



SRMUN Charlotte 2016

The United Nations at 70: Addressing the Changing Landscape of Peace Security & Stability

March 31 - April 2, 2016

gafourth_charlotte@srmun.org

Greetings Delegates,

Welcome to SRMUN Charlotte 2016 and the General Assembly Fourth (GA 4th) Committee. My name is Kayla Bello, and I will be serving as your Director for the GA 4th. This will be my third conference as a SRMUN staff member. Previously, I served as the Assistant Director of the International Criminal Court (ICC) at SRMUN Charlotte 2015 and the Assistant Director of the World Humanitarian Summit 2016 (WHS) at SRMUN Atlanta 2015. I am currently a working professional for the oil and gas industry but plan on attending graduate school next year to pursue my Masters in Public Administration and law degree. I hold a Bachelor's of Science in Political Science with a minor in Pre-Law from the University of Texas at Tyler. Our committee's Assistant Director will be Susan Ramsey-French. This will be Susan's second time on staff as she previously served as Assistant Director of the General Assembly Plenary at Charlotte 2015. Susan has a Bachelor's of Applied Science in Homeland Security and is currently obtaining a Masters in Social Work at the University of Southern California.

The GA 4th interchangeably known as the Special Political and Decolonization Committee deals with a variety of subjects which include those related to decolonization, Palestinian refugees and human rights, peacekeeping, mine action, outer space, public information, atomic radiation and the University for Peace. On 17 August 1993, the GA passed A/RES/47/233, calling for a "revitalization of the work" within the committee. The resolution centered on the Special Political Committee and the Decolonization Committee, calling for the two to merge, forming the Fourth Committee. All Member States of the UN are represented in GA Fourth.

By focusing on the mission of the GA 4th and the SRMUN Charlotte 2016 theme of "*The United Nations at 70: Addressing the Changing Landscape of Peace, Security and Stability*," we have developed the following topics for the delegates to discuss come conference:

- I. The Peaceful Uses of Outer Space for Sustainable Development
- II. The Threat of Nuclear Stockpiles in Turbulent Regions

The background guide provides a strong introduction to the committee and the topics and should be utilized as a foundation for the delegate's independent research. While we have attempted to provide a holistic analysis of the issues, the background guide should not be used as the single mode of analysis for the topics. Delegates are expected to go beyond the background guide and engage in intellectual inquiry of their own. The position papers for the committee should reflect the complexity of these issues and their externalities. Delegations are expected to submit a position paper and be prepared for a vigorous discussion at the conference. Position papers should be no longer than two pages in length (single spaced) and demonstrate your Member State's position, policies and recommendations on each of the two topics. For more detailed information about formatting and how to write position papers, delegates can visit srmun.org. **All position papers MUST be submitted no later than Friday, March 11, 2016 by 11:59pm EST via the SRMUN website.**

Susan and myself are enthusiastic about serving as your dais for the GA4th. We wish you all the best of luck in your conference preparation and look forward to working with you in the near future. Please feel free to contact Deputy Director-General Michael Oleaga, Susan or myself if you have any questions while preparing for the conference.

Kayla Bello
Director
gafourth_charlotte@srmun.org

Susan Ramsey-French
Assistant Director
gafourth_charlotte@srmun.org

Michael Oleaga
Deputy Director-General
ddg_charlotte@srmun.org

History of the General Assembly Fourth Committee

The General Assembly (GA) is the main deliberative, policymaking, and representative body of the United Nations (UN) and is comprised of all 193 Member States.¹ Within the GA are six main committees and a host of special committees and subsidiary organs.² The GA was first convened on 10 January 1946, in London, United Kingdom, with 51 Member States present and adopted its first resolution later that month.³ Among the six main GA committees is the GA Fourth Committee, also referred to as the Special Political and Decolonization Committee (SPECPOL).⁴

Originally, the committee's focus was to monitor the implementation of the *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples* (A/RES/1514 (XV)), which was adopted on 14 December 1960.⁵ The aforementioned declaration is often shortened and referred to as the *Declaration on Decolonization* and states that "all people have the right to self-determination" and further emphasizes that ending colonialism should be the committee's chief objective.⁷ On 17 August 1993, the GA passed A/RES/47/233, calling for a "revitalization of the work" within the committee.⁸ The resolution called for the merger of two committees, the Special Political Committee and also the Decolonization Committee.⁹ The merger of the two aforementioned committees would form the Fourth Committee.^{10 11}

The GA Fourth Committee conducts comprehensive reviews on issues and reports their findings directly to the GA, with their main focus on political aspects of questions.¹² The GA, in accordance with Article 15 of the UN Charter, "receives and considers reports" issued by "the other principal organs established under the Charter as well as reports issued by its own subsidiary bodies."¹³ Assigned to the Fourth Committee are subsidiaries such as, but not limited to, the United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR), United Nations Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS), and Committee on Information (COI).^{14 15} These subsidiaries assist SPECPOL through facilitating discussions on important questions and delivering recommendations to the Fourth Committee and GA Plenary.¹⁶

In 2013, the budget, set by the GA Fifth Committee and voted on by the GA Plenary committee, was set for political affairs at USD 1,344,301,800.^{17 18} With the aforementioned funds, SPECPOL handles a variety of issues relating to

¹ "About the General Assembly," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/index.shtml> (accessed July 10, 2015).

² Ibid.

³ "History of the United Nations," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/history/1941-1950.shtml> (accessed July 7, 2015).

⁴ "United Nations General Assembly, Fourth," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/fourth/index.shtml> (accessed July 10, 2015).

⁵ "The United Nations and Decolonization, History," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/decolonization/history.shtml> (accessed July 10, 2015).

⁶ *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples*. The United Nations Legal. December 14, 1960.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ A/RES/47/233. *Revitalization of the work of the General Assembly*. The United Nations General Assembly. <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/47/a47r233.htm>. (accessed July 17, 2015).

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ "UN Documentation: General Assembly," The United Nations, <http://research.un.org/en/docs/ga/committees> (accessed July 15, 2015).

¹² "Special Political and Decolonization (Fourth) Committee," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/ctte/CTTEE.htm> (accessed July 15, 2015).

¹³ *Charter of the United Nations*. The United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/>. (accessed July 22, 2015).

¹⁴ "About Us," The United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/aboutus/index.html> (accessed July 22, 2015).

¹⁵ "General Assembly Committee on Information: About the Committee," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/coi/about/bg.shtml> (accessed July 22, 2015).

¹⁶ "About the General Assembly, Subsidiary Organs of the General Assembly," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/about/subsidiary/committees.shtml> (accessed July 22, 2015).

¹⁷ A/RES/68/248 A-C. *Programme budget for the biennium 2014–2015*. The United Nations.

decolonization, Palestinian refugees and human rights, peacekeeping, mine action, outer space, public information, atomic radiation, and the University for Peace.¹⁹ A significant focus is still on decolonization issues since there remain 17 non-self-governing territories.²⁰ Continuing the implementation of the *Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples* and eradication of colonialism is still a vital motivation of SPECPOL.²¹

The GA Fourth Committee is commonly recognized when it comes to peacekeeping operations and those referring to Palestinian refugees and human rights. Peacekeeping operations are a priority and, as such, a Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations has been in place since 18 February 1965, with the adoption of resolution 2006 XIX.²² This committee continues to review the “whole question of peace-keeping operations in all their aspects.”²³ GA resolution 3376 (XXX), in 1975, established a standing committee in regards to Palestinian refugees known as the *Committee on Exercise of the Inalienable Rights of the Palestinian People* (CEIRPP).²⁴ In the 69th session on 10 December 2014, the GA adopted A/RES/69/20, affirming the relevance of the issue regarding refugees.²⁵ The resolution requested the continued promotion of “the realization of the inalienable rights of the Palestinian people, including their right to self-determination.”²⁶ A/RES/69/20 further called for review of “the question of Palestine and to report and make suggestions to the GA.”²⁷

SPECPOL also oversees the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees (UNRWA), which was created in response to the 1948 Arab-Israeli conflict.²⁸ The GA adopted resolution 302 (IV) on 8 December 1949, and began operations on 1 May 1950.²⁹ Due to the unresolved refugee status, and the growth of refugees, the UNRWA has been renewed through 30 June 2017.³⁰

All Member States are represented in the GA Fourth Committee.³¹

http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/68/248a-c. (accessed August 10, 2015).

