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The United Kingdom Delegation to the Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe presents its compliments to the participating States of the Forum for Security and Co-operation (FSC), and to the Conflict Prevention Centre, and has the honour to convey its response to the questionnaire on the *Code of Conduct on Politico-Military Aspects of Security* for 2018. The response also includes voluntary information on Private Military and Security Companies and Women, Peace and Security.

The United Kingdom Delegation avails itself of this opportunity to renew to the delegations, and to the Conflict Prevention Centre, the assurance of its highest consideration.

UNITED KINGDOM DELEGATION
VIENNA

12 April 2018

To all Delegations/Permanent Missions to the OSCE
To the Conflict Prevention Centre

INFORMATION EXCHANGE ON THE CODE OF CONDUCT ON POLITICO-MILITARY ASPECTS OF SECURITY: UK CODE OF CONDUCT QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN 2018

Contents

Section I: Inter-State elements

1. Account of measures to prevent and combat terrorism

1.1 To which agreements and arrangements (universal, regional, sub regional and bilateral) related to preventing and combating terrorism is your State a party?

Convention	Signature	Ratification
1. Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft, signed at Tokyo on 14 September 1963	14 Sep 63	29 Nov 68
2. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft, signed at The Hague on 16 December 1970	16 Dec 70	22 Dec 71
3. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Civil Aviation, signed at Montreal on 23 September 1971	23 Sep 71	25 Oct 73
4. Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 14 December 1973	13 Dec 74	2 May 79
5. International Convention against the Taking of Hostages, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 17 December 1979	18 Dec 79	22 Dec 82
6. Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material, signed at Vienna 3 March 1980	13 Jun 80	6 Sep 91
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, signed at Montreal on 24 February 1988	26 Oct 88	15 Nov 90
8. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Maritime Navigation. Concluded at Rome on 10 March 1988	22 Sep 88	3 May 91
9. Protocol to the above mentioned Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Fixed Platforms Located on the Continental Shelf. Concluded at Rome on 10 March 1988	22 Sep 88	3 May 91
10. Convention on the Marking of Plastic Explosives for the Purpose of Detection, Done at Montreal on 1 March 1991	1 Mar 91	28 Apr 97
11. International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 15 December 1997	12 Jan 98	7 Mar 01

12. International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 9 December1999	10 Jan 00	7 Mar 01
13. International Conventions for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism	14 Sept 05	24 September 09

UNITED KINGDOM ADHERENCE TO EUROPEAN CONVENTION ON TERRORISM

European Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism, concluded at Strasbourg on 27 January 1977	27 Jan 77	24 Jul 78
Council of Europe Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism	16 May 05	UK has not ratified
Protocol amending the European Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism	15 May 03	UK has not ratified
Additional Protocol to the Council of Europe Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism	22 Oct 15	UK has not ratified

The Special European Council on 20 and 21 September 2001 agreed that counterterrorism should be a priority for the Union, both internally and in its relations with third countries. Heads of State and Government endorsed an EU Action Plan on 21 September 2001 to help member States step up the fight against global terrorism and to improve practical co-operation among member states. Measures which the EU has taken since September 2001 include:

- agreement on a Euro arrest warrant and fast-track extradition;
- agreement on common EU offences and penalties for terrorist activity;
- conclusion of the EU/US Europol agreement;
- agreement on measures to implement UNSCR 1390 and the provisions in UNSCR 1373; relating to the suppression of terrorist financing.

During the UK Presidency of the EU in 2005, the EU agreed the Counter-Terrorism Strategy which sought to reflect the changing state of the terrorist threat and to bring a greater sense of coherence and prioritisation to the rapidly increasing number of work streams contained within the EU Counter-Terrorism Action Plan elaborated after 9/11. In addition, a Radicalisation and Recruitment Strategy and Action Plan were developed, along with a corresponding Media Communications Strategy.

Treaties do not automatically form part of UK law, and, therefore, before ratifying any treaty the UK must consider whether any amendment of domestic law is required to give effect to the obligations that it contains. This will involve an examination of whether the existing common law or statutory provisions are sufficient to implement the treaty in question, and, if not, legislation will be required to make the necessary amendments. The way in which the main provisions of the twelve international Counter-Terrorism Conventions and the European Convention for the Suppression of Terrorism are implemented, is set out below.[1]

Tokyo Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft 1963

Jurisdiction of State of Registration – Article 3
Section 92 of the Civil Aviation Act 1982 provides for the application of the criminal law to offences committed on board British-controlled aircraft in flight outside the UK. The definition of “British

controlled aircraft" is found in section 92(5), and goes somewhat wider than simply aircraft registered in the UK.[1]

Powers of the aircraft commander – Articles 5-10
Section 93 of the Civil Aviation Act 1982 sets out the powers of the commander of an aircraft, so as to give effect to these Articles of the Convention.

Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft – Article 11
Specific legislative enactment is unnecessary in respect of this Article. Reasonable force is permissible under the common law in defence of the person, and in relation to preventing crime and arresting offenders by virtue of section 3 of the Criminal Law Act 1967.

Powers and duties of States - Articles 12-15
The necessary legislative enactment is unnecessary beyond the provision of section 93 of the Civil Aviation Act 1982. Powers of detention are primarily regulated under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984. Powers of removal of aliens are regulated under immigration legislation.

Article 16
It is accepted for the purposes the United Kingdom's various general extradition arrangements with individual States that offences committed aboard aircraft are considered to be offences committed within the territory of the State of registration of such aircraft – Extradition Act 1989 sections 1(4) and Sch.1, para 14. In addition extradition is permitted to contracting parties to the Tokyo Convention in respect of offences committed on board aircraft in flight by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Tokyo Convention) Order 1997 (SI no. 1997/1768).

Article 18
The Secretary of State is empowered to make designations in relation to joint air transport operating organisations under s.98 of the Civil Aviation Act 1982.

The Hague Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft 1970

Article 1 – The Offence
Section 1 of the Aviation Security Act 1982 establishes the offence of hijacking in terms similar to the Convention. Under the general criminal law, accomplices to offences may themselves be prosecuted as principal offenders under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861. In addition section 6(2)(a) of the Aviation Security Act 1982 establishes ancillary offences in respect of persons in the UK who induce or assist the commission outside the UK of hijackings of military or police aircraft, or aircraft for which the place of take-off and landing is the same as that of the State of registration (matters excluded from the scope of the Convention under Article 3(2) and (3)).

Furthermore, legislation needs to be enacted in order to extend the conventions to the Crown Dependencies and Overseas Territories. The first five conventions detailed below have been extended to all of these territories; the process of extending the remaining seven is on-going.

Article 2 - Penalty
The offence of hijacking is punishable by life imprisonment (section 1(3) of the Aviation Security Act 1982).

Article 3 – Interpretation and exclusions
The interpretation of when an aircraft is considered to be in flight for the purposes of the Convention (Article 3(1)) is mirrored in section 38(3) of the Aviation Security Act 1982. The excluded matters

[1] However it is important to note that the UK is made of three different law districts, namely (i) England and Wales, (ii) Scotland, and (iii) Northern Ireland. Whilst primary legislation that has been introduced specifically to implement treaty obligations will usually apply in all three law districts, aspects of substantive and procedural criminal law differ considerably in each. For the sake of brevity, this reply sets out the position in England and Wales. Implementation of the Conventions differs in a number of respects in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

in Articles 3(2) (military and police aircraft) and (3) (aircraft for which the place of take-off and landing is the same as that of the State of registration) are mirrored in section 1(2) of the Aviation Security Act 1982, except (i) where the hijackers of such planes are UK nationals or (ii) the hijacking occurs in the UK or (iii) the aircraft is registered in the UK or used in the service of the UK military or police.

Article 4 - Jurisdiction
Hijacking is an offence under section 1 of the Aviation Security Act 1982, whether it takes place in the UK or elsewhere. In accordance with section 8, proceedings in respect of these offences require the consent of the Attorney-General. Provision is also made for extraterritorial jurisdiction over a number of ancillary offences committed in connection with a hijacking, including homicides and various other offences against the person, as well as explosives offences (section 6(1) of the Aviation Security Act 1982).

Article 5 – Joint air transport operating organisations
The Secretary of State is empowered to make designations in relation to joint air transport operating organisations under s.98 of the Civil Aviation Act 1982.

Article 6 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 7 aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this provision in UK law is unnecessary, though it will be observed by the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution.

Article 8 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties of The Hague Convention in respect of offences under sections 1, 6(1) and 6(2)(a) of the Aviation Security Act 1982, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Hijacking) Order 1997 (SI no. 1997/1763).

Article 9 – Preventive Measures
Specific legislative enactment is unnecessary in respect of this Article. Reasonable force is permissible under the common law in defence of the person, and in relation to preventing crime and arresting offenders by virtue of section 3 of the Criminal Law Act 1967. However section 7 of the Aviation Security Act 1982 enables the police to take measures to prevent a person from embarking on an aircraft where they suspect he intends to commit hijacking offences.

Article 10 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Article 11 – Notifications
Specific legislative authority is not required in this respect.

The Montreal Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Civil Aviation 1971

Article 1 – The Offences
The offences set out in Article 1(1) are reflected in the provisions of sections 2(1), 2(2), 3(1), and 3(3) of the Aviation Security Act 1982.

As regards attempts and accomplices for the purposes of Article 1(2), section 2(2) of the Aviation Security Act 1982 provides that it is an offence to place a device or substance on an aircraft which is likely to destroy or damage it. Additionally under the general criminal law, attempts to commit one of these offences are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices to offences may themselves be prosecuted as principal offenders under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861.

