

Japan's Foreign Policy in Major Diplomatic Fields

A Efforts Aimed at Peace and Stability in the International Community

Overview

Peace and stability in the international community are essential to the peace and prosperity of Japan and the Japanese people. For the international community, 2005 was also a year of responding to threats such as complex regional conflicts, international terrorism, and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD). In the midst of an international environment still fraught with uncertainty and instability, the international community is searching for a new order in the 21st century. Japan has been endeavoring to build a desirable international order through proactive foreign policies on the basis of its alliance with the United States (US) and cooperation with the international community. These efforts will be advanced by a security policy based on three main pillars: (1) developing Japan's defense forces on an appropriate scale; (2) firmly maintaining the Japan-US Security Arrangements; and (3) pursuing diplomatic efforts to ensure peace and security in the international environment surrounding Japan.

With regard to the Japan-US Security Arrangements, it is necessary for Japan to uphold its security under the forward deployment of the US forces by firmly maintaining the Japan-US Security Treaty. Japan intends to further solidify its alliance with the US. As part of such efforts, both Japan and the US, upon confirming the two countries' common strategic objectives, are conducting consultations to examine the roles, missions, and capabilities of the Self-Defense Forces (SDF) and US forces, as well as to review the posture of US forces in Japan (USFJ) in light of their goal of maintaining deterrence while reducing burdens on local communities, including

those in Okinawa.

Japan has also been engaged in ceaseless diplomatic efforts at various levels to ensure the stability of the surrounding international environment, as well as the security and prosperity of Japan. Japan has been dispatching the SDF as part of its reconstruction assistance to Iraq and the fight against terrorism in and around Afghanistan. Japan has also been pressing forward with United Nations (UN) reform including the reform of the Security Council so that the UN will be able to respond effectively to the issues that the international community faces. The formal decision reached at the UN to establish the UN Peacebuilding Commission with the support of various countries, including Japan, was a significant development for the UN in further advancing its efforts toward the peace and stability of the international community. Japan intends to make active contribution to the international community through the work of this commission.

Japan intends to continue playing an active role in various fields, including: bilateral and multilateral cooperation to ensure regional stability; political and security dialogue and cooperation to foster mutual confidence with various countries and regions; strengthening of arms control, disarmament, and the non-proliferation regimes such as Treaty on the Nuclear Non-Proliferation (NPT); efforts to address regional conflicts by means of conflict prevention and participation in or support to the activities of UN Peacekeeping Operations (PKO); enhancement of regional stability through assistance and cooperation in the economic development of countries in the region; and efforts to prevent and eradicate international terrorism.

1 Japan-US Security Arrangements

Overview

Even with the end of the Cold War, factors of instability, such as regional conflicts and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and missiles, still persist in the Asia-Pacific region. In particular, the terrorist attacks in the US on September 11, 2001 manifested a threat that is difficult to deter or predict compared to previous types of threats. In such a new

security environment, Japan-US Security Arrangements based on the Japan-US Security Treaty have been effectively contributing to peace, stability, and prosperity not only in the Far East including Japan, but also in the entire Asia-Pacific region. Moreover, Japan must maintain its security under the deterrence provided by the Japan-US Security Treaty and the forward deployment of US forces, as not all the situations that might threaten Japan's national security can be managed solely by Japan's own

Japan-US Consultations on Security Issues (as of March 2006)

Name	Subject	Members and participants	
		Japan	US
Japan-US Security Consultative Committee (SCC) (2+2 Meeting)	Consultations on issues that promote understanding between the governments of Japan and the US and contribute to the strengthening of cooperative relations on security issues, thereby serving as a foundation for security.	Minister for Foreign Affairs Minister of State for Defense Others	Secretary of State Secretary of Defense (Before December 26, 1990, US Ambassador to Japan, Commander in Chief of the Pacific Command)
Japan-US Security Subcommittee (SSC)	Exchange of views on security issues in which both Japan and the US have an interest.	(Not strictly established, but in recent years)	
		Director-General, North American Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs Director-General, Bureau of Defense Policy, Defense Agency Others	Assistant Secretary of State Assistant Secretary of Defense Others
Japan-US Joint Committee	Consultation between the governments of Japan and the US on every issue which requires consultation between the two countries concerning the implementation of the Japan-US Status of Forces Agreement.	Director-General, North American Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Foreign Affairs Director General, Defense Facilities Administration Agency Others	Minister-Counselor, US Embassy in Japan Deputy Commander, US Forces Japan

defense capabilities. From this viewpoint, Japan must continue to put forth tireless efforts to further enhance the credibility of the Japan-US Security Arrangements. As part of such efforts, Japan has been intensifying talks with the US on security issues, and continuing with bilateral defense planning in case of an armed attack against Japan and mutual cooperation planning in situations in areas surrounding Japan, based on the Guidelines for US-Japan Defense Cooperation,¹ and with reference to the National Emergency Legislation enacted in June 2004.

(a) Review of the Global Military Posture of the US

The end of the Cold War removed the threat the former Soviet Union posed to West-bloc countries, including the US and Japan. However, new threats are emerging, such as international terrorism and the proliferation of WMD and ballistic missiles. These new threats are asymmetrical, defy deterrence, and are more unpredictable. To be able to respond to these issues surrounding the new security environment, the US undertook a major review of its defense capabilities and posture worldwide, using technological advances with the aim of achieving

greater mobility and flexibility of US forces. In doing so, the US has been consulting closely with Japan and other allies and friends. At the Japan-US Security Consultative Committee (SCC, 2+2) held in Washington in December 2002 (see the table, Japan-US Consultations on Security Issues), Japan and the US decided to strengthen their consultations concerning bilateral security matters, including a review of their bilateral defense posture in the new security environment. Since then,



Foreign and defense ministers of Japan and the US attending a press conference after the 2+2 Meeting (October 29, Washington, DC)

1. Guidelines established in 1997 which stipulate the basic frameworks and direction of Japan-US defense cooperation for the purpose of smooth and effective implementation of the Japan-US Security Arrangements. However, unlike treaties or agreements, the Guidelines are not legally binding.

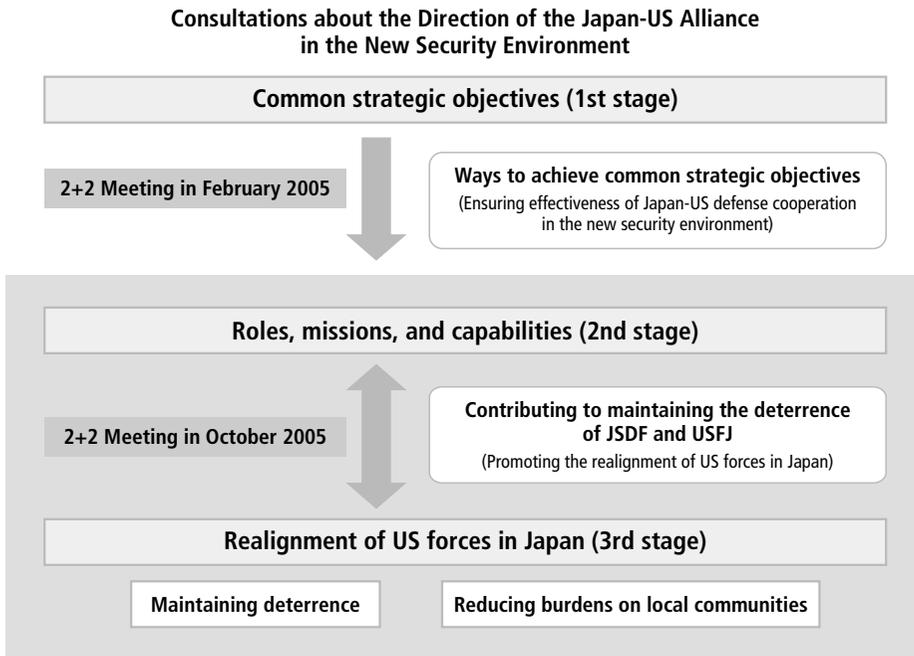
close working-level consultations have been underway between the two countries.

At the 2+2 Meeting in February 2005, attended by Minister for Foreign Affairs Machimura, the ministers of Japan and the US confirmed common strategic objectives that must be pursued by both countries in the new security environment. Furthermore, at the 2+2 Meeting in October 2005, they examined the roles, missions, and capabilities of Japan and the US regarding Japan-US security and defense cooperation to pursue the above-mentioned strategic objectives. Both countries also discussed the force posture realignment to achieve the two major goals of “maintaining deterrence” and “reducing the burden on local communities,” and issued

a joint document that compiled the results of the consultations. Such efforts further solidified the foundation of the Japan-US Security Arrangements, and at the same time clarified the direction the Japan-US Alliance must take in the future.

From the long-term perspective of advancing sustainable efforts to improve the effectiveness of the security cooperation between Japan and the US, and of gaining people’s firm trust and support for the Japan-US Security Arrangements, it is important to make efforts to minimize the burden placed on local residents living near US military facilities and areas. (See the charts, “The Framework of Consultations between Japan and the US” and “Force Posture Realignment (Recommendations).”)

The Framework of Consultations between Japan and the US



Force Posture Realignment (Recommendations)

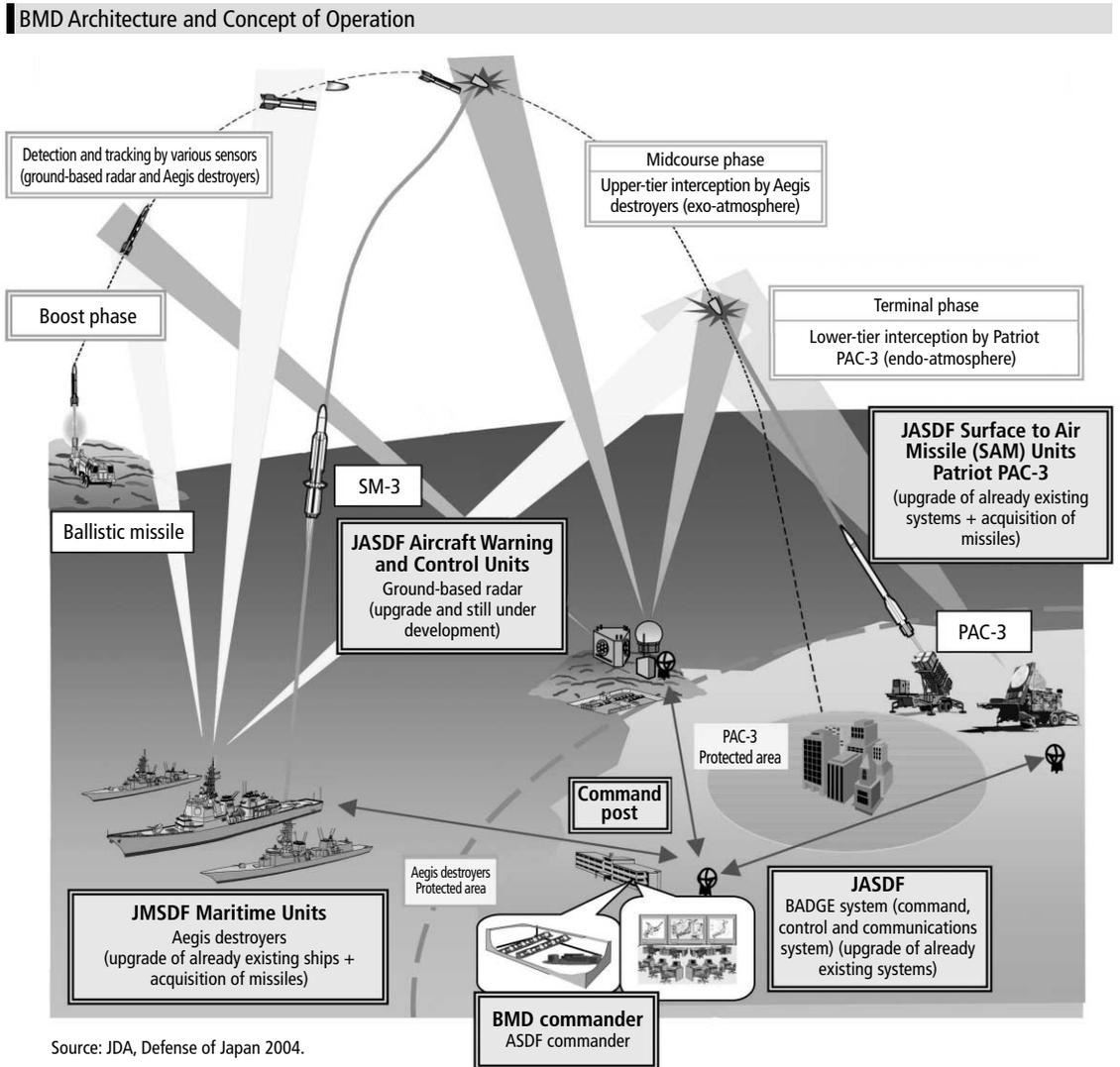
- Domestic and bilateral coordination should be conducted for the following initiatives in a timely manner:
- Strengthening bilateral and joint operational coordination
 - Improvement of US army command and control capability (Camp Zama)
 - Collocation of air command and control (Yokota Air Base)
 - Yokota Air Base and air space (air space reduction and possible civil-military dual-use)
 - Missile Defense (X-Band radar system, PAC-3, and SM-3)
 - Regional realignment of US Marine Corps
 - Acceleration of Futenma relocation
 - Headquarters of III MEF relocated to Guam and other places
 - Land returns and shared-use of facilities
 - Steady implementation of SACO Final Report
 - Relocation of carrier air wing from Atsugi to Iwakuni
 - Training relocation (from Kadena, Misawa, and Iwakuni to other military facilities)
 - Efficient use of capacity at US facilities in Japan

(b) Missile Defense

The Ballistic Missile Defense (BMD) system is the only and purely defensive measure to protect the lives and property of Japanese citizens against ballistic missile attacks, for which there would be no alternative. The Japanese government decided to develop a BMD system in December 2003, based on the concept that such a system is appropriate for Japan's defense policy, which is exclusively defense-oriented. (See the chart, BMD Architecture and Concept of Operation.)

From technical research conducted jointly by Japan

and the US since 1999 on the Navy's Theater-Wide Defense (NTWD) system, a breakthrough was made in resolving initial technical problems. As such, the Japanese government through its security council and by way of a cabinet meeting in December 2005 decided to begin the Japan-US cooperative development of advanced SM-3 missiles for BMD. Simultaneously, in consideration of the basic principles, such as the Three Principles on Arms Export, on which Japan stands as a peaceful country, and in keeping with the policy to continue to take caution in regulating the export of arms in the future, a statement was released by the chief cabinet secretary:² "Arms that



2. In relation to the Three Principles on Arms Export, the chief cabinet secretary released a statement in December 2004 which said, "If Japan decides that it will engage in joint development and production of ballistic missile defense systems with the US, the Three Principles will not be applied, under the condition that strict control is maintained, because such systems and related activities will contribute to the effective operation of the Japan-US Security Arrangements and are conducive to the security of Japan."

need to be provided to the US for Japan-US cooperative development of an advanced SM-3 missile for Ballistic Missile Defense will be provided under strict control after coordinating with the US in the future on the framework for arms transfer.”

(c) Host Nation Support

Based on the viewpoint that it is important to ensure the smooth and effective operation of the Japan-US Security Arrangements, the Japanese government is bearing, within the framework of the Japan-US Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA), the costs of renting land for the facilities and areas used by USFJ and the costs for the Facilities Improvement Program (FIP). In addition, Japan is to also cover labor costs, utility costs, and training relocation costs by concluding special measures agreements.