¹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹ “United Nations General Assembly: Fourth,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/ga/fourth/index.shtml> (accessed July 10, 2015).

²⁰ “The United Nations Global Issues: Decolonization,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/globalissues/decolonization/> (accessed July 23, 2015).

²¹ “The United Nations and Decolonization: History,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/decolonization/history.shtml> (accessed August 10, 2015).

²² *2006 XIX Comprehensive review of the whole question of peace-keeping operations in all their aspects*. The United Nations. <http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/RESOLUTION/GEN/NR0/211/00/IMG/NR021100.pdf?OpenElement>. (accessed July 22, 2015).

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ “The Question of Palestine,” The United Nations International Meeting In Support of Israeli-Palestinian Peace, <http://unispal.un.org/unispal.nsf/com.htm> (accessed July 23, 2015).

²⁵ A/RES/69/20. *Committee on the Exercise of the Inalienable Rights of the Palestinian People*. The United Nations General Assembly. http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/69/20 (accessed August 15, 2015).

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ “Who We Are,” The United Nations Relief and Works Agency, <http://www.unrwa.org/who-we-are> (accessed July 22, 2015).

²⁹ Ibid.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ “SRMUN Charlotte – Nations,” SRMUN, <http://www.srmun.org/charlotte/nations.php> (accessed November 21, 2015).

I. Peaceful Uses of Outer Space for Sustainable Development

Introduction

Since the launch of the first man-made satellite, Sputnik 1, on 4 October 1957, or landing a man on the moon on 21 July 1969, the dawn of the space age has led to increased spatial activity.³² After more than 50 years of exploration and research, the uses of satellite technology for the advancement of science, particularly space science and space applications, have produced societal benefits that improve the quality of everyday life on Earth.³³ Space exploration has had influences on agriculture, global health, environment, disasters, education, human settlements, research and development, transportation, communication, humanitarian assistance, international peace and security, and sustainable development.³⁴ For example, satellites have become essential in communicating, wirelessly and through the Internet, while remote sensing satellites monitor weather, climate change, and track natural and man-made disasters.³⁵

By its very nature, space exploration is critical in advancing the international community's knowledge of the universe and all development, and, as a result, "more than 130 States currently participate in outer space activities, either by conducting their own space programs or by devising programs that use information provided by outer space assets."³⁶ The success of space-based systems worldwide, providing services to society and satisfying defense and security needs, has led to a situation where outer space is increasingly crowded.³⁷ In addition, the rapid proliferation of space debris threatens the safe utilization of outer space on the most commonly used orbits.³⁸ Measures must be taken to mitigate and ensure the safety and security of activities in outer space for long-term sustainability and development. The United Nations (UN) World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in its 1987 report, "Our Common Future," defines sustainable development as "Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."³⁹ According to Dr. Stuart, a fellow at the London School of Economics and Editor of the journal *Space Policy*, "we're at a point in time where it's ever-more pressing to re-evaluate our current legal infrastructure that governs outer space."⁴⁰ The challenges that currently threaten the sanctity and sustainability of outer space are complex and require cooperation from all Member States and space actors alike.

History

The UN and space community has been committed to ensuring the peaceful uses of outer space since 1957.⁴¹ After the launch of Sputnik, the international community feared that the ability to launch satellites also translated into the capability to launch ballistic missiles that could carry nuclear weapons.⁴² Subsequently, the UN General Assembly (GA) drafted Resolution 1148 (XII), the first regarding the use of outer space, stating that all objects launched into space "shall be exclusively for peaceful and scientific purposes."^{43 44} Early proposals for prohibiting the use of

³² "July 20: One Giant Leap for Mankind," NASA, July 2014, http://www.nasa.gov/mission_pages/apollo/apollo11.html (Accessed November 1, 2015).

³³ "Benefits Stemming From Space Exploration," International Space Exploration Coordination Group, September 2013, <https://www.nasa.gov/sites/default/files/files/Benefits-Stemming-from-Space-Exploration-2013-TAGGED.pdf> (Accessed November 2, 2015).

³⁴ "Benefits of Space for Humankind," United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/benefits-of-space/benefits.html> (Accessed November 1, 2015).

³⁵ "Peaceful and Military Uses of Outer Space: Law and Policy," Institute of Air and Space Law, McGill University, February 2005 (Accessed November 1, 2015).

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Thomas Hiriart and Joseph H. Saleh, Observations on the evolution of satellite launch volume and cyclicity in the space industry, Volume 26, Issue 1, February 2010, Pages 53-60 (Accessed November 1, 2015).

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Yasmin Ali, "Who Owns Outer Space," BBC News, 25 September 2015, <http://www.bbc.com/news/science-environment-34324443> (Accessed December 13, 2015).

⁴¹ V. Putkov, "Sputnik and Russia's Outer Space Activities," 2007, pg. 37 (Accessed November 1, 2015).

⁴² "Sputnik and The Dawn of the Space Age," NASA, <http://history.nasa.gov/sputnik/> (Accessed December 13, 2015).

⁴³ Ibid.

space for military purposes and the placement of weapons of mass destruction in outer space were considered in the late 1950s and early 1960s by the UN.⁴⁵

In 1959, the UN created the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS), a permanent subsidiary body of GA Fourth Committee.^{46 47} The mission of COPUOS is "to review the scope of international cooperation in peaceful uses of outer space, to devise programs in this field to be undertaken under United Nations auspices, to encourage continued research and the dissemination of information on outer space matters, and to study legal problems arising from the exploration of outer space."⁴⁸ COPUOS aims to represent all 28 Member States' interests, so it has a broad makeup of the space powers: highly industrialized Member States and developing Member States alike.⁴⁹ Not all space actors have the capacity to operate safely in space.⁵⁰ In conjunction, Member States may lack the proper information about the space environment, tools to analyze information and make decisions, or experience and knowledge about best practices.⁵¹

COPUOS, in turn, created two subcommittees, the Scientific and Technical Subcommittee and the Legal Subcommittee.⁵² The COPUOS Legal Subcommittee has been a primary forum for discussion and negotiation of international agreements relating to outer space.⁵³ There are five international treaties that serve as the foundation for international space law.⁵⁴ Space law refers to the body of law governing space-related activities.⁵⁵ Space law, analogous to general international law, comprises a variety of international agreements, treaties, conventions, and GA resolutions as well as rules and regulations of international organizations.⁵⁶ Perhaps the most significant treaty is the 1967 Outer Space Treaty (OST), which bans the deployment of weapons of mass destruction into space and guarantees that no territorial claims can be made on any part of outer space.⁵⁷ Lastly, the treaty discourages actions that might interfere with the space operations of other Member States.⁵⁸ The OST is and remains an outstanding and progressive treaty, which laid the legal foundations for a wide range of space activities.⁵⁹ Forty years after the OST's introduction, there is an urgent need for a comprehensive reassessment of all aspects of space security, and a need to identify issues from more than one security perspective of more than one group of Member States.⁶⁰ The remaining space treaties most commonly referred to are *The Rescue Agreement*, *The Liability Convention*, *The Registration Convention*, and *The Moon Agreement*.⁶¹

⁴⁴ Ibid.

⁴⁵ "Outer Space," The United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, <http://www.un.org/disarmament/topics/outerspace/> (Accessed December 15, 2015).

⁴⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁷ "COPUOS History," United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/ourwork/copuos/history.html>, (Accessed December 15, 2015).

⁴⁸ "Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space," United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/ourwork/copuos/index.html> (Accessed November 2, 2015).

⁴⁹ Ibid.

⁵⁰ "Space Sustainability", Secure World Foundation, <http://swfound.org/our-focus/space-sustainability/> (Accessed November 28, 2015).

⁵¹ Ibid.

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ "The Historical Perspective: The United Nations and Outer Space," Background Information UNISPACE III, <http://www.un.org/events/unispace3/bginfo/historic.htm> (Accessed November 2, 2015).