Further, section 6(2)(b) of the Aviation Security Act 1982 establishes an ancillary offence in respect of persons in the UK who induce or assist the commission outside the UK of the destruction or sabotage of military or police aircraft, or the commission of violent acts which are likely to endanger the safety of such aircraft. Section 6(2)(c) establishes an ancillary offence in respect of persons in the UK who induce or assist the commission outside the UK of destruction or damage to property likely to endanger the safety of aircraft. Section 6(2)(c) also establishes an ancillary offence in relation to persons in the UK who induce or assist the commission outside the UK of the communication of false or misleading information which endangers or is likely to endanger the safety of aircraft in flight.

Article 2 Interpretation
The interpretation of when an aircraft is considered to be “in flight” or “in service” for the purposes of the Convention is mirrored in section 38(3) of the Aviation Security Act 1982.

Article 3 Penalties
Offences under Sections 2 and 3 of the Aviation Security Act 1982 are punishable by life imprisonment.

Article 4 – Exclusions
The UK legislation limits the exclusions in Article 4 of the Convention in certain respects.

Article 5 – Jurisdiction
The offences under section 2 of the Aviation Security Act 1982, (i.e. the destruction or damage to aircraft in service, acts of violence which endanger the safety of aircraft, and placing of a device or substance on board an aircraft likely to destroy or damage aircraft or endanger their safety) are offences in UK law, whether they are committed in the UK or elsewhere, whatever the nationality of the accused, and whatever the State in which the aircraft is registered (section 2(3)). In accordance with section 8, proceedings in respect of these offences require the consent of the Attorney-General.

For the offences under section 3 of the Aviation Security Act 1982 (i.e. the destruction or damage to property such as to endanger the safety of aircraft in flight, and the communication of false or misleading information such as to endanger the safety of aircraft in flight), the grounds of jurisdiction are set out in section 3(5) and reflect the grounds set out in Article 5(1) of the Convention.

Article 6 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 7 – aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this provision in UK law is unnecessary, though it will be observed by the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution.

Article 8 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties of the Montreal Convention in respect of offences under sections 2, 3, 6(2)(b) and 6(2)(c) of the Aviation Security

Act 1982, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Aviation Security) Order 1997 (SI no.1997/1760).

Article 9 – Joint air transport operating organisations
The Secretary of State is empowered to make designations in relation to joint air transport operating organisations under s.98 of the Civil Aviation Act 1982.

Article 10 – Preventive measures
Specific legislative enactment is unnecessary in respect of this Article. Reasonable force is permissible under the common law in defence of the person, and in relation to preventing crime and arresting offenders by virtue of section 3 of the Criminal Law Act 1967. However section 7 of the Aviation Security Act 1982 enables the police to take measures to prevent a person from embarking on an aircraft where they suspect he intends to commit hijacking offences.

Article 11 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Articles 12 and 13 - Notifications
Specific legislative authority is not required in this respect.

Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents 1973

Articles 1 and 2 – The Offences
Most of the offences set out in Article 2(1) are offences against the general criminal law in the UK, whether committed against internationally protected persons or not. Hence murder, manslaughter, culpable homicide, rape, assault occasioning actual bodily or causing injury, kidnapping, abduction, false imprisonment or plagium, as well as the various statutory offences under sections 18, 20-24, 28-30, and 56 of the Offences Against the Persons Act, and the offence of causing explosions with intent to endanger life under s.2 of the Explosive Substances Act 1883, are well–established offences when committed in the United Kingdom. Similarly criminal damage and arson are established statutory offences under the Criminal Damage Act 1971 when committed within the UK.

However section 1(1) of the Internationally Protected Persons Act 1978 provides for the application of the law extraterritorially when these offences are committed against an internationally protected person.

Section 1(2) of the 1978 Act also provides that attempts to commit one of those acts, or aiding or abetting others to do so, whether the attempt or aiding or abetting took place in the UK or not is an offence. Similarly section 1(3) creates the offence of threatening to commit one of the offences, or attempting, aiding or abetting such threat.

Article 3 – Jurisdiction
The offences under section 1 of the Internationally Protected Persons Act are offences for the purposes of UK law whether they are committed within the UK or not. However in relation to offences under the Act (i.e. essentially those involving the assertion of extraterritorial jurisdiction, proceedings require the consent of the Attorney-General (section 2 of the 1978 Act).

Articles 4 and 5 - Preventive measures and co-operation
No specific legislative measures are necessary beyond the usual police powers and the arrangements for co-operation in this respect.

Article 6 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of

Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 7 aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this provision in UK law, is unnecessary, though it will be observed by the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution.

