NMUN • NY

GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE

BACKGROUND GUIDE 2011

WRITTEN BY: Daniel Leyva, Roger H. Tseng, Aimee Ryan and Doug Arsenault

NMUN • NY

NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

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NATIONAL COLLEGIATE CONFERENCE association™

17 - 21 April 2011 - Sheraton
19 - 23 April 2011 - Marriott

CONTACT THE NMUN

Please consult the FAQ section of nmun.org for answers to your questions. If you do not find a satisfactory answer you may also contact the individuals below for personal assistance. They may answer your question(s) or refer you to the best source for an answer.

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NMUN•NY 2011 Important Dates

IMPORTANT NOTICE: To make hotel reservations, you must use the forms at nmun.org and include a $1,000 deposit. Discount rates are available until the room block is full or one month before the conference – whichever comes first. PLEASE BOOK EARLY!

SHERATON	MARRIOTT	DESCRIPTION
31 January 2011	31 January 2011	• Confirm Attendance & Delegate Count. (Count may be changed up to 1 March) • Make Transportation Arrangements - DON'T FORGET! (We recommend confirming hotel accommodations prior to booking flights.)
15 February 2011	15 February 2011	• Committee Updates Posted to www.nmun.org
1 March 2011	1 March 2011	• Hotel Registration with FULL PRE-PAYMENT Due to Hotel - Register Early! Group Rates on hotel rooms are available on a first come, first served basis until sold out. Group rates, if still available, may not be honored after that date. See hotel reservation form for date final payment is due. • Any Changes to Delegate Numbers Must be Confirmed to: outreach@nmun.org • Preferred deadline for submission of Chair / Rapp applications to Committee Chairs • All Conference Fees Due to NMUN for confirmed delegates. ($125 per delegate if paid by 1 March; $150 per delegate if receved after 1 March. Fee is not refundable after this deadline.
15 March 2011	15 March 2011	• Two Copies of Each Position Paper Due via E-mail (See Delegate Preparation Guide for instructions).
NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS		The 2011 National Model UN Conference • 17 - 21 April – Sheraton New York • 19 - 23 April – New York Marriott Marquis The 2012 National Model UN Conference • 1 - 5 April – Sheraton New York • 3 - 7 April – New York Marriott Marquis

POSITION PAPER INSTRUCTIONS

Two copies of each position paper should be sent via e-mail by 15 MARCH 2011

1. TO COMMITTEE STAFF

A file of the position paper (.doc or .pdf) for each assigned committee should be sent to the committee e-mail address listed below. Mail papers by 15 March to the e-mail address listed for your particular venue. These e-mail addresses will be active when background guides are available. Delegates should carbon copy (cc:) themselves as confirmation of receipt. Please put committee and assignment in the subject line (Example: GAPLEN_Greece).

2. TO DIRECTOR-GENERAL

- Each delegation should send one set of all position papers for each assignment to the e-mail designated for their venue: positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org or positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org. This set (held by each Director-General) will serve as a back-up copy in case individual committee directors cannot open attachments.
Note: This e-mail should only be used as a repository for position papers.

- The head delegate or faculty member sending this message should cc: him/herself as confirmation of receipt. (Free programs like Adobe Acrobat or WinZip may need to be used to compress files if they are not plain text.)

- Because of the potential volume of e-mail, only one e-mail from the Head Delegate or Faculty Advisor containing all attached position papers will be accepted.

Please put committee, assignment and delegation name in the subject line (Example: Cuba_U_of_ABC). If you have any questions, please contact the Director-General at dirgen@nmun.org.

nmun.org
for more information

COMMITTEE	EMAIL - SHERATON
General Assembly First Committee	ga1st.sheraton@nmun.org
General Assembly Second Committee	ga2nd.sheraton@nmun.org
General Assembly Third Committee	ga3rd.sheraton@nmun.org
Human Rights Council	hrc.sheraton@nmun.org
ECOSOC Plenary	ecosoc.sheraton@nmun.org
Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice	ccpcj.sheraton@nmun.org
Commission on the Status of Women	csw.sheraton@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific	escap.sheraton@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia	escwa.sheraton@nmun.org
United Nations Environment Programme	unep.sheraton@nmun.org
United Nations Population Fund	unfpa.sheraton@nmun.org
United Nations Children's Fund	unicef.sheraton@nmun.org
World Intellectual Property Organization	wipo.sheraton@nmun.org
African Development Bank	afdb.sheraton@nmun.org
Group of 20	g20.sheraton@nmun.org
Organization of American States	oas.sheraton@nmun.org
Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe	osce.sheraton@nmun.org
Security Council	sc.sheraton@nmun.org
Security Council 2	sc2.sheraton@nmun.org
International Court of Justice	icj.sheraton@nmun.org
Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference	npt.sheraton@nmun.org

COMMITTEE	EMAIL - MARRIOTT
General Assembly First Committee	ga1st.marriott@nmun.org
General Assembly Second Committee	ga2nd.marriott@nmun.org
General Assembly Third Committee	ga3rd.marriott@nmun.org
Human Rights Council	hrc.marriott@nmun.org
ECOSOC Plenary	ecosoc.marriott@nmun.org
Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice	ccpcj.marriott@nmun.org
Commission on the Status of Women	csw.marriott@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific	escap.marriott@nmun.org
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia	escwa.marriott@nmun.org
United Nations Environment Programme	unep.marriott@nmun.org
United Nations Population Fund	unfpa.marriott@nmun.org
United Nations Children's Fund	unicef.marriott@nmun.org
World Intellectual Property Organization	wipo.marriott@nmun.org
African Development Bank	afdb.marriott@nmun.org
Group of 20	g20.marriott@nmun.org
Organization of American States	oas.marriott@nmun.org
Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe	osce.marriott@nmun.org
Security Council	sc.marriott@nmun.org
Security Council 2	sc2.marriott@nmun.org
International Court of Justice	icj.marriott@nmun.org
Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference	npt.marriott@nmun.org

OTHER USEFUL CONTACTS

Entire Set of Delegation Position Papers	positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org
(send only to e-mail for your assigned venue)	positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org
Secretary-General	secgen@nmun.org
Director(s)-General	dirgen@nmun.org
NMUN Office	info@nmun.org

THE 2011 NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

SPONSORED BY THE NATIONAL COLLEGIATE CONFERENCE ASSOCIATION

New York City, 17-21 April (Sheraton) & 19-23 April (Marriott) • www.nmun.org

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Dear Delegates,

We are pleased to welcome you to the 2011 National Model United Nations (NMUN). The Directors for the General Assembly First Committee (GA 1st) are Roger Tseng (Marriott Venue) and Daniel Leyva (Sheraton Venue). Our Assistant Directors are Doug Arsenault (Marriott Venue) and Aimee Ryan (Sheraton Venue).

Roger Tseng is completing his Master's of Arts at the University of Ottawa Graduate School of Public and International Affairs, with a focus on Canadian foreign policy. He is currently a researcher in the Privy Council Office of the Government of Canada. This will be his third year and fifth conference as NMUN staff. Doug Arsenault graduated from Chapman University and has received recognition for his participation at numerous Model UN conferences, including NMUN. He currently serves as the Executive Director of the Orange County Young Democrats and is pursuing an educational administration position in the United Arab Emirates. Daniel Leyva graduated from the University of California, Los Angeles with a degree in political science. He currently works as a paralegal, and this is his fourth year on the NMUN volunteer staff. Aimee Ryan graduated from the University of Montana with a major in political science and a minor in philosophy. She was the co-Secretary General of the Montana Model United Nations, and she has also participated at NMUN for three consecutive years. Aimee served as Rapporteur for the GA First Committee and chaired the Security Council and General Assembly Plenary.

The topics for the General Assembly First Committee at the 2011 NMUN are:

1. Conventional Weapons Surplus Stockpiles
2. The Role of Science and Technology in the Context of International Security and Disarmament
3. Disarmament, Demobilization, and Demining: Prerequisites for Peace in Africa

This background guide is a means to further research, as opposed to the sole source of research. The topics presented continue to evolve each day, so keeping up to date with current events and the current work of the GA First Committee is imperative to quality research. Also, seeking information from outside sources, such as journals and academic publications, may offer different aspects on how to address any one of the topics presented.

The topics for the 2011 conference reflect just a few of the current debates going on in the GA First Committee. Shallow evaluation of each topic will not suffice. Each topic will require keen understanding of your country's positions, as well as knowledge of the topics at hand and their sophisticated value in the context of this committee.

Each delegation must submit a position paper. NMUN will accept position papers via e-mail by March 15, 2011 for both venues. Please refer to the guide from your Directors-General for NMUN's position paper requirement; adherence to these guidelines is critical.

The strength of each committee is contingent upon the delegates and their level of commitment and preparation. NMUN strives for excellence, and we are able to achieve this level of excellence because of the quality of delegates who attend this conference. All of us look forward to seeing you in the spring, and good luck with all of your work!

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Message from the Directors-General Regarding Position Papers for the 2011 NMUN Conference

At the 2011 NMUN New York Conference, each delegation submits one position paper for each committee it is assigned to. Delegates should be aware that their role in each committee impacts the way a position paper should be written. While most delegates will serve as representatives of Member States, some may also serve as observers, NGOs or judicial experts. To understand these fine differences, please refer to the Delegate Preparation Guide.

Position papers should provide a concise review of each delegation's policy regarding the topic areas under discussion and establish precise policies and recommendations in regard to the topics before the committee. International and regional conventions, treaties, declarations, resolutions, and programs of action of relevance to the policy of your State should be identified and addressed. Making recommendations for action by your committee should also be considered. Position papers also serve as a blueprint for individual delegates to remember their country's position throughout the course of the Conference. NGO position papers should be constructed in the same fashion as position papers of countries. Each topic should be addressed briefly in a succinct policy statement representing the relevant views of your assigned NGO. You should also include recommendations for action to be taken by your committee. It will be judged using the same criteria as all country position papers, and is held to the same standard of timeliness.

Please be forewarned, delegates must turn in material that is entirely original. ***The NMUN Conference will not tolerate the occurrence of plagiarism.*** In this regard, the NMUN Secretariat would like to take this opportunity to remind delegates that although United Nations documentation is considered within the public domain, the Conference does not allow the verbatim re-creation of these documents. This plagiarism policy also extends to the written work of the Secretariat contained within the Committee Background Guides. Violation of this policy will be immediately reported to faculty advisors and may result in dismissal from Conference participation. Delegates should report any incident of plagiarism to the Secretariat as soon as possible.

Delegation's position papers can be awarded as recognition of outstanding pre-Conference preparation. In order to be considered for a Position Paper Award, however, delegations must have met the formal requirements listed below. Please refer to the sample paper on the following page for a visual example of what your work should look like at its completion. The following format specifications are **required** for all papers:

- All papers must be typed and formatted according to the example in the Background Guides
- Length must **not** exceed two single spaced pages (one double sided paper, if printed)
- Font **must** be Times New Roman sized between 10 pt. and 12 pt.
- Margins must be set at 1 inch for whole paper
- Country/NGO name, School name and committee name clearly labeled on the first page; the use of national symbols is highly discouraged
- Agenda topics clearly labeled in separate sections

To be considered timely for awards, please read and follow these directions:

1**. A file of the position paper** (.doc or .pdf) **for each assigned committee** should be sent to the committee email address listed in the Background Guide. These e-mail addresses will be active after November 15, 2010. Delegates should carbon copy (cc:) themselves as confirmation of receipt.

2. Each delegation should also send **one set of all position papers** to the e-mail designated for their venue: positionpapers.sheraton@nmun.org or positionpapers.marriott@nmun.org. This set will serve as a back-up copy in case individual committee directors cannot open attachments. These copies will also be made available in Home Government during the week of the NMUN Conference.

Each of the above listed tasks needs to be completed no later than **March 15, 2010 (GMT-5) for delegations attending the NMUN conference at either the Sheraton or the Marriott venue**.

PLEASE TITLE EACH E-MAIL/DOCUMENT WITH THE NAME OF THE COMMITTEE, ASSIGNMENT AND DELEGATION NAME (Example: AU_Namibia_University of Caprivi)

A matrix of received papers will be posted online for delegations to check prior to the Conference. If you need to make other arrangements for submission, please contact Holger Baer, Director-General, Sheraton venue, or Brianna Johnston-Hanks, Director-General, Marriott venue at dirgen@nmun.org. There is an option for delegations to submit physical copies via regular mail if needed.

Once the formal requirements outlined above are met, Conference staff use the following criteria to evaluate Position Papers:

- Overall quality of writing, proper style, grammar, etc.
- Citation of relevant resolutions/documents
- General consistency with bloc/geopolitical constraints
- Consistency with the constraints of the United Nations
- Analysis of issues, rather than reiteration of the Committee Background Guide
- Outline of (official) policy aims within the committee's mandate

Each delegation can submit a copy of their position paper to the permanent mission of the country being represented, along with an explanation of the Conference. Those delegations representing NGOs do not have to send their position paper to their NGO headquarters, although it is encouraged. This will assist them in preparation for the mission briefing in New York.

Finally, please consider that over 2,000 papers will be handled and read by the Secretariat for the Conference. Your patience and cooperation in strictly adhering to the above guidelines will make this process more efficient and is greatly appreciated. Should you have any questions please feel free to contact the Conference staff, though as we do not operate out of a central office or location your consideration for time zone differences is appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Sheraton Venue
Holger Baer
Director-General
holger@nmun.org

Marriott Venue
Brianna Johnston-Hanks
Director-General
briannaj@nmun.org

Sample Position Paper

The following position paper is designed to be a sample of the standard format that an NMUN position paper should follow. While delegates are encouraged to use the front and back of a single page in order to fully address all topics before the committee, please remember that only a ***maximum*** of one double-sided page (or two pages total in an electronic file) will be accepted. Only the first double-sided page of any submissions (or two pages of an electronic file) will be considered for awards.

Delegation from
Canada

Represented by
(Name of College)

Position Paper for General Assembly Plenary

The topics before the General Assembly Plenary are: Breaking the link between Diamonds and Armed Conflict; the Promotion of Alternative Sources of Energy; and the Implementation of the 2001-2010 International Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa. Canada is dedicated to collaborative multilateral approaches to ensuring protection and promotion of human security and advancement of sustainable development.

I. Breaking the link between Diamonds and Armed Conflict

Canada endorses the Kimberly Process in promoting accountability, transparency, and effective governmental regulation of trade in rough diamonds. We believe the Kimberly Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is an essential international regulatory mechanism and encourage all Member States to contribute to market accountability by seeking membership, participation, and compliance with its mandate. Canada urges Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2007 Kimberley Process Communiqué to strengthen government oversight of rough diamond trading and manufacturing by developing domestic legal frameworks similar to the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative. We call upon participating States to act in accordance with the KPCS's comprehensive and credible systems of peer review to monitor the continued implementation of the Kimberley Process and ensure full transparency and self-examination of domestic diamond industries. We draw attention to our domestic programs for diamond regulation including Implementing the Export and Import of Rough Diamonds Act and urge Member States to consider these programs in developing the type of domestic regulatory frameworks called for in A/RES/55/56. Canada recognizes the crucial role of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the review of rough diamond control measures developed through the Kimberly Process and encourages States to include NGOs, such as Global Witness and Partnership Africa Canada, in the review processes called for in A/RES/58/290. We urge Member States to act in accordance with A/RES/60/182 to optimize the beneficial development impact of artisanal and alluvial diamond miners by establishing a coordinating mechanism for financial and technical assistance through the Working Group of the Kimberly Process of Artisanal Alluvial Producers. Canada calls upon States and NGOs to provide basic educational material regarding diamond valuation and market prices for artisanal diggers, as recommended by the Diamond Development Initiative. Canada will continue to adhere to the 2007 Brussels Declaration on Internal Controls of Participants and is dedicated to ensuring accountability, transparency, and effective regulation of the rough diamond trade through the utilization of voluntary peer review systems and the promotion of increased measures of internal control within all diamond producing States.

II. The Promotion of Alternative Sources of Energy

Canada is dedicated to integrating alternative energy sources into climate change frameworks by diversifying the energy market while improving competitiveness in a sustainable economy, as exemplified through our Turning Corners Report and Project Green climate strategies. We view the international commitment to the promotion of alternative sources of energy called for in the Kyoto Protocol and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Control (UNFCCC) as a catalyst to sustainable development and emission reduction. Canada fulfills its obligations to Article 4 of the UNFCCC by continuing to provide development assistance through the Climate Change Development Fund and calls upon Member States to commit substantial financial and technical investment toward the transfer of sustainable energy technologies and clean energy mechanisms to developing States. We emphasize the need for Member States to follow the recommendations of the 2005 Beijing International Renewable Energy Conference to strengthen domestic policy frameworks to promote clean energy technologies. Canada views

dissemination of technology information called for in the 2007 Group of Eight Growth and Responsibility in the World Economy Declaration as a vital step in energy diversification from conventional energy generation. We call upon Member States to integrate clean electricity from renewable sources into their domestic energy sector by employing investment campaigns similar to our $1.48 billion initiative ecoENERGY for Renewable Power. Canada encourages States to develop domestic policies of energy efficiency, utilizing regulatory and financing frameworks to accelerate the deployment of clean low-emitting technologies. We call upon Member States to provide knowledge-based advisory services for expanding access to energy in order to fulfill their commitments to Goal 1 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Canada urges States to address the concerns of the 2007 Human Development Report by promoting tax incentives, similar to the Capital Cost Allowances and Canadian Renewable and Conservation Expenses, to encourage private sector development of energy conservation and renewable energy projects. As a member of the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership, Canada is committed to accelerating the development of renewable energy projects, information sharing mechanisms, and energy efficient systems through the voluntary carbon offset system. We are dedicated to leading international efforts toward the development and sharing of best practices on clean energy technologies and highlight our release of the Renewable Energy Technologies Screen software for public and private stakeholders developing projects in energy efficiency, cogeneration, and renewable energy. Canada believes the integration of clean energy into State specific strategies called for in A/62/419/Add.9 will strengthen energy diversification, promote the use of cogeneration, and achieve a synergy between promoting alternative energy while allowing for competitiveness in a sustainable economy.