⁵⁵ "Space Law," United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/ourwork/spacelaw/index.html> (Accessed November 2, 2015).

⁵⁶ Ibid.

⁵⁷ "United Nations Treaties and Principles on Outer Space," United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, http://www.unoosa.org/pdf/publications/st_space_11rev2E.pdf (Accessed November 2, 2015).

⁵⁸ "Journal of Space Law," Lamar Society of International Law of the University of Mississippi School of Law, Volume II 1974, http://www.spacelaw.olemiss.edu/JSL/Back_issues/JSL%202.pdf (Accessed November 4, 2015).

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ "Celebrating the Space Age: 50 Years of Space Technology, 40 Years of the Outer Space Treaty," Conference Report, 2-3 April 2007, United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR), <http://www.unidir.org/files/medias/pdfs/conference-report-eng-0-103.pdf> (Accessed November 3, 2015).

⁶¹ "Space Law Treaties and Principals," United Nations Office of for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/ourwork/spacelaw/treaties.html> (Accessed November 28, 2015).

In 2010, the Scientific and Technical Subcommittee began considering the long-term sustainability of outer space.⁶² The Working Group on the Long-term Sustainability of Outer Space Activities was established under the Scientific and Technical Subcommittee to identify areas that threaten long-term sustainability of outer space activities, propose measures that could enhance sustainability, and produce voluntary guidelines to reduce the risks during future outer space activities.⁶³ The Working Group and its Expert Groups addressed thematic areas including sustainable space utilization supporting sustainable development on Earth; space debris, space operations and tools to support collaborative space situational awareness; space weather; and regulatory regimes and guidance for actors in space.⁶⁴ Identifying areas of concern and proposing measures that could enhance sustainability and reduce risks long-term will be essential.^{65 66}

In January 2011, the GA created a group of governmental experts (GGE) to study transparency and confidence building measures (TCBMs) that were being implemented in outer space.⁶⁷ Three sessions were held by the GGE, and their report was submitted during the UNGA's 68th meeting.⁶⁸ The report outlined a framework on how to go about having experts visit national space facilities, risk reduction, and the process of exchanging information between states regarding space policy and activities.⁶⁹ There was also a recommendation to have the Office of Disarmament Affairs, UN entities, and the Office of Outer Space Affairs to coordinate and reinforce one another.⁷⁰

Sustainable Development

Space technology is becoming ever more vital, in particular, as an instrument for the application of the recommendations of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, and as a tool for finding rapid and adequate responses to the impacts of climate change, drought, desertification, the loss of biological diversity, the food crisis, and natural disasters.⁷¹ According to the UN's Economic Department of Social Affairs, cooperation efforts must be oriented towards capacity building from all international stakeholders and to achieve sustainable solutions that are inclusive, there must be a balance, or equity, between the interests of those Member States already heavily invested in the space environment and emerging space States, namely developing Member States.⁷² One recommendation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development was developing Member States should be able to receive, interpret, and model space data for application in areas of social benefit.⁷³ Priority objectives for developing Member States include strengthening national and regional capacities, investing in space technology, and education in science and outer space technology.⁷⁴

Academia and international leaders in business and science are challenged to create lasting, economically effective, and comprehensive applications for sustainable development. Different initiatives attempt to deal with space sustainability -- some from the civil perspective, some from the disarmament perspective. For example, The Space Generation Advisory Council (SGAC) addresses sustainable development from the civil perspective through

⁶² "Long-term Sustainability of Outer Space Activities," United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs, <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/ourwork/topics/long-term-sustainability-of-outer-space-activities.html> (Accessed November 28, 2015).

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

⁶⁷ "UNODA - Outer Space: Transparency and Confidence Building." UN News Center. (Accessed November 28, 2015).

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ GA/SPD/433, General Assembly Fourth, October 2009, Debating Outer Space Cooperation, Fourth Committee Hears Growing Number of Actors in Outer Space Could Risk Security of Space Assets, Limit Scope of Peaceful Uses, <http://www.un.org/press/en/2009/gaspd433.doc.htm> (Accessed November 1, 2015).

⁷² World Economic and Social Survey 2013, Sustainable Development Challenges, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (Accessed December 14, 2015)

⁷³ GA/SPD/433 "Debating Outer Space Cooperation, Fourth Committee Hears Growing Number of Actors in Outer Space Could Risk Security of Space Assets, Limit Scope of Peaceful Uses," General Assembly 4th Committee Meeting, 21 October 2009 (Accessed November 28, 2015).

⁷⁴ Ibid.

education.⁷⁵ By sending representatives to local schools, SGAC members are able to teach astrophysics, astrobiology, astronomy, science and technology, and sustainable development to potential space participants.⁷⁶ Also, the organization arranges space awareness days, movie nights, workshops, conferences, space parties, and technical activities.⁷⁷ This involvement at a grassroots level helps to build knowledge and confidence activities but most importantly, it allows SGAC to teach people in developing Member States the impact of space technologies in their day to day lives and how they could benefit even further from a number of peaceful space applications.⁷⁸ A central aspect to the disarmament perspective for sustainable use of outer space is the Conference on Disarmament (CD). The CD is the world's only permanent multilateral disarmament treaty negotiating body and operates by consensus.⁷⁹ Since its inception, the CD has considered proposals under the agenda item "prevention of an arms race in outer space," including draft treaties aimed at preventing the placement of weapons in outer space and prohibiting the use of anti-satellite weapons.⁸⁰ The CD has made some strides in the disarmament of outer space, but has had little success due to lack of consensus.⁸¹ The principal problems included difficulties in the current relations between key players, disagreement among them on the prioritization of main issues on the CD's agenda, and attempts of some States to link progress in one area to parallel progress in other areas.⁸² To remedy this, the CD released a confidence-building report on outer space, which ensured that the provisions that the CD was making were being received well by other Member States.⁸³ The idea was to establish coordination between various entities of the UN Secretariat and other institutions involved in outer space activities.⁸⁴ This would facilitate the implementation of the transparency and confidence-building measures and promote their further development. The measures included the exchange of different types of information relating to space policy and activities, risk reduction notifications, and expert visits to national space facilities.⁸⁵ It would behoove the international community to revisit these transparency and confidence measures and generate solutions that are feasible for all space actors.

Challenges to Maintaining Peace

Since the early days of the space era, the international community has strongly endorsed the use of "peaceful" purposes.⁸⁶ The term "peaceful uses of outer space" appears in official government statements and multilateral treaties, however, this term is still without an authoritative definition.⁸⁷ Early on, "peaceful" was referred to as "non-aggressive" and "non-military" but is a source of considerable confusion and creates a legal grey area.⁸⁸ The widely accepted interpretation of the term "peaceful" means "non-military," but that idea is contradicted by the practice of militarization and weaponization.⁸⁹

Militarization and Weaponization of Outer Space

Space has been militarized since the earliest communication satellites were launched.⁹⁰ In June 2004, the GA discussed concerns about the militarization of space.⁹¹ At the session, "some delegations expressed the view that a

⁷⁵ Lukaszczyk, Agnieszka, "The Role of Space Related Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Capacity Building," <http://swfound.org/media/3571/ngocapacity-iac-al-2008.pdf> (Accessed November 11, 2015).

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ "Conference on Disarmament," Reaching Critical Will, <http://www.reachingcriticalwill.org/disarmament-fora/cd> (Accessed November 28, 2015).

⁸⁰ Ibid.

⁸¹ Ibid.

⁸² "Conference on Disarmament," The Nuclear Threat Initiative (NTI), <http://www.nti.org/treaties-and-regimes/conference-on-disarmament/> (Accessed November 28, 2015).

⁸³ Ibid.

⁸⁴ Ibid.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ "Peaceful and Military Uses of Outer Space: Law and Policy," Institute of Air and Space Law, McGill University, February 2005 (Accessed November 1, 2015).