Article 8 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties of the Convention in respect of offences under sections 1(1)(a), 1(1)(b) and 1(3) of the Internationally Protected Persons Act 1978, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Internationally Protected Persons) Order 1997 (SI no. 1997/1764).

Article 9 – Fair Treatment
There are numerous guarantees in relation to fair treatment in criminal procedural law, notably the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984. Treatment must also meet the standards of the European Convention of Human Rights under the Human Rights Act 1998.

Article 10 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Article 11 – Notification
Specific legislative authority is not required in this respect.

The International Convention against the Taking of Hostages 1979

Article 1- The Offence
The offence of “hostage-taking” is established in UK law by section 1 (1) of the Taking of Hostages Act 1982 in similar terms to Article 1(1) of the Convention. As regards attempts and accomplices (Article 1(2)), under the general criminal law, attempts are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices are covered under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861.

Article 2 - Penalty
The offence of hostage taking is punishable by life imprisonment (section 1(2) of the Taking of Hostages Act 1982).

Article 3
No specific legislative enactment is required in this respect.

Article 4 - Preventive measures and co-operation
No specific legislative measures are necessary in this respect beyond the usual police powers and the arrangements for co-operation in this respect.

Article 5 - Jurisdiction
Hostage taking is an offence under section 1 of the Taking of Hostages Act 1982, whether it takes place in the UK or elsewhere. By section 2 of that Act, proceedings require the consent of the Attorney-General.

Article 6 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 7 – Notification
Specific legislative authority is not required in this respect.

Article 8 aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this provision in UK law is unnecessary, though it will be observed by the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution.

Articles 9 and 10 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties of the Convention in respect of offences under the Taking of Hostages Act 1982, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Taking of Hostages) Order 1997 (SI no. 1997/1767).

Article 11 - Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Articles 12-15
No legislative enactment is required in these respects.

The Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material 1979

Article 7 - The Offences
Most of the offences set out in Article 7 are offences against the general criminal law in the UK, whether committed in relation to nuclear material or not. Hence murder, manslaughter, culpable homicide, assaults as well statutory offences under sections 18 and 20 the Offences Against the Persons Act, and section 1 of the Criminal Damage Act 1971, are well–established offences when committed in the UK law. Similarly theft, embezzlement, robbery, burglary, aggravated burglary, fraud and extortion are established offences when committed within the UK.

However section 1(1) of the Nuclear Materials Act 1983 provides for the application of the criminal law extraterritorially when these offences are committed outside the UK in relation to or by means of nuclear material.

Section 2 of the 1983 Act also provides that preparatory acts and threats to obtain nuclear material in relation to these offences shall themselves be offences (in accordance Article 1(1) (e) and (g) of the Convention). In addition under the general criminal law, attempts are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices are covered under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861.

Penalties vary in according to the different crimes charged. An indication of the gravity with which these crimes are viewed in UK law can be seen from section 2(5) of the 1983 Act which provides for a maximum sentence of 14 years, in relation to the offences concerning preparatory acts and threats in section 2.

Article 8 – Jurisdiction
The offences under sections 1 and 2 of the Nuclear Material (Offences) Act 1983 are offences for the purposes of UK law whether they are committed within the UK or not. However in certain cases, essentially involving the assertion of extraterritorial jurisdiction, the consent of the Attorney-General is required in relation to prosecutions (section 2 of the 1978 Act).

Article 9 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained

in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 10 - aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this provision in UK law is unnecessary, though it will be observed by the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution.

Article 11 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties of the Convention in respect of offences under sections 1(1) and 2 of the Nuclear Material (Offences) Act 1983, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Protection of Nuclear Material) Order 1997 (SI no.1997/1765).

Article 12 – Fair Treatment
There are numerous guarantees in relation to fair treatment in criminal procedural law, notably the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984. Treatment must also meet the standards of the European Convention of Human Rights under the Human Rights Act 1998.

Article 13 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Protocol for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts of Violence at Airports 1988

This supplementary Protocol to the 1971 Montreal Convention is given effect in UK law under section 1 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990. The offences set out in Article 1 of the Protocol are given effect in UK law by sections 1(1) and 1(2) of the 1990 Act. Offences are punishable by life imprisonment (section 1(5). Extraterritorial jurisdiction is provided for under Section 1(3), but the consent of the Attorney-General is required for the institution of proceedings (section 1(7)). Extradition is provided for as per the 1971 Montreal Convention.

The Rome Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Maritime Navigation 1988

Article 3 – The Offences
The offences set out in Article 3(1) of the Convention are implemented in UK law in the following sections of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990:

section 9 - hijacking of ships;
section 11(1)(c) - acts of violence such as to endanger a ship;
section 11(1)(a) and (b) - destruction of and damage likely to endanger the safety of ships;
section 11(2) - placing on board of a device or substance likely to destroy or damage a ship;
section 12(1) - destruction or damage of maritime navigational facilities;
section 12(3) - communication of false information endangering safety of ships;
section 14 - violent acts ancillary to the commission of the offences in sections 9,11, and 12.

