

**Forum:** General Assembly First Committee

**Issue:** Combating piracy in the Strait of Malacca

**Student Officer:** Min Ji Kim

**Position:** Head Chair

---

## Introduction

Piracy has been a serious issue worldwide, especially in Somalia, Gulf of Guinea, and the Strait of Malacca. The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea defines piracy as “illegal acts of violence or detention, or any act of depredation on high seas, against another ship or aircraft, or against persons or property on board”. Piracy has been around since the development of ships as a method of transportation. Piracy has not only affected the safety of the crew but also threatened the economy of countries that were affected.

In 2004, the Strait of Malacca was accounted for 40% of piracy worldwide. For ship owners and mariners who operated along the 550 mile long and 40 miles wide strait, piracy has been a serious threat. The Strait of Malacca is shaped as a bottleneck which makes the area geographically easy for pirate vessels to hide and attack slow cargo ships making ships that transport trade across Asian countries easy targets for pirates. Pirates in the Strait of Malacca usually have one of three aims: those targeting easy vessels, those cooperating with crime syndicates, and those associated with groups of political motivations. Most pirates are interested in easy profit that take over the vessel and rob the crew's valuables and money.

Surprisingly, starting from 2006, piracy in the Strait of Malacca started to decrease till 2011. However, in that same year, pirates targeting only oil and diesel tankers emerged in the Strait of Malacca. Palm oil production in Malaysia and Indonesia had continued to grow from 20 mln tons/year in 2001, to 30 mln in 2006, reaching 40 mln tons/year in 2011. Not only did palm oil production keep rising, prices had also increased from 2007. This led more pirates to aim for crude palm oil (CPO) in the Malacca Strait and this new and different piracy method is currently causing concern about the revival of piracy in the Strait of Malacca.

## Definition of Key Terms

### Piracy

Piracy is defined as "The practice of attacking and robbing ships at sea." Piracy usually occurs with the goal of robbing valuables, stealing vessels, and attacking or kidnapping the crew onboard. Piracy is under customary international law and although reports of piracy decreased in recent years

and there has been significant effort of the international community, it still remains an important issue. Piracy commonly occurs in the Strait of Malacca, Madagascar, Somalia, and the Gulf of Guinea.

## Strait of Malacca

The Strait of Malacca is a 550 miles long and narrow shipping lane that is located between the Pacific Ocean and Indian Ocean. The Strait of Malacca is an important sea lane that links the trade of major Asian countries such as China, India, South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan. 25% of the trade worldwide occurs through the Strait of Malacca making it one of the most significant transportation lane in the world. About 94,000 vessels pass through the strait every year, each carrying a variety of the world's goods such as oil, manufactured goods, and coffee.

## Pirate

A pirate is defined as "A person who attack and robs ships at sea" and can be seen as a person who is engaged in the act of piracy. Pirates can be part of small groups that rob ships as a living and can also be part of crime organization that attack ships with a specific aim.

## Background Information

Piracy has been a serious threat for a long period of time as pirates are motivated by economic incentives and they can easily avoid punishment due to the lack of law enforcement and lack of collaboration amongst member nations. Countries part of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) are significantly affected by pirate raids. According to the International Maritime Bureau (IMB), within the ASEAN, the region of Indonesian origin is especially vulnerable to piracy as Indonesia's navy is least capable of combatting piracy in the strait. 29% of pirate attacks worldwide in 2004 occurred in the Indonesian waters.

Therefore, the United Nations and a number of countries part of the ASEAN had made active movements that led to certain level of progress in combatting this issue. The progress came from increased patrol amongst certain ASEAN countries, enhanced use of technology as a method to raise alarm in case of surprise pirate attacks, and improved control of ports. Through such progress, piracy in the Strait of Malacca decreased in 2011 after reaching 40% of the world's piracy in 2004. The IMB reported that in the Strait of Malacca, attacks on ships at sea dropped from 79 to 50 from 2005 to 2006 and in 2011, it was reported that piracy in the Strait of Malacca reached close to zero. From 2011, the most dangerous waters became of coast of Somalia with an average of one attack every day. However, since then, piracy in Somalia significantly decreased to a couple attacks per month and in 2014, the Gulf of Guinea became the common ground for pirates with nearly one attack every week.

Unfortunately, pirates once again started to emerge with new strategies and targets in the Strait of Malacca in 2011. Yet, there's limited support on this issue legally as nations taking action to combat

piracy cannot enter other territorial waters belonging to other nations with the aim of pursuing pirates because of state sovereignty. Piracy not only directly affects the vessel and its crew, but it also affects the economy of the country and companies. Most vessels passing the Strait of Malacca has the purpose of transporting imported and exported goods across Asian countries. However, when a crew loses the goods they're transporting due to piracy, the country receiving the good will be impacted. This influence is much more significant when CPO is hijacked. When such incidents continue, member nations, especially the ASEAN, will be significantly affected.

### Current situation in the Strait of Malacca

With the Strait of Malacca being the most active and efficient trading channel that connects Asian countries and the geography being helpful for pirates hide, piracy has always been an issue in this region. After piracy rates in the Strait of Malacca has been the most serious in 2004, piracy in the strait decreased while piracy in Somalia and the Gulf of Guinea increase. However, according to a recent report from the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) and International Maritime Bureau (IMB), the Strait of Malacca accounts for 55% of the world's reported piracy incidents in 2015. Starting from 2015, the statistics made the Strait of Malacca the world's number one piracy reported spot, alarming ASEAN countries about the revival of piracy in the Strait of Malacca.

According to the ICC and IMB, pirates in the Strait of Malacca take over a cargo vessel every two weeks on average. For only six months in 2015, 56 case of piracy was reported in this region. Out of 56 reported cases, 21 were suspected piracy, 22 were attempted piracies, and 13 were confirmed piracies. As previously noted, Indonesia is a hotspot for piracy within the Malacca Strait. Over 40% of the world's piracy occurred within Indonesian region in 2015, which is the highest number of attacks worldwide. Another region common for piracy is Vietnam as this region has seen an increased in piracy focused on robbing valuable of the crew and goods shipping towards Asian countries. Pirates also attack on small coastal tankers to steal their fuel. With piracy in Somalia and the Gulf of Guinea reaching almost zero according to an April 2015 IMB report, the increased frequency of piracy attacks in the Malacca Strait made Southeast Asia the region with the most occurrence of piracy in the world. The United Nations should focus on combatting piracy in this region now that pirates continue to appear on the strait with the purpose of stealing goods, valuables, and fuel from local maritime forces. In fact, from 1995 to 2013, the Southeast Asia region reached 41% of the world's pirate attack while West Indian Ocean, which includes Somalia, was the location for just 28% and the West African coast accounted for only 18%. The problem is that during those years, 136 maritime seafarers were killed in the Strait of Malacca as result of piracy. The statistics of deaths of seafarers in the Malacca Strait due to piracy is twice the number in the region where Somalia lies and incomparable to the death in the region of West Africa.

In recent years, the international community is heavily involved in finding solutions. According to news report from Indonesia, the navies of the ASEAN countries decided to collaborate and join forces in conducting a joint operation in tackling piracy in the Strait of Malacca. The UN also responded to this issue by examining the situation and conducting a recommendation on forming a summit to increase collaborative effort in combatting maritime security. However, the naval fleet is under equipped for assisting

the ASEAN in performing tasks aimed for resolving this issue. Another problem is that certain naval forces are easily subjected to bribery which results in corruption within the naval of some ASEAN countries causing problem to the joint operation.

Further issues arise when combatting piracy. For example, many seafarers are involved in illegal activity such as smuggling of goods or traveling through the Strait of Malacca with false identities. By doing such illegal actions, these seafarers will not report or alarm cases of pirate attack, and therefore it will be become more difficult for member nations and the UN to effectively carry out anti-piracy actions. Such problems should be evaluated to effectively perform actions in fighting piracy in the Malacca Strait.

### The social and economic implications of piracy in the Strait of Malacca

Such frequent occurrence of piracy at sea significantly affects the social and economic life of people and countries involved. There has been a noticeable relationship between piracy in the strait and social stability on land. Seafarers that are transporting traded goods or carrying fuel can be attacked or kidnapped, not being able to return home. This means that families loose their primary source of income and are most likely to face poverty. In these cases, families will not be able to obtain sufficient amount of food, health care, shelter, and education, lacking the basic necessities to live a stable life. In order to compensate such losses, all members of the family, including children, may have to work at an earlier age. Children being involved in early physical labour are most likely to miss their opportunity for education and will face hardships in strengthening their academic life which might result in continued poverty inside the family. In most cases, without education, in the long term, the family members will have a hard time gaining a stable job with sufficient pay. As poverty rises within the family, the quality of life will be reduced.

Piracy also affect countries economically. According to a 2010 study by the One Earth Future Foundation, piracy causes the loss between \$7 billion to \$12 billion dollars from the international economy every year. In recent years, pirates have carried out a new method of piracy where they focus their efforts on oil tankers that exit the narrow Malacca Strait and head for the South China Sea. In 2011, there were 14 oil-siphoning attacks. Such robbery of oil causes immensurable economic harm to countries as it's hard to capture pirates in the South China Sea due to the vast territory and lacking law enforcement.

## Major Countries and Organizations Involved

### US Maritime Administration (MARAD)

The US Maritime Administration is part of the United States Department of Transportation and it works to promote, support, and protect of issues regarding waterborne transportation. It not only promotes the usage of such transportation, but MARAD also supports mariners. Current mariners are provided with information and statistics about the sea to assist their activities at sea. Future mariners are

provided education programs that teach skills essential for mariners. MARAD also maintains the National Defense Reserve Fleet (NDRF) which protects ships from attacks at sea. An example of defense at sea includes the protection and prevention from unexpected piracy at sea, especially in the Strait of Malacca.

### International Maritime Bureau (IMB)

The International Maritime Bureau is a subsidiary of the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC). The IMB aims to fight crimes related to trade and transportation at sea. The IMB especially focuses on combatting piracy and commercial fraud as well as protecting the crew of ships all over the world. All reports of piracy attacks is recorded by the IMB and the recorded attacks are introduced by weekly piracy reports. There's a 24-hour piracy reporting centre in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia owned by the IMB.

### International Chamber of Commerce (ICC)

The International Maritime Organization was established in Geneva in 1948 but initiated its first meeting ten years later in 1959. Part of the United Nations, the IMO is a specialized committee for regulating shipping. Its main purpose is to promote and maintain the existing framework for regulating shipping.

### Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations was founded on 8 August 1967 with five members: Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. ASEAN is a regional organization of Southeast Asian nations that promotes intergovernmental collaboration and cooperation amongst nations. Currently, ASEAN has 10 member states, one candidate member state, and one observer state. The current members of ASEAN include Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam. The ASEAN is heavily involved in the situation of piracy in the Strait of Malacca, as the strait is located close to ASEAN.

## Timeline of Events

Date	Description of event
August 8th, 1967	ASEAN was founded with five members: Indoneasia, Malaysia, the Philip-pines, Singapore, and Thailand
1981	The IMB was founded
1995	The IMB starts collecting statistics on piracy
1998	The IMO implements an anti-piracy project, consisting of evaluation and seminars to piracy prone regions, including the Strait of Malacca
2010	The ASEAN includes 10 member states, one candidate member state, and one observer state

## Relevant UN Treaties and Events

As piracy in the Straits of Malacca significantly decreased in recent years, the United Nations Security Council has focused on passing resolutions regarding maritime piracy in Somalia and the Gulf of Guinea. The United Nations Security Council also proposed letters and meeting reports regarding the issue of combatting worldwide piracy as piracy still remains a threat to the international community. Here follows a list of those resolutions, letter, and meeting report.

