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GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE BACKGROUND GUIDE 2014

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NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS



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THE 2014 NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

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Dear Delegates,

Welcome to the 2014 National Model United Nations in New York City (NMUN•NY) and particularly to the General Assembly First Committee on Disarmament and International Security (GA First).

As part of the volunteer staff for NMUN•NY, we are looking forward to facilitating your experience at the conference. This year the Directors for this committee are Lauren Shaw (Conference A) and Felipe Ante (Conference B). Furthermore, Michael Hills (Conference A) and Kevin O'Donnell (Conference B) will serve as the Assistant Directors. Lauren holds a Master of Public Policy from Georgetown University and a BA in Political Science and Foreign Service from Alma College. Felipe holds a BA in International Relations with a minor in History and Political Science from the Universidad San Francisco de Quito. Felipe currently works in a political strategy consultancy company as an analyst. Michael is in his final year at the University of British Columbia studying Political Science with a focus in Comparative Politics and U.S. government. Kevin received a BA in International Relations from San Francisco State University. He is currently a senior intern at the Japan Society of Northern California.

This year's topics under discussion for GA First are:

- I. Measures to Prevent Terrorists from Acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction
- II. Relationship Between Disarmament and Development
- III. Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space

GA First Committee is the only body in the UN system that allows all Member States to have an equal voice, and an equal vote, in matters of international security and disarmament. Simulating this committee at NMUN•NY gives you the opportunity to work together to achieve consensus on some of the most critical issues facing the international community.

We hope you will find this Background Guide useful as it serves to introduce you to the topics for this committee. It is not meant to replace further research and we highly encourage you explore in-depth your countries' policies as well as use the Annotated Bibliography and Bibliography to further your knowledge on these topics. In preparation of the conference, each delegation will be submitting a [position paper](#). Please refer to the following pages for details regarding the position paper submission process. Please take note of the [NMUN policies](#) on the website and in the [Delegate Preparation Guide](#) regarding plagiarism, codes of conduct/dress code/sexual harassment, awards philosophy/evaluation method, etc. Adherence to these guidelines is mandatory.

If you have any questions concerning your preparation for the committee or the Conference itself, feel free to contact the substantive staff listed below or the Under-Secretaries-General for the Department, Sonia Patel (Conference A) and Roger Tseng (Conference B). You can reach either USG by e-mailing usg.ga@nmun.org.

We wish you all the best for your preparation for NMUN•NY 2014 and look forward to seeing you at the conference!

Sincerely,

Conference A

Lauren Shaw, *Director*
Mike Hills, *Assistant Director*
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Conference B

Felipe Ante, *Director*
Kevin O'Donnell, *Assistant Director*
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NMUN•NY Position Paper Guidelines

Due 1 March 2014

Each committee topic should be addressed in a succinct policy statement representing the relevant views of your assigned country, Non-Governmental Organization (NGO), or expert role. You should identify and address international and regional conventions, treaties, declarations, resolutions, and programs of action that are relevant to the policy of your country or NGO. You should also include recommendations for action to be taken by your committee. A delegate's role as a Member State, Observer State, or NGO should affect the way a position paper is written. To understand these differences, please refer to the [Delegate Preparation Guide](#). It may also be helpful to view a [Sample Position Paper](#).

A position paper should be submitted for each assigned committee.

- The two page position paper should cover all the topics in the background guide, not a separate paper for each topic.
- Do not submit papers for committees not assigned to your country/NGO (see matrix for [Conf. A](#) or [Conf. B](#)).
- No more than two delegates can represent a single country/NGO in a committee. If you assign two delegates to represent a country/NGO on a committee, they submit one position paper jointly, not separate position papers from each individual.

Please pay careful attention to the following guidelines when drafting and submitting your position papers. Only those delegations that follow the guidelines and meet the submission deadline will be eligible for [position paper awards](#).

All papers must be typed and formatted according to the standards below:

- Length must not exceed two pages
- Margins must be set at 1 inch or 2.54 cm. for the whole paper
- Font must be Times New Roman sized between 10 pt. and 12 pt.
- Country/NGO name, school name, and committee name must be clearly labeled on the first page
- Agenda topics must be clearly labeled in separate sections
- National symbols (headers, flags, etc.) are deemed inappropriate for NMUN position papers

Please note that position papers must be comprised of entirely original writing. **The NMUN Conference will not tolerate plagiarism**, including copying from Committee Background Guides. Violation of this policy may result in dismissal from the conference. Although United Nations documentation is considered within the public domain, the conference does not allow the verbatim re-creation of these documents.

How to Submit Your Position Papers

Position papers need to be submitted by email in .pdf or .doc formats. As proof of submission, include yourself as an email recipient. Please use the committee name, your assignment, Conference A or B, and delegation/school name in both the email subject line and in the filename (example: GA1_Cuba_Conf A_State College).

1. Send one complete set of all position papers for each of your country/NGO assignments to the Deputy Secretary-General for the conference you are attending:

Conference A: positionpapers.nya@nmun.org

Conference B: positionpapers.nyb@nmun.org

2. Send a copy of your position paper for each assigned committee to the corresponding committee email address listed on the [Committee Background Guides page](#).

Your delegation may wish to submit a copy of their position papers to the permanent mission of the country/NGO headquarters along with an explanation of the conference. This is encouraged if requesting a [briefing](#).

Many, many papers will be read by the Secretariat. Your patience and cooperation in adhering to the above guidelines is greatly appreciated.

Abbreviations

ALC	African Leadership Conference on Space Science and Technology for Sustainable Development
APRSAF	Asia-Pacific Regional Space Agency Forum
APSCO	Asia-Pacific Space Cooperation Organization
AU	African Union
AVPP	Armed Violence Prevention Programme
BWC	Biological Weapons Convention
CASA	Coordinating Action on Small Arms
CD	Conference on Disarmament
COPUOS	Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space
CSBM	Confidence and Security Building Measures
CSRS	Committee Services and Research Section
CTC	Counter-Terrorism Committee
CWC	Chemical Weapons Convention
DGACM	Department for General Assembly and Conference Management
DPRK	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
ESA	European Space Agency
EU	European Union
GA	General Assembly
GDP	Gross domestic product
GGE	Group of Governmental Experts
HEU	Highly enriched uranium
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
INCAF	International Network on Conflict and Fragility
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NMUN	National Model United Nations
NPT	Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons
NWS	Nuclear weapons states
OAS	Organization of American States
OECD	Organization on Economic Cooperation and Development
OPCW	Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons
PAROS	Prevention of an arms race in space
PPWT	Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects
SAS	Space Applications Section
TCBM	Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures
UN	United Nations
UNDC	United Nations Disarmament Commission
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIDIR	United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research
UNODA	United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs
UNOOSA	United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs
WMD	Weapons of mass destruction
WMDC	Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission

Committee History

“Disarmament, with mutual honor and confidence, is a continuing imperative”¹

Introduction

The General Assembly First Committee (First Committee) is one of the six main committees of the General Assembly, and is the key body for discussion of matters of disarmament and security at the United Nations (UN). The Committee’s existence dates back to the beginning of the UN, and has resulted in many major initiatives and treaties that address matters of international security. As the only committee in which all members can have a voice in these issues, the First Committee’s role in the UN system is unique, and it continues to make important contributions to the work of the General Assembly.

Mandate

The United Nations (UN) General Assembly is one of the five principal organs laid out in the *Charter of the United Nations* (1945).² Its mandate is laid out in Chapter IV of the Charter, with Article 10 stating that the body:

“May discuss any questions or any matters within the scope of the present Charter or relating to the powers and functions of any organs provided for in the present Charter, and, except as provided in Article 12, may make recommendations to the Members of the United Nations or to the Security Council or to both on any such questions or matters.”³

One of the most important characteristics of the General Assembly is its universal nature and ability to discuss any issue within the UN system. This is core to the mandate of the General Assembly, and illustrated by the diversity and range of topics discussed within its Main Committees.

As mandated in Article 11 of the Charter of the United Nations, the General Assembly must concern itself with questions of “international peace and security,” and “disarmament and the regulation of armaments.”⁴ The first resolution passed by the General Assembly, in 1946, called for “the elimination from national armaments of atomic weapons and of all other major weapons adaptable to mass destruction.”⁵ The General Assembly First Committee (First Committee) is focused on “Disarmament and International Security,” and serves as the primary forum for discussing these issues.⁶ Originally, this committee was known as the Political and Security Committee, but was rapidly overwhelmed by the range of issues that could be assigned to it.⁷ In time, it came to focus on nuclear and conventional disarmament.⁸ In addition to traditional disarmament topics, the committee also examines emerging non-traditional disarmament issues, such as preventing an arms race in space and telecommunications in terms of international security; the committee also discusses regional issues and the role of gender in disarmament.⁹

Governance, Structure, and Membership

The General Assembly is comprised of all 193 Member States of the UN, as outlined in Article 9 of the Charter.¹⁰ Each Member State has one vote, regardless of its population or geography.¹¹ Additionally, non-Member States, non-governmental organizations, and intergovernmental organizations have received invitations to participate as observers in the sessions and work of the General Assembly.¹² Decisions on important matters require a two-thirds majority of those present and voting; these questions include those on peace and security, admission of new

¹ Eisenhower, Dwight D, *Remembering Eisenhower’s farewell address*, Krieger, David (2011)

² *Charter of the United Nations*, 26 June 1945, art. 10.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ *Ibid.*, Ch. IV

⁵ Reaching Critical Will, *UN General Assembly First Committee* [Website], 2013

⁶ UN General Assembly, *First Committee* [Website], 2013.

⁷ United Nations General Assembly, *Revitalization of the work of the General Assembly (47/233)* [Resolution], 1993.

⁸ Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p. 43

⁹ United Nations, *Agenda for the United Nations General Assembly First Committee* [Website], 2012

¹⁰ *Charter of the United Nations*, 26 June 1945, art. 9.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, art. 18

¹² United Nations General Assembly, *Observers* [Website], 2013

members, and budgetary matters.¹³ Though each Member State is granted one vote, there has been a special effort in recent sessions to achieve consensus on issues rather than going through a formal vote.¹⁴

The work of the General Assembly is distributed to its six committees, each examining different topics that affect the international community. The First Committee examines topics pertaining to international security and peace; the Second Committee examines economic and financial topics; the Third Committee examines social, cultural, and humanitarian affairs; the Fourth Committee examines special political questions and decolonization, the Fifth Committee handles administrative and budgetary issues of the United Nations; and the Sixth Committee examines legal questions in the General Assembly.¹⁵ In addition to the six Main Committees of the General Assembly, a number of Boards, Commissions, Committees, Councils, and Working Groups work to support the advancement of the General Assembly's mandate.¹⁶

The UN Secretary-General is tasked with serving as “Chief Administrative Officer” of the organization, which includes providing support – both substantive and logistical – to committees.¹⁷ All Main Committees receive logistical support from the Department for General Assembly and Conference Management (DGACM).¹⁸ For substantive support, including writing reports and undertaking research, the department within the Secretariat differs, depending on the thematic issue area of the committee.¹⁹ For First Committee, the responsible department or entity within the Secretariat is the Office for Disarmament Affairs.²⁰

Functions and Powers

The General Assembly assumes the role as the main deliberative, policymaking, and representative organ of the UN.²¹ It provides a forum for multilateral discussions on a range of issues outlined in the Charter, specifically within Articles 10 – 22 which detail the functions and powers of the body as follows:

- The General Assembly is tasked with initiating studies and making recommendations to promote international cooperation in the political field, encouraging the development of international law, promoting the implementation of cultural, social, and human rights, and promoting fundamental freedoms free from discrimination (Article 13).²²
- The General Assembly “receives and considers reports” issued by “the other principal organs established under the Charter as well as reports issued by its own subsidiary bodies” (Article 15).²³ The General Assembly Plenary receives recommendations from the six Main Committees.²⁴ Once the recommendations are sent to the Plenary Committee, the Plenary then votes on whether to adopt the resolutions as presented.²⁵ Any decisions reached by the Assembly are non-binding in international law; however, their decisions have enacted actions that have affected millions of people around the world.²⁶

¹³ UN General Assembly, *About the General Assembly* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴ UN General Assembly, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly* [Website], 2013

¹⁵ UN General Assembly, *Main Committees* [Website], 2013

¹⁶ UN General Assembly, *Subsidiary Organs of the General Assembly* [Website], 2013

¹⁷ Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 65.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ *Ibid.*; United Nations, *Delegates Handbook: Sixty-eighth Session of the General Assembly of the United Nations (ST/CS/63)*, 2013.

²¹ United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly* [Website], 2013.

²² *Charter of the United Nations*, 26 June 1945, art. 12; United Nations, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly* [Website], 2013; UN General Assembly, *Statement by the Chairperson of the Fourth Committee (7 May)*, 2013.

²³ *Charter of the United Nations*, 26 June 1945, art. 15.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, art. 4

²⁵ UN General Assembly, *About the General Assembly* [Website], 2013

²⁶ *Ibid.*; Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 13.

- The General Assembly additionally “approves the budget of the UN and decides on the scales of assessment, i.e., each Member State’s share of the budget” (Article 17).²⁷
- Should the Security Council fail to address a breach of international peace and security due to deadlocks between permanent members, the Assembly can consider the matter immediately, laid out in Article 11, but further codified with the adoption of General Assembly resolution 377(V) (1950) entitled “Uniting for Peace.”²⁸

Sessions

The General Assembly can meet in either “regular annual sessions,” or “special sessions,” within which includes “emergency special sessions.”²⁹ The regular annual session begins on Tuesday of the third week of September and runs for one year – thus essentially, the General Assembly is “in session” for the entire year.³⁰ Special sessions are outlined in Chapter IV, Article 20 of the Charter.³¹ These sessions have addressed topics that include settlement and decolonization, world health problems, international disarmament, gender issues, global development, and the environment.³²

Discussions on issues of international peace and security which are not taken up by the Security Council, as detailed in Article 11 and the “Uniting for Peace” resolution have occurred under “emergency special sessions” and have occurred ten times.³³ The most recent “emergency special session” has held on and off meetings since April 1997, following the request from the Permanent Representative of Qatar to discuss the topic of Illegal Israeli actions in Occupied East Jerusalem and the rest of the Occupied Palestinian Territory.³⁴ The tenth emergency special session resumed on 15 January 2009 under the consideration of the President of the General Assembly, Dr. Ali Abussalam Treki, after three years of no debate.³⁵

Elections

One important function of the General Assembly is the election of five non-permanent members of the Security Council, in addition to members of additional committees and bodies as well as the Secretary-General, upon recommendation by the Security Council.³⁶

Subsidiary Organs

Additionally, the General Assembly In line with the powers attributed to it by Article 12 of the Charter, the General Assembly has established numerous subsidiary organs over the years in order to facilitate the work of the First Committee.³⁷ These organs are responsible for discussing recommendations that will later be presented and voted on either at the First Committee or at the General Assembly Plenary.³⁸ Organs pertaining to the First Committee include the Conference on Disarmament (CD) and the Disarmament Commission (CD).³⁹

Agenda

The General Assembly allocates agenda items to its Main Committees according to the respective thematic issues covered by each of the six Main Committees. However, there are some agenda items that are considered of such paramount importance, that they are not allocated and are considered only by the Plenary. These items include the

²⁷ Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 13; *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, art. 17.

²⁸ United Nations General Assembly, *Uniting for Peace (377 V)* [Resolution], 3 November 1950

²⁹ Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 14; United Nations, *UN Documentation: General Assembly – Introduction* [Website].

³⁰ Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 14.

³¹ *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, art. 20.

³² United Nations, *Emergency Special Sessions* [Website], 2013.

³³ *Ibid.*

³⁴ United Nations, *Tenth Emergency Special Session* [Website], 2013.

³⁵ *Ibid.*

³⁶ United Nations, *Security Council: Current Members* [Website], 2013.

³⁷ *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, art. 22; United Nations, *About the General Assembly* [Website], 2013.

³⁸ UN General Assembly, *Subsidiary Organs of the General Assembly* [Website], 2013.

³⁹ Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011.

Reports of the International Court of Justice and the International Criminal Court, as well as special country-specific agenda items, such as the “Question of Palestine.”⁴⁰

Resolutions and Decisions

The GA Plenary must ratify resolutions adopted in the First Committee before they are put in effect. It is important to remember that even when ratified by the Plenary, GA resolutions are not legally binding.⁴¹ Only Security Council resolutions that are enacted under Article 7 of the Charter are legally binding.⁴² Nonetheless, the consensus reached in the First Committee often leads to more concrete initiatives at the United Nations.⁴³ For instance, General Assembly Resolution 61/89 (2006), “Towards an arms trade treaty: establishing common international standards for the import, export, and transfer of conventional arms,” led directly to the Arms Trade Treaty.⁴⁴ The treaty was ratified on 2 April 2013, and opened for signature on 3 June 2013, although it is yet to come into force.⁴⁵ The First Committee, on average, “adopts more than 50 resolutions and a few decisions annually. About half the resolutions are adopted by consensus.”⁴⁶

Recent Sessions

The top five agenda items of the 67th session were: reduction of military budgets, an African nuclear-weapon-free-zone treaty, maintenance of international security – good-neighborliness, stability and development in South-Eastern Europe, and developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security.⁴⁷ That these topics are the top five on the agenda suggests that the international community finds them particularly pressing. Some topics, such as those pertaining to military spending or nuclear non-proliferation, are ongoing concerns for the First Committee, while others may be in response to recent events. For example, agenda item “developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security” may be more pressing in an age where governments must take non-state actors like Wikileaks seriously.⁴⁸

The General Assembly First Committee adopted a number of resolutions during its 67th session, such as the “Establishment of a nuclear weapon free zone in the Middle East.” This resolution was adopted by acclamation, although both Israel and Iran expressed concerns in writing revolving around apprehensions of the other’s nuclear program.⁴⁹ The Committee also adopted “Prevention of an arms race in outer space” with no dissent, although the United States and Israel abstained.⁵⁰ The U.S., in particular, felt that resolutions concerning this topic were unnecessary.⁵¹ The Committee also adopted “Strengthening of security and cooperation in the Mediterranean region” without opposition, although Iran expressed concerns in writing that the resolution did not “factually reflect the situation in the occupied territory [of Palestine].”⁵²

Conclusion

The First Committee holds a privileged and unique place within the structure of the United Nations. It is the only forum of its kind where all Member States are represented, have an equal voice, and are able to discuss issues of

⁴⁰ United Nations General Assembly, *Organization of the sixty-seventh regular session of the General Assembly, adoption of the agenda and allocation of items (A/RES/67/1)* [Resolution], 2012

⁴¹ United Nations General Assembly, *About the General Assembly* [Website], 2013.

⁴² *Charter of the United Nations*, 26 June 1945, Ch. VII.

