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DISEC



STUDY GUIDE

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MANDATE OF THE COMMITTEE

One of the most important organizations in the UN is the Disarmament and International Security Committee (DISEC), which handles important matters pertaining to disarmament, international peace, and security. Its fundamental goal is to preserve global stability by reducing the hazards posed by arms and military operations that can spark hostilities. DISEC offers a forum for talking about ways to stop wars, make sure that international agreements are followed, and create thorough frameworks for arms control. In order to combat problems like nuclear proliferation, regional instability, terrorism, and the increasing militarization of domains like cyberspace and outer space, the committee encourages international cooperation.

The work of DISEC includes not just responding to current threats but also working to avert future hostilities. The committee's goal is to pinpoint the root causes of violence and insecurity, which include territorial disputes, resource competition, and economic inequality. It acknowledges the relationship that exists between disarmament and more general environmental, socioeconomic, and geopolitical problems. Through promoting international communication, DISEC opens doors for joint solutions to armed conflicts, aiding in the disarmament of adversaries and the management of international security for the good of all parties involved.

Apart from these duties, DISEC is dedicated to maintaining international law, making sure that states' military actions follow the guidelines outlined in the UN Charter. The committee also examines accords, conventions, and treaties that deal with the spread of weapons, the use of force, and governments' responsibilities to uphold the peace. DISEC collaborates with other UN agencies and international groups to make sure that security and disarmament legislative frameworks are still applicable and useful for tackling today's pressing issues.

The main objectives of DISEC are to promote disarmament, restrain the use of force, and improve international cooperation in addressing security-related issues in order to make the world a safer and more peaceful place. The committee often discusses long-term strategies to advance sustainable peace while addressing urgent global concerns. Through its operations, DISEC influences international security policies, ensuring that threats to peace and stability can be cooperatively addressed and reduced by the international community.



INTRODUCTION TO THE TOPIC

Since it highlights the delicate balance between geopolitical tensions, international law, and national security interests, the problem of militarization in unclaimed zones poses a challenge to the international community. Major areas of contention such as space, the high seas, Antarctica, and even cyberspace are examples of unclaimed zones, sometimes known as global commons, which are areas that are outside the borders of any one state. International treaties that support their peaceful usage and shield them from the construction of military bases, weapons testing, and hostile acts have historically regulated these territories.

However, the stakes in these areas rise in tandem with resource shortages and technological progress. The stability of international peace could be threatened by the militarization of these areas, which could lead to conflicts over strategic domination, resource extraction, or control. Moreover, ambiguity is created by the absence of internationally recognized legal frameworks, which makes it harder to control military operations and stop possible escalation. In order to maintain unclaimed zones as places of cooperation rather than conflict, the international community must urgently navigate these difficulties.

This subject brings up important issues regarding the preservation of harmony, the avoidance of belligerent actions, and the development of a binding legal system that takes into account the particular difficulties presented by these frontier regions. In addition to putting the validity of current treaties to the test, the militarization of unclaimed zones necessitates fresh, creative ideas for international government.



KEY TERMS & DEFINITIONS

1. Unclaimed zones:

Geographic areas that are not officially under the sovereignty or jurisdiction of any recognized nation-state or international body. These zones exist outside national boundaries and are not subject to traditional governance structures.

2. Militarization:

The strategic deployment of military personnel, infrastructure, or weaponry in a region, often with the intent of securing control, asserting dominance, or preparing for potential conflicts in contested or unclaimed areas.

3. Demilitarization:

The formal process of removing military forces, prohibiting the construction of military installations, and ceasing military operations in specific areas to maintain neutrality or reduce the risk of conflict.

4. Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZ):

A sea zone prescribed by the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea, where coastal states have exclusive rights to exploit marine resources in their radius of upto 200 nautical miles, which may intersect with issues of militarization in unclaimed maritime areas.

5. Terra Nullius:

A legal principle in international law referring to land that has not been claimed by any sovereign nation or is considered legally uninhabited, making it theoretically available for annexation.