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁹⁰ Ibid.

greater risk of the introduction of weapons into outer space and the adoption of a concept of a use of force in outer space would undermine the basis for and the very logic of developing nonproliferation mechanisms and of the whole system of international security.”⁹² Today, militaries all over the world rely on satellites for command and control, communication, monitoring, early warning, and navigation with the Global Positioning System (GPS).⁹³ The idea that such satellites could threaten peace and security were at the forefront of these international discussions.⁹⁴ “Peaceful uses” of outer space include military uses, but not all uses are in fact peaceful. For instance, using satellites to direct bombings or to orchestrate air strikes should not fall under peaceful uses.⁹⁵ According to the American University Law Review, there must be a distinction drawn between the neutralization of outer space and the demilitarization of space.⁹⁶ There is also no authoritative definition of a “space weapon.”⁹⁷

Space weaponization is generally understood to refer to the placement in orbit of space-based devices that have a destructive capacity, directly or indirectly.⁹⁸ Many experts argue that ground-based systems designed or used to attack space-based assets also constitute as space weapons, though it may not technically part of the “weaponization of outer space” since they are not placed in orbit.⁹⁹ While there are currently no weapons deployed in space, the United States of America (USA) has invested in developing potential technologies, and both the People’s Republic of China and the USA have demonstrated anti-satellite capabilities in 2007 and 2008, respectively.¹⁰⁰ The Chinese military is considering the use of “piggy-back satellites” and “micro-satellites” that can be used as kinetic energy weapons to destroy enemy satellites or spacecraft, or can attach themselves to enemy satellites to jam them.¹⁰¹ Also, many elements of the USA’s ballistic “missile defense” system could also constitute space weapons as well, as many possess “dual-use” characteristics, allowing them to destroy space assets as well as ballistic missiles.¹⁰² These instances could pose a threat to international security and threaten the collaborative ownership of outer space.¹⁰³

Preventing an Arms Race in Outer Space (PAROS)

COPUOS’ work on long-term sustainability recognizes that while space appears limitless, in reality certain areas in space are considerably more useful than others.¹⁰⁴ The economic and technological barriers to launching space assets are decreasing rapidly, which in turn is increasing the pressure and competition amongst actors for ‘space’ in space.¹⁰⁵ The Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space (PAROS) is a UN resolution that reaffirms the fundamental principles of the 1967 Outer Space Treaty and advocates for a ban on the weaponization of space.¹⁰⁶ The PAROS resolution acknowledges the limitations of existing laws related to outer space and recognizes

⁹¹ “*Outer Space: Militarization, Weaponization, and the Prevention of an Arms Race*,” Reaching Critical Will, <http://www.reachingcriticalwill.org/resources/fact-sheets/critical-issues/5448-outer-space> (Accessed November 3, 2015).

⁹² Anup Shah, “Militarization and Weaponization of Outer Space,” *Global Issues*, January 21, 2007, <http://www.globalissues.org/article/69/militarization-and-weaponization-of-outer-space> (Accessed November 29, 2015).

⁹³ Ibid.

⁹⁴ Ibid.

⁹⁵ Ibid.

⁹⁶ Emilio Jaksetic, “*The Peaceful Uses of Outer Space: Soviet Views*,” <https://www.wcl.american.edu/journal/lawrev/28/jaksetic.pdf> (Accessed November 3, 2015).

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Ibid.

⁹⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid.

¹⁰¹ Wortzal, Larry M, “*China and the Battlefield in Space*,” Heritage.org, <http://www.heritage.org/research/reports/2003/10/china-and-the-battlefield-in-space> (Accessed November 29, 2015).

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ “UN Space Agency highlights growing pressure on space sustainability,” Gov.UK, UK Mission to the United Nations, 17 July 2015, <https://www.gov.uk/government/world-location-news/un-highlights-growing-pressure-on-space-sustainability> (Accessed December 14, 2015).

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

¹⁰⁶ “*Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space*,” Federation of American Scientists http://fas.org/programs/ssp/nukes/ArmsControl_NEW/nonproliferation/NFZ/NP-NFZ-PAROS.html (Accessed November 29, 2015).

that the Outer Space Treaty “by itself does not guarantee the prevention of an arms race in outer space.”¹⁰⁷ The resolution advocates for further measures to prevent an arms race in outer space by urging all Member States, particularly those with space capabilities, to adhere to the objectives of PAROS.¹⁰⁸ In addition, the PAROS resolution calls on the CD to establish an adhoc committee regarding PAROS resolution issues.¹⁰⁹

Space Debris

Besides creating a new arms race, the weaponization of space means proliferation of space debris. Such debris, resulting from 50 years of space activity, already poses a considerable hazard to space crafts.¹¹⁰ Useful orbits are becoming more populated than ever before.¹¹¹ This crowding problem could worsen as a large number of space weapons could be deployed in Low Earth Orbit (LEO).¹¹² The launching and testing of weapons would also increase space debris.¹¹³ Moreover, deploying weapons in the increasingly crowded realm of LEO would leave less room for civilian systems.¹¹⁴ Those problems would also occur during periods of peace.¹¹⁵ According to both National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and European Space Agency (ESA), mitigating debris is not sufficient; debris-on-debris and debris-on-active-satellite collisions will continue to generate new debris even without additional launches, and that active debris removal (ADR) is needed.¹¹⁶ The most hazardous debris is not simply the largest ones, but the risk they represent also heavily depends from their specific orbit and their orbital lifetime.¹¹⁷ The longer their lifetime, the larger the impact probability, thus the larger the risk of further growth in the debris orbital population.¹¹⁸ If a number of satellites were to be destroyed during the course of war, some scientists warn, they would create so much debris that it would prevent future satellites from being stationed in space and could limit space access.¹¹⁹ In 2008, the GA adopted A/RES/62/217, the Space Debris Mitigation Guidelines, a set of principles aimed at addressing the production of space debris released through missions.¹²⁰ Space debris mitigation measures are divided into two broad categories – those that curtail the generation of potentially harmful space debris in the near term and those that limit their generation over the longer term.¹²¹ “The prompt implementation of appropriate space debris mitigation measures is in humanity’s common interest, particularly if we are to preserve the outer space environment for future generations,” says, Mazlan Othman, director of UNOOSA.¹²²

Space Situational Awareness (SSA) forms the foundation of space sustainability as it enables safe and efficient space operations and promotes stability by reducing mishaps, misperceptions, and mistrust. SSA is the “ability to detect, track, identify, and catalog objects in outer space, such as debris and active or defunct satellites.”¹²³ SSA is an inherently international and cooperative venture to view, understand and predict the physical location of natural and manmade objects in orbit around the Earth, with the objective of avoiding collisions, monitoring space weather, and watching for Near-Earth Objects (NEOs).¹²⁴ SSA requires a network of globally distributed sensors as well as

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ Ibid.

¹¹² Ibid.

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

¹¹⁶ Weeden, “*Overview of the legal and policy challenges of orbital debris removal*,” Volume 27, Issue 1, February 2011, Pages 38-43 (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹¹⁷ M. Andreucci et al, “*Active Removal of Space Debris: Expanding Foam Application for Active Debris Removal*,” ESA, http://www.esa.int/gsp/ACT/doc/ARI/ARI%20Study%20Report/ACT-RPT-MAD-ARI-10-6411-Pisa-Active_Removal_of_Space_Debris-Foam.pdf (Accessed November 29, 2015).

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ “Space Debris Mitigation Guidelines of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space,” UNOOSA, 2010, (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Ibid.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ “Space Situational Awareness,” Space Foundation, <http://www.spacefoundation.org/programs/public-policy-and-government-affairs/introduction-space-activities/space-situational> (Accessed November 29, 2015).

data sharing between satellite owner-operators and sensor networks.¹²⁵ The U.S. military has the best set of SSA capabilities.¹²⁶ Although not ideal, the U.S. SSA maintains the most complete tracking database, but has very little coverage in the Southern Hemisphere or Asia, Africa, and South America.¹²⁷ The amount of data collected is unprecedented, however it is limited by “blind spots” in areas that do not retain SSA or have outdated hardware and software.¹²⁸

Conclusion

The use of outer space is essential to everyday life, thus it is important for all humanity to continue to use outer space for peaceful purposes and socioeconomic benefit over the long term. The dissemination of space technologies over the last decade has resulted in a sharp increase in outer space actors and fears about the long-term sustainable use of outer space. The aforementioned challenges convey that space is becoming increasingly congested from orbital debris, including man-made threats and additional concerns include the weaponization and militarization of outer space. Left unimpeded, such concerns could result in access to some space services being seriously degraded or even lost – creating a direct threat to international security.