⁴³ United Nations, *General Assembly, About the General Assembly* [Website], 2013.

⁴⁴ United Nations, *Resolution 61/89 ‘Towards an arms trade treaty: establishing common international standards for the import, export, and transfer of conventional arms’* [Website], 2013.

⁴⁵ Amnesty International, *UN: Global Arms Trade Treaty a step closer after resounding vote* [Website], 2013.

⁴⁶ Switzerland, *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 63.

⁴⁷ United Nations, *Agenda for the United Nations General Assembly First Committee* [Website], 2012.

⁴⁸ United Nations, *Agenda for the United Nations General Assembly First Committee* [Website], 2012.

⁴⁹ Reaching Critical Will, *Draft Resolutions, Voting Results, and Explanations of Vote First Committee* [Website], 2012.

⁵⁰ United Nations, Department of Public Information, *General assembly, in wake of high-stakes debate in first committee that championed common positions but fell short of bridging divides, adopts 58 texts Resolutions Aim to Neutralize Nuclear-Weapon Threat, Open Passage To Multilateral Negotiations; Israel, Iran, Syria, South Africa Explain Votes* [News Release].

⁵¹ Reaching Critical Will, *Draft Resolutions, Voting Results, and Explanations of Vote First Committee* [Website], 2012.

⁵² Reaching Critical Will, *Explanation of the Vote of the Delegation of the Islamic Republic of Iran* [Website], 2013.

security and disarmament. This being said, constructively simulating the First Committee presents a challenge to delegates. This is a committee which is often argued to be “failing to make good use of its potential,” with States having become “entrenched in their positions” and “not listening to the arguments of others.”⁵³ In this challenge lies opportunity. International Security and Disarmament are the ultimate goals of the First Committee, and it is the responsibility of delegates to seek out consensus and compromise, while also searching for innovative and bold ways of reaching these goals.

Annotated Bibliography

Charter of the United Nations, Chapter IV (1945). Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter4.shtml>

While a basic knowledge of the whole Charter would be useful for delegates, those on General Assembly committees should intimately familiarize themselves with Chapter IV, which explains that all Members of the United Nations shall be members of the General Assembly. It also indicates the power of the General Assembly to make direct recommendations to the Security Council, as well as highlighting the importance of security and disarmament to the General Assembly.

New Zealand, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. (2013, September). *United Nations Handbook 2013-14*. Retrieved 24 October 2013 from: <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/downloads/media-and-publications/UN-Handbook-2013-web%20PDF.pdf>

The United Nations Handbook, published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs & Trade of New Zealand, is one example of an initiative undertaken by a UN Member State to contribute to strengthening the information available to the international community on the UN system. The handbook is one of the most comprehensive, if not the, most comprehensive, source of information on the aim, structure and membership of the organs of the United Nations. Delegates are recommended to utilize the handbook as a regular reference for all related entities within the UN system which comprise the architecture addressing your topic.

Switzerland, Permanent Mission to the United Nations. (2011). *The PGA Handbook: A practical guide to the United Nations General Assembly*. Retrieved 25 October 2013 from: https://www.eda.admin.ch/etc/medialib/downloads/edazen/topics/intorg/un/missny/news.Par.0013.File.tmp/UN_PGA_Handbook.PDF

This publication is another example of a Member State initiated project aimed at providing comprehensive information on the United Nations with a particular focus on the General Assembly. This document is essential reading for any delegate on the General Assembly due to its specific and insightful overview of the working methods, structures and protocols related to the body. There is no one section which might be more helpful for delegates, all six chapters provide important information that will aid in the preparation for and negotiation at NMUN-NY 2014.

Reaching Critical Will. (2013). UN General Assembly First Committee [Website]. Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: <http://www.reachingcriticalwill.org/disarmament-fora/unga>.

Reaching Critical Will is the disarmament program of the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom, a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) promoting peace founded in 1915. As part of this, they monitor and report extensively on the General Assembly First Committee. As a NGO promoting peace and disarmament, this group is often critical of the perceived inaction of the First Committee. However, so long as delegates bare this in mind, this organization can provide a wealth of information. There is also the option to sign up to a weekly email update on the workings of the GA.

United Nations. (2013). Functions and Powers of the General Assembly. *General Assembly of the United Nations* [Website]. Retrieved 30 July 2013 from: <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/background.shtml>

⁵³ Reaching Critical Will, *UN General Assembly First Committee* [Website], 2013

This website summarises the functions and powers of the General Assembly. Written by staff of the General Assembly, it provides the basics of what the Plenary Committee examines and where the powers come from. Understanding the procedure and scope in which the General Assembly conducts business should remain in delegate's minds while they research, and the website provides delegates a point of quick reference and a destination that contains a plethora of documents to spark further research.

United Nations. (2012, September 21). Agenda for the United Nations General Assembly First Committee [Agenda]. Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/C.1/67/1.

It will be beneficial for delegates to be aware of the current agenda for the First Committee. Particular attention should be paid to their own committee topics, many of which are featured prominently in the real agenda. Having an idea of exactly what else the committee considers will also be helpful for the wider research of delegates. The order in which the agenda was set may also be of importance as delegates begin to consider how they will aim to set their own agenda at the conference- Of course, delegates must consider a number of factors when doing this, most importantly their own national or regional interests.

United Nation, General Assembly. (2007). *Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly (A/520/Rev.17)*. Retrieved 1 August 2013 from: http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/520/rev.17&Lang=E

This document compliments the UN Charter. The rules of procedure determine the process by which the General Assembly runs, which is particularly important to help frame an idea of how the committee should function. Without consulting the UN Rules of Procedure, a true simulation of the United Nations is not possible. However, delegates should be aware NMUN uses its own rules of procedure.

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I. Measures to Prevent Terrorists From Acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction

*The day after a nuclear attack, what would we wish we had done? Why aren't we doing it now?*⁵⁴

Introduction

Preventing terrorists from acquiring weapons of mass destruction is a reoccurring subject for the First Committee.⁵⁵ Its long-standing appearance on the agenda affirms its importance to international security, as well as the role of the General Assembly (GA) to address this issue. The Secretary-General regularly reports on this issue, but the GA has never adopted a resolution addressing terrorism and weapons of mass destruction (WMD).⁵⁶ This issue is not an idle threat as there have been past successful uses of WMD by terrorists, such as the 1995 sarin gas release in the Tokyo subway.⁵⁷ In order to fully promote international security, as well as to protect civilians and the environment, it is important for the international community, including the GA, to take steps to prevent future terrorist acquisition or use of these weapons.

History and Relevant Terms of Weapons of Mass Destruction

WMD have been a regular topic at the United Nations (UN) since its creation. The first resolution adopted in the General Assembly, *Establishment of a Commission to Deal With the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy* (1/I), referred to “weapons capable of mass destruction,” with the term in its present form emerging in 1948.⁵⁸ The Commission on Conventional Armaments, when asked to create a definition for WMD, determined that they are “atomic explosive weapons, radioactive material weapons, lethal chemical and biological weapons, and any weapons developed in the future which have characteristics comparable in destructive effect to those of the atomic bomb or other weapons mentioned above.”⁵⁹ Per this definition, nuclear, chemical, and biological weapons are considered WMD, though some have argued that the range and capacity of modern high-caliber explosives requires their inclusion.⁶⁰

All three categories of WMD are regulated by treaties, including the *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons* (NPT) (A/RES/2373 (XXII)), the *Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction* (CWC), and the *Biological Weapons Convention* (BWC). The NPT prohibits the development, stockpiling, or use of nuclear weapons, though it allows five states — China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States — to possess nuclear weapons.⁶¹ These five states developed nuclear weapons prior to the negotiation of the NPT, and allowing their continued possession ensured their participation in the negotiations.⁶² The NPT also establishes the right of all states to pursue peaceful nuclear technology, including nuclear energy.⁶³ In addition to the five official nuclear weapons states (NWS), India, and Pakistan maintain nuclear weapons arsenals, with allegations of development made against the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK), Israel and Iran.⁶⁴ Israel, India, and Pakistan are not states party to the NPT and are thus exempt from its prohibition of weapons development.⁶⁵ The DPRK was once a state party but withdrew in 2003.⁶⁶ The CWC prohibits the production, stockpiling, or use of chemical weapons, and establishes three “schedules” to classify chemicals based on their possible use as a weapon.⁶⁷ The scheduling system is considered critical in preventing proliferation of chemical weapons as there are many chemicals used in weapons

⁵⁴ Sanyal, *Peace Loving Nations*, 2010, p. 218.

⁵⁵ UN General Assembly, *Agenda of the Sixty-Seventh Session of the General Assembly (A/67/251)*, 2012.

⁵⁶ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Report of the Secretary General: Measures to Prevent Terrorists from Acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction*, 2012.

⁵⁷ Ray, J. & J. Kaarbo, *Global Politics*, 2005, p. 247.

⁵⁸ Carus, *Defining Weapons of Mass Destruction*, January 2012, p. 5.

⁵⁹ Carus, *Defining Weapons of Mass Destruction*, January 2012, p. 5.

⁶⁰ Carus, *Defining Weapons of Mass Destruction*, January 2012, p. 1.

⁶¹ UN General Assembly, *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (A/RES/2373 (XXII))*, 1968.

⁶² UN General Assembly, *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (A/RES/2373 (XXII))*, 1968.

⁶³ UN General Assembly, *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (A/RES/2373 (XXII))*, 1968.

⁶⁴ Arms Control Association, *Nuclear Weapons: Who Has What At A Glance*, [Website], 2013.

⁶⁵ Arms Control Association, *Nuclear Weapons: Who Has What At A Glance* [Website], 2013.

⁶⁶ International Atomic Energy Agency, *Nuclear Non-Proliferation* [Website], 2013.

⁶⁷ OPCW, *Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction* [Website].

that also have civilian applications.⁶⁸ These dual-use items are subject to trade restrictions.⁶⁹ Many countries maintain chemical weapons stockpiles, though their caches are slowly being disarmed.⁷⁰ The use of chemical weapons in the Syrian Civil War in August 2013 has made concerns about chemical weapons stockpiles a highly-visible international issue, with Syria's lack of participation in the CWC limiting specific knowledge of its stockpile.⁷¹ There are also allegations that other countries possess undeclared stockpiles.⁷² The BWC prohibits the development or use of disease-causing organisms or toxins, such as anthrax or smallpox.⁷³ However, allegations have been made that multiple states have violated the BWC, including China, Russia, and the United States.⁷⁴

History and Relevant Terms of Terrorism

The threat of terrorism is not a recent phenomenon. International terrorist groups gained notoriety for political assassinations in the late 1800s, and continued to gain notoriety in the twentieth century, particularly near the end of the Cold War.⁷⁵ Terrorism became a regular topic of discussion at the UN in the mid-1990s, but the 11 September 2001 attacks on the United States spurred new action across the UN system.⁷⁶ Following the events of 11 September, the GA held a five-day debate on international terrorism; furthermore, on 12 September, the Security Council declared that acts of terrorism are threats to international peace and security.⁷⁷ Later in September, the Security Council adopted resolution 1373 (2001), establishing the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC). The CTC attempts to help Member States prevent acts of terrorism within their borders and across regions.⁷⁸ The GA considered adopting a comprehensive resolution to attempt to improve upon the many existing conventions regarding terrorism.⁷⁹ However, delegates struggled to achieve consensus, particularly on establishing a definition of terrorism.⁸⁰ Some Member States favored allowing acts to preserve ethnic or national self-determination, and other Member States considered these acts to be terrorism.⁸¹ Although the UN still has not approved a definition of terrorism, many Member States have definitions within their domestic legal systems.⁸²

Despite the lack of a specific definition, there are many UN and regional conventions addressing aspects of terrorism, some of which have been in force since the 1970s.⁸³ One such treaty, the *International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism*, adopted by the GA in 2005 and entered into force in 2007, addresses nuclear terrorism, although many Member States are not states party, and some states party have indicated reservations, including considering themselves “not bound” by a treaty provision requiring arbitration in the event of an inter-state dispute.⁸⁴ However, there are no such treaties for chemical or biological terrorism, or for an overall framework regarding terrorists and WMD.⁸⁵ Although Security Council Resolution 1540, and the ensuing 1540 Committee, address WMD proliferation to non-state actors, the Resolution has not been fully implemented, and was also the work of the then-members of the Security Council, rather than the consensus of the international community.⁸⁶ The lack of treaties addressing WMD acquisition by terrorists has been identified as a threat to international security.⁸⁷ Similarly, although organizations like the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) promote actions to prevent WMD terrorism,

⁶⁸ OPCW, *Non-Proliferation of Chemical Weapons* [Website], 2013.

⁶⁹ OPCW, *Fundamental Provisions* [Website], 2013.

⁷⁰ Arms Control Association, *Chemical and Biological Weapons Status at a Glance* [Website], 2012.

⁷¹ NBC, *UN Report Confirms Chemical Weapons Use in Syria*, 2013.

⁷² Arms Control Association, *Chemical and Biological Weapons Status at a Glance* [Website], 2012.

⁷³ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Biological Weapons Convention* [Website].

⁷⁴ Arms Control Association, *Chemical and Biological Weapons Status at a Glance* [Website], 2012.

⁷⁵ Ray and Kaarbo, *Global Politics*, 2005, p. 469.

⁷⁶ Fasulo, *An Insider's Guide to the UN*, 2004, p. 79.

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 81.

⁷⁸ UN Security Council, *Counter-Terrorism Committee* [Website], 2013.

⁷⁹ Fasulo, *An Insider's Guide to the UN*, 2004, p. 81.

⁸⁰ *Ibid.*

⁸¹ *Ibid.*

⁸² Ray and Kaarbo, *Global Politics*, 2005, p. 468.

⁸³ UN Treaty Collection, *Text and Status of United Nations Conventions on Terrorism* [Website], 2013.

⁸⁴ UN Treaty Collection, *International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism* [Website], 2013.

⁸⁵ UN Treaty Collection, *Text and Status of United Nations Conventions on Terrorism* [Website], 2013.

⁸⁶ UN 1540 Committee, *United Nations Security Council Resolution 1540* [Website], 2013.

⁸⁷ Arms Control Association, *WMD Terrorism* [Website], 2013.

these organizations work with a specific category of weapon and do not provide an overarching framework, and do not address biological weapons.⁸⁸

Use of WMD by Terrorists

Terrorist groups have successfully used WMDs in the past. In the early 1990s, the Japanese group Aum Shinrikyo attempted to create anthrax and botulinum toxic weapons.⁸⁹ In 1995, the same group released sarin gas in the Tokyo subway system.⁹⁰ The attack resulted in 12 casualties and thousands of injuries.⁹¹ In 1984, a U.S. organization called the Rajneesh group successfully spread salmonella by placing live bacteria on food in salad bars.⁹² There were 751 recorded illnesses, but no morbidities.⁹³ Other groups have attempted to utilize biological cultures and cyanide to contaminate municipal water supplies.⁹⁴ It is also believed that extreme Islamic groups, such as Al Qaeda, will seek out opportunity to use a WMD.⁹⁵ A Saudi cleric, Naser bin Hamad al-Fahd, issued a fatwa which claimed justification for use of WMD against the West.⁹⁶ Osama bin Laden argued that Muslims have an obligation to develop WMD.⁹⁷ In 2004, an Al Qaeda strategist published a letter stating that, had he been involved in planning the September 11 attacks, he would have tried to get WMD on the planes.⁹⁸ While it is considered highly unlikely that Al Qaeda, or other terrorist groups, have current access to WMDs, the stated desire to acquire and use such weapons indicates a need for the international community to prevent such acquisition from occurring.⁹⁹ Potential prevention mechanisms may be more successful if states cooperate in international or regional initiatives.

International Framework

There are many international organizations that address the issue of WMDs, including the IAEA and the OPCW, as well as regional networks that attempt to prevent proliferation and address terrorist threats. These existing organizations could serve as models for a broader, global system to prevent terrorist acquisition of WMD.

The IAEA is the international organization charged with ensuring compliance with the NPT.¹⁰⁰ Because the NPT prohibits proliferation of nuclear weapons, the IAEA has taken steps to promote the physical protection of nuclear materials, including assisting states with nuclear weapons or energy programs with the physical security of their nuclear materials.¹⁰¹ The IAEA also supports efforts like the Proliferation Security Initiative, a multi-state effort to interdict illicit trade of nuclear weapons and weapons components.¹⁰² Many states that export nuclear materials, including those who manufacture products related to nuclear energy production, have voluntarily joined together to create non-proliferation mechanisms like the Zangger Committee and the Nuclear Suppliers Group. The Zangger Committee maintains a “trigger list” of items that could be used to create nuclear weapons, and participating countries will not export these items unless the receiving state is subject to IAEA safeguards.¹⁰³ The Nuclear Suppliers Group places specific attention on dual-use materials, or items that have both military and civilian applications, and has taken steps to create “fall back” safeguards in the event that the IAEA is no longer able to provide safeguards in a receiving state.¹⁰⁴ These trade restrictions are important in preventing terrorist acquisition of nuclear weapons because they hamper willful proliferation from a state to a terrorist group. The emphasis on physical protection systems being in place prior to receiving nuclear materials also reduces the likelihood that the materials could be stolen.

⁸⁸ Fasulo, *An Insider's Guide to the UN*, 2004, p. 86-88.

⁸⁹ Espejo, *Bioterrorism*, 2013, p. 26.

⁹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 180.

⁹¹ Lindsay, *Lessons Learned: Tokyo Sarin Gas Attack* [Website], 2012.

⁹² Leitenberg, *An Assessment of the Biological Weapons Threat to the United States* [Report], 2000.

⁹³ *Ibid.*

⁹⁴ Robertson, *Terrorism and Global Security*, 2007, p. 23.

⁹⁵ Jordon & Taylor Jr. et.al., *American National Security*, 2009, p. 293.

⁹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 293-294.

⁹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 294.

⁹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 298.

⁹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 294.

¹⁰⁰ International Atomic Energy Agency, *Key Roles* [Website], 2013.

¹⁰¹ International Atomic Energy Agency, *Nuclear Safety and Security* [Website], 2013.

¹⁰² International Atomic Energy Agency, *Nuclear Non-Proliferation* [Website], 2013.

¹⁰³ Federation of American Scientists, *Zangger Committee* [Website], 2013.

¹⁰⁴ Nuclear Suppliers Group, *History* [Website], 2013.