6. Military Buffer Zones:

Designated areas where military activity is restricted or prohibited, often created as a preventive measure to reduce tensions between states over unclaimed or contested territories.



7. *Antarctic Treaty System (ATS):*

An international agreement that preserves Antarctica as a demilitarized zone dedicated to scientific research, serving as a potential model for managing other unclaimed zones.

8. *Outer Space Treaty:*

A key international agreement that regulates activities in outer space, prohibiting the militarization of celestial bodies, with significant implications for unclaimed zones beyond Earth.



HISTORY & BACKGROUND

Early Concepts & Background

The idea of Terra Nullius, or "land belonging to no one," was often used by European nations during the early stages of exploration and empire-building to support territorial claims to deserted or sparsely populated places. This led to the creation of a gray area in international law. Competition over marine routes and unclaimed regions was spurred by the 16th–19th century scramble for resources and strategic superiority. Even though the main purpose of this practice was colonial, it set the stage for later conflicts over unclaimed areas. The struggle for important unclaimed sea channels grew in the 19th century as naval might became an increasingly important component of military might. Since the high seas were considered essential for military operations and trade, a number of countries attempted to formally dominate these areas without formally claiming them. This maritime militarization was a precursor to the larger-scale global militarization that would follow.

Militarisation in the Cold War

a. The Arctic: Because of its geographical position between the US and the USSR, the area grew militarily, with both countries stationing nuclear submarines and developing early warning systems there. Despite not being entirely occupied by any one country, the region was the target of military buildup due to its strategic significance.

b. The High Seas: As both superpowers expanded their naval presence far beyond sovereign borders, the Cold War also saw a rise in military activity in unclaimed maritime areas. Naval blockades and submarine warfare were important tactics, particularly in international waters encircling vital locations like the North Atlantic.



1959: The Antarctic Treaty

The Antarctic Treaty was signed in 1959 to forbid military action in the unclaimed Antarctic territory because of the possibility of war there. By demilitarizing the continent, it made it a tranquil place for scientific study. Being among the first legal frameworks to guarantee that an unclaimed zone would not be used for military purposes made this pact noteworthy.

1967: Outer Space and the Outer Space Treaty

With the 1957 launch of Sputnik, fears of space militarization were aroused, leading to the Space Race. The 1967 Outer Space Treaty, which proclaimed space to be the "province of all mankind," forbade the use of nuclear weapons and other weapons of mass destruction there. Although the majority of weapon stationing in orbit has been prohibited by this convention, the development of military capabilities in space, such as satellite technology and missile defense systems, has not been stopped.

Modern Developments:

In the 21st century, unclaimed zones have become focal points for military buildup due to advancements in technology.

a. The Arctic: The melting of ice caps due to climate change has increased the value of the Arctic by creating new shipping routes and opening up access to undiscovered natural resources like gas and oil. By rebuilding bases from the Soviet era and holding frequent military drills, Russia has strengthened its military presence. There is a new wave of Arctic militarization as a result of other countries, like the United States and Canada, strengthening their military presence in the area.

b. Outer Space: The militarization of space is growing in spite of the Outer Space Treaty. The development of anti-satellite weapons (ASATs) by countries such as China, Russia, and the United States indicates an increasing likelihood of space-based conflicts.



The establishment of the United States Space Force in 2019 underscores the growing emphasis on achieving military superiority in space, an area that is yet mostly ungoverned by extensive global accords.

c. Deep Sea Militarization: The deep sea, regulated in part by the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), is another unclaimed zone of interest. The military potential of undersea cables, communication infrastructure, and untapped resources has prompted nations to deploy naval assets and submarines in deep sea regions.