III. Implementation of the 2001-2010 International Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa

Canada views the full implementation of the treatment and prevention targets of the 2001-2010 International Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Especially in Africa, as essential to eradicating malaria and assisting African States to achieve Target 8 of Goal 6 of the MDGs by 2015. We recommend Member States cooperate with the World Health Organization to ensure transparency in the collection of statistical information for Indicators 21 and 22 of the MDGs. Canada reaffirms the targets of the Abuja Declaration Plan of Action stressing regional cooperation in the implementation, monitoring, and management of malaria prevention and treatment initiatives in Africa. To fully implement A/RES/61/228, Canada believes developed States must balance trade and intellectual property obligations with the humanitarian objective of the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health. We continue to implement Paragraph 6 of the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health into our compulsory licensing framework through the Jean Chrétien Pledge to Africa Act. We urge Member States to support compulsory licensing for essential generic medicines by including anti-malarial vaccines and initiating domestic provisions to permit export-only compulsory licenses to domestic pharmaceutical manufacturers, similar to Canada's Access to Medicines Regime. Canada calls upon Member States to establish advanced market commitments on the distribution of pneumococcal vaccines to developing States in cooperation with PATH and the Malaria Vaccine Initiative. We emphasize the need for greater membership in the Roll Back Malaria initiative to strengthen malaria control planning, funding, implementation, and evaluation by promoting increased investment in healthcare systems and greater incorporation of malaria control into all relevant multi-sector activities. Canada continues to implement the Canadian International Development Agency's (CIDA) New Agenda for Action on Health to reduce malaria infection rates among marginalized populations in Africa, increase routine immunizations rates, and reduce infection rates of other neglected infections. Canada will achieve the goal of doubling aid to Africa by 2008-2009 by providing assistance to the Global Fund to Fight Aids, Tuberculosis, and Malaria. We urge Member States to increase donations to intergovernmental organizations and NGOs that support malaria programming in Africa, exemplified by CIDA's contribution of $26 million to the Canadian Red Cross. We continue our efforts to provide accessible and affordable vector control methods to African States through the Red Cross' Malaria Bed Net Campaign and the African Medical Research Foundation Canada by supplying insecticide-treated mosquito nets and Participatory Malaria Prevention and Treatment tool kits.

Committee History for the General Assembly First Committee

Introduction

Upon the conclusion of the Second World War, the world was politically and physically in ruins.[1] The ineffectiveness of the League of Nations as a forum for political dialogue between the major military and economic powers of the world led to crippling division and unreasoned violence.[2] The conclusion of the war sparked the political and social forces to the populations of Africa, Asia, and South America to pursue self-determination.[3] Determined to neutralize the potential of such devastation from occurring again, the international community set out to shape a stable international structure built on mutual respect and common aspiration for peace with the capacity and authority to resolve conflicts between nations with words before arms.[4]
Bearing foundation from the Atlantic Charter by United States and United Kingdom of October 14, 1941, and the Tehran Conference of November 1943, as well the Dumbarton Oaks proposals and Yalta formula of February 1945, the Charter of the United Nations created the United Nations on October 24, 1945.[5] Rather than "a world parliament," the United Nations was established as the international forum for consultation and cooperation, with six principal organs distributing the extensive work of the organizations.[6] Foremost among these organs is the General Assembly, the only broad-based organ recognizing the sovereign equality of all Member States, regardless of military strength, financial power, population, geographic size or any single characteristic of superiority or inferiority.[7] Under Chapter Four—including Articles Ten through Seventeen of the Charter—the General Assembly is empowered to discuss any question pertaining to the duties of the United Nations as specified in Article One of the Charter.[8] The General Assembly may further make recommendations to the Security Council—either under the rare circumstance of request or due to an arising conflict situation of concern to the General Assembly under General Assembly resolution 54/54 V, the United for Peace Resolution—as well as controlling the United Nations budget.[9]

In order to confront the myriad of political, economic, and social issues in fulfillment of the purposes of the United Nations in its Charter and the closely linked Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the General Assembly is divided into six standing committees.[10] The First Committee assesses threats to global security and weapons of mass destruction, as well as the elimination of conventional arms, while the Second Committee is concerned with economic development and international trade, including reducing barriers to trade for developing nations to exercise full potential.[11] Working toward social wellbeing and absolute upholding of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, international covenants and Geneva Conventions, the Third Committee works closely with the Fourth Committee, which focuses on peacekeeping particularly oversight of high profile subsidiaries such as United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East.[12] The Fifth and Sixth Committees deal with budgetary and legal matters respectively, determining if new initiatives by the General Assembly are fiscally and legally viable.[13] Following discussion, each committee presents its recommendations to the plenary meeting of the General Assembly.[14]

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[1] Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.4.
[2] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.5.
[3] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.11.
[4] Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.7.
[5] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.5-6; Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.9-10.
[6] Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.145; Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.23.
[7] Franda, *The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century: Management and Reform Processes in a Troubled Organization*, 2006, p.64; Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.175.
[8] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.2.
[9] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.10.
[10] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.9.
[11] Franda, *The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century: Management and Reform Processes in a Troubled Organization*, 2006, p.65-66.
[12] Franda, *The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century: Management and Reform Processes in a Troubled Organization*, 2006, p.66-67.
[13] Franda, *The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century: Management and Reform Processes in a Troubled Organization*, 2006, p.67.
[14] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.10.

In the spirit of democracy and equal recognition, each Member State possesses one vote.[15] An indication of substantive areas of agreement, General Assembly topical debate culminates in resolutions, written lists consisting of perambulatory clauses detailing recognition of the topic and previous steps taken to counter the problem, followed by innovative strategies to counter the issue and its related grave consequences.[16] Resolutions are adopted by simple majority but predominantly by acclamation, whereby no Member State of the committee substantially objects to the document.[17] More than half of all resolutions were adopted by acclamation between 1975 and 1990 and two-thirds have been adopted in the same manner since.[18] Evident of the rise of non-Western dominance, the propensity of the General Assembly to seek consensus rather than majority rule demonstrates the United Nations' capacity to confront the dire issues, such as the sustainability of international peace and establishment of a proper standard of living for all world citizens, with singular focus.[19] While strictly binding only to internal organs and subsidiary actions of the United Nations, General Assembly decisions demonstrate political and moral authority, garnering public pressure and leading to norm-creation that influences domestic legislatures and initiates new treaties on the regional, sub-regional and global levels.[20]

The effectiveness of the United Nations as a consensus-building organ evolved over the history of the United Nations. At the dawn of the United Nations, the balance of power in the General Assembly centered on the East-West conflict in the Security Council between United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), as the world community looked to the great military and economic powers to determine voting blocs.[21] With the emergence of the Third World due to decolonization and the entrance of 109 Member States to the United Nations between 1955 and 1960, new blocs began to form, including the Non-Aligned Movement originating from the Bendung Conference in 1955.[22] Following the weakening of USSR-US tensions and rise of the new economic order, the world community faced a economic clash between North and South, industrialized and developing, leading to the formation of the Group of 77.[23] The fall of the USSR gave rise to the modern era of globalization and interconnectedness that has led to a more unified General Assembly, including expanded United Nations involvement in domestic and regional affairs.[24] The Millennium Declaration, passed in 2000, established eight primary goals for the United Nations, demonstrating instrumental progress toward recognition by all Member States that national boundaries and philosophical differences do not separate the needs of all peoples to a healthy and stable life.[25]

While the first session of the General Assembly on January 10, 1946, included only fifty-one Member States—largely the European and Latin American members of the League of Nations—the United Nations now includes 192 Member States, including diverse blocs dominated by Asian and African nations.[26] Regardless of regional or ideological ties, all Member States work toward a better future for the United Nations through co-operation in the General Assembly.[27]

General Assembly First Committee

Established to deal with the technological implications of the atomic bomb used against Japan and in development by every other major military power of the day, the General Assembly First Committee of 1946 focused on all political and security questions of the General Assembly's agenda.[28] Along with the then-unnumbered Special Political Committee, the First Committee provided the stage for the liveliest debates between superpowers during the Cold War, centering on armament stockpiling and territorial balance between Soviet communism and Western

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[15] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.10.
[16] Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.99.
[17] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.26.
[18] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.74.
[19] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.2-3.
[20] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.26; Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.5.
[21] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.13-14.
[22] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.11.
[23] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.13-14.
[24] Gareis & Varwick, *The United Nations: An Introduction*, 2005, p.15.
[25] Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate, *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.310-312.
[26] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.1.
[27] Weiss, Forsythe, & Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*, 2007, p.103-105.
[28] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.10.

capitalism.[29] With the transition of the Fourth Committee's focus to special political affairs with the culmination of its mission of decolonization affairs, the First Committee today concentrates on issues of disarmament and threats to international peace and security, pursuant of the clause one of Article One of the Charter.[30] The First Committee further works extensively with the Security Council and Conference on Disarmament, as well as overseeing the Office of Disarmament.[31]

The Sixty-Fourth Session of the General Assembly began on September 15, 2009, was scheduled to complete work on December 22, 2009, but continued work through September 13, 2010. During the session, the General Assembly First Committee passed forty-eight specific resolutions (A/RES/64/22-A/RES/64/70)—among them: transparency of military expenditures, combating the illicit trade in small arms and light weapons and prevention of an arms race in space.[32] The Sixty-Fifth Session opened on September 14, 2010 and, following general debate by the plenary session from September 23 to 30, 2010, the First Committee topical discussion began in early October, under the Chairpersonship of Mr. Miloš Koterec of Slovakia.[33] During the Sixty-Fifth session, the First Committee will address items 90-106 of the General Assembly agenda (A/65/50), including the risk of nuclear proliferation in the Middle East, developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security, and the relationship between disarmament and development.[34]

Though garnering some criticism for static discussion and ineffectuality, the General Assembly and in particular the First Committee remains to be the world forum for open discussion of the issues facing the safety and security of all world citizens.[35] The Sixty-Fifth Session faces the ten-year review of the Millennium Development Goals, as the United Nations looks toward the future and aims to shape a better world through consensus and cooperation toward peace.[36]

I. Conventional Weapons Surplus Stockpiles

"This is a global issue, and the entire international community needs to contribute to efforts to develop policies on the management of stockpiles and the disposal and destruction of surplus weapons."[37]

Defining and Understanding Conventional Weapons and Surplus Stockpiles

Although there is not one comprehensive definition of conventional weapons, there are several weapons that have been classified as conventional weapons by international treaties or conventions. The 1980 Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects and its amendments discusses the prohibition and the regulation of non-detectable fragments, which is "any weapon the primary effect of which is to injure by fragments which in the human body escape detection by X-ray", mines, anti-personal landmines, booby traps, incendiary weapons, and blinding laser weapons.[38] In addition, the United Nations (UN) Register for Conventional Arms includes the following: battle tanks, armored combat vehicles, large-caliber artillery systems, combat aircrafts, attack helicopters, warships, missiles and missile launchers, and small arms and light weapons (SALW).[39] Lastly, due to the fact that most of these weapons would be rendered useless without ammunition, ammunition must also be classified under

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[29] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.60.
[30] Peterson, *The UN General Assembly*, 2006, p.61.
[31] United Nations Office on Disarmament Affairs, *Disarmament in the General Assembly.*
[32] United Nations General Assembly, *Resolutions: 64th Session,* 2010.
[33] United Nations, *UN General Assembly - First Committee - Disarmament and International Security*, 2010.
[34] United Nations. General Assembly, *Annotated preliminary list of items to be included in the provisional agenda of the sixty-fifth regular session of the General Assembly (A/65/100)*, 2010, p.7-9.
[35] Annan. *We the Peoples: the Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century*. New York: United Nations, 2000, p.99.
[36] United Nations, *UN General Assembly - First Committee - Disarmament and International Security*, 2010.
[37] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 5.
[38] Schindler and Toman, *The Laws of Armed Conflict,* 1988, p. 185.
Parks, *Conventional Weapons and Weapons Reviews,* 2006, p. 76-84.
[39] United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Assessing the United Nations Register of Conventional Arms,* 2009, p. 1.

conventional weapons and taken into account when examining stockpiles. In other terms, conventional weapons are all those weapons and ammunitions that are not classified as nuclear, biological, or chemical.

Because conventional weaponry is a massive category, it may be useful to look at conventional weapons in two separate categories; those weapons that are "the weapons of choice for contemporary conflict", namely SALW and their ammunition, and those weapons "which are part of conventional arsenals which may help a State maintain a credible defense and perform effective peacekeeping tasks."[40] This separation is especially useful when looking at surplus stockpiles. It should be noted that, like conventional weapons, surplus stockpiles is not a term with one easily identifiable definition.

In this context, 'surplus stockpile', as described by the French and German initiated resolution A/RES/63/61 titled "Problems arising from the accumulation of conventional ammunition stockpiles in surplus", will refer to weapons or ammunition that are in excess of the security requirements of the State in ownership of the stockpile.[41] While governments may have a surplus stockpile of all conventional weapons, SALW and their ammunition are more readily manufactured, require relatively little maintenance, and are easier to use and traffic than other conventional weapons such as tanks, combat aircrafts, mines, et cetera, meaning they are often the bulk of surplus stockpiles.[42] Because SALW and their ammunition are more commonly a surplus, they deserve special attention and concern.[43]

It should be noted that there is a general consensus that when a state exceeds the amount of weapons needed to protect itself, its stockpiles are in surplus. There is however no concrete definition or number when a State is exceeding its security needs and has a surplus stockpile. Imperative to understanding surplus stockpiles is the reasons States have the stockpiles in the first place. While it is extremely difficult to obtain specific information regarding countries' stockpiles because of their reluctance to reveal information about their level of preparedness to sustain an armed conflict, there are several reasons why stockpiles are accumulated, the first being for national security and defense.[44] According to the United Nation Charter, Article 51, Member States have "the inherent right of individual or collective self-defense if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations."[45] Almost all states have weapons in stock in order to have the capability to defend themselves. Additionally, states use stockpiles as a potential source of cash; if the state were to come into economic hardships, the administration could choose to sell some or all of its stockpile in order to bring in funds to help stimulate the economy.[46] Whatever the reason may be for their stockpiles, states have a tendency to hold on to their weapons, which often results in a surplus because more weapons are being manufactured than are being used, traded, or disposed of.[47] Furthermore, surplus stockpiles can be seen as a naturally occurring phenomenon due to the changing of a state's security requirements, defense restructuring, and re-equipment programs.

A problem arises when the conventional weapons stockpile is not properly maintained or protected. Conventional weapons, like all weapons, need to be stored in specially designed facilities, requiring special resources and well-trained personnel.[48] If and when these facilities are neglected on any level, there is the possibility of damage to the weapons, the ammunition, and the facility. The damage can then lead to explosions, causing humanitarian disasters such as large-scale death and serious injury, environmental disasters such as pollution and toxic waste, as well as an increased likelihood of theft or illicit trading.[49] The problem is compounded when the stockpile is in surplus due to

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[40] United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs, *Assessing the United Nations Register of Conventional Arms,* 2009, p. 3.
[41] General Assembly First Committee*, Problems arising from the accumulation of conventional ammunition stockpiles in surplus (A/RES/63/61)*, 2009.
[42] GlobalSecurity.org, *Small Arms and Light Weapons*, 2010; North Atlantic Treaty Organization, *Small arms and light weapons and mine action*, 2010.
[43] Republic of Costa Rica Ministry of External Relations and Culture, *EU-LAC Expert Meeting: Management and security of public stockpiles of small arms and light weapons including ammunition,* 2007.
[44] Control Arms, *Ammunition: The Fuel of Conflict*, 2006, p. 4-6.
[45] United Nations, *Charter of the United Nations,* 1945, Article 51.
[46] Cuff, *Stockpiles and Defense Escalation, 1965-1968,* 1987, p.46.
[47] Bevan, *Introduction: Conventional Ammunition in Surplus,* 2008, p. 2.
[48] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p .6.
[49] Diaz, *Physical Security and Stockpile Management,* 2009;
Bevan, *Introduction: Conventional Ammunition in Surplus,* 2008, p. 1.

the fact that there is a greater chance for neglect and improper storage and stocktaking on the part of the governments, leading to an increased probability of disasters and theft.[50]

Security Risks Posed by Conventional Weapons Surplus Stockpiles

As stated by the *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons Report*, the proliferation and misuse of conventional weapons "contributes to human suffering and insecurity throughout much of the world, and in many areas small arms escalate, intensify and prolong conflicts and exacerbate banditry, crime and social violence. Many of the weapons of concern are lost from official stockpiles. Moreover, the existence of large quantities of 'surplus' small arms is a major factor in the excessive availability and flows of such weapons."[51] The circulation and trafficking of conventional weapons throughout the world is not only a major source of insecurity but also impedes socio-economic development.[52] Conventional weapons that are stockpiled become dangerous when the facilities they are housed are not properly maintained or secured, and, as stated above, the problem is compounded when the stockpile becomes a surplus stockpile because they are particularly prone to mismanagement, either in their storage or transfer.[53] Even the most professional and well-resourced armed forces are vulnerable to weapons losses, facility disasters, and the safety and security risks that are often the result of such vulnerabilities. Furthermore, inadequate or infrequent stocktaking means that many of the weapons losses go unnoticed for years.[54] This becomes both a national and international security threat because, as described in the *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons Report*, "rebel army groups and bandits typically obtain their arms and ammunition through seizures from police and army units or stores, as illustrated during the 1990s in conflicts in Liberia, Sierra Leone, Ethiopia, Congo Brazzaville, Assam, and the Transcaucasus."[55] The loss of weapons through theft "continues to add significantly to the spread and illicit trafficking of small arms and light weapons, and in some cases may contribute to the circumvention of United Nations arms embargoes."[56] That is to say, once the weapons are in the hands of criminal and terrorist groups, international peace and security, economic and social development, and the safety of civilians is severely threatened.[57]

One of the most famous examples of the security risks posed by a weapons surplus came with the end of the Cold War and the dissolution of the Soviet Union when enormous amounts of surplus weapons were released from their former controls and flooded the international markets.[58] Many of the weapons were either funneled to armed conflicts and banditry around the world including sub-Saharan Africa and the Balkans, or exported to poorer allies including Greece and Turkey.[59] In the later case, the receiving countries often rendered their own older weapons as surplus.[60] This newly created surplus then took the course that surpluses often do, and were either neglected or released into wider circulation, "some flowing into conflict areas such as the Balkans and Transcaucasus."[61]

While managing the weapons surplus is a major problem area for most countries, disposing of the surplus is equally as troublesome. Disposing of weapons and ammunition is an expensive process.[62] The process requires specially trained personnel equipped with special resources, and the process must be carried out in designated areas or facilities where the chemicals and materials won't harm surrounding communities and livestock.[63] Because this process is so costly, many countries choose either to keep the surplus in storage, which, as stated above, often goes unchecked and neglected, or to dispose of the weapons improperly, which again raises the probability of theft.[64]

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[50] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[51] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 6.
[52] Group of Government Experts on Small Arms, *Report of Group of Government Experts on Small Arms,* 1999, p. 8.
[53] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[54] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 6.
[55] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 6.
[56] Group of Government Experts on Small Arms, *Report of Group of Government Experts on Small Arms,* 1999, p. 18.
[57] United Nations General Assembly, *The illicit trade in small arms and light weapons in all its aspects*, 2007, p. 3.
[58] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[59] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[60] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[61] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[62] Republic of Costa Rica Ministry of External Relations and Culture, *EU-LAC Expert Meeting: Management and security of public stockpiles of small arms and light weapons including ammunition,* 2007, p. 10.
[63] International Action Network on Small Arms, *Stockpile Management and Surplus Disposal,* p. 2.
[64] Kopte, Renner, and Wilke, *The Cost of Disarmament,* 1996, p. 39-41.
Meek and Stott, *Destroying Surplus Weapons: An Assessment of Experience in South Africa and Lesotho,* 2003, p. 20.