The OPCW uses similar trade restrictions in its mission to prevent proliferation of chemical weapons. The CWC established three schedules of materials.¹⁰⁵ The OPCW gives particular attention to possible proliferation of Schedule 1 materials, or chemicals that are highly toxic and considered to have very few non-weapons applications, as well as trade of Schedule 2 materials, or chemicals that have legitimate, but limited, industrial use.¹⁰⁶ There are fewer restrictions on Schedule 3 materials, or chemicals that have widespread industrial and commercial uses.¹⁰⁷ Similar to the trade restrictions on nuclear weapons and related materials, the “schedule” system helps prevent illicit production of chemical weapons by a state, or by a terrorist group posing as a company producing another chemical product.¹⁰⁸ The OPCW also provides a best-practice standards for the storage and destruction of chemical weapons, which can help ensure that existing chemical weapons stockpiles are not stolen by terrorist groups.¹⁰⁹

Unlike the other major WMD treaties, the BWC does not have an organization dedicated to its implementation, or to the non-proliferation of biological weapons. Biological weapons have been considered less of a threat than nuclear or chemical weapons, because successfully using a live culture offensively is extremely difficult, and puts the person(s) developing and using the weapon at personal risk of infection.¹¹⁰ However, biological weapons can still be very dangerous.¹¹¹ The UN Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) does some work to promote universal ratification of, and compliance with, the BWC.¹¹² However, much of the responsibility in preventing proliferation or theft of biological weapons is done by individual Member States, often through regulations requiring research laboratories to maintain certain safety and security standards.¹¹³ Some experts remain concerned about possible terrorist acquisition of biological weapons produced by Syria, which is known to have undertaken activities banned by the BWC.¹¹⁴ Given the confusion caused by the ongoing conflict, it may be possible for any existing biological weapons in Syria to be stolen by a terrorist group.

Some international military and police organizations have also taken steps to prevent terrorist acquisition of WMD. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization, the African Union, and INTERPOL, among others, have programs in place to prevent proliferation or the illicit trade of WMD and related components.¹¹⁵ These organizations also report on their activities to the Secretary-General.¹¹⁶ However, these are not global organizations, and they cannot prevent illicit proliferation or trade in areas outside their jurisdiction.

Although these existing international frameworks provide some measures to prevent terrorist acquisition of WMD, there are clearly gap areas that need to be addressed, such as trade restrictions on possible biological weapons components and increased efforts to reduce existing stockpiles. There are also opportunities for these groups to work more closely with the UN.

Role of the United Nations System

While the UN system does play a role in the prevention of terrorist acquisition of WMD, there are many opportunities for the UN to expand its involvement. The UN does not have an agency or affiliated organization dedicated to this issue, although there are sections of the UN system dedicated to parts of the issue, including the Counter-Terrorism Committee, the 1540 Committee, and the work of the UNODA.

The primary work of the UN on this issue is in the 1540 Committee, established to promote Security Council Resolution 1540, adopted in 2004 to prevent proliferation of WMD, including proliferation to non-state actors.¹¹⁷

¹⁰⁵ OPCW, *Guidelines for Schedule of Chemicals* [Website], 2013.

¹⁰⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁹ *Ibid.*

¹¹⁰ Leitenberg, *An Assessment of the Biological Weapons Threat to the United States* [White Paper], 2000.

¹¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹¹² UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *The Biological Weapons Convention* [Website], 2013.

¹¹³ UN General Assembly, *Measures to Prevent Terrorists From Acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction: Report of the Secretary-General (A/67/135)*, 2012.

¹¹⁴ Arms Control Association, *Chemical and Biological Weapons Status at a Glance* [Website], 2012.

¹¹⁵ UN General Assembly, *Measures to Prevent Terrorists From Acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction: Report of the Secretary-General (A/67/135)*, 2012.

¹¹⁶ *Ibid.*

¹¹⁷ UN 1540 Committee, *United Nations Security Council Resolution 1540* [Website], 2013.

The 1540 Committee is comprised of the 15 Member States of the Security Council, and maintains multiple working groups, with each working group having one member state designated as coordinator.¹¹⁸ The Committee attempts to help Member States with implementation of Resolution 1540 via the standing group of experts, although it cannot provide direct assistance or funding.¹¹⁹ The Committee also maintains a list of Committee-approved matrices, which indicate steps each Member State has taken to implement Resolution 1540.¹²⁰ However, not all member states have filed a matrix with the Committee.¹²¹ Further, some matrices indicate gaps in Member State willingness to implement the resolution. For example, the DPRK has not committed to disarmament and non-proliferation, or to non-provision of WMD and related materials to non-state actors.¹²²

While Resolution 1540 is notable for its creation of universal standards and expectations regarding WMD non-proliferation, its adoption was heavily criticized by some Member States. Pakistan stated that the Security Council was not a representative body and could not legislate for the world, and that it would not accept demands for access or inspections.¹²³ Other states, including Chile and Brazil, supported the resolution but stated that it did not give enough focus to disarmament as a means of non-proliferation.¹²⁴ The lack of speed and effective labor distribution associated with its implementation have also been criticized.¹²⁵ With its universal membership, the GA may be able to negotiate new universal norms that are adopted by the consensus of all Member States.

UNODA is another UN agency charged with promoting disarmament, including disarmament of WMD. The UNODA does this through a variety of frameworks and mechanisms, including the major WMD and conventional weapons conventions and regional organizations and agreements.¹²⁶ UNODA is also a repository of information regarding international disarmament and weapons stockpile status, which is critical to preventing terrorist acquisition of WMD as unsecured stockpiles prevent opportunities for theft.¹²⁷ UNODA works closely with the United Nations Disarmament Commission (UNDC), a subsidiary body of the General Assembly which meets annually for substantive discussion on two agenda items, one of which is traditionally nuclear disarmament.¹²⁸ UNDC was created in 1952 as a subsidiary body of the Security Council, which met only occasionally.¹²⁹ In 1978, the GA established the Commission in its current form, tasking it with making recommendations on disarmament issues and following up on its past recommendations.¹³⁰ The UNDC reports annually to the GA, which has endorsed many of its recommendations.¹³¹ However, the UNDC has not agreed on a substantial outcome in the past decade, in part because the issues on its agenda are typically highly contentious.¹³² This lack of progress may require disarmament negotiations and agreements to occur outside the UNDC.

UNODA also works with the Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission (WMDC), formed in 2003, with a mandate that included preventing terrorist acquisition of WMDs.¹³³ The WMDC met to assess threats and possible responses related to WMD use, as well as to synthesize findings from past studies on WMD.¹³⁴ The WMDC consisted of 14 individuals serving in a professional capacity, who did not represent their countries of origin, and ended their work in 2009.¹³⁵ However, these recommendations may still be useful for the creation of international standards by the GA.

¹¹⁸ UN 1540 Committee, *Working Groups* [Website], 2013.

¹¹⁹ UN 1540 Committee, *Frequently Asked Questions* [Website], 2013.

¹²⁰ UN 1540 Committee, *Committee-Approved Matrices* [Website], 2013.

¹²¹ *Ibid.*

¹²² UN 1540 Committee, *Democratic People's Republic of Korea* [Matrix], 2013.

¹²³ UN Security Council Decides All States Shall Act To Prevent Proliferation Of Mass Destruction Weapons [Press Release], 2004.

¹²⁴ *Ibid.*

¹²⁵ Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, *Implementing UN Security Council Resolution 1540: A Division of Labor Strategy*, 2007.

¹²⁶ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Disarmament Issues* [Website], 2013.

¹²⁷ *Ibid.*

¹²⁸ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *United Nations Disarmament Commission* [Website], 2013.

¹²⁹ *Ibid.*

¹³⁰ *Ibid.*

¹³¹ *Ibid.*

¹³² *Ibid.*

¹³³ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission* [Website], 2013.

¹³⁴ *Ibid.*

¹³⁵ *Ibid.*

The Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) is the primary UN body charged with combating terrorism. The CTC operates under the authority of the Security Council and reports to the Council on a regular basis.¹³⁶ While the CTC certainly has a role to play in preventing terrorist use of WMD, that particular aspect of counterterrorism efforts is not its primary focus. Past CTC reports and activities are primarily concerned with preventing financial assistance to terrorists and criminalizing terrorism within Member States.¹³⁷ Member States have also worked through the GA to coordinate their counter-terrorism efforts, including creating a global counter-terrorism strategy.¹³⁸ However, this strategy refers only to coordination of a response to terrorist use of WMD, rather than preventing such use from occurring.¹³⁹

While the UN has taken some steps to address terrorism, WMD, and terrorist use of WMD, there are clearly many areas where more work is needed. The lack of a single, universally adopted, international framework to prevent terrorist acquisition of WMD is a threat to international security. According to Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, there is also a need for a counter-terrorism treaty.¹⁴⁰ As a body dedicated to international disarmament and security with universal membership, the General Assembly First Committee is uniquely suited to create this international framework. For example, the First Committee can discuss methods to expand existing mechanisms to prevent illicit trade to include all countries, as well as promoting methods to assist individual Member States in physically protecting their WMD and WMD paraphernalia. Such international actions are necessary in order to prevent future illicit trading networks of WMD, which could allow terrorist acquisition.

Preventing the Illicit Trade of WMD

A possible method for terrorist acquisition of WMD is through purchase from a state with access to WMD, either through that state's domestic program or through purchase from another state. States with WMD programs have been assigned the responsibility of non-proliferation through the treaties governing WMD.¹⁴¹ Additionally, states that sell WMD components (notably dual-use products) have, in many instances, chosen to prevent proliferation through the use of voluntary export controls, in addition to their treaty obligations.¹⁴² However, there have been past instances of illicit trade, allowing states such as Pakistan and the DPRK to build up WMD programs, and it is possible that future illicit traders will sell to terrorist groups.¹⁴³ An important measure in preventing terrorist use of WMD is eliminating their potential access via trade.

WMD Stockpiles

The existing stockpiles of WMD provide possible opportunities for sabotage or theft. Dismantling stockpiles is a treaty obligation for states party to the NPT, CWC, and BWC.¹⁴⁴ However, due to the cost associated with disarmament, and the lack of political will from some states to disarm, it is likely that many existing stockpiles will remain in the future.¹⁴⁵ The IAEA provides best-practice advice and technical support to build state capacity for the safe storage and destruction of nuclear weapons and materials.¹⁴⁶ There are also opportunities for Member States to provide each other with assistance, such as the Asian Nuclear Safety Network, a regional group dedicated to promoting safety in nuclear installations in Asia.¹⁴⁷ There are also options for bilateral assistance, such as the financial support provided to Albania when it destroyed its chemical weapons stockpile.¹⁴⁸ Within the UN, UNODA has advocated for safer stockpile management, as well as the elimination of stockpiles.¹⁴⁹ Reducing stockpile sizes, and providing physical security for existing stockpiles, is an important part of preventing terrorist acquisition.

¹³⁶ UN Security Council, *Counter-Terrorism Committee* [Website], 2013.

¹³⁷ *Ibid.*

¹³⁸ UN, *United Nations Actions to Counter Terrorism* [Website], 2013.

¹³⁹ UN, *United Nations General Assembly Adopts Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴⁰ Reuters, *U.N. Boss Uses 9/11 to Call for Global Anti-Terror Treaty*, 2011.

¹⁴¹ UN 1540 Committee, *Frequently Asked Questions* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴² Federation of American Scientists, *Zangger Committee* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴³ The Economist, *The Nuclear Network of A.Q. Khan* [News Article], 2008.

¹⁴⁴ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Disarmament Issues* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁴⁶ International Atomic Energy Agency, *Capacity Building* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴⁷ Asian Nuclear Safety Network, *What Is The Asian Safety Network?* [Website], 2013.

¹⁴⁸ United States Department of State, *Albania Completes Destruction of Deadly Chemical Weapons*, 2007.

¹⁴⁹ UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Disarmament Issues* [Website], 2013.

Case Study: The A.Q. Khan Network

Dr. Abdul Qadeer Khan, commonly known as A.Q. Khan, is a Pakistani nuclear scientist responsible for creating the Pakistani nuclear weapons program and successfully detonating a nuclear weapon. He is also the creator of an illicit network that resulted in widespread proliferation of nuclear weapons materials.¹⁵⁰

Khan began his network while working in the Netherlands, as an engineer in a Dutch company that produced centrifuge components.¹⁵¹ After India successfully tested a nuclear device, Khan contacted the Pakistani government to offer his assistance in stealing centrifuge blueprints, and began arranging for the sale of centrifuge components to Pakistan through his contacts in Europe.¹⁵² Dutch and American intelligence agencies began investigating Khan, but did not arrest him due to a desire to continue monitoring his activities to expose the full network.¹⁵³ In 1975, Khan returned to Pakistan to oversee the construction and testing of the first-generation Pakistani centrifuges, known as P-1.¹⁵⁴ When the intelligence agencies decided to pursue nuclear espionage charges against Khan, the Pakistani government refused to arrest him.¹⁵⁵ Khan continued to work on the P-1 centrifuges, as well as developing the second-generation, the P-2.¹⁵⁶

Although Western intelligence agencies were aware that Pakistan was working to generate highly enriched uranium (HEU) to create a nuclear weapon, they were not aware that Khan was negotiating to sell centrifuge blueprints and P-1 components to other countries, including Iran, Iraq, Libya, and DPRK.¹⁵⁷ Khan was able to build a nuclear black market, despite the existence of international regulatory bodies, such as the IAEA, Zangger Committee, and Nuclear Suppliers Group, in part because of Khan's reliance on dual-use materials and his claims that Pakistan was only working to develop a nuclear energy program.¹⁵⁸ Although the international community suspected wrongdoing, there was little proof until a ship was intercepted en route to Libya with centrifuge components on board.¹⁵⁹ In 2004, Khan publicly confessed to illicit nuclear trading, with the Pakistani government maintaining that he acted individually and without government knowledge or consent.¹⁶⁰ Khan was then placed under house arrest.¹⁶¹ However, Pakistan has refused to allow Khan to be charged internationally, and there are allegations that he continues to work on Pakistan's nuclear programs and could be capable of establishing another network.¹⁶² Furthermore, some of the Khan network materials remain unaccounted for, including P-2 centrifuge machines last seen in Dubai, and copies of centrifuge blueprints.¹⁶³

The Khan network is particularly relevant for this topic because he was selling nuclear weapons components at a time when Al Qaeda was actively attempting to acquire WMDs.¹⁶⁴ Although there is no proof that Khan met with Al Qaeda leaders, or ever sold a fully functioning weapon, the Khan network proves that the possible sale of WMDs or WMD paraphernalia to a terrorist organization is feasible. The failure of international trade restrictions, and evident failure of Pakistan's domestic safeguards, also indicates that terrorist theft of WMD or WMD components may be possible. There is much that the international community can learn from the success of the Khan network, which may prevent such a black market from arising again. The Security Council's unanimous adoption of Resolution 1540 in 2004 is often attributed to the exposure of the Khan network. The GA has not taken any action; however, a universally agreed upon response to the network may help prevent future proliferation.

¹⁵⁰ The Economist, *The Nuclear Network of A.Q. Khan*, 2008.

¹⁵¹ New York Times, *Chronology: A.Q. Khan*, 2006.

¹⁵² Ibid.

¹⁵³ Ibid.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵⁵ Ibid.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid.

¹⁵⁷ Arms Control Association, *Nuclear Black Markets/A.Q. Khan Network* [Website], 2013.

¹⁵⁸ New York Times, *Chronology: A.Q. Khan*, 2006.

¹⁵⁹ Council on Foreign Relations, *Nonproliferation: The Pakistan Network* [Website], 2004.

¹⁶⁰ The Economist, *The Nuclear Network of A.Q. Khan*, 2008.

¹⁶¹ Ibid.

¹⁶² Reed, T. & D. Stillman, *The Nuclear Express*, 2009, p. 276-277.

¹⁶³ Corera, *Shopping for Bombs*, 2006, p. 241-242.

¹⁶⁴ Jordon & Taylor Jr. et al., *American National Security*, 2009, pp. 293-294.

Conclusion

Although it has been many years since a terrorist group used WMDs, the international community should assume that terrorist groups will continue to attempt to acquire these weapons, due to the continued existence and stated missions of extremist groups, and take action to prevent this acquisition. With its universal membership, the GA is uniquely suited to allow all Member States to participate in the prevention of such an event, as well as to help achieve consensus in many key issues, including a definition of terrorism, and national and international frameworks to prevent proliferation. The GA also has a history of proposing language for treaties, including the existing International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, and may wish to consider the establishment of new language regarding the prevention of terrorist acquisition of WMD. Terrorism, particularly involving WMD, is a threat that could affect all Member States. However, the GA has an opportunity to behave proactively to prevent this threat from becoming reality.

Moving forward, delegates should consider questions like: What is preventing consensus on this issue at the UNDC or the GA? As the lack of international framework and stalemate at the UNDC indicate, Member States do not agree on many key issues, including the definition of terrorism. Is there anything the international community can learn from the work of organizations like the Zangger Committee or the IAEA? How can these organizations be improved to prevent another Khan network? What can the GA do to promote cooperation between the existing organizations addressing sections of this issue? What can the GA do to promote the implementation of Resolution 1540? By considering these questions and the policies of their assigned Member State or organization, delegates can formulate specific, effective solutions to the issue of terrorist acquisition of WMD.

Annotated Bibliography

Arms Control Association. (2013). *Nuclear Black Markets / A.Q. Khan Network* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from: <http://www.armscontrol.org/subject/58/date>

The Arms Control Association, a highly respected non-governmental organization (NGO), provides reports on many issues related to arms control and disarmament. This issue guide on illicit trafficking of nuclear materials is updated regularly and contains helpful resources for understanding proliferation. It is an excellent starting point for research regarding the potential acquisition of nuclear materials by terrorists.

Arms Control Association. (2013). *WMD Terrorism* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from: <http://www.armscontrol.org/subject/27/date>

This issue guide from the Arms Control Association is a regularly updated compilation of current events regarding the possibility of terrorist use of WMD. It primarily tracks actions and provides neutral analysis of action taken by leading international organizations and policy proposals from various entities within the United States government. It also provides policy suggestions for Member States to take to prevent terrorist acquisition of WMD.

Corera, G. (2006). *Shopping for Bombs*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press. Retrieved 31 July 2013 from: <http://203.128.31.71/articles/0195304950.pdf>

Pakistani nuclear scientist A.Q. Khan was able to build a successful illicit trading network of nuclear materials. This book discusses the formation of the network, as well as the reasons that it went undetected and ongoing ramifications of the sale of nuclear materials. While it is not a definitive source on illicit trafficking in WMD, it is a thorough case study on one network and may provide an understanding of the difficulties involved in preventing such networks.

Federation of American Scientists. (2013). *Zangger Committee* [Website]. Retrieved 31 July 2013 from: <http://www.fas.org/nuke/control/zangger/>

The Zangger Committee is a voluntary trade organization that restricts export of certain materials related to nuclear weapons production. The committee maintains a list of dual-use technologies that may be used to create WMD, and will not export these materials to countries without IAEA safeguards. However, the Zangger Committee has not been able to prevent all illicit trade, most notably the black market established by A.Q. Khan.