ROOT CAUSES

Geopolitical Factors:

a. Strategic Rivalries: The militarization of unclaimed territories is greatly influenced by the rivalry between superpowers like China, Russia, and the United States. For instance, according to the Center for Strategic and International Studies, China is expected to increase its military spending from \$230 billion in 2020 to over \$292 billion in 2024. With a direct influence on unclaimed maritime zones, this investment underlines China's goal to exert dominance in the South China Sea and other important areas.

b. National Security Concerns: The Arctic region has witnessed a surge in military activity because of its melting ice caps and newly developed transportation routes, which are considered strategically significant. The Arctic was designated as a "high priority" region by the US Department of Defense in 2021, prompting an increase in military drills and expenditures on Arctic capabilities. Russia committed to protecting its northern borders and expressed concerns about NATO's presence by holding more than 1,000 military drills in the Arctic in 2020.

Economic Factors:

a. Resource Competition: The U.S. Geological Survey estimates that the Arctic has roughly 13% of the world's unexplored oil reserves and 30% of its unknown natural gas reserves. The Arctic states' competing claims as a result of this potential have increased militarization. For example, Russia spent more than \$3 billion modernizing its air defense systems and additional locations in the Arctic between 2016 and 2021.

b. Commerce Paths and Financial Interests: The Northern Sea Route, which hugs the northern coast of Russia, is becoming more and more important for international trade. From 1.3 million tons in 2010 to nearly 33 million tons in 2021, more freight was transported using this route. Russia has responded to this escalation by deploying more armed forces, with the Northern Fleet conducting frequent patrols to safeguard these shipping lanes.



Technological Factors:

a. Advancements in Military Technology: The swift advancement of military technologies, including anti-satellite missiles, drones, and satellites, has facilitated countries' ability to assert their dominance in areas that remain unclaimed. The advancement of technology has reduced the obstacles for military operations in previously considered less accessible places. The situation is made more complicated by the spread of dual-use technologies, which allow technological developments meant for civilian usage to be repurposed for military uses.

b. Military Prowess and Space Exploration: There are now worries about the militarization of space due to the escalating drive for technical dominance. Countries are establishing military initiatives to protect their interests in space as a result of growing concerns that these technological developments could be turned into weapons. The formation of armed forces focused on space operations, such as the U.S. Space Force, reflects the increasing focus on space as a domain of military competition.

Environmental Factors:

a. Changes in Climate: The geopolitical environment is changing as a result of climate change, especially in the Arctic. Once impassable regions become voyaging routes when ice melts, creating rivalry for resources and shipping lanes. As a result, nations seeking to bolster their claims and defend their interests in the area have escalated their military involvement.



CASE STUDIES

The South China Sea

i) Approximately thirty percent of the world's marine traffic is facilitated by the South China Sea, making it an essential maritime corridor. Its possible oil and gas deposits make it strategically important not just for shipping but also for other purposes. An estimated 190 trillion cubic feet of natural gas and 11 billion barrels of oil are thought to be present in the SCS, making it economically essential for the nations that border it.

ii) A number of nations claim different portions of the South China Sea; these include Brunei, Malaysia, the Philippines, China, Vietnam, and Taiwan. With its "nine-dash line," which encircles about 90% of the sea, the Chinese government has substantial territorial claims over the SCS. Many countries dispute this assertion, most notably the Philippines, who filed a case to the Permanent Court of Arbitration in 2013. In 2016, the court ruled against China's claims, stating that they had no legal basis, but China rejected the ruling, further escalating tensions.

iii) Military Presence:

1) Approximately thirty percent of the world's marine traffic is facilitated by the South China Sea, making it an essential maritime corridor. Its possible oil and gas deposits make it strategically important not just for shipping but also for other purposes. An estimated 190 trillion cubic feet of natural gas and 11 billion barrels of oil are thought to be present in the SCS, making it economically essential for the nations that border it. China has made significant financial investments to fortify its South China Sea claims.



The nation has constructed man-made islands with airstrips, radar systems, and military installations. Estimates as of 2021 reveal that China is committed to establishing authority over disputed territory, as seen by the hundreds of navy vessels and more than 60 military aircraft it has stationed there.

2) The United States has increased its military operations in the SCS as part of its strategy to counter China's influence. U.S. Navy vessels conduct freedom of navigation operations (FONOPs), with approximately 10 FONOPs conducted annually to challenge China's territorial claims. These operations are designed to uphold international maritime law and demonstrate U.S. commitment to its allies in the region.