Openness and increased discussion among Member States is necessary to achieve a general consensus on acceptable behavior in outer space, keep up with ever-changing technologies and thus threats, and to meet the growing needs of the international community in outer space. Maintaining outer space for peaceful ends calls for sustained dialogue at the national, regional, and international level. Achieving a peaceful and sustainable international approach to space will require an even firmer commitment to responsible behavior among today’s emerging space actors. Outer space activities continue to serve the needs of the military -- intelligence, civil, and commercial communities, each with their own requirements, creating the necessary international agreements for reaching and maintaining a condition of sustainability will not be easy. If the international community wishes to increase access to the benefits of current space applications, and develop new technologies that may offer further benefits, there is a need to preserve and protect the outer space environment for use by future generations.

Committee Directive

The term “peaceful” is used throughout numerous UN space documents, but is still without a clear definition. Delegates should consider questions such as the following: Should the term “peaceful” be further defined and has the delegate’s Member State made strives or steps into establishing a definition? While the term “peaceful” was referred to as “non-aggressive” or “non-military,” initially, it is central to the discussions about the militarization and weaponization. In a space setting, what exactly constitutes a weapon — something that possesses destructive capacity, directly or indirectly? At this current time, a piece of debris could be construed as a weapon because it can cause damages to a State’s satellite. What do increasing improvements in technological capabilities suggest about the trend of weaponization and militarization of outer space? Are there potential benefits or dangers to this weaponization? What roles should the United Nations and other intergovernmental organizations take in preventing weaponization in outer space? What are the implications for a situation such as that? The UN, in partnership with intergovernmental organizations should aim to execute such roles without infringing upon state sovereignty.

A critical question that ought to be answered about current regulatory frameworks such as the OST regarding weapons in outer space, involves enforcement mechanisms. Given a set of laws guiding activity in outer space, it becomes critical to find ways to ensure that there are ramifications for breaching such laws. An enforcement mechanism could ensure that states remain committed to the ideals that necessitated such laws. It is also necessary to make sure that Member States cannot sidestep specific measures covered by the laws created. Examine the current Space Law mechanisms and identify any shortcomings, if any. 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 also be explored.

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ Ibid.

¹²⁸ Ibid.

Will space actors be able to collaborate effectively to rein in the hazards posed by orbital debris and other forms of crowding? Considering this growing reliance and the vital contributions that our presence in outer space has made to society, there has been an increase in emerging space actors, namely developing States. How does one achieve a balance (equity) between the interests of those States already heavily invested in the space environment and emerging space States? There is also reason to highlight the urgent need to enhance capacity-building so that developing States could exploit available data.

The purpose addressing the aforementioned challenges is to ensure outer space is sustainable for long-term use. What are ways each Member State can contribute to this goal? SSA data collected is unprecedented, however, it is limited by “blind spots.” Is it feasible to consider sensors in areas that do not retain SSA or have outdated hardware and software? Could the SSA be expanded to bridge the gaps within the system or are there other ways to share data among space actors?

II. The Threat of Nuclear Stockpiles in Turbulent Regions

Introduction

In 1938, three physicists discovered they could split the uranium atom and when doing so, it would create a weapon capable of total destruction.¹²⁹ The United States of America (USA) created the first nuclear weapon in 1942 via the Manhattan Project.¹³⁰ The Manhattan Project was the code name for a top-secret project that resulted in the first atomic bomb in 1941.¹³¹ Germany started the search for atomic weapons, but the USA entered the atomic arena after joining World War II (WWII).^{132 133} Four years after the discovery of atomic weapons, nuclear bombs would be dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan that ultimately ended World War II.^{134 135} The bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan, killed approximately 210,000 and left “tens of thousands” others with radiation poisoning.¹³⁶ Japan surrendered on 15 August 1945 in the wake of the “new and most cruel bomb.”¹³⁸ After these catastrophic events, the United Nations (UN) would turn its focus on atomic energy.

The visage of the UN is to have a nuclear-weapons free global community along with total disarmament.¹³⁹ In 1946, the UN, in their first resolution A/RES/1, *Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy*, established the UN Atomic Energy Commission (UNAEC).¹⁴⁰ The purpose of UNAEC was to address issues that had surfaced given the rise of nuclear arms, and to provide suggestions for peaceful outcomes and uses.¹⁴¹ UNAEC began under government control, but USA President Harry Truman later signed the rights over to the UN in hopes of exercising international civilian control and giving the UN powers to oversee this peaceful use of the newly discovered atomic energy.¹⁴²

During the Cold War, Member States saw the rise of nuclear arsenals between two of the biggest power players, the USA and Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). Between 1945 and 1992, these two superpowers conducted 1,747 of the 2,000 nuclear tests performed.¹⁴³ During the 1950s, the Soviet Union tested nuclear weapons primarily in Semipalatinsk in the Soviet Republic of Kazakhstan.¹⁴⁴ After the dissolution of the Soviet Union-Belarus, Kazakhstan, and Ukraine became nuclear-free States by transferring their weapons to Russia.¹⁴⁵ Due to economic failures and corruption within the Soviet States, there are concerns among the international community regarding the secure and safety of not only nuclear weapons, but also weapons grade plutonium and uranium.¹⁴⁶ On 28 September 2015, it was estimated that the Permanent Five Members of the Security Council also noted as the P5 (China, France, Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the USA) held the majority of the nuclear

¹²⁹ The Manhattan Project, U.S. History. <http://www.ushistory.org/us/51f.asp> (Accessed November 12, 2015).

¹³⁰ *Nuclear Weapons Timeline*, International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons (ICAN). <http://www.icanw.org/the-facts/the-nuclear-age/> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹³¹ Ibid.

¹³² “Bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki,” History, <http://www.history.com/topics/world-war-ii/bombing-of-hiroshima-and-nagasaki> (Accessed November 13, 2015).

¹³³ Ibid.

¹³⁴ Ibid.

¹³⁵ “Bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki,” History, <http://www.history.com/topics/world-war-ii/bombing-of-hiroshima-and-nagasaki> (Accessed November 13, 2015).

¹³⁶ Ibid.

¹³⁷ “Catastrophic Harm,” International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons, <http://www.icanw.org/the-facts/catastrophic-harm/> (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹³⁸ Ibid.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ *Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy*, The United Nations. http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/1%28I%29 (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

¹⁴² “The Atomic Energy Commission,” US Department of Energy. <http://energy.gov/sites/prod/files/AEC%20History.pdf> (Accessed November 12, 2015).

¹⁴³ “Ending Nuclear Testing,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/events/againstnucleartestsday/history.shtml> (Accessed December 17, 2015).

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

weapons.¹⁴⁷ In total, there are nine Member States in possession of nuclear weapons: China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK), France, India, Israel, Pakistan, Russia, UK, and the USA, that are known to have approximately 15,700 nuclear weapons inventories.¹⁴⁸

Actions Taken in the United Nations

Over the years, the UN has been very clear in their hopes for a weapons-free international community. Member States have worked alongside one another to create peaceful solutions, treaties and resolutions to impede, decelerate and attempt to ban nuclear weapons since their creation.¹⁴⁹ The 1963 Partial Test Ban Treaty (PTBT) answered the radiation impacts on the environment, water and outer space due to increasing high-yield thermonuclear testing.¹⁵⁰ This treaty specifically prohibits testing underwater, in outer space and protects the atmosphere, it does not however, protect underground.¹⁵¹ Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT) was written in 1996 and prohibits any testing of nuclear weapons on land, in sea or sky.¹⁵² Democratic People's Republic of Korea, India and Pakistan have not signed and ratified in order for treaty to enter into force.¹⁵³