United Nations. (2013). *United Nations Adopts Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy* [Website]. Retrieved 31 July 2013 from: <http://www.un.org/en/terrorism/strategy-counter-terrorism.shtml>

After the events of 11 September 2001, the General Assembly began to consider, in a more concrete manner, global methods to prevent terrorism. This global strategy was produced by the GA to help Member States coordinate their counter-security measures, and was one of the first such strategies to exist. Delegates should understand how their assigned country has made use of the strategy. However, it is lacking in the area of WMD, particularly in the prevention of terrorist use of such weapons.

United Nations, Office for Disarmament Affairs. (2013). *United Nations Disarmament Commission* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from:

<http://www.un.org/disarmament/HomePage/DisarmamentCommission/UNDiscom.shtml>

The United Nations Disarmament Commission is a long-standing body under the auspices of the General Assembly dedicated to promoting disarmament. It traditionally considers nuclear disarmament at its annual meeting, which is an essential step towards preventing terrorist acquisition of nuclear weapons. The UNDC Website provides background information about past negotiations regarding nuclear disarmament.

United Nations, Office for Disarmament Affairs. (2013). *Disarmament Issues* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from: <http://www.un.org/disarmament/HomePage/Issues/>

UNODA is the primary UN body that works on disarmament issues. This is the home page for its main focus areas, including nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons. The site provides background information on the UN's work in this area, as well as links to other resources, and is an excellent resource for understanding the UN's role in preventing WMD use.

United Nations, Office for Disarmament Affairs. (2009). *Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from: <http://www.un.org/disarmament/education/wmdcommission/index.html>

The WMD Commission was comprised of 14 individual experts and worked to compile knowledge and prevent the use of WMD. Part of the Commission's mandate was the prevention of terrorist acquisition or use of WMD, and delegates should be familiar with the Commission's research and statements regarding such prevention. This Website provides background information on the Commission, and links to the Commission's research.

United Nations, Security Council. (2013). *Counter-Terrorism Committee* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from: <http://www.un.org/en/sc/ctc/>

The Security Council is the primary UN body that addresses issues related to terrorism. The Counter-Terrorism Committee was established to assist Member States in taking actions against terrorism. The Committee's Website is an excellent starting point for research into UN policies and programs regarding terrorism, as well as state-level policy for Member States that submit country reports.

United Nations, Treaty Collection. (2013). *Text and Status of the United Nations Conventions on Terrorism* [Website]. Retrieved 31 July 2013 from: http://treaties.un.org/Pages/DB.aspx?path=DB/studies/page2_en.xml

The UN has created many treaties and conventions regarding terrorism. This Website is a compilation of these treaties, including language, information regarding entry into force, and lists of states party to each treaty. Delegates should understand to which treaties their assigned Member State is party to, as well as the limitations of these treaties in preventing terrorist acquisition of WMD.

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II. Relationship between Disarmament and Development

*“Every gun that is made, every warship launched, every rocket fired, signifies in a final sense, a theft from those who hunger and are not fed, from those who are cold and are not clothed. The world in arms is not spending money alone. It is spending the sweat of its laborers, the genius of its scientists, the hopes of its children.”*¹⁶⁵

Introduction

Since the earliest days of the United Nations, the relationship between disarmament and development has been discussed, starting with the “explicit linkage” in the *Charter of the United Nations* (1946) in Article 26 which notes “that armaments drain resources that could otherwise be used for human and economic concerns.”¹⁶⁶ Interest in the disarmament-development relationship, within the United Nations context, was extremely high “during the Cold War,” in particular; “by the mid-1990s disappointment and disillusionment concerning the ‘missing’ peace dividend pushed disarmament-development thinking to the margins.”¹⁶⁷ However, over the past few years, “new perspectives, including an emphasis on human development and security, have helped to bring discussions about the interaction between disarmament and development,” brought the topic back into the forefront of policymaking.¹⁶⁸

Disarmament is defined as “the reduction and elimination of weapons, weapon materials, and weapon delivery systems, in order to enhance security, peace, and the survival of humanity.”¹⁶⁹ Development is understood to be “the reduction and elimination of weapons, weapon materials, and weapon delivery systems, in order to enhance security, peace, and the survival of humanity.”¹⁷⁰ The United Nations “recognizes disarmament and development as ‘two of the international community’s most important tools for building a world free from want.’ They are mutually reinforcing processes: disarmament helps create conditions favorable for development, while development creates conditions favorable for disarmament.”¹⁷¹ The former Under-Secretary-General for Disarmament Affairs, Jayandtha Dhanpala, articulated this relationship as:

“wars claimed more than 5 million lives in the 1990s, and nearly 3 billion people, almost half the world’s population, live on a daily income of less than \$2 a day. Poverty and conflict are not unrelated; they often reinforce each other. Poverty is a potent catalyst for conflict and violence within and among states, particularly at a time when poor countries and peoples are increasingly aware of the relative affluence of others. Conflicts plunge many individuals into poverty and deal a severe blow to a country’s longer-term development efforts. Even where there is no active conflict, military spending absorbs resources that could be used to attack poverty.”¹⁷²

As previously mentioned, this relationship has been bolstered in recent years with the emergence of the concept of “human security,” which argues that the individual should be the central focus of security as an alternative of the state and is opposed to the development argument in which humans need education, health, and food to survive.¹⁷³ The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), in its 1994 *Human Development Report*, determined that human security could be understood as political security, economic security, health security, food security, environmental security, or personal or collective security, thus providing a direct link between security and development.¹⁷⁴ Civil society has been particularly influential in advancing this agenda item, arguing that due to the “interrelated” nature of disarmament and development, the “two issues must be approached in an integrated manner.”¹⁷⁵ The integration of human security and human development has led to a more “holistic consideration of security that looks beyond the competitive relationship between military and development expenditure.”¹⁷⁶

¹⁶⁵ Dwight D. Eisenhower, President of the United States, 16 April 1953.

¹⁶⁶ *Charter of the United Nations*, 1946, art. 26; UNIDIR, *Disarmament, Development and Mine Action*, 2003, p. 1.

¹⁶⁷ UNIDIR, *Disarmament, Development and Mine Action*, 2003, p. 1.

¹⁶⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁶⁹ German Development Institute, *New Interfaces between security and Development*, 2006; Reaching Critical Will, *Disarmament and development*, p. 1.

¹⁷⁰ Reaching Critical Will, *Disarmament and development*, p. 1.

¹⁷¹ *Ibid.*

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¹⁷⁴ United Nations Development Programme, *Human Development Report*, 1994.

¹⁷⁵ Bahai International Community, *The Relationship Between Disarmament and Development* [Website], 1987.

¹⁷⁶ Vignard, *Beyond the peace dividend – disarmament, development and security*, 2003, p. 6.

Armed conflict affects nearly half of those countries with low levels of human development. The development community “believes armed conflict influences poverty, and the security community recognizes poverty as a threat to security.”¹⁷⁷ The “disarmament-development relationship appears to be cyclical, and not a one-way redirection of spending from defense to social welfare or conversion of defense-related facilities to civilian purposes.”¹⁷⁸

Grounded in these principles, by undertaking policies and processes within the realm of “disarmament,” such as decreasing military spending, defusing tensions and undertaking confidence building measures, and choosing to not spend on new weapons development, the effect of these measures can “free up resources for economic and social development,” further leading to poverty eradication economic growth and the establishment of stable and secure societies.¹⁷⁹ Disarmament “must be integrated into long-term development plans from their conception;” an idea that is slowly taking hold, as seen in the conversations surrounding the issue of demining and stockpile destruction, for example, but also is strong in the discussion surrounding nuclear disarmament.¹⁸⁰

International Framework

Over the last 20 years, this topic became a priority within the international community. The international framework for this topic is rooted in both development and security policy instruments, as well as within human rights documents. The key instruments include the *Millennium Declaration* and the resulting Millennium Development Goals; the Beijing Platform for Action (1995); the Hague Agenda for Peace and Justice in the 21st Century; and outcome of the 16th Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-aligned Movement.

The *Charter of the United Nations* (1945), in Article 26, states that “in order to promote the establishment and maintenance of international peace and security with the least diversion for armaments of the world's human and economic resources,” recognizing that it is imperative to stop spending in armament in detriment of economic and human development.¹⁸¹

Millennium Declaration and the Millennium Development Goals

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which resulted from the *Millennium Declaration*, established the metrics that countries are to reach regarding development, and defined the global development agenda until 2015.¹⁸² The Millennium Project warned that, from the 34 countries that were farthest from accomplishing the goals in 2005, 22 Member States were recently involved in a conflict or were in an ongoing conflict.¹⁸³ The Project claims that the “statistical relationship between poverty and violent conflict are very strong” and that a country at civil war has 33% GDP per capita compared to a similar country that is in peace.¹⁸⁴ In the conference Conflict Prevention and Development Cooperation in Africa “donor countries identified conflicts and ‘state fragility’ as critical obstacles to the achievement of the [four] Millennium Development Goals.”¹⁸⁵ Once it recognized the need to address the challenge of insecurity towards accomplishing MDGs, the Organization on Economic Cooperation and Development’s (OECD) International Network on Conflict and Fragility (INCAF) encouraged the MDG Review Summit to call on the MDG facilitators to support a strategy to achieve the MDGs in countries affected by violence in conflicts.¹⁸⁶ In addition, violence hinders countries from achieving the goal on achieving universal education, as conflict destroys infrastructure, prevents children from going to school, and causes a reduction of spending on education.¹⁸⁷ Moreover, in Goal 8 regarding Global Partnership for development, the United Nations proposed to develop it bearing in mind the fact that conflicted countries will have problems to achieving MDGs.¹⁸⁸

¹⁷⁷ Vignard, *Beyond the peace dividend – disarmament, development and security*, 2003, p. 6.

¹⁷⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁷⁹ Reaching Critical Will, *Disarmament and development*, p. 1.

¹⁸⁰ UNIDIR, *Disarmament, Development and Mine Action*, 2003, p. 1.

¹⁸¹ *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Chapter V.

¹⁸² United Nations, *Millennium Development Goals* [Website], 2013.

¹⁸³ Overseas Development Institute, *Security: The missing bottom of the Millennium Development Goals?*, 2012, p. 4

¹⁸⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁸⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁸⁶ Overseas Development Institute, *Security: The missing bottom of the Millennium Development Goals?* [Website], 2012, p. 4.

¹⁸⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸⁸ Winter, *Military Spending and Finance for Development*, 2008, p. 3.

The Beijing Platform for Action

The Beijing Platform for Action facilitated debate on the most incisive development issues, specifically gender equality.¹⁸⁹ In its 138th paragraph, the *Beijing Declaration* identified the poor as the demographic most affected by military spending as resources are not invested in basic services to better their conditions.¹⁹⁰ It also established a strategic objective in the Declaration, aiming for military expenditure reductions, as well as the limitations, to the availability of weapons.¹⁹¹ To achieve this objective, the Declaration invites countries to decrease expenditures on the military-industrial complex and divert those resources towards development and pacification programs.¹⁹² Finally, it also incentivizes countries to explore new ways of producing financial resources through the reduction of military spending to allocate those resources into social and economic development, especially for the benefit of gender perspectives.¹⁹³

The Hague Agenda for Peace and Justice in the 21st Century

This event was held in The Hague, bringing together several actors that are relevant to this topic, including civil society and esteemed individuals, in order to frame the challenges to build peace to all stakeholders.¹⁹⁴ In its final document, the conference stated that it is necessary to redirect resources from weapons to human security and sustainable development in order to establish new priorities.¹⁹⁵ Finally, the document states that its support to the Women's Peace Petition regarding its proposal for countries to reduce 5% of its military expenditure per year to redirect them to human security programs and peace education.¹⁹⁶

Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development

In June 2006, the Geneva Conference on Armed Violence took place as an international initiative supported by 42 states.¹⁹⁷ The outcome of the conference, *Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development*, focuses mainly on the link between development and disarmament in specific areas.¹⁹⁸ It also decided to focus on three principles, among which included the measurement and research of the impact of armed violence on development.¹⁹⁹ From this Declaration, several programs executed by the Secretariat were created to solve violent conflicts emerged aiding countries like El Salvador and Brazil and whole continents such as Africa. One of these programs is the Armed Violence Prevention Programme (AVPP), which was founded in 2005.²⁰⁰ The aim of the program is to promote solutions to armed violence in partnership with the UNDP as well as with the World Health Organization in an effort to promote development while addressing armed conflict.²⁰¹

16th Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-aligned Movement

The summit was held in Teheran, Iran in August 2012.²⁰² In its final document, the summit stressed the relevance of the disarmament and development relationship and moreover welcomed General Assembly resolution 66/30.²⁰³ Furthermore, the countries present expressed their preoccupation regarding the increase of military expenditure, which could, according to the document, be spent on development needs.²⁰⁴ Consequently, the summit suggested the reduction of military spending in accordance with "the principle of undiminished security at the lowest level of Armaments" and finally asked all states to direct those resources to economic and social development, in particular to fight poverty.²⁰⁵ At the end of their address to the topic, they expressed their support to any kind of measure adopted by governments aimed to reduce military expenditures, thus contributing regional and international peace

¹⁸⁹ UN-Women, *Fourth World Conference on Women* [Website], 1995.

¹⁹⁰ Ibid.

¹⁹¹ Ibid.

¹⁹² Ibid.

¹⁹³ Ibid.

¹⁹⁴ The Hague Agenda for Peace and Justice for the 21st century, *Final Document* [Declaration], 1999.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁹⁷ Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development, *Declaration*, 2006.

¹⁹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰⁰ Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development, *Armed Violence Prevention Programme*, 2006.

²⁰¹ Ibid.

²⁰² Non-Aligned Movement, *Final Documents of the 16th Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-aligned Movement*, 2012.

²⁰³ Ibid.

²⁰⁴ Ibid.

²⁰⁵ Ibid.

and security strengthening and also considered the confidence building measures that have been taken by a group of countries.²⁰⁶

Regional Framework

Organization of American States

The Organization of American States (OAS) is the regional organization that has given the most importance to this topic. In the *Declaration of Santiago on Confidence and Security Building Measures*, Member States agree to establish that confidence and security building measures provide a restrictive environment for the development conventional weapons in order for Member States to direct resources towards development.²⁰⁷ In this same instrument, Member States decided to promote negotiations to ban the trafficking and use of anti-personnel mines due to its effect on populations and development.²⁰⁸ Another important instrument that emerged from the OAS was the *Declaration of San Salvador* (1998) regarding Confidence and Security Building Measures; this declaration highlighted the *Declaration of the Presidents of Central America, Dominican Republic and Belize on the Acquisition of Strategic High-Technology and High-Cost Weapons of Mass Destruction* in order to dedicate their resources to economic and social progress.²⁰⁹ Moreover, the *Consensus of Miami: Declaration by the Experts on Confidence and Security-Building Measures: Recommendations to the Summit Mandated Special Conference on Security* explained how Confidence and Security Building Measures (CSBMs) promote arms control, limits to conventional weapons, non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and disarmament towards the use of more resources seeking economic and social development.²¹⁰ This same forum proposed a mutual confidence or security zone in border areas respecting the needs and internal policies of every country.²¹¹ Finally, the affirmation of the objective of achieving an effective limitation to conventional weapons and the availability of more resources to invest in social and economic development of states was one of the result of the Declaration on Security in the Americas that took place in 2003.²¹²

African Union

The African Union (AU) as a community has established a clear position regarding this topic. According to resolution CM/Res.1140 (XLVII) on the follow up of the International Conference on the Relationship between Disarmament and Development and the Third Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly on Disarmament, the organization commits to monitoring the execution of the Programme of Action proposed by the Conference in 1987.²¹³ Accordingly, the African Union requests its Secretary-General to work and monitor the conclusions of the Conference.²¹⁴ Furthermore it suggested the AU to work with the Group of Experts of Member Countries of the Ad-Hoc Committee and the United Nations Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Africa on a document with the position of Africa in the Third United Nations Special Session on Disarmament.²¹⁵

European Union

In the context of the International Conference on the Relationship between Disarmament and Development held in 2011, the European Economic Community established that the planet cannot be considered as secure while the percentage of people living in extreme poverty every day fear of their loss of liberty and their human rights cannot be met.²¹⁶ On the other hand, during the General Assembly Special Sessions of 2002, 2003, and 2004, the Europe Union, its Member States, and the United States collectively stated that there was no direct link between

²⁰⁶ Ibid.

²⁰⁷ Organization of American States, *Key OAS Security Documents Vol. 1*, DATE, p. 26.

²⁰⁸ Ibid., p. 28.

²⁰⁹ Ibid., p. 33.

²¹⁰ Ibid., p. 43.

²¹¹ Ibid., p. 46.

²¹² Ibid., p. 14.

²¹³ African Union, *Resolution 1140 (1998) [Resolution On The Follow Up Of The International Conference On The Relationship Between Disarmament And Development And The Third Special Session Of The United Nations General Assembly On Disarmament.] (CM/Res.1140 (XLVII))*, 1998.

²¹⁴ Ibid.

²¹⁵ Ibid.

²¹⁶ Rosenblau, *The U.N. Disarmament and Development Conference*, 1988, p. 11.

disarmament and development.²¹⁷ Nevertheless, this is not a topic that has been addressed by the European Union to have a clear position of this regional block towards the topic.

Role of the United Nations System

The United Nations has initiated several efforts to explore the relationship between disarmament and development. The first proposals linking development to disarmament were introduced in the 1950s and were focused on promoting the reduction of military spending and allocating those funds into development measures.²¹⁸ During the First Special Session on Disarmament in 1978, several links were found between disarmament and development and proposals from the Special Session concentrated on having more resources development and less military spending.²¹⁹ With the emergence of Thorsson study on disarmament and development, this topic became a priority in 1982 with the conclusion that there was a negative relationship between both concepts.²²⁰ In 1987, a Conference on Disarmament and Development took place with 40 members present.²²¹ The Conference established subsidiary bodies that would address disarmament issues in the framework of the development agenda; example of these committees included the Committee on the Arms Race.²²² In 1999, former Secretary-General Kofi Annan created a Steering Group to execute the mandate of the 1987 Conference.²²³ The Steering Group focused on including NGOs and civil society in its efforts, and particularly noted the growing awareness by international financial institutions, such as the World Bank, of the relationship between development and disarmament.²²⁴ In 1992, *Agenda 21* was adopted at the UN Conference on Environment and Development.²²⁵ Regarding the topic, in the Financial and Resources Mechanisms paragraph includes new ways to generate resources, including the “reallocation of resources presently committed to military purposes.”²²⁶

General Assembly First Committee

The United Nations General Assembly adopts a resolution every session regarding the relationship between disarmament and development, but no specific actions are taken. It is necessary to review the most significant resolutions to understand the action that the UN has taken directly from its bodies.