3) Other claimant countries have also responded to the growing militarization. For example, the Philippines has modernized its military, acquiring advanced naval assets, while Vietnam has expanded its coastal defenses and conducted military exercises in response to Chinese actions.

iv) Economic incentive: Many countries—China and Vietnam, in particular—have explored and extracted resources in spite of ongoing border disputes. There have been conflicts and political problems between Vietnam and China as a result of the China National Offshore Oil Corporation (CNOOC) conducting drilling operations in areas that Vietnam claims.

v) Environmental Impact: The development of military facilities and artificial islands has resulted in serious habitat damage and degradation of maritime ecosystems. Concerns over the long-term viability of the biodiversity of the area have been raised by reports that over 50% of the coral reefs in the SCS have been lost as a result of damaging fishing methods and land reclamation initiatives.



Outer Space

i) In the 20th century, space research had its start peacefully when the Soviet Union launched Sputnik 1 in 1957. But space became a possible battlefield for armed confrontation between the US and the USSR during the Cold War very soon. Both countries started building space-based military capabilities by the 1960s, including missile tracking systems and spy satellites. By forbidding the stationing of WMDs in space and stating that space should not be used for national appropriations, the Outer Space Treaty aimed to restrict this competition. It did, however, leave opportunity for traditional military applications, paving the way for further militarization.

ii) For the major world powers, space has grown in importance as a military domain in recent decades. The militarization of this unclaimed area has increased due to the quick development of satellite technology, missile defense systems, and anti-satellite (ASAT) capabilities.

1) United States: With the establishment of the United States Space Force (USSF) in 2019, the United States has taken the lead in militarizing space and ushered in a new age of space operations. The United States makes extensive use of space-based capabilities for global communications, missile detection, surveillance, and other military operations, allocating about \$24 billion annually for these purposes.

2) China: The country has quickly developed its military space capabilities. Concerns were raised internationally after China conducted its first ASAT weapon test in 2007, destroying a weather satellite and producing over 3,000 pieces of space debris. China had established a complete military space program by 2022, employing more than 300 military satellites for reconnaissance and communication.



3) Russia: Russia has maintained its space goals from the Cold War era and is a prominent actor in the military of space. It has carried out several ASAT tests, the most notable of which occurred in 2021 when a missile destroyed an abandoned satellite, resulting in more than 1,500 pieces of debris and a serious risk to space operations. Russia uses sophisticated monitoring networks and missile early-warning systems as part of its strategic military use of space.

iii) Causes of space militarization:

1) Technological Developments: The military potential of space has increased significantly with the development of space-based technology. Satellites are currently essential to modern militaries for information gathering, communication, navigation, and missile defense. As of 2023, the Union of Concerned Scientists estimates that over 2,700 satellites are in orbit around Earth, many of which are used for military purposes.

2) National Security: With the ability to conduct surveillance and track adversary movements from orbit, space has become crucial to maintaining national security. A country's defense capabilities could be severely compromised if it were to lose access to satellites, which are essential for early missile detection.

3) Strategic Control of Unclaimed Space: Since no country is able to claim outer space, it is still primarily ungoverned, creating a competitive environment. Controlling this strategically important unclaimed zone is essential for nations like the United States, China, and Russia in order to maintain military superiority and keep rivals from assuming dominance.

iv) There are significant concerns associated with militarizing space, especially given the space debris produced by ASAT experiments. There are more than 36,000 debris particles bigger than 10 cm in orbit above the Earth as of 2022, which greatly raises the possibility of collisions with satellites that are in operation. Tensions between states can be exacerbated by space debris by taking down important communication and surveillance satellites, which are essential for military operations.