Another option beside disposal that many countries choose is re-equipment programs. This means the surplus is given to various armed forces within the country, such as police or paramilitary forces.[65] While this may remove the surplus from the original stockpile, the problem is not solved due to the fact that the new holding facilities are often less secure and even more neglected than the original facilities.[66]

All these factors add to the fact that conventional weapons surplus stockpiles pose a serious security risk to the international community. However, there are solutions that could help curb the security threats posed by a surplus. The International Action Network on Small Arms proposes the following solutions: marking arms and ammunition in government stockpile in accordance with both the International Tracing Instrument (ITI) and the UN Firearms Protocol; keeping detailed records of weapon stockpiles to aid in surveillance, inspection, and audits of the weapons; training personnel to look after the stockpiles, which should be housed in proper warehouses, stored at the proper temperature, and located in areas with the least amount of impact on communities; ensuring legitimate arms transfers are overseen by trained personnel, that the weapons are packaged properly, and that a detailed log is kept in order to verify inspection at time of departure and arrival; accurate surplus identification, including an honest assessment of internal and external threat perception, policy and legislation that reflects said threat perception, and an accurate assessment of the size of military reserves and capability of maintaining and securing storage facilities; efficient disposal mechanisms, which include maintaining the weapons until the time of disposal, having trained specialists carrying out the disposal in accordance with specific destruction measures outlined in the November 15, 2000 *Report of the Secretary-General on Methods of destruction of small arms, light weapons, ammunition and explosives* (paragraph 19); and finally, ensuring that the facility be stocked with fire fighting capabilities, be staffed with personnel trained in fire fighting and first-aid in the case of explosions, and have an action plan in place if and when such emergencies to do occur.[67]

The Link between Conventional Weapons Surplus Stockpiles, Arms Transfers, and Conflict

As stated in the 2008 Security Council report on small arms, S/2008/258 while "a build-up of small arms alone may not create the conflicts in which they are used, their excessive accumulation and universal availability tends to aggravate conflicts by increasing the lethality and duration of violence and by increasing the sense of insecurity which leads to a greater demand for weapons."[68] While it is true that conventional weapons do not necessarily cause these conflicts, many if not all conflicts would be impossible without them.[69] The process begins first with the accumulation of the weapons surplus, which as described above, raises the probability of theft, banditry, corruption, or illicit trading. The weapons make their way from the stockpiles into the international and black market through trade, either legal or illicit, or through theft and smuggling by criminals, drug-traffickers, terrorists, mercenaries, or insurgent groups.[70] The illicit trade in weapons involves three main transfer systems as described by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development: the black market; secret government-to-government deals; and sponsorship of sub-state groups.[71] For example,

> *"Colombian guerrilla groups have used arms originally pumped into Central America under the auspices of the Reagan Doctrine, which have now become part of a vast black market in Nicaragua, El Salvador and Panama. Somalia's civil war was exacerbated by the millions of dollars worth of arms supplied to the previous regime by the United States and the former Soviet Union. And, it was estimated that during 1993, $2 billion worth of weapons were delivered to the former Yugoslavia in spite of the United Nations arms embargo."*[72]

As reported by the Group of Governmental Experts on Small Arms, "much of the supply and acquisition of arms in regions of conflict dealt with by the United Nations has been conducted by Government or by legal entities authorized by Governments."[73]

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[65] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[66] Greene, *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons,* 2000, p. 7.
[67] International Action Network on Small Arms, *Stockpile Management and Surplus Disposal,* p. 1-2.
[68] United Nations Security Council Report, *Small Arms,* 2008, S/2008/258, p. 2.
[69] United Nations Security Council Report, *Small Arms,* 2008, S/2008/258, p. 2.
[70] Group of Government Experts on Small Arms, *Report of Group of Government Experts on Small Arms,* 1999, p. 9.
[71] Louise, *The Social Impacts of Light Weapons Availability and Proliferation,* 1995, p. 8.
[72] Louise, *The Social Impacts of Light Weapons Availability and Proliferation,* 1995, p. 6.
[73] Group of Government Experts on Small Arms, *Report of Group of Government Experts on Small Arms,* 1999, p. 8.

Case Study: Albania

In the first half of 1997, Albania was in the grips of civil unrest, thought by many to have been caused by a collapse in pyramid scheme companies.[74] The result of this collapse was the loss of savings by hundreds of thousands of Albanians, with one estimate reported by the Center for Peace and Disarmament and Saferworld claiming that over one billion dollars had been invested in these pyramid schemes which were promising interest rates of up to 50 percent.[75] Soon, protesters took to the streets, followed by looters who were targeting military and police stations.[76] Eventually the turmoil settled, but not before an estimated "1,200 military depots were destroyed, with around 652,000 weapons of different calibers, 1.5 billion rounds of ammunition, 3.5 million hand grenades, 3,600 tons of explosive devices and one million mines looted from these depots."[77] In other terms, a total of 600,000 SALW were looted, leaving Albanian forces approximately 50,000 weapons.[78] Soon after the looting, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), various non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and Albanian authorities joined forces in a weapons collection effort, retrieving an estimated 222,918 by May 2005.[79] There is an estimated 326,857 of the looted weapons still at large either in Albania or abroad. [80]

In the years following the 1997 crisis, large-scale trafficking, or larger quantities than before the looting occurred, took place from and through Albania.[81] Researchers have concurred that due to this looting and anarchy, both the Kosovo Liberation Army and the Albanian liberation armies stationed in Macedonia were supplied with the looted weapons.[82] Additional weapons have been found in conflicts in the former Yugoslavia, as well as in Greece and Italy.[83] Furthermore, with more than 300,000 weapons still unaccounted for, experts argue that these weapons are flowing through criminal and illicit trafficking networks and fueling conflicts around the world.[84]
In addition to the 1997 looting and the consequential theft of stockpiles, Albania faced and continues to face problems with surplus stockpile management. According to the South Eastern Europe SALW Monitor report,

> *"Albania also faces problems with the storage and disposal of huge surpluses of ageing weapons and ammunition stocks, a high proportion of which pose a significant risk to public health. Although security, storage conditions and record-keeping at military depots has improved markedly in recent years, many depots are overstocked and most rely only on barbed wire, padlocks for wooden doors, barred windows and some exterior lighting as the main security measures against theft. Unfortunately, serious capacity gaps limit the ability of the Albanian Armed Forces to destroy the surplus items contained in depots within the near future."*[85]

Although the stockpile management programs and capacities in Albania are lacking, disposal of SALW has been going on since 2000.[86] Albanian destruction programs and capabilities have been made possible by donors such as the UNDP, North Atlantic Treaty Organization Maintenance and Supply Agency (NATO NAMSA), and the Governments of the US, UK, Norway, and Germany. Up until 2006 destruction capacities included an "ammunition destruction facility, 20 reverse-engineering capabilities, and the combined Explosive Ordnance Disposal capacities of the Albanian Armed Forces, the non-governmental organization National Demilitarization Centre, and a UK-based contractor Explosive Ordnance Demilitarization Solutions Limited."[87]

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[74] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 5.
[75] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 5.
[76] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 5.
[77] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 6.
[78] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 6.
[79] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 7.
[80] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 7.
[81] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 7.
[82] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 7.
[83] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 8.
[84] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, section 1.6.
[85] South Eastern Europe SALW Monitor, *Albania,* 2006, p. 14.
[86] CPDE and Saferworld, *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania*, 2005, p. 75.
[87] South Eastern Europe SALW Monitor, *Albania,* 2006, p. 18.

Despite the fact that Albania still has approximately 60,000 tons of SALW to dispose of, and the fact that coordination between government agencies necessary to adequately handle the surplus stockpiles and related issues is lacking, Albania has made several commitments to both regional and international organizations to combat and control its SALW problems.[88] Some of these commitments include: cross-border control initiatives; adhering to the Stability Pact Regional Implementation Plan and the UN Programme of Action on SALW; a voluntary declaration of alignment to the EU Code of Conduct on Arms Exports; and the exchange of information with various international and regional information exchange systems, such as the UN Programme of Action, OSCE and INTERPOL mechanisms.[89] In addition, Albania has reported information to the UN Register of Conventional Arms.[90]

According to the Bonn International Center for Conversion, in its attempt for NATO membership Albania has indeed followed through with several of its commitments to military and defense reform, modernization, and reduction.[91] Additionally, Albania expanded access to INTERPOL's global databases to a number of entry points across the country, proving once again its dedication to following through on its commitment of information sharing.[92]

Regulations, Commitments, and Other Efforts to Address Conventional Weapons Surplus Stockpiles

Despite the fact that conventional weapons surplus stockpiles pose serious threats to international peace and security, there are several institutions, agreements, conventions, and programs in place to aid the international community in its quest for peace through the reduction of surplus weapons. As stated above, the most famous is the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons (CCW), which seeks to restrict or ban certain conventional weapons that are inhumane or indiscriminate in nature. According to the United Nations Office at Geneva, the CCW currently has 112 parties and five signatories.[93] The Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) created Principles Governing Conventional Arms Transfers, which is an agreement made by the participating states on how they will transfer arms and when arms transfers should be avoided.[94] The European Union created a Code of Conduct for Arms Sales, Trades, and Exports; it was the first group of states to create such a code, which has been strengthened due to civil society pressures.[95] The Organization of American States (OAS) agreed to a Model Regulations for the Control of Brokers of Firearms, their Parts, Components and Ammunition, which applies a detailed set of transfer criteria based on international law to control arms brokering.[96] The Member States of OAS also signed the Inter- American Convention against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Ammunition, Explosives, and Other Related Materials.[97] Eleven countries from the Great Lakes Region and Horn of Africa created the Nairobi Protocol for the Prevention, Control, and Reduction of Small Arms and Light Weapons.[98]

Additionally, the UN has created the Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects, the UN Register for Conventional Arms, and the legally binding 2001 UN Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition.[99] The UN is also working on an Arms Trade Treaty at this time.[100]

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[88] South Eastern Europe SALW Monitor, *Albania,* 2006, p. 18 and 21.
[89] South Eastern Europe SALW Monitor, *Albania,* 2006, p. 21.
[90] South Eastern Europe SALW Monitor, *Albania,* 2006, p. 21.
[91] Pietz, *Brief 34: Defense Reform and Conversion in Albania, Macedonia, and Croatia*, 2006, p. 10.
[92] INTERPOL, *Albanian Prime Minister underlines commitment to INTERPOL and international police cooperation*, 2009.
[93] United Nations Office at Geneva, *Disarmament,* 2009.
[94] Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, *Principles Governing Conventional Arms Transfers*, 1993.
[95] European Union, *Code of Conduct on Arms Exports*, 1998.
[96] Organization of American States, *Model Regulations for the Control of Brokers of Firearms, their Parts, Components and Ammunition.*
[97] Organization of American States*, Inter- American Convention against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Ammunition, Explosives, and Other Related Materials,* 2008.
[98] *The Nairobi Protocol For The Prevention, Control And Reduction Of Small Arms And Light Weapons In The Great Lakes Region And The Horn Of Africa*, 2004.
[99] *Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects*, 2001;
UN Register for Conventional Arms, 1992;

What all these institutions have in common is their belief in the possibility of a more peaceful world through the eradication of conventional weapons surplus stockpiles and their associated threats and issues. The above-mentioned institutions have proposed a number of solutions, including: the need to take measures to ensure adequate safeguards to prevent loss of weapons from official or authorized stocks; destroy all confiscated, collected, expired, damaged, and otherwise useless arms; assist other States, at their request, in their efforts to carry out stock management or disposal; ammunition control; and increased transparency mechanisms, such as the UN Register for Conventional Arms.

Conclusion and Questions for Further Consideration

The United Nations has continually pledged to maintain international peace and security, and to make such a task more organized and effective. In order to fulfill this pledge, the issue of conventional weapons surplus stockpiles must be addressed. Conventional weapons surplus stockpiles, while not the cause of conflicts, add to the intensity, violence, and duration of conflicts around the world.[101] Former United Nations Secretary General Kofi Annan stated in his Millennium Report to the General Assembly that in terms of carnage, these weapons could be described as "weapons of mass destruction", with their death toll dwarfing that of other weapons systems.[102] The problem is only exacerbated when these weapons are stockpiled in surplus.

Some questions that should be considered when researching your state's position on conventional weapons surplus stockpiles are: Is my state an arms exporter or importer? If your state is an exporter of conventional weapons, to which states does it export to? Are your weapons traceable and do they have identification markings? If your state is an importer of conventional weapons, from which states does it import? How does this affect my state's view of the issue? What are the security needs of my state and does my state have more weapons than are necessary to meet these security needs? Has my state been affected by conflict, either directly or indirectly? Have surplus stockpiles affected this conflict? What laws and regulations does my state have in place to deal with licit and illicit arms trading? If your state has stockpiled weapons, what controls, management policies, technologies, and resources does it have in place to monitor and secure those stockpiles?

II. The Role of Science and Technology in the Context of International Security and Disarmament

"We've arranged a civilization in which most crucial elements profoundly depend on science and technology. We have also arranged things so that almost no one understands science and technology. This is a prescription for disaster. We might get away with it for a while, but sooner or later this combustible mixture of ignorance and power is going to blow up in our faces."[103]

Introduction

In the 20th Century advancements in technology were astounding. The idea of weapons so powerful that they could destroy an entire city (or even country) seemed unrealistic, but as witnessed with the Hiroshima and Nagasaki bombings in 1945, the world was able to see firsthand the advances in science and technology which created something never thought possible.

Now more than ever we are completely dependent upon technology to function in our everyday lives. "Modern societies are ever more reliant on computer systems linked to the internet, giving enemies more avenues of attack. If power stations, refineries, banks and air-traffic-control systems were brought down, people would lose their

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UN Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition, 2001.

[100] Global Issues, *A Cod of Conduct for Arms Sales*, 2008.

[101] Group of Government Experts on Small Arms, *Report of Group of Government Experts on Small Arms,* 1999, p. 9.

[102] Annan, *'We the Peoples': The Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century*, 2000, p. 52.

[103] Sagan, *Bringing Science Down to Earth: Carl Sagan Interview with Anne Kalosh,* 1994.

lives."[104] The impact of a digital attack on a state's infrastructure could be just as detrimental as an attack using a missile or bomb. The interruption of everyday functions, such as uncontrolled traffic at an intersection, or non-access to monies due to a cyber attack would put a state at great risk of a complete meltdown in a state's infrastructure.[105]

In spite of these and other concerns, there still exists technology available to help in the areas of security and disarmament. Modern technology can help monitor disarming nuclear weapons. This can be done by seismic technology used to monitor the implementation of treaties, for example.[106] Modern technology could also help with more efficient ways of tracing weapons and ammunition to their origins.[107] The General Assembly First Committee is at a crossroads, faced with the task of lessening the threat technology and science may pose to security, while also helping find ways to use these advancements to make our world more secure.

This guide will highlight current and emerging technologies in different aspects of international security and disarmament. Advancements, such as new verification technologies and weapons tracing, will be presented. Also, emerging threats that have not been completely analyzed, such as cyber security and nanotechnology, will be assessed in order to grasp an understanding of the technology itself, as well as to develop knowledge of the potential threats and opportunities these can or already do pose.

Positive Security Technology

Advancing technologies are used in everyday life from computers to more energy efficient cars, and in the realm of disarmament, technology makes it easier for the world alleviate weapons and develop systems to share information. Verification for nuclear disarmament, weapons tracing, and information sharing and storage are among the few that stand out and are readily available. Using adequate technology to curb the sale and illicit transfer of arms is essential to creating strong international resolve for addressing these issues.[108] On a larger scale, nuclear disarmament efforts would benefit from improvement of technologies to verify nuclear reduction and eventual disposal of nuclear weapons, and also from databases for storing and sharing information.

Verification

The 2010 Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) Review Conference highlighted the importance of nuclear disarmament in the international arena. The final document of the 2010 outcome document, in articles 36-47, declared that in order to promote disarmament with realistic expectations, technology sharing and empowering organizations like the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) with technical cooperation is essential to meeting the goals of ridding the world of nuclear weapons.[109] Most prominent in this role is verification technology.