In December 1982, the General Assembly adopted resolution 37/95 on the reduction of the military budgets, recognizing the need to freeze and reduce expenditures.²²⁷ In addition, the resolution mentions that a military budget “constitutes a heavy burden for the economies of all nations and has extremely harmful consequences on international peace and security.”²²⁸ Furthermore, resolution 38/71, adopted in December 1983 on “Relationship between Disarmament and Development,” states, “the magnitude of military expenditures is now such that their various implications can no longer be ignored in the efforts pursued ... to secure the recovery of the world economy and the establishment of a new international economic order.”²²⁹

At the Special Session on Follow-up to the Platform for Action, which took place in December 2000, Member States recognized that military expenditures, the arms trade, and investment for arms production have directed resources away from development programs, in particular those focused on women.²³⁰ The Special Session also recommended increasing efforts towards complete disarmament under controls based on the priorities defined by the UN so that the resources could be used for social and economic development programs.²³¹ An event without precedence took place in 2006 when resolution 60/61 was adopted by 180 Member States; with the exclusion of the France and the

²¹⁷ United Nations, *The relationship between disarmament and development* [Website], 2003.

²¹⁸ UN General Assembly, *The Relationship between Disarmament and Development* [Report]/[Resolution?? 2008, p. 1.

²¹⁹ Ibid.

²²⁰ Ibid.

²²¹ Ibid.

²²² Ibid.

²²³ International Peace Bureau, *Opportunity Costs: Military Spending and UN's Development Agenda*, 2012, p. 38.

²²⁴ UN General Assembly, *The Relationship between Disarmament and Development* [Publication], 2008, p. 1.

²²⁵ United Nations Sustainable Development, *United Nations Conference on Environment & Development* [Website], 1992.

²²⁶ Ibid.

²²⁷ UN General Assembly, *Reduction of the Military Budget (A/RES/37/95)* [Resolution], 1982.

²²⁸ Ibid.

²²⁹ UN General Assembly, *Relationship Between Disarmament and Development (A/RES/38/71)* [Resolution], 1983.

²³⁰ UN General Assembly, *Twenty-third special session of the General Assembly on Follow-up to the Platform for Action discussions (A/S-23/10/Rev.1)* [Resolution], 2000.

²³¹ Ibid.

United States, countries with traditionally high military spending have also voted in favor of this resolution.²³² Finally, resolution 37/40, adopted in January 2013, was the most recent resolution on the topic “Relationship between Disarmament and Development.”²³³ This resolution encouraged regional organizations and other stakeholders to include issues related to the topic in their agendas and to be mindful of the report presented by the Group of Governmental Experts on the subject.²³⁴ Member States were further invited to provide the Secretary-General with information regarding measures and efforts to direct funds from disarmament and arms limitation agreements towards development in order to reduce the gap between developed and developing countries.²³⁵ In this vein, however, the UN and the Member States have not signed on to more ambitious proposals towards disarmament and development.

Relationship between Development and Disarmament

A key concept to understand in this broad topic is the role that security plays in the link between disarmament and development. Former Secretary-General Annan once said, “Not only are development, security and human rights ... imperative; they also reinforce each other.”²³⁶ As established above, the security concept has evolved from a statist perspective to one that focuses more on the individual.²³⁷

Regarding development policies, security topics have moved into the field of vision and, as a consequence, foreign policy aspects have more importance in them.²³⁸ On the other hand, security policy is related now to developing countries and their security status.²³⁹ In this context, the emergence of peace missions correlates to both civilian and military operations towards stabilization and particularly development.²⁴⁰ The development agenda has become so broad that the inclusions of instability, violent conflicts, and physical threats have become some of the obstacles to achieve the goal of development in most cases.²⁴¹ Furthermore, policymakers now work in the framework of “diplomacy, development, and defense” as three pillars when taking decisions to affect their respective countries.²⁴² Regarding this crucial relationship, Kofi Annan declared “there will be no development without security and no security without development.”²⁴³

The need to relate security and disarmament with development has become essential in domestic policymaking.²⁴⁴ The main premise is that if states stop concentrating resources on the military, they would ultimately achieve complete disarmament; therefore, making more resources available for development efforts.²⁴⁵ Nevertheless, there is no causal relationship indicating that disarmament will take place with fewer resources; furthermore, the military industry has demonstrated the ability to produce with less.²⁴⁶ Staying away from expectations and suppositions, it is necessary to understand that resource allocation to the military have raised in the last decade for numerous reasons: the post-9/11 security regime; internal instability in developing countries; conflicts in the Middle East and West Asia; national prestige; competition for resources; climate change; and humanitarian purposes.²⁴⁷ In this regard, it is interesting to acknowledge the areas where these two concepts meet in order to understand the wide relationship that disarmament has with development.

Comparison between Military and Development Spending

This relationship between disarmament and development can also be corroborated by looking at state expenditures. In these days, military expenditures around the world are estimated to be at \$1,738 billion per year while states fail

²³² UN General Assembly, *Relationship Between Disarmament and Development (A/RES/60/61)* [Resolution], 2006.

²³³ Ibid.

²³⁴ Ibid.

²³⁵ UN General Assembly, *Relationship Between Disarmament and Development (A/RES/37/40)* [Resolution], 2013.

²³⁶ Annan, *In Larger Freedom* [Report], 2005.

²³⁷ German Development Institute, *New Interfaces between security and Development*, 2006.

²³⁸ Ibid.

²³⁹ Ibid.

²⁴⁰ Ibid.

²⁴¹ Ibid.

²⁴² Ibid.

²⁴³ Annan, *In Larger Freedom* [Report], 2005.

²⁴⁴ German Development Institute, *New Interfaces between security and Development*, 2006.

²⁴⁵ Roman-Morey, *The link between disarmament and sustainable development* . 2012.

²⁴⁶ Galtung, *Disarmament and development: What is the relationship?* 2012, p. 2.

²⁴⁷ Archer & Hay-Edie, *Perspectives on Military Spending*, 2009, p. 3.

to increase their foreign development assistance to the UN target of 0.7% of gross domestic product (GDP).²⁴⁸ In this context, it is valid to mention that military spending is 12.7 times higher than the global Official Development Assistance amount, which is valued at \$128 billion as of 2012.²⁴⁹ In addition, this expenditure is 604 times higher than the regular United Nations budget of \$2.8 billion allocated to address all other topics, including humanitarian affairs, development, peace and security, and human rights.²⁵⁰ This number is 2508 times higher than the combined expenditures from the international Disarmament and Non-Proliferation Organizations.²⁵¹

To make a clear relation to the topic at hand, the amount of money spent on the defense sector equals \$4.7 billion a day or \$249 per person.²⁵² According to the Office of Disarmament Affairs and the World Bank, approximately 5% of this amount per year would be needed to achieve the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.²⁵³ For example, Brazil, China, and India spent about 1% of their military spending on aid and Russia directed even fewer resources for aid.²⁵⁴ In material terms, the price for one aircraft carrier is \$5 billion, which could be used to reforest an area three times larger than Costa Rica.²⁵⁵ Furthermore, one battle tank is valued \$780,000, which would be the same cost to provide healthcare for 26,000 people that suffer malaria.²⁵⁶ Finally, countries involved in civil wars spend an average of 18% of their GDP on military expenditures, representing more than their health and education budget together.²⁵⁷ These figures highlight how far the world is from disarmament and how far the world is from reaching the development paradigm when these practices maintain in nearly every country.

Role of Climate Change

Climate change is the latest area of interest in the development debate and the priority it has to be given when decision makers develop policies.²⁵⁸ The estimated cost to reduce greenhouse gas emissions to 75% of the current level would be 1% of world global GDP per year, which is much less compared to global spending on military endeavors.²⁵⁹ It is essential to understand that climate change has also become a significant security risk, as well as a threat to development, prompting the necessity of increasing resources to address this issue.²⁶⁰ Nevertheless, governments have established this issue into their national security threats, therefore, requiring military responses.²⁶¹ In 2009, for example, the military expenditure was estimated in \$1,531 billion, which represented a 5.9% increase compared to 2008.²⁶² In this regard, countries like the United States have developed both non-military policies and military policies to address the threat; however, disarmament is not an option.²⁶³ In countries affected by climate change, the military spending rises in order to deal with internal conflicts caused by it.²⁶⁴ For example, disputes for water supply may even lead to a conflict with a neighboring country, subsequently leading to countries spending more money on weapons.²⁶⁵ In most countries, the military demonstrates their influence and power in their collaboration in a natural disaster related to weather disturbances, which makes even harder to achieve disarmament.²⁶⁶ An example of how the necessity of shifting military spending to environmental needs is ignored is how the Obama administration capitalized “soft power” during his government, but at the same time, it committed to modernizing the United States nuclear weapons complex investing more than \$180 billion for the purpose in the next ten years.²⁶⁷ What is clear is that the need to curb climate change is urgent, and countries would rather spend more resources in military and plan military responses rather than investing in their development that will enable

²⁴⁸ International Peace Bureau, *Opportunity Costs: Military Spending and UN's Development Agenda*, 2012, p. 5.

²⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

²⁵⁰ *Ibid.*

²⁵¹ *Ibid.*

²⁵² *Ibid.*, p. 16.

²⁵³ *Ibid.*

²⁵⁴ *Ibid.*

²⁵⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 17.

²⁵⁷ Heinrich, M., *Sustainable Disarmament for Sustainable Development*, 2006, p. 8.

²⁵⁸ International Peace Bureau, *Opportunity Costs: Military Spending and UN's Development Agenda*, 2012, p. 32.

²⁵⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁶⁰ *Ibid.*

²⁶¹ Hay-Edie, *Climate Change: A climate for peace or for conflict?* 2011, p. 5.

²⁶² *Ibid.*, p. 6.

²⁶³ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

²⁶⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

²⁶⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

²⁶⁷ *Ibid.*

them have a sustainable existence, but the current policies will ensure two things, rapid responses to the imminent threats and long way towards disarmament.

Illicit Arms Trade

Trade in arms, mainly small arms and light weapons, is one of the main problems for which governments decide to invest in military security. In regards to the illicit arms trade, former Secretary-General Annan has said, “[t]he accumulation and proliferation of small arms and light weapons continues to be a serious threat to peace, stability and sustainable development.”²⁶⁸ The collection and trade of these devices represent a enormous challenge to the international community due to the ease of transport, profitability, availability, and efficient means to affect human security.²⁶⁹ Arms control measures allow the completion of development goals as these reduce the likelihood of perpetuation of armed conflicts that affect directly to economic development in countries.²⁷⁰ In the *Millennium Declaration*, the problem of illicit trade of small arms and light weapons was one of the main issues at discussion and asked for immediate action among the agreement of countries to do so towards development views.²⁷¹ The Secretariat of the UN worked with the mechanism Coordinating Action on Small Arms (CASA), which integrated activities in the different departments of the UN to address this topic.²⁷² The Office of Disarmament Affairs, formerly the Department of Disarmament Affairs, developed and promoted the concept of sustainable disarmament in order to expand disarmament to the different parts of society that would be benefited with the reduction of weapons and the expenditure on military forces.²⁷³ Even with all these efforts, the problem persists as countries still engage on military expenditure increase that will not permit disarmament to take place if countries insist on their policies.

Gender Perspective

Gender is vital in the topic, and it is essential to bear in mind this perspective in order to address the issue. The Third World Conference on Women, held in Nairobi in 1985, and the Fourth World Conference on Women, which took place in Beijing in 1995, concluded that integrating gender into policymaking across all areas is necessary to ensure peaceful and stable societies.²⁷⁴ In the context of disarmament, these forums pointed out that high level of expenditure on weapons mean fewer resources for development, including women and efforts to reduce gender inequalities.²⁷⁵ Historically, women have been strong defenders of disarmament, and this was shown through a historic ceremony where weapons were burned in Cambodia.²⁷⁶ 90% of the participants were women.²⁷⁷ Women have been fighting for their integration into every working area regarding disarmament and development as all policies and programs have an impact on women and the gender perspective.²⁷⁸ It is important to point out that by ignoring gender inequalities, development initiatives may even make the gap wider as men and women occupy different traditional roles in society, and what may benefit men may not necessarily benefit women.²⁷⁹ As women represent pillars in the fight for disarmament and the end of violence, it is vital to include a gender perspective in the discussion to explain the relation between development and disarmament.

Conclusion

Disarmament and development ‘are widely viewed as separate problems, particularly at the national level, however, “the United Nations and the international community will be unable to meet their development commitments, and notably the Millennium Development Goals, as long as they continue to address disarmament and development separately.”²⁸⁰ The concepts of “human security and human development are ... two sides of the same coin,

²⁶⁸ Annan, *In Larger Freedom* [Report], 2005.

²⁶⁹ Dhanapala, *Disarmament and Development*, 2001, p. 2.

²⁷⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

²⁷¹ *Ibid.*

²⁷² *Ibid.*

²⁷³ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

²⁷⁴ UN-Women, *Fourth World Conference on Women* [Website], 1995.

²⁷⁵ UN Department of Disarmament Affairs (now Office on Disarmament Affairs), *Gender Perspectives on Disarmament and Development* [Website], 2001.

²⁷⁶ *Ibid.*

²⁷⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁷⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁷⁹ UN Department of Disarmament Affairs, *Gender Perspectives on Disarmament and Development* [Website], 2001.

²⁸⁰ Vignard, *Beyond the peace dividend – disarmament, development and security*, 2003.

mutually reinforcing and leading to a conducive environment for each other,” the compartmentalization of these issues has “significant ramifications for long-term policy planning,” and the “resources available to get the job done.”²⁸¹ As our security concepts are changing, “the disarmament-development question must be revitalized to incorporate new perspectives and realities,” highlighting the need for “innovative security thinking in conjunction with recent global commitments on development presents a unique opportunity to rejuvenate the disarmament-development debate—on both the supply and demand side of armaments (especially in regards to conventional weapons), the question of resource allocation, the arms trade, regional stability and the synergistic relationship between disarmament and development in post-conflict societies.”²⁸² Member States have an obligation to think more creatively about disarmament, development and security in order to advance mutual goals for development and security globally.

The following questions may guide delegates during deliberations. To what extent can reductions in security spending lead to increased funding for development initiatives? What measures can the United Nations take to promote disarmament while also supporting state sovereignty and human security? Does the relationship between disarmament and development differ from state to state depending on the system of government or economy? How can solutions be tailored to account for these differences? What role might other NGOs play as it pertains to the issues of disarmament and development? What advantages or disadvantages might exist from such involvement? Which incentives may be provided to countries in order to persuade them to stop military expenditure and which incentives would serve for them to allocate those resources in development policies? In the wake of a new development agenda to be determined when the MDGs expire, this topic may become a priority; however the limitations to develop effective solutions may be the greatest obstacle to address this topic.

Annotated Bibliography

United Nations, General Assembly, Sixty-seventh session. (2013, January 4). *Relationship between disarmament and development (A/RES/67/40)* [Resolution]. Adopted on the report of the First Committee (A/67/409). Retrieved 29 June 2013 from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/67/40

The General Assembly addressed this topic as one of the most relevant issues in the First Committee regarding disarmament. This resolution contains the whole background of the topic as well as the actions that are further to come namely the inclusion of this topic as one of the major subtopics for the next General Assembly when discussing disarmament. Delegates may use this source to understand which direction the topic has been pointing throughout the years and acknowledge about its recommendation to share information with the UN Secretary-General in order to use it as a transversal tool.

International Peace Bureau. Mehtha, P. (2013). *Rough Seas Ahead? A study of resource conflict in the South China Sea and its relationship to the rising military budgets in Asia-Pacific*. Retrieved 29 June 2013 from: http://ipb.org/uploads/tbl_contingut_web/240/documents/Rough%20Seas%20Ahead.pdf

The main argument when comparing or analyzing the relation between development and disarmament is how many countries concentrate in military rather than in their development needs. The cases of China, Taiwan, Philippines, Malaysia, Vietnam and Brunei are a clear case that when security and power interests are involved, education, health and poverty are left aside. In this regard, it is crucial for delegates to see how clear the connection between disarmament and development is as well as to assimilate the relevance of it.

United Nations, Department for Disarmament Affairs. (2012, March). *Conflict, Peace-building, Disarmament, Security, Gender Perspectives on Disarmament and Development*. Retrieved 31 June 2013 from: <http://www.oecd.org/social/gender-development/1896328.pdf>

This topic comprehends different perspectives and includes efforts to address it from every perspective. One of the perspectives is gender perspective and actually is one of the pinpoints of the relation with development. In the last years, the gender agenda has been one of the most visible causes in the international system as its importance is transversal for nearly every area

²⁸¹ Vignard, *Beyond the peace dividend – disarmament, development and security*, 2003.

²⁸² Ibid.

that has to do with development. Delegates must check this resource as it explains how disarmament may influence in the most unimagined space but may as well be fundamental for the issue of development.

Galtung, J. (1982). *Disarmament and Development: What Is the Relationship?*. Retrieved 29 June 2013 from: <http://www.transcend.org/galtung/papers/DISARMAMENT%20AND%20DEVELOPMENT-What%20is%20the%20Relationship.pdf>

The importance to identify the areas where development and disarmament are related is essential to undergo through the possibilities to discuss the topic. This resource provides clear explanations on which are the key points of encounter for these two fundamental concepts. Delegates should revise this source in order to deeply understand the topic and move on to evaluate possible actions and defining policies.

German Development Institute. (2006). *New Interfaces between Security and Development*. Retrieved 24 July 2013 from: [http://www.die-gdi.de/CMS-Homepage/openwebcms3.nsf/\(ynDK_contentByKey\)/ENTR-7BMH3S/\\$FILE/Studies%2013.pdf](http://www.die-gdi.de/CMS-Homepage/openwebcms3.nsf/(ynDK_contentByKey)/ENTR-7BMH3S/$FILE/Studies%2013.pdf)

This study made by the German Development Institute is a comprehensive source to have a complete understanding of the topic. This publication provides figures and information relevant to clarify the incidence of military spending on the lack of development indicators in some countries. Delegates will enjoy reading this publication and may find interesting facts compatible with their internal policies.

International Peace Bureau. (2012, November). *Opportunity Costs: Military Spending and the UN's Development Agenda*. Retrieved 31 August 2013 from: http://ipb.org/uploads/tbl_contingut_web/227/documents/Opportunity%20Costs%20web.

This publication is recent, which is one of the reasons it is particularly noteworthy. It provides a wide perspective with numbers and raw examples of how governments around the globe take decisions. Delegates must check this source in order to have a current analysis of the situation and beware of the direct link between the disarmament agenda with the development agenda specifically because there is a detailed discussion around this information.