In 1970, the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) was signed.¹⁵⁴ It is a multilateral treaty that promotes total disarmament, prevention of further dispersion of nuclear weapons and advancement for peaceful uses of atomic energy.¹⁵⁵ The NPT is significant because 190 Member States have signed it, making it the only one of its kind to be so widely supported, including the P5, who still have nuclear weapons.^{156 157} As part of advancing peaceful uses of atomic energy, the NPT has precautions built into it. These precautions are overseen by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and include verification that in the field, nuclear technology is being used for advancement and not for weaponry.¹⁵⁸ Every five years there is a Review and Extension Conference of the Parties that meets and decides if the treaty should remain in effect.¹⁵⁹ On 11 May 1995, the committee decided that the NPT should remain in effect indefinitely, however, the Review and Extension Conference of the Parties still meets every five years to review, make recommendations, and update as needed.¹⁶⁰ In 2010, at the conference, 172 States parties agreed upon the previous actions of the NPT and the continuation of the agreed upon actions and included further implementation of the 1995 Resolution on the Middle East.¹⁶¹ In May 2015, the Extension Conference of the Parties could not conclusively finalize the substantive part of the final document despite "intensive consultations."¹⁶² The review failed because no consensus could be reached in creating a nuclear free weapons zone in the Middle East.¹⁶³

In 1999, the UN Disarmament Commission report A/54/42 called for voluntary negotiations among Member States within their own respective regions to initiate treaties for ratification to form nuclear-free zones and

¹⁴⁷ "Nuclear Weapon States," CNN. <http://www.cnn.com/interactive/2013/03/world/nuclear-weapon-states/> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁴⁸ "Status of World Nuclear Forces," Federation of American Scientists, <http://fas.org/issues/nuclear-weapons/status-world-nuclear-forces/> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁴⁹ "Global Issues: Disarmament," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/globalissues/disarmament/links.shtml>, (Accessed December 19, 2015).

¹⁵⁰ "Treaties," United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, http://disarmament.un.org/treaties/t/test_ban (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

¹⁵² *The Treaty*, CTBTO. <https://www.ctbto.org/the-treaty/> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁵³ Ibid.

¹⁵⁴ Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, UNODA. <http://disarmament.un.org/treaties/t/npt> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁵⁵ Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT), UNODA. <http://www.un.org/disarmament/WMD/Nuclear/NPT.shtml> (Accessed November 12, 2015).

¹⁵⁶ Ibid.

¹⁵⁷ Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons Text (NPT), UNODA. <http://disarmament.un.org/treaties/t/npt> (Accessed November 12 2015).

¹⁵⁸ Ibid.

¹⁵⁹ Ibid.

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

¹⁶¹ Ibid.

¹⁶² "2015 Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/conf/npt/2015/> (Accessed November 12, 2015).

¹⁶³ Ibid.

“guidelines on arms control/limitation and disarmament, with emphasis on peace.”¹⁶⁴ To date the following regional treaties exist: the 1959 Antarctic Treaty, provides for demilitarizing the area and bans nuclear testing; 1967 Treaty of Tlatelolco, which focuses on the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean; 1985 Treaty of Rarotonga, the South Pacific Nuclear Free Zone Treaty; 1995 Treaty of Bangkok, Southeast Asia treaty for nuclear-weapon-free zone; 1996 Treaty of Pelindaba, the African Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone Treaty and the 2006 Treaty of Semipalatinsk, Central Asia Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone Treaty that consists of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.¹⁶⁵

Confidence-building measures (CBMs) originated during the Cold War, as nuclear weapons were created, to provide protection from starting a nuclear war.¹⁶⁶ A vital aspect of CBMs is to build trust, this is important within regional, sub-regional and bilateral environments.¹⁶⁷ In July 2015, the UN Security Council began the process of negotiating lifting sanctions against Iran by addressing issues that would help rebuild this trust such as: transparency of Iran’s nuclear program and stockpiles of uranium.¹⁶⁸ Iran abiding by CBMs and providing transparency is one of the stipulations.¹⁶⁹

Current Situation

While there are peaceful uses for nuclear energy, achieving total global nuclear disarmament has been a long-standing goal of the UN. Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon has furthered this agenda of the UN and in September 2015 he remarked that “consequences of any further use of nuclear weapons... would be horrific” and clarified the sense of urgency by stating that “we must not delay—we must act now.”¹⁷⁰ This is a viable threat in some of the turbulent regions such as the Western and Eastern regions that still hold so many stockpiles.¹⁷¹ Some Member States have voluntarily given up their nuclear weapons, such as South Africa.¹⁷²

While nuclear tensions between the USA and Russia have eased, combined they do hold the largest stockpiles of nuclear weapons, nearly 90 percent.¹⁷³ Firing a nuclear weapon at either Member State would result in mutual assured destruction (MAD).¹⁷⁴ Nuclear weapons have been regarded as weapons of mass destruction (WMDs) due to the amount of damage that could be inflicted if detonated.¹⁷⁵ A single warhead not only has the potential to do cataclysmic damage instantaneously, but for decades after.¹⁷⁶ MAD is a military thought based solution, where it is believed that the State holding nuclear weapons would be safe from a nuclear retaliation from another State that also holds nuclear weapons, based on the premise of total annihilation of both States.¹⁷⁷ The USA and Russia have not

¹⁶⁴ “Nuclear-Weapon-Free-Zones,” UNODA. <http://www.un.org/disarmament/WMD/Nuclear/NWFZ.shtml> (Accessed November 12, 2015).

¹⁶⁵ “Global Issues: Disarmament,” The United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/globalissues/disarmament/links.shtml> (Accessed December 18, 2015).

¹⁶⁶ “Confidence Building,” United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs. <http://www.un.org/disarmament/convarms/infoCBM/> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ *U.S. Seeks Confidence-Building Measures with Iran*, United States of America Embassy. <http://iipdigital.usembassy.gov/st/english/article/2013/10/20131015284761.html#axzz3noAq1GBG> (Accessed October 6, 2015).

¹⁶⁹ Ibid.

¹⁷⁰ “International Day for the Total Elimination of Nuclear Weapons,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/events/nuclearweaponelimination/> (Accessed December 11, 2015).

¹⁷¹ “Understanding Nuclear Threats,” The Nuclear Threat Initiative, <http://www.nti.org/threats/nuclear/> (Accessed November 2015).

¹⁷² Ibid.

¹⁷³ *From Mutual Assured Destruction to Mutual Assured Stability*, Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC). <http://www.nrdc.org/nuclear/files/NRDC-ISKRAN-Nuclear-Security-Report-March2013.pdf> (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹⁷⁴ “Nuclear Weapons: Who Has What At a Glance,” Arms Control Association. <http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Nuclearweaponswhohaswhat> (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹⁷⁵ “Nuclear Weapons,” United Nations Office of Disarmament Affairs, <http://www.un.org/disarmament/WMD/Nuclear/> (Accessed December 13, 2015).

¹⁷⁶ Nuclear Arsenals, ICANW. <http://www.icanw.org/the-facts/nuclear-arsenals/> (Accessed November 13, 2015).

¹⁷⁷ “Mutually Assured Destruction Revisited,” Airpower Journal. <http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/airchronicles/apj/apj97/win97/parrin.html> (Accessed December 13, 2015).

shown willingness to completely disarm their nuclear stockpiles, instilling the MAD model is still in force.¹⁷⁸ While the Member State feels safe having the nuclear weapons to defend and protect against others with the same capabilities, it really does lessen the sense of security overall and increases tensions.¹⁷⁹ Security can be tested, specifically within regions that are prone to or currently engaged in conflict.