- [Open debate on piracy as a threat to international peace and security, 6 November 2012 \(S/2012/814\)](#)
- [Reauthorization of anti-piracy measures, 18 November 2013 \(S/PV.7061\)](#)
- [Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea, 31 October 2011 \(S/RES/2018\)](#)
- [Piracy in the Gulf of Guinea, 29 February 2012 \(S/RES/2039\)](#)
- [Piracy off the coast of Somalia, 24 October 2011 \(S/RES/2015\)](#)

## Previous Attempts to solve the Issue

The international community has attempted to combat and resolve the issue of piracy worldwide, especially piracy in the Strait of Malacca. There has been actual decrease in piracy reports in this area over the years. The most important action was the collaborative effort by three countries in the region, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Singapore. The three countries, part of the ASEAN since 1967, attempted to resolve piracy by introducing The Malacca Straits Coordinated Patrol (MALSINDO). MALSINDO increased efforts to patrol the strait by air and sea. However, with only three nations, there has been limitations to this action. Due to the problem of state sovereignty, patrols were only permitted within each nation's territorial sea and weren't allowed to pursue into the territorial waters of other nations, limiting the possibility of significantly decreasing piracy. While Singapore wanted international support to prevent this problem, Indonesia and Malaysia opposed foreign intervention. The disagreement between the three nations is another aspect that needs to be resolved to further resolve this issue.

The Eyes in the Sky (EiS), an aerial patrol, also attempted to patrol in the air over other nation's territorial sea. However, the low number of flights by the EiS and the limited resources available to quickly respond to spotted attacks caused the EiS to be ineffective in resolving this issue.

The use of technology has been another attempt to combat pirates. In addition to air and sea patrols, security alert systems has been installed in vessels of 500 gross tons or more since July 2004. The security alert systems helps locate vessels transporting goods of Asia and raises alarm when vessels are attacked by pirates. Another usage of technology was launching a database system called the Information Sharing Centre (ISC) which provides updated information on location, types of attacks, and outcomes of recorded piracy in specific areas, including the Strait of Malacca. This database is part of a 14-

nations pact and is the first attempt by the international body to set up a deal in order to effectively combat piracy around the world.

Individual nations and private vessels has also taken steps toward combatting piracy. In a number of nations, naval forces has been utilized to protect and prevent attack by pirates. Also, some private vessels used armed security guards, high pressure sound cannons, and radar to defend their vessels and crew from potential attacks.

## Possible Solutions

There are several possible solutions that can be considered in combatting piracy in the Strait of Malacca. Firstly, it is important that the cooperation of ASEAN is effectively stimulated. Certain regional states have requested increased collaboration amongst ASEAN. If ASEAN is able to cooperate, a great step will be made towards resolving piracy in the strait. In order to achieve an unified opinion amongst ASEAN, several actions should be taken. Firstly, an annual (or another time interval) summit may be organized where representatives of each member nations in the ASEAN join together to share information, discuss possible solutions, and initiate actions. Other nations besides the ASEAN could join if they express concern toward piracy in the Strait of Malacca. Secondly, all ASEAN nations should step up to collaborate with other nations because only certain ASEAN nations expressed concern on the piracy issues in the Strait of Malacca. Hence, even with the intergovernmental organization ASEAN, there is no anti-piracy measure involving all ASEAN nations. Therefore, measures taken by certain nations has been ineffective. Through the collaborative effort of the ASEAN, several actions can be taken. Examples include the collaboration of technological advancement, techniques, and financial resources to increase efficiency in tackling piracy in the Strait of Malacca. Also, as pirates quickly pass from one country's border to another, the ASEAN nations can create a national law and international prison as punishment usage of caught pirates. This would ensure that pirates that are captured would be punished and can be imprisoned according to the UN standards. It's important that all types of enforcement created abide the international law and respects the sovereignty of states. Imprisoned pirates can be educated to give them an opportunity to find new jobs when they're released back to their country.

To continue on that line, it's essential to prevent pirates from forming in the first place. Most people get involved in piracy when the only form of monetary occupation available is piracy. In order to prevent that, member nations can provide job opportunities near and outside the Strait of Malacca after pirates receive schooling by an United Nations program specifically for pirates. The skills pirates already have from years of piracy can be utilized to be used in other jobs besides piracy. Member nations can also collaborate with NGOs to decrease the number of people stepping into piracy but instead help them out by providing them with specialized skill and education.

Another possible solution is for member nations to provide training to local maritime workers that transport goods for the local vessels to protect their crew, valuables, and vessel from being taken by pirates when outside forces cannot protect them. Furthermore, member nations can aid preventing piracy

in the Strait of Malacca by sending naval equipment that local governments cannot acquire by themselves. As certain countries near the Strait of Malacca doesn't acquire a strong navy or military force, such equipment will be helpful to the local government in increasing the strength and ability of the navy to combat piracy.

It's important to utilize the technology that's available in recent years. With the support of member nations, the local transportation vessels can not only put on alarming units, but can also put on shots that can fire back at pirates for the purpose of defending their vessel in case of piracy attacks. However, as there are limitations for local maritime forces to combat piracy themselves, militaries or navies from neighboring countries should stand up and help resolve the issue. Establishing coastal guards along the Strait of Malacca to enhance security in this region can also be initiated by member nations in collaboration to the IMB.

## Bibliography

"Pirates in Southeast Asia: The World's Most Dangerous Waters." Time. Time, n.d. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<http://time.com/piracy-southeast-asia-malacca-strait/>>.

"PREAMBLE TO THE UNITED NATIONS CONVENTION ON THE LAW OF THE SEA." United Nations. United Nations, n.d. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <[http://www.un.org/depts/los/convention\\_agreements/texts/unc-los/part7.htm](http://www.un.org/depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unc-los/part7.htm)>.

"Sea Piracy Hits Record High." CNN. Cable News Network, 28 Jan. 2004. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<http://edition.cnn.com/2004/WORLD/asiapcf/01/27/pirates/index.html>>.

Southgate, Laura. "Piracy in the Malacca Strait: Can ASEAN Respond?" *The Diplomat*. The Diplomat, 08 July 2015. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<http://thediplomat.com/2015/07/piracy-in-the-malacca-strait-can-asean-respond/>>.

"Strait of Malacca Is World's New Piracy Hotspot." NBCNews.com. NBCUniversal News Group, 27 Mar. 2014. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<http://www.nbcnews.com/news/world/strait-malacca-worlds-new-piracy-hot-spot-n63576>>.

"United Nations Documents on Piracy." UN News Center. UN, n.d. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <[http://www.un.org/Depts/los/piracy/piracy\\_documents.htm](http://www.un.org/Depts/los/piracy/piracy_documents.htm)>.

## Appendix or Appendices

I. International Maritime Organization homepage

<http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/un-documents/piracy/>

II. MARAD homepage

<http://www.marad.dot.gov/about-us/>

III. United Nations Security Council report on resolutions of piracy

<http://www.imo.org/en/Pages/Default.aspx>

**Forum:** General Assembly 1 (International Security and Disarmament)

**Issue:** Breaking The Link Between The Illicit Transaction Of Rough  
Diamonds And Armed Conflict

**Student Officer:** Omar KAUSAR

**Position:** Deputy Chair

---

## Introduction

The issue of rough diamonds or conflict diamonds has been embedded in conflicts around the world, especially in Africa. Rough diamonds are one of the world's most rare minerals to locate and mine. They are the most common mineral that were fought over in three of Africa's most violent wars due to Rebel groups opposed to the government attempting to take control of the mines. In the year of December 2000, the United Nations (UN) defined the term conflict diamonds as rough diamonds, which are generally used by rebel parties and groups. Other than Africa, rough diamonds are known to be difficult to find due to the limited amount and rare value of the mineral. Due to constrained and limited mining, rough diamonds are only mined in certain locations across Russia and Africa and were eventually found in rich diamond territories in the early years of the 1990s across Canada.

The trade in conflict diamonds is a serious international concern and the World Diamond Council and the Civil Society are assisting the international efforts and chances in order to stop the illicit trade of conflict diamonds around the world. There have been many common cases within Africa and some around the world, such as in the United States and within the Middle East, that rough diamonds are being smuggled into countries illegally. The smuggled diamonds reach and are sold in the black market. Conflict diamonds are still a major problem and solutions have been implemented in order to control and ultimately break the illicit transaction between rough diamonds and armed conflict. In the year of 1990 the maximum production of diamonds that were conflict diamonds was a high 15 percent. Due to such a high figure in 1990, in the present day the figure dropped drastically to 4 percent. This 4 percent is the total world diamond production that is conflict diamonds. The effect on the global economy is that, diamond prices around the world increase due to more precautions taken in order to stop the illicit trade. Armed conflict around the world and in Africa increases the number of rough diamonds and smuggling, as Rebel groups attempt to take control of the diamond rich territories in order to finance conflict. Financing conflict then leads to more artillery and weaponry being bought and an increase in tensions and conflict. Majority of rough diamonds are found in Africa however can also be found in other countries around the world.

## Definition of Key Terms

### Rough Diamond

A rough diamond is when a stone has not undergone or experienced any treatment or repair after it was mined. Rough diamonds are in their natural shape and this promotes the illicit transaction as the diamond is worth more in its natural shape and that allows Rebel's to finance their conflict.

### Illicit Transaction

The term illicit transaction refers to a prohibited or forbidden exchange normally due to laws and rules of an organization or country. Illicit transaction is a big problem when it comes to rough diamonds as people around the world still trade and sell rough diamonds illegally.

### Rebel Group

A rebel group is also known as political groups or organizations. They use conflict and force in opposition to the country's government in attempt to create disruptions. The Rebel groups were opposed to the government during the diamond conflicts and mostly took control over the mines in order to finance conflict.

### Civil War

A civil war is what is commonly known as a conflict, which is between and involves the citizens of the same country. Civil wars are related to rough diamonds as the majority of Africa's civil wars were fueled and involved fighting over control of the diamond mines. This includes the majority of civil wars in West and Central Africa.

### Black Market

The black market is known as illegal trade or traffic in controlled or limited commodities. The black market plays a slight role in this issue as when diamonds are mined within conflict zones and are rough diamonds, they eventually flood the black market illegally and are worth millions of dollars.

### Artillery

Artillery is what is known as big guns that are normally used in civil wars and conflicts, no matter how big or small. This plays a major role in the issue as the artillery is what Rebels, and government forces use in order to oppose their enemy and it promotes armed conflict.

### Armed Conflict

The term armed conflict is referred to a conflict or civil war, which is usually between the government of a country and a Rebel group, and violent forces are used between both parties. During the conflicts of rough diamonds, Rebel groups and government forces used big weaponry.

## Illicit

The term illicit refers to something or an action that is forbidden or prohibited by law. The illegal trade of rough diamonds was a major international concern due to its high figures in the 1990s, however, now the number has dropped down drastically.

## Sanction

The term sanction is subjected to a penalty, usually a threat, which comes in place when a law or a specific rule is not followed properly. Some sanctions have been placed on some countries especially within Africa due to the country not abiding the rules and illegally exporting rough diamonds without the proper paper work.

## Background Information

Rough diamonds refers to when a stone has not undergone or experienced any treatment or repair when it was mined and still remains in its natural shape. Rough diamonds, or also known as conflict diamonds, have been involved in three of Africa's most violent wars, which were spread throughout the whole continent. Though the problem of conflict diamonds has been an issue around the African Continent, the conflict has been by far the greatest problem within Central and West Africa. The reason behind this is corrupt leaders in the country's histories have brought the diamond trade and the profit being made to supply the government and rebel forces, with weaponry leading to conflicts within the region and against people who opposed the government. The three major conflicts included the Angolan Civil War in 1975, Democratic Republic Of Congo's conflict (Second Congo War) and The Revolutionary United Front (RUF) that is also known as the Rebel War in Sierra Leone.