Since the special measures agreement, which was put into effect in April 2001, is to expire at the end of March 2006, Japan and the US have been holding talks since the 2+2 Meeting in February 2005 regarding the future modality of Host Nation Support for US forces in Japan. As a result, an agreement was reached in December on concluding a new special measures agreement to take effect in April 2006, and it was signed by Minister for Foreign Affairs Taro Aso and Deputy Secretary of State Robert B. Zoellick in January 2006. The new agreement states that the framework of cost-sharing stipulated in the past agreements would be maintained, which means the limit on the number of workers related to the labor costs and the limit on the procurement related to utility costs would be maintained. On the other hand, under the new agreement, the US is to make further efforts to economize expenditures, and the effective period for this agreement is to be changed to a provisional two years instead of the five years as set in the previous agreements. Regarding the FIP for FY2006, in view of Japan’s severe fiscal condition, the Japanese government plans to make further efforts to reduce expenses, and hold down the overall costs related to Host Nation Support for USFJ.

(d) Issues Concerning US Forces in Japan

In order to ensure the smooth and effective operation of the Japan-US Security Arrangements, it is important to reduce the burden arising from the activities of US forces upon residents in the vicinity of US facilities and areas, and to gain their understanding and support for the presence of the US forces.

In particular, the importance of reducing the burden on the people of Okinawa, where approximately 75% of US facilities and areas are located, has been confirmed on numerous occasions including Japan-US summit meetings and foreign ministers’ meetings. The Japanese government has been working on steady implementation of the December 1996 Final Report of the Special Action Committee on Okinawa (SACO).³ Furthermore, the Japanese government intends to continue its efforts toward the prompt relocation and return of the Futenma Air Station and reduction of the burden on Okinawa through the realignment of the military posture of USFJ.

With regard to improvement of the implementation of the Japan-US SOFA, on which the Japanese government has been working in order to reduce the burden on the local residents, specific efforts have been made based on the idea that bringing about tangible results is important. As a result of the negotiations since June 2003 regarding criminal jurisdiction procedures under SOFA, a Joint Committee agreement was made on strengthening cooperation between Japan and the US on the investigation. This agreement provides that a US military representative is allowed to sit in on the questioning of suspects conducted by Japanese authorities under certain circumstances.⁴ In a case in which a Japanese woman was murdered by a US serviceman in Yokosuka in January 2006, the custody of the suspect was transferred to the Japanese authorities in a highly prompt manner. To this case, the Joint Committee agreement was applied for the first time. Moreover, in response to the US helicopter crash in Ginowan, Okinawa in August 2004, talks were held between Japan and the US, resulting in the adoption of the Guidelines

3. A report compiled jointly by the Government of Japan and the US Government on the policies to realign, consolidate, and reduce US facilities and areas in Okinawa, and to adjust US military operations, in order to lessen the burden on the people of Okinawa from the concentration of US facilities and areas. The report was approved by the Japan-US Security Consultative Committee on December 2, 1996.

4. With regard to cases in which the right to exercise the jurisdiction of Japan and the US is concurrent according to the Japan-US Status of Forces Agreement, the presence of a US representative will be permitted upon request, in order to enable the US military authorities to swiftly conduct a case investigation at interrogations of an accused by the Japanese authorities in the following situations: (1) when the Japanese authorities recognize the possibility of Japan requesting the transfer of custody of the accused prior to indictment, based on the 1995 Joint Committee agreement (regarding procedures of criminal justice proceeding); and (2) when custody of the accused has been transferred to Japan prior to indictment, based on the 1995 Joint Committee agreement.

regarding Off-Base US Military Aircraft Accidents in Japan⁵ by the Joint Committee in April 2005. With respect to the environmental issues related to US facilities and areas, all the used polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB)-contained materials that were removed from service were shipped to the US in August 2003, April 2004, and July 2005.

Efforts aimed at the realignment and return of US facilities and areas other than those related to SACO have been put forth in a steady manner. With regard to the realignment of facilities and areas in Kanagawa

Prefecture on which Japan and the US had been consulting since February 2003, an agreement was reached between the two countries in September 2004 on plans to return six facilities and areas within Yokohama, as well as the construction of housing at the Ikego Housing Area and Navy Annex (in Yokohama City). In October 2005, an agreement was reached at the Joint Committee regarding a plan to return the entire land area and a portion of the restricted water area of Koshiba POL Depot.

2 Counter-Terrorism

Overview

Since the terrorist attacks in the US on September 11, 2001, the international community has positioned counter-terrorism as one of its highest priority areas. Agreements and confirmations have been made to enhance counter-terrorism measures in various arenas including multilateral frameworks such as the UN and Group of Eight (G8), regional cooperation such as the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), and bilateral cooperation. Progress is being made in strengthening political will and promoting substantial cooperation in the fight against terrorism. Specifically, terrorists are being caught in succession in countries such as Afghanistan, and cooperation is being advanced among countries concerned in a wide range of areas including measures to combat the financing of terrorism. Capacity-building assistance is also being provided to developing countries that lack the capabilities to fight against terrorism. Moreover, in 2005, new legal frameworks were established by the amendment of the Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Maritime Navigation and the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material, as well as the adoption of the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism (hereinafter referred to as the Nuclear Terrorism Convention). In such ways, efforts to prevent tragedies caused by terrorism are being advanced and they are steadily producing successful results.

Although it can be regarded that the leadership capabilities of international terrorist organizations such

as the Al-Qaeda are losing momentum and that their membership is falling due to the international community's recent fight against terrorism, their strength still cannot be underestimated. In addition, global-scale Islamic extremist movement carried out by organizations that have received assistance from, or have been ideologically influenced by, Al-Qaeda, and local groups that are independent but believed to espouse Al-Qaeda's ideologies, have become a new threat. Many terrorist incidents occurred in many parts of the world in 2005, including the series of terrorist bombings in Manila and other locations in the Philippines (February 14); the series of terrorist bombings in London (July 7); the simultaneous terrorist bombing in Bali, Indonesia (October 1), in which one of the victims was Japanese; and the simultaneous suicide bombing in Amman, Jordan (November 9). As such, international terrorism remains a grave threat to areas including Southeast Asia where there are many Japanese tourists, residents, and companies, and with which Japan has deep political, economic, and overall social ties.

As the flow of people, goods, money, and information have increased drastically in the international community fueled by technological advancements, international terrorists are maximizing the use of the characteristics of modern society such as the Internet and international transportation networks to develop activities which threaten the daily lives of the civilian population. Under such circumstances, in order to prevent terrorism, it is essential for the international community to cooperate to take a firm stance against terrorism, prevent terrorists from establishing bases for their activi-

5. It stipulates that in cases where a US military aircraft crashes or is forced to land in areas other than its destination, USFJ is to notify the Japanese authorities and take necessary measures such as preserving the crash site and conducting rescue operations.

Examples of Terrorism Incidents That Occurred in 2005

February 14

Series of terrorist bombings in Manila and other locations in the Philippines

A bus parked at a bus terminal in Makati in the metropolitan area of Manila, capital of the Philippines, was blown up. On the same day, a bomb went off near the terminal for shared motorcycle taxis in a southern city of General Santos. Another bomb blasted a stand for shared jeep taxis in the nearby Davao City around the same time. This series of terrorist bombing in three locations killed 12 people and injured over 100 others.

March 19

Terrorist bombing in Doha, Qatar

A car bomb went off outside a theater near a British school in Doha, the capital of Qatar, killing one person, and injuring 12 others.

April 3

Series of terrorist bombings in southern Thailand

Terrorist bombs went off in succession at the Hat Yai airport, in Hat Yai City, and in Songkhla City, all in Songkhla province in southern Thailand, killing one person and injuring 20 others.

July 7

Series of terrorist bombings in London

In the central area of London, UK, presumably homemade explosives were set off almost simultaneously in three locations in an underground train and on a bus, killing 52 people and injuring around 700 others.

July 23

Simultaneous terrorist bombings in Sharm el-Sheikh, Egypt

Multiple car bombs and others were set off in Sharm el-Sheikh in east Sinai Peninsula, killing 88 people and injuring around 200 others.

August 17

Simultaneous terrorist bombings in various parts of Bangladesh

Over 400 small bombs exploded in succession in various locations in Bangladesh, killing two people and injuring over 150 others.

October 1

Simultaneous terrorist bombings in Bali, Indonesia

Suicide bombings occurred in three locations in Jimbaran and Kuta on Bali island, Indonesia, killing 20 people (one of whom was Japanese) and injuring over 100 others.

October 29

Series of terrorist bombings in Deli, India

Bombs exploded in succession in two markets and on a bus in Deli, the capital city of India, killing 67 people and injuring 298 others.

November 9

Simultaneous suicide bombings in Amman, Jordan

Suicide bombings took place at three hotels in Amman, capital city of Jordan, killing 60 people and injuring over 100 others.

ties, deprive them of funds, weapons, and other methods by which to carry out terrorism, overcome the vulnerabilities of facilities and institutions that could be terrorist targets, and provide assistance to developing countries with insufficient counter-terrorism capacity. In concrete terms, it is necessary for the international community to continue to strengthen its efforts in a wide range of fields including the reinforcement of the international legal framework to stringently punish terrorists, countermeasures against terrorist financing, the strengthening of the transport security system, reinforcement of immigration controls, and the nonproliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD).

Terrorism not only threatens the security of a country and its people but also has a major impact on the economic life of citizens in areas such as investment, tourism, and trade. It is necessary for each and every person to cooperate to prevent terrorism, recognizing it as a challenge to civil life. Based on its stance that terrorism cannot be justified nor tolerated in its any reasons, Japan regards counter-terrorism as its own security issue, and intends to continue to strengthen vigorously counter-terrorism measures in cooperation with the international community in a wide range of areas

including the provision of assistance to other countries and reinforcement of the international legal framework.

(a) Progress in the Efforts of the International Community

Throughout 2005, the international community further strengthened international counter-terrorism measures through cooperation at the multilateral and regional levels based on its previous achievements on this front.

Following the terrorist bombings in the underground trains in London which took place on July 7 while the G8 Summit was being held in Gleneagles, United Kingdom (UK), a statement was issued by the G8 leaders, the leaders of Brazil, China, India, Mexico and South Africa, and the heads of international organizations the same day, showing the solidarity and determination of the international community to fight terrorism. In addition, the G8 Statement on Counter-Terrorism was adopted. This statement addresses such issues as disrupting terrorist activities; preventing the emergence of a new generation of terrorists; protecting communities against terrorist attacks; minimizing the consequences of attacks, the terrorist threat, and the rights of individuals; building international capacity; and enhancing interna-

tional partnership.

In April, the UN General Assembly adopted the Nuclear Terrorism Convention, aimed at the prevention of terrorism making use of radioactive materials and nuclear explosive devices, for which negotiations had been taking place since 1997, thereby advancing the development of the legal framework for preventing terrorism. Furthermore, Security Council Resolution 1624, which calls for the prohibition of acts that incite terrorism, was adopted at the UN Security Council summit meeting in September.⁶ Also, the system for the activities of the Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTED), which was established under Security Council Resolution 1535, was prepared, further reinforcing the system for implementing Security Council Resolution 1373, which was adopted immediately following the September 11 terrorist attacks in the US.⁷

In addition, multilateral cooperation for preventing and eradicating terrorism is being advanced in various areas. For example, Financial Action Task Force (FATF)⁸ is carrying out activities in the area of measures to combat the financing of terrorism, and the Counter-Terrorism Action Group (CTAG)⁹ is working on assistance to improve counter-terrorism capacity. In September, in Jakarta, Indonesia, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) held the first international conference focusing on the issue of security and safety in the Malacca and Singapore Straits with participation of littoral states and user states in order to discuss international cooperation to ensure security and safety in the straits including counter-maritime terrorism.

On the regional level, following the considerations made by the Counter-Terrorism Task Force (CTTF) of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), it was confirmed in the APEC Economic Leaders' Declaration (Busan Declaration) adopted in November that concrete

efforts related to counter-terrorism will continue to be advanced in the future.¹⁰ Moreover, advancements were made at the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) toward counter-terrorism cooperation and the promotion of conclusion of counter-terrorism conventions and protocols in the Asia-Pacific region.¹¹

(b) Japan's Efforts

(1) *Anti-Terrorism Special Measures Law*

The Anti-Terrorism Special Measures Law was established in part as a response to the terrorist attacks in the US on September 11, 2001, which constituted a threat to international peace and security under the terms of UN Security Council Resolution 1368.

The US, the UK, France, and other countries have been implementing Operation Enduring Freedom-Maritime Interdiction Operation (OEF-MIO) with the purpose of preventing or suppressing the maritime transportation of terrorists and related supplies, such as arms and explosives, across the Indian Ocean. Since December 2001, Japan has been providing assistance that includes the activities of Maritime Self-Defense Force (MSDF) vessels to refuel vessels of the US, the UK, and other countries participating in the maritime interdiction operation.

In November 2003, Japan extended the period over which the Anti-Terrorism Special Measures Law would remain in force by two years. At the time of the extension of the basic plan in October 2004, it was decided to change the content of cooperation and assistance activities to include the refueling of helicopters carried on naval vessels as well as the vessels themselves and the supply of water in order to improve the efficiency of the maritime interdiction operation. Moreover, considering the fact that the international community has been continuing its solidified efforts for counter-terrorism

6. While the Security Council Resolution 1624 is not a resolution under Chapter VII of the UN Charter, its content aims to further enhance counter-terrorism measures including calling on member states to prohibit acts that incite terrorism.

7. Security Council Resolution 1535 (adopted on March 26, 2004) grants the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) additional means to achieve the mandate to monitor the progress in the implementation of the Security Council resolution 1373 by newly establishing a CTC secretariat (CTC Executive Directorate (CTED)) led by the Executive Director that is directly linked to the UN Secretary General.

8. An international framework that was convened at the G8 Arch Summit in 1989 with the objective to promote international measures against money laundering. Thirty-one countries and regions including mainly Japan and other Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member states, as well as two international institutions participate in this task force. It is currently also taking a leadership role in implementing measures to combat the financing of terrorism.

9. Its establishment was decided under the G8 Action Plan: Building International Political Will and Capacity to Combat Terrorism, which was adopted at the G8 Evian Summit in June 2003. Its main objectives are to analyze the requests and prioritize the needs for capacity building assistance, and to hold co-ordination meetings between Counter-Terrorism Action Group (CTAG) members in recipient countries. By December 2005, a total of eight meetings had been held.

10. The Counter-Terrorism Task Force (CTTF) was established in 2003. Its primary objectives are to monitor the implementation of leaders' declarations related to counter-terrorism, coordinate technical cooperation related to counter-terrorism carried out within APEC, and coordinate efforts related to counter-terrorism measures implemented among APEC-related meetings.

11. At the 12th ARF Ministerial Meeting in July 2005, the ARF Statement on Information Sharing and Intelligence Exchange and Document Integrity and Security in Enhancing Cooperation to Combat Terrorism and Other Transnational Crimes was adopted.

under such operations as OEF since the 9-11 terrorist attacks on the US, and based on the outcome of the G8 Gleneagles Summit in July and Security Council Summit in September, the Anti-Terrorism Special Measures Law was extended for another year in November.

(2) Other (Human Resources Development, Capacity Building Assistance, etc.)

In accordance with the view that to prevent and eradicate terrorism, it is important that the international community closely cooperate and continue its enduring efforts in a wide range of areas. Japan has been actively participating in counter-terrorism efforts in the international community such as the development of political will, enhancement of counter-terrorism efforts in various areas, and assistance to developing countries.

In September, Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi signed the Nuclear Terrorism Convention on the occasion of his attendance at the World Summit, showing Japan's intention both domestically and internationally to continue to vigorously fight terrorism in the future. Moreover, since January, as a non-permanent member of the UN Security Council, Japan has been contributing to deliberations held by such committees as the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC) and the committee monitoring UN sanctions against the Taliban and Al-Qaeda, which operate under the Security Council. In addition, Japan is playing a leadership role in promoting effective counter-terrorism efforts by commissioning a US think tank to conduct research on the assessment of CTC and improvement of its assistance coordinating functions, and participating in such multilateral cooperation as the CTAG. At the same time, Japan has been implementing in good faith the Security Council resolutions that lay down the measures of sanctions against terrorists. Based on the Foreign Exchange and Foreign Trade Control Law, by the end of 2005, Japan had frozen assets

belonging to a total of 500 individuals and organizations including Usama bin Laden and others related to Al-Qaeda. Furthermore, Japan took the initiative to include in the joint statement adopted at the APEC Ministerial Meeting a proposal to voluntarily begin providing information on lost and stolen travel documents to the existing database of the International Criminal Police Organization (ICPO) on a best endeavors basis.