Verification technology "refers to the process of collecting and analyzing information to determine compliance with treaty stipulations. Information is usually collected by experts who draw conclusions based on the evidence collected and pass it on to a higher political body for judgment."[110] Verification is important because it ensures states are complying with the standards of a treaty to disarm or reduce arms in their state.[111] This kind of verification can go two ways: off-site where monitoring it is done remotely, or with human inspection. What's more important when measuring compliance with protocols requiring disarmament of nuclear material is whether or not a state can be monitored remotely (with technology in their infrastructure) or if they will need verification via human inspection. Remote verification, which falls into the purview of this topic, means that the off-site location monitoring the breakdown of nuclear weapons relies on seismic technology that must be advanced continuously in

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[104] The Economist, *The Threat from the Internet: Cyber War,* 2010.
[105] Nerlich and Umbach, *European Energy Infrastructure Protection: Addressing the Cyberwarfare Threat,* 2009.
[106] Nuclear Files, *Verification of Nuclear Arms Control and Treaties,* 2010.
[107] International Action Network on Small Arms, *Racking Lethal Tools. Marking and Tracing Arms and Ammunition: A Central Piece of the Arms Control Puzzle,* 2004.
[108] International Action Network on Small Arms, *Tracking Lethal Tools. Marking and Tracing Arms and Ammunition: A Central Piece of the Arms Control Puzzle,* 2004.
[109] Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, *Final Document*, 2010, Sections 36-47.
[110] Verification of Nuclear Arms Control and Disarmament Treaties, *How Does Verification Work?,* 2010.
[111] Verification of Nuclear Arms Control and Disarmament Treaties, *How Does Verification Work?*, 2010.

order to ensure effective verification of whether or not Member States are in compliance with the protocols of a treaty.[112] It is also important to note that verification is not an aim in itself, but is rather an essential element in the process of achieving arms limitation and disarmament agreements.[113]

Weapons Tracing

Weapons tracing is a technology used to track weapons to their origin of manufacturing. Nicholas Marsh (Representative from Norway at the 2008 United Nations Disarmament Commission) concluded, "the adoption of the tracing instrument constituted a milestone in the fight against illegal small arms, but could only be effective if successfully implemented. In order to do that, Governments must obtain the necessary technology to create tamper-proof markings on firearms and develop adequate record-keeping systems to respond adequately to tracing requests" [114] Weapons tracing will be a vital instrument to combat the illicit sales and transport of SALW.[115] Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon also asserted, that "if national law enforcement officials were able to trace small arms back to their last legitimate owner, who might then be held accountable, this would constitute an effective measure against the illicit trade in small arms and the diverting of weapons to the illicit market."[116]

Regarding the use of technology to help combat the sale and transfer of small arms and light weapons (SALW), the use of trace marks, computerized records and online databases are important aspects to research and analyze.[117] However, previous technologies have been outdated because the traces were easily sidestepped and eventually obliterated, and thus useless because the tracing mark was gone.[118] Also, even as advanced as the technology may get, all forms of tracing, whether it is laser, chemical, or RFID, can be subject to tampering.[119] However, forging or obliterating a trace can become more difficult with the right kind of technology usage.[120] For example, altering a laser trace on a semi-automatic weapon requires a certain mechanism that is not readily available, making the trace more effective.[121] Another type of weapons technology is tracing via computer chip. Again, while this is not a new technology, it is being used in new ways. For example, American companies are utilizing this technology by placing computer chips in a "smart gun" which must be accompanied by an extra piece, such as a bracelet with a matching computer chip; the gun will only function when it is accompanied by the extra piece, making the weapon less easily transferable. Computer chip tracing, however, requires a different technology. According to a report by the International Action Network on Small Arms (IANSA), "the data of a firearm is stocked in the memory of a chip that is relatively smaller (less than one cm) than that of smart guns in which much more information must be stored. Thus, the serial number, the mark, the caliber, and even the personal data of the owner of a firearm can be read at any time using a suitable reader."[122] This means the chip is utilized in order to store data on a server, data that can be readily available when needed.

It is important to bear in mind that not all countries have the capabilities required to trace both weapons and ammunition. Hu Xiaodi, Ambassador from China, asserted, "that while addressing humanitarian concerns, due consideration should be given to the legitimate military and security needs of sovereign States, as well as economic and technological capacities of all countries."[123] The technical assistance required to trace weapons and ammunition to its origin is available, but it will require a collaborative effort to mainstream the tracing and technology in order for true resolve to be met. Disarmament and weapons tracing use existing technologies available, but need further dissemination for best results; however, there is other technology that continues to evolve and pose threats to international security.

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[112] Verification of Nuclear Arms Control and Disarmament Treaties, *How Does Verification Work?,* 2010.
[113] United Nations Disarmament Commission, *Principles of Verification,* 1988.
[114] United Nations Disarmament Commission, *DC/3123,* 2008.
[115] International Action Network on Small Arms, *Tracking Lethal Tools. Marking and Tracing Arms and Ammunition: A Central Piece of the Arms Control Puzzle,* 2004.
[116] United Nations General Assembly, *A/64/173,* 2009.
[117] International Action Network on Small Arms, *Tracking Lethal Tools. Marking and Tracing Arms and Ammunition: A Central Piece of the Arms Control Puzzle,* 2004.
[118] Birkhol, *Traceability of Small Arms and Light Weapons,* 2009.
[119] Birkhol, *Traceability of Small Arms and Light Weapons,* 2009.
[120] Birkhol, *Traceability of Small Arms and Light Weapons,* 2009.
[121] Birkhol, *Traceability of Small Arms and Light Weapons,* 2009.
[122] Birkhol, *Traceability of Small Arms and Light Weapons,* 2009.
[123] United Nations General Assembly First Committee, *GA/DIS/3303,* 2005.

Emerging Threats: Cyber Security, Nanotechnology and the Miniaturization of Warfare

Cyber technology is both a blessing and a curse at the same time. We are able to share information at rapid speeds, and a large portion of the developed world's infrastructure is dependent upon computers and the internet to function properly.[124] It is because of this that cyber security has become an important aspect of international security. To highlight this, in the realm of militaries and warfare, bombs and drones are reliant upon GPS satellites and computers; warships act as data processing centers, and all of this is done over an insecure internet that multiplies the avenues for an e-attack; this growing dependence increases the harm cyber warfare can cause tenfold.[125]

However, states implemented systems and operations to combat cyber attacks. In the United States, Cyber Command (CyberCom) was initiated in order to fend off such attacks, and defend American military networks with full spectrum operations.[126] Similarly, the United Kingdom developed an "Operations Centre" to perform the same functions in line with the U.S. Additionally, China, Israel, North Korea, and Russia all have policies in place to keep pace with this information technology.[127] At the upcoming North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) Summit in Lisbon, Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen is pushing for a collective effort to combat cyber attacks on NATO Alliance Members.[128]

International law is ambiguous in nature to addressing the threat of cyber security. The complex nature of cyber technology is what poses most of the problem, and international law is not up to date to address this. "International legal mechanisms and law enforcement authorities are hard-pressed to keep pace with the complexities of cyber-crime, and while some politicians today often do not even recognize that the threat is plausible, denying its existence altogether, others willingly choose to neglect it."[129] It is this kind of approach that opens up states to attacks from cyberspace.

Cyber Security Case Study – Estonia

In April 2007, sophisticated internet hackers came close to shutting down the digital infrastructure of Estonia. The attacks clogged web sites of the president, the prime minister, parliament and other government agencies, staggered Estonia's biggest bank, and overwhelmed the sites of several daily newspapers.[130] This was done by a band of sophisticated individuals who coordinated the effort strategically and with precision.[131] The exact sources of the attack are still unknown, but the sophistication, targets, and synchronization of the attacks was something never seen before.[132]

The attackers sent online robot networks, known as "botnets", into Estonia's Internet Protocol addresses from the outside.[133] Additionally, controlled Trojan horse software (viruses) transformed a network of compromised computers into these botnets, which clogged the web. Once these attacks were instigated, these botnets then divulged into Estonia itself.[134] Using this refined technology, the attackers accessed computers all around the world to act as "foot soldiers" during the attack by installing these bots to attack the networks inside Estonia.[135] This type of attack is known as a denial of service attack, which floods web sites with data and clogs a state's servers, routers, and switches.[136]

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[124] The Economist, *Warfare in the Fifth Domain,* 2010.
[125] The Economist, *Warfare in the Fifth Domain,* 2010.
[126] The Economist, *Warfare in the Fifth Domain,* 2010.
[127] The Economist, *Warfare in the Fifth Domain,* 2010.
[128] Rasmussen, *The New Strategic Concept,* 2010.
[129] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.125.
[130] Landler and Markoff, *Digital Fears Emerge After Data Siege in Estonia,* 2007.
[131] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.123.
[132] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.123.
[133] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.124.
[134] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.124.
[135] Landler and Markoff, *Digital Fears Emerge After Data Siege in Estonia,* 2007.
[136] Landler and Markoff, *Digital Fears Emerge After Data Siege in Estonia,* 2007.

Luckily, the attack itself didn't attack critical infrastructure such as energy, transportation, or access to natural resources. The attack rather targeted private infrastructure, such as banks, internet service providers, and media Web sites, and caused havoc within the state by disrupting activity involved in everyday life.[137] Had the attack been targeted at key infrastructure, entire supply and distribution chains would be disrupted, which would then prompt severe shortages and other negative spillover in the entire state.[138]

The attack revealed the innate weakness of the state authorities to protect their citizens against strikes of this nature.[139] Although the Estonian Computer Emergency Response Team (CERT) did help minimize the effects of the attack, the attack in general showed a major weakness in security.[140] However, since the targets were not critical infrastructure, it is difficult to gauge the damage that could have been done had power supplies, traffic signals, or water supplies been compromised in the attack. While no one is positive as to who was directly behind the attack, the Russian Government was blamed because one of the computers traced back to a personal computer within the Russian Government, but because the attackers could have simply accessed the computer and re-routed information into Estonia using that computer, it could not be said conclusively that it was the work of Russia.[141]

This was the first mass organized cyber attack on a state.[142] Now, the internet has become a low cost, risk free method to achieve immediate, large scale impact.[143] Even now, after seeing attacks across the world, it is apparent that the international community must address this type of warfare and discuss its implications. Would an attack via cyber warfare constitute an "armed attack" and thus mean military alliances are forced to retaliate?[144] According to NATO Secretary-General Rasmussen, the answer is yes; he first emphasized the need for collective action during a cyber attack; furthermore, Rasmussen believes "deployable capability" by the entire NATO Alliance is essential to combating cyber attacks, as they are just as dangerous as physical attacks on an Alliance Member.[145] Also, it is important to think whether or not legal standards within a state are in order to address not some, but attacks on many different levels, whether it's private or critical infrastructure. By this, it means are private entities just as protected as public ones, and are private entities entitled to enhanced security if they pay for it? Another important aspect to think about, for a state, is how to address the private sector in this situation. The private sector may not be enthusiastic about government intervention for internet security, but witnessing the attacks on Estonia in 2007, what should be the protocol for engagement once an attack happens? If a state's infrastructure is highly "wired" and dependent on the internet, how much money and manpower should be invested into keeping up to combat cyberwar? State sovereignty in the face of cyber attacks, especially attacks from non-state-based groups, is also an important issue. These are just a few of the many questions that can be addressed when looking at cyber security.

Nanotechnology and the Miniaturization of Warfare

Nanotechnology is the next revolutionary wave in modern technology.[146] Not since the development of the internet has a scientific advancement come with such influential force.[147] The reason this is so extraordinary is because nanotechnology structures matter at its most fundamental elements.[148] What this means is that manipulation can occur in materials or devices at the nanometer scale (one billionth of a meter), often at the level of individual atoms and molecules.[149]

Similar to cyber technology, nanotechnology comes with positive and negative effects. Nanotechnology could advance the areas of medicine and economic development, but just as easily nanotechnology could also be the new

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[137] Landler and Markoff, *Digital Fears Emerge After Data Siege in Estonia,* 2007.
[138] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.124.
[139] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.125.
[140] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.125.
[141] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.126.
[142] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.121.
[143] Evron, *Battling Botnets and Online Mobs,* 2008, p.125.
[144] The Economist, *The Threat from the Internet: Cyber War,* 2010.
[145] Rasmussen, *The New Strategic Concept,* 2010.
[146] NATO, *The Security Implications of Nanotechnology,* 2005.
[147] UNESCO, *The Ethics and Politics of Nanotechnology*, 2006, p. 3.
[148] NATO, *The Security Implications of Nanotechnology,* 2005.
[149] NATO, *The Security Implications of Nanotechnology,* 2005.

asbestos and create weapons that were once only once far reaching visions.[150] It is in the realm of weapons systems and non-peaceful uses that this section will focus on.

Military applications of nanotechnology are where the security risks begin. First, it is important to note that this takes a significant amount of monies to even begin research in the field. For example, in 2003, of the $774 million allocated budget for the United States, $464 million went toward the Department of Defense and the National Science Foundation – this is where nanotechnology developments get funded.[151] This shows an advantage for developed countries with a strong economic base for the most part, thus leaving other countries behind in the field, and creating an imbalance. Research in this type of nanotechnology development can lead to smaller, lighter, and advanced weapons systems used in combat.[152] According to a study on the military applications of nanotechnology:

> *"Very small but highly capable computers will be used in weapons, uniforms, logistics, and communication systems. Increasingly sophisticated and discriminating sensors may become very small, and cheap enough that they can be scattered in high numbers to saturate an area, ostensibly yielding "total awareness". Guns will shoot farther, projectiles and missiles with cheap guidance systems will become smaller and more accurate. Vehicles will become lighter and more agile, with more powerful engines and greater range."*[153]

For example, autonomous vehicles, used mostly for reconnaissance and communication and sometimes fighting, can be shrunk significantly for combat and easier to deploy into a warzone.[154] Furthermore, "sophisticated fighting robots, the successor to today's killer drones and prototype robot combat planes (UCAVs), will be enabled by advanced computers, smart materials, advanced energy and propulsion systems, and other nanotechnology-based refinements."[155] This makes warfare, if successful, much easier to engage into when the loss of human life is lessened significantly. Shrinking weapons systems in this manner leads the military aspect of nanotechnology to a miniaturization of warfare that creates easier fighting for combat.

Nanobiotechnology is striving enough to fathom small robotized artificial microbes which can target specific individuals or selected groups without warning.[156] Within this same nanobiotechnology aspect, a country with such development could also release small body implants into soldiers that will monitor health statuses and be able to inject proper medical care without another human present to release drugs or interface into the nerves of a fighter to keep them sustainable in combat.[157] New warfare agents via nanotechnology can become increasingly difficult to track and verify.[158]

The policy effects of nanotechnology and this advanced weapons systems technology creates a gray area for states in regards to regulation. Should a state mandate regulation in developing smarter weapons via nanotechnology? Should a country be advanced enough to deploy smaller weapons that require little to no manpower be subject to the same scrutinizing human combatants of war? Are these machines combatants of war? It will be the duty of each individual state to analyze these questions. The UN has asked for states to closely monitor their research and development in this aspect so that in the case of information being leaked or stolen, the technology founded will not end up in the hands of non-state actors acting in malice to perform acts of terrorism.[159] Similarly, if states are fretted by the threat of this information being acquired by the wrong people, what does this mean for transparency and information sharing (for positive uses) with other states to reap the benefit of nanotechnology? Weapons systems that are microscopic in nature, that can cause mass destruction and loss of life, in the wrong hands, is just as detrimental and threatening to international peace and security as a lost nuclear warhead from a nuclear arsenal, if not worse.

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[150] UNESCO, *The Ethics and Politics of Nanotechnology, 2006, p. 3.*
[151] National Nanotechnology Initiative, *Supplement to President's FY 2004 Budget,* 2003, p. 8.
[152] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 275.
[153] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 274.
[154] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 274.
[155] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 274.
[156] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 274.
[157] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 275.
[158] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 275.
[159] UNESCO, *The Ethics and Politics of Nanotechnology, 2006,* p. 21.

Conclusion

Science and technology can and will benefit everyone in the world. From medicine, to the environment, to better information sharing, the positive nature of technology is something to be looked forward to, but negative intent and ill practices pose a threat to international peace and security, while undermining the positive efforts made for disarmament and sustainable peace.

For disarmament and weapons tracing, should states be approaching this unilaterally to insure self interest, or will multi-lateral efforts from regional or international mechanisms benefit combating these threats? Also, states with advanced modern technology would no longer have to utilize human combatants to fight wars for them, so what should be done about existing treaties that could be sidestepped because combatants are non-human? Autonomous tanks or combat aircraft considered outside of the definitions of the Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe could undermine and endanger that treaty.[160] Technology such as this is in place to completely engage in warfare 4,000 miles away from the target by setting up a robot, or unmanned aircraft do the fighting from a computer.[161] Would public opinion be more open to warfare because the threat to human life is dissolved because machines handle the fighting? Exactly how much danger to existing international protocol are these kinds of weapons systems? Furthermore, states cannot fall behind in the cyber technology game. Criminals are just as knowledgeable, if not more knowledgeable and structured than states who are trying to compete against cyber crime.[162] Should states strengthen international protocol and legislation to be able to prosecute cyber-criminals? Also, if a cyber-criminal commits a cyber crime in country A, but it affects country B, where is the jurisdiction to prosecute the offender?

This guide is meant to serve as a catalyst to further research. It is not meant to be the sole source of information on these topics. Just like the technologies themselves, the information on this material will evolve quickly and rapidly. Delegates need to be as versed in the actual technologies presented, as well as keeping up to date with any developments in policy or research in the field.

III. Disarmament, Demobilization, and Demining: Prerequisites for Peace in Africa

"To make peace with an enemy one must work with that enemy,
and that enemy becomes one's partner."[163]

Introduction

The disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) process was born out of former Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali's peace-building framework.[164] In his *An Agenda for Peace*, Boutros-Ghali envisioned peace-building to be an activity that would take place immediately after a ceasefire.[165] The United Nations has adopted the DDR process in its most recent peacekeeping missions, as you will see in the two case studies below. Other peacekeeping missions in which the United Nations has relied on the DDR process in post-conflict reconstruction include those in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Burundi, and Sudan.[166] The United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) has taken on the responsibility of the planning and implementation of these DDR programs with equal input from other United Nations agencies.[167] The involvement of other agencies is a strategic consideration, in light of the fact that previous programs were not coordinated between peacekeeping operations, agencies, funds, and other programs.[168] The DPKO must also consider how to fit

[160] Altmann, *Military, Arms Control and Security Aspects of Nanotechnology,* 2006, p. 276.
[161] Singer, *Wired For War*, 2010.
[162] The Economist, *General Wesley Clark on Cyberwarfare,* 2010.
[163] Mandela, *Long Walk to Freedom: the Autobiography of Nelson Mandela*, 1995, p.612.
[164] Knight, *Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding in Africa: An Overview*, 2008, p.25.
[165] Knight, *Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding in Africa: An Overview*, 2008, p.26.
[166] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[167] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[168] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.

specific DDR programs within a broader peace-building process, and how political will influences the progress of DDR programs and the progress as a result of DDR programs.