As regards attempts and accomplices (Articles 3(2)(a) and (b)) under the general criminal law, attempts are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices are covered under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861. In accordance with Article 3(2)(c), threats are made offences by section 13 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990.

Article 5 – The penalties
The offences contained in sections 9, 11, 12 and 13 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990 are all punishable by life imprisonment (see sections 9(3), 11(6), 12(7) and 13(5) respectively).

Article 6 – Jurisdiction

The offences under sections 9, 11, 12, 13 and 14 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990 are offences for the purposes of UK law whether they are committed within the UK or not. However the consent of the Attorney-General is required in relation to prosecutions (section 16).

Article 7 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of 13 Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 10 - aut dedere aut judicare and fair treatment
Specific legislative implementation of Article 10(1) in UK law is unnecessary, though the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution will observe it. There are numerous guarantees in relation to fair treatment in criminal procedural law, notably the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984. Treatment must meet the standards of the European Convention of Human Rights under the Human Rights Act 1998.

Article 11 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties to the Convention in respect of offences under sections 9, 11,12, or 13 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 and the Extradition (Safety of Maritime Navigation) Order 1997 (SI no. 1997/1766).

Article 12 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Article 13 - Preventive measures and co-operation
No specific legislative measures are necessary in this respect beyond the usual police powers and the arrangements for co-operation in this respect.

Articles 14 -15 - Notifications
No legislative enactment is required in these respects.

Protocol for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts Against the Safety of Fixed Platforms Located on the Continental Shelf

Article 2 – The Offences
The offences set out in Article 2(1) of the Convention are implemented in UK law in the following sections of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990:

section 10 - seizure of platforms;
section 11(1)(c) - acts of violence such as to endanger the safety of a platform;
section 11(1)(a) and (b) - destruction of and damage likely to endanger the safety of a platform;
section 11(2) - placing on board of a device or substance likely to destroy or damage a platform;
section14 - violent acts ancillary to the commission of the offences in sections 10 and 11.

As regards attempts and accomplices (Articles 2(2)(a) and (b)) under the general criminal law, attempts are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices are covered under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861. Threats under Article 2(2)(c) are made offences by section 13 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990.

Article 5 – The penalties
The offences contained in sections 10, 11, and 13 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990 are all punishable by life imprisonment (see sections 10(2), 11(6), and 13(5) respectively).

Article 6 – Jurisdiction
The offences under sections 10, 11, 13 and 14 of the Aviation and Maritime Security Act 1990 are offences for the purposes of UK law whether they are committed within the UK or not. However the consent of the Attorney-General is required in relation to prosecutions (section 16).
In other respects the Protocol is implemented in UK law as per the 1988 Rome Convention.

The Convention on the Marking of Plastic Explosives for the Purposes of Detection 1991

The Convention is implemented in UK law by *the Marking of Plastic Explosives for Detection Regulations 1996* (SI No. 890/1996), made under enabling powers in the Health and Safety at Work Act 1974. The Regulations prohibit the manufacture of unmarked explosives in accordance with Article II of the Convention. The Regulations prohibit the importation into the UK of unmarked explosives. Further restrictions to prohibit and prevent the transfer into or out of the territory of the UK in accordance with Article III may be given effect through the licensing system generally applicable to importation and exportation. The Regulations also prohibit the possession of unmarked explosives and save in respect of stocks held for military and police purposes.

The International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings 1997

Article 2 – The Offences.
Offences relating to explosives have long been a part of UK criminal law. The Offences Against the Person Act 1861 provides for the following offences:
(a) causing bodily harm by gunpowder (section 28);
(b) causing gunpowder to explode with intent to do grievous bodily harm (section 29); and
(c) placing gunpowder near a building with intent to cause bodily injury.

In addition under the Explosive Substances Act 1883 the following are offences:
(a) causing an explosion likely to endanger life or property (section 2);
(b) doing any act with intent to such explosion, conspiring to cause such an explosion, or making or possessing explosive with intent to endanger life or property (section 3);
(c) acting as an accessory to either of the above offences (section 5).

Section 1 of the Biological Weapons Act 1974, and section 2 of the Chemical Weapons Act 1996, create various offences concerning the use possession and development of biological and chemical weapons respectively. Similar offences in relation to the use of nuclear weapons are established under section 47 of the Anti-Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001.

As regards attempts and accomplices (Articles 2(2) and 2(3)) under the general criminal law, attempts are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices are covered under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861. Conspiring to commit offences is also an offence by virtue of section 1 of the Criminal Law Act 1977.

Finally a person who directs a terrorist organisation commits an offence under section 56 of the Terrorism Act 2000.