For international counter-terrorism cooperation, Japan places high priority on capacity-building assistance to developing countries. Japan implements capacity building assistance utilizing Official Development Assistance (ODA), especially in the Southeast Asian region. Specifically, Japan has been holding seminars in the following areas, and accepted a total of 355 trainees in 2005: (1) immigration control, (2) aviation security, (3) port and maritime security, (4) customs cooperation, (5) export control, (6) law enforcement cooperation (7) combating terrorist financing, (8) counter-chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN) terrorism, and (9) international counter-terrorism conventions and protocols.¹² As such, Japan's capacity-building assistance for fighting terrorism, which was announced by Prime Minister Koizumi at the APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting in 2002, is being followed up steadily.¹³ Moreover, in May, Japan made a decision to provide Indonesia a total of 449 million yen in Grant Aid for developing equipment related to investigation and crime identification to enhance the capacity of the Indonesian National Police. Under the FY2006 budget, in order to further enhance assistance to promote public security measures such as counter-terrorism and anti-piracy which are essential for developing countries as they work on the socio-economic development of their countries, and are directly related to the security of Japan, Japan newly established Grant Aid for Cooperation on Counter-Terrorism and Security Enhancement in the amount of 7 billion yen. Further, under the Asian

12. International counter-terrorism conventions and protocols are as follows: (1) Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed On Board Aircraft (Tokyo Convention); (2) Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft (The Hague Convention); (3) Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Civil Aviation (Montreal Convention); (4) Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents; (5) International Convention against the Taking of Hostages; (6) Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material; (7) Protocol for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts of Violence at Airports Serving International Civil Aviation, supplementary to the Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Civil Aviation, done at Montreal on 23 September 1971; (8) Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Maritime Navigation; (9) Protocol for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Fixed Platforms Located on the Continental Shelf; (10) Convention on the Marking of Plastic Explosives for the Purpose of Detection; (11) International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings; (12) International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism; and (13) International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism. Japan has concluded all conventions (1) through (12) above, which are already in force, and also signed (13) in September 2005.

13. In July, subsequent to the previous year, the Seminar on Prevention and Crisis Management of Biological Terrorism was held at the Southeast Asia Regional Centre for Counter-Terrorism (SEARCCT) in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Development Bank (ADB)'s Cooperation Fund for Regional Trade and Financial Security Initiative (FRTFSI) to which Japan has contributed US\$1 million, counter-terrorism financing projects are being advanced in Indonesia, the Philippines, and Malaysia. In addition, in accordance with the Action Plan for Prevention of Terrorism, which was adopted on December 10, 2004, Japan assisted in enhancing the immigration control system in Thailand by dispatching experts of document examination and providing the latest related equipment.

As for efforts on a bilateral level, Japan has been continuing consultations with various countries on current terrorist conditions and counter-terrorism cooperation, mainly at the level of the ambassador in charge

of international counter terrorism cooperation. The first bilateral talks on terrorism between Japan and India was held in Tokyo in July, the US-Australia-Japan Counter-Terrorism Talks were held in Washington in September, and the Second Japan-European Union (EU) Talks on Counter-Terrorism were held in Tokyo in October. On the occasion of Russian President Vladimir Putin's visit to Japan in November, the Program of Actions in the Field of Cooperation in the Fight against Terrorism was formulated by Japan and Russia. Furthermore, in December, at the Japan-ASEAN Summit held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, Japan, and ASEAN agreed that the Japan-ASEAN Counter-Terrorism Dialogue would be held at an early date in 2006.

Japan's International Counter-Terrorism Cooperation

1. Global cooperation

- Under the Anti-Terrorism Special Measures Law (approved October 29, 2001), Japan implemented refueling assistance activities for vessels engaged in the Operation Enduring Freedom's Maritime Interdiction Operation (MIO) by the US and other forces in the Indian Ocean. In November 2003, the Government of Japan extended the period over which the law would remain in force by two years. The basic plan for the law was extended by 6 months in April and October 2004. In November 2005, it was decided to extend the period for another year.
- Japan has concluded all 12 counter-terrorism conventions and protocols which are already in force. Moreover, the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism, which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in April 2005, was signed by Prime Minister Koizumi in September 2005, immediately after it became open for signature.
- Japan contributed to the building of a broad cooperative framework, utilizing the international institutions and frameworks such as the G8, UN (in particular, the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC)), and the Financial Action Task Force (FATF).
- Based on Security Council Resolutions 1267, 1333, and 1390 as well as 1373, Japan is implementing measures based on the Foreign Exchange and Foreign Trade Law, including the freezing of assets against 500 Taliban-related and other terrorist individuals and organizations (as of January 12, 2006).

2. Regional cooperation

- ASEAN: The joint statement released at the Japan-ASEAN summit held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia on December 13, 2005, confirmed that counter-terrorism-related cooperation would continue to be advanced.
- APEC: Under the Busan Declaration adopted at the 13th Economic Leaders' Meeting held in Busan, ROK in November 2005, an agreement was made to put forth concrete counter-terrorism efforts. The Counter-Terrorism Task Force (CTTF) meeting was held three times in 2005.
- ARF: At the 12th ARF Ministerial Meeting held in Laos in July 2005, the ARF Statement on Information Sharing and Intelligence Exchange and Document Integrity and Security in Enhancing Cooperation to Combat Terrorism and Other Transnational Crimes was adopted.
- ASEM: The 3rd ASEM Conference on Counter-Terrorism was held in Indonesia in November 2005, in which Japan also participated.
- Ministerial Meeting on Counter-Terrorism, Bali: A counter-terrorism ministerial meeting co-hosted by Australia and Indonesia was held in February 2004, in which Asia-Pacific countries and others participated. From Japan, Senior Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs Ichiro Aisawa attended. As a follow-up to this meeting, the Seminar on the Promotion of Accession to the International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism was hosted in Tokyo in December 2004. Later, in January 2006, the Seminar on the Promotion of Accession to the International Counter-Terrorism Conventions and Protocols was also hosted in Tokyo.

3. Bilateral cooperation

- Japan-India Joint Working Group on Counter-Terrorism: Held in Tokyo (July 1)
- US-Australia-Japan Counter-Terrorism Talks: Held in Washington (September 21, 22)
- Japan-EU Talks on Counter-Terrorism: Held in Tokyo (October 18)
- Counter-terrorism capacity-building assistance for developing countries and others: By utilizing ODA, Japan accepts trainees, dispatches experts, provides equipment, etc. in the following areas: (a) immigration control; (b) aviation security; (c) port and maritime security; (d) customs cooperation; (e) export control; (f) cooperation with police and law enforcement agencies; (g) countermeasures against the financing of terrorism; (h) countermeasures against chemical, biological, radiological, and nuclear (CBRN) terrorism; and (i) counter-terrorism conventions and protocols.

Self-Defense Forces (SDF) Activities in the Indian Ocean

Five years into its cooperation and support activities based on the Anti-Terrorism Special Measures Law (refer to page 137), a total of 49 vessels and 9,590 personnel (as of January 2006) of the Maritime Self-Defense Force (MSDF) have engaged in the activities. In the area of the Indian Ocean, following the destruction of the Taliban regime in Afghanistan, coalition naval forces including the United States have been continuing military operations and achieving steady results in the fight against terrorism, such as confiscation of large quantities of weapons and hashish and arrest of terrorists resulting from strict searching of vessels and cargo. MSDF-deployment forces have been contributing to the common objective of the Fight against Terrorism by continuously replenishing fuel and fresh water to the vessels of 11 countries.

Between April and August 2003, I was engaged in activities as a commander, the fifth Deployment Force for Support (escort ships *Kongo* and *Ariake*, and supply ship *Hamana*). During that time, I experienced the heartfelt gratitude of the commanders of the US Navy in the region who control the multinational force (MNF), as well as Canadian and German admirals who were conducting a Maritime Interdiction Operation (MIO). This left a deep impression in my memory. I consider that this stems from the fact that, with few naval forces able to deploy supply ships, the MSDF has been reliably playing the role of continuing its replenishing activities, albeit without directly engaging in MIO.

I believe this to be one of the most important ways for Japan to demonstrate its stance of working toward the eradication of international terrorism while increasing the reliability of the Japan-US Security Arrangements, and moreover by deepening the level of cooperation in the realm of security with other countries. This has contributed to increasing stability in the

international community and Japan's reliability. Indeed, the MSDF, being positioned in the East, can cooperate with the US and European navies in the Indian Ocean, despite both of the regions being far from it. This structure, with the Islamic nation of Pakistan also participating within the sphere of cooperation, has made me fully realize that all the countries who stand together against terrorism are connected together at a deeper level through their activities in the ocean.

Not merely limited to ground military operations for sweeping out terrorism, these kinds of cooperative relations among a number of naval forces can prevent and suppress terrorist activities, thus preemptively preventing people from becoming the targets of terrorism, and at the same time it should be said that such relations greatly contribute to the stability of the relevant regions, in which are concentrated many countries that are principal suppliers of the natural resources essential to Japan's economic activities.

Author: Rear Admiral Masahiro Shibata,
Second Escort Flotilla Commander (at the time)



Commemorative photo of Major General Nelson of the German Navy on board the escort ship "Kongo" (The author: front row, second from right. Source: Defense Agency)

3 Regional Security

In the Asia-Pacific region, no multilateral collective defense security mechanism similar to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in Europe has developed, due to such factors as the rich diversity of political and economic systems, cultures, and ethnicities. Instead, regional stability has been maintained primarily through the building up of bilateral security arrangements centered on the United States (US).

Japan regards the improvement and strengthening of multilayer frameworks for bilateral and multilateral dialogue while securing the presence and engagement of the US in the Asia-Pacific region to be a realistic and appropriate way to develop a stable security environment surrounding Japan and to ensure peace and stability in the region.

The Government of Japan has engaged in security dialogues and defense exchanges through bilateral frameworks with countries such as Russia, the People's Republic of China, the Republic of Korea (ROK), and India. In this way, Japan has been making efforts to enhance mutual trust and foster cooperation in the security area.

As a multilateral approach, Japan has been making use of the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF), a political and security framework for the entire region in which major Asia-Pacific countries participate. Its aim is to achieve gradual progress in the ARF process through an approach based on three stages: (1) the promotion of confidence building, (2) the development of preventive diplomacy, and (3) the elaboration of approaches to conflicts. Through the meetings held so far, frank and open exchanges of views have been fostered, including issues in which member countries are directly involved, such as the situation on the Korean Peninsula, the situation in Indonesia, and the issue of Myanmar. Concrete activities for confidence building have also been carried out, including the publication of the ARF Annual

Security Outlook (ASO), which is compiled by the ARF chair and consists of participating members' descriptions of their understanding of the security conditions in the region, as well as summaries of meetings on various subjects such as counter-terrorism. These activities have been making an important contribution to the formation of relationships of trust among the members.

There have also been discussions concerning concrete efforts related to the development of preventive diplomacy, which is the second stage of the ARF's three-stage approach. In this way the ARF has gradually but surely been developing as a forum for political and security dialogue and cooperation in the Asia-Pacific region. The 12th Ministerial Meeting held in July was joined by Timor-Leste as the new, 25th member, and ministers exchanged their views on situations in regions such as the Korean Peninsula and Myanmar. Moreover, the importance of tackling issues cooperatively in the areas of counter-terrorism, maritime security, the non-proliferation of WMD, and regional disaster prevention and management was confirmed, and a statement regarding information sharing on such issues as counter-terrorism was adopted. As a concrete effort, Japan held the ARF Workshop on Capacity Building of Maritime Security in Tokyo in December.

While the ARF steps up from "confidence building" to "preventive diplomacy," various countries have been pointing out that in order for the ARF to work on preventive diplomacy in earnest, it is important to enhance its functions. Japan has proposed establishing a mechanism for enhancing the role of the ARF Chair (Friends of the Chair mechanism: a system in which specified countries assist the chair country regarding particular issues) and making the ARF Unit that is set up within the ASEAN Secretariat available for non-ASEAN countries as well.

ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF)

1. Goals and Characteristics

- The ARF was established in 1994 as a forum for region-wide dialogue concerning political and security-related matters in the Asia-Pacific region. ASEAN is the primary driving force of the ARF.
- The ARF aims to improve the regional security environment through dialogue and cooperation on political and security-related issues. Both defense and military officials as well as foreign policy officials attend the meetings.
- The ARF is a continuum of meetings centering on ministerial meetings (foreign-minister level), which are held every summer.
- The ARF places emphasis on free exchanges of views and consensus as its basic principle.
- The ARF aims to achieve gradual progress through an approach based on three stages: (1) the promotion of confidence building, (2) the development of preventive diplomacy, and (3) the improvement of approaches to conflict resolution.

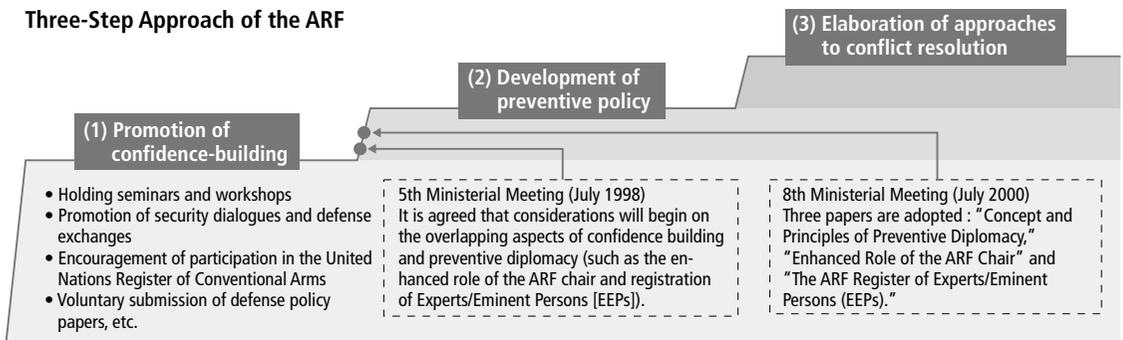
2. Participating Countries and Organization

- The 25 members include 10 ASEAN countries (Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Laos, Viet Nam, Cambodia, and Myanmar), Japan, Australia, Canada, China, India, North Korea, the ROK, Mongolia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Russia, Timor-Leste, and the US, as well as the European Union (the EU countries do not participate individually but are instead represented by the country holding the EU presidency and the European Commission.)

3. Past Developments

- **July 1991: ASEAN Post-Ministerial Meeting (ASEAN-PMC)**
Then-Minister for Foreign Affairs Taro Nakayama proposes to use the occasion of the PMC to initiate political dialogue and suggests the establishment of a Senior Officials Meeting as an effective approach (the Nakayama proposal).
- **July 1993: ASEAN-PMC**
It is agreed that five countries including China and Russia will be invited to participate in the ARF from 1994 onwards.
- **July 1994: 1st ARF Ministerial Meeting (held in Thailand)**
The meeting in Thailand is attended by foreign ministers from 18 ARF participating countries and one organization, who exchange views on the regional security environment.
- **August 1995: 2nd ARF Ministerial Meeting (held in Brunei)**
As a medium-term approach for the ARF, an agreement is achieved to make gradual advancements following the three stages of: (1) the promotion of confidence building; (2) the development of preventive diplomacy; and (3) the elaboration of approach for resolving conflicts; and to focus on confidence building for the time being.
- **July 2000: 8th ARF Ministerial Meeting (held in Vietnam)**
On the topic of preventive diplomacy, the following three papers are adopted: Concept and Principles of Preventive Diplomacy, Enhanced Role of ARF Chair, and ARF Register of Experts/Eminent Persons.
- **July 2002: 9th ARF Ministerial Meeting (held in Brunei)**
 - It is confirmed that continued efforts will be put forth toward counter-terrorism. Also the establishment of the inter-sessional meeting on counter-terrorism is approved.
 - Nine proposals are adopted including increasing the participation of relevant defense and military officials, and strengthening support for the ARF chair through the ASEAN Secretariat.
 - Prior to the Ministerial Meeting, a meeting of ARF defense and military officials is held for the first time.
- **July 2004: 11th ARF Ministerial Meeting (held in Indonesia)**
A decision is made to hold the ARF Security Policy Conference (ASPC) by high-level military and government officials. (The first conference is held in China in November 2004, and the second conference is held in Laos in May 2005.)
- **July 2005: 12th ARF Ministerial Meeting (held in Laos)**
The terrorist incidents in London and Sharm el-Sheikh (Egypt) are condemned, and the importance for the international community to unify its efforts to tackle counter-terrorism measures is acknowledged.