While the use of landmines has decreased, as well as the number of victims per year, it continues to affect populations in over 70 Member States.[169] In Africa, Ethiopia successfully destroyed its stockpile of antipersonnel mines in April 2009, while Malawi and Swaziland have cleared all known mine areas within their territories by 2009 as well.[170] However, the rest of Africa remains behind in meeting its obligations under the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines (Mine Ban Treaty).[171]

The DDR process and mine action constitute two very important streams of disarmament in post-conflict environments in Africa. This background guide will describe the operation of the DDR process and the development of mine action within the United Nations, and then present two case studies depicting different routes that disarmament can follow.

The Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration Process

In order for the DDR process to materialize, several conditions should be met. First of all, all leaders involved in the post-conflict negotiations, as well as those responsible to them, must be prepared to implement the peace agreement, which would contain the DDR process.[172] All parties must also agree on the policy framework for the process and the person or organization in charge of overseeing the implementation of the DDR programs.[173] Lastly, there must be an international commitment to the peace process; that is, there must be a means to enforce political-economic conditions to support the DDR process.[174]

The aims of the DDR process are to provide a secure and stable environment for post-conflict recovery.[175] Upon a ceasefire agreement or a conclusion of the conflict, problems arise with former combatants who suddenly lose their source of income and support systems, and as such the DDR process seeks to assist in the transition of these individuals from combatants to peaceful, productive members of their societies.[176] The DDR process, as the name implies, consists of three phases. *Disarmament* is "the collection, control and disposal" of all arms, weapons, and ammunition involved in the conflict and the implementation of an arms management program.[177] The creation of an arms management program is important because collected weapons may often end up back in circulation in the black market.[178] *Demobilization* is the discharge of combatants from state and non-state armed groups.[179] Lastly, former combatants begin to assume a normal life under *reintegration*.[180] Former combatants may receive short-term material and financial assistance before entering the longer-term reintegration process at the local level.[181] It must be noted that the DDR process is a process, not an executable program in and of itself; the United Nations and its international and national partners must design the actual content of the country-specific program based on contextual sensitivity and funding.

Recent Developments of the DDR Process in Africa

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[169] Electronic Mine Information Network, *What is Mine Action?*. n.d.
[170] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.1-2.
[171] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.1224.
[172] Ball & van de Goor, *Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration: Mapping Issues, Dilemmas and Guiding Principles*, 2006, p.5.
[173] Ball & van de Goor, *Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration: Mapping Issues, Dilemmas and Guiding Principles*, 2006, p.5.
[174] Ball & van de Goor, *Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration: Mapping Issues, Dilemmas and Guiding Principles*, 2006, p.5.
[175] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[176] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[177] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[178] Peacebuilding Initiative, *Disarmament, Demobilization, Reinsertion, & Reintegratioin: DDR & Peacebuilding Processes*, 2007.
[179] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[180] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.
[181] United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre, *What is DDR?*, 2009.

As mentioned in the previous section, all of the United Nations' peacekeeping operations in Africa have included the DDR process as a means of maintaining peace and security in the region. The United Nations, as such, is the largest operator of single-country DDR programs in Africa.[182] The status of the United Nations as the largest operator of DDR programs in Africa stems from the organization's ability to fund, organize, and implement projects through its numerous agencies and funds.[183] However, despite its multifaceted abilities and reach, the United Nations has noted that DDR programs have much room for improvement.

At the Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR) and Stability in Africa Conference of 2005 in Freetown, Sierra Leone, participants noted in the conference report that international efforts at peace-building have produced mixed results, with around half of post-conflict countries resuming violence within five years, and that many national DDR programs were not designed and implemented with the specificities of political, socioeconomic, and conflict conditions in mind.[184] The Freetown Conference adopted several recommendations, which include the following:

- The DDR process should not be overwhelmed with post-conflict demands, political or otherwise;
- National ownership of DDR programs is crucial for its success;
- Regional perspectives must be considered in the planning and implementation of DDR programs;
- The collection of small arms and the control thereof at the local level is important upon the end of formal disarmament programs; and
- The network of African DDR practitioners should be strengthened to encourage and coordinate information and expertise sharing.[185]

Acting on the recommendation to improve the network of African DDR practitioners, the United Nations organized a second conference in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo.[186] Progress in the DDR process in Africa has been noted, especially within the context of United Nations operations.[187] The contemporary approach to the DDR process by the United Nations is individual-centered to address the specific needs of participants, adaptable and flexible to meet specific circumstances, and nationally owned whenever and wherever possible.[188] Furthermore, African practitioners were encouraged to employ the United Nations-developed IDDRS since it constitutes a collection of lessons and good practices based on the organization's experiences with the DDR process.[189]

The United Nations and Demining

The Mine Ban Treaty, signed in 1997 and coming into force in 1999, is currently the only international treaty governing antipersonnel mines. Under the Treaty, State Parties must stop the use, development, acquisition, and the assistance provided to other Member States of antipersonnel mines.[190] All State Parties must destroy all antipersonnel mines in their jurisdictions, no later than four years after the entry into force of the Treaty for stockpiled mines in possession and no later than ten years after for mines uncovered from mine fields.[191] States that are unable to fulfill either timeline have the ability to apply for an extension with the Review Conference, which is

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[182] Hanson, *Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR) in Africa*, 2007.
[183] Knight, *Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding in Africa: An Overview*, 2008, p.30.
[184] United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, *Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR) and Stability in Africa: Conference Report*, 2005, p.7.
[185] United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, *Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR) and Stability in Africa: Conference Report*, 2005, p.6-7.
[186] United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, *Final Report on the Second International Conference on Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration and Stability in Africa*, 2007, p.12.
[187] United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, *Final Report on the Second International Conference on Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration and Stability in Africa*, 2007, p.12.
[188] United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, *Final Report on the Second International Conference on Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration and Stability in Africa*, 2007, p.12-13.
[189] United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, *Final Report on the Second International Conference on Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration and Stability in Africa*, 2007, p.13.
[190] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.1225.
[191] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.1226.

convened by the United Nations Secretary-General.[192] Other important articles within the Treaty include Article VI, which facilitates the right of a State Party to receive assistance from others or from international organizations, and Article VII, which creates a mandate for the Secretary-General to receive reports from State Parties on the implementation status of the Treaty.[193]

For the United Nations, a comprehensive mine clearance policy is not simply the removal of mines and other explosives from the ground; it must also comprise of "[m]ine-risk education… medical assistance and rehabilitation services to victims… advocating for a world free from the threat of landmines… [and] helping countries destroy their stockpiles of mines as required."[194] To complement the Mine Ban Treaty, the United Nations Mine Action Service (UNMAS) adopted the International Mine Action Standards (IMAS) in 2003. The guiding principles of IMAS to fulfill these responsibilities include: national ownership, responsibility and management of its mine action program; a reflection of humanitarian principles so that the program can provide for those who are the most vulnerable; capacity building of individuals and institutions; and respect for the international treaties, including the Mine Ban Treaty.[195]

The United Nations continues to press the international community towards a complete cessation of the existence of antipersonnel mines. In its 64th session, mine action was a prominent topic in the discussions of the General Assembly. In a report submitted to the General Assembly, *Assistance in mine action: Report of the Secretary-General* (A/64/287), the Secretary-General welcomed the progress being made on the universalization of instruments such as the Mine Ban Treaty, noting that at the time of publication, three out of four of the most recent Member States to have completely destroyed their stockpiled mines were African Member States.[196] He further stressed the need to continue to support the United Nations' capacity to respond to emergency situations as a result of antipersonnel mines, to reflect in resolutions the importance of mine action in peacebuilding, and to ensure that there are enough resources available to national governments and international organizations in order to support mine action activities.[197] Following this report, the General Assembly adopted Resolution A/RES/64/84, *Assistance in mine action*, which calls upon capable Member States to assist other Member States in capacity building and to provide other means of assistance, Member States who have not established IMAS-compliant standards to do so, and the international community at large to cooperate and coordinate efforts in mine action.[198] Resolution A/RES/64/56, *Implementation of the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-personnel Mines and on Their Destruction*, emphasizes the need for Member States who are not party to the Treaty to implement it, asks all Member States, those who have acceded to the Treaty as well as those who have not, to provide the Secretary-General with the necessary information under Article VII of the Treaty to promote transparency, and promote socioeconomic recuperation and reintegration of mine victims.[199]

Case Study: Sierra Leone

The Sierra Leonean DDR program ran from 1999 to 2002 and the original target was to disarm and demobilize 45,000 combatants from the Armed Forces of Sierra Leone, the Revolutionary United Front of Sierra Leone (RUF/SL), the Civil Defense Forces, the Armed Forces Revolutionary Council (former soldiers of the Sierra Leonean Army), and other paramilitary groups.[200] Sierra Leone had been embroiled in a civil war between government forces and the RUF/SL and the two sides, under the auspices of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), came to a ceasefire agreement in 1999.[201] As a result of the ceasefire agreement, the United Nations Security Council adopted resolution S/RES/1270 in October 1999.[202] S/RES/1270 affirmed the

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[192] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.1271.
[193] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.1227-8.
[194] Electronic Mine Information Network, *What is Mine Action?*
[195] United Nations Mine Action Service, *Guide for the application of International Mine Action Standards (IMAS)*, 2003, p.2-4.
[196] United Nations General Assembly, *Assistance in mine action: Report of the Secretary-General (A/64/287)*, 2009.
[197] United Nations General Assembly, *Assistance in mine action: Report of the Secretary-General (A/64/287)*, 2009.
[198] United Nations General Assembly, *Assistance in mine action (A/RES/64/84)*, 2010.
[199] United Nations General Assembly, *Implementation of the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-personnel Mines and on Their Destruction (A/RES/64/56)*, 2010.
[200] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.25.
[201] United Nations Security Council, *Letter dated 12 July 1999 from the Chargé d'affaires ad interim of the Permanent Mission of Togo to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/1999/777)*, 1999.
[202] United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 1270 (1999) (S/RES/1270)*, 1999.

necessity to implement the DDR process towards former combatants and especially child soldiers through the Sierra Leonean National Committee for Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (NCDDR).[203] Furthermore, S/RES/1270 established the United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL) in order to assist the parties of the ceasefire agreement in implementing the provisions of said agreement and to assist the Government of Sierra Leone in the implementation of its DDR plan.[204] The explicit incorporation of the DDR process into the post-conflict peace arrangement has, despite setbacks, in fact made Sierra Leone a successful case of the DDR process.[205]

The preliminary stage of the DDR program were consultative in nature and was conducted in communities across the country between the Government of Sierra Leone, RUF/SL, and UNAMSIL.[206] This step was necessary as there was a high level of distrust between governmental officials and the RUF/SL as a result of the civil war.[207] Disarmament took place at reception centers located throughout the country in 2001; these reception centers were responsible for the assembly of former combatants, collection of these combatants' identities and the classification thereof; the collection of weapons; and the transportation of combatants to demobilization centers.[208] At the demobilization centers, former combatants received basic necessities, psychological counseling, and civic education.[209] Furthermore, they received an allowance to aid the settlement process.[210]

UNAMSIL and the NCDDR disarmed and demobilized a total of 72,490 combatants, well above the target of 45,000 combatants.[211] The international community attributed the success of the two agencies to the institutional framework that the NCDDR adopted and that the UNAMSIL supported. The plan that was designed by the NCDDR was flexible to accommodate the complex Sierra Leonean society and politics but not compromise the objectives of its DDR program.[212] Furthermore, instead of conducting the DDR program at a large scale across the country, it was conducted district by district, which allowed the agencies to concentrate on their efforts in completing the DDR process and to root out issues of distrust between the Government of Sierra Leone and the RUF/SL officials in sporadic parts of the country.[213]

Independent of the peace process, the Government of Sierra Leone ratified the Mine Ban Treaty in April 2001 and has complied with every provision of the document.[214] Even though limited numbers of mines were used during the civil war, the country has not officially manufactured any antipersonnel mines since the conclusion of the conflict in 2002 and has enacted national legislation to incorporate the treaty into domestic law.[215]

Case Study: Liberia

Liberia had been embroiled in conflict since December 1989, when the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL) under Charles Taylor invaded from Côte d'Ivoire to overthrow the United States-aligned government of Samuel Doe.[216] The United Nations intervened in 1993 and established the United Nations Observer Mission in Liberia (UNOMIL) to oversee the ceasefire agreement brokered by ECOWAS.[217] Charles Taylor's ambition to rule Liberia was further legitimized by the winning of the elections in 1997; while he spoke of an inclusive government in his inaugural speech, his tenure was marked by further rounds of political violence and opposition oppression.[218]

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[203] United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 1270 (1999) (S/RES/1270)*, 1999.
[204] United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 1270 (1999) (S/RES/1270)*, 1999.
[205] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.23.
[206] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.26.
[207] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.26.
[208] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.26-27.
[209] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.27.
[210] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.27.
[211] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.27.
[212] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.35.
[213] Coker, Ginifer, Malan, Meek, & Thusi, *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*, 2003, p.26.
[214] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.856.
[215] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.856.
[216] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.1.
[217] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.1.
[218] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.1.

Finally, in 2003 the Security Council, through resolution S/RES/1509, established the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) as a Chapter VII mission.[219] UNMIL was given numerous responsibilities, including the disarmament and demobilization of military forces under the DDRR process (DDR followed by repatriation).[220] The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), which was signed before S/RES/1509, also addressed the need for the DDRR process as a means for the Transitional Government of Liberia to secure peace and security.[221] S/RES/1509 is another example of how the United Nations is explicitly outlining the implementation of the DDR process in post-conflict management.[222]

Nationally, the DDRR program was administered by the National Commission for Disarmament, Demobilisation, Rehabilitation and Reintegration (NCDDRR), which included representatives from the Government of Liberia, ECOWAS, and the United Nations.[223] Unlike the DDR program of Sierra Leone, however, the DDRR program in Liberia was voluntary; combatants were "encouraged to voluntarily register and join the DDRR process at cantonment sites established by UNMIL."[224] Despite the voluntary status of the Liberian DDRR program, the overwhelming response from government combatants, as well as a lack of coordination between all parties involved, produced a substandard experience for the combatants at the first cantonment site running, Camp Scheffelin on the outskirts of Monrovia.[225] Camp Scheffelin was further plagued by a lack of adequate facilities and personnel. As a result, the NCDDRR suspended the DDRR program in the country until adequate resources and planning were acquired.[226] When the NCDRR resumed the DDRR program in 2004, it was available to combatants from other organizations and was accessible in more cantons.[227] Infrastructure problems and bad weather, which caused several sites to be inaccessible, continue to hinder the success of the Liberian DDRR program.

As a result of the aforementioned reasons, the Liberian DDRR program was deemed to be less than satisfactory in the eyes of the United Nations and the former combatants.[228] Nonetheless, it managed to disarm a large number of combatants. During the first phase at Camp Sheffelin, a total of 13,490 combatants from the Government of Liberia were disarmed, along with 8,679 weapons.[229] After suspension, the NCDDRR disarmed a further 51,970 combatants and 27,000 weapons; the last phase disarmed another 33,020 combatants, totaling 98,113 in Liberia.[230]

Liberia had similar experiences with Sierra Leone in terms of demining. Antipersonnel mines were used during the country's first civil war, but the government did not produce or stockpile any mines for the conflict or for training purposes.[231] After the conclusion of this civil war, the Government of Liberia implemented provisions of the Mine Ban Treaty within the national legislature.[232]

Conclusion

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[219] United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 1509 (2003) (S/RES/1509)*, 2003.
[220] United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 1509 (2003) (S/RES/1509)*, 2003.
[221] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.4.
[222] United Nations Security Council, *Resolution 1509 (2003) (S/RES/1509)*, 2003.
[223] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.7.
[224] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.7.
[225] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.7.
[226] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.8.
[227] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.8.
[228] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.7.
[229] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.7.
[230] Aboagye & Bah, *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians*, 2004, p.8.
[231] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.848.
[232] Landmine Monitor, *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*, 2009, p.848.

The execution of the DDR process in Sierra Leone and Liberia were similar nature. Both countries were targets of United Nations peacekeeping missions, each with a goal to assist and to implement the national DDR programs on a local basis. However, the similarities end here, as the Sierra Leonean program was hailed as a success and the Liberian program ran into numerous difficulties. As such, it is imperative that the DDR program takes place with integrated planning and implementation.[233] Furthermore, DDR programs should be designed to absorb excess capacity, meaning the ability to deal with additional former combatants. This is because for these combatants, the DDR process is a way to make money.[234] Primary sources have indicated that many former combatants have registered at numerous DDR centers, each time qualifying for all the benefits, specifically the reintegration benefit.[235] As a result, not only do national authorities, NGOs, and the United Nations need to communicate better, the DDR network across the host Member State must improve communication as well.[236]

The United Nations itself is also learning from its DDR experience. As a result of self-reflection, peacekeeping mandates with a responsibility to implement the DDR process have become more precise and broader in scope; one can compare between resolutions S/RES/1270 and S/RES/1509 to see this evolution.[237] Ownership of the DDR program must also be identified in a clearer manner.[238] Both the Sierra Leonean and Liberian DDR programs were instituted nationally but conducted by the United Nations; in this case, who should take responsibility for the successes and failures thereof? Lastly, throughout this background guide, the DDR process and demining were discussed as two separate streams of the broader disarmament process. The DDR process is concerned with the disarmament of former combatants, while demining and mine action seeks to disarm territories. As such, is there capacity within the DDR process to address issues in demining and mine action?

Annotated Bibliography

Committee History for the General Assembly First Committee

Annan, Kofi A. (2000) *We the Peoples: The Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century*. New York: United Nations Dept. of Public Information.

An in-depth analysis of the modern United Nations agenda and the need for adaptation to the changing geopolitical make-up of the world community, former Secretary-General analyzes where the issues facing the United Nations and its subsidiary bodies. The book excels in highlighting the needs of the world community in the post-Cold War age of cultural and economic globalization. Delegates should pay special attention to the section entitled "Freedom for Fear" which deals specifically with issues of disarmament and international security. The social and political interconnectedness of each section of study bears this volume a necessity to understanding where the United Nations is and where it should be going.

Franda, M.F. (2006). *The United Nations in the Twenty-First Century: Management and Reform Processes in a Troubled Organization*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman and Littlefield Publications.