Article 4 – Domestic Criminal Law and Penalties
The offences contained in Article 2 are part of UK domestic law by virtue of the statutory provisions set above. Offences under section 2,3 and 5 of the Explosive Substances Act 1883; section 1 of the Biological Weapons Act 1974; section 2 of the Chemical Weapons Act 1996; and section 47 of the Anti-Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001 are all punishable by life imprisonment.

Article 5
The offences in UK law cited above are offences regardless of such motivations on the part of the accused.

Article 6 – Jurisdiction

By virtue of section 62 of the Terrorism Act 2000 extraterritorial jurisdiction is extended over the offences under Articles 2, 3 and 5 of the Explosive Substances Act 1883, and the offences in section 1 of the Biological Weapons Act 1974 and section 2 of the Chemical Weapons Act 1996. However by virtue of section 117 of the Terrorism Act 2000, the consent of the Attorney-General to prosecutions will be required where such extraterritorial jurisdiction is to be asserted. Extraterritorial jurisdiction is also exercisable with the consent of the Attorney-General in respect of offences relating to use etc of nuclear weapons under section 47 of the Anti-Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001.

Article 7 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Codes of Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 8 - aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this Article in UK law is unnecessary, though it will be observed by the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution.

Article 9 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties to the Convention in respect of offences under sections 2, 3 and 5 of the Explosive Substances Act 1883, section 1 of the Biological Weapons Act 1974 and section 2 of the Chemical Weapons Act 1996, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 (as amended by section 64 of the Terrorism Act 2000).

Article 10 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Article 11 – Exclusion of the Political Offence Exception
This Article is given effect by section 24(5) of the Extradition Act (inserted by virtue of section 64(4) of the Terrorism Act 2000). Under that provision offences under sections 2, 3 and 5 of the Explosive Substances Act 1883, section 1 of the Biological Weapons Act 1974 and section 2 of the Chemical Weapons Act 1996 shall not be considered political offences for the purposes of the political offence exception in extradition.

Article 14 – Fair Treatment
There are numerous guarantees in relation to fair treatment in criminal procedural law, notably the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984. Treatment must meet the standards of the European Convention of Human Rights under the Human Rights Act 1998.

Article 15 – preventive measures
In relation to Article 15(a) it should be noted that by virtue of sections 59-61 of the Terrorism Act 2000 incitement to terrorism overseas is an offence in UK law.

The International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism 1999

Article 2 – The Offences
The offences set out in Article 2(1) of the Convention are reflected in UK law in the following offences under the Terrorism Act 2000:
(a) Fund-raising for the purposes of terrorism (section 15);
(b) Use and possession of money for the purposes of terrorism (section 16);
(c) Involvement in funding arrangements for the purposes of terrorism (section 17);
(d) Money laundering and similar offences in relation to terrorist property (section 18).

As regards attempts and accomplices (Articles 2(4) and 2(5)) under the general criminal law, attempts are covered by the Criminal Attempts Act 1981, and accomplices are covered under section 8 of the Accessories and Abettors Act 1861. Conspiring to commit offences is also an offence by virtue of section 1 of the Criminal Law Act 1977.

A person who directs a terrorist organisation commits an offence under section 56 of the Terrorism Act 2000.

Article 4 – Domestic Criminal Law and Penalties
The offences contained in Article 2 are part of UK domestic law by virtue of the statutory provisions set above. The maximum custodial sentence in relation to offences under section 15-18 of the Terrorism Act 2000 is 14 years imprisonment (section 22). The offence of directing a terrorist organisation under section 56 of that Act is punishable by life imprisonment.

Article 6
The ideological or similar other motivation of the offender offers no excuse in relation to the offences under section 15-18 of the Terrorism Act 2000, but rather is a defining element of "terrorism" for the purposes of the Act (section 1).

Article 7 – Jurisdiction
By virtue of section 63 of the Terrorism Act 2000 general extraterritorial jurisdiction is extended over the offences under sections 15-18 of the same Act. However by virtue of section 117 of the Terrorism Act 2000, the consent of the Attorney-General to prosecutions will be required where such extraterritorial jurisdiction is to be asserted.

Article 8 – Seizure of Terrorist Funds
In addition to general powers of the police and other financial authorities to freeze and forfeit funds and property used in connection with criminal and prohibited activities, the Terrorism Act 2000 provides additional powers in relation to the investigation, freezing and forfeiture of terrorist funds.

Article 9 – Detention and investigation
Specific implementing legislation is not required, since powers of detention and investigation are governed primarily under the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and its associated Code of Practice. Further powers of investigation and detention in relation to terrorist activity are contained in the Terrorism Act 2000. Arrests can be made without having first to seek the consent of the Attorney-General, by virtue of section 25 of the Prosecution of Offences Act 1985.