The Arms Control Association (ACA), founded in 1971 is a non-partisan organization dedicated to public education and supporting current arms control policies.¹⁸⁰ ACA released updated figures in October 2015, and it is estimated that the USA holds 7,100 nuclear warheads, Russia with 7,700, France with 300, China with 260, UK with 225, India and Pakistan 120 each, Israel with 80, and the DPRK with eight warheads.¹⁸¹ Of the nearly 16,000 nuclear weapons in play, approximately less than 6,000 are awaiting disarmament, leaving the other 10,000 in the hands of the military, and this is due to the 1991 United States-Soviet Union Strategic Arms Limitation and Reduction Treaty (START I) and the 1993 Strategic Arms Limitation and Reduction Treaty II (START II) to reduce weapons.^{182 183}

As technology and science have developed and advanced over the years, nuclear weapons within active turbulent regions have become of vital concern.¹⁸⁴ The IAEA closely monitors Iran, DPRK, and Syria and continues to work with those regions that wish to become nuclear free, or work towards disarmament.¹⁸⁵ The South-Asia region holds three nuclear weapon Member States: China, India and Pakistan.¹⁸⁶ It is estimated that China holds 60 long-range missiles with ranges between 4,300 to 9,300 miles.¹⁸⁷ In 2014, the U.S.-China Economic and Security Review Commission published its annual report and concluded that nuclear weaponry in China would see a significant growth over the next five years, due to the perceived threat and global turbulence.¹⁸⁸ While China has long stood firm on their “no-first use” stance -- meaning its nuclear weapons are merely for defense -- it has acceded the NPT as well as full cooperation and membership of the IAEA.¹⁸⁹

India and Pakistan

The USA Department of State holds a List of Federal Terrorist Organizations (FTO) and some violent militant groups are found in the South Asia region such as: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka.¹⁹⁰ This area is of concern because of vague and penetrable borders and officials.¹⁹¹ With corruption, uninhibited areas, organized militant groups have been able to take a hold, and cross into Member States through unsecured borders such as parts of Afghan and Kashmir.¹⁹²

India and Pakistan both have nuclear weapons that increase the chances of a regional nuclear war.¹⁹³ Sanctions against India were made when it performed a nuclear test.¹⁹⁴ On 28 May 1998, Pakistan tested a nuclear weapon in

¹⁷⁸ *From Mutual Assured Destruction to Mutual Assured Stability*, (NRDC). <http://www.nrdc.org/nuclear/files/NRDC-ISKRAN-Nuclear-Security-Report-March2013.pdf> (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹⁷⁹ Ibid.

¹⁸⁰ About, Arms Control Association (ACA). <http://www.armscontrol.org/about> Accessed (December 17, 2015).

¹⁸¹ “Nuclear Weapons: Who Has What At a Glance,” Arms Control Association. <http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Nuclearweaponswhohaswhat> (Accessed November 4, 2015).

¹⁸² Ibid.

¹⁸³ “Global Issues: Disarmament,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/en/globalissues/disarmament/links.shtml> Accessed December 18, 2015.

¹⁸⁴ “Nuclear Weapons,” United Nations of Disarmament Affairs, <http://www.un.org/disarmament/WMD/Nuclear/> (Accessed November 13, 2015).

¹⁸⁵ “Non-Proliferation,” IAEA. <https://www.iaea.org/> (Accessed December 19, 2015).

¹⁸⁶ “Southern Asia’s Nuclear Powers,” CFR. <http://www.cfr.org/asia-and-pacific/southern-asias-nuclear-powers/p36215> (Accessed November 12, 2015).

¹⁸⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid.

¹⁹⁰ South Asia 1540 Reporting, NTI. <http://www.nti.org/analysis/reports/south-asia-1540-reporting/> Accessed November 12, 2015.

¹⁹¹ Ibid.

¹⁹² Ibid.

¹⁹³ Understanding Nuclear Threats, NTI. <http://www.nti.org/threats/nuclear/> Accessed 4 November 2015.

¹⁹⁴ Looking Back: The 1998 Indian and Pakistani Nuclear Tests, Arms Control Association. http://www.armscontrol.org/act/2008_05/lookingback Accessed November 12, 2015.

reaction to India's nuclear test.¹⁹⁵ While Pakistan has accepted help from the USA to help improve security measures, the concern is the growing number of extreme Islamist militants, such as Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) within regions of Afghanistan, Pakistan and India.¹⁹⁶ The potential of buying or stealing these nuclear weapons is a practicable concern for the international community.¹⁹⁷ In May 2015, ISIS boasted that it was close to being in a position to bribe a Pakistani official to acquire a nuclear weapon.¹⁹⁸ While some experts feel that this is not a viable threat, the international community has kept a close watch.¹⁹⁹ In May, India's Minister of State further warned that ISIS was in position to obtain a nuclear weapon from Pakistan.²⁰⁰ The Minister of Defence for India fostered this concern, stating, "With the rise of ISIS in West Asia, one is afraid to an extent that perhaps they might get access to a nuclear arsenal from states like Pakistan."²⁰¹

Iran

In 2002, Iran began working on its first nuclear reactor for reasons cited as civilian related. The alarm with this is that the region is already turbulent. In 2006, S/RES/1696 imposed sanctions against Iran because the Security Council had growing concerns of the nuclear program in place and Iran's refusal to halt uranium enrichment, after not complying with the IAEA safety standards.²⁰² On 20 July 2015, the UN Security Council endorsed a deal that would lift sanctions currently in place against Iran.²⁰³ The P5+1 and Iran worked together to broker a deal that would allow financial gains for Iran if all conditions are met.²⁰⁴ Under these terms, sanctions will be lifted in return for curbing nuclear projects, but the UN will still have the power to "snap back" sanctions should Iran not continue to meet the terms of the agreement.²⁰⁵

Democratic People's Republic of Korea

Since the Korean War, the Korean Peninsula has been divided into a North (DPRK) and South (Republic of Korea) by a demilitarized zone.²⁰⁶ An embargo was placed on DPRK after attacking South Korea, and over the years was lifted to include the ability to receive help from the USA.²⁰⁷ Sanctions were tightened once again after a cyber-attack on U.S. based Sony Pictures Entertainment.²⁰⁸ In 2004, in what was called the "Six-Party Talks," North and South Korea, Japan, China, Russia and the USA had the common goal of ridding the Korean Peninsula of nuclear weapons -- all engaged Member States in the talks have had turbulent relationships with DPRK.²⁰⁹ Throughout the next several years, talks have been stagnant and often collapsed. In 2006, the Security Council passed S/RES/1718 in reaction to nuclear testing done in DPRK prohibiting the sale of luxury goods, large-scale arms and nuclear

¹⁹⁵ 28 May 1998 - Pakistan nuclear tests, Preparatory Commission for the comprehensive nuclear-test-ban-treaty organization (CTBTO). <https://www.ctbto.org/specials/testing-times/28-may-1998-pakistan-nuclear-tests> Accessed November 12, 2015.

¹⁹⁶ South Asia 1540 Reporting, NTI. <http://www.nti.org/analysis/reports/south-asia-1540-reporting/> Accessed November 12, 2015.

¹⁹⁷ *Loose Nukes*, Council on Foreign Relations (CFR). <http://www.cfr.org/weapons-of-mass-destruction/loose-nukes/p9549#p1> Accessed November 4, 2015.

¹⁹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰⁰ "Isis: India warns Islamic State can obtain nuclear weapons from Pakistan," International Business Times. <http://www.ibtimes.co.uk/isis-india-warns-islamic-state-can-obtain-nuclear-weapons-pakistan-1503755> November 12, 2015.

²⁰¹ *Ibid.*

²⁰² "Security Council Demands Iran Suspend Uranium Enrichment by 31 August, or Face Possible Economic, Diplomatic Sanctions," The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/press/en/2006/sc8792.doc.htm> (Accessed December 18, 2015).

²⁰³ "UN Security Council Endorses Iran Nuclear Deal," The Associated Press. http://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/un-iran-nuclear-deal_55acf590e4b065dfe89eab5d (Accessed October 30, 2015).

²⁰⁴ *Ibid.*

²⁰⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁰⁶ "U.S. Relations With North Korea," U.S. Department of State, <http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2792.htm>, (Accessed December 19, 2015).