Rough diamonds are generally found and mined in conflict zones around the world. Armed groups sell the diamonds illegally in order to finance conflict, artillery, and to commit human right abuses. Rough diamonds originate in countries like Sierra Leone, Democratic Republic Of Congo and Angola and other countries around the world. Diamonds were known to be first mined in the year of 1935 by a company called De Beers, which had a 99 year contract controlling and granting access to all mining within the country. Countries in Africa and around the world that have or had corrupt leaders used the diamond trade to help their people and to buy weaponry to arm the people in power who were against them. This led to conflict, and in the year of 1990 the diamond industry admitted that the problem was at its highest point of 15 percent. An estimated 4% of the global trade in diamonds was actually from conflict zones. During the time, Sierra Leone's economy was constantly rigged and cheated because they needed to provide millions of dollars regarding the case of illegal diamonds. The main issue of the illicit transaction of rough diamonds has mainly been a problem within Africa, however there have been a few reported cases of illegal smuggling in the United States and the Middle East.

Armed conflict affects the illicit transaction of rough diamonds as groups and organizations take control of the rich diamond mines by using force, which allows for the diamonds to be sold illegally in the

black market. The trade and selling of rough diamonds from conflict zones is a million dollar business and this is another reason to why armed conflict increases the illegal transaction. Armed conflict increases the amount of rough diamonds being smuggled and Rebel groups and other organizations attempt to take control of the rich diamond mines. This is because having control of the diamond mines allows for Rebel groups to eventually sell the diamonds in the black market illegally and this then finances conflict for the Rebel groups.

A cost of diamonds involved in conflict within West and Central Africa was the state of the citizens after the wars ended. In Sierra Leone, the RUF played a big role within the country's 11-year duration of the civil war. Diamond fuelled conflicts were most common within Africa as no other country has been involved in diamond conflicts. Diamonds fueled the civil wars in West Africa, especially in Sierra Leone, which experienced one of the most violent wars. The conflict called for the abduction of thousands of women and they were raped and were sexually exploited as slaves. In order to stop the illegal transaction and trade of conflict diamonds, many solutions have been implemented and the most well known is the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS). The Kimberley Process is an international development proposed towards attempting to prevent the trade and illicit transaction of conflict diamonds in armed conflict zones.

### Causes of conflict diamonds:

The causes of conflict diamonds vary from violence, poverty, and slavery. In the past 20 years seven countries within the African Continent faced violence as one of the main causes, as it varies from child soldiers and loss of human life. These conflicts include countries such as Sierra Leone, Angola, The Republic Of Congo, Cote D'Ivoire, Central African Republic and Democratic Republic Of Congo. Diamonds, including rough diamonds, are known to increase tensions and intensify civil wars by providing finance to militaries and rebel militias. It is also known that rival groups fight over to have control of diamond rich territories. The constant result is usually bloodshed, lives lost, and human rights abuse, which range from rape to child soldiers. Conflict diamonds is still a worldwide problem and within the past 20 years countries in Africa, experienced multiple civil wars break out because of two sides fighting over diamond resources in the country. Because of this, many died and more than a million people were displaced.

Diamond mining is full of labor; poverty and the miners (mostly children who live in extreme poverty,) spend time everyday mining for diamonds under the command of rebel forces in conflict zones. It is estimated that within Africa alone, about 1 million diamond miners live with less than one United States Dollar (USD) a day, which is below the extreme poverty line.

Slavery is another cause of rough and conflict diamonds. In countries such as Sierra Leone and other West African countries, children are used as slaves to extract rough diamonds from mines. The child slaves are forced by the rebel groups to do back breaking work, which includes digging along the riverbanks into mud and gravel by using just their bare hands. The material and minerals, which are collected, is then eventually separated using hand-held sieves. Other than Africa, children aren't required to do such intense diamond mining around the world. This is because, Africa has some of the highest

poverty rates and corrupt leaders in the world compared to other countries. These reasons also add on to why diamond fuelled conflicts are most common within Africa then anywhere else in the world.

### *Reasons to stop the trade and the illicit transaction of conflict diamonds in armed conflict:*

Rebel forces have used conflict diamonds in order to buy artillery and weaponry, as well as to use the rough diamonds for other illegal activities. Within the illegal transaction and trade of diamonds, forces and rebel groups smuggle the diamonds across borders and countries within Africa. This makes it difficult to map the origin of the diamonds and where they were mined before they flood the black market illegally. If the problem of illegal diamonds flooding the black market can either be controlled or prevented, then ultimate peace can be sustained. This can then eventually lead to economically unstable countries within Africa to finally have the chance to develop. This is because without the rebel groups having conflict diamonds and providing them with weaponry, the rebels and forces lose power and conflicts will slowly come to an end. Also, without the rebel groups opposing the government, now the government of the country can finally gain more control and stability within the region. This would also result in a higher quality of life for people.

Within the West African region, a variety of civil wars have increased the death toll every year in the past as the involvement of diamonds became more volatile. Because of the problem of conflict diamonds in West Africa, specific countries such as Angola has seen many young children forced onto the streets as a result of the civil war and poverty. It is known that because of the diamond involved conflicts, 70 percent of families in the capital of Angola live in absolute poverty. During the 11 year civil war in Sierra Leone, diamonds fueled the conflicts and provided rebel groups with heavy artillery. During the years of the war from 1991 until 2002, the RUF in Sierra Leone used women as a part of sexual slavery. Mainly because of the RUF within Sierra Leone, a staggering 75,000 lives were lost in the bloody war and there were as many as 500,000 refugees.

## **Major Countries and Organizations Involved:**

### **United Nations:**

With the United Nations' (UN) influence within conflict zones that included diamonds across Africa, they got opposing factors regarding the signing of peace agreements, which called for a temporary and eventually permanent halt in the conflict. With the UN's influence, the peace agreements that were signed called for an end in disarmament and the creation of one united government. On June 5 2003, the government of Sierra Leone had increased its efforts to control the industry of diamond mines within the country. In 2003 the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) lifted the ban on valuable stones (such as diamonds) from Sierra Leone which imposed a bid on to avoid conflicts and the illicit transaction of "rough" and "conflict" diamonds from being used in order to finance wars and conflicts.

### **United Nations Peacekeeping Forces:**

The United Nations Peacekeeping Forces also had an influence within the conflicts that included rough diamonds around Africa especially in the West region. During the month of May in the year of 2000, the UNSC deployed the largest number of peacekeepers into the diamond conflict areas spread throughout Africa. During the span of two years of the United Nations Peacekeeping forces in Africa, they did have success in the West African region especially in Sierra Leone. This is because the UN peacekeepers managed to nearly topple and disarm the Rebel group. After the Peacekeepers departed in 2002, there was hope that the next year the Kimberley Process could finally be implemented in order to stop the illicit trade and transaction of rough diamonds and armed conflict. The UN Peacekeepers were also within Africa in order to manage the conflicts and monitor the progress and results of the most needy and serious countries that range from Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Angola. The UN Peacekeepers were also ready to get involved if anything serious were to happen in the region.

## Timeline of Events

<b>Date</b>	<b>Description of event</b>
September 1986	The conservation society Of Sierra Leone supports the conservation of the natural resources of the West African country.
1986	Partnership Africa Canada is established. This partnership attempts to manage the diamond mining across Africa and Canada as well as well as to campaign against rough and conflict diamonds.
1990	Rough diamonds are finally found in some of the rich diamond territories across provinces in Canada.
March 23, 1991	The Civil War within Sierra Leone begins between the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) and the Sierra Leone government, also known as Commonwealth.
1994	RUF which is a rebel group involved in the war, took over the diamond mines within the country and 50,000 people lost their lives and 2.3 million inhabitants were displaced.
May 1995	Freetown (the capital of Sierra Leone) was freed and liberated by the RUF rebel group and the diamond mines.
August 2, 1998	In the Democratic Republic Of Congo a war broke out which became known as the Second Congo War or Africa's Great War.
1998	The Global Witness Organization attempts to explain and tech the world about how blood diamonds play a role and how they finance the civil wars. This was known as Combating Conflict Diamonds.
1998-1999	The Second Congo War was mostly involved with the mineral and diamonds resources of the country. The diamond center within the city of Kisangani was taken over by rebel forces and groups that advanced and threatened the capital city of Kinshasa.

May 16, 2000	Within Sierra Leone where the civil war that included diamonds was taking place. RUF group kidnapped 500 of the United Nations Peacekeepers that were based in the country.
2000	The Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is developed but not fully imposed and it required all African countries that exported all rough diamonds to be a member.
January 18 2002	The civil war within Sierra Leone finally comes to an end. The result of the conflict, which included diamonds, was the Commonwealth that had victory.
2002	The Kimberley Process is still being developed but has not been fully implemented. The first couple of meetings took place in Canada to fully discuss the process.
April 25, 2003	The Clean Diamond Trade Act (CDTA) was signed by former United States (US) President George W Bush in order to regulate the sale and trade of rough diamonds. Once the papers were signed the CDTA eventually then led to implementing the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS).
2003	The Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is finally implemented in 2003 and requires as many countries fueled by diamond conflicts to be members in order to further break the illicit transaction diamonds and armed conflict.
2004	The Republic Of Congo was removed and denied authority in the Kimberley Process. The reason being is because the Republic Of Congo had no official government industry for diamond mines. The country was exporting and sending out large amounts of diamonds and the origin could not be identified.

## Relevant UN Treaties and Events

The United Nations has had a major influence within this issue and has passed many resolutions regarding the illicit transaction of rough diamonds and armed conflict. The United Nations passed a resolution in the 71<sup>st</sup> and the 57<sup>th</sup> session of the General Assembly in the year of 2017 and 2003.

- [The role of diamonds in fuelling conflict: breaking the link between the illicit transaction of rough diamonds and armed conflict as a contribution to prevention and settlement of conflicts, 2 February 2017 \(A/RES/71/277\)](#)
- [The role of diamonds in fuelling conflict: breaking the link between the illicit transaction of rough diamonds and armed conflict as a contribution to prevention and settlement of conflicts, 15 April 2003 \(A/RES/57/301\)](#)
- [Sierra Leone, 5 July 2000 \(S/RES/1306\)](#)

## Previous Attempts to solve the Issue

The Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS) is a program open to all nations around the world that is willing and able to satisfy and implement its requirements. The KP has 54 members that are representing 81 countries within the European Union (EU). The members of the KP account for an estimated 99.8% of the global production of rough diamonds and The World Diamond Council represents the diamond industry around the world as civil society organizations. The Kimberley Process works in a strict way. This is because it is composed of expanded requirements for its members in order to allow them to certify shipments of rough diamonds as conflict free and also to prevent conflict diamonds from entering illegal trade. Members and participants can only trade legally with the other members and participants who have met the least possible demand of the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme. The KP, however, does not physically inspect the rough diamonds that are being traded and transported. The KP unfortunately also does not have a right to take direct action against the rough diamond smugglers. The international shipment of rough diamonds must strictly have a Kimberley processed certificate to show and to prove that the diamonds are conflict free. The Kimberley Process also works in a way that it monitors a diamond's origin from a mine until it reaches the distributors. Because of this process, the diamonds that are collected from a mine are sealed in containers and given warranties. These diamonds in regards to the Kimberley Process move from locations and are given further and detailed identification. The ultimate goal of the Kimberley Process is to set in place a certificate for all rough diamonds to show that they do not come from conflict zones. This also breaks the link as less rough diamonds are sold illegally as well as less diamonds being used for illegal activities, and it also lowers the tensions of conflict and uprisings. The certificates of origin of rough diamonds will all be placed in rough diamond sealed boxes and transported to different countries until it reaches their final destination.