Three-Step Approach of the ARF



4 United Nations

Overview

The UN is a valuable forum for countries from around the world to debate and establish global rules, through institutions including the General Assembly and the Security Council, on such issues as peace and security, development, human rights, women, children, infectious diseases, environment, transnational organized crime, refugees, and culture.

The international community today faces not only structural changes caused by the end of the Cold War and deepening globalization, but also a greater number of issues that are difficult to be addressed by a country or region alone, such as terrorism, the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD), poverty, and infectious diseases. The role of the UN is expanding in response to this. Japan places great importance on international cooperation as one of the main pillars of its diplomacy, and provides personnel and financial contributions to the UN.

Since January 2005, Japan has been serving a two-year term as a non-permanent member of the Security Council. The current term, the first time in seven years, marks the ninth time that Japan has served on the Security Council—the highest number among UN member states and shared only by Brazil. Japan took on the chairmanship of the Peacekeeping Operations (PKO) Working Group of the Security Council, working on the effective operation of each PKO as well as the Ethiopia-Eritrea border dispute. Japan also plays a constructive role in the deliberations on international peace and security addressing issues such as Afghanistan and the assassination of the former prime minister of Lebanon.



Ambassador Oshima, the permanent representative of Japan to the UN, while serving as president and UN Secretary-General Annan at the Security Council (August 11, UN Headquarters in New York, Photo: UN Photo/Eskinder Debebe)

Furthermore, as a non-permanent Security Council member representing Asia, Japan has taken the initiative in making decisions on such issues as the responses to terrorist attacks in Asia and the modalities of the UN's involvement in Timor-Leste. As discussions on Security Council reform go on, Japan's contributions have demonstrated its readiness to play a greater role as a permanent member on the Security Council for the maintenance of international peace and security.

UN Reforms

(a) Reform of the Security Council

As the international community faces new challenges such as terrorism, the proliferation of WMD, poverty, and infectious diseases, there are greater expectations for the UN and the Security Council in particular, which shoulders the primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. On the other hand, the composition of the Security Council has basically remained the same for the 60 years since the establishment of the UN, and does not sufficiently correspond to the changes that the international community has undergone. In order for the countries to effectively address challenges of the 21st century through the UN, it is now a matter of special urgency for the international community to reform the UN, particularly the Security Council. Moreover, Japan's permanent membership on the Security Council would be meaningful from the following perspectives: (1) it would enable Japan to have a voice commensurate with its contributions to international peace and financial contributions to the international community; (2) Japan would be able to make a more constructive contribution to the international community; (3) Japan would also be able to gain quicker access to information that is closely relevant to its security; (4) it would enhance the credibility of the Security Council to add a nation that possesses no nuclear weapons as a permanent member; and (5) it would also enhance Asian representation in the Security Council. It is Japan's wish to fully utilize its experience and capabilities to assume greater responsibilities as a permanent member of the Security Council.

On March 20, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan issued a report entitled *In Larger Freedom*, which makes comprehensive proposals on such issues as development, peace and security, the rule of law and protecting the

underprivileged, and institutional reform of the UN. With regard to Security Council reform, based on the report submitted by the High-Level Panel in December 2004, the report presented two concrete proposals: Model A (an expansion of the Council by adding six permanent and three non-permanent members); and Model B (an expansion by adding eight four-year renewable-term seats and one two-year non-renewable, non-permanent seat).¹⁶ The member states were advised that a decision should be made before the World Summit in September, and that while it is desirable to reach a decision by consensus, this must not be used as an excuse to delay action. The report was followed by active discussions among the member states on Security Council reform. Japan believes that it is necessary for countries that have the will and capacity to play a major role in maintaining international peace and security to participate in the decision-making process of the Security Council on a permanent basis so that decisions made by the council are implemented in a steady and effective manner. Based on this belief, Japan has advocated that the deliberations should be based on Model A, which increases the membership in both permanent and non-permanent categories, calling on the other member states to offer their understanding and cooperation.

Together with Brazil, India, and Germany, Japan formed the Group of Four (G4) as the base for achieving Security Council reform through expanding membership in both the permanent and non-permanent categories of the Security Council. Since then, Japan has led the debate on Security Council reform among the member states, in close cooperation with the other G4 members. In response to the report issued in March by the UN secretary-general, the G4 accelerated the discussions for formulating a resolution on Security Council reform based on Model A, and on May 13, agreed on a "framework resolution" which lays down the framework for the structure of an expanded Security Council. This resolution increases the total number of seats in the Security Council to 25 by adding six permanent and four non-permanent members, and advocates the principle that the new permanent members should have the same responsibilities and obligations as the current permanent members. Later, on June 8, the G4 agreed to amend the resolution, based on the reactions of other member

states. The main points of revision were to change the timing of reviewing the UN Charter reform from "2020" to "15 years after the entry into force of the amendment of the UN Charter, and that the new permanent members shall not exercise the right of veto until the question has been decided upon in the review of the UN Charter amendments.

Reform of the Security Council requires the amendment of the UN Charter. For this, it is necessary to get a two-thirds majority vote (128 states) of all member states as well as the ratification by two-thirds of the member states including all the permanent members of the Security Council. Japan had already started preparations for approaching other member states with the participation of ambassadors from around the globe in May to discuss UN Security Council reform as one of their main agenda items. Following an agreement on the G4 framework resolutions, Japan, along with other G4 members, carried out a full-scale diplomatic campaign around the world toward the submission and adoption of this draft resolution. Domestically, the Japanese government worked to foster the understanding and support of the Japanese people toward its efforts, frequently holding public symposia as well as town meetings on the theme of "Security Council reform" hosted by Foreign Minister Machimura.

The G4 campaign built up international momentum for Security Council reform more than ever before. Driven by that momentum, the G4 framework resolution was officially submitted to the UN Secretariat on July 6, and was put before the General Assembly on July 11 (the final number of the co-sponsors of the resolution was 32). Following the submission of the G4 resolution, the African Union (AU), which insists on giving the right of veto for the new permanent members, and the "Uniting for Consensus" (also known as the "consensus group"), which consists of Italy, Pakistan, and others, and calls for the expansion of only non-permanent members in opposition of the expansion of permanent members, submitted their own resolutions on July 13 and July 21, respectively.¹⁷

To gain the support of over two-thirds of the UN member states, it is essential to win the support of Africa, which has as many as 53 votes. Japan and the other G4 members therefore intensified efforts to get Africa on

16. Currently, non-permanent members serve a two-year, non-renewable term. Model B proposes adding one more seat in the existing non-permanent category as well as adding eight seats in a newly created type of non-permanent membership (renewable, four-year term).

17. The main features of the AU draft resolution: Expansion of six permanent seats (two of which would be granted to Africa), and five non-permanent seats. The new permanent members are granted the right of veto. The main features of the "Uniting for Consensus" group: Expansion of 10 non-permanent seats. The specific procedure for selecting the member states is left to the discretion of each regional group.

board and merge the AU resolution and the G4 resolution, as both shared the view regarding the need for expansion of the permanent membership. However, due to Africa's insistence on the right of veto for new permanent members, no common ground was found between the two positions in the end. Thus, the G4 resolution, along with other two resolutions, was abandoned without being put to a vote at the end of the 59th session of UN General Assembly in September.

Addressing the 2005 World Summit held from September 14 through 16, Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi reiterated Japan's will to attain permanent membership on the UN Security Council, and called for an early decision on Security Council reform during the 60th session of the General Assembly. The Outcome Document adopted at the Summit states that an early reform of the Security Council is an "essential element of our overall effort to reform the United Nations," and requested the General Assembly to "review progress on the reform by the end of 2005."

Minister for Foreign Affairs Nobutaka Machimura also visited New York from September 13 through 19, and delivered a speech at the general debate of the UN General Assembly. Foreign Minister Machimura strongly urged the member states to come to an early decision during the 60th session of the General Assembly (by September 2006), building on the submission of a resolution on Security Council reform for the first time in the history of the UN.

Based on the reference to Security Council reform in the Outcome Document, active discussions on Security Council reform has continued during the 60th session of the General Assembly. On November 10 and 11, the General Assembly deliberated on Security

Council reform, and 71 countries made statements on the modalities of Security Council expansion, as well as the necessity to improve its working methods. Ambassador Kenzo Oshima, the permanent representative of Japan to the UN, stated that the Security Council must be expanded with the inclusion, on a permanent basis, of member states that have the manifest will and real capacity to take on a major role in the maintenance of international peace and security. Ambassador Oshima also stated that it was necessary to look beyond the fact that none of the draft resolutions submitted in the last session was put to vote and to seek a solution that can command broader support.

On December 19, a review by the General Assembly on the progress of Security Council reform, as requested in the Outcome Document in September, was released in the form of a letter from Jan Eliasson, president of the 60th session of the UN General Assembly. The letter reconfirmed widespread agreement that there is a need to expand the Security Council, and called on the member states to resume discussions on Security Council reform in 2006.

During this time, there were also new developments on draft resolutions. First, on December 14, the AU draft resolution, which grants the right of veto to the new permanent members, was resubmitted by some of the African countries. Further, on January 5, 2006, a draft resolution was submitted by three of the G4 member states excluding Japan, namely Germany, India, and Brazil. This draft resolution is the same in principle as the G4 framework resolution that had been submitted during the 59th General Assembly. While there are no immediate plans for either resolution to be put to a vote, it is necessary to continue to pay close attention to future developments.

The 2005 World Summit

In 2000, right at the beginning of the new millennium, the UN held a Millennium Summit to discuss the role of the UN in the 21st century, including the strengthening of the UN as well as its response to new issues that had not been foreseen when the UN was first established, such as the proliferation of WMD, terrorism, and infectious diseases. Five years later, in September 2005, heads of states and government of over 170 countries gathered once again at the UN for the World Summit, commemorating the 60th anniversary of the establishment of the UN. Prior to this summit meeting, negotiations took place among the member states to finalize the Outcome Document that declares the resolve of the leaders to advance further efforts in the four areas of "development," "peace and collective security," "human rights and the rule of law," and "strengthening of the UN," building on the progress of reforms since 2000. Reaching a consensus among 191 countries in a wide range of areas was far from easy, and the negotiations ran into difficulty. The last-minute negotiations continued until immediately before the opening of the summit. The member states finally achieved a consensus after all-night negotiations on September 13, the day before the opening of the summit, and the Outcome Document was unanimously adopted at the closing of the summit on September 16.

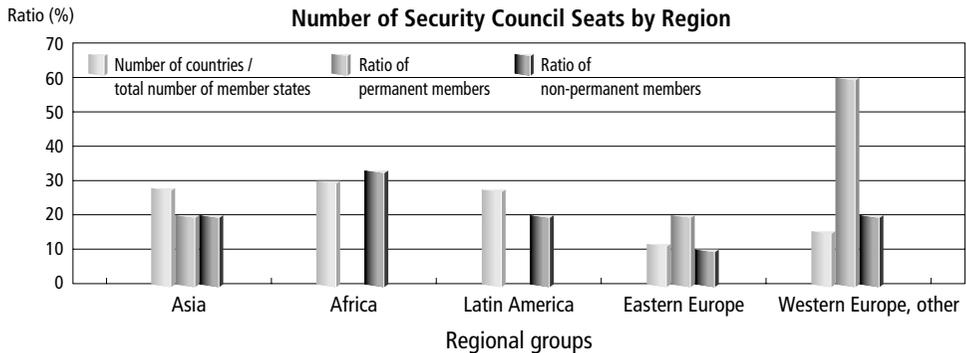
While there is no reference to disarmament or non-proliferation in the Outcome Document due to a difference of positions among the member states, the Outcome Document contains reference to issues such as the deletion of the "enemy state" clauses, "human security" which Japan takes an initiative in promoting, the establishment of the Peacebuilding Commission and Human Rights Council, and measures for improvement on management and secretariat reform, as well as a clear statement toward the realization of Security Council reform. The Document has thus turned out to be something that indicates the future direction of the UN on poverty and UN reform on the occasion of the 60th anniversary since the establishment of the UN.

Countries That Have Been Elected Most Frequently a Non-Permanent Member of the Security Council (as of March 2006)

Ranking	Country name	Number of times
1	Brazil	9
1	Japan	9
3	Argentina	8
4	India	6
4	Canada	6
4	Columbia	6
4	Pakistan	6
8	Italy	5
8	Poland	5
8	Netherlands	5

Ranking	Country name	Number of times
11	Austria	4
11	Belgium	4
11	Yugoslavia	4
11	Egypt	4
11	Panama	4
11	Venezuela	4
11	Norway	4
11	Spain	4
11	Germany	4
11	Chile	4
11	Peru	4

Regional Makeup of UN Members, Permanent Members, and Non-Permanent Members of the Security Council



- Notes: 1. Kiribati does not belong to any of the regional groups (as of January 2006).
 2. Turkey belongs to both the "Asia" group and the "Western Europe, other" group. (For the purpose of elections, in which seats are allocated according to region, Turkey is considered to belong to the "Western Europe, other" group.)
 3. The US does not belong to any of the regional groups. (It participates as an observer in the meetings of the "Western Europe, other" group, and is considered to belong to this group for election purposes.)
 4. The Security Council in 2005 was made up of the permanent member states (US, UK, France, Russia, and China), Argentina, Benin, Brazil, Denmark, Greece, Japan, Philippines, Romania, Tanzania, and Algeria. The non-permanent members since January 1, 2006 are Argentina, Denmark, Greece, Japan, Tanzania, Congo, Ghana, Peru, Qatar, and Slovakia.

Reform of the Security Council is an attempt to significantly transform the post-war international system, and is a difficult challenge that has not achieved results in spite of various efforts over the past decade. While the campaign carried out by Japan and the other G4 members in the last year did not result in the adoption of the resolution, it built up unprecedented momentum toward the realization of the reform. Japan will continue to hold talks with the UN member states while maintaining the cooperative framework with Germany, India, and Brazil, and make further efforts toward achieving Security Council reform.

(b) Peacebuilding Commission

About half of all conflicts that appear to have once achieved peace are said to suffer from a relapse of conflict

within five years. The international community shares the recognition that a consistent approach is necessary from the end of a conflict to recovery, reintegration, and reconstruction. Against this backdrop, it was agreed that a Peacebuilding Commission would be established by the end of 2005 as a mechanism to offer advice and proposals on integrated strategies for post-conflict peace building and recovery in the Outcome Document in September. The Outcome Document also requested the UN secretary-general to set up a multi-year standing Peacebuilding Fund.

Based on this agreement, the member states deliberated on the specific modification of the commission's activities and the composition of its membership. On December 20, the Security Council and the General Assembly concurrently adopted their respective resolu-

tions on the establishment of the Peacebuilding Commission. This resolution stipulates that the Organizational Committee of the Peacebuilding Commission consists of the following 31 countries: (1) seven members from the Security Council; (2) seven members from the Economic and Social Council; (3) five out of the top ten providers of financial contributions to the UN; (4) five out of the top ten providers of military personnel and civilian police to PKO and others; and (5) seven others elected in the General Assembly considering such factors as regional balance. The establishment of a standing Peacebuilding Fund was also included in the resolution.

The establishment of the Peacebuilding Commission is in concert with the concepts of “Consolidation of Peace” and “Human Security” that Japan advocates (see page 183 for details). Japan intends to actively participate in the activities of the Peacebuilding Commission by making full use of its experience and capabilities.