Hay-Edie, D & C. Archer. (2009, October). *Challenging Militarization: Perspectives on Military Spending*. Retrieved 31 June 2013 from: http://ipb.org/uploads/tbl_contingut_web/182/documents/paper.pdf

This publication makes an important explanation of the main premise of the topic, which is that military spending is the foremost obstacle for development to have more opportunities in countries. It provides all the challenges that this topic imply and provides resources to develop compelling proposals. In addition to advocating an abandonment of the military mindset, this publication further suggests that aspects of civic life (e.g. education system) should encourage populations to think more critically about the military complex. Delegates are encouraged to review this document in order to acknowledge the limitations and challenges that countries have regarding this topic.

Hay-Edie, D. (2010, September). *Climate Change: A Climate for Peace or for Conflict?*. Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: http://ipb.org/uploads/tbl_contingut_web/183/documents/paper.pdf

The paper explains how countries may use as a justification to have military expenditure due to natural disasters that eventually can occur due to climate change. The justification is that in a country without resources, the volatility of population is much higher ergo prone to conflict and violence which deviates resources to military expenditure to maintain the status quo. Delegates must identify that climate change is a key factor in the development agenda and its relation to disarmament is clear but needed to be solved.

Overseas Development Institute. (2012, August). *Security: The missing bottom of the Millennium Development Goals?* Retrieved 29 July 2013 from: <http://www.odi.org.uk/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/7788.pdf>

The Millennium Development Goals is the current ongoing agenda for development which is why this topic is relevant to them. This document finds many meeting points between the topic and the

situation of the MDGs concluding that military expenditure and violent conflicts are one of the top obstacles for these goals to be achieved. Delegates must revise this document so they can understand the link of this topic of the MDGs and why it is so crucial to tackle this issue.

United Nations, General Assembly, Sixty-seventh session. (2013, January 4). *Observance of environmental norms in the drafting and implementation of agreements on disarmament and arms control (A/RES/67/37)* [Resolution]. Adopted on the report of the First Committee (A/67/409). Retrieved 29 June 2013 from:

<http://undocs.org/A/RES/67/37>

This resolution contains valuable content regarding the environmental awareness that countries should have when subscribing a disarmament agreement. It is interesting how this would work due to the fact that there are few disarmament agreements, but it is needed that environmental issues must be considered. Delegates must revise this source due to the fact that environmental perspective must be present in any kind of agreement but according to specific conditions.

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III. Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space

Introduction

Space-related news has been present in abundance ever since the launch of the Soviet Union's satellite Sputnik in 1957; the challenges associated with space exploration excite interest within communities and governments alike, and the potential space represents for the advancement of human endeavor makes it a topic that is worthy of being placed at the top the agenda for the international community.²⁸³ However, with more countries gaining the capability to launch satellites or rockets for technological, scientific, and even militaristic purposes, it is clear that the legislation and cooperative frameworks which define the way in which the world engages with space-bound objects on a bi-lateral and multilateral level, are severely outdated.²⁸⁴ Space lasers, space-based missile launches, and other initiatives to militarize space have pushed the boundaries of what international space treaties have recognized as legitimate pursuits of science and technology.²⁸⁵ Their presence is real, and their danger is very real. The need for cooperation and regulation on this front grows increasingly dire, and a more comprehensive and progressive conversation is required on this topic.

International Framework

One of the main vehicles for advancing the discussion of prevention of an arms race in space (PAROS) is its legal framework.²⁸⁶ Internationally, the core of legal space-related framework is made up of the Outer Space Treaty (1966) and the Moon Agreement (1984).²⁸⁷ This framework differs slightly by region, namely between Europe, Latin America, Asia-Pacific, and Africa.²⁸⁸

The Outer Space Treaty and the Moon Agreement

Fifty years ago, United Nations General Assembly, adopted its landmark resolution 1962 (XVIII) on 13 December 1963, better known as the *Declaration of Legal Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space*.²⁸⁹ One of the most significant aspects of this resolution is the designation of the use of outer space to be "in accordance with international law, including the *Charter of the United Nations* (1945), in the interest of maintaining international peace and security and promoting international cooperation and understanding."²⁹⁰ While the Declaration officially initiated the global dialogue on outer space, it was not until 19 December 1966 when this Declaration became a legally binding treaty.²⁹¹ This was made possible by the adoption of General Assembly resolution 2222 (XXI), which adopted, in its annex, the *Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies*, on 19 December 1966.²⁹² Also referred to as the *Outer Space Treaty*, the treaty came into force in 1967, and has been ratified by 102 Member States.²⁹³ In terms of international peace and security, a central component of the *Outer Space Treaty* (1966) is the prohibition of nuclear weapons, weapons of mass destruction, or any other type of weapons stationing in outer space.²⁹⁴

²⁸³ Space.com, *Sputnik: The Space Race's Opening Shot* [Website], 2012.

²⁸⁴ Reaching Critical Will, *Outer space: Militarization, weaponization, and the prevention of an arms race* [Website], 2013.

²⁸⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁸⁶ UNOOSA, *Space Law: Frequently Asked Questions* [Website], 2013.

²⁸⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁸⁸ ESA, *ELDO/ESRO/ESA: Key Dates 1960-2013* [Website], 2013; UN COPUOS, *617th Meeting, Friday, 11 June 2010, 10 a.m., Vienna (COPUOS/T.617)*, 2010; APSCO, *Convention of the Asia-Pacific Space Cooperation Organization (APSCO)*, 2005; ALC, *The Mombasa Declaration on Space and Africa's Development*, 2011.

²⁸⁹ UN General Assembly, *Declaration of Legal Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space (A/RES/1962 (XVIII))*, 1963.

²⁹⁰ *Ibid.*

²⁹¹ UN General Assembly, *Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies (A/RES/2222 (XXI))*, 1966.

²⁹² *Ibid.*

²⁹³ UNODA, *Outer Space* [Website], 2013; UN COPUOS, *Status of International Agreements relating to activities in outer space as at 1 January 2013 (A/AC.105/C.2/2013/CRP.5)* [Conference Room Paper], 2013.

²⁹⁴ UN General Assembly, *Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies (A/RES/2222 (XXI))*, 1966.

The *Agreement Governing the Activities of States on the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies*, an elaboration of the *Outer Space Treaty*, was adopted on 5 December 1979, though it did not come into force until 1984, when Austria, Chile, the Netherlands, the Philippines, and Uruguay ratified it.²⁹⁵ Also known as the *Moon Agreement* (1984), the main difference between this agreement and the *Outer Space Treaty* (1966) was the explicit and specific prohibition of “any threat or use of force, any other hostile act or threat of hostile act on the Moon (or other celestial bodies in the solar system) and any use of the Moon (or other celestial bodies in the solar system) in order to commit such acts or threats in relation to the Earth, the Moon, spacecraft, personnel of spacecraft or man-made space objects.”²⁹⁶ Thus, the *Moon Agreement* (1984) goes one step further than prohibiting weapons in outer space; it bars all threats and acts of hostility, weapons-related or not.

Regional Agreements and Instruments

While the international framework for outer space is certainly older and more prominent than its regional counterparts, there are notable developments that have occurred in the regional realm over the past several decades. The first example was the *Framework Agreement Between the European Community and the European Space Agency*, signed on 25 November 2003.²⁹⁷ However, the Framework served as merely the precursor for the more comprehensive *European Space Policy* of 22 May 2007, the first purely European-based space law.²⁹⁸ The *European Space Policy* has two main parties, the European Space Agency (ESA) and the European Union (EU).²⁹⁹ Unlike UN resolutions on space, the *European Space Policy* (2007) has barely any mention of weapons or militarization with regards to space.³⁰⁰ However, in an earlier note from 2004, the Council of the European Union detailed the defense purposes for pursuing space legislation.³⁰¹ The *European Space Policy* (2007) focuses instead on the potential of scientific and technological advances in many contexts, namely commerce, environment, and humanitarian efforts.³⁰² In 2010, the Council of the European Union adopted a resolution, which outlined the EU’s goals and aspirations concerning its collaboration with the ESA, made possible by the inclusion of space the year before as a sub-section in the *Treaty of Lisbon* (2007).³⁰³ The same year, the Council of the European Union also adopted a *Code of Conduct for Outer Space Activities* (2007), providing a basis on which to collaborate with countries outside the EU.³⁰⁴ One example of the Code of Conduct being put into practice is the partnership between Europe and Africa.³⁰⁵ The European Commission, ESA, and EU Member States’ relationship with the African Union Commission, Regional Economic Groups, and African states is defined mostly by space technologies and their application in order to contribute to African states’ technical and institutional capabilities with regards to space.³⁰⁶ The Code outlines principles that respect “the security, safety and integrity of space objects in orbit” and mitigate “outer space from becoming an area of conflict.”³⁰⁷ It is the ultimate goal of the Council to become adopted into a large-scale *ad hoc* international conference by as many countries as possible.³⁰⁸

The Organization of American States (OAS) is the primary continental forum for Latin America and the Caribbean,

²⁹⁵ UNOOSA, *Agreement Governing the Activities of States on the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies* [Website], 2013; The Examiner, *What’s Wrong With the Moon Treaty?* [Website], 2011.

²⁹⁶ UNOOSA, *Space Law: Frequently Asked Questions* [Website], 2013.

²⁹⁷ European Space Agency, *ELDO/ESRO/ESA: Key Dates 1960-2013* [Website], 2013.

²⁹⁸ European Community & European Space Agency, *Framework Agreement Between the European Community and the European Space Agency*, 2003; European Space Agency, *History of Europe in Space* [Website], 2013.

²⁹⁹ European Space Agency, *History of Europe in Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁰⁰ European Space Agency & European Commission, *Resolution on the European Space Policy/ESA Director General’s Proposal for the European Space Policy*, 2007.

³⁰¹ Council of the European Union, *European Space Policy: “ESDP and Space”*, 2004.

³⁰² European Space Agency & European Commission, *Resolution on the European Space Policy/ESA Director General’s Proposal for the European Space Policy*, 2007.

³⁰³ European Space Agency, *Seventh Space Council Supports Strong European Leadership in Space* [Website], 2010; Council of the European Union, *Global challenges: taking full benefit of European space systems*, 2010; Official Journal of the European Union, *Treaty of Lisbon: Amending the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty Establishing the European Community*, 2007.

³⁰⁴ Council of the European Union, *Council Conclusions concerning the revised draft Code of Conduct for Outer Space Activities* [Resolution], 2010.

³⁰⁵ Council of the European Union, *Global challenges: taking full benefit of European space systems*, 2010.

³⁰⁶ *Ibid.*

³⁰⁷ Council of the European Union, *Council Conclusions concerning the revised draft Code of Conduct for Outer Space Activities*, 2010; European Commission, *Code of conduct for outer space activities* [Website], 2013.

³⁰⁸ European Commission, *Code of conduct for outer space activities* [Website], 2013.

however, it has not yet adopted any framework relating to regional space law. The Space Conference of the Americas fills that void by serving as the Latin American region's forum for space issues and dialogue.³⁰⁹ The Conference was jointly created by individual Latin American states in order to gain more direct benefits from the technological and scientific applications that space has to offer.³¹⁰ The Conference has been held every few years since the initial convening in Costa Rica in 1990.³¹¹ There have now been six Space Conferences, with each of them, excluding the initial one, resulting in a declaration named after the host city.³¹² The *Santiago Declaration* (1993), *Punta del Este Declaration* (1996), *Declaration of Cartagena de Indias and Plan of Action* (2002), *Declaration of San Francisco de Quito: Regional Space Agreement for Human Security and Development and Action Plan* (2006), and *Pachuca Declaration* (2010) all contain agreed upon principles and action items concerning the promotion and development of a regional space framework, such as multilateral cooperation mechanism enhancement, protection of the environment, and the promotion of education in the applications of space-related research.³¹³ Through intense collaboration with national governments of Latin America and the Caribbean, as well as the United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA), the Space Conference of the Americas works to build consensus among participating Member States on the peaceful uses of outer space.³¹⁴ They work toward this goal by devising and implementing various "strategies to promote the practical use of space applications to support programs with a high degree of social content for the region."³¹⁵

Other regions also have established regional space framework.³¹⁶ The Asia-Pacific Space Cooperation Organization (APSCO) was formed in 2005 and currently has nine signatory countries.³¹⁷ Its mission is to utilize peaceful space-based methods to promote sustainable economic and social development in the Asia-Pacific region.³¹⁸ APSCO is headquartered in Beijing, China, and was solely funded by the People's Republic of China until 2007.³¹⁹ The Asia-Pacific Regional Space Agency Forum (APRSAF) was established in 1993 after a declaration made at the 1992 Asia-Pacific International Space Year Conference.³²⁰ The APRSAF, jointly organized by various host countries in conjunction with relevant ministries of the Japanese government, holds conferences annually and is the most widespread regional space body in the Asia-Pacific, though it does not include legal framework.³²¹ Its goal is broader in nature than APSCO's, and is deliberately designed to serve as a flexible framework for all space-related cooperation.³²² It is divided into four working groups—Earth Observation, Space Education and Awareness, Space Environment Utilization, and Communication Satellite Applications—each with their own objectives and activities.³²³ APRSAF is open to a large variety of space-oriented entities, not only states and their governments.³²⁴

There has also been serious discussion concerning the creation of an African Space Agency, facilitated by the biannual meetings of the African Leadership Conference on Space Science and Technology for Sustainable Development (ALC).³²⁵ Most recently, the Fourth ALC, held in Kenya in 2011, resulted in the *Mombasa*

³⁰⁹ UN COPUOS, *617th Meeting, Friday, 11 June 2010, 10 a.m., Vienna (COPUOS/T.617)* [Unedited Transcript], 2010.

³¹⁰ *Ibid.*

³¹¹ UN-SPIDER, *VI Space Conference of the Americas: General Information*, 2010.

³¹² UN COPUOS, *617th Meeting, Friday, 11 June 2010, 10 a.m., Vienna (COPUOS/T.617)* [Unedited Transcript], 2010; UN-SPIDER, *UN-SPIDER participates in VI Space Conference of the Americas* [Website], 2010.

³¹³ UN General Assembly, *Report of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (A/48/20)*, 1993; UN General Assembly, *Report of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (A/52/20)*, 1997; UN General Assembly, *Report of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (A/57/20)*, 2002; UN COPUOS, *Declaration of San Francisco de Quito of the Fifth Space Conference of the Americas: Regional Space Agreement for Human Security and Development and Action Plan (A/AC.105/C.1/2007/CRP.15)*, 2007.

³¹⁴ UN-SPIDER, *VI Space Conference of the Americas: General Information*, 2010.

³¹⁵ *Ibid.*

³¹⁶ APSCO, *Convention of the Asia-Pacific Space Cooperation Organization (APSCO)*, 2005; ALC, *The Mombasa Declaration on Space and Africa's Development*, 2011.

³¹⁷ APSCO, *Convention of the Asia-Pacific Space Cooperation Organization (APSCO)*, 2005.

³¹⁸ *Ibid.*

³¹⁹ APSCO, *Signing of APSCO Convention* [Website], 2008; Bergin, *APSCO set to be born*, 2005.

³²⁰ APRSAF, *About APRSAF: Asia-Pacific Regional Space Agency Forum*, 2012.

³²¹ *Ibid.*

³²² *Ibid.*

³²³ *Ibid.*

³²⁴ *Ibid.*

³²⁵ Martinez, *The African Leadership Conference on Space Science and Technology for Sustainable Development*, 2012, p. 35.

Declaration on Space and Africa's Development.³²⁶ The Declaration highlighted key goals such as harnessing space technology to protect the natural environment and contribute to human welfare, as well as strengthening and developing space technology and education in the region.³²⁷ As with its Latin American and Asia-Pacific counterparts, the *Mombasa Declaration on Space and Africa's Development* (2011) reaffirms previous assertions that space shall be utilized and developed for only peaceful purposes, but it does not explicitly mention weaponization or militarization of space pertaining to a specific region.³²⁸

Role of the United Nations System

There are four main entities within UN system that address this topic: (1) the main legislative body is the General Assembly First Committee; (2) the Conference on Disarmament (CD), an independent and specialized organ established by the General Assembly; (3) the Group of Governmental Experts (GGE) called for by the General Assembly; and (4) the UN Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA).³²⁹ The United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) also provides support on this issue to Member States. It is important to distinguish between the work that General Assembly Fourth Committee does on the peaceful uses of outer space as substantively different from the discussions in General Assembly First Committee on this topic, although related, the focus is considerably different.

General Assembly First Committee

The General Assembly First Committee is the primary UN body that deals with the topic of Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space (PAROS).³³⁰ Each year, the First Committee adopts a resolution on the topic of PAROS, the most recent one being resolution 67/30 of 11 December 2012.³³¹ The First Committee officially requested that the discussion of a treaty on PAROS be taken up by the CD, in resolution 36/99 of 9 December 1981.³³²

Also pertinent to PAROS, General Assembly resolution 64/49 of 12 January 2010 deals with “Transparency and confidence-building measures in outer space activities.”³³³ This has also been a recurring resolution and was adopted in its initial form by First Committee during its 36th session in 1981.³³⁴ The main points and goals of this resolution include the appointment of a group of governmental experts to conduct a study on the issue, achieving “conditions conducive to further measures of disarmament,” and promoting confidence-building measures that break down feelings of “mistrust” and “misunderstanding.”³³⁵ In 1990, the First Committee requested the Secretary-General, with the aid of a group of governmental experts, to conduct a study on the topic, specifically including applications of available technologies and identification of useful instruments and mechanisms of international cooperation.³³⁶ A report containing the findings of that study (A/48/305) was released by the Secretary-General in 1993.³³⁷ Several documents and ideas were discussed in the more relevant capacity of the CD throughout the following years.³³⁸ During the GA’s 65th session in January 2011, the First Committee once again requested that a study be conducted by the Secretary-General and a group of governmental experts, to commence its work in 2012.³³⁹

³²⁶ ALC, *The Mombasa Declaration on Space and Africa's Development*, 2011.

³²⁷ *Ibid.*

³²⁸ *Ibid.*

³²⁹ UNOOSA, *United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs* [Website], 2013; UN ODA, *Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³³⁰ Reaching Critical Will, *Outer space: Militarization, weaponization, and the prevention of an arms race* [Website], 2013.

³³¹ *Ibid.*; UN General Assembly, *Prevention of an arms race in outer space (A/RES/67/30)* [Resolution], 2012.

³³² UN General Assembly, *Conclusion of a treaty on the prohibition of the stationing of weapons of any kind in outer space (A/RES/36/99)* [Resolution], 9 December 1981.

³³³ UN General Assembly, *Transparency and confidence-building measures in outer space activities (A/RES/64/49)* [Resolution], 2010.

³³⁴ UN General Assembly, *General and complete disarmament (A/RES/36/97)* [Resolution], 1981.