Another solution that was previously attempted was known as The Clean Diamond Trade Act (CDTA) of 2003, which was a process that attempted to ban and prohibit any diamonds that came from an origin of conflict, as well as to implement and propose such rules and regulations in order to stop the illegal trade and transaction of rough and conflict diamonds. An estimated 3.7-4 million people have lost their lives in Africa alone due to violent diamond conflicts. The act included the prohibition of exporting weapons to countries fueled by diamond conflicts and prohibited the import and export of rough diamonds specifically in Sierra Leone and Liberia. This was due to the extensive amounts of conflict against rebel groups within the two countries. The CDTA was set in place in 2003 after President George W Bush signed the papers, to regulate the trade of rough diamonds. The CDTA was a solution that was known to be successful, and this is because it eventually led to the implementation of the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme. The CDTA combated this issue in different ways as it led to an even bigger solution to break the illicit transaction of rough diamonds and armed conflict. The CDTA itself also had many positive effects within the West African region as the commercial and sales of diamonds were better regulated resulting in fewer cases of the illicit transaction and trade of rough diamonds.

## Possible Solutions

There are multiple possible solutions towards the issue of the illegal trade and export of conflict and rough diamonds. In the past, solutions such as the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme and the Clean Diamond Trade Act have been implemented and turned out to be successful. Just one of the many possible solutions to completely halt the export of rough diamonds is a treaty or agreements to temporarily and then ultimately stop the trade. A treaty is known to be a feasible option as countries in and out of Africa can settle on a solution between countries in order to stop the illegal trade. This will also be beneficial for non-African countries that are involved in rough diamond smuggling. Once treaties are formally signed, then it requires all countries involved within the treaty to all work together to resolve the specific problem. The response of the International Community to combat this issue if a treaty is implemented should be willing to send basic necessities and aid to war struggling nations fueled by diamonds. Another type of International response is to have conferences and meetings with other leaders in order to work out the best solution for the country. If needed then the country can also send military aid, and these suggested actions are known to greatly benefit the war torn countries as it helps the country restore it's peace and government.

Another solution can be a peace agreement within the nations that are struggling to rebuild their country after the conflict of rough diamonds in the past. Peace agreements with rebel groups and forces are known to input into stopping civil wars around the world. This can also be applied to the civil wars that occurred in Africa such as the civil war in Sierra Leone between the government and the RUF. The United Nations based in Africa as well as in Sierra Leone, attempted to create peace agreements with Rebels and that did bring the fighting level down. Peace agreements can assist in resolving conflict and will have a positive impact on breaking the link between the illicit transaction of rough diamonds and armed conflict. This is because peace agreements can ultimately halt the fighting and the government will be in control of it's own diamond mines, which then leads to less diamonds being sold illegally and being smuggled outside of it's borders. In the past and the civil wars that are currently ongoing within the continent. Adding on, a campaign to stop the trade of conflict diamonds is a feasible solution as well. Though military action is involved within a campaign, the military is there to support and only get involved if needed and attempts to resolve the issue. Due to the civil wars and the problem of conflict diamonds in the past, it is still a world issue today. Campaigns to stop rough and conflict diamonds is another possible solution to inspect boxes containing rough diamonds in order to stop the export and trade by using military support, however not in a violent or corrupt way.

## Bibliography

"About." *About | KimberleyProcess*, Kimberley Process, [www.kimberleyprocess.com/en/about](http://www.kimberleyprocess.com/en/about).

Armstrong, Paul. "How Diamonds Fuel Africa's Conflicts." *CNN*, Cable News Network, 16 May 2012, <http://edition.cnn.com/2012/04/26/world/africa/blood-diamonds/index.html>

"Blood Diamond." *Wikipedia*, Wikimedia Foundation, 3 Aug. 2017, [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Blood\\_diamond](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Blood_diamond)

Briggs, Nicholas S. "Reasons to Stop the Trade of Conflict Diamonds." *Conflict Diamonds in West Africa*, Stanford University, 5 Dec. 2003, [https://web.stanford.edu/class/e297a/](https://web.stanford.edu/class/e297a/Conflict%20diamonds%20in%20West%20Africa.htm)

[Conflict%20diamonds%20in%20West%20Africa.htm](https://web.stanford.edu/class/e297a/Conflict%20diamonds%20in%20West%20Africa.htm)

"Conflict Diamond - Definition of Conflict Diamond in English | Oxford Dictionaries." *Oxford Dictionaries | English*, Oxford Dictionaries, 2014, [https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/conflict\\_diamond](https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/conflict_diamond)

Johnson, Eric. "Blood Diamonds: The Conflict in Sierra Leone." *Blood Diamonds*, Stanford University, 6 Dec. 2002, <https://web.stanford.edu/class/e297a/Conflict%20in%20Sierra%20Leone.htm>

K., Greg. "A Simple Way to Stop Blood Diamonds." *Brilliant Earth*, Brilliant Earth, 20 Mar. 2017, <https://www.brilliantearth.com/news/how-to-beat-the-smugglers-and-stop-blood-diamonds/>

McGreal, Chris. "Threat to Sierra Leone Hostages Splits UN." *The Guardian*, Guardian News and Media, 16 May 2000, [www.theguardian.com/world/2000/may/17/sierraleone1](http://www.theguardian.com/world/2000/may/17/sierraleone1)

"Rebel - Definition of Rebel in English | Oxford Dictionaries." *Oxford Dictionaries | English*, Oxford Dictionaries, 2014, <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/rebel>

"The Role of Diamonds in Fuelling Conflict : #Breaking the Link between the Illicit Transaction of Rough Diamonds and Armed Conflict as a Contribution to Prevention and Settlement of Conflicts : Resolution / Adopted by the General Assembly." *United Nations*, United Nations, 4 Sept. 2002, <http://dag.un.org/handle/11176/238944>

"Sanction." *Merriam-Webster*, Merriam-Webster, 2011, <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/sanction>

"Second Congo War." *Second Congo War*, McGill University, [https://www.cs.mcgill.ca/~rwest/link-suggestion/wpcd\\_2008-09\\_augmented/wp/s/Second\\_Congo\\_War.htm](https://www.cs.mcgill.ca/~rwest/link-suggestion/wpcd_2008-09_augmented/wp/s/Second_Congo_War.htm)

"Security Council Diamond Sanctions and The Kimberley Process." *Security Council Diamond Sanctions and the Kimberly Process : October 2006 Monthly Forecast : Security Council Report*, Security Council Report, 28 Sept. 2006, [http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/monthly-forecast/2006-10/lookup\\_c\\_gIKWLeMTIsG\\_b\\_2087355.php](http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/monthly-forecast/2006-10/lookup_c_gIKWLeMTIsG_b_2087355.php)

"Security Council Ends Ban on Import of Sierra Leone Rough Diamonds." *UN News Center*, United Nations, 5 June 2003, [http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=7322&Cr=Sierra&Cr1=#.WYHjV9OGM\\_U](http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=7322&Cr=Sierra&Cr1=#.WYHjV9OGM_U)

"Security Council, SC, UNSC, Security, Peace, Sanctions, Veto, Resolution, President, United Nations, UN, Peacekeeping, Peacebuilding, Conflict Resolution, Prevention." *United Nations*, United Nations, 2016, <http://www.un.org/en/sc/>

"Sierra Leone Civil War." *Wikipedia*, Wikimedia Foundation, 13 Aug. 2017, [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra\\_Leone\\_Civil\\_War](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone_Civil_War)

Smillie, Ian. "Dirty Diamonds, Armed Conflict And The Trade in Rough Diamonds." *Economies of Conflict: Private Sector Activity in Armed Conflict.* , 25 Mar. 2002, pp. 1–66.

<http://www.ddiglobal.org/login/resources/dirty-diamondsarmed-conflict-and-the-trade-in-rough-diamondsmarch-2002.pdf>

“Trading.” *Diamond Bourse of Canada*, Diamond Bourse Of Canada, 8 Sept. 2014, [diamondbourse.ca/diamond-trading/](http://diamondbourse.ca/diamond-trading/)

“The Truth About Diamonds.” *The Truth About Diamonds*, Nov. 2006, pp. 1–7.

[https://www.globalwitness.org/sites/default/files/import/the\\_truth\\_about\\_diamonds.pdf](https://www.globalwitness.org/sites/default/files/import/the_truth_about_diamonds.pdf)

“UN General Assembly Resolution: The Role of Diamonds in Fuelling Conflict.” *U.S. Department of State*, U.S. Department of State, 29 Nov. 2006, <https://www.state.gov/e/eb/diamonds/lnks/77441.htm>

“Violence.” *Brilliant Earth*, Brilliant Earth, 7 Mar. 2006, <https://www.brilliantearth.com/conflict-diamond-trade/>

“Working Together To Halt Conflict Diamonds.” *Kp in Action | KimberleyProcess*, Kimberley Process, 2016, <https://www.kimberleyprocess.com/en/about>

## Appendix or Appendices

I. Delegates are highly recommended to read the following report of the problem of conflict diamonds in Sierra Leone and West Africa and what steps people can take to solve them.

<http://arizonajournal.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/Banatnote.pdf>

II. This report outlines the measures taken to adopting and finally implementing the Kimberley Process. This report also briefly outlines the actions taken before the Kimberley Process was implemented and how it has helped the diamond industry.

[https://www.kimberleyprocess.com/en/system/files/documents/u.s.kp\\_annual\\_report\\_2015\\_revised.pdf](https://www.kimberleyprocess.com/en/system/files/documents/u.s.kp_annual_report_2015_revised.pdf)

<b>Forum:</b>	General Assembly First Committee
<b>Issue:</b>	Measures to combat sexual violence in conflict zones
<b>Student Officer:</b>	Min Ji Kim
<b>Position:</b>	Head Chair

---

## Introduction

Sexual violence occurs throughout the world and is especially common in conflict zones. It's a crime that has existed for as long as there has been conflict. Research suggests that sexual violence affects men as well as women. However, it also shows that women are highly more subjected to sexual violence than men, especially in areas of conflict. As the former UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon stated, "Protecting and empowering women during and after conflicts is one of the most important challenges of our time." Sexual violence in conflict zones can be committed as a weapon of war to attack the enemy or for political reasons. Rape by certain groups were committed on women by other associations. For example, during World War II, German soldiers committed rape on Jewish women and girls in 1939. In historical times, incidents of political sexual violence was common and proper punishments weren't implemented on the assailant. This political aim also lead to genocides and comfort women in areas of conflict.

Sexual violence can result in sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/Aids infection leading to death. It could also result in permanent damage to the reproductive system and victims are at the risk of pregnancy. Not only that, the social wellbeing of victims are affected as well. Victims may be stigmatized, shunned, and ostracized by their families or others even though they're the victims. Besides the short term effects on victims, sexual violence can also cause long term effects. Such effects include post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), severe distress, and suicide. The problem is that sexual violence in conflict zones often goes unreported due to the ongoing warfare. Before the 1990s, the problem of sexual violence in conflict zones didn't receive much attention and therefore, immediate actions on this issue weren't formulated. Starting from the early 1990s, due to the sexual violence committed during the conflict in former Yugoslavia, the United Nations and members nations became alarmed by this issue. Since then, the issue of sexual violence in conflict zones emerged as an important topic of the international community and protecting and empowering victims of sexual violence during and after conflicts became a serious challenge worldwide. In order to prevent such violence and consequences, the UN needs to take immediate actions to effectively combat sexual violence, especially in conflict zones.