²⁰⁷ *Ibid.*

²⁰⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁰⁹ "Country Profiles: North Korea," NTI, <http://www.nti.org/country-profiles/north-korea/> (November 12, 2015).

technology.²¹⁰ In 2012, DPRK agreed to freeze nuclear testing and uranium enrichment and cooperate with the IAEA in exchange for aid from the USA, notably food.²¹¹ This was seen as hopeful and meaningful step for DPRK; previously there were negotiations and DPRK would withdraw culminating in the test of nuclear weapons in 2006 and 2009.²¹² Following this agreement, in February 2013, DPRK again conducted a nuclear weapons test, which the Security Council posed additional sanctions in S/RES/2094.²¹³

Conclusion

From the beginning, the UN has resolved to make the international community and its environment safe from nuclear fallout. Unsecured borders and corrupted officials make securing all borders nearly impossible, and without these steps, nuclear weapons may never be safely stored. Calling for total disarmament, fostering of peaceful uses, and reliance of nuclear energy have been pressed as the reliable forms of arms control. While the USA and Russia have the largest arsenal of nuclear weapons, there are other turbulent areas within the international community that shelter nuclear stockpiles. The political and economic climate is currently fluid as sanctions against Iran being lifted in December 2015 and start of January 2016. Russia has already announced that they will resume nuclear trades with Iran. Tensions and discord in these turbulent regions, including in South Asian and East Asia, remain a hazard.

Committee Directive

It is the belief and expectation of the Fourth Committee that during this SRMUN conference, Member States will work together collaboratively to debate, consider and set in motion peaceful solutions to this important topic. There are many points to consider during debate, such as does applying sanctions against Member States really work to deter stockpiling of nuclear arms? How can transparency be achieved throughout the international community while some States are not yet equipped with modern technologies for accurate tracking? Are there incentives that can be supplied to speed up the disarmament efforts within Member States? Does the Member State have nuclear weapons and/or stockpiles and if so, what protective measures have been taken to safeguard them? What is the Member States relationship with other States of the region if they do hold nuclear weapons? Has the Member State signed the NPT? If not, what has hindered the Member State from signing and is that Member State actively seeking nuclear weapons? How can Member States participate in CBMs? How has trade progressed with Iran, since sanctions have been lifted? What further strategies could the NPT Review Conference prepare for their next review?

²¹⁰ “Security Council Condemns Nuclear Test by Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Unanimously Adoption Resolution 1718,” The United Nations, <http://www.un.org/press/en/2006/sc8853.doc.htm> (Accessed December 19, 2015).

²¹¹ “North Koreans Agree to Freeze Nuclear Work; U.S. to Give Aid,” The New York Times, http://www.nytimes.com/2012/03/01/world/asia/us-says-north-korea-agrees-to-curb-nuclear-work.html?_r=0 (Accessed November 12, 2015).

²¹² Ibid.

²¹³ “Resolution 2094 (2013) Adopted by the Security Council at its 6932nd meeting, on March 7, 2013,” The United Nations, http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/atf/cf/%7B65BF9B-6D27-4E9C-8CD3-CF6E4FF96FF9%7D/s_res_2094.pdf (Accessed December 19, 2015).

Technical Appendix Guide

I. Peaceful Uses of Outer Space for Sustainable Development

Williamson, R. (2011). Assuring the Sustainability of Space Activities. Secure World Foundation. Retrieved August 20, 2012, <http://swfound.org/media/51170/raywilliamson-iac-e.3.4.1.pdf>.

While brief, this paper gives a very technical, yet easily understandable overview of the fundamental issues concerning outer space sustainability. Besides an overview of many of the issues, it also reviews international regulatory regimes and many of the UN bodies that are relevant to ensuring the sustainable use of outer space. This document will be very helpful to delegates wishing to address these issues, as it will provide both a detailed overview and a list of further references to begin one's research.

The CD and PAROS: A Short History, The Conference on Disarmament and the Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space, <http://www.unidir.org/files/publications/pdfs/the-conference-on-disarmament-and-the-prevention-of-an-arms-race-in-outer-space-370.pdf>

Between December 2010 and July 2011, the UNIDIR organized a series of thematic discussions to examine the myths and realities of the CD — as well as the critical challenges facing it — with the aim to increase understanding of the history, processes and issue areas of this unique negotiating forum. This document will help delegates identify any shortcomings within the CD and PAROS.

Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures in Outer Space Activities, Office for Disarmament Affairs (2013), <http://www.un.org/disarmament/publications/studyseries/en/SS-34.pdf>

This report contains the study on outer space transparency and confidence building measures conducted by the Group of Governmental Experts on Transparency and Confidence-Building Measures in Outer Space Activities, which was established by the UN Secretary-General. The study was adopted by consensus. The Group concluded that the world's growing dependence on space-based systems and technologies and the information they provide requires collaborative efforts to address threats to the sustainability and security of outer space activities. Transparency and confidence-building measures can reduce, or even eliminate, misunderstandings, mistrust and miscalculations with regard to the activities and intentions of States in outer space.

Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies. United Nations General Assembly. (1967, October 10). <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/SpaceLaw/outerspt.html>.

This is the Outer Space Treaty adopted by the GA in 1967. It provides useful context on the way the UN believes Member States should behave in outer space. The document serves as a useful guide for delegates as it provides detailed statements about what the international community thus far deems acceptable behavior in outer space. It also serves as a major historical document that represented how several Member States over decades have believed activities should be conducted in outer space.

Status of International Agreement Relating to Activities in Outer Space. United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs. (2015, June 14). <http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/SpaceLaw/treatystatus/index.html>

This is a UN page that contains links to major UN treaties regarding activities in outer space. It contains links to the text of the Outer Space Treaty, the Rescue Agreement, the Liability Convention, the Registration Convention, and the Moon Agreement. It also contains additional links to other recent international agreements on outer space activities. This would be a useful repository where delegates can find major and recent treaties on relevant outer space activities.

II. The Threat of Nuclear Stockpiles in Turbulent Regions

Bahgat, Gawdat. "A Mideast Nuclear-Weapons-Free Zone: Pie in the Sky." *Middle East Policy*. 22(3) (2015): 27-35.

Takes a look at the five current nuclear free zones and explores what it took to bring those to fruition. Takes a look at the turbulence and relationships among the Middle East and steps necessary for a NFWZ in this area. This article explores the history of the turbulence of the region that will allow for the reader to have a deeper understanding when exploring possible steps to take in order to achieve a NFWZ. Finally, it reviews and explores the 2015 Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference and the opposing stances taken.

Berger, Andrea & Chalmers, Malcolm. "The Art of the Possible: The Future of the P5 Process On Nuclear Weapons." *Arms Control Today*. 44.8 (2014): 8-13

This article reviews the common grounds that brought the P5 together in 2007 to discuss confidence building measures (CBMs) and transparency with their nuclear weapons. This article explores the foundations that brought the five nuclear states together to begin talks, and the changes that have taken place over the last eight years. This article culminates right before the 2015 NPT review conference. It further explores the common framework that these nuclear-weapons states have explored and what limitations each of the States have stipulated to.

Noor, Sitara. "Nuclear confidence-building measures and peace making in South Asia." *Strategic Studies*. XXXII.2-3 (2012): 134-150

This article focuses on the intense bilateral relationship between India and Pakistan and the constant fear of nuclear Armageddon in the South Asia region. It explores the unsuccessful attempts at a reconciliation and achieving stability and peace within the region. The article further applies the conceptual framework of CBMs and applies them to the relationship between the two States. It focuses on how concentrating on CBMs within this region, could lower hostilities therefore, increasing regional peace of mind and security.

Sauer, Tom & Pretorius, Joeliën. "Nuclear Weapons and the Humanitarian Approach." *Global Change, Peace and Security*. 26(3) (2014): 233-250

This article explores the humanitarian approach to nuclear disarmament, as conventional methods have been sluggish. Taking a look at the humanitarian approach and the effects nuclear weapons can inflict upon the environment, atmosphere, and human life, the hope is that this will deter further spread of nuclear weapons and urge States to consider total disarmament. The article calls for a shift from the state-centered approach thought process to a global perspective approach. It focuses on a step-by-step principled approach that leads to total disarmament.

Stocker, James. "Accepting Regional Zero: Nuclear Weapon Free Zones, U.S. Nonproliferation Policy and Global Security, 1957–1968." *Journal of Cold War Studies* 17(2) (2015): 36-72.

This article gives an in depth history of the United Nations approach in detouring the spread of nuclear weapons since their creation. It elaborates on the impact of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) in developing regional Nuclear Free Weapon Zones (NFWZ). Further discussing regional approaches to their security and the importance proliferation of nuclear weapons will have against their security. It further examines the U.S. stance on NFWZ and the enactment of the NPT.