A distinctly American approach to explanation of the purposes and organization of the United Nations, this book goes beyond its critical title to provide succinct descriptions of the United Nations General Assembly with good visual organization and quotations from United Nations insiders. The sections on the evolving role of the Secretary-General provide insight into the

[233] Malan & Meek, *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa: Report based on the workshop "Identifying lessons from DDR experiences in Africa,"* 2004, p.7.
[234] Malan & Meek, *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa: Report based on the workshop "Identifying lessons from DDR experiences in Africa,"* 2004, p.8.
[235] Malan & Meek, *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa: Report based on the workshop "Identifying lessons from DDR experiences in Africa,"* 2004, p.8.
[236] Malan & Meek, *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa: Report based on the workshop "Identifying lessons from DDR experiences in Africa,"* 2004, p.8.
[237] Malan & Meek, *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa: Report based on the workshop "Identifying lessons from DDR experiences in Africa,"* 2004, p.12.
[238] Malan & Meek, *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa: Report based on the workshop "Identifying lessons from DDR experiences in Africa,"* 2004, p.12.

leadership structure of the United Nations, coupled with short passages on the relationship of the General Assembly to the other major organs and subsidiary bodies of the UN structure.

Gareis, S. & Varwick, J. (2005). *The United Nations: An Introduction*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
Providing a concise overview of formation of the modern United Nations, this publication features a thematic introduction to the principal organs and their evolution as the UN enters the twenty-first century. Major sections include a concise history of the major periods of United Nations change, as well as a section on proactive institutional reform to strengthen the role of the General Assembly as the primary organ of topical discussion and open forum for all Member States. Critical to national representation, this source allows delegates to understand the historical and modern status of the General Assembly and is necessary to navigating committee debate and caucus building.

Kelsen, Hans. (1964). "Chapter 9: The General Assembly." *The Law of the United Nations. A Critical Analysis of Its Fundamental Problems*. Retrieved October 10, 2010, from http://books.google.com/books?id=BWPa0MB_AyQC
An extensive analysis of the United Nations structure and procedure, as well as role within international law, Kelsen's volume provides details on the elements that shape the United Nations sessions. Chapter 9 features the rules of procedure of the General Assembly, as well as a brief history of the development of the modern General Assembly system. Despite the intricate nature of the volume, the presentation of Chapter 9 is straightforward and sheds necessary light upon committee practices. A core source for any delegate, this book is necessary tool for proper representation and utilization of the rights owed to each national delegation to the United Nations.

Peterson, M. J. (2006). *The UN General Assembly*. New York: Routledge.
Focusing entirely on the duties and procedures of the General Assembly, this book provides critical information on manners of institutional formation and development; meeting procedure; and bloc organization. The historical sections provide a beneficial base of information on recurring topical discussions and bloc positioning, helping delegate to determine bloc approval of traditional strategies and their perceived implementation potential. General in nature, this text is free from overt bias and will provide a firm introduction for delegates on all matters of General Assembly history and modern practices.

United Nations (2010). *UN General Assembly - First Committee - Disarmament and International Security*. Retrieved October 10, 2010, from http://www.un.org/en/ga/first/index.shtml.
The primary source for the General Assembly First Committee, this United Nations page features access to current topics of discussion, committee leadership and press releases pertaining to the First Committee. Utilization of the "Documents" section connects delegates with First Committee resolutions and draft resolutions, while the "Press Release" section enables delegates to stay up-to-date on developments of discussion and specific delegation speeches. A starting point for First Committee delegates, the United Nations General Assembly First Committee is necessary to remain current on topical discussions and any ideological movement by their respective delegations or the committee as a whole.

United Nations (n.d.). *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly*. Retrieved October 10, 2010, from http://www.un.org/ga/about/background.shtml
A basic overview of the structure, function and duties of the United Nations General Assembly, this United Nations page provides links to formational information as the Charter of the United Nations and the current membership list. Providing access to the Millennium Declaration and the 2005 World Summit, it links the formative documents with the focal points of current debate. The top bar links to the Main Committees including the First Committee and description of its purpose and work. Links on the sidebar include the subsidiary organs and ad hoc committees, as well as the rules of procedure and list of current session leadership.

United Nations. General Assembly. 65th Session. (2010, June 15). *Annotated preliminary list of items to be included in the provisional agenda of the sixty-fifth regular session of the General Assembly*. Retrieved October 10, 2010, from http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/65/100

Divided by topical items, this document provides background information on previous United Nations action and resolutions pertaining to each item for discussion during the sixty-fifth session. First Committee topics begin on p. 147 with item 89, Reduction of Military Budgets, and progresses through p. 170 with item 106, Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction. Each annotation details at which session the item was first included, the numerical data of corresponding resolutions, action during the sixth-fourth session and any supplemental documentation. While far from a comprehensive look at each topic, the descriptions provide a basis for further research and a quick reference guide for discussion items and resolutions related to topics of discussion.

Weiss, Thomas G., David P. Forsythe, and Roger A. Coate. *The United Nations and Changing World Politics*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview, 2007.

Featuring an entire section on "International Peace and Security," this volume details the historical and ideological development of the United Nations from its origins to the modern era. Of particular note is the section of the Millennium Development Goals, which features an in-depth analysis of their creation and implementation during the first seven years of their existence. While discussion in the General Assembly First Committee will tend to focus on preventing destruction rather than garnering social development, the interconnectedness of the areas requires that delegates possess full knowledge of the Millennium Development Goals and United Nations movement toward achievement.

United Nations Office on Disarmament Affairs (n.d.). *Disarmament in the General Assembly*. Retrieved August 2, 2010, from http://www.un.org/disarmament/index.shtml

Acting as a starting point for delegates, the United Nations Office of Disarmament Affairs provides basic information on the First Committee and links to related United Nations bodies. The site also provides links to General Assembly resolutions, treaties and conventions pertaining to conventional and nuclear weapons. The Issues page provides topical links to documents in each disarmament category, as well as summaries of important treaties and conventions. The databases of "General Assembly Resolutions and Decisions" and "Status and Texts of Treaties" provide organized lists of action by the United Nations by session number. The Related Links page assists in looking at related work by other United Nations organs such as the UN Development Programme, UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, and regional bodies.

I. Conventional Weapons Surplus Stockpiles

Annan, Kofi. (2000). *'We the Peoples': The Role of the United Nations in the 21st Century*. Retrieved September 23, 2010 from http://www.un.org/millennium/sg/report/full.htm.

Commonly referred to as the Millennium Report, this document lays out a vision for the United Nations in the age of globalization. Kofi Annan, the UN Secretary General at the time, outlines an action plan to make globalization work for all people. In relation to the topic, the report discusses the possibility of "smarter" sanctions, stronger arms controls, and cautious arms proliferation. The report is especially useful for putting the topic of conventional weapons in perspective, and showing its relation to other topics of peace and security.

Bevan, J. (2008). *Introduction: Conventional Ammunition in Surplus*. Retrieved September 9, 2010 from http://www.smallarmssurvey.org/files/sas/publications/b_series_pdf/CAiS/CAiS%20introduction.pdf.

While mostly concerned with stockpiles of ammunition, this article is still extremely useful in understanding the nature of surpluses and the risks associated with them. The article discusses the risks specifically linked to surplus ammunition, as well as the general problem of surpluses, the origin of the surpluses, and the scope of the problem. There is also a table with surplus

stockpile estimates of several countries. Several solutions to the problem of surplus stockpiles are also given, making this a great article for delegates to read while doing either initial research or research for solutions.

Center for Peace and Disarmament Education (CPDE) and Saferworld. (2005). *Turning the Page: Small Arms and Light Weapons in Albania.* Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.smallarmssurvey.org/files/portal/spotlight/country/eu_pdf/europe-albania-2005.pdf.

This report goes into great detail about the political situation leading up to the 1997 crisis in Albania, in addition to an in depth analysis of its aftermath. Topics such as trafficking of stolen arms, the effects of the looting on organized crime, police reform, and the general impacts of small arms and light weapons on Albanians are discussed. Also included in the report are Albania's small arms and light weapons control capacities, weapons collection efforts and capacities, and future options.

Control Arms Campaign. (2006). *Ammunition: The Fuel of Conflict*. Retrieved August 2, 2010 from http://www.controlarms.org/en/documents%20and%20files/reports/english-reports/ammunition-the-fuel-of-conflict/view?searchterm=stockpile%20surplus

This article focuses on the manufacturing, stockpiling, trading, and use of ammunition. It has useful information on specific countries that have surplus stockpiles of ammunition, as well as who trades with whom, thus sketching a clear-as-possible-picture of the affect that stockpiles have on illicit trade and conflicts. The article also discusses national and multilateral efforts that are underway as well as further recommendations for curbing the surplus and illicit trading of ammunition. While the scope of the article is focused solely on ammunition, it covers a wide spectrum of the issues associated with surplus stockpiles.

Diaz, F. (2009). *Physical Security and Stockpile Management*. Retrieved September 9, 2010 from http://maic.jmu.edu/journal/14.2/s_r/diaz/diaz.htm.

This article addresses some of the risks associated with stockpile mismanagement. Diaz, is a Foreign Affairs Officer in the Office of Weapons Removal and Abatement in the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Political-Military Affairs (PM/WRA), and explains in the article that aging stockpiles of conventional weapons and increasingly unstable munitions from the Cold War or earlier pose a serious threat in many countries that no longer have a national-security need for them. While short, the article gives good information about stockpile management and solutions, as well as which countries and organizations are leading the effort to manage the stockpiles.

European Union. (1998). *Code of Conduct on Arms Exports*. Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://ec.europa.eu/external_relations/cfsp/sanctions/codeofconduct.pdf.

The Code of Conduct adopted by the EU in 1998 regulates the exports of all conventional weapons, and was strengthened in 2004. Delegates representing EU countries should familiarize themselves with this document in order to know what they and their allies are legally bound to. In addition, other delegates may want to review the document for ideas they could suggest to their region or allies.

Greene, O. (2000). *Stockpile Security and Reducing Surplus Weapons*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from http://www.international-alert.org/pdf/btb_brf3.pdf.

In collaboration with each other, International Alert, British American Security Information Council, and Saferworld wrote a report on what need to be covered in the United Nations Convention on Small Arms and Light Weapons in All its Aspects. The report calls for a Program of Action and the creation of international norms and regulation to combat the misuse and illicit trafficking of small arms and light weapons. In addition, the article describes many of the problems associated with surplus stockpiles, and offers solution to the surplus stockpiles and their subsequent risks, such as proper management of facilities and regular disposal of the weapons.

Kopte, S, Renner, M, and Wilke, P. (1996). The Cost of Disarmament: Dismantlement of Weapons and the Disposal of Military Surplus. Retrieved September 9, 2010 from http://cns.miis.edu/npr/pdfs/kopte32.pdf.

This article is packed with facts and data concerning the various aspects of weapon dismantlement and disposal. Both nuclear and conventional weapon dismantlement and disposal are discussed, with conventional weaponry information starting on page 39. This article will help delegates get a better understanding of the cost of weapon disposal, as well as which countries and regions are at the forefront of weapon disposal, and the environmental costs and restorations that go hand in hand with weapon disposal.

Louise, C. (1995). *The Social Impacts of Light Weapons Availability and Proliferation*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.unrisd.org/unrisd/website/document.nsf/0/50aa0457c9ef4d2c80256b67005b6718/$FILE/dp59.pdf.

Commissioned by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, Christopher Louise describes the effects that light weapons and small arms have on social development of societies around the world. It identifies the factors and circumstances that are fuelling the growing trade and widespread use of small arms and explores the social consequences of the increasing availability of such weapons. The paper discusses both military and non-military trends of weapons proliferation, as well as the social and political impacts of militarization.

Meek, S and Stott, N. (2003). *Destroying Surplus Weapons: An Assessment of Experience in South Africa and Lesotho*. Switzerland: United Nations Publications. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.unidir.org/pdf/ouvrages/pdf-1-92-9045-151-3-en.pdf.

This book is about the success stories of South Africa and Lesotho in terms of their weapons destruction efforts. It not only gives an evaluation of the weapons destruction efforts in South Africa and Lesotho, but also offers lessons learned from those experiences. The book provides a look into the future of surplus weapons destruction efforts as well.

Mines Advisory Group. (2009). Retrieved August 3, 2010 from www.maginternational.org.

This site contains excellent information about what countries are doing about conventional weapons management and disposal. The MAG was a co-laureate in the 1997 Nobel Peace Prize and works extensively throughout the globe to de-mine countries. The site has information about several countries that MAG has worked with and is working with in their management and disposal efforts. Delegates may find this site useful in learning about stockpile disposal.

Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe. (2000). *OSCE Document on Small Arms and Light Weapon*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.fas.org/asmp/campaigns/smallarms/osce-sa.pdf.

This document outlines the agreement by OSCE Member States about how and when they will transfer arms, as well the general aims and objectives of said agreement. In addition, the document provides a great amount of detail about common export criteria and control, and an analysis and suggestion to better the management and disposal of conventional weapons surplus stockpiles. This is an excellent source for understanding the complexities of weapons surplus and illicit trafficking of arms. The article also offers solutions and suggestions for conflict prevention, crisis management, and post-conflict rehabilitation.

Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe. (1993). *Principles Governing Conventional Arms Transfers*. Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://www.osce.org/documents/fsc/1993/11/460_en.pdf.

The principles laid out in this document are concerned with the acceptable and unacceptable practices of arms transfers; that is, what can and cannot be done during such transfers. This document will be extremely important for all delegates representing a European country. Additionally, all delegates should review the document to get an idea of the work that has been done on the topic of conventional arms transfers.

Organization of American States. (n.d.). *Catalogue of Member States Reports Presented in Compliance with General Assembly Resolutions on Hemispheric Security Issues*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.apps.oas.org/cshdocs/defaultENG.aspx.

This site contains various catalogues containing reports submitted by Member States of the OAS in compliance with OAS resolutions, agreements, and conventions. Included in this catalogue is the Inter-American Convention on Transparency and Conventional Weapons Acquisitions. There are in 32 entries from various OAS Member States in this particular catalogue. This will be an

excellent resource for delegates from any OAS Member State in order for them to track their countries participation and compliance with the convention and the topic in general.

Organization of American States. (2008). *Inter-American Convention against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Ammunition, Explosives, and Other Related Materials.* Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://www.oas.org/juridico/english/treaties/a-63.html.

This is another important document for all delegates representing a Member State of OAS. The convention was gathered in order to combat the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms, ammunition, explosives, and other related materials, as well as to promote the exchange of relative information and experiences. The convention covers a wide array of topics that are relevant to conventional weapons surplus stockpiles, making this document a good source for solution ideas and language.

Organization of American States. (1999). *Inter-American Convention on Transparency and Conventional Weapons Acquisition.* Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.oas.org/juridico/english/treaties/a-64.html.

This convention is a regional transparency mechanism that requires its states-parties to annually report on their weapons exports and imports, as well as make timely notifications of their weapons acquisitions, whether imported or produced domestically. Twenty countries, including the United States, have signed the convention and eight have ratified it. This is an excellent source for all delegates from a Member State of the OAS, but is also a good resource for all delegates to get ideas about solutions and current progress on the topic.

Organization of American States. (n.d.). *Model Regulations for the Control of Brokers of Firearms, their Parts, Components and Ammunition.* Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://www.oas.org/juridico/english/cicad_brokers.pdf.

This document is important for all delegates representing a country that is a member of OAS. The document reflects the Member States' conviction that illicit international trade in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition poses risk to the security and well-being of member states. The document addresses issues of national authority, regulations, licensing, prohibitions, offences, liability, the scope of authority, and the use of reports and inspections.

Parks, W. (2006). *Conventional Weapons and Weapons Reviews*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

This article gives an in depth account of the history of the international community's attempt to regulate the legality and methods of war. The main focus of this article is the development of the laws, conventions, and protocols the govern war as well as their review process. The article is an excellent source for understanding the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons (CCW). Also, it gives a detailed account of the different weapons that the CCW regulates and prohibits.

Relief Web. (2008). *Risks linked to surplus weapons stockpiles, illicit arms brokering examined as Biennial Meeting of States on small arms continues.* Retrieved August 3, 2010 from http://wwww.reliefweb.int/rw/rwb.nsf/db900SID/EGUA-7GLMXR?OpenDocument.

This article contains a large number of official statements from countries attending the Biennial Meeting of States to Consider Action Programme on Illicit Small Arms Trade. This would be a great place for delegates to research their countries position on surplus stockpiles and disarmament. Also, this site would be helpful in becoming familiar with the Programme of Action concerning SALW.

Republic of Costa Rica Ministry of External Relations and Culture. (2007). *EU-LAC Expert Meeting: Management and security of public stockpiles of small arms and light weapons including ammunition*. Retrieved September 23, 2010 from http://eeas.europa.eu/lac/events/salw/report_en.pdf

This report was the result of a meeting between government officials from Latin America and Caribbean States as well as member states of the European Union in which views on the effective and efficient management and security of national stockpiles of small arms and light weapons (SALW) and their ammunition were exchanged. Experts from various backgrounds and disciplines presented on topics such as the relevance of stockpile management and security, identification of surplus stockpiles, and the environmental ramifications of weapons disposal. The

report contains good facts and finding concerning conventional weapons surplus stockpiles and the related issues, and will be a good source for delegates to use in becoming familiar and well versed in the topic.

Schindler, D and Toman, J. (1988). *The Laws of Armed Conflict*. The Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff Publishers.
This book provides a wealth of information about conventions, resolutions, and other documents pertaining to the laws of armed conflicts. There is a section that pertains to the methods and means of warfare, where the reader can get a clear understanding of what weapons are prohibited, regulated, and accepted in times of war, and why. In this section there is a detailed account of the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons and related documents.

Security Council Report. (n.d.). *Small Arms UN Documents*. Retrieved September 9, 2010 from http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/site/c.glKWLeMTIsG/b.3955731/.
This Web site contains resolutions, presidential statements, reports, Council debates, letters, and General Assembly documents concerning small arms. The list is quite extensive, making it an excellent web site for delegates to visit to become familiar with the topic and to find specific country information for their position papers and negotiating strategies. Delegates should read the brief summaries of each document to better understand the scope of the documents, and to find the most pertinent ones for their research.

Small Arms Survey. Retrieved August 3, 2010 from www.smallarmssurvey.org.
Small Arms Survey serves as the principal international source of public information on all aspects of small arms. This site contains a wealth of information concerning ammunition, the demands for small arms, small arms brokering, practical disarmament, and country case studies. Delegates should spend some time on this site in order to better understand SALW and their far reaching impacts.