## Definition of Key Terms

### Conflict zones

A conflict zone can be described as an area where opposition between forces or individuals and confrontations amongst them exists. Conflicts occur in conflict zones which may lead to physical or emotional harm such as being engaged in warfare or coming into disharmony.

## Sexual violence

Sexual violence is defined as “any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work.” Sexual violence can be in any form of physical violence or psychological threatening. If the victim is in a stance where the person cannot be able to consent, for example drunk, asleep, or drugged, it's considered as sexual violence.

## Rape

Sexual violence can refer to different crimes including rape. As one of the most common actions of sexual violence, rape is defined by the WHO as “physically forced or otherwise coerced penetration—even if slight – of the vulva or anus, using a penis, other body parts or an object.”

## Prevention of sexual violence

Prevention of sexual violence is defined as “efforts intended to stop the perpetration of unhealthy, harmful, dangerous, and illegal behavior and acts, as well as victimization and re-victimization by others” according to the Association of the Treatment of Sexual Abusers (ATSA).

## Background Information

Cases of sexual violence refer to many different crimes including rape, sexual mutilation, sexual humiliation, forced prostitution, and forced pregnancy. Sexual violence occur during armed conflict or military occupation, but particularly occurs during ethnic conflicts. Such crimes are motivated by multiple factors in conflict zones. Sexual violence may be caused as a means of troop mollification. In this case, women are forced into military sexual slavery. By doing so, the military aims to increase soldier morale in fighting the war. Other cases occur as a mean of inflicting fear at the general population. Through the threat of sexual violence, people, especially women and girls, tend to remain in fear which casues communities to chatter and people to experience extreme distress. During armed conflict, sexual violence is used as a psychological warfare with the means of humiliating the opposing side. Sexual violence can also be part of a genocidal strategy or ethnic cleansing. The Rwanda genocide is an example of sexual violence being part of a genocide. Such action lead to severe physical and psychological consequences of victims which completely destructs an entire community.

## Historical cases of sexual violence in conflict zones

In history, there has been many cases of sexual violence in conflict zones. Rape was especially common in areas of conflict with multiple purposes. Even though sexual violence was common, the international community only started to be alert on this issue recently as victims didn't report the crimes out of fear and the war made it hard for governments or the United Nations to record exact statistics on the crime of sexual violence. Also, during conflicts, sexual violence was perpetrated by all sides making it hard for countries to make allegations of the crimes against other countries. Moreover, sexual violence was accepted as an inevitable reality in areas of conflict. With constant conflicts and warfare, the unfortunate fate was accepted by the general public and appropriate measures weren't taken to resolve this issue. In the 1940s, sexual matter weren't discussed openly, giving no opportunity nor pressure to initiate movements against sexual violence in conflict zones. In recent years, the United Nations and member states begun to act towards resolving and reconsidering the issue of sexual violence during conflicts in the past.

Sexual violence was often used as a weapon of war in ethnic cleansing. In case of historical genocides, groups have targeted other groups or ethnic through sexual attacks on the female members. In April 1992, more than 20,000 Muslim girls and women were raped in Bosnia according to a European Community fact-finding team. Teenage girls have been the primary target and victims were forced to bear the child when they became pregnant due to sexual violence. During the Rwandan Genocide in 1994, over half a million women were raped, sexually mutilated, or murdered over the course of 100 days. Nearly every adolescent girl who survived an attack were subsequently raped. Such act of mass sexual violence against Rwandan women and girls was conducted with the intent of destroying the Tutsi ethnic group. The act of mass rape during warfare to destruct a particular ethnic group was found to be an act of genocidal rape. Many victims became pregnant but forced to continue their pregnancies resulting in an estimated 2,000 to 10,000 babies being born as a result of forced sexual rape. Many victims that became pregnant were also ostracized by their families and the community. To make matters worse, two-thirds of the victims were tested positive for HIV, a sexually transmitted disease. The assailants deliberately transmitted HIV virus, destroyed the reproductive capabilities of women, and conducted sexual mutilation with the purpose of destroying of ethnic group through a slow and inexorable death. Victims were psychologically destroyed, which caused them to experience trauma or commit suicide.

Multiple cases of sexual violence had occurred during World War II. Sexual violence occurred in a range of situations, situations including institutionalized sexual slavery to war rapes associated with specific battles. Examples include the crime of thousands of Asian women and girls being forced into military sexual slavery by the Japanese Army. These women are known as comfort women. The military forced women from other Asian countries towards sexual violence with the purpose of encouraging the spirit of the soldiers and stabilizing their psychology in preparation of the long war. Along that time, the military of the United States of America raped Okinawa women during a specific battle, the Battle of Okinawa, in 1945 with the purpose of winning the battle. Furthermore, throughout Europe, multiple incidents of sexual violence were conducted by participating countries such as the United Kingdom, Germany, and France, with the method ranging from mass rapes to ethnic rapes. German troops committed rape on Jewish women and girls during the invasion of Poland with the purpose of destructing an ethnic group. As seen from the historical cases of conflict-related sexual violence, almost all countries involved in con-

flict committed sexual violence of some sort, which exemplified the importance of combatting this issue for the peace and safety of the international community.

### Post-sexual violence in conflict zones

Experiencing sexual violence in areas of conflict creates enormous negative effects on the victim. Negative effects includes short and long term physical, social, and psychological consequences toward the victim. Examples of negative effects are extreme distress, PTSD, and suicide. Such consequences occur because most victims are left alone without any actions being taken. This situation is especially common in conflict zones where victims are isolated and cannot receive any help. In fact, cases of sexual violence in conflict zones are barely reported due to fear and lack of trust towards the government. With multiple unrecorded case of violence, governments, organizations, and the United Nations face difficulty in keeping record of accurate statistics which limits their ability to effectively formulate actions and methods to tackle this issue.

## Major Countries and Organizations Involved

### Central Africa

Central Africa is a region that accounts for the most incidents of sexual violence in recent years. Central African countries that frequently commit sexual violence include Central African Republic (CAR), Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Somalia, Sudan, and Uganda and this is a serious threat that alarms the international community. In these countries, sexual violence is used to threaten civilians and in order to intensify such terror, many victims are raped in front of their families and friends. The problem is that these countries lack medical care to prevent HIV transmission resulting in even worse consequences. Out of the Central African countries, the DRC is known as the “Rape Capital of the World.” Sexual violence in DRC has greatly increased since the armed conflict in the 1990s. A 2010 study stated that 22% of men and 30% of women in DRC reported of experiencing conflict related sexual violence. Also, according to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), approximately 11,800 sexual violence acts were recorded in 2014 in DRC alone and 40% were directly related to armed conflict. In DRC, the government spreads fear of sexual violence amongst civilians to force them into labor in mining areas. Furthermore, in 2016, the UN Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) reported approximately 600 conflict related sexual violence in Sudan. This shows the seriousness of the issue of sexual violence in armed conflict, especially for countries in Central Africa.

### United Nations Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict (UN Action)

The United Nations Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict (UN Action) works to prevent every form of gender based violence, including sexual violence in areas of conflict. It aims to collaborate the 13 UN entities to improve coordination, enhance programs, and support national efforts to prevent and protect any types of sexual violence in conflict zones worldwide. To address the issue of sexual violence,

UN Action deepens its partnership with Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and actively works toward the issue.

### United Nations Peacekeepers

The United Nations Peacekeepers were formed in order to quell political and sexual violence worldwide. However, peacekeepers that were sent to CAR committed 100 incidences of rape towards women and girls in CAR. The UN had initiated such organization to combat sexual violence in combat zones but failed to achieve that goal and instead stimulated it through the peacekeepers.

### United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) aims to improve reproductive health, including movements against child marriage, female genital mutilation, and sexual violence that causes forced pregnancy. The UNFPA supports programs in more than 150 countries and is active in promoting healthy reproductive health.

## Timeline of Events

Date	Description of event
Antiquity	The Greek and Roman armies engaged in war rape by using young boys of the defeated side for homosexual intercourse
Middle Ages	The Vikings acquired a reputation for “rape and pillage”. Female slavery and sexual violence was common during the medieval Arab slave trade.
1662	After the Dutch were expelled from Taiwan in 1662, the Chinese sexually enslaved Dutch women
1899-1901	During the Boxer rebellion, the Western Forces which includes Japan, Russia, the British Empire, France, the US, Germany, Italy, and AustriaHungary, killed, looted, and raped Chinese civilians
December 13th, 1937	Japanese soldiers sexually assaulted females trapped in the city of Nanjing during the Nanking Massacre
September, 1939	German soldiers committed rape on Jewish women and girls during the invasion of Poland
1945	The military of the United States raped 1,336 Japanese women during the Battle of Okinawa
December 14th, 1974	Adoption of first resolution on combatting sexual violence in conflict zones by the General Assembly
1994	During the Rwanda genocide, approximately one million women and girls, especially Tutsi women, became victims of sexual violence

June 19th, 2008      Adoption of UN Security Council resolution 1920 on sexual violence in conflict zones

## Relevant UN Treaties and Events

As combatting sexual violence in areas of conflict is an ongoing issue that needs serious attention, the United Nations has recently posted several reports and passed several resolutions regarding this issue. Resolutions were reported from the Security Council, Human Rights Council, and General Assembly which shows how the issue of sexual violence in conflict zones still remains a problem to the international community. Here follows a list of those reports and resolutions.

- [UN Secretary General report on conflict related sexual violence, 23 March 2015 \(S/2015/203\)](#)
- [Resolution on accelerating efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women: ensuring due diligence in prevention, 18 June 2010 \(A/HRC/RES/14/12\)](#)
- [Resolution on demanding complete halt to acts of sexual violence against civilians in conflict zones, 19 June 2008 \(S/RES/1820\)](#)
- [Resolution on the declaration on the protection of women and children in emergency and armed conflict, 14 December 1974 \(A/RES/29/3318\)](#)

## Previous Attempts to solve the Issue

Many attempts have been taken to address sexual violence during armed conflict. For a long time, the international community have failed to recognize the problem of sexual violence during armed conflict. Finally, the United Nations had realized the seriousness of this issue in the early 1990s in that such actions violate the international human rights and humanitarian law. Thus, the United Nations has developed and is still developing programs and organizations to combat this issue. However, not all attempts turned out to be successful. The UN sent peacekeepers to Central African Republic but instead of resolving the issue, it was later discovered that 100 victims became subject of rape by UN peacekeepers. Despite a number of failures, the UN continues to fight against sexual violence in conflict zones through ways such as commemorating June 19th as the International Day for the Elimination of Sexual Violence in Conflict in 2015. The UN hopes the international day will raise awareness on the need to end sexual violence in conflict zones and urge the international community to take action towards resolving this issue.

Member nations continue to work toward resolving this issue by participating in a global summit to end sexual violence in conflict. Held in London, the summit brought together 1700 delegates and 129

country representatives to discuss methods of ending conflict-related sexual violence. The meeting evaluated a wide range of issues, including prevention of sexual violence for men, women, and children.

Furthermore, the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) organized security patrols and fence camps to relocate vulnerable women to safer areas, away from possible sexual violence. Victims that were ostracized were also moved to safety camps and were given priorities in resettlement. The UNHCR created formal guidelines for preventing sexual violence in fence camps and trained security patrols to support the victims during their stay. In fact, the UNHCR, along with the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) are promoting reproductive health services to support women affected by armed conflict.