Article 10 - aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this Article in UK law is unnecessary, though the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution will observe it.

Article 11 – Extradition
The UK has various general extradition arrangements with individual States under which the offences covered by the convention are included as extradition crimes. However where no such general arrangement exists, extradition is permitted to contracting parties to the Convention in respect of offences under sections 15-18 of the Terrorism Act 2000, by virtue of section 22 of the Extradition Act 1989 (as amended by s.64 of the Terrorism Act 2000).

Article 12 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

Article 14 – Exclusion of the Political Offence Exception
This Article is given effect by section 24(5) of the Extradition Act (inserted by virtue of section 64(4) of the Terrorism Act 2000). Under that provision offences under sections 15-18 of the Terrorism Act 2000 shall not be considered political offences for the purposes of the political offence exception in extradition.

Article 17 – Fair Treatment
There are numerous guarantees in relation to fair treatment in criminal procedural law, notably the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984. Treatment must meet the standards of the European Convention of Human Rights under the Human Rights Act 1998.

European Convention on the Suppression of Terrorism 1977

Articles 1 and 2 – Exclusion of the Political Offence Exception
The exclusion of the political offence exception in extradition proceedings in connection with the crimes listed in Article 1 of the Convention, is implemented in UK law under Section 1 of the Suppression of Terrorism Act 1978. The full list of crimes in UK law to which the exclusion applies is set out in Schedule 1 to the Act.

Article 4 – Extraditable Offences
This Article is given effect in UK law by section of the Suppression of Terrorism Act 1978.

Article 6 – Jurisdiction
Under section 4 of the Suppression of Terrorism Act 1978 jurisdiction can be asserted over certain of the offences contained in Schedule 1 to the Act where they were committed in the territory of a State party to the Convention. However the consent of the Attorney-General is required in relation to prosecutions for acts made unlawful under that section 4(4) of that Act (i.e. in cases in which extraterritorial jurisdiction is claimed).

Article 8 - aut dedere aut judicare
Specific legislative implementation of this Article in UK law is unnecessary, though the authorities deciding upon extradition and prosecution will observe it.

Article 9 – Mutual Legal Assistance
The United Kingdom co-operates in criminal proceedings and investigations with the authorities of other States in accordance with the provisions of the Criminal Justice (International Co-operation) Act 1990.

For bilateral treaties regarding mutual legal assistance in criminal matters please refer to the list below:

_ Antigua and Barbuda 1997 - concerning the investigation, restraint and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of crime
eif: 01/10/2004 Treaty Series 004/2004 : Cm 6336

_ Algeria 2006 – on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters
eif: 27/03/07 Treaty Series 0117/2010, Cm 7922

_ Argentina 1991 - concerning mutual judicial assistance against illicit drug trafficking
eif: 06/01/94 Treaty Series 031/1994 : Cm 2592

_ Australia 1988 - concerning the investigation of Drug Trafficking and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of crime
eif: 12/09/1990 Treaty Series 088/1990 : Cm 1342

_ Australia 1997 - concerning the investigation, restraint and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of crime
eif: 10/05/2000 Treaty Series 077/2000 : Cm 4760

_ Bahamas 1988 - concerning the investigation of drug trafficking and confiscation of the proceeds of drug trafficking
eif: 24/10/90 Treaty Series 013/1991 : Cm 1448

_ Bahrain 1990 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking

eif: 01/01/92 Treaty Series 007/1994 : Cm 2474

_ Barbados 1991 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking
eif: 01/06/93 Treaty Series 031/1993 : Cm 2240

_ Bolivia 1994 - on mutual legal assistance in relation to illicit drug trafficking
Not yet in force. Not yet published

_ Canada 1988 and amended 1992 - on mutual assistance in criminal matters
[1988] eif: 04/08/1990 Treaty Series 084/1990 : Cm 1326
[1992] eif: 17/09/1993 Treaty Series 074/1993 : Cm 2383

_ Brazil 2005 - on mutual legal assistance in criminal matters
eif: 13/04/2011, Treaty Series 019/2011: Cm 8087

_ Cayman Islands 2009 – Regarding the Sharing of Confiscated Proceeds of Crime
(MoU) Not yet in Effect Not published

_ Chile 1995 - concerning MA in relation to illicit trafficking in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances
eif: 01/02/1996 Treaty Series 063/1997 : Cm 3775

_ Agreement between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China concerning Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters (signed 23/01/1998)
eif: 09/02/2002, Treaty Series 018/2002, Cm.5502

_ Treaty between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the People's Republic of China on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters (signed 02/12/2013).
eif: 15/01/2016, Treaty Series 010/2016, Cm.9199

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the People's Republic of China and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland extending the Agreement between the Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China and the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland concerning Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters, signed at Hong Kong on 23 January 1998, to the Isle of Man (signed 17/08/2004-11/09/2004).
eif: 01/11/2004, Not Published.