(c) Secretariat and Management Reform

In response to such developments as the alleged corruption in the UN-Oil-for-Food Programme in Iraq, the following concrete improvement measures regarding UN management reform and the streamlining the UN Secretariat were included in September’s Outcome Document:

- (1) Efficient use of the financial and human resources (review all mandates older than five years, implementation of staff buyouts)
- (2) Managerial responsibilities of the secretary-general (effectively carry out his managerial responsibilities)
- (3) Enhancement of oversight functions (enhance the Office of International Oversight Services, implement an independent external evaluation of the auditing system of the United Nations, create an independent oversight advisory committee under the General Assembly)
- (4) Development of a code of ethics and the creation of an ethics office

Under the view that, in order for the UN to function more effectively and efficiently, there is an urgent need to proceed with Secretariat and Management reform, Japan played a leading role in the deliberations on the 2006-2007 UN programme budget. As this budget was approved with limited expenditure authority of the secre-



Parliamentary Secretary for Foreign Affairs Yamanaka shaking hands with President of the UN General Assembly Eliasson (December 5, UN Headquarters in New York)

tary-general equivalent to six months requirements, Japan intends to promote UN management reform, particularly the mandate review.

(d) Human Rights Council

Since its establishment in 1946, the UN Commission on Human Rights has played a vital role in promoting universal respect and observance of human rights. However, serious human rights violations which threaten people’s lives and fundamental freedoms still exist around the world.

In response to the reports submitted by the High-Level Panel in December 2004 and UN Secretary-General Annan in March 2005, an agreement was reached in the Outcome Document of the World Summit in September to upgrade and enhance the Commission on Human Rights to a Human Rights Council, and to position the human rights issue as one of the important pillars for the UN. On March 15, 2006, the UN General Assembly adopted a resolution on a Human Rights Council, and decided to establish the Human Rights Council in Geneva as a subsidiary organ of the General Assembly. By making full use of the experience as a member of the Commission on Human Rights consistently since 1982, Japan intends to enhance further its international contributions in the area of human rights under the newly established Human Rights Council.

(e) Deletion of the “Enemy State” Clauses

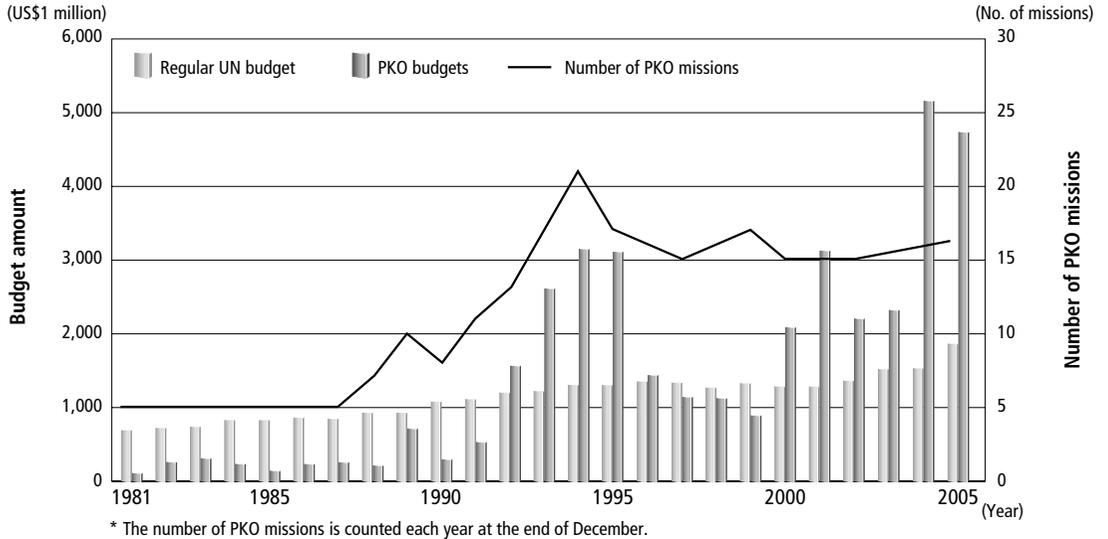
The so-called “enemy state” clauses¹⁸ in the UN Charter have already been recognized as “obsolete” in a General Assembly resolution adopted in 1995. The Outcome

18. Articles 53, 77, and 107 of the UN Charter, which include the terms “enemy state” or “enemy,” are generally referred to as the “enemy state” clauses.

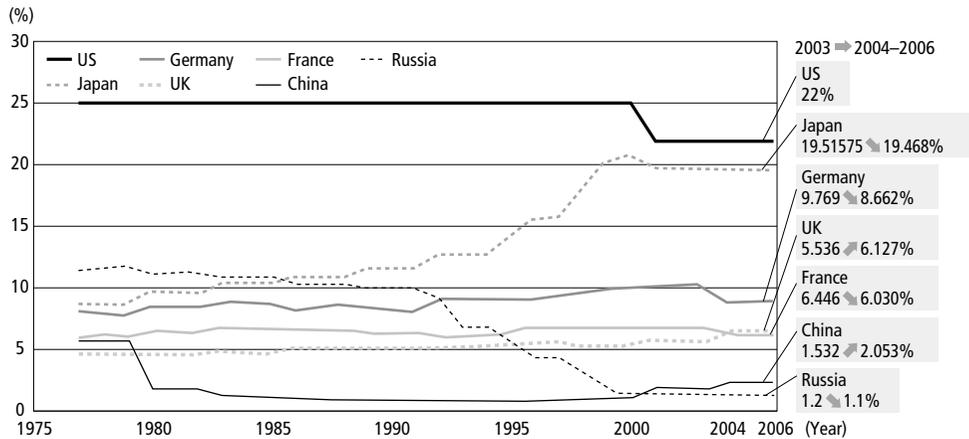
Document adopted in September also made a clear reference for the first time in a summit-level document to the deletion of the “enemy state” clauses. Prime Minister Koizumi reiterated in his address at the World Summit that the deletion of the “enemy state” clauses is

a just cause for the international community. Japan intends to pursue the deletion of these clauses while also bearing in mind the developments of discussions on other UN reforms.

Trend in the Scope of UN Activities



UN Scale of Assessments of Major Countries



The Spirit of Tea and the United Nations

The year 2006 is a year of great significance, marking the 50th anniversary of Japan's accession to the United Nations (UN).

In September last year, I was appointed as a Japan-UN Goodwill Ambassador. Over the past 50-some years, I have taken "the spirit of tea" with me to places all around the world, and through the medium of a bowl of tea, endeavored to spread the invaluable spirit of peace and universal love of humankind without prejudice at least to some small extent. I think that consequently the circle of wa ("harmony") is now spreading a little more throughout the world. Indeed, for instance, at the tea gathering which I led at UN Headquarters on the occasion of the UN Millennium Assembly, delegates of both the Republic of Korea and North Korea drank tea side by side. This may have been a small event, but it showed me that I had been on the right path in my work through the years, and this made me most happy. This kind of civilian cultural diplomacy is just what we need right now.

Chado, the Japanese "Way of Tea," is representative of Japanese culture, and I propose that Japan's great contribution to the UN shall consist in this country's taking actions which are founded upon the Chado spirit, described as "harmony, respect, purity, tranquility" in the words of my predecessor, Sen Rikyu.

In the world today, it is still crucial for people to be in harmony and to simultaneously respect one another, and to act with a calm and focused mind. In the Age of Civil Wars more than 450 years ago, Rikyu, with his poised mind and his "spirit of tea," asked that Japan not send soldiers to Korea; it is precisely this kind of thinking that is essential in today's world.

Moreover, people today feel less and less appreciative of the fact that this planet allows their existence on it. It is important to tackle environmental problems on a large scale, but it is also essential that people as individuals appreciate the importance of having nature and greenery nearby. Matcha — the "powdered tea" of Chado — is green, and nature is represented in a bowl of this tea. I hope that people can momentarily feel nature within their hearts when they drink the tea. Regardless of the nationality or race of those with whom I have shared this thought, they inevitably comprehend and agree.

I am eager to do even more from now on to contribute to world peace.

by Sen Genshitsu
Japan-UN Goodwill Ambassador



Japan-UN Goodwill Ambassador Sen Genshitsu meets UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan and Mrs. Annan at Konnichian, Kyoto

5 Comprehensive Approach to Conflicts

Overview

Since the end of the Cold War, numerous conflicts have continued in many parts of the world. There is a wide range of causes for such conflicts, including hostility arising from religious and ethnic differences, ethnic antagonism, and struggles over natural resources. Many of them take the form of civil wars and cross-border wars that are not addressed under the regime of sovereign states. In some cases, conflicts have brought about tragic consequences such as a great number of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs), as well as genocide. Moreover, so-called “failed states” which have been shattered by war and lost the ability to govern, have become a serious problem, as they contribute to the proliferation of WMD and create hotbeds of terrorism.

In recent years, there has been a heightened awareness in the international community that in order to restore peace and stability in such regions, it is important to grasp the entire process from resolution of conflict to recovery, reintegration, and reconstruction from a long-term and comprehensive viewpoint. It is under such recognition that the UN adopted the resolution to establish the Peacebuilding Commission in December.

Japan believes that in order to resolve conflicts permanently and lead the affected regions to sustainable reconstruction, it is necessary for the international

community to unite to promote efforts aimed at a “consolidation of peace” composed of three factors: (1) promotion of peace processes; (2) securing of domestic stability and security; and (3) restoration of the peaceful lives of people (humanitarian and reconstruction assistance). Based on this recognition, Japan has been utilizing diplomatic means such as Official Development Assistance (ODA) to put forth concrete efforts together with international institutions such as the UN, member states, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

It is also a matter of urgency to conduct human resources development in a wide range of areas in both the government and non-governmental sectors for the purpose of effectively contributing to global peace and stability and to expand and reinforce Japan's basis of human resources for international cooperation. From such a viewpoint, and considering the proposals raised in the December 2002 report of the Advisory Group on International Cooperation for Peace (AGICP),¹⁹ the Japanese government held the Study on Human Resources Development in International Cooperation for Peace from October 2003 through April 2004. Through this process, Japan examined the mechanism for human resources development to international cooperation for peace, and devised a specific action plan.²⁰ The Japanese government is putting forth efforts in human resources development based on this action plan.²¹

19. A private advisory panel (chaired by former UN Under Secretary-General Yasushi Akashi) reporting to former Chief Cabinet Secretary Yasuo Fukuda organized to conduct discussions on strengthening international cooperation for peace aimed at the “consolidation of peace” and nation building, which Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi declared in his speech in Sydney on May 1, 2002.

20. The action plan announced in April 2004 consists mainly of the following four points: (1) securing of human resources (database coordination, enhancement of human resources development at universities and other academic institutions), (2) fostering of human resources (accreditation of on-site activities as universities credits, enhancement of training in the area of international cooperation for peace, cooperation with other countries, promotion of dispatches of young personnel abroad for human resources development, promotion of internship acceptance), (3) utilization of human resources (strategic dispatches of Japanese government personnel, improvement in domestic environments for the social reintegration of individuals engaged in international peace cooperation), and (4) follow-up (establishment of a liaison conference, exchanges of opinions with intellectuals, and disclosure of implementation status).

21. In 2005, an international peace cooperation peace research fellow system was established within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Japan's Assistance Aiming toward "Consolidation of Peace"



(a) Conflict Prevention and Peace Building

In recent years, there has been wider recognition in the international community of the importance of comprehensive "conflict prevention" and "peace building." Conflict prevention and peace building refer not only to "conflict resolution" in the meaning of ending conflicts, but to the comprehensive process of eliminating the causes of conflicts in advance, preventing their escalation once they occur, promoting their early resolution, and preventing their recurrence through achieving social stabilization and restoration after the conclusion of peace agreements.

At the UN, in particular, based on the proposal made by Secretary-General Kofi Annan in March, world leaders agreed, in the Outcome Document adopted at the 2005 World Summit in September, that a Peacebuilding Commission would be established as a body to provide advice on and propose integrated strategies for post-conflict peace building and recovery with a view to achieving sustainable peace based on a coherent approach from conflict resolution to recovery, reintegration and reconstruction. Accordingly, in December, the UN General Assembly and the Security Council, acting concurrently with each other, made a decision to establish the Peacebuilding Commission.

Japan so far has actively supported the "consolidation of peace" and nation-building by providing assistance for the return of refugees and IDPs; demining; Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration of Ex-Combatants (DDR); reconstruction of basic infrastructure; rebuilding of political, economic, and social

institutions in Cambodia, Kosovo, Timor-Leste, Afghanistan, Sri Lanka, African countries, and others. Based on the knowledge gained through its past achievements, Japan will actively participate in the activities of the Peacebuilding Commission and continue to play a constructive role in post-conflict peace building.

(b) International Peace Cooperation

The UN is directly involved in peace and security mainly through UN Peacekeeping Operations (PKO).²² In 2005, in response to Sudan's Comprehensive Peace Agreement reached in January, a new PKO mission was launched. As of December, 16 PKO missions are in operation, involving approximately 70,000 personnel around the world. By region, eight of these operations are carried out in Africa.

Originally, PKO were undertaken in response to Security Council resolutions, allowing for the positioning of observers between parties to conflicts upon the signing of ceasefire agreements. Their purpose was to help restore stability and prevent the recurrence of conflicts through the observation of ceasefires and withdrawal of combatants. However, in addition to these traditional roles, a greater number of PKO are now acting under the mandates that range from assisting in areas of elections, civilian police, human rights, and the repatriation of refugees to carrying out administrative operations and reconstruction development. The mandates of PKO have thus become more diverse and complicated.

Under such circumstances, a major issue in the international community today is how to coordinate the roles between countries and international institutions

22. PKO stands for UN Peacekeeping Operation; also called UN PKO.

involved in peace building, and how to formulate coherent strategies. This is the awareness behind the establishment of the Peacebuilding Commission. Moreover, the issue of how to integrate and coordinate the roles and efforts by military and civilian PKO personnel working in the field is attracting international attention, as it is related not only to PKO missions but also to overall efforts toward peace building.²³

Since the International Peace Cooperation Law was enacted in 1992, Japan has been carrying out many forms of international peace cooperation based on this law, including the dispatch of a cumulative total of 5,607 personnel overseas (as of February 2006). As of January 2006, 45 Self-Defense Forces (SDF) personnel have been dispatched to join the UN Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF), which supports the Middle East peace process through such means as ceasefire monitoring in the Golan Heights (a total of approximately 900 personnel have been dispatched since 1996). Furthermore, in October, an official from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) was recruited to take part in the UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) and he is involved in information analysis work in the field (see the column, Peace in Sudan and PKO on page 156).

In recent years, in addition to such personnel contributions, there has been an increase in the ratio of

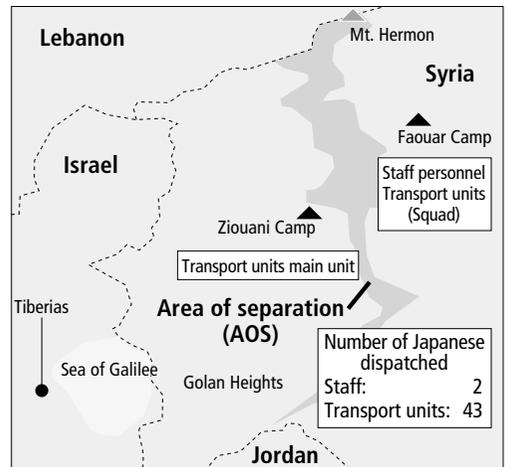
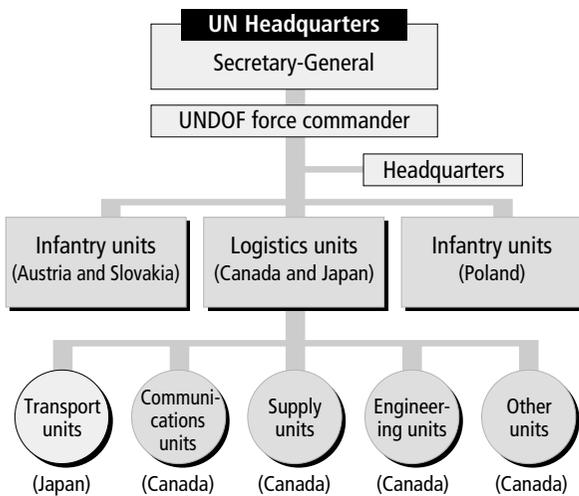
material assistance, providing goods to the UN and other international institutions involved in international humanitarian relief operations. In October, based on a request from the UN, Japan provided 27 four-wheel-drive vehicles, 60 landmine detectors, and 20 large tents to support the activities of the UNMIS troops in Africa (Kenya and Zambia).