## Possible Solutions

In order to effectively combat sexual violence in areas of conflict, it's important for the international community to work together in formulating solutions or sharing statistics on instances of sexual violence. Member nations could possibly establish a decision making mechanism or enhance negotiations through collaborative management and creation of resolutions. Prevention measures should be implemented by member nations through local, state, and national policies and organizational practices. Also, member nations could raise public awareness on the importance of tackling sexual violence in conflict zones and teach effective ways to prevent sexually abusive behaviors when confronted by a situation where the person faces the threat of sexual violence. In order to further combat this issue, sophisticated research could be conducted with the collaborative effort of member nations to detect new prevention strategies and reinforce existing methods tackling conflict-related sexual violence. Member states could create a committee of experts, specialists, and representatives from relevant NGOs, United Nations Organizations (UNO's), and other organizations to develop strategies monthly (or any time period).

Furthermore, post-sexual violence should be tackled through methods that can also resolve long term consequences that such violence created. Physical and psychological health care should be provided by the UN, member nations, and NGOs as victims are usually incapable of overcoming such trauma without sufficient care. Such comprehensive aid and care should be given primarily to the victims of the crime, but also to their families and friends in order to prevent post-sexual violence consequences such as suicide and PTSD. Educating and increasing the health quality of the victims is essential in order to help the victims transition and integrate back into society with ease.

The UN could conduct annual checking on the national military and police doctrine to ensure those forces are acting in accordance with the international law. Also the UN could collaborate with the UNHRC and enhance the living conditions and safety of fence camps created for resettlement of victims of sexual violence in conflict zones. Such measures are significant as there are limitations toward organizing camps worldwide through only one institution.

## Bibliography

"ATSA." Sexual Violence Prevention Fact Sheet | ATSA. N.p., n.d. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<http://www.atsa.com/sexual-violence-prevention-fact-sheet>>.

"Fight against Sexual Violence in Conflict Reaches 'New Juncture', Security Council Told | Meetings Coverage and Press Releases." United Nations. United Nations, 15 Apr. 2015. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<http://www.un.org/press/en/2015/sc11862.doc.htm>>.

"RAINN." Victims of Sexual Violence: Statistics. N.p., n.d. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <<https://www.rainn.org/statistics/victims-sexual-violence>>.

"Sexual Violence." How Is Sexual Violence Defined? N.p., n.d. Web. 12 Aug. 2017. <[http://www.who.int/violence\\_injury\\_prevention/violence/global\\_campaign/en/chap6.pdf](http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/global_campaign/en/chap6.pdf)>.

## Appendix or Appendices

I. Reports submitted by / transmitted by the Secretary-General to the Security Council in 2015

<http://www.un.org/en/sc/documents/sgreports/2015.shtml>

II. The 14th session of the Human Rights Council: Resolutions, decisions and President's statements

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/HRC/RegularSessions/Session14/Pages/ResDecStat.aspx>

<b>Forum:</b>	General Assembly 1st Committee (International Security & Disarmament)
<b>Issue:</b>	Preventing the acquisition by terrorists of radioactive/bio hazardous/chemical sources
<b>Student Officer:</b>	Alice Hu
<b>Position:</b>	Deputy Chair

---

## Introduction

Unbeknownst to most, nuclear weapons only account for one out of four categories of the weapons of mass destruction (WMDs). The other three, categorized as chemical, biological, and radiological (CBR) weapons are at risk of malicious use by non-state actors. As business magnate Bill Gates puts it, bioterrorism could one day be more deadly than nuclear war. Biological warfare possessions that were once permitted to a limited number of nations are now open to small non-state actors with limited resources and skills. Gates warns that a resulting pandemic is one of the most deadly threats faced by today's population, yet "governments are complacent about the scale of the risk". If the world does not assess the destructive extent that bioterrorism poses, there will be no preparation to face the threat. The same principles apply to chemical and radiological terrorism, which pose equally disastrous results for different reasons. ISIS, as well as al-Qaeda and its regional affiliates, have demonstrated the intent to develop and use chemical weapons. Colonel Ryan Dillon, a spokesperson for the US-led military coalition in Iraq and Syria, notes that "we have seen ISIS use low-grade chemical agents in the past. We know ISIS is willing to use chemical weapons. This is not something we want to see them get good at." Radiological sources, which are difficult to track, have also gained international attention. In 2012, radioactive sources were introduced to the agenda of the Nuclear Security Summits, where the importance of ensuring non-malicious uses of radiological sources was emphasized. Yet in 2015, up to 10 grams of iridium-192 were stolen from an Iraqi storage facility in Iraq. The material was later recovered, but in response a letter signed by 35 Nobel laureates urged world leaders "to devote the necessary resources to make further substantial progress ...in preventing nuclear and radiological terrorism." Undoubtedly, the acquisition of CBR sources by terrorists will have disastrous results for worldwide security, public health, and international peace.

## Definition of Key Terms

### Terrorism

The international community and the United Nations (UN) have never agreed upon an universal definition of terrorism due to differing positions about the use of violence in the context of conflicts over national liberation and self-determination making it impossible to conclude a Comprehensive Convention on International Terrorism that incorporates an universally accepted criminal law definition of terrorism. However, it is worthy to note that since 1994, the UN General Assembly has condemned multiple acts of terrorism using the following political description: “[c]riminal acts intended or calculated to provoke a state of terror in the general public, a group of persons or particular persons for political purposes are in any circumstance unjustifiable, whatever the considerations of a political, philosophical, ideological, racial, ethnic, religious or any other nature that may be invoked to justify them.”

### Weapons of mass destruction (WMDs)

Though the scope and usage of the term has evolved and often been disputed, a WMD is traditionally defined as “any weapon that can kill and bring significant harm to a large number of humans or cause great damage to human-made structures, natural structures, or the biosphere”. Originally a term coined to reference World War II aerial bombing with chemical explosives, WMDs have come to refer to large-scale weaponry of other technologies, including chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN).

### Nuclear weapons

A nuclear weapon is an explosive device that derives power from nuclear reactions and releases large quantities of energy, classifying as a WMD. However, nuclear weapons will not be considered in this report.

### Radioactive/biological/chemical sources

Other forms of WMDs are referred as CBRs. A chemical weapon utilizes chemicals formulated to inflict harm or death on humans. A biological weapon is a bacterium, virus, protozoan, parasite, fungus, or even a biological toxin purposely used to adversely affect human health. A radiological weapon, according to the US Department of defense, is “any device, other than a nuclear explosive device, specifically designed to [spread] radioactive material by disseminating it to cause destruction, damage, or injury...” It is well known that chemical and radiological weapons have limited destructive potential, whereas biological weapons have distinct ability to cause harm to a large population with very small amounts of material.

### Radiological/biological/chemical warfare

CBR warfare is the deliberate use of any of the respective agents with the intent to kill or incapacitate humans, animals, or plants as an act of war. The use of these WMDs, which are deployed primarily for their explosive, kinetic, or incendiary potential, has become prohibited under customary international humanitarian law and international treaties.

## Background Information

### Effects of radiological/biological/chemical sources

#### *Radiological*

As previously mentioned, radiological sources are any substance that emits harmful radiation. Ionizing radiation has the potential to harm and damage cells, and when exposed to large amounts (acute exposure), it can cause both immediate and delayed effects, such as cancer or even death. In addition, long-term exposure (chronic exposure) to low levels of radiation can also be harmful and often undetectable. These sources can be a result of industrial waste or nuclear explosions.

Radiological weapons cannot be characterized as a true nuclear weapon, as radioactive sources do not yield the same explosive power. Common radiological weapons, such as “dirty bombs” that combine radioactive material with conventional explosives, are often used to contaminate large areas around the dispersal agent with radioactive material in order to serve primarily as an area denial device against civilians. However, past radiological incidents predict the harmful consequences of radiological contamination, but also realize how fatal even very small amounts of radioactive substance can be. The concern similarly brings in question the risk of terrorists using powdered alpha-emitting material, that can pose a serious health risk if ingested.

#### *Biological*

Biological warfare includes the use of living organisms, replicating entities (such as viruses), and insects. Biological weapons may be employed in various ways to gain a strategic advantage and can be used as area denial weapons. These agents may be lethal or non-lethal, depending on the agent used. Anthrax, botulism, plague, smallpox, and tularaemia are the pathogens most commonly used in past events of biological terrorism and warfare. The use of toxins produced by living organisms is also prohibited under the provisions of the Biological Weapons Convention (BWC) and the Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC). As a result, if nation states or non-national groups develop, acquire, stockpile, or deploy such weapons, it may also be considered bioterrorism. Previous incidents give projections of safety measures when dealing with such biological threat exposure. Most models of anthrax epidemics indicate that more than 80% of an exposed population could be safely treated before becoming symptomatic by making health data available to local public health officials.

#### *Chemical*

Similarly to the use of biological weapons, the use of chemical weapons in warfare is prohibited and considered as a war crime under the CWC. However, toxic chemicals and/or their precursors are utilized globally in industries, making them extremely susceptible to acquisition by terrorists or manufacture by nation-states. Chemical weapons are, therefore, the most widely available WMDs. According to the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW), toxic

chemicals are defined as “any chemical which through its chemical action on life processes can cause death, temporary incapacitation or permanent harm to humans or animals.” The production of certain toxic chemicals with no legitimate peaceful uses, such as sarin, is banned. However, determining the threat level of genuine dual-use chemicals, such as chlorine, phosgene, and hydrogen cyanide, is more difficult. Though these chemicals were used during World War I as chemical weapons, they are also key ingredients in numerous commercial products. As a result, the OPCW and the CWC are the primary determinants of chemical weapon classification. It should be noted that though the CWC is designed to ensure that toxic chemicals are only produced for purposes unrelated to chemical weapons, chemical technology can be easily misused as the range of things classified as chemical weapons is incredibly broad.

Lethal chemical agents can be extremely volatile and constitute a class of hazardous chemical weapons stockpiled by many nations. Chemical weapons are also notably the first WMDs used in industrialized warfare. Some of the most dangerous are nerve agents, which were widely used during the First World War. The use of deadly nerve agents, such as tabun, sarin, and soman, continued into World War II. Even post-war, both the Soviet and Western governments (e.g. the United States and United Kingdom) put enormous resources and funding into developing chemical and biological weapons. In addition, the use of chemical weapons continued through regional conflicts. There were reports of usage in the Rhodesian counterinsurgency operations, Vietnamese border raids in Thailand, the Iran-Iraq War, the Cuban Intervention in Angola, the Falklands War, and most recently the Syrian Civil War.

### Known acts of biological/chemical/radiological terrorism

The possibility of acquisition increases as individual nations continue to develop their own CBR weapon programs. In the aftermath of the 9/11 World Trade Center attack, several anthrax letters were sent to US government officials and journalists by terrorists. This served as more of a psychological and political impact rather than a true security risk. On the other hand, these weapons could be used in a much more deadly measure. According to a statement by the CIA in 2000, Hamas has pursued the possibility to conduct chemical terrorism. In one case, nails and bolts packed into explosives were soaked in rat poison before being detonated by a Hamas suicide bomber in 2001 at the Ben-Yehuda Street in Jerusalem.

Due to their early developments in history, documented biological and chemical terrorism are far more prevalent than radiological terrorism. However, there remains a demonstrated interest in radiological weapons by terrorists. In 1995, Chechen separatists contacted a Russian TV station and threatened to set off a radiological dispersal device (RDD) using cesium-137. In 2006, Dhiren Barot from North London pleaded guilty of conspiring to a plot involving a radioactive dirty bomb. He planned to target underground car parks in the United Kingdom and buildings in the United States with enough radioactive material to affect about 500 people. Similarly, there have been reports of Al-Qaeda and the Islamic State showing interest in building radiological weapons. While the number of radiological terrorist events is relatively unrivaled to those of biological and chemical, radiological terrorism poses a massive threat to

public health as the effects of radiation are barely detectable. Terrorist organizations may capitalize on the fear of radiation to accomplish the goals of a terrorist organization of destabilizing society.