³³⁵ *Ibid.*

³³⁶ UN General Assembly, *Study on the application of confidence-building measures in outer space: Report by the Secretary-General (A/48/305)*, 1993.

³³⁷ *Ibid.*

³³⁸ UN Office at Geneva, *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³³⁹ UN General Assembly, *Transparency and confidence-building measures in outer space activities (A/RES/65/68)* [Resolution], 2011.

Conference on Disarmament (CD)

The CD was established in 1979 as the international community's forum for multilateral disarmament negotiations.³⁴⁰ Although it is technically an independent body of the UN, the CD reports to the First Committee annually or as needed, and its Secretary-General serves as Permanent Representative of the UN to the Secretary-General of the CD.³⁴¹ Important work was carried out on and off by the CD's Ad Hoc Committee on PAROS during the 1980s and early 1990s, but no agreement could be reached.³⁴² Despite not having offered a solid document relating to any topic since 1996, members of the CD, namely the Russian Federation, People's Republic of China, and Canada, submitted various drafts and working papers regarding PAROS from 1998-2007.³⁴³

Progress was finally made when the Russian Federation and People's Republic of China jointly submitted their draft *Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)* to the CD on 29 February 2008.³⁴⁴ Since then, CD Member States such as the Group of 21 (the Non-Aligned Movement Member States of the CD), have expressed their support for the draft *PPWT* as a starting point for negotiations.³⁴⁵

Group of Governmental Experts on Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures in Outer Space Activities

The Group of Governmental Experts (GGE) on Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures (TCBMs) in Outer Space Activities held their first session in July 2012 in New York to discuss proposals from individual governments, political changes and technological progress since 1993, and specific topics related to TCBMs.³⁴⁶ The GGE is comprised of 15 experts from different Member States.³⁴⁷ The UN Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) serves at the GGE's secretariat, and the GGE has begun consulting work for the UN Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR).³⁴⁸

The GGE's second session was held in early April 2013 in Geneva, Switzerland.³⁴⁹ This session resulted in a solid draft document, which was finalized at its third session, held back in New York in July 2013.³⁵⁰ This report of the GGE will be presented to the First Committee at the 68th session of the General Assembly in New York later in 2013.³⁵¹

United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA)

UNOOSA, located at the United Nations Office in Vienna, Austria, is, among other things, responsible for maintaining the "United Nations Register of Objects Launched into Outer Space," which resulted from the *Convention on Registration of Objects Launched into Outer Space* (1962).³⁵² UNOOSA serves as the secretariat for the UN Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS), which falls under the purview of the Fourth

³⁴⁰ UN Office at Geneva, *Disarmament: An Introduction to the Conference* [Website], 2009.

³⁴¹ Ibid.

³⁴² UN Office at Geneva, *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website], 2013; Reaching Critical Will, *Outer space: Militarization, weaponization, and the prevention of an arms race* [Website], 2013; Conference on Disarmament, *Report of the Conference on Disarmament to the General Assembly of the United Nations (CD/1281)*, 1994.

³⁴³ Reaching Critical Will, *Conference on Disarmament* [Website], 2013; UN Office at Geneva, *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁴⁴ Conference on Disarmament, *Draft "Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)" (CD/1839)*, 2008.

³⁴⁵ Conference on Disarmament, *Syrian Arab Republic on behalf of member States of G-21, Working paper: Prevention of an arms race in outer space (CD/1941)*, 2012.

³⁴⁶ UNODA, *Outer Space* [Website], 2013; United Nations Office at Geneva, *Press Release on the Second Session of the Group of Governmental Experts on Outer Space Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures*, 2013.

³⁴⁷ UNODA, *Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁴⁸ Ibid.

³⁴⁹ UN Office at Geneva, *Press Release on the Second Session of the Group of Governmental Experts on Outer Space Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures*, 2013.

³⁵⁰ Ibid; UN Department of Public Information, *UN Group of Governmental Experts on Transparency and Confidence-building Measures in Outer Space Activities Concludes Its Work* [Press Release], 2013.

³⁵¹ UN Office at Geneva, *Press Release on the Second Session of the Group of Governmental Experts on Outer Space Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures*, 2013.

³⁵² UNOOSA, *United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA)* [Website], 2013.

Committee.³⁵³ COPUOS is an important space-related body in the UN and mainly deals with the promotion of positive uses of space, while the First Committee focuses on disarmament and limiting the negative uses.³⁵⁴ UNOOSA also manages the United Nations Platform for Space-based Information for Disaster Management and Emergency Response (UN-SPIDER).³⁵⁵

UNOOSA has two sections: the Space Applications Section (SAS), which organizes and carries out the United Nations Programme on Space Applications, and the Committee Services and Research Section (CSRS), which provides secretariat services to COPUOS.³⁵⁶ The CSRS also prepares and distributes reports and publications on international space activities and on international space law.³⁵⁷ While not having a direct relation to the mandate of the First Committee, UNOOSA nevertheless remains an indispensable source of research and coordination in the mission of PAROS. UNOOSA's Programme on Space Applications has organized, hosted, and contributed to over 150 workshops, conferences, and training activities relating to the promotion of the peaceful uses of outer space.³⁵⁸

Case Study: Development of the Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)

The first appearance of a draft *Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force against Outer Space Objects* (PPWT) was in the form of a working paper, presented by the Permanent Representative of China to the CD in 2000.³⁵⁹ After a second working paper was introduced by China in 2001 offering a concrete proposal for an international legal instrument for PAROS, Russia joined in and assisted in creating and submitting a new version in June 2002.³⁶⁰ In response issued the next month, the Permanent Representative of the United States of America submitted to the CD a copy of a statement they had made at a recent space security conference, expressing that there was no need for further space legislation and that the *Outer Space Treaty* (1967) was sufficient.³⁶¹

The Russian and Chinese delegations continued PAROS-related work by submitting comments and suggestions for their proposal involving international legal instruments for space in both 2006 and 2007.³⁶² Finally, in February 2008, Russia and China presented the draft PPWT.³⁶³ The main component of the draft is Article II, which states that Member States agree to not “place in orbit around the Earth any objects carrying any kinds of weapons,” “install such weapons on celestial bodies and not to place such weapons in outer space in any other manner; not to resort to the threat or use of force against outer space objects.”³⁶⁴ Official comments eventually surfaced when the United States addressed the CD in August 2008.³⁶⁵ The United States pointed out that the use of the word “hostile” is extremely vague, and would actually include the jamming of radio frequencies, among other temporary and reversible processes.³⁶⁶ They also observed that the draft PPWT does nothing to prohibit terrestrial-based anti-satellite weapons or missile-defense systems.³⁶⁷

³⁵³ UNOOSA, *United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA)* [Website], 2013.

³⁵⁴ UNOOSA, *United Nations Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁵⁵ UNOOSA, *About UN-SPIDER* [Website], 2013.

³⁵⁶ UNOOSA, *United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA)* [Website], 2013.

³⁵⁷ *Ibid.*

³⁵⁸ *Ibid.*

³⁵⁹ UN Office at Geneva, *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁶⁰ *Ibid.*

³⁶¹ UN Office at Geneva, *Remarks on Outer Space During the Informal Conference on “Future Security in Space: Commercial, Military, and Arms Control Trade-Offs” Sponsored by the Monterey Institute’s Center for Nonproliferation Studies and the University of Southampton’s Mountbatten Center on 29 May 2002 (CD/1680)* [Statement], 2002.

³⁶² UN Office at Geneva, *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁶³ *Ibid.*

³⁶⁴ Conference on Disarmament, *Draft “Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)” (CD/1839)*, 2008.

³⁶⁵ UN Office at Geneva, *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website], 2013.

³⁶⁶ Conference on Disarmament, *Comments on the Draft “Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)” (CD/1847)*, 2008.

³⁶⁷ *Ibid.*

The draft PPWT defines the terms “outer space,” “outer space object,” “weapon in outer space,” “placed,” “use of force,” and “threat of force.”³⁶⁸ While this is most certainly a start to increased clarity in the language of an agreement on PAROS, it is not enough for many experts.³⁶⁹ Many believe that a treaty must also prohibit ground-based weapons which target space-based objects.³⁷⁰ There has also been anxiety over how to address dual-use (commercial and military) space technologies.³⁷¹ The *European Space Policy* (2007), for example, emphasizes increased usage of dual-use space technologies and closer cooperation between the civilian and military space sectors.³⁷²

Conclusion

While there have been several important treaties and agreements agreed upon concerning PAROS, broad language and the lack of definitive goals are two of the main obstacles in securing the international legal framework for preventing the weaponization and militarization of outer space. One such broad interpretation of the *Outer Space Treaty* allows for the launching of ballistic missiles (not a weapon of mass destruction itself) through space, which could just happen to be tipped with nuclear warheads.³⁷³ Another interpretation, of the meaning of “uses of outer space for peaceful purposes,” could potentially include the pursuit of peace, security, and stability through weaponization and militarization.

Delegates should consider questions such as the following: In a space setting, what exactly constitutes a weapon? Could it even be construed to mean a piece of debris that damages a country’s satellite? What are the implications for a situation such as that? Are TCBMs the most effective method to preventing an arms race in outer space? Will the continued spread of space technology and information lessen the threat of an arms race? Could regional framework aimed at PAROS be a viable substitute in place of a global treaty? Delegates will be expected to construct specific, relevant, and original solutions for PAROS that could be explored by the First Committee.

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Conference on Disarmament. (2008, February 29). *Draft “Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)”*. Retrieved 30 July 2013 from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=CD/1839

This document officially entitled “Letter Dated 12 February 2008 from the Permanent Representative of the Russian Federation and the Permanent Representative of China to the Conference on Disarmament Addressed to the Secretary-General of the Conference Transmitting the Russian and Chinese Texts of the Draft “Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)” Introduced by the Russian Federation and China contains the text of the proposed treaty. As the closest thing there is to a legally binding treaty on PAROS, the draft PPWT is an essential read for delegates. Special attention should be paid to the definition of space-related terms. Delegates should also be aware of the current positions of CD Member States on this document. It is also advisable that delegates keep themselves updated with the negotiations of the PPWT as they develop in the last few months of 2013.

European Space Agency & European Commission. (2007, May 22). *Resolution on the European Space Policy/ESA Director General’s Proposal for the European Space Policy*. Retrieved 28 July 2013 from: <http://esamultimedia.esa.int/multimedia/publications/BR-269/offline/download.pdf>

³⁶⁸ Conference on Disarmament, *Draft “Treaty on Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space and of the Threat or Use of Force Against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)” (CD/1839)*, 2008.

³⁶⁹ Reaching Critical Will, *Outer space: Militarization, weaponization, and the prevention of an arms race* [Website], 2013; Reaching Critical Will, *Analysis of the draft treaty on the Prevention of the Placement of Weapons in Outer Space, the Threat or Use of Force against Outer Space Objects (PPWT)* [Website], 2013.

³⁷⁰ Ibid.

³⁷¹ Ibid.

³⁷² European Space Agency & European Commission, *Resolution on the European Space Policy/ESA Director General’s Proposal for the European Space Policy*, 2007.

³⁷³ Arms Control Association, *The Outer Space Treaty at a Glance* [Website], 2012.

The European Space Policy should act as a case study for delegates as they think of the impact that regional space framework has on PAROS. While this resolution focuses on science, technology, and cooperation, the absence of PAROS should hold certain implications for delegates to ponder. Security in space is mentioned briefly, and delegates are encouraged to examine the difference between this language and the language in the draft PPWT.

United Nations, General Assembly, Eighteenth session. (1963, December 13). *Declaration of Legal Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space (A/RES/1962 (XVIII))*. Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: [http://undocs.org/A/RES/1962\(XVIII\)](http://undocs.org/A/RES/1962(XVIII))

This set of principles offers delegates an idea of the international community's starting point on the prevention of an arms race in outer space. Delegates should know and study these basic principles at length in order to fully grasp the complex issue and broad language involved in this issue. Additionally, delegates should take note of any particularly vague sections of the Declaration in order to discuss with other Member States how they can be better clarified or improved upon.

United Nations, General Assembly, Fifty-first session. (1996, December 13). *Declaration on International Cooperation in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space for the Benefit and in the Interest of all States, Taking into Particular Account the Needs of Developing Countries (A/RES/51/122)* [Resolution]. Adopted on the report of the Special Political and Decolonization Committee (Fourth Committee) (A/51/590). Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: <http://undocs.org/A/RES/51/122>

In the spirit of the post-Cold War era, this Declaration emphasized the use of space for the good of all states, not just states' rights for pursuit of their legitimate interests. Delegates representing developing countries should pay particular attention to this document and seek out any reference to it in their own national policies, since the Declaration was the first time the General Assembly unanimously adopted such an egalitarian approach in space matters. This should be one of the first documents cited by delegates representing developing states, as it calls for increased cooperation and sharing of technology and resources relevant to outer space.

United Nations, General Assembly, Sixty-fifth session. (2011, January 13). *Transparency and confidence-building measures in outer space activities (A/RES/65/68)* [Resolution]. Adopted on the report of the First Committee (A/65/410). Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/65/68

This is the most recent resolution passed by the First Committee specifically concerning TCBMs. It provides most of the key documents and bodies involved in the study and policy-forming of TCBMs for delegates to use as a reference. Delegates should be aware of the voting record on this resolution, as it reflects the current status quo in the CD, which is referred to in the resolution.

United Nations, General Assembly, Sixty-seventh session. (2012, December 11). *Prevention of an arms race in outer space (A/RES/67/30)* [Resolution]. Adopted on the report of the First Committee (A/67/407). Retrieved June 30, 2013 from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/67/30

This is the most recent version of the General Assembly resolution pertaining to topic of, "Prevention of an arms race in outer space." Delegates should be well-versed in the common phrases and concepts iterated in this document, as well as have confidence in discussing its finer points with others during suspensions of the meeting. All bodies and documents mentioned in this resolution may be considered the most relevant to this topic's discussion.

United Nations, General Assembly, Twenty-first session. (1966, December 19). *Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies (A/RES/2222 (XXI))*. Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: [http://undocs.org/A/RES/2222\(XXI\)](http://undocs.org/A/RES/2222(XXI))

As the Outer Space Treaty was the first UN treaty that had to do with space, it is an important document to both cite and study. Delegates should pay special attention to the parts of the treaty that prohibit any kind of nuclear weapon or weapon of mass destruction from being deployed in space. Any mention in this treaty of weapons or military will be very pertinent to this topic's discussion.

United Nations Office at Geneva. (2013). *CD Documents related to Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space* [Website]. Retrieved 1 July 2013 from: [http://www.unog.ch/80256EE600585943/\(httpPages\)/D4C4FE00A7302FB2C12575E4002DED85](http://www.unog.ch/80256EE600585943/(httpPages)/D4C4FE00A7302FB2C12575E4002DED85)

This website provides an excellent timeline of CD documents relating to PAROS. Delegates are able to obtain a decent grasp of the current situation in the CD by briefly reviewing each of these documents. Special attention should be paid to the names and official opinions of the sponsors of these documents, since delegates could in fact be representing those very sponsors in the First Committee. Voting records of these documents should also be examined for the same reason, not only the sponsor lists.

United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs. (2013). *Space Law: Frequently Asked Questions* [Website]. Retrieved 28 July 2013 from: <http://unoosa.org/oosa/en/FAQ/splawfaq.html>

This website is an extremely valuable starting point for delegates to begin understanding the complexities of international space law. It would be useful to commit to memory which treaty or agreement each law originates from, to avoid confusion when negotiating and discussing the topic during suspension of the meeting. It does not merely answer questions factually; it also helps explain the reasoning behind the answers, making it easy for delegates to understand a very intricate topic.

United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs. (2002). *United Nations Treaties and Principles on Outer Space: Text of treaties and principles governing the activities of States in the exploration and use of outer space, adopted by the United Nations General Assembly*. Retrieved 30 June 2013 from: <http://www.unoosa.org/pdf/publications/STSPACE11E.pdf>

This document contains all five United Nations space-related treaties, as well as the related five declarations and established principles. It is put together in the format of a single document and will most likely be the most convenient way for delegates to initially understand the necessary international framework that this topic entails. While not all ten documents will be mentioned in discussion of this topic, it is important for delegates to review each of them in order to formulate a complete picture of the current legal situation concerning outer space.

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Conference on Disarmament. (2012, August 30). *Syrian Arab Republic on behalf of member States of G-21, Working paper: Prevention of an arms race in outer space (CD/1941)*. Retrieved 30 July 2013 from: http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=CD/1941

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Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly First Committee (GA 1st)

Introduction

1. These rules shall be the only rules which apply to the General Assembly First Committee (hereinafter referred to as “the Committee”) and shall be considered adopted by the Committee prior to its first meeting.
2. For purposes of these rules, the Director, the Assistant Director(s), the Under-Secretaries-General, and the Assistant Secretaries-General, are designates and agents of the Secretary-General and Deputy Secretary-General, and are collectively referred to as the “Secretariat.”
3. Interpretation of the rules shall be reserved exclusively to the Deputy Secretary-General or her/his designate. Such interpretation shall be in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the National Model United Nations (NMUN) and in furtherance of the educational mission of that organization.
4. For the purposes of these rules, “President” shall refer to the chairperson or acting chairperson of the Committee, which can be any member of the Secretariat or their designate.
5. The practice of striving for consensus in decision-making shall be encouraged. NMUN also acknowledges it may sometimes be necessary for a Member State to abstain or vote against a resolution it cannot support for policy reasons.

I. SESSIONS

Rule 1 - *Dates of convening and adjournment*

The Committee shall meet every year in regular session, commencing and closing on the dates designated by the Secretary-General.

Rule 2 - *Place of sessions*

The Committee shall meet at a location designated by the Secretary-General.

II. AGENDA

Rule 3 - *Provisional agenda*

The provisional agenda shall be drawn up by the Deputy Secretary-General and communicated to the members of the Committee at least sixty days before the opening of the session.

Rule 4 - *Adoption of the agenda*

The agenda provided by the Deputy Secretary-General shall be considered adopted as of the beginning of the session. The order of the agenda items shall be determined by a majority vote of those present and voting.

The vote described in this rule is a procedural vote and, as such, observers are permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, those present and voting means those Member States and observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to a vote. Should the Committee not reach a decision by conclusion of the first night’s meeting, the agenda will be automatically set in the order in which it was first communicated.

Rule 5 - Revision of the agenda

During a session, the Committee may revise the agenda by adding, deleting, deferring or amending items. Only important and urgent items shall be added to the agenda during a session. Debate on the inclusion of an item in the agenda shall be limited to three speakers in favor of, and three against, the inclusion. Additional items of an important and urgent character, proposed for inclusion in the agenda less than thirty days before the opening of a session, may be placed on the agenda if the Committee so decides by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. No additional item may, unless the Committee decides otherwise by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting, be considered until a commission has reported on the question concerned.