An other noteworthy obstacle is the possibility of disputes intensifying. The possibility of conflict increases as more countries acquire military equipment stationed in orbit. A satellite's disablement in the midst of a geopolitical crisis can be interpreted as an act of war and lead to counterattacks. There are insufficient international norms controlling space militarization, which leads to an unstable security environment.

v) Relevant and Key Treaties:

1) The 1967 Outer Space Treaty, which forbids the stationing of weapons of mass destruction (WMDs) in orbit or on celestial bodies such as the Moon, is the cornerstone of space law. It clearly prohibits any country from asserting dominion over space or celestial bodies and stipulates that space must only be used for peaceful reasons. Although it limits space-based military operations, it is vague on conventional weapons and military satellites, which are not mentioned explicitly.

2) Moon Agreement (1979): By highlighting the Moon and other celestial bodies as part of the "common heritage of mankind," this treaty expands on the ideas of the Outer Space Treaty and guarantees that space exploration and use benefit all nations, not just those with sophisticated space programs. But because major space-faring countries like the United States, Russia, and China have not signed it, its global significance is restricted.

3) The 1963 Partial Test Prohibition Treaty The historic Ban Treaty, which was signed during the Cold War, prohibits the testing of nuclear weapons in the atmosphere, suborbital space, and underwater. This was a crucial step in reducing the environmental damage caused by nuclear testing and slowing down the spread of the space arms race. There are still potential for increased militarization, especially in relation to conventional weaponry and military hardware, as it does not prevent other military uses of space.

4) The 1972 Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) Treaty: The United States and the Soviet Union signed this convention, which restricted the employment of missile defense systems intended to intercept ballistic missiles, including those that might be launched into space. It was crucial in keeping the armaments race in check both on Earth and in space. But when the United States left the treaty in 2002, worries about new space-based missile defense systems arose.



The Antarctic Region

i) Historic context: The Antarctic Treaty System (ATS): which went into effect in 1961, set the groundwork for Antarctica's demilitarized status. Signed by 12 original nations, including the US, the UK, and the Soviet Union, this pact was a historic accord from the Cold War era intended to avoid armed clashes over Antarctica.

As per the agreement:

1) It was expressly forbidden to engage in any military operations, test new weaponry, or establish military bases.

2) It was forbidden to demolish nuclear waste or cause nuclear explosions.

3) A zone of peace was established over Antarctica, and scientific collaboration took center stage.

ii) Although militarization is forbidden by the Antarctic Treaty, technical improvements and geopolitical aspirations are putting the treaty's terms to the test. Despite present treaties that forbid resource exploitation, Antarctica is well-known for its abundant natural resources, which include mineral reserves, gas, and oil. There are worries that the competition for resources may spark a renewed interest in military placement in the area if the legal framework is reexamined in 2048.

iii) Another concern is the growth of technology. For example, information collecting or claiming sovereignty over Antarctic waters or airspace might be achieved through the employment of military satellites, surveillance tools, and dual-purpose technologies like high-frequency radars. Furthermore, as nations like China and Russia positioned themselves to ensure future claims in the region, there has been a noticeable increase in military presence in the Southern Ocean, which encircles Antarctica. For instance, China has set up five research stations that, despite being designated formally for scientific purposes, have sparked worries because of their possible for dual purposes. These stations might be used for tracking or spying on satellites, among other military uses.

iv) An immediate effect of the militarization of space assets, especially military satellites, may be felt in Antarctica's security dynamics. Although not specifically implemented in Antarctica, these technologies may be employed to manage entry, adding to the ATS framework's complexity and increasing the risk of militarization.



The Cyberspace

i) Global digital networks, such as the internet, telecommunications networks, and software infrastructure, make up cyberspace. Like the high seas or space, it is regarded as a global commons, meaning that no nation-state has control over it. Because cyberspace has no borders, everyone can access it without restriction, including businesses, governments, and lone hackers and therefore states are rapidly militarizing cyberspace for both offensive and defensive objectives due to the absence of clearly defined territorial boundaries and ownership.

ii) **The Historical Background and Evolution of Cyberspace:** The emergence of the internet in the late 20th century gave rise to the idea of cyberspace as a potential battlefield, although cyber warfare did not materialize until the early 21st century. Important moments in this development include:

1) The Estonian Cyberattacks of 2007 were among the first significant cyberattacks linked to state actors. It severely damaged Estonia's media, government, and financial systems and raised awareness of cyberwarfare on a global scale.