South Eastern SALW Monitor. (2006). *Albania*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.smallarmssurvey.org/files/portal/spotlight/country/eu_pdf/europe-albania-2006.pdf.
This article gives an overview of the 1997 political unrest in Albania that led to the looting of over 200,000 small arms and light weapons. The article discusses what happened to the weapons stolen and the efforts of Albania, the international community, and NGOs to retrieve the weapons. Also discussed are efforts Albania is and is not making to control the issues it faces related to small arms and light weapons.

United Nations General Assembly. (1999). *Report of the Group of Governmental Experts on Small Arms.* Retrieved August 18, 2010 from http://www.iansa.org/un/documents/GGE_small_arms99.pdf.
In response to General Assembly resolution 50/70 B of 12 December 1995, a panel of governmental experts on small arms was established in April 1996. Its task was to assist the Secretary-General in the preparation of a report on: (a) the types of small arms and light weapons actually being used in conflicts being dealt with by the United Nations; (b) the nature and causes of the excessive and destabilizing accumulation and transfer of small arms and light weapons, including their illicit production and trade; and (c) the ways and means to prevent and reduce the excessive accumulation and transfer of small arms and light weapons, in particular as they cause and exacerbate conflict. Each of those issues is addressed in the report, making it an excellent source for understanding the link between arms transfers and international conflicts, as well as ideas and suggestions for solutions to the security risks posed by conventional weapons surplus stockpiles. The report also provides a list of regional organizations also working on the issue.

United Nations General Assembly. (2009). *Resolution: Problems arising from the accumulation of conventional ammunition stockpiles in surplus (A/RES/63/61)*. Retrieved August 17, 2010 from http://www.un-casa.org/CASAUpload/ELibrary/A-RES-63-61.pdf.
Written by France and Germany at the 63rd Session of the General Assembly First Committee (GA1st), this Resolution treads very lightly on the subject of stockpiles in surplus. It requests the commitment of only those States interested in determining the size of their stockpiles and

encourages national and regional work on the issue. In order to become familiar with Topic I and the work the GA1st has done on it, all delegates should read this draft resolution.

United Nations General Assembly. (2008). *Risks Linked To Surplus Weapons Stockpiles, Illicit Arms Brokering, Examined as Biennial Meeting of States on Small Arms Continues*. Retrieved August 18, 2010 from http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs//2008/dc3121.doc.htm.

At their Biennial Meeting of States on Small Arms, the General Assembly discussed the implementation of the Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All its Aspects, and more specifically the risks associated with surplus weapons stockpiles and illicit arms brokering. This is an excellent source for delegates to get in touch with their country's opinion on the matter, and to understand how the issue has affected them. More than 40 countries spoke on the issue of weapons surplus stockpiling, and more than 30 spoke about illicit brokering.

United Nations Office at Geneva. (2001). *The Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons (CCW)*. Retrieved August 2, 2010 from http://untreaty.un.org/cod/avl/pdf/ha/cprccc/cprccc_e.pdf.

The Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons explains the use of certain conventional weapons that cause unjustifiable suffering or are indiscriminate in nature. Delegates should familiarize themselves with this Convention and its protocols in order to gain an understanding of what conventional weapons are, and how they are and are not to be used. Additionally, delegates will find this useful in terms of what work has been done on the issue of conventional weapons, and will find some clarity and to what work still needs to be done.

United Nations Office of Disarmament Affairs. (2009). *Assessing the United Nations Register of Conventional Arms.* Retrieved August 17, 2010 from http://www.un.org/disarmament/HomePage/ODAPublications/OccasionalPapers/PDF/OP16.pdf.

This document gives an excellent description of the United Nation's Register of Conventional Arms. It explains the relevance of the Register, the Registers role as a confidence-building mechanism, global participation in the Register, and the transparency achieved by the Register. The document also contains several tables regarding the participation of the international community in the Register. The tables are organized by global and regional participation.

United Nations Office of Disarmament Affairs. (n.d.). *United Nations Register on Conventional Arms*. Retrieved August 3, 2010 from http://www.un.org/disarmament/convarms/Register/HTML/RegisterIndex.shtml.

Based on the idea of predictability and transparency, this site aims to build confidence among the Member States of the UN in order to help prevent conflict. This site includes data provided by states on arms transfers as well as information on military holdings, procurement through national production, and relevant policies. According to the site, transparency in armaments can help to determine whether excessive or destabilizing accumulations of arms take place, may encourage restraint in the transfer or production of arms, and can contribute to preventive diplomacy. Since its inception in 1991, the UN Register has received reports from 173 states. This site will be helpful to delegates in learning about their country's conventional arms stockpiles and transparency policy.

United Nations. (2001). *Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects*. Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://www.nti.org/e_research/official_docs/inventory/pdfs/aptsarms.pdf.

The document sets forth what the United Nations intends to do to combat and eradicate the illicit trade in SALW. This document is essential for all delegates to read because of its relevance to the topic and the fact that many other relevant documents refer to it. Commonly known as the PoA, it is relevant for all UN Member States, and it should be noted that all Member States must report their progress of implementation to the UN.

United Nations. (2001). *Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition.* Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/treaties/CTOC/index.html.

This protocol, adopted in 2001, is a protocol to the UN Convention on Transnational Organized Crime, which was adopted in 2000. It is the first legally binding instrument on small arms that has been adopted at the global level. The protocol requires countries to adopt a series of crime-control measures and implement in their domestic law three sets of normative provisions. Because it is legally binding, this will be an important document for delegates to become familiar with.

United Nations Security Council. (2008). *Report: Small Arms* (S/2008/258). Retrieved September 10, 2010 from http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/site/c.glKWLeMTIsG/b.3955731/

This report is an excellent source for information on small arms and their impacts on conflicts and international security. The report was filed in response to the request of the Security Council to address the issue of small arms. All delegates should read through the report to gain a good understanding of how small arms, especially illicit small arms, are viewed by the United Nations.

Van der Graff, H. (1997). *Proliferation of Light Weapons in Africa*. New York: Springer.

This article describes the effects that light weapons have had in Africa. The author gives several helpful statistics about light arms and explains the difficulty in tracking arms transfers. The article also touches briefly on several African countries and their experience with light weapons. Multilateral initiatives are also discussed.

II. The Role of Science and Technology in the Context of International Security and Disarmament

Baird, D., Nordmann, A., & Schummer, J. (2004). *Discovering the Nanoscale*. Amsterdam: IOS Press. Retrieved October 1, 2010 from http://cnmt.kist.re.kr/data/newsletter/file/discovering%20the%20nano/altmann-gubrud.pdf

International legal guidelines dictate that some aspects of nanotechnology in their weapons ability could be in violation of international conventions. This document assesses the role of nanotechnology in both its military application and science role. It also takes a policy evaluation of how the United States is currently developing in the field of nanotechnology.

Birkhol, I. (2001). *Traceability of Small Arms and Light Weapons: Contribution to the United Nations Conference on the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects*. Retrieved September 7, 2010 from http://www.iansa.org/issues/documents/grip_un_contribution.pdf

In 2001, the United Nations had a chance to pave the way for better small arms weapons tracing. This paper analyzed the actions that could be taken at the time for better tracing techniques. Also, the paper discussed techniques (which have now been advanced) that were then used or in development and overviewed how they were working or could work.

Evron, G. (2008). Battling Botnets and Online Mobs: Estonia's Defense Efforts During the Internet War. *Georgetown Journal of International Affairs*. Winter/Spring 2008. Retrieved September 7, 2010 from http://www.bligoo.com/media/users/1/50369/files/Ataque%20Estonia.pdf

This paper briefly overviewed the actual cyber attacks in Estonia. However, the paper focuses primarily on how the state and its agencies responded to the attack. Also, because it was the first attack of its kind, it highlighted some inherent weaknesses the state faced due to the new threat it was facing, but still went over how some aspects of the attack were minimized by protocol they had in place, but could have been better.

Head, Tom (2006). *Conversations with Carl Sagan*. Oxford: The University Press of Mississippi.

Carl Sagan was a world-renowned physicist from the United States. His work on the cosmos and other scientific endeavors were ahead of its time. However, one of his most prominent roles was to bring science to the mainstream, and not be something simply understood by individuals with lab coats. He was also a critic of policies in the US not being conducive to scientific understanding and learning. The quote used highlights real world application. Most of the world relies on technology, but we don't fully grasp it. What will we do when something happens and we cannot control it? It is those kinds of fears that must be kept in mind when dealing with advancements in science and technology.

International Action Network on Small Arms. (2004). *Tracking Lethal Tools. Marking and Tracing Arms and Ammunition: A Central Piece of the Arms Control Puzzle*. Technical Paper of the International Action Network on Small Arms. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.iansa.org/documents/2005/marking_tracing_report_jan2005.pdf

This paper calls for comprehensive approach to minimizing the effects small arms and light weapons have to international security. It analyzes the UN Programme of Action on Trade in SALW and its strong points. The paper also notes that the working group which was created has a responsibility to have a solid approach that is not shallow to ensure accountability for illicit SALW trading.

International Peace Institute. (2009). *Small Arms and Light Weapons: Task Forces on Tracing Multilateral Security Capacity.* Technical Paper of the International Peace Institute. Retrieved September 6, 2010 from http://www.ipinst.org/media/pdf/publications/salw_epub.pdf

Combating SALW trading and use will take a multilateral effort. This paper stresses the importance of a multilateral approach to solving this problem. The already placed mechanisms in place to address this issue are strong, but not strong enough to solve the problem of SALW. They must be strengthened. One of the major aspects that differs from other approaches is that this paper stresses the need to directly incorporate the private sector (such as the gun manufacturers themselves) into this process, and try to develop strategies that work for all parties involved.

International Telecommunication Union Cybercrime Legislation Resources. (April, 2009). *Understanding Cybercrime: A Guide for Developing Countries*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.itu.int/ITU-D/cyb/cybersecurity/docs/itu-understanding-cybercrime-guide.pdf

Cybercrime is intricate. Although this document is 225 pages deep, it gives a more in depth look at how to understand cybercrime and all of its complexities. This document also notes the transnational nature of cybercrime and the legal issues that arise out of cybercrime. It is vital to have a solid base of at least the fundamentals of what cybercrime really is and how it is dangerous.

Landler, M. and J. Markoff. (2007). *Digital Fears Emerge After Data Siege in Estonia*. New York Times. Retrieved September 7, 2010 from http://www.nytimes.com/2007/05/29/technology/29estonia.html

After the cyber attacks in Estonia, the world took not of the true threat cyber technology posed to states. This American article noted the fear the public took in Estonia after the attacks. Estonians were new in full knowledge of the threat this attack could cause in the future.

National Science and Technology Council Subcommittee on Nanoscale Science, Engineering and Technology. (2004). *National Nanotechnology Initiative: Research and Development Supporting the Next Industrial Revolution.* Retrieved October 1, 2010 from http://www.nano.gov/nni04_budget_supplement.pdf

Funding of research for science and technology projects is essential to developing new technologies for both peaceful and military uses. This document was used to highlight the importance of funding in the realm of science and technology. The United States places a great emphasis on science and technology by putting a massive amount of monies into research and development of technologies via their defense spending and

North Atlantic Treaty Organization. *The Security Implications of Nanotechnology* (2005). Retrieved August 10, 2010 from: http://www.nato-pa.int/default.asp?shortcut=677

In 2005, NATO released a report on nanotechnology. The report was unique because at the time of publication, the threat of nanotechnology for weapons use was not completely understood, as the technology was still in its infancy. One key aspect is to take the "Hippocratic approach" when dealing with this technology and "do no harm" before doing anything else.

NPT Review Conference. (2010, May). *2010 Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons: Final Report.* Retrieved August 16, 2010 from http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=NPT/CONF.2010/50%20(VOL.I)

Articles 36-47 dealt directly with nuclear technology. Essentially, the document called for a strong cooperation from all states with the IAEA. Also, other regional actors were found to be paramount to non-

proliferation, but most importantly, in the realm of this topic, technical cooperation and sharing of information through technology would be vital to nuclear non-proliferation.

Nuclear Files. (2010). *Verification of Nuclear Arms Control and Treaties*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://nuclearfiles.org/menu/key-issues/nuclear-weapons/issues/arms-control-disarmament/verification/index.htm

Verification technology gathers and analyzes information. It is used to determine whether or not is abiding by protocol to disarm nuclear arms (or even SALW). This site gives an understandable way to look at verification technology and its importance for disarmament.

Rasmussen, Anders Fogh. *The New Strategic Concept.* Retrieved October 10, 2010 from www.gmfus.org/galleries/...news.../08102010GMFas_delivered.doc

In November 2010, the NATO Alliance will meet in Lisbon, Portugal for a NATO Summit. Secretary-General Rasmussen put at the forefront the need for a collective effort to combat cyber crimes. He outlined the new threats emerging, and that cyber crimes are one of them. He hinted that any cyber attack on a NATO Allie will be met with collective efforts from the entire Alliance.

SaferWorld. (2009, July). *The Arms Trade Treaty and Military Equipment.* Technical Paper of SaferWorld Institute. Retrieved September 4, 2010 from http://www.ssrnetwork.net/uploaded_files/4983.pdf

This work discusses the probability of a comprehensive Arms Trade Treaty. Most notably in this work is that the author believes that ammunition and its components need to be a part of the treaty or else it will be shallow. Also, to go along with other technologies, the paper recommends a treaty with any importance will discuss developing weapons technologies.

Singer, P.W. (2009). *Wired for War: The Robotics Revolution and Conflict in the 21st Century.* New York: The Penguin Press

Some of the advancements in technology have produced realities of war that we once only saw in science fiction novels. A "robotics revolution" in military robotics is the next trend of war. This "miniaturization of war" has made it possible for states to conduct wars from 8,000 miles from the site of a bomb dropping. The trend for this could possibly mean states being more inclined to use force because the loss of life will be minimal; they can simply send robots (drones) rather than citizens to fight the war for them.

The Economist. (2010, July 1). *The Threat from the Internet: Cyberwar.* Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.economist.com/node/16481504

A terrorist organization acquiring nuclear weapons (weapons of mass destruction) for harmful uses is obviously a threat. This kind of acquisition, however, requires great strategy, time, patience, and work. Additionally, having to have someone set off the weapon also requires an advanced skill in science and weapons technology; however, cybercrime can be done from one person at his or her computer from their home desk. Entire regions could be blacked out, and cause complete chaos. This article identifies this threat and goes over the importance of cyber security to combat attacks like the ones in Estonia.

The Economist. (2010). *General Wesley Clark on Cyberwar.* Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://audiovideo.economist.com/?fr_story=54880e4fa3b981cc796bd2394e4a4e3001cea0ce&rf=bm

General Wesley Clark is the former NATO Supreme Allied Commander. General Clark asserts that while cyber warfare is a legitimate threat, it is in its infancy and hard to gauge. Threats are real, but human error could be misconstrued as a cyber attack. Also, since states are so heavily reliant on cyber technology for the infrastructure, if a state sees a potential hack in their systems, they are reluctant to make it public because that state does not want to come off as behind in the technology, thus information sharing is not as prevalent as it can be.

The Economist. (2010, July 1). *War in the Fifth Domain.* Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://www.economist.com/node/16478792

While nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons, and full on military invasion are still everyday threats to a state's security, the overvalue of the internet and information technology to their economic and military security is at risk from cyber crime. An attack on power generators via a computer on the other side of the world will cause chaos. This article highlights the true nature of

the threat of cyber warfare and cyber terrorism. It is a valuable source because it outlines the potential kinds of threats cyber terrorism, for example, could have on a country reliant upon technology. Furthermore, it also outlines how this kind of criminal activity is more and more prevalent, yet not all states relying upon computers have systems in place to combat such an attack.

Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. (2010). *Recent developments in the use of science and technology by offenders and by competent authorities in fighting crime, including the case of cybercrime (A/Conf.213/9)*. Retrieved August 11, 2010 from http://www.unodc.org/documents/crime-congress/12th-Crime-Congress/Documents/A_CONF.213_9/V1050382e.pdf

In April 2010, leaders of the international community met in Brazil to discuss the role of science and technology in the context of international security. One of the main issues dealt with was cyber crime. This UN document outlined the problems the world faces when it comes to cyber crime, including a clause that identifies the soft nature of legal remedies afforded to states when dealing with cyber crime. Outlining the problem from the UN helps identify key problems states face.

United Nations Disarmament Commission. (17 July 2008). *Talks conclude on marking, tracing illegal small arms, light weapons, as biennial meeting of states seeks to strengthen politically binding global instruments. (DC/3123)*. Retrieved October 1, 2010 from http://reliefweb.int/rw/rwb.nsf/db900sid/MUMA-7GN38Q?OpenDocument

Similar to the document from 2005, world leaders addressed tracing weapons at the United Nations Disarmament Commission. This document, however, highlights the importance of a legally binding global instrument that all states can adhere to, and at least gets the process going to find out where states stand on the issue.

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. (2006). *The Ethics and Politics of Nanotechnology*. Retrieved August 19, 2010 from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145951e.pdf

Nanotechnology could be the most important technology since the spread of the internet. Nanotechnology can quickly locate cancer cells, increase the memory in memory chips, or even remove pollution particles in the air. But as with any other technology, it has its drawbacks and ethical dilemmas. UNESCO, in 2007, made this report to look at the ethical implications of nanotechnology that states may embrace when dealing with this technology, and possible solutions to overcome these obstacles.

United Nations Information Service. (14 October 2005). *Legally Binding Instrument Needed to Combat Illicit Small-Arms Trade, which Fuels Conflict, Undermines Development, First Committee Told (GA/DIS/3303)*. Retrieved October 1, 2010 from http://www.unis.unvienna.org/unis/pressrels/2005/gadis3303.html

Leaders from across the world understand the need for legal instruments and tracing to combat illicit arms sales. Even with advanced tracing capabilities, once a weapon passes customs, for example, into a conflict zone in Africa, the tracing doesn't matter much if the country itself doesn't have the technology to use the chips or tracer on the weapon to track it to its origin. This document first highlights the need for tracing, but also notices the need to develop technology in states so that the technology used won't be ineffectual.

United Nations General Assembly. (27 July 2009). *Assistance to States for curbing the illicit traffic in small arms and light weapons and collecting them - the illicit trade in small arms and light weapons in all its aspects: Report of the Secretary General (A/64/173)*. Retrieved September 30, 2010 from http://www.poa-iss.org/DocsUpcomingEvents/A-64-173-SALW.pdf

UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon concluded that there is a need to curb the sale of illicit arms. Furthermore, he also noted that in order to alleviate the demand for these weapons, we must also reduce the need for these weapons to be used at all. The problem at hand is the trafficking of these weapons to conflict zones and other areas of the world, but we also must look at the root of the problem and try to aid in the conflict areas that are using these weapons and figure out how to mitigate the need for weapons at all.

