internal and external consistency. Persistent questions about their legal basis highlight tensions and gaps, and these will continue in the coming years. Third, and finally, the EU has been increasingly reliant on a broad concept of security, which goes beyond a mere militaristic approach and embraces areas as diverse as the environment and development. The EU's relationship with its neighbours, including Ukraine and Russia, as well as with other significant regional and global powers, is likely to be increasingly affected by this trend.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> Ibid. p. 10.

Report on the Implementation of the European Security Strategy, Providing Security in a Changing World, Brussels, 11 December 2008 S407/08 p. 9 and 12.

First Annual Report on the implementation of the EU Internal Security Strategy, COM (2011) 790 final, Brussels, 25.11.2011; Second Report on the implementation of the EU Internal Security Strategy, COM (2013) 179 final, Brussels, 10.04.2013.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup> Article 21(3) TEU and Article 7 TFEU.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup> See e.g. Articles 3 5), 8(1), 21-41 TEU.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>43</sup> See e.g. European Commission, Second Annual Report on the Stabilization and Association Process for South East Europe, COM (2003) 139 final, 26.03.2003, p. 3.

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