2) The Stuxnet Attack (2010) was a cooperative cyber operation by the United States and Israel that physically damaged Iran's nuclear centrifuges, becoming the first known example of a cyberattack that directly affected physical infrastructure.

3) Russian Cyberattacks (2016): The use of cyberspace in contemporary geopolitical warfare was brought to light by Russia's purported involvement in the U.S. elections through cyberattacks and disinformation efforts.

iii) **Militarization and Key Stakeholders:** Realizing the significance of cyberspace in contemporary combat, a number of countries have included it into their military plans. Among the important stakeholders are:

1) United States: In order to manage both offensive and defensive cyber activities, including cyberattacks on adversarial states, the United States formed the Cyber Command (USCYBERCOM) in 2009. The US has made significant investments in cyberwarfare capabilities and frequently conducts clandestine operations.



2) Russia: Known for its highly developed cyberwarfare tactics, Russia has used cyberspace to initiate hybrid warfare campaigns, fusing information warfare and cyberattacks to upset political environments abroad, as demonstrated by the annexation of Crimea in 2014 and the 2016 US elections.

3) China: With a concentration on cyber espionage, intelligence collection, and taking down foreign infrastructure, China has built one of the most sophisticated cyber capabilities in the world. One key player in cyber operations is the People's Liberation Army (PLA).

iv) Legal Frameworks and Loopholes: The lack of a clear legal framework governing cyber warfare is one of the major obstacles to the militarization of cyberspace. Although international law offers standards for armed conflict, it is difficult to apply these guidelines in cyberspace. Due to the numerous gaps in legally enforceable international accords on cyberwarfare, governments can launch cyberattacks with little fear of punishment or reprisal.

1) UN Charter (Article 51): There is disagreement over whether a cyberattack counts as a "armed attack," but the clause permits self-defense in the event of one. The ambiguity allows for different readings and behaviors without obvious legal repercussions.

2) Tallinn Manual: A collection of advisory, non-binding rules created by legal professionals to explain how current international laws relate to cyberwarfare. Despite its influence, the Tallinn Manual is not considered international law and has not been adopted by all countries.

v) Risks and Challenges of Cyber Militarization:

1) Attribution Difficulty: Since anonymous sources are frequently the source of cyberattacks, it is challenging to link them to particular actors. International reactions and retaliations are complicated by this ambiguity.

2) Escalation: Because cyberattacks are stealthy, there is a greater chance of misunderstandings or unintentional escalation. Severe financial or humanitarian disasters could result from a cyberattack on vital infrastructure, such as electricity grids or financial systems.

3) Hybrid Warfare: Cyberspace is becoming a more important tool in this type of warfare, which combines cyberattacks with traditional military operations to accomplish strategic objectives without engaging in direct combat.



Other

i) Seabed militarization in the Atlantic: has drawn attention from researchers and potential militarization alike, especially in regions outside of national borders. Although it regulates the use of seabed resources, the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) does not forbid military operations on the seabed. In recent years, Russia has undertaken repeated military maneuvers in the deep Atlantic, apparently deploying submarines capable of severing undersea communication cables, which are critical for global internet traffic.

ii) The Senkaku/Diaoyu Islands: Claimed by both China and Japan, the Senkaku/Diaoyu Islands are a set of uninhabited islands in the East China Sea. Each nation claims historical and legal claims to these islands, resulting in a protracted battle over them. Both China and Japan claim a collection of uninhabited islands in the East China Sea called the Diaoyu (China) or Senkaku (Japan) Islands. Each nation claims historical and legal claims to these islands, resulting in a protracted battle over them. Although these islands are nominally uninhabited, China and Japan have focused their militarization efforts on them due to their strategic location near shipping lanes and probable undersea oil riches, which has resulted in increased military deployments and risk of conflict.

iii) The Kerguelen Islands: a group of uninhabited islands in the Southern Indian Ocean that are home to scientific outposts. Despite being a part of French overseas territories, they are located in a strategically significant yet isolated area. During the Cold War, the French government erected a meteorological station on the islands, which was later determined to have hidden military functions connected to monitoring Soviet submarine movements. This case study demonstrates how militarization in remote areas can happen under the pretense of scientific investigation or study. For the purpose of strategically tracking naval activities in the Indian and Southern Oceans, the Kerguelen Islands are still crucial.