### *Rajneesh*

Rajneesh perpetrated one of the largest known bioterror attacks in the United States. The group contaminated 10 salad bars in Dalles, Oregon with *Salmonella typhimurium* in an attempt to suppress a county vote. As a result, 751 people fell ill and 45 were hospitalized with Salmonella poisoning. Though there were no deaths resulting from the incident, the fatalities would have increased had the Rajneeshees gone with their original plan of using *Salmonella typhi*, or typhoid fever.

### *Aum Shinrikyo*

Aum Shinrikyo is a Japanese doomsday cult that is formally designated as a terrorist organization by several countries, including Russia, Canada, Kazakhstan, and the United States. The first successful use of chemical agents by terrorists against a general civilian population occurred on June 27, 1994, when Aum Shinrikyo released sarin gas in Matsumoto, Japan, killing eight and harming 200 civilians. On March 20, 1995, the group once again attacked the Tokyo subway system by releasing sarin on five trains. The incident killed twelve people and injured about 5,000 others. The incident is one of the largest planned chemical terrorist plots and is notable because the cult group was using nerve gas produced in its own facilities. Over the following week, the full scale of Aum's activities was discovered. In the cult's headquarters and facilities, the Japanese police found explosives and stockpiles of chemicals that could be used for producing enough sarin to kill four million people. Investigations after this incident also disclosed evidence of a rudimentary biological weapons program. The cult has allegedly attempted three unsuccessful biological attacks in Japan using anthrax and botulinum toxin. In addition, cultures of Ebola virus have been found in the laboratories, hinting that the cult members had attempted to acquire Ebola virus in Zaire during 1992. Until the present time, the full extent of their biological weapons program remains unknown as only fragments of evidence have been made available to the public.

### *Al-Qaeda*

Al-Qaeda first started researching and experimenting with chemical weapons in 1997. The terrorist group tested phosgene, chlorine, and hydrogen cyanide in Afghanistan. During the 2003 US intervention in Iraq, Operation Viking Hammer allowed CIA personnel to inspect a suspected chemical weapons site in Sargat, where it was found to have traces of Ricin and potassium chloride. The American intelligence personnel also discovered chemical weapons suits, atropine nerve gas antidotes, and chemical weapons manuals. Even during the Iraq War, al-Qaeda launched a bombing campaign using chlorine gas, eventually stopping as US and Iraqi forces successfully raided and destroyed much of al-Qaeda's chemical weapons manufacturing facilities.

Following the 9/11 attacks in New York City and Washington DC in the United States, al-Qaeda announced that they were attempting to acquire CBR weapons. Though there is no hard evidence for the possession of a dirty bomb, there is broad agreement that al-Qaeda poses a potential dirty bomb attack threat. Alarming, threats of radiological terrorism from al-Qaeda were raised in 2002 when detailed plans for RDDs were uncovered after the destruction of an al-Qaeda training camp in Afghanistan.

### *Islamic State (IS)*

The Islamic State is believed to have obtained chemical weapons left over from Ba'athist Iraqi stockpiles and undeclared Syrian stockpiles. The terrorist group is also believed to have formed a special unit for chemical weapons research and manufacture, allowing them to possess chlorine and low-grade sulphur mustard. According to some sources, the IS has used chemical weapons against military personnel and civilians at least 52 times in Iraq and Syria since 2014. On June 28, 2015, IS fired makeshift chemical projectiles at Kurdish YPG positions and in general areas during the Battle of al-Hasakah. On another account, 35 Kurdish fighters were wounded in a chemical attack whilst fighting IS terrorists near Erbil on August 2015. And on March 12, 2016, IS launched a chemical attack on the town of Taza, wounding up to 600 people. Since January 2016, the US-led coalition has been targeting the group's chemical weapons infrastructure with airstrikes and special operations raids. According to multiple sources, IS fighters are in possession of chemical weapons in areas under their control in Raqqa, Syria. More recently on August 2017, two men have been arrested in connection with an alleged dual-terror plot to bring down a passenger plane and to unleash a poison gas attack in Australia. According to Australian authorities, the two men, suspected to be linked to the IS, have attempted to create an "improvised chemical dispersion device" to release hydrogen sulfide.

Like al-Qaeda, IS may also be interested in building a RDD, though there has been no evidence to support this. Notably, IS has shown an interest in acquiring and manufacturing nonconventional weapons and sources. On June 2014, IS overran Mosul University and reportedly gained access to 40kg of nuclear materials from the school's laboratories. Concerns were raised that these materials may be used in an RDD, and a surveillance tape after the November 2015 Paris bombings seemed to confirm that IS is interested in building a dirty bomb. Their motivations to construct these devices appear to be an utilization of a terror-inducing agent.

## **Major Countries and Organizations Involved**

### **Syrian Arab Republic**

The Syrian government has long been known for its alleged use of chemical weapons on its own civilians. Though the OPCW has confirmed the removal and destruction of Syrian chemical weapon stockpiles under international supervision in 2014, experts from the United Nations found traces of dead-

ly nerve agents, such as sarin and VX, used to make chemical weapons at a site in Syria in 2015. The discovery renewed fears that Syria did not disclose all aspects of its chemical weapons program when it joined the CWC in 2013. As a result, IS fighters likely have access to chemical precursors and manufactured chemical weapons from leftover Syrian stockpiles. In addition, US intelligence believes that the IS is bringing together experts on chemical weapons from Iraq and Syria into a new “chemical weapons cell”.

### United States of America

After the 9/11 terrorist attacks and anthrax letters that followed, the US began to urgently pursue nonproliferation measures that delegitimize chemical and biological weapons. The threats posed by national CBR programs and terrorists using CBR weapons were no longer seen as separate problems. Thus, US pursued an active policy to complicate the efforts of both nations and terrorist groups to acquire CBR weapons, usually through conducting airstrikes and special operation raids in susceptible countries. Conversely, the US views national biological and chemical weapons programs as an indirect threat, noting that they are a possible source of CBR weapons expertise and materials to other national or terrorist groups. The US warns that proliferation and terrorism are interrelated and that countries that seek WMD programs and support international terrorism may assist terrorists in getting CBR weapons. As an example, the US-led coalition began targeting chemical weapon facilities of the Islamic State in Iraq and Syria, clearing the sites through special operations raids and airstrikes. The US has also expressed its concern over terrorist groups’ increased interest in manufacturing radiological weapons.

### Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW)

The OPCW is the implementing body of the CWC and as of today has 192 member states. The OPCW and its signatories seek to work together to achieve a world free of chemical weapons. The OPCW is in charge of inspections at all chemical weapons destruction facilities in order to verify the success of destruction. It also manages the amounts being destroyed and inspects industrial activities of member states. As of now, Egypt, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK), and South Sudan are the only member states that have neither signed nor acceded to the CWC.

### United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

The UNODC is mandated “to provide assistance to requesting member states on legal and criminal justice aspects of countering terrorism”. As a result, the UNODC has constructed a module on offences related to chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN) terrorism aimed to promote implementation of legal instruments dealing with CBRN terrorism.

## Timeline of Events

Date	Description of event
------	----------------------

April 22 <sup>nd</sup> , 1915	The Second Battle of Ypres was the first successful use of poison gas as a weapon of warfare during World War I. Poisonous gas was later used as a crucial weapon during both World Wars.
June 17 <sup>th</sup> , 1925	The Geneva Protocol grew out of public disapproval of the usage of chemical weapons following World War I's use of mustard gas and similar agents. It is considered an addition to the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907, which were the first formal statements of the laws of war and war crimes in the body of secular international law. The Protocol has since been augmented by the BWC and the CWC as additions.
April 10 <sup>th</sup> , 1972	The Biological Weapons Convention (BWC), which prohibits the development, production, and stockpiling of biological and toxin weapons, was created and signed.
January 13 <sup>th</sup> , 1993	The Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC), which prohibits the use, development, production, stockpiling and transfer of chemical weapons, was created and signed.
June 27 <sup>th</sup> , 1994	Aum Shinrikyo released sarin gas in Matsumoto Japan, marking the first successful use of chemical agents with the agenda to terrorize.
March 20 <sup>th</sup> , 1995	Aum Shinrikyo attacks the Tokyo subway system in five coordinated attacks by releasing sarin on three lines of the present-day Tokyo Metro.
November 1995	The first attempt of radiological terror was carried out by a group of Chechen rebels, who contacted a Russian radio station threatening to activate a cesium-137 source wrapped in explosives at the Izmaylovsky Park in Moscow. The event was later noted as a publicity stunt, rather than a true security risk.
September 28 <sup>th</sup> , 2001	United Nations Security Council Resolution 1373 ( <b>S/RES/1373</b> ), a counter-terrorism measure passed following the 9/11 terrorist attacks, was adopted unanimously. The possibility of terrorists accessing WNDs is considered in paragraph 3a and 4.
April 28 <sup>th</sup> , 2004	United Nations Security Council Resolution 1540 ( <b>S/RES/1540</b> ) establishes the obligations under Chapter VII of the UN Charter to develop and enforce appropriate legal and regulatory measures against the proliferation of CBRN weapons and their means of delivery. The resolution notably recognizes non-state proliferation as a threat to peace under the terms of the UN Charter.
December 8 <sup>th</sup> , 2005	United Nations General Assembly Resolution 60/73 ( <b>A/RES/60/73</b> ) was passed to stress the importance of preventing the risk of radiological terrorism.
April 25 <sup>th</sup> , 2008	United Nations Security Council Resolution 1810 ( <b>S/RES/1810</b> ) was created as a followup to Resolution ( <b>S/RES/1540</b> ) and requires all states that have not yet presented a first report to the 1540 Committee to do so without delay.

August 4<sup>th</sup>, 2017

Two men, suspected to be linked to the IS, were arrested for planning an alleged dual-terror plot to bring down a passenger plane and to unleash an improvised chemical dispersion device in Australia.

## Relevant UN Treaties and Events

- [Geneva Protocol, 17 June 1925](#)
- [Biological Weapons Convention \(BWC\), 10 April 1972](#)
- [Chemical Weapons Convention \(CWC\), 13 January 1993](#)
- [United Nations Security Council Resolution 1373, 28 September 2001 \(S/RES/1373\)](#)
- [United Nations Security Council Resolution 1540, 28 April 2004 \(S/RES/1540\)](#)
- [United Nations General Assembly Resolution 60/73, 8 December 2005 \(A/RES/60/73\)](#)
- [United Nations Security Council Resolution 1810, 25 April 2008 \(S/RES/1810\)](#)

## Previous Attempts to solve the Issue

The Geneva Protocol was one of the first comprehensive measures from the UN to respond to a growing concern regarding CBRN usage. Under the Protocol, the use of "asphyxiating, poisonous or other gases, and of all analogous liquids, materials or devices" and "bacteriological methods of warfare" is prohibited. Its single article permanently bans "the use of all forms of chemical and biological warfare". However, it is notable that the use of chemical warfare continued in the second World War, as well as several smaller conflicts, such as the Northern Yemen Civil War, the Iran-Iraq War, and the Persian Gulf War. This is because under the provisions of the Geneva Protocol, the use of chemical and biological weapons is prohibited, but the possession or development of such weapons is not. In need of more concrete measures to control proliferation of chemical and biological weapons, the Biological Weapons Convention (1972) and Chemical Weapons Convention (1993) were created as augmentations to the original Geneva Protocol.