In addition, considering the growing importance on the provision of assistance to Peace Support Operations (PSO)²⁴ conducted by regional institutions, Japan provided US\$2.07 million to the AU in March to support its activities such as the ceasefire monitoring implemented in the Darfur region in northern Sudan. In addition, Japan extended around US\$2.81 million through the UN Human Security Fund (UNHSF) with the objective of providing training to improve AU troops' knowledge of such topics as the International Humanitarian Law (IHL).

With the awareness of bearing the responsibility as a member of the international community, and with the recognition that the peace and security of the international community has a direct bearing on our peace and security, Japan intends to continue to put forth efforts in the development of a structure for international contribution and to actively offer international peace cooperation to countries suffering from conflicts.

Japan's Current Participation in PKO (as of the end of January 2006)

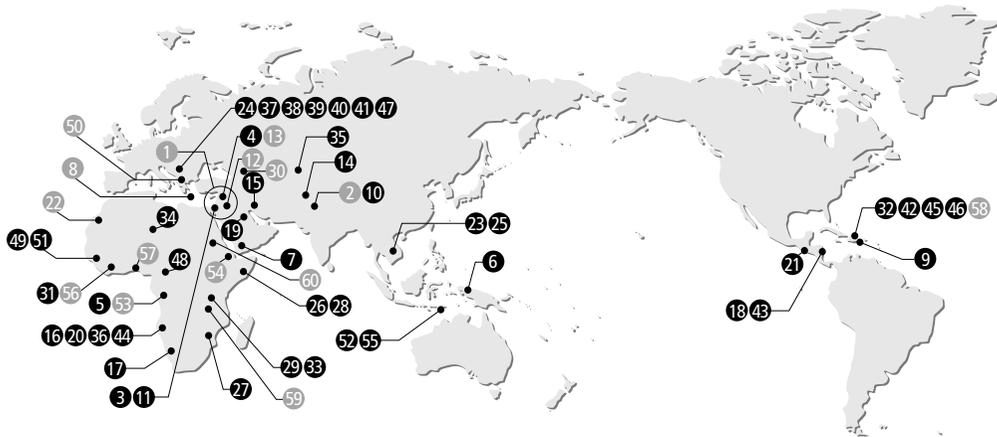
■ Outline of the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF)



23. Currently, in Afghanistan and Iraq, Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRT), in which civilians are involved in reconstruction assistance and military personnel protect them, are working as a single unit to conduct reconstruction assistance activities in non-metropolitan areas under the leadership of the US military. It is attracting attention as a new modality for peace building cooperation between the military and civilian sectors.

24. A comprehensive concept regarding the activities aimed at peace making, peace consolidation, and peacekeeping. At the G8 Gleneagles Summit, the "G8 Action Plan: Expanding Global Capability for Peace Support Operations" was adopted.

Current Situation of PKO



List of United Nations Peacekeeping Operations

(As of the end of December 2005)

	Name	Duration		Name	Duration
1	United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNSTO)	Jun 1948–present	33	United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR)	Oct 1993–Mar 1996
2	United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP)	Jan 1949–present	34	United Nations Aouzou Strip Observer Group (UNASOG)	May 1994–Jun 1994
3	First United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF I)	Nov 1956–Jun 1967	35	United Nations Mission of Observers in Tajikistan (UNMOT)	Dec 1994–May 2000
4	United Nations Observation Group in Lebanon (UNOGIL)	Jun–Dec 1958	36	United Nations Angola Verification Mission III (UNAVEM III)	Feb 1995–Jun 1997
5	UN Organization in Congo (ONUC)	Jul 1960–Jun 1964	37	United Nations Confidence Restoration Operation (UNCRO)	Mar 1995–Jan 1996
6	United Nations Security Force in West New Guinea (West Irian) (UNSF)	Oct 1962–Apr 1963	38	United Nations Preventive Deployment Force (UNPREDEP)	Mar 1995–Feb 1999
7	United Nations Yemen Observation Mission (UNYOM)	Jul 1963–Sep 1964	39	United Nations Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (UNMIBH)	Dec 1995–Dec 2002
8	United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP)	Mar 1964–present	40	United Nations Transitional Authority in Eastern Slavonia, Baranja and Western Sirmium (UNTAES)	Jan 1996–Jan 1998
9	Mission of the Representative of the Secretary-General in the Dominican Republic (DOMREP)	May 1965–Oct 1966	41	United Nations Mission of Observers in Prevlaka (UNMOP)	Jan 1996–Dec 2002
10	United Nations India–Pakistan Observation Mission (UNIPOM)	Sep 1965–Mar 1966	42	United Nations Support Mission in Haiti (UNSMIH)	Jul 1996–Jul 1997
11	Second United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF II)	Oct 1973–Jul 1979	43	United Nations Verification Mission in Guatemala (MINUGUA)	Jan 1997–May 1997
12	United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF)	Jun 1974–present	44	United Nations Observer Mission in Angola (MONUA)	Jun 1997–Feb 1999
13	United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL)	Mar 1978–present	45	United Nations Transition Mission in Haiti (UNTMH)	Aug 1997–Nov 1997
14	United Nations Good Offices Mission in Afghanistan and Pakistan (UNGOMAP)	May 1988–Mar 1990	46	United Nations Civilian Police Mission in Haiti (MIPONUH)	Dec 1997–Mar 2000
15	United Nations Iran–Iraq Military Observer Group (UNIIMOG)	Aug 1988–Feb 1991	47	United Nations Civilian Police Support Group (UNCPSG)	Jan 1998–Oct 1998
16	United Nations Angola Verification Mission I (UNAVEM I)	Jan 1989–May 1991	48	United Nations Mission in the Central African Republic (MINURCA)	Apr 1998–Feb 2000
17	United Nations Transition Assistance Group–Namibia (UNTAG)	Apr 1989–Mar 1990	49	United Nations Observer Mission in Sierra Leone (UNOMSIL)	Jul 1998–Oct 1999
18	United Nations Observer Group in Central America (ONUCA)	Nov 1989–Jan 1992	50	United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK)	Jun 1999–present
19	United Nations Iraq–Kuwait Observation Mission (UNIKOM)	Apr 1991–Oct 2003	51	United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL)	Oct 1999–Dec 2005
20	United Nations Angola Verification Mission II (UNAVEM II)	May 1991–Feb 1995	52	United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET)	Oct 1999–May 2002
21	United Nations Observer Mission in El Salvador (ONUSAL)	Jul 1991–Apr 1995	53	United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC)	Nov 1999–present
22	United Nations Missions for the Referendum in Western Sahara (MINURSO)	Apr 1991–present	54	United Nations Mission in Ethiopia and Eritrea (UNMEE)	Jul 2000–present
23	United Nations Advance Mission in Cambodia (UNAMIC)	Oct 1991–Mar 1992	55	United Nations Mission of Support in East Timor (UNMISSET)	May 2002–May 2005
24	United Nations Protection Force (UNPROFOR)	Mar 1992–Dec 1995	56	United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL)	Oct 2003–present
25	United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC)	Mar 1992–Sep 1993	57	United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI)	Apr 2004–present
26	United Nations Operation in Somalia I (UNOSOM I)	Apr 1992–Mar 1993	58	United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH)	Jun 2004–present
27	United Nations Operations in Mozambique (ONUMOZ)	Dec 1992–Dec 1994	59	United Nations Operation in Burundi (ONUB)	Jun 2004–present
28	United Nations Operation in Somalia II (UNOSOM II)	Mar 1993–Mar 1995	60	United Nations Mission in Sudan (UNMIS)	Mar 2005–present
29	United Nations Observer Mission Uganda–Rwanda (UNOMUR)	Jun 1993–Sep 1994			
30	United Nations Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG)	Aug 1993–present			
31	United Nations Observer Mission in Liberia (UNOMIL)	Sep 1993–Sep 1997			
32	United Nations Mission in Haiti (UNMIH)	Sep 1993–Jun 1996			

(This chart was created based on UN reference materials.)

□ Currently under operation
Bold: Operations, missions, and other activities in which Japan is taking (or took) part

Notes: 1. Apart from the above operations, missions, and other activities which the UN classifies as PKO, some missions with similar duties have been dispatched. For example, the United Nations Mission in East Timor (UNAMET, composed of civilian police officers, military liaison officers, and others) was dispatched to Timor-Leste from June to October 1999. Japan also dispatched civilian police officers to this mission.
 2. Japan has dispatched personnel to eight PKO, five international humanitarian relief operations (for refugees from Rwanda, Timor-Leste, Afghanistan, and Iraq and affected people from Iraq), and five international election monitoring activities (two cases in Bosnia-Herzegovina, two cases in Timor-Leste, and one case in Kosovo).

Record of Japan's International Peace Cooperation Activities Based on the International Peace Cooperation Law

UN Peacekeeping Operations (PKO)

(As of December 2005)

United Nations Angola Verification Mission II (UNAVEM II)	Electoral observers	Sep–Oct 1992	3 persons
United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC)	Military observers	Sep 1992–Sep 1993	8 persons x 2 * ¹
	Civilian police	Oct 1992–Jul 1993	75 persons
	Engineering units	Sep 1992–Sep 1993	600 persons x 2
	Electoral observers	May–Jun 1993	41 persons
United Nations Operation in Mozambique (ONUMOZ)	Staff officers	May 1993–Jan 1995	5 persons x 2
	Movement control units	May 1993–Jan 1995	48 persons x 3
	Electoral observers	Oct–Nov 1994	15 persons
United Nations Observer Mission in El Salvador (ONUSAL)	Electoral observers	Mar–Apr 1994	15 persons x 2
United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF)	Staff officers	Feb 1996–present	2 persons x 10
	Transport units	Feb 1996–present	43 persons x 20
United Nations Mission in East Timor (UNAMET)	Civilian police	Jul–Sep 1999	3 persons
United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor (UNTAET)	Engineering units	Mar–May 2002	680 persons
	Headquarters personnel	Feb–May 2002	10 persons
United Nations Mission of Support in East Timor (UNMISSET)	Engineering units	May 2002–Jun 2004	680 persons x 2 + 522 persons + 405 persons
	Headquarters personnel	May 2002–Jun 2004	10 persons + 7 persons * ² * ³

*1 Indicates that there were two dispatches of eight persons each.

*2 Indicates that ten persons continuing from the UNTAET mission were dispatched for the first phase, and seven persons were dispatched for the second phase.

*3 The personnel dispatched to the engineer group and as headquarters personnel for the first phase of the UNMISSET are those continuing from the UNTAET mission.

International Humanitarian Relief Operations

Relief of Rwandan refugees	Refugee relief units	Sep–Dec 1994	283 persons
	Airlifting units	Sep–Dec 1994	118 persons
Relief of East Timorese displaced persons	Airlifting units	Nov 1999–Feb 2000	113 persons
Relief of Afghan refugees	Airlifting units	Oct 2001	138 persons
Relief of Iraqi refugees	Airlifting units (includes 6 operations support personnel)	Mar–Apr 2003	56 persons
Relief of Iraqi victims	Airlifting units (includes 6 operations support personnel)	Jul–Aug 2003	104 persons

International Election Monitoring Activities

Bosnia and Herzegovina general and regional elections	Elections supervisors and observers	Sep 1998	30 persons
Bosnia and Herzegovina municipal assembly elections	Polling supervisors	Mar–Apr 2000	11 persons
Timor-Leste constituent assembly elections	Electoral observers	Aug–Sep 2001	19 persons
Kosovo assembly elections	Electoral observers	Nov 2001	6 persons
Timor-Leste presidential election	Electoral observers	Apr 2002	8 persons

Peace in Sudan and PKO

Sudan, the nation with the largest land surface of any in Africa, is a country rich in nature; yet despite the good nature of its easygoing people, the country has been in an unceasing state of civil war since its independence in 1956 due to a complex ethnic composition and the interests of the international community. While no single peace accord in Sudan has been successful in the past, it is expected that the Comprehensive Peace Agreement of January 2005 will continue to be effective as it was concluded between the political and military majorities of northern and southern Sudan, in addition to the presence of a United Nations (UN) Peacekeeping mission that is monitoring the ceasefire, making it difficult for the concerned parties to easily break the agreement.

However, the efforts of both the northern and southern parties to make the unity attractive toward the referendum to be held after six years, as well as the UN PKO to support their efforts, has just begun. Confidence building is not always progressing in the face of the collision of actual interests, such as oil revenue sharing and the incorporation of the other groups, whose attribution remains undecided. Moreover, there is a growing expectation for the UN to take an initiative on the matter of the Darfur issue, whose nature differs from that of Sudan's north-south civil war. While welcoming the peace, the people of Sudan also seem to be confused in

the face of rapid economic development and the deployment of the UN PKO.

Many Japanese people are now playing active roles on the ground in Sudan as UN or non-governmental organization (NGO) staff. I, myself, am working at Unified Mission Analysis Centre of the UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS), where the military and civilians gather and analyze information as a joint team. The current situation in Sudan, which provides a best opportunity for the resolution of the domestic conflict, requires painstaking labor to handle carefully complex issues one by one. Because of such background, the UN should engage itself in the identification of the current problems and their implications and anticipation of the possible changes in the future. Among the PKOs in the world, it is a new challenge to have a section that analyzes the situation inclusively by taking into account not only the military perspective but also the correlations with political, economic, and social factors. Together with the other staff members, I am working in such operation, trying to make use of my experience as stationed in North Africa including Sudan, and of conducting Japan's assistance for Afghanistan reconstruction.

Writer: UN Mission in Sudan (UNMIS) Information Analyst
Yusuke Kudo

6 Disarmament and Non-Proliferation

Overview

The year 2005 marked the 60th anniversary of the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. While the threat of proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and their means of delivery such as the nuclear issues of North Korea and Iran and the acquisition of nuclear materials by terrorists have been pointed out, there was a wide divergence in opinion between the relevant states parties at the Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT)²⁵ in May 2005, and the High-Level Plenary Meeting of the United Nations (UN) General Assembly in September. Although there was no agreement on a consensus document for substantial matters in the field of disarmament and non-proliferation, the fact that these international fora have raised awareness toward strengthening future initiatives represents a degree of progress.

Japan proactively made a variety of diplomatic efforts toward the maintenance and strengthening of the international disarmament and non-proliferation regime, such as submitting a proposal entitled “21 Measures for the 21st Century”²⁶ at the NPT Review Conference.

In the field of nuclear disarmament, after the regrettable results of the NPT Review Conference and the High-Level Plenary Meeting of the UN General Assembly, Japan revised the draft resolution on nuclear disarmament that it has submitted every year since 1994 to the UN General Assembly, making the wording stronger and more concise. As a result, the resolution was adopted with 168 supporting votes, the highest number ever. Japan has also continued its efforts to advance nuclear disarmament on a practical and incremental approach through such measures as calling on the international community to promote the early entry into force of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban



Parliamentary Secretary for Foreign Affairs Katsuyuki Kawai (left) attends the NPT Review Conference at the UN Headquarters, New York, in May

Treaty (CTBT).

In the field of non-proliferation, Japan has contributed to strengthening the non-proliferation regime through its continued diplomatic efforts toward a peaceful resolution of the non-proliferation issues of North Korea and Iran at various fora such as the Six-Party Talks and the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA).²⁷ Japan has actively called mainly on Asian countries to strengthen the IAEA safeguards, to widen support for the Proliferation Security Initiative (PSI), and to strengthen export control regimes.

Achievements were made in the field of counter nuclear terrorism, which included the adoption by the UN General Assembly of the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism and the adoption of the amendment to the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material under the auspices of the IAEA.