United Nations General Assembly First Committee. (2009). *Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security (A/C.1/64/L.39)*. Retrieved August 16, 2010, from http://reachingcriticalwill.org/political/1com/1com09/res/L39.pdf

The United Nations General Assembly First committee took a proactive approach to information security. This resolution, though small, requested that studies in the realm of information security and technology be continued. Furthermore, the document calls for cooperative efforts in order to be properly informed on developments and how to combat coming threats.

United Nations General Assembly First committee. (2005*). Legally Binding Instrument Needed to Combat Illicit Small-Arms Trade, which Fuels Conflict, Undermines Development, First Committee Told (GA/DIS/3303).* Retrieved September 9, 2010 from http://www.unis.unvienna.org/unis/pressrels/2005/gadis3303.html

Leaders from around the world gathered to address the need to combat illicit arms sales. Again, the need for cooperation was stressed. Additionally, it was stressed that legal instruments can be used to help get rid weapons being trafficked. Furthermore, since international law can be ambiguous and non-binding, it may be important for delegates to review legislation in their own country to see if it is conducive to curbing the illegal smalls arms trade.

United States Department of State. *The Global Challenge of WMD Terrorism*. (n.d.). Retrieved October 1, 2010 from http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/65477.pdf

Although this article is titled to address WMD Terrorism, the article also stresses that fact that advanced technology in the wrong hands is a potential threat to security. Other states, perhaps, could evaluate whether their foreign policy directly addresses whether or not they have policy in place to at least understand the threat of advancing technologies in the hands of terrorists or terrorist organizations.

Yanful, Ernest K. (2009). *Appropriate Technologies for Environmental Protection in the Developing World.* New York: Springer.

Though this book explores nanotechnology relating to environmental uses, it dedicates chapters to terrorist threats involving nanotechnology. Also, section 3.3 directly addresses the role of the United Nations could play in facilitating the positive uses of nanotechnology.

III. Disarmament, Demobilization, and Demining: Prerequisites for Peace in Africa

Aboagye, Festus B. and Bah, Alhaji M. S. (2004). *Liberia at a Crossroads: A preliminary look at the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) and the protection of civilians.* Retrieved on September 15, 2010, from http://www.issafrica.org/uploads/PAPER95.PDF.

This article provides a detailed historical account of the turmoil in Liberia before discussing the outcome of the post-conflict Liberian DDRR program. As mentioned in both the background guide and the article, the Liberian DDRR program ran into numerous difficulties. While not covered by this topic, delegates are invited to read about the rehabilitation and reintegration phases of Liberia's DDRR program, as well as other post-conflict initiatives such as transitional justice.

Ball, Nicole and van de Goor, Luc (2006). *Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration: Mapping Issues, Dilemmas and Guiding Principles*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://unddr.org/docs/DDR_by_Netherlands_Institute_for_International_Affairs_-Aug_2006.pdf.

This paper was originally written for the research branch of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands. It outlines very clearly what the DDR process is, its benefits, and its shortfalls. Delegates should take note of the sections on guiding principles and programming challenges. Furthermore, this paper presents several questions that can guide research on each Member State's stance on the DDR process.

Coker, Patrick, Ginifer, Jeremy, Malan, Mark, Meek, Sarah, and Thusi, Thokozani (2003). *Sierra Leone: Building the Road to Recovery*. Retrieved on September 15, 2010, from http://www.issafrica.org/pubs/monographs/No80/Content.html.

This publication from the Institute for Security Studies, which is based in South Africa, highlights the successes of the Sierra Leonean DDR program. The authors noted that UNAMSIL has completed the disarmament and demobilization stages within a very short timeframe and has also transitioned from peacekeeping to peace-building without major difficulties. In Chapter 1 of this publication, which was used for the background guide, the authors provide a primary account of this success.

Electronic Mine Information Network (n.d.). *What is Mine Action?*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.mineaction.org/section.asp?s=what_is_mine_action.
The Electronic Mine Information Network is the United Nations' portal for its works on mine action. As mentioned in the text, effective mine action is not simply the removal of mines from armed groups or from the soil, but it includes education to prevent further harm and rehabilitation efforts for those wounded.

Hanson, Stephanie (2007). *Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR) in Africa*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.cfr.org/publication/12650/disarmament_demobilization_and_reintegration_ddr_in_africa.html.
While this article is also an introduction to the DDR process, it focuses more on common situations shared by African Member States. This article stresses that while the DDR process is numerated in three distinct phases, this approached proved to be ineffective as former combatants experienced delays between each phase. In particular, it is more critical than other pieces on how the DDR process is not functioning as well for women and children as for men.

Knight, W. Andy (2008). "Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding in Africa: An Overview." *African Security 1*(1), 24-52.
This article traces the beginning of the DDR process, how the actors are involved, and how each step progresses. Knight then provides seven case studies of the DDR process in Africa, which is important for delegates as it demonstrates that the DDR process is not simply a template that the United Nations or other practitioners can follow for each Member State.

Landmine Monitor (2009). *Landmine Monitor Report 2009*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.the-monitor.org/lm/2009/res/Landmines_Report_2009.pdf.
The 2009 Report is the eleventh annual report from the non-profit organization, which is major civil society group tasked with research and monitoring for the International Campaign to Ban Landmines. This particular edition traces the successes and failures of the international community and each individual country in mine clearance. Delegates can find in the Report the Ottawa Convention as well.

Mandela, Nelson (1995). *Long Walk to Freedom: the Autobiography of Nelson Mandela*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown and Company.
Nelson Mandela, former President of post-Apartheid South Africa, released his autobiography in 1995, most of which was written during his 27-year sentence in prison. The quote used in the background guide further emphasizes the necessity of coming to terms with enemies in the post-conflict environment not simply for the sake of moving on but for the sake of securing an enduring peace between parties.

Malan, Mark and Meek, Sarah (2004). *Identifying Lessons from DDR Experiences in Africa Workshop Report*. Retrieved on September 15, 2010, from http://www.issafrica.org/pubs/Monographs/No106/Contents.html.
In Chapter 1 of this publication from the Institute for Security Studies, the authors discuss the general effectiveness of the DDR process in Africa and how the United Nations and Member States should improve future programs on the continent. Throughout this chapter, the notions of specificity and integration are repeatedly highlighted as the bedrock of a successful DDR program.

Peacebuilding Initiative (n.d.). *Disarmament, Demobilization, Reinsertion, & Reintegration: DDR & Peacebuilding Processes*. Retrieved August 17, 2010, from http://peacebuildinginitiative.org/index.cfm?pageId=1819.

This article contains a more detailed description of the DDR process and contains examples of how the process has worked or failed in other countries. In particular, the article discusses how the DDR process can work along with other socioeconomic initiatives such as security sector reform, psychological transformation of former combatants, and the theoretical limitations of the process.

United Nations Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration Resource Centre (2008). *What is DDR?*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.unddr.org/whatisddr.php.
This Web site presents the official definitions and approach of the United Nations towards the DDR process, specifically how NGOs, women, child combatants, and HIV/AIDS are incorporated into the United Nations' DDR programs around the world. The Resource Centre at large is an excellent portal to retrieve information on country-specific projects and technical papers.

United Nations General Assembly (2009). *Assistance in mine action: Report of the Secretary-General (A/64/287)*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=A/64/287.
The Secretary-General welcomed the progress being made in the international community on the mine action efforts. He reasserts the organization's leading role in the international mine action efforts, noting that while there are numerous agencies and departments operating in mine action, the United Nations' efforts strive to be uniform and coherent – the "One United Nations" approach. Under the One United Nations approach, he established several strategic objectives that the United Nations should accomplish through its mine action projects.

United Nations General Assembly (2010). *Assistance in mine action (A/RES/64/84)*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=A/RES/64/84.
This General Assembly resolution is the latest in a series of resolutions on mine action. While it does not provide further incentives or funds for mine action programs, it reiterates the importance of mine clearance and other aspects of mine education and calls upon Member States and other relevant organizations to develop effective capacities against anti-personnel mines and to comply with the International Mine Action Standards.

United Nations General Assembly (2010). *Implementation of the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-personnel Mines and on Their Destruction (A/RES/64/56)*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=A/RES/64/56.
The Ottawa Convention has been hailed as a success, with 156 Member States out of 192 having ratified or acceded the international treaty, making it part of international law. Nonetheless, the General Assembly continues to invite Member States not party to the Ottawa Convention to accede to it, noting that universalization of the convention would enhance its legitimacy and adherence. This resolution also encourages all Member States, party or not to the convention, to continue to tackle the issue at the highest political levels.

United Nations Mine Action Service (2003). *Guide for the Application of International Mine Action Standards (IMAS)*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.mineactionstandards.org/IMAS_archive/Amended/Amended5/IMAS%2001.10_%205.pdf.
The Guide for the Application of International Mine Action Standards *was published in 2003 to assist Member States in developing safer, more efficient, and more effective policies in national mine action programs and to standardize varying approaches between Member States. When Member States apply the IMAS to their national mine action programs, these standards ensure that the Member States meet international humanitarian concerns, increase in capability, and meet their obligations under international treaties.*

United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (2006). *Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR) and Stability in Africa: Conference Report*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.un.org/africa/osaa/reports/DDR%20Sierra%20Leone%20March%202006.pdf.
The DDR and Stability in Africa Conference was the first of its kind, linking practitioners, Member States, and expert groups together in order to improve the DDR process in the continent. Hosted by the Government of Sierra Leone, the conference allowed these different sectors to

present their approaches to the DDR process. The conference concluded with a list of recommendations and guiding principles, including the necessity of a peace agreement between hostile parties of the conflict, focus on long-term rehabilitation into civilian life and not the immediate need of weapon removal, and increased attention to women and child soldiers.

United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (2007). *Final Report on the Second International Conference on Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration and Stability in Africa*. Retrieved on August 17, 2010, from http://www.un.org/africa/osaa/reports/DDR_Kinshasa_Final.pdf.
This Conference was attended by nineteen African Member States, seventeen international organizations, and other representatives from expert groups, donor communities, and non-governmental organizations. It is second in a series of conferences organized to strengthen the network of African DDR practitioners, stakeholders, and experts. DDR continues to make slow but steady progress in the continent and this Report contains numerous recommendations that can be built upon those proposed from the first Conference.

United Nations Security Council (1999). *Letter dated 12 July 1999 from the Chargé d'affaires ad interim of the Permanent Mission of Togo to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council (S/1999/777)*. Retrieved on October 9, 2010, from http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=S/1999/777.
The Republic of Togo formally submitted the peace agreement between the Government of Sierra Leone and the RUF/SL to the Security Council in 1999. Article VI of the peace agreement, Commission for the Consolidation of Peace*, establishes the aforementioned government agency, whose responsibilities include the implementation of a Sierra Leonean DDR program for national reconciliation. Reconciliation is crucial in this context as other parts of the peace agreement enabled members of the RUF/SL to hold public office upon disarmament and organized the RUF/SL into a legitimate political party.*

United Nations Security Council (1999). *Resolution 1270 (1999) (S/RES/1270)*. Retrieved on September 15, 2010, from http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=s/res/1270%20(1999).
This resolution authorized the peacekeeping mission in Sierra Leone and affirmed the ceasefire agreement between the Government of Sierra Leone and the Revolutionary United Front of Sierra Leon (RUF/SL). As shown in this resolution and in resolution S/RES/1509, the United Nations explicitly mentioned the DDR process as a key feature of its peacekeeping missions. Delegates can compare this resolution from S/RES/1509 to see how much more evolved the DDR process has become within peacekeeping missions.

United Nations Security Council (2003). *Resolution 1509 (2003) (S/RES/1509)*. Retrieved on September 15, 2010, from http://www.un.org/Docs/journal/asp/ws.asp?m=S/RES/1509 (2003).
This resolution authorized the United Nations to act in Liberia under Chapter VII of the Charter by dispatching the United Nations Mission in Liberia UNMIL), a peacekeeping force. As the United Nations increasingly relies on the DDR process in post-conflict reconstruction, this resolution is a prime example of the degree to which the DDR process has been outlined as a plan of action.

Rules of Procedure
General Assembly First Committee

Introduction

1. These rules shall be the only rules which apply to the General Assembly Disarmament and International Security Committee (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 Plenary Director, the Assistant Director(s), the Under-Secretaries-General, and the Assistant Secretaries-General, are designates and agents of the Secretary-General and Director-General, and are collectively referred to as the "Secretariat."
3. Interpretation of the rules shall be reserved exclusively to the Director-General or her or his designate. Such interpretation shall be in accordance with the philosophy and principles of the National Model United Nations 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.

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 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 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. Items on the agenda may be amended or deleted by the Committee by a two-thirds majority of the members 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 delegates, including observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to a vote.

Rule 5 - Revision of the agenda
During a session, the Assembly 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. Permission to speak on a motion to revise the agenda shall be accorded only to three representatives in favor of, and three opposed to, the revision. 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 Assembly so decides by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting. No additional item may, unless the General Assembly decides otherwise by a two-thirds majority of the members present and voting, be considered until a committee has reported on the question concerned.

As the General Assembly Plenary determines the agenda for its Committees, this rule is applicable only to the Plenary body. Since NMUN 2011 will simulate the Plenary only on its last day, the agenda approved by the Secretariat is set. Items cannot be amended or added to the agenda by any of the Committees of the Assembly. For purposes of this rule, the determination of an item of an "important and urgent character" is subject to the discretion of the Secretariat, 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 Assembly to be placed on the agenda. It will, however, not be considered by the Assembly until a committee has reported on the question, or a second two-thirds vote is successful to keep the Plenary body seized of the matter. The votes described in this rule are substantive vote, and, as such, observers are not permitted to cast a vote. For purposes of this rule, "the members present and voting" means those 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 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, print, and distribute documents, reports, and resolutions of the Committee, and shall distribute documents of the Committee 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 representative, 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.

IV. LANGUAGE

Rule 12 - Official and working language
English shall be the official and working language 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.

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.

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 the 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. He or she may propose to the Committee the closure of the list of speakers, a limitation on the time to be allowed to speakers 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 President's 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. For purposes of this rule, the President's power to ―propose to the Committee entails her/his power to ―entertain‖ motions, and not to move the body on his or her own motion.

Rule 16
The President, in the exercise of her or his functions, remains under the authority of the Committee.

Rule 17 - Points of order
During the discussion of any matter, a representative may rise to a point of order, which shall be decided immediately by the President. Any appeal of the decision of the President shall be immediately put to a vote, and the ruling of the President shall stand unless overruled by a majority of the members present and voting.

Such points of order should not under any circumstances interrupt the speech of a fellow representative. 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, during the speech. For purposes of this rule, ―the members present and voting‖ mean those members (not including observers) in attendance at the meeting during which this motion comes to vote.

Rule 18
A representative may not, in rising to a point of order, speak on the substance of the matter under discussion.

Rule 19 - Speeches

1. No one 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.
2. Debate shall be confined to the question before the Committee, and the President may call a speaker to order if her/his remarks are not relevant to the subject under discussion.
3. The Committee may limit the time allowed to speakers and all representatives may speak on any question. Permission to speak on a motion to set such limits shall be accorded only to two representatives favoring and two opposing such limits, after which the motion shall be put to the vote immediately. When debate is limited and a speaker exceeds the allotted time, the President shall call her or him to order without delay.

In line with the philosophy and principles of the NMUN, in furtherance of its educational mission, and for the purpose of facilitating debate, if the President determines that the Committee in large part does not want to deviate from the limits to the speaker's time as it is then set, and that any additional motions will not be well received by the body, the President, in her/his discretion, and on the advice and consent of the Secretariat, may rule as dilatory any additional motions to change the limits of the speaker's time.

Rule 20 - Closing of 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. 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 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.

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.

Rule 23 - Adjournment of the meeting
During the discussion of any matter, a representative may move 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
A representative may at any time move the adjournment of debate on the topic under discussion. Permission to speak on the motion shall be accorded to two representatives favoring and two opposing adjournment, after which the motion shall be put to a vote immediately, requiring the support of a majority of the members present and voting to pass. If a motion for adjournment passes, the topic is considered dismissed and no action will be taken on it.

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 23, the motions indicated below shall have precedence in the following order over all proposals or other motions before the meeting:

a) To suspend the meeting;
b) To adjourn the meeting;
c) To adjourn the debate on the item under discussion;
d) To close the debate on the item under discussion.

Rule 27 - Proposals and amendments
Proposals and substantive amendments shall normally be submitted in writing to the Secretariat, with the names of twenty percent of the members of the Committee would like the Committee to consider the proposal or amendment.

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. 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.

Rule 28 - Withdrawal of motions
A proposal or a motion may be withdrawn by its sponsor at any time before voting has commenced, provided that it has not been amended. A motion thus withdrawn may be reintroduced by any representative.

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.

For purposes of this rule, ―those present and voting‖ means those representatives, including observers, in attendance at the meeting during which this motion is voted upon by the body.

VI. VOTING

Rule 30 - 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 31 - 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.

Rule 32 - Majority required
1. Unless specified otherwise in these rules, decisions of the Assembly 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 role call for the meeting during which the substantive voting occurs, must cast an affirmative or negative vote, and cannot abstain.

Rule 33 - 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 present 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, on the second time through, respond with either ―yes‖ or ―no.‖ 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 34 - 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.

Rule 35 - 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.

Rule 36 - 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 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 involved shall then be put to a vote. If all operative parts of the proposal or of the amendment have been rejected, the proposal or the 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 37 - Amendments

An amendment is a proposal that does no more than add to, delete from, or revise part of another proposal.

An amendment can add, amend, or delete operative clauses, but cannot in any manner add, amend, delete, or otherwise affect perambulatory clauses.

Rule 38 - Order of 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 39 - 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 40 - 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 41 - 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 42
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 43 - Participation of non-Member States
1. 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.
2. A committee 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.
3. 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 again. 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 committee when his or her presence in the Committee is no longer required.

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.

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.

Rule 47 - Participation of non-governmental organization and intergovernmental organizations
Representatives of non-governmental organizations/intergovernmental organizations accorded consultative observer status by the General Assembly 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.