PAST ACTIONS BY THE UNITED NATIONS

The Outer Space Treaty (1967)

The fundamental legal framework for space operations is still the Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies, which was established by UN General Assembly Resolution 2222 (XXI). It restricts the Moon and other celestial bodies to peaceful uses and forbids the stationing of nuclear weapons and other WMDs in space. It ensures that space will remain a place for peaceful collaboration by laying the groundwork for its demilitarization. UNGA Resolutions on Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space (PAROS): Annual resolutions such as the Resolution 72/250 (2017) have reiterated the necessity of preventing the militarization of outer space. The UN is constantly emphasizing the vitality of making sure that space is free of armed conflict and that no weapons are ever installed there. Even while legally enforceable agreements are still hard to come by, this set of resolutions highlights how important it is to prevent a weapons race in space.

The Antarctic Treaty (1959)

This pact has received widespread recognition and UN backing, although having been negotiated outside of the UN system. It demilitarizes the Antarctic zone, limiting military operations and reserving the continent only for scientific study and peaceful purposes. In addition, the treaty forbids militarization and territorial claims, establishing a special legal framework for an unclaimed zone.

UN General Assembly Resolution 43/83 on Antarctica (1988)

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United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) (1982)

UNCLOS, sometimes known as the "Constitution of the Oceans," creates legal guidelines for the high seas, guaranteeing that these regions outside of state borders be peaceful and devoid of armed conflict. The high seas are protected from militarization by Article 301, which expressly forbids the use of force or the threat of force there. Article 88 reserves the high seas for peaceful purposes.

UNGA Resolution on Oceans and the Law of the Sea (73/124)

The principles of UNCLOS are reaffirmed in this periodic resolution, which calls on governments to protect the high seas' peaceful character and abstain from taking any action that would cause them to become militarized. It emphasizes how crucial it is to keep international waterways free of armed conflict and military buildup in order to maintain peaceful passage and trade.

UN Group of Governmental Experts (GGE) Reports on Cyberspace (2010, 2015, 2021)

The UN General Assembly commissioned these investigations, which examine how international law applies to cyberspace and how to stop hostile or militarized efforts. The studies emphasize the UN Charter's applicability to cyberspace, promoting its peaceful usage and stressing that cyber activities shouldn't incite war or be employed as a military tactic.

UNGA Resolution 56/19 (2001) on Combating the Criminal Use of Information Technologies

This resolution encourages states to combat the misuse of information technologies for hostile or military purposes, underscoring the significance of minimizing the militarization of cyberspace. It was a preemptive recognition of the dangers that cyberspace might present if it were to be exploited for cyberwarfare or other military operations.



QARMA (QUESTIONS A RESOLUTION MUST ANSWER)

1. What existing international treaties and conventions govern military activities in unclaimed zones, and how will the resolution reinforce or build upon these legal frameworks?
- 2.
3. What specific types of military activities are permissible or impermissible in unclaimed zones according to the resolution, and what criteria will be used to evaluate these activities?
- 4.
5. How will the resolution facilitate international cooperation among states to ensure compliance with established norms regarding military activities in unclaimed zones?
- 6.
7. What strategies will be outlined in the resolution for monitoring military activities in unclaimed zones, and what enforcement measures will be put in place to ensure adherence to international law?
- 8.
9. What mechanisms will the resolution outline for the peaceful resolution of disputes arising from military activities in unclaimed zones?
- 10.
11. How will these mechanisms ensure fairness and transparency in addressing grievances?
- 12.
13. What protocols will be established for responding to military crises in unclaimed zones? How will the resolution promote international scientific research in these areas?