With respect to the Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC) and the Biological Weapons Convention (BWC), Japan called on the states parties and non-states parties to make substantive efforts in the fields of their universalization, promotion of national implementation,

25. A conference of the states parties to review the status of the NPT once every five years, based on the provisions of Article 8, Paragraph 3 of the NPT. At the 1995 NPT Review and Extension Conference, a resolution on the indefinite extension of the treaty was adopted, and at the 2000 NPT Review Conference, a final document was adopted. This included a set of practical steps towards nuclear disarmament, among which is the nuclear weapon states' agreement to undertake unequivocally the total elimination of their nuclear arsenals.

26. In the belief that efforts to achieve a shared understanding on the further measures that need to be taken to strengthen the NPT must be doubled, at the NPT Review Conference Japan submitted 21 proposals for inclusion in the final document. (The final consensus document was not produced in the end.)

27. The IAEA and its Director General, Dr. Mohamed ElBaradei, were awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 2005. The Nobel Committee announced that the award was made to the IAEA and Dr. ElBaradei “for their efforts to prevent nuclear energy from being used for military purposes, and to ensure that nuclear energy for peaceful purposes is used in the safest possible way.” At the same time, they commended the work of the IAEA and Dr. ElBaradei: “At a time when disarmament efforts appear deadlocked, when there is a danger that nuclear arms will proliferate to states and to terrorist groups, and when nuclear power again appears to be playing an increasingly significant role, the IAEA's work is of incalculable importance.”

Outline of Framework for Disarmament and Non-Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction, Missiles and Related Materials

Weapons of mass destruction (WMD)			Delivery means for WMD (missiles)	Conventional weapons (small arms and light weapons, anti-personnel landmines, etc.)		
Nuclear weapons	Chemical weapons	Biological weapons				
Treaties, etc., for disarmament and non-proliferation	Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) ★ Entered into force in Mar 1970	Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC) ★ Entered into force in Apr 1997	Biological Weapons Convention (BWC) Entered into force in Mar 1975	Hague Code of Conduct against Ballistic Missile Proliferation (HCOC) Launched in Nov 2002	Convention on certain Conventional Weapons (CCW) Entered into force in Dec 1983	UN Programme of Action on Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (PoA)* Adopted in July 2001
	International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) safeguards (obligation based on Article III of the NPT) ★ Model Agreement adopted Feb 1971			* HCOC is a political norm, not a legally binding international agreement	Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and on Their Destruction Entered into force in Mar 1999	International Instrument concerning the Tracing of Small Arms and Light Weapons*
	IAEA Additional Protocol ★ Model Additional Protocol adopted May 1997				* Political norms that are not legally binding international treaties	
Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty ★ (not yet entered into force) (CTBT) Adopted in Sep 1996						
Export control regime for non-proliferation	Nuclear Suppliers Group (NSG) Materials, equipment, and technologies especially designed or prepared for nuclear use as well as nuclear related dual-use equipment, materials, software and related technologies (Part 1) Established in Jan 1978 (Part 2) Established in Apr 1992	Australia Group (AG) Biological and chemical weapons-related dual-use items and technologies Established in Jun 1985	Missile Technology Control Regime (MTCR) Missiles and related dual-use items and technologies Established in Apr 1987	Wassenaar Arrangement (WA) Conventional arms and dual-use items and technologies Established in Jul 1996		
	Zangger Committee Materials designed or prepared for nuclear use Established in Sep 1974					
New non-proliferation initiative	Proliferation Security Initiative (PSI) Launched May 2003					

Notes: 1. Items marked ★ involve verification mechanisms.
 2. Regarding conventional weapons, the United Nations Armament Registration System was launched in 1992, with the aim of improving transparency in weapon transfer.

and functional enhancement.

In the field of conventional weapons, Japan continued to work to promote projects on the ground related to anti-personnel mines and small arms and light weapons, and showed further steps to address the issue of small arms by, among others, the submission of a draft UN resolution on small arms and light weapons.

With a view to realizing a world free of nuclear weapons and of conflict, Japan will continue to make a range of diplomatic efforts toward the maintenance and strengthening of the disarmament and non-proliferation regime.

(a) Nuclear Disarmament

With a view to realizing a peaceful and safe world free of nuclear weapons, Japan attaches vital importance to the maintenance and strengthening of the international nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation regime based on Treaty on the Nuclear Non-Proliferation (NPT). However, at the 2005 NPT Review Conference, about two-thirds of the allotted time of the conference was spent on the adoption of procedural matters due to differences of views between the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) states, mainly the Middle Eastern

countries, and the Western countries. As a result, the conference concluded without adopting a consensus document on substantive matters. Moreover, there was no reference to nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation in the Outcome Document adopted by the High-Level Plenary Meeting of the UN General Assembly in September, due to such factors as differences of views regarding the balance of nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation. These results were indeed most regrettable, as UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan commented, "We have failed twice this year."

Japan considers the CTBT, along with the IAEA safeguards, to be an indispensable pillar of the nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation regime founded on the NPT, and places great value on the CTBT as one of the highest priorities in the field of nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation. From this viewpoint, in April Minister for Foreign Affairs Nobutaka Machimura sent a letter to the foreign ministers of the 11 countries whose ratification is required for the CTBT to enter into force, encouraging them to ratify the treaty as soon as possible. Japan also hosted the 2005 CTBT Friends' Ministerial Meeting during the NPT Review Conference. At the Fourth Conference on Facilitating the Entry into Force of the CTBT, which was held in

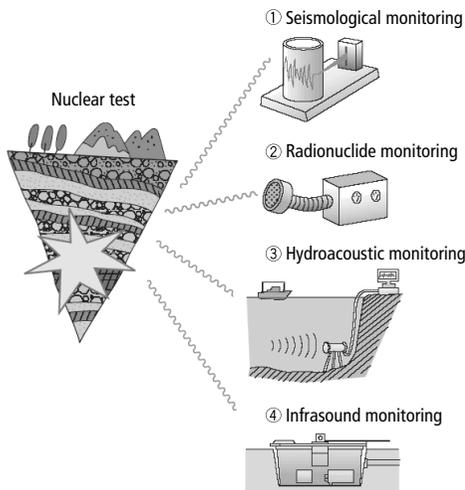
September, the representative of the Japanese government made diplomatic efforts, calling on states that have not ratified the treaty to ratify it in order to promote the treaty's entry into force.

Japan also places great importance on the commencement of negotiations on a Fissile Material Cut-off Treaty (FMCT) as a concrete measure to advance nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation. However, the Conference on Disarmament (CD) was again unable to agree on a program of work, including the commencement of negotiations on the FMCT, during the 2005 session. Japan will continue its tenacious diplomatic efforts to overcome the deadlock of the CD and bring about the early commencement of negotiations on the FMCT.

To advance nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation through a practical and incremental approach, every year since 1994 Japan has submitted a draft resolution on nuclear disarmament to the UN General Assembly, and worked for the formation of a consensus on nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation in the international community. In 2005, marking the 60th anniversary of the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan reorganized the composition of the draft resolution. The title of the new resolution

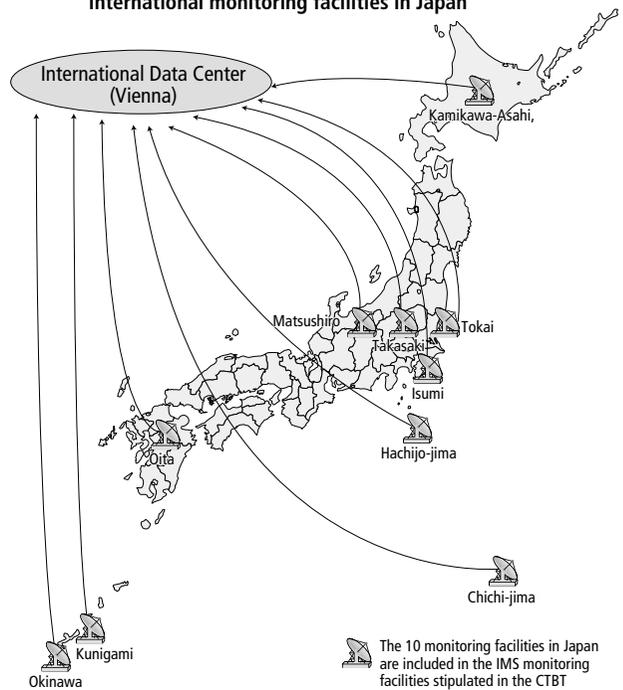
Nuclear Testing Monitoring System

CTBT International Monitoring System (IMS)



Excerpts from "For the Peaceful Use of Nuclear Energy," Nuclear Material Control Center

International monitoring facilities in Japan



The 10 monitoring facilities in Japan are included in the IMS monitoring facilities stipulated in the CTBT

Leading toward the Adoption of the Nuclear Disarmament Resolution

For an example of how Japan is playing a leading role in the international community, let us take a look at its work leading toward the adoption of a resolution on nuclear disarmament by the United Nations (UN) General Assembly.

Since 1994, Japan has been submitting draft resolutions on nuclear disarmament every year to the UN General Assembly. The most difficult task in drawing up these draft resolutions is to include Japan's basic idea to realize a peaceful and safe world free of nuclear weapons through a realistic and incremental approach, while at the same time making them acceptable for a great many countries. Although in the field of nuclear disarmament, there is a large difference between the positions of Nuclear-Weapon States and Non-Nuclear-Weapon States, Japan has gained support from both sides by making thorough preparations each year to gain support in overcoming such differences.

In 2005, the drafting of a resolution began in June, and the consultation process started in August to accommodate views of the countries, mainly the Nuclear-Weapon States as well as the members of the New Agenda Coalition (NAC)* who in recent years have abstained from Japan's nuclear disarmament resolutions. In light of the regrettable outcome of the 2005 Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) in May where no substantial agreed-upon document was adopted, the draft resolution on this occasion strengthened further the content of the resolution of previous

years. Some of the Nuclear-Weapon States, however, asked to weaken the draft resolution, while the NAC asked to make it stronger. In order to make a draft document acceptable to both sides, Japan held an intensive consultation process over a two-month period in which the document was edited no less than five times. After the First Committee of the UN General Assembly began in October, Japan expanded its approach to the countries of the entire world, asking representatives of various countries at the assembly chamber in New York, the respective governments in their capital cities, and in Tokyo to the various countries' embassies for their support by conveying the wishes of the Japanese people for the elimination of nuclear weapons on the occasion of the 60th anniversary of the atomic bombings in Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

These endeavors were crowned with success. On the eve of the day of adoption, the countries that Japan had labored to accommodate—some Nuclear-Weapon States, including France and Russia, and the countries of the NAC—one after another communicated their support. Accordingly, 166 countries supported the resolution at the First Committee in October and 168 countries in the UN General Assembly in December, the highest levels of support ever recorded. Japan has continued to work with the countries which opposed or abstained from the resolution, including the United States and China, to obtain their support for Japan's views on the importance of nuclear disarmament.

* New Agenda Coalition (NAC): Group of seven countries taking a more radical view than Japan on nuclear disarmament (members: Brazil, Egypt, Ireland, Mexico, New Zealand, South Africa, and Sweden)

submitted to the UN General Assembly was changed to "Renewed determination toward the total elimination of nuclear weapons," and the content became more concise and strongly worded, avoiding any redundancy of expression. As a result, the New Agenda Coalition (NAC) countries, which had abstained from voting up until last year, also came out in agreement and the reso-

lution was adopted with an overwhelming 168 supporting votes,²⁸ the most it has ever received. Japan was thus able to steadily advance the formation of a consensus in the international community to eliminate nuclear weapons.

From the viewpoint of disarmament and non-proliferation, and preventing environmental pollution in

28. The result of the adoption of the resolution "Renewed determination toward the total elimination of nuclear weapons": at the First Committee of the UN (October 26), 166 in favor (including UK, France, and Russia), 2 opposed (US and India), and 7 abstained; at the UN General Assembly (December 8), 168 in favor (including UK and France), 2 opposed (US and India), and 7 abstained.

the Sea of Japan, Japan has been providing Russia with support²⁹ to dismantle decommissioned nuclear submarines remaining in the Russian Far East through the Japan-Russia Committee on Cooperation for the Elimination of Nuclear Weapons. Under the cooperation program, named “Star of Hope,” assistance has so far been provided for dismantling one submarine. During the visit of President Vladimir Putin of Russia to Japan in November, an implementing arrangement was signed for a further five decommissioned nuclear submarines to be dismantled under the “Star of Hope” program, which is scheduled to begin dismantling them in the near future.

(b) Non-Proliferation

(1) Regional Non-Proliferation Issues

While there remained concern regarding the situation in North Korea as was exemplified in its statement in February 2005 that it had manufactured nuclear weapons, various diplomatic efforts continued to resolve the issue peacefully. In the fourth Six-Party Talks held in the summer of 2005, after about a one-year interruption the diplomatic efforts by the participating countries toward an agreement resulted in the issuance of the first Joint Statement in which North Korea committed itself to verifiably abandon “all nuclear weapons and existing nuclear programs.” This has become an important foundation for the peaceful resolution of the nuclear issue. The North Korean nuclear issue is not only directly connected to Japan’s security, but also a serious challenge to the international nuclear non-proliferation regime, and it is therefore necessary for Japan to make continued efforts aimed at the implementation of the statement while cooperating closely with the relevant countries.

Iran reached an agreement (the Paris Agreement) in November 2004 with the EU3 (UK, France, and Germany) according to which Iran would suspend its uranium enrichment-related activities, and negotiations were commenced toward long-term arrangements between Iran and the EU3. The EU3 presented a comprehensive proposal at the beginning of August 2005 following the Iranian presidential elections in June, but

Iran expressed discontent with the proposal, resumed uranium conversion activities and rejected the proposal. In response to such actions by Iran, the IAEA Board of Governors expressed in its Special Meeting on August 11 its serious concern over Iran’s decision and adopted a resolution urging the country to re-establish full suspension of all enrichment-related activities. Iran, however, did not re-suspend its uranium conversion, and the IAEA Board of Governors thus found in its meeting in September that Iran’s many failures and breaches of its obligations constituted noncompliance with the IAEA Safeguards Agreement, and adopted a resolution urging Iran to implement transparency measures and re-establish full and sustained suspension of all its enrichment-related activity and reprocessing activity with the support of a large majority of board member countries (22 out of 35 countries). Attempts to resume negotiations followed, such as the “preliminary talks” between the EU3 and Iran in December, but Iran did not show a major change in its policy, and in January 2006 it resumed its uranium enrichment-related activities. In response, the IAEA Board of Governors in its Special Meeting on February 4 adopted a resolution in which the Board decided to report the issue to the UN Security Council by a large majority (27 out of 35 countries). Iran resumed, however, uranium enrichment at a research facility in the country following this. Japan strongly hopes that Iran will respond sincerely and intends to take every opportunity to strongly urge Iran to change its policy.

India and Pakistan both conducted nuclear weapon tests in 1998, and in spite of calls from the international community, including Japan, neither has entered into the NPT nor signed the CTBT. Japan is continuing to call on both countries to enter into the NPT and to sign and ratify the CTBT.³⁰ In a new development worthy of note, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh of India visited the United States (US) in July and reached an agreement with US President George W. Bush on an initiative under which both countries’ governments would carry out full civil nuclear cooperation. Regarding this agreement, Japan will carefully examine how much impact nuclear cooperation with India, which has not acceded to the NPT as a non-nuclear weapon state, will have on

29. This program was implemented as part of the G8 Global Partnership, which was agreed at the Kananaskis Summit in June 2002, with the primary goal of preventing the proliferation of WMD and related materials.

30. In Pakistan, it was revealed in February 2004 that a number of scientists including Dr. Abdul Qadeer Khan, known as the “father of Pakistan’s nuclear development,” were involved in transferring nuclear weapons-related technologies outside the country. Such transactions disrupt peace and stability of the international community and damage the nuclear non-proliferation regime. Furthermore, the outflow to North Korea, apparently one of the destinations, is an especially grave concern for Japan’s security. The Japanese government has therefore conveyed its expression of regret to the Pakistani government at every occasion, and has strongly requested that it provide information concerning this incident to Japan and take measures to prevent a recurrence.

the international nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation regime based on the NPT. While explaining its position to both countries, Japan is paying close attention to future developments.