As detailed in the BWC, the production, development, and stockpiling of biological weapons is prohibited under international law. The BWC served as the first multilateral disarmament treaty banning the production of an entire category of weapons. The BWC defines permitted purposes of biological agents and toxins as prophylactic, protective, and other peaceful purposes. In spite of the comprehensive effort outlined in the BWC, the verification mechanism is often faced with compliance issues. Previously, the BWC was amended to strengthen its Confidence Building Measures (CBMs) by suggesting

member states to report annually. Currently, only about half the treaty signatories actually submit these voluntary annual reports. Not to mention, non-signatories, like the DPRK, have been developing their own national biowarfare programs.

Similarly to the BWC, the CWC outlines that the chemical agents themselves are not banned, rather, the certain purposes that these agents may be employed are prohibited. For example, certain chemicals that have been used extensively in warfare are highly regulated and not prohibited due to their numerous large-scale industrial uses. In addition, notable exceptions exist. Chlorine gas, a well known example, is extremely widely used for peaceful purposes in spite of its high toxicity. As mentioned before, though the Syrian government has acceded to the convention as agreement for the destruction of their chemical weapons, there have been reports that Syria still possesses dangerous chemical agents, such as VX and sarin. However, it is worthy to note that as of October 2016, about 93% of the world's declared stockpile of chemical weapons has been destroyed through the process of inspections and shipping to incineration/neutralization sites -- a remarkable progress in a short span of time.

Lastly, the UNSC Resolution 1540 (**S/RES/1540**) is a notable recognition of the threat that non-state CBRN proliferation poses to peace and security. The resolution also expands on the possibility of terrorists accessing WMDs as detailed in Resolution 1373 (**S/RES/1372**). Previous efforts mentioned primarily deal with the use, possession, and development of national CBRN programs. In Resolution 1540, the 1540 Committee was created to oversee the implementation of the resolution and created without the power to impose sanctions. States are then called upon to provide reports and future plans to this committee. It should be noted that though the resolution is obligatory for all members of the UN, the implementation process is based on collaboration and participation rather than enforcement, explaining the deliberate creation of a committee without the power to impose sanctions. Resolution 1810 (**S/RES/1810**) was later created as a followup to the efforts of the 1540 Committee. Furthermore, Resolution 1540 requires criminalization of non-state actor involvement in WMDs and its related activities in member states' domestic legislation. By virtue of its universal scope and mandatory nature -- as it is passed unanimously by the Security Council -- the resolution marks a departure from any previous nonproliferation effort. Resolution 1540 not only establishes universal mandatory obligations, but it introduces the prevention of the spread of WMDs to non-state actors.

## Possible Solutions

As one may notice from the previous section, there are comprehensive efforts to deal with the proliferation of chemical and biological weapons, but very few deal specifically with radiological weapon proliferation. In addition, preventing the flow of CBR weapons to non-state actors is correlated with the development of countries' own CBR programs. In order to strengthen the prevention mechanism, detection methods and enhanced checks should be implemented to increase the security of access to such weapons. Enhancing tracking and accounting methods for these weapons is a secure way to prevent the acquisition of dangerous CBR sources by terrorists. Instead of creating new regulations and measures, another solution may be to work with existing treaties and resolutions, such as those detailed in the pre-

vious section, to bolster the CBM nature of these regulations. Furthermore, the broad scope of the definitions of the CBR weapons may require modifications as new technology is developed. Note that the issue is about preventing rather than responding to CBR terrorism, and so the scope of the issue should focus primarily on solutions regarding prevention measures. It is important to know that in order to provide holistic approaches resolve the issue, specific solutions and meticulous research should be done regarding the nature of CBR weapons in order to reduce the accessibility of these weapons to non-state actors like terrorists.

## Bibliography

Barnett 1, 2, Daniel J, et al. "Understanding Radiologic and Nuclear Terrorism as Public Health Threats: Preparedness and Response Perspectives." *Journal of Nuclear Medicine, Society of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging*, 1 Oct. 2006, [www.jnm.snmjournals.org/content/47/10/1653.full](http://www.jnm.snmjournals.org/content/47/10/1653.full).

Bell, Larry. "Bioterrorism: A Dirty Little Threat With Huge Potential Consequences." *Forbes, Forbes Magazine*, 21 July 2013, [www.forbes.com/sites/larrybell/2013/07/21/bioterrorism-a-dirty-little-threat-with-huge-potential-consequences/#41eef39d1609](http://www.forbes.com/sites/larrybell/2013/07/21/bioterrorism-a-dirty-little-threat-with-huge-potential-consequences/#41eef39d1609).

"Chemical Weapons: A History from Passchendaele to Syria." *The Week UK, The Week Ltd*, 31 July 2017, [www.theweek.co.uk/87315/chemical-weapons-a-history-from-passchendaele-to-syria](http://www.theweek.co.uk/87315/chemical-weapons-a-history-from-passchendaele-to-syria).

Cottee, Simon. "The Islamic State's Shock-and-Bore Terrorism." *Foreign Policy, The FP Group*, 27 July 2017, [www.foreignpolicy.com/2017/07/27/islamic-state-shock-and-bore-terrorism-al-qaeda-9-11/](http://www.foreignpolicy.com/2017/07/27/islamic-state-shock-and-bore-terrorism-al-qaeda-9-11/).

Farmer, Ben. "Bioterrorism Could Kill More People than Nuclear War, Bill Gates to Warn World Leaders." *The Telegraph, Telegraph Media Group*, 17 Feb. 2017, [www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/02/17/biological-terrorism-could-kill-people-nuclear-attacks-bill/](http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/02/17/biological-terrorism-could-kill-people-nuclear-attacks-bill/).

Farmer, Ben. "Chemical Terrorist Attack 'Huge Concern' Says London Fire Chief." *The Telegraph, Telegraph Media Group*, 6 Jan. 2017, [www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/01/06/chemical-terrorist-attack-huge-concern-says-london-fire-chief/](http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/01/06/chemical-terrorist-attack-huge-concern-says-london-fire-chief/).

Feldman, Allison, and Charles D. Ferguson. "Nuclear & Radiological Terrorism." *Federation Of American Scientists, Federation Of American Scientists*, [www.fas.org/issues/nuclear-and-radiological-terrorism/](http://www.fas.org/issues/nuclear-and-radiological-terrorism/).

Foy, Hubert. "Radiological Terrorism: The Unaddressed Threat." *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists, Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists*, 31 May 2016, [www.thebulletin.org/what-path-nuclear-security-beyond-2016-summit/radiological-terrorism-unaddressed-threat](http://www.thebulletin.org/what-path-nuclear-security-beyond-2016-summit/radiological-terrorism-unaddressed-threat).

Hagby, Moti, et al. "Health Implications of Radiological Terrorism: Perspectives from Israel." *Journal of Emergencies, Trauma and Shock, Medknow Publications*, 2009, [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2700597/](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2700597/).

Harris, Elisa D. “Chemical and Biological Weapons: Prospects and Priorities after September 11.” Brookings, The Brookings Institution, 1 June 2002, [www.brookings.edu/articles/chemical-and-biological-weapons-prospects-and-priorities-after-september-11/](http://www.brookings.edu/articles/chemical-and-biological-weapons-prospects-and-priorities-after-september-11/).

“IAEA Welcomes US New Global Threat Reduction Initiative.” IAEA, IAEA, 26 May 2004, [www.iaea.org/newscenter/news/iaea-welcomes-us-new-global-threat-reduction-initiative](http://www.iaea.org/newscenter/news/iaea-welcomes-us-new-global-threat-reduction-initiative).

Loria, Kevin. “Everything We Know about North Korea's Bioweapons Program.” Business Insider, Business Insider, 26 July 2017, [www.businessinsider.com/north-korea-biological-warfare-bioweapons-program-2017-7](http://www.businessinsider.com/north-korea-biological-warfare-bioweapons-program-2017-7).

McKirdy, Euan. “Foiled Plot to Blow up Plane, Unleash Gas Revealed in Australia.” CNN, Cable News Network, 5 Aug. 2017, [www.edition.cnn.com/2017/08/03/asia/australia-plane-terror-plot-isis/index.html](http://www.edition.cnn.com/2017/08/03/asia/australia-plane-terror-plot-isis/index.html).

Peter D. Zimmerman, James M. Acton and M. Brooke Rogers. “How to Stop Radiation Terrorism.” The New York Times, The New York Times, 1 Aug. 2007, [www.nytimes.com/2007/08/01/opinion/01iht-edz-immer.1.6936616.html](http://www.nytimes.com/2007/08/01/opinion/01iht-edz-immer.1.6936616.html).

Press Association. “Isis Would Use Chemical Weapons in Attack on UK, Says Minister.” The Guardian, Guardian News and Media, 1 Jan. 2017, [www.theguardian.com/world/2017/jan/01/isis-chemical-weapons-attack-uk-ben-wallace](http://www.theguardian.com/world/2017/jan/01/isis-chemical-weapons-attack-uk-ben-wallace).

Raczova, Orsolya. “Forget Nuclear. Chemical Weapons Are the Real WMD Threat.” Global Risk Insights, Global Risk Insights LLP, 3 Mar. 2017, [www.globalriskinsights.com/2017/03/chemical-terrorism-credible-threat/](http://www.globalriskinsights.com/2017/03/chemical-terrorism-credible-threat/).

“Radiological Terrorism.” Radiological Terrorism, National Child Traumatic Stress Network, 19 May 2010, [www.nctsn.org/trauma-types/terrorism/radiological](http://www.nctsn.org/trauma-types/terrorism/radiological).

Riedel, Stefan. “Biological Warfare and Bioterrorism: a Historical Review.” US National Library of Medicine, Baylor Health Care System, Oct. 2004, [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1200679/](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1200679/).

Thuras, Dylan. “The Largest Bioterror Attack in U.S. History Began at This Salsa Bar.” Slate Magazine, Atlas Obscura, 9 Jan. 2014, [www.slate.com/blogs/atlas\\_obscura/2014/01/09/the\\_largest\\_bioterror\\_attack\\_in\\_us\\_history\\_began\\_at\\_taco\\_time\\_in\\_the\\_dalles.html](http://www.slate.com/blogs/atlas_obscura/2014/01/09/the_largest_bioterror_attack_in_us_history_began_at_taco_time_in_the_dalles.html).

Warrick, Joby, and Loveday Morris. “How ISIS Nearly Stumbled on the Ingredients for a 'Dirty Bomb'.” The Washington Post, WP Company, 22 July 2017, [www.washingtonpost.com/world/national-security/how-isis-nearly-stumbled-on-the-ingredients-for-a-dirty-bomb/2017/07/22/6a966746-6e31-11e7-b9e2-2056e768a7e5\\_story.html?utm\\_term=.9c2a41710fcd](http://www.washingtonpost.com/world/national-security/how-isis-nearly-stumbled-on-the-ingredients-for-a-dirty-bomb/2017/07/22/6a966746-6e31-11e7-b9e2-2056e768a7e5_story.html?utm_term=.9c2a41710fcd).

## Appendix or Appendices

- (i) <https://www.opcw.org/about-chemical-weapons/what-is-a-chemical-weapon/>

- (ii) <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1198743X14641744>
- (iii) <http://www.washingtoninstitute.org/policy-analysis/view/the-potential-for-radiological-terrorism-by-al-qaeda-and-the-islamic-state>
- (iv) [https://www.unodc.org/documents/terrorism/for%20web%20stories/1-WS%20CBRN%206%20modules/CBRN\\_module\\_-\\_E.pdf](https://www.unodc.org/documents/terrorism/for%20web%20stories/1-WS%20CBRN%206%20modules/CBRN_module_-_E.pdf)