For purposes of this rule, the determination of an item of an important and urgent character is subject to the discretion of the Deputy Secretary-General, or his or her designate, and any such determination is final. If an item is determined to be of such a character, then it requires a two-thirds vote of the Committee to be placed on the agenda. The votes described in this rule are substantive votes, and, as such, observers are not permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, —the members “present and voting” — means members (not including observers) in attendance at the session during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 6 - Explanatory memorandum

Any item proposed for inclusion in the agenda shall be accompanied by an explanatory memorandum and, if possible, by basic documents.

III. SECRETARIAT

Rule 7 - Duties of the Secretary-General

1. The Secretary-General or her/his designate shall act in this capacity in all meetings of the Committee.
2. The Secretary-General, in cooperation with the Deputy Secretary-General, shall provide and direct the staff required by the Committee and be responsible for all the arrangements that may be necessary for its meetings.

Rule 8 - Duties of the Secretariat

The Secretariat shall receive and distribute documents of the Commission to the Members, and generally perform all other work which the Committee may require.

Rule 9 - Statements by the Secretariat

The Secretary-General or her/his designate, may make oral as well as written statements to the Committee concerning any question under consideration.

Rule 10 - Selection of the President

The Secretary-General or her/his designate shall appoint, from applications received by the Secretariat, a President who shall hold office and, *inter alia*, chair the Committee for the duration of the session, unless otherwise decided by the Secretary-General.

Rule 11 - Replacement of the President

If the President is unable to perform her/his functions, a new President shall be appointed for the unexpired term at the discretion of the Secretary-General or her/his designate.

IV. LANGUAGE

Rule 12 - Official and working language

English shall be the official and working language of the Committee during scheduled sessions (both formal and informal) of the Committee.

Rule 13 - Interpretation (oral) or translation (written)

Any representative wishing to address any body or submit a document in a language other than English shall provide interpretation or translation into English.

This rule does not affect the total speaking time allotted to those representatives wishing to address the body in a language other than English. As such, both the speech and the interpretation must be within the set time limit. The language should be the official language of the country you are representing at NMUN.

V. CONDUCT OF BUSINESS

Rule 14 - Quorum

The President may declare a meeting open and permit debate to proceed when representatives of at least one-third of the members of the Committee are present. The presence of representatives of a majority of the members of the Committee shall be required for any decision to be taken.

For purposes of this rule, members of the Committee means the total number of members (not including observers) in attendance at the first night's meeting (session).

Rule 15 - General powers of the President

In addition to exercising the powers conferred upon him or her elsewhere by these rules, the President shall declare the opening and closing of each meeting of the Committee, direct the discussions, ensure observance of these rules, accord the right to speak, put questions to vote and announce decisions. The President, subject to these rules, shall have complete control of the proceedings of the Committee and over the maintenance of order at its meetings. He or she shall rule on points of order. The President may propose to the Committee the closure of the list of speakers, a limitation on the speakers time and on the number of times the representative of each member may speak on an item, the adjournment or closure of the debate, and the suspension or adjournment of a meeting.

Included in these enumerated powers is the power to assign speaking times for all speeches incidental to motions and amendment. Further, the President is to use her/his discretion, upon the advice and at the consent of the Secretariat, to determine whether to entertain a particular motion based on the philosophy and principles of the NMUN. Such discretion should be used on a limited basis and only under circumstances where it is necessary to advance the educational mission of the Conference and is limited to entertaining motions.

Rule 16 - Authority of the Committee

The President, in the exercise of her or his functions, remains under the authority of the Committee.

Rule 17 - Voting rights on procedural matters

Unless otherwise stated, all votes pertaining to the conduct of business shall require a favorable vote by the majority of the members "present and voting" in order to pass.

For purposes of this rule, the members present and voting mean those members (including observers) in attendance at the meeting during which this rule is applied. Note that observers may vote on all procedural votes; they may, however, not vote on substantive matters (see Chapter VI). Every delegation must cast a vote in procedural votes. Further, there is no possibility to abstain or pass on procedural votes

Rule 18 - Points of order

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may rise to a point of order, and the point of order shall be immediately decided by the President in accordance with the rules of procedure. A representative may appeal against the ruling of the President. The appeal shall be immediately put to the vote, and the President's ruling shall stand unless overruled by a majority of the members present and voting. A representative rising to a point of order may not speak on the substance of the matter under discussion.

Such points of order should not under any circumstances interrupt the speech of a fellow representative. They should be used exclusively to correct an error in procedure. Any questions on order arising during a speech made by a representative should be raised at the conclusion of the speech, or can be addressed by the President, sua sponte (on her/his own accord), during the speech. For purposes of this rule, the members present and voting mean those members (including observers) in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 19 - Speeches

No representative may address the Committee without having previously obtained the permission of the President. The President shall call upon speakers in the order in which they signify their desire to speak. The President may call a speaker to order if his remarks are not relevant to the subject under discussion.

In line with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN, in furtherance of its educational mission, and for the purpose of facilitating debate, the Secretariat will set a time limit for all speeches which may be amended by the Committee through a vote if the President, at his or her discretion, decides to allow the Committee to decide. In no case shall the speaker's time be changed during the first scheduled session of the Committee. Consequently, motions to alter the speaker's time will not be entertained by the President. The content of speeches should be pertinent to the agenda as set by the Committee.

Rule 20 - List of Speakers

Members may only be on the list of speakers once but may be added again after having spoken. During the course of a debate, the President may announce the list of speakers and, with the consent of the Committee, declare the list closed. Once the list has been closed, it can be reopened upon by a vote of the Committee. When there are no more speakers, the President shall declare the debate closed. Such closure shall have the same effect as closure by decision of the Committee.

The decision to announce the list of speakers is within the discretion of the President and should not be the subject of a motion by the Committee. A motion to close the speakers list or reopen (if the list has already been closed) is within the purview of the Committee and the President should not act on her/his own motion.

Rule 21 - Right of reply

If a remark impugns the integrity of a representative's State, the President may permit that representative to exercise her/his right of reply following the conclusion of the controversial speech, and shall determine an appropriate time limit for the reply. No ruling on this question shall be subject to appeal.

For purposes of this rule, a remark that impugns the integrity of a representative's State is one directed at the governing authority of that State and/or one that puts into question that State's sovereignty or a portion thereof. All interventions in the exercise of the right of reply shall be addressed in writing to the Secretariat and shall not be raised as a point of order or motion. The reply shall be read to the Committee by the representative only upon approval of the Secretariat, and in no case after voting has concluded on all matters relating to the agenda topic, during the discussion of which, the right arose. The right of reply will not be approved should it impugn the integrity of another State.

Rule 22 - Suspension of the meeting

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move the suspension of the meeting, specifying a time for reconvening. Such motions shall not be debated but shall be put to a vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. Delegates should not state a purpose for the suspension.

This motion should be used to suspend the meeting for lunch or at the end of the scheduled board session time. Delegates should properly phrase this motion as "suspension of the meeting," and provide a length of time when making the motion.

Rule 23 - Adjournment of the meeting

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move to the adjournment of the meeting. Such motions shall not be debated but shall be put to the vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. After adjournment, the Committee shall reconvene at its next regularly scheduled meeting time.

As this motion, if successful, would end the meeting until the Committee's next regularly scheduled session the following year, and in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN and in furtherance of its educational mission, the President will not entertain such a motion until the end of the last meeting of the Committee.

Rule 24 - Adjournment of debate

During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move the adjournment of the debate on the item under discussion. Two representatives may speak in favor of, and two against, the motion, after which the motion shall be immediately put to the vote. The President may limit the time to be allowed to speakers under this rule.

Rule 25 - Closure of debate

A representative may at any time move the closure of debate on the item under discussion, whether or not any other representative has signified her/his wish to speak. Permission to speak on the motion shall be accorded only to two representatives opposing the closure, after which the motion shall be put to the vote immediately. Closure of debate shall require a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. If the Committee favors the closure of debate, the Committee shall immediately move to vote on all proposals introduced under that agenda item.

Rule 26 - Order of motions

Subject to Rule 18, the motions indicated below shall have precedence in the following order over all proposals or other motions before the meeting:

1. To suspend the meeting;
2. To adjourn the meeting;
3. To adjourn the debate on the item under discussion;
4. To close the debate on the item under discussion.

Rule 27 - Proposals and amendments

Proposals and amendments shall normally be submitted in writing to the Secretariat. Any proposal or amendment that relates to the substance of any matter under discussion shall require the signature of twenty percent of the members of the Committee [sponsors].

The Secretariat may, at its discretion, approve the proposal or amendment for circulation among the delegations. As a general rule, no proposal shall be put to the vote at any meeting of the Committee unless copies of it have been

circulated to all delegations. The President may, however, permit the discussion and consideration of amendments or of motions as to procedure, even though such amendments and motions have not been circulated.

If the sponsors agree to the adoption of a proposed amendment, the proposal shall be modified accordingly and no vote shall be taken on the proposed amendment. A document modified in this manner shall be considered as the proposal pending before the Committee for all purposes, including subsequent amendments.

For purposes of this rule, all proposals shall be in the form of working papers prior to their approval by the Secretariat. Working papers will not be copied, or in any other way distributed, to the Committee by the Secretariat. The distribution of such working papers is solely the responsibility of the sponsors of the working papers. Along these lines, and in furtherance of the philosophy and principles of the NMUN and for the purpose of advancing its educational mission, representatives should not directly refer to the substance of a working paper that has not yet been accepted as a draft resolution during formal speeches. After approval of a working paper, the proposal becomes a draft resolution and will be copied by the Secretariat for distribution to the Committee. These draft resolutions are the collective property of the Committee and, as such, the names of the original sponsors will be removed. The copying and distribution of amendments is at the discretion of the Secretariat, but the substance of all such amendments will be made available to all representatives in some form. Should delegates wish to withdraw a working paper or draft resolution from consideration, this requires the consent of all sponsors.

Rule 28 - Withdrawal of motions

A motion may be withdrawn by its proposer at any time before voting has commenced, provided that the motion has not been amended. A motion thus withdrawn may be reintroduced by any member.

Rule 29 - Reconsideration of a topic

When a topic has been adjourned, it may not be reconsidered at the same session unless the Committee, by a two-thirds majority of those present and voting, so decides. Reconsideration can only be moved by a representative who voted on the prevailing side of the original motion to adjourn. Permission to speak on a motion to reconsider shall be accorded only to two speakers opposing the motion, after which it shall be put to the vote immediately. The President may limit the time to be allowed to speakers under this rule.

Rule 30 - Invitation to silent prayer or meditation

Immediately after the opening of the meeting and immediately preceding the closing of the final meeting, the President shall invite the representatives to observe one minute of silence dedicated to prayer or meditation with the motion to do so by a representative.

VI. VOTING

Rule 31 - Voting rights

Each member of the Committee shall have one vote.

This rule applies to substantive voting on amendments, draft resolutions, and portions of draft resolutions divided out by motion. As such, all references to member(s) do not include observers, who are not permitted to cast votes on substantive matters.

Rule 32 - Request for a vote

A proposal or motion before the Committee for decision shall be voted upon if any member so requests. Where no member requests a vote, the Committee may adopt proposals or motions without a vote.

For purposes of this rule, proposal means any draft resolution, an amendment thereto, or a portion of a draft resolution divided out by motion. Just prior to a vote on a particular proposal or motion, the President may ask if there are any objections to passing the proposal or motion by acclamation, or a

member may move to accept the proposal or motion by acclamation. If there are no objections to the proposal or motion, then it is adopted without a vote. Adoption by “acclamation” or “without a vote” is consistent not only with the educational mission of the conference but also the way in which the United Nations adopts a majority of its proposals.

Rule 33 - Majority required

1. Unless specified otherwise in these rules, decisions of the Committee shall be made by a majority of the members present and voting.
2. For the purpose of tabulation, the phrase “members present and voting” means members casting an affirmative or negative vote. Members which abstain from voting are considered as not voting.

All members declaring their representative States as “present and voting” during the attendance roll-call for the meeting during which the substantive voting occurs, must cast an affirmative or negative vote, and cannot abstain on substantive votes.

Rule 34 - Method of voting

1. The Committee shall normally vote by a show of placards, except that a representative may request a roll-call, which shall be taken in the English alphabetical order of the names of the members, beginning with the member whose name is randomly selected by the President. The name of each member shall be called in any roll-call, and one of its representatives shall reply “yes,” “no,” “abstention,” or “pass.”

Only those members who designate themselves as present or present and voting during the attendance roll-call, or in some other manner communicate their attendance to the President and/or Secretariat, are permitted to vote and, as such, no others will be called during a roll-call vote. Any representatives replying pass must, when requested a second time, respond with either a yes or no vote. A pass cannot be followed by a second pass for the same proposal or amendment, nor can it be followed by an abstention on that same proposal or amendment.

2. When the Committee votes by mechanical means, a non-recorded vote shall replace a vote by show of placards and a recorded vote shall replace a roll-call vote. A representative may request a recorded vote. In the case of a recorded vote, the Committee shall dispense with the procedure of calling out the names of the members.
3. The vote of each member participating in a roll-call or a recorded vote shall be inserted in the record.

Rule 35 - Explanations of vote

Representatives may make brief statements consisting solely of explanation of their votes after the voting has been completed. The representatives of a member sponsoring a proposal or motion shall not speak in explanation of vote thereon, except if it has been amended, and the member has voted against the proposal or motion.

All explanations of vote must be submitted to the President in writing before debate on the topic is closed, except where the representative is of a member sponsoring the proposal, as described in the second clause, in which case the explanation of vote must be submitted to the President in writing immediately after voting on the topic ends. Only delegates who are sponsors of a draft resolution that has been adopted with an unfriendly amendment, whom subsequently voted against the draft resolution may explain their vote.

Rule 36 - Conduct during voting

After the President has announced the commencement of voting, no representatives shall interrupt the voting except on a point of order in connection with the actual process of voting.

For purposes of this rule, there shall be no communication among delegates, and if any delegate leaves the Committee room during voting procedure, they will not be allowed back into the room until the Committee

has convened voting procedure. Should a delegate who is also serving as Head Delegate leave the room, they may reenter but they may not retake their seat and participate in the vote.

Rule 37 - Division of proposals and amendments

Immediately before a proposal or amendment comes to a vote, a representative may move that parts of a proposal or of an amendment should be voted on separately. If there are calls for multiple divisions, those shall be voted upon in an order to be set by the President where the most radical division will be voted upon first. If an objection is made to the motion for division, the request for division shall be voted upon, requiring the support of a majority of those present and voting to pass. Permission to speak on the motion for division shall be given only to two speakers in favor and two speakers against. If the motion for division is carried, those parts of the proposal or of the amendment which are approved shall then be put to a vote. If all operative parts of the proposal or of the amendment have been rejected, the proposal or amendment shall be considered to have been rejected as a whole.

For purposes of this rule, most radical division means the division that will remove the greatest substance from the draft resolution, but not necessarily the one that will remove the most words or clauses. The determination of which division is most radical is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final.

Rule 38 - Amendments

An amendment is a proposal that does no more than add to, delete from, or revise part of another proposal. Permission to speak on the amendment shall be given only to two speakers in favor and two speakers against.

An amendment can add, amend, or delete entire operative clauses, but cannot in any manner add, amend, delete, or otherwise affect preambular clauses or sub-clauses of operative clauses. The President may limit the time to be allowed to speakers under this rule. These speeches are substantive in nature.

Rule 39 - Voting on amendments

When an amendment is moved to a proposal, the amendment shall be voted on first. When two or more amendments are moved to a proposal, the amendment furthest removed in substance from the original proposal shall be voted on first and then the amendment next furthest removed there from, and so on until all the amendments have been put to the vote. Where, however, the adoption of one amendment necessarily implies the rejection of another amendment, the latter shall not be put to the vote. If one or more amendments are adopted, the amended proposal shall then be voted on.

For purposes of this rule, furthest removed in substance means the amendment that will have the most significant impact on the draft resolution. The determination of which amendment is furthest removed in substance is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, and any such determination is final.

Rule 40 - Order of voting on proposals

If two or more proposals, other than amendments, relate to the same question, they shall, unless the Committee decides otherwise, be voted on in the order in which they were submitted.

Rule 41 - The President shall not vote

The President shall not vote but may designate another member of her/his delegation to vote in her/his place.

VII. CREDENTIALS

Rule 42 - Credentials

The credentials of representatives and the names of members of a delegation shall be submitted to the Secretary-General prior to the opening of a session.

Rule 43 - Authority of the General Assembly

The Committee shall be bound by the actions of the General Assembly in all credentials matters and shall take no action regarding the credentials of any member.

VII. PARTICIPATION OF NON-MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE

Rule 44 - Participation of non-Member States

The Committee shall invite any Member of the United Nations that is not a member of the Committee and any other State, to participate in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that State.

A sub-board or sessional body of the Committee shall invite any State that is not one of its own members to participate in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that State. A State thus invited shall not have the right to vote, but may submit proposals which may be put to the vote on request of any member of the body concerned.

If the Committee considers that the presence of a Member invited, according to this rule, is no longer necessary, it may withdraw the invitation. Delegates invited to the Committee according to this rule should also keep in mind their role and obligations in the Committee that they were originally assigned to. For educational purposes of the NMUN Conference, the Secretariat may thus ask a delegate to return to his or her board when his or her presence in the Committee is no longer required. Delegates may request the presence of a non-member of their board simply by informing the President that this is the desire of the body, there is no formal procedural process.

Rule 45 - Participation of national liberation movements

The Committee may invite any national liberation movement recognized by the General Assembly to participate, without the right to vote, in its deliberations on any matter of particular concern to that movement.

National liberation movements are only represented at NMUN in two ways: (1) if their delegation has been assigned explicitly the national liberation movement itself; or (2) should the Security Commission wish to hear from a representative of the movement in their deliberations, the Secretariat shall provide the appropriate representative.

Rule 46 - Participation of and consultation with specialized agencies

In accordance with the agreements concluded between the United Nations and the specialized agencies, the specialized agencies shall be entitled: a) To be represented at meetings of the Committee and its subsidiary organs; b) To participate, without the right to vote, through their representatives, in deliberations with respect to items of concern to them and to submit proposals regarding such items, which may be put to the vote at the request of any member of the Committee or of the subsidiary organ concerned.

NMUN does not assign delegations to Specialized Agencies.

Rule 47 - Participation of non-governmental organization and intergovernmental organizations

Representatives of non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations accorded consultative observer status by the Economic and Social Council and other non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations designated on an ad hoc or a continuing basis by the Committee on the recommendation of the Bureau, may participate, with the procedural right to vote, but not the substantive right to vote, in the deliberations of the Committee on questions within the scope of the activities of the organizations.

NMUN will assign delegations an NGO instead of a Member State upon request.