In January 2006, Minister for Foreign Affairs Taro Aso visited India and Pakistan and both countries agreed respectively to hold disarmament and non-proliferation talks with Japan at the director-general level.

(2) Non-Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction and Their Delivery Means

a) IAEA Safeguards

The IAEA safeguards system³¹ is a verification mechanism to ensure nuclear material and activities are not diverted for military purposes, and it constitutes the core structure for ensuring the effectiveness of the international nuclear non-proliferation regime. Japan, which considers that the maintenance and strengthening of the nuclear non-proliferation regime is one of its major foreign policy objectives, has proactively contributed to strengthening the safeguards. Japan believes it is essential that as many countries as possible conclude the Additional Protocol³² in particular (“universalization of the Additional Protocol”), which aims at reinforcing the safeguards. Japan has used bilateral and multinational

meetings as opportunities to urge countries to conclude a protocol. At the same time, Japan places importance on the efficient utilization of the IAEA’s limited human and financial resources, and has been urging the IAEA Secretariat to further enhance the efficiency of its safeguards activities. From this perspective, Japan regards as essential that the integrated safeguards³³ are to be implemented in more countries, thereby easing the burden and reducing the costs for both the countries accepting the safeguards and the IAEA.

b) Export Control

Export control regimes are frameworks to coordinate and harmonize the policy on export control among the countries with the capacity to supply weapons and related dual-use items as well as with the commitment to non-proliferation. There are currently four export control regimes.

- (1) Nuclear weapons: Nuclear Suppliers Group (NSG),³⁴ Zangger Committee
- (2) Biological and chemical weapons: Australia Group (AG)³⁵
- (3) Missiles: Missile Technology Control Regime (MTCR)³⁶
- (4) Conventional weapons and dual-use items: Wassenaar Arrangement (WA)³⁷

31. The system by which the IAEA conducts verification activities through such measures as inspections with the goal of ensuring nuclear materials are not being used for military purposes, based on safeguards agreements and protocols concluded with each country. Non-nuclear-weapon states that are states parties to the NPT are required to conclude a safeguards agreement with the IAEA and accept safeguards concerning all nuclear materials within the country (comprehensive safeguards) based on Article 3 of the treaty.

32. A protocol that is concluded in addition to comprehensive safeguards agreements with the IAEA. The authority of the IAEA is enhanced by the conclusion of the Additional Protocol—for example, expansion of scope of information on nuclear activities that should be declared to the IAEA and locations where inspections can be conducted by “complementary access.” As of the end of December 2005, 71 countries have concluded the Additional Protocol.

33. The concept of rationally and systematically integrating safeguards based on the conventional comprehensive safeguards agreement and safeguards based on the Additional Protocol. Specifically, this aims to streamline the safeguards by reducing the regular inspections in accordance with the conventional safeguards and other means in countries where the IAEA has concluded that “there are no undeclared nuclear activities and nuclear material” through the implementation of the Additional Protocol. The IAEA has drawn this conclusion for 21 countries, and the integrated safeguards are being applied in some of those countries such as Japan, Australia, Hungary, and Indonesia as of December 2005.

34. An international export control regime whose objective is to prevent the proliferation of nuclear weapons by controlling exports of materials, equipment, and technology that may be used in nuclear weapons development. The NSG guidelines consist of the London Guidelines Part 1, which serves as a regulatory guideline for items and technologies that are especially designed or prepared for nuclear use, and the London Guidelines Part 2, which is a regulatory guideline for nuclear-related dual-use items and technologies. 45 countries participate in the regime as of December 2005.

35. An international export control regime whose objective is to prevent the proliferation of biological and chemical weapons by controlling exports of related dual-use materials and technologies that may be used to develop and manufacture biological and chemical weapons. 39 countries participate in this regime as of December 2005.

36. An international export control regime whose objective is to control the exports of missiles, which serve as the delivery means of WMD, as well as related dual-use items and technology that may contribute to missile development. 34 countries participate in this regime as of December 2005.

37. An international export control regime that was established as the successor to the Coordinating Committee for Multilateral Export Controls (COCOM), a regime whose objective was to control exports of strategic materials from Western countries to the then-Communist bloc. The WA’s objective is to: (1) contribute to the security and stability of the regional and international community by preventing destabilizing accumulations of conventional arms and related sensitive dual-use items and technologies; and (2) prevent terrorist groups and others from acquiring conventional arms and sensitive dual-use items and technologies as part of the global fight against terrorism. Forty countries participate in this regime as of December 2005.

Japan participates in each of the four regimes. Export control is a framework of restriction from the suppliers side to prevent countries of nuclear proliferation concern and terrorist organizations from obtaining and proliferating WMD and related items. Japan draws upon these regimes, and has meanwhile contributed to strengthening them. With regard to missiles, Japan subscribes to the Hague Code of Conduct against Ballistic Missile Proliferation (HCOC)³⁸ adopted in November 2002, and actively contributes to ensuring the effectiveness and universalization of the HCOC by various means, including inviting HCOC member countries to the international observation visit to the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) Tanegashima Space Center as confidence-building measures.

*c) Proliferation Security Initiative (PSI)*³⁹

Concerned about the present situation in which the proliferation of WMD has not been prevented completely because some countries do not accept the relevant international norms, 11 countries including Japan launched the PSI in 2003 with a view to closing the loopholes in the conventional non-proliferation regime. Japan has been actively participating in the PSI, recognizing that the Initiative is in line with its efforts for non-proliferation of WMD and their delivery means. In August, Japan participated in a Singapore-hosted maritime interdiction exercise, by dispatching vessels and other assets.

d) Activities to Strengthen the Non-Proliferation Regime in Asia

Recognizing that a strengthened non-proliferation regime for WMD and their delivery means in Asian countries will enhance the security of Japan and the whole Asian region, Japan has actively implemented

activities to encourage other countries (outreach activities) with the aim of promoting understanding and strengthening efforts toward non-proliferation in Asia. These activities include hosting in Tokyo the Asian Senior-level Talks on Non-Proliferation (ASTOP)⁴⁰ every fiscal year since 2003, and the Asian Export Control Seminar every fiscal year since 1993.

e) Assurances of Nuclear Fuel Supply

Out of awareness of the need to close the loopholes in the nuclear non-proliferation regime, an international expert group published a report in February 2005, on Multilateral Nuclear Approaches (MNA)⁴¹ which had been proposed by IAEA Director-General Mohamed ElBaradei. It is expected that there would be increased international discussions regarding the assurances of nuclear fuel supplies, and Japan will participate actively in the discussions for the creation of a new framework that copes with new issues of the global nuclear non-proliferation.

(c) A Framework of International Regulations for the Peaceful Use of Nuclear Energy

In addition to the non-proliferation regime, the major international frameworks for advancing appropriately the peaceful use of nuclear energy include the frameworks of the safety of nuclear energy and of the nuclear security to respond to the threat of nuclear material and radioactive sources being misused by terrorists. Japan has concluded and implements the two conventions, namely the Convention on Nuclear Safety, and the Joint Convention on the Safety of Spent Fuel Management and on the Safety of Radioactive Waste Management. In the field of nuclear security, the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear

38. The first international rule for the non-proliferation of ballistic missiles and a political document (not a legally-binding international agreement) outlining the principles that should be complied with in prevention and containment of proliferation of ballistic missiles, and the necessary measures to that end. The main content of the HCOC includes: (1) prevention and containment of proliferation of ballistic missiles that can deliver WMD; (2) restricting development, test, and deployment; (3) not contributing to, supporting, or assisting the ballistic missile programs of countries suspected of developing WMD; and (4) implementation of confidence-building measures. As of December 2005, 123 countries participate in the HCOC.

39. An initiative by participating countries to collectively consider and act on possible measures in order to prevent the proliferation of WMD, their delivery means and related materials, within a framework of international law and the domestic laws of each country. As of December 2005, over 60 countries support the basic principles for activities laid out in the Statement of Interdiction Principles and substantively participate in or support PSI activities.

40. Officials at director-general level responsible for non-proliferation policy from the 10 ASEAN member countries, Japan, China, the Republic of Korea, the US, and Australia meet for discussions on issues relating to strengthening the non-proliferation regime in Asia.

41. Under the current nuclear non-proliferation regime, it is not illegal to possess sensitive enrichment or reprocessing technology that could be used for the production of nuclear material used to make nuclear weapons, and if a country decided to withdraw from the non-proliferation regime it would be able to produce nuclear material for weapons within a short space of time. Aware of the need to close this loophole in the non-proliferation regime, in October 2003 IAEA Director-General ElBaradei proposed a new approach that includes placing sensitive enrichment and reprocessing technology and facilities under multilateral control.

What is the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), the winner of the Nobel Peace Prize?

Nuclear energy is indispensable to our lives, producing approximately 30% of the electricity consumed in Japan. However, it is also true that its extraordinarily huge energy potential is of great military value. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) was founded in 1957 with a view to making use of this “double-edged sword” for peaceful purposes on one hand and preventing its diversion to military use on the other.

The IAEA’s important tasks include establishing standards and taking measures for nuclear safety and widening the application of nuclear energy such as the use of radiation in medical care. It was decided that the Nobel Peace Prize would be used to develop human resources for cancer treatment and nutrition improvement in developing countries.

The IAEA is, however, better known for its activities in preventing the diversion of nuclear energy to military use which merited the Nobel Peace Prize. These activities are comprised mainly of the measurement of nuclear materials and the actual inspection of nuclear

activities. Japan is widely believed to have no intention to possess nuclear weapons, but is no exception to such inspections, with an average of six inspectors carrying out inspections at relevant facilities every day.

Japan has endeavored to ensure the transparency of its nuclear activities in cooperation with the IAEA for over 40 years, establishing itself as a shining example of the peaceful use of nuclear energy. As a result, the IAEA has concluded that Japan has neither diversion of nuclear materials nor any undeclared activities. However, in contrast to Japan’s case, clandestine nuclear activities are often carried out by countries of concern. The IAEA is working to strengthen its inspections, but grasping the entire picture of all such activities is no easy task. Given such circumstances, the awarding of the Nobel Peace Prize to the IAEA is “a powerful message” to continue in their efforts to work for security and development, as the IAEA Director General Mohamed ElBaradei put it in his Nobel Lecture.



IAEA Director General Mohamed ElBaradei and Chairman of IAEA Board of Governors Yukiya Amano receiving the Nobel Peace Prize; taken at the Nobel Prize Award Ceremony in December in Oslo, Norway. (Photo credit: IAEA/Dean Calma)

Terrorism was adopted by the UN General Assembly in April, and Prime Minister Junichiro Koizumi signed the convention together with the leaders of other major countries at the High-Level Plenary Meeting of the UN General Assembly in September. Furthermore, the amendment to the Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material was adopted under the

auspices of the IAEA in July. These newly adopted conventions and the amendment have been under thorough examination for early conclusion. Japan has also been actively supporting the nuclear security activities of the IAEA through various measures, including contributions to the Nuclear Security Fund.

(d) Chemical, Biological, and Conventional Weapons

(1) Chemical Weapons

The Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC)⁴² places a comprehensive ban on chemical weapons, including their development, production, and stockpiling; it also provides for the total destruction of existing chemical weapons. It is a groundbreaking treaty on disarmament of WMD that ensures compliance with the treaty through an effective verification system of declaration and inspections.⁴³ The promotion of universality and the implementation of Article VII obligations (national implementation) have both become major issues in recent years, and at the Conference of the States Parties to the CWC, held in November, it was decided to extend for a further two years the Action Plan for the Universality of the CWC that was approved in 2003, and to follow-up the Plan of Action Regarding the Implementation of Article VII Obligations. Japan has contributed to these efforts by hosting seminars aimed mainly at countries in the Asian region, and particularly in 2005 it encouraged Iraq to accede to the CWC, as well as supporting the national implementation in Cambodia.

(2) Biological Weapons

The Biological Weapons Convention (BWC)⁴⁴ is the only existing international legal framework that places a comprehensive ban on biological weapons, but strengthening the convention is a challenge as it lacks effective provisions for the means to verify the compliance with the convention of states parties.⁴⁵

At the Conference of States Parties to the BWC held in December, a common understanding and effective action on a code of conduct for scientists were affirmed, and a report calling for information to be made available at the Review Conference in 2006 on the measures taken by each country was unanimously adopted by the states parties. Japan is supporting the current process for strengthening the convention, and has made substantive

contributions which include dispatching specialists to the Meeting of Experts in July to share Japan's findings and experience and contribute to vigorous discussions, and coordinating with other countries toward the adoption of the final report.

(3) Small Arms and Light Weapons

In recent years, an excessive amount of small arms and light weapons have been in circulation in the international community; this has become one of the factors leading to the exacerbation and prolongation of conflicts, the deterioration of post-conflict public security, and the recurrence of conflicts. These arms have also become a tremendous obstacle to the reconstruction of the affected countries and societies. In June, the negotiations were settled on an international instrument concerning the tracing of small arms and light weapons, one of the follow-up matters for the Programme of Action on Small Arms and Light Weapons (adopted in 2001), and the instrument was adopted at the UN General Assembly. The Conference to Review Progress Made in the Implementation of the Programme of Action is scheduled to be held in June 2006.

Japan has been carrying out small arms collection projects in cooperation with the relevant organizations, which combine the collection of small arms and light weapons with development assistance. In Cambodia, Japan has cooperated with national and local governments in implementing the Peace Building and Comprehensive Small Arms Management Program (450 million yen in FY2002, 470 million yen in FY2004) through Grant Aid for Conflict Prevention and Peace Building. This program is based on development assistance in exchange for turning in small arms and light weapons, consisting of destruction of small arms and light weapons, assistance in controlling and registering small arms and light weapons, and activities for raising awareness. Through this program, over 13,010 small arms and light weapons have been collected and disposed of as of January 2006.

42. The CWC came into effect in April 1997. There are 175 states parties as of December 31, 2005.

43. The Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) carries out activities such as dispatching inspection teams to verify compliance with the CWC by states parties.

44. The BWC came into effect in March 1975. There are 155 states parties as of December 31, 2005. The BWC comprehensively prohibits the development, production, stockpiling, as well as acquisition and possession of biological weapons, and obliges states parties to destroy any biological weapons that they possess.

45. An attempt to introduce verification measures was suspended in 2001, but at the Review Conference of the States Parties to the BWC in 2002 it was agreed that five areas relating to strengthening the convention (national implementation measures; bio-security; emergency preparedness and responses; infectious disease surveillance; and a code of conduct for scientists) would be discussed and that common understanding and effective action among the states parties would be promoted. Discussions regarding the strengthening of the convention have continued.

(4) *Anti-Personnel Mines*

Japan has been promoting comprehensive efforts for the effective prohibition of anti-personnel mines in the international community and strengthening assistance for countries affected by anti-personnel mines. Regarding prohibition of anti-personnel mines, Japan has been urging especially Asia-Pacific countries that have not yet done so to accede to the convention, since great importance should be attached to increases in the number of countries ratifying the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personnel Mines and on Their Destruction (Ottawa Convention).⁴⁶

Regarding strengthening assistance for mine-

affected countries, since 1998 Japan has given assistance worth more than 20 billion yen to over 30 countries for activities including mine clearance, victim assistance, and mine risk education. Recently, Japan extended assistance to Sudan, which concluded the North-South Comprehensive Peace Agreement in January 2005, for measures in the south of the country. More specifically, this assistance included approximately 1 billion yen in support for demining to advance emergency humanitarian assistance and mine risk education for refugees and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) to return to their homes. Japan has also provided 60 mine detection devices needed for the activities of UNMIS.

46. A convention that went into effect in March 1999. It prohibits the use, production, and other conduct related to anti-personnel landmines, and makes the disposal of stockpiled landmines and removal of buried landmines obligatory. As of January 2006, 148 countries including Japan have concluded the convention.