_ Colombia 1997 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to criminal matters
eif: 05/12/1999 Treaty Series 040/2002 : Cm 4682

_ Ecuador 1992 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking (treaty series 18 (1993))
eif:01/03/1993 Treaty Series 018/1993 : Cm 2162

_ Grenada 1995 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking
eif: 01/10/2001 Treaty Series 032/2003 : Cm 5940

_ Germany 1961 – E o N providing for Reciprocal Assistance in Criminal Matters between the Police Authorities of the UK and the FRG
eif: 02/05/1961 Treaty Series 066/1961 : Cmnd 1446

_ Guyana 1991 - concerning co-operation in the investigation of drug trafficking offences, the forfeiture of instruments used for or in connection with such offences and the deprivation of drug traffickers of financial benefits from their criminal activities
eif: 24/11/1996 Treaty Series 009/1997 : Cm 3523

_ Hong Kong SAR 1998 - concerning mutual legal assistance in criminal matters

eif: 09/02/2002 Treaty Series 018/2002 : Cm 5502

_ India 1992 - concerning the investigation and prosecution of crime and the tracing, restraint and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of crime and terrorist funds
eif: 01/05/95 Treaty Series 069/1995 : Cm 2957

_ Ireland 1998 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to criminal matters
eif: 01/06/2004 Treaty Series 027/2005 : Cm 6601

_ Italy 1990 - concerning MA in relation to traffic in narcotic drugs or psychotropic substances and the restraint and confiscation of the proceeds of crime
eif: 08/05/1994 Treaty Series 033/1995 : Cm 2853

_ Treaty on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan (signed 24/03/2013),
eif: 01/07/2013, Treaty Series 025/2013, Cm.8681

_ Treaty between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Republic of Kazakhstan on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters (signed 03/11/2015)
eif: 04/04/2016, Treaty Series 025/2016, Cm.9256

_ Treaty on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the State of Kuwait (signed 28/01/2018):
Not yet in Force, Not yet published

_ Libya 2008 – on MA in Criminal Matters
eif: 29/04/2009 Country Series Libya 002/2009 : Cm 7549

_ Malaysia 1989 - on mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking
eif: 01/01/1995 Treaty Series 042/1995 : Cm 2883

_ Malaysia- on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters
EIF: 16/12/2011, Treaty Series 006/2012 Cm.8266

_ Mexico 1990 and 1996 - concerning MA in relation to drug trafficking and concerning MA in the investigation restraint and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of crime other than drug trafficking
[1990] eif: 01/10/1990 Treaty Series 057/1991 : Cm 1638
[1996] eif: 01/08/1996 Treaty Series 079/1996 : Cm 3358

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United Mexican States to extend the Agreement concerning Mutual Assistance in the Investigation, Restraint and Confiscation of the Proceeds of Crime other than Drug Trafficking signed in Mexico City on 26 February 1996 to the Isle of Man (signed 23/09/2002-14/10/2002).
eif: 14/10/2002, Treaty Series 015/2003, Cm.5816

_ Convention on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Kingdom of Morocco (signed 15/04/2013).
Not yet in Force, Country Series Morocco 002/2013, Cm.8683

_ The Netherlands 1993 - to supplement and facilitate the operation of the Convention of the Council of Europe on laundering, search, seizure and confiscation of the proceeds from crime
eif: 02/06/94 Treaty Series 045/1994 : Cm 2655

_ Exchange of Notes extending the Agreement between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the Kingdom of the Netherlands to

Supplement and Facilitate the Operation of the Convention of the Council of Europe on Laundering, Search, Seizure and Confiscation of the Proceeds from Crime, concluded at Strasbourg on 8 November 1990, signed at London on 15 September 1993 to the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba (signed 12/11/2003-06/07/2006).
eif: 07/08/2006, Treaty Series 014/2007, Cm.7148

_ Nigeria 1989 - investigation and prosecution of crime and the confiscation of the proceeds of crime
eif: 30/10/93 Treaty Series 018/1994 : Cm 2497

_ Panama 1993 - concerning mutual legal assistance relating to drug trafficking
eif: 01/09/1994 Treaty Series 046/1994 : Cm 2660

_ Paraguay 1994 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking
eif: 21/06/1998 Treaty Series 045/2001 : Cm 5259

_ Philippines 2009 - concerning mutual assistance in Criminal Matters
eif: 01/06/2012 Treaty Series 03/2012, Cm.8398

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the Republic of the Philippines to amend the Treaty on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the Republic of the Philippines, done at London on 18 September 2009 (signed 08/01/2014).
eif: 28/01/2014, Treaty Series 016/2014, Cm.8924

_ Romania 1995 - concerning the restraint and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of crime
eif: 01/10/2000 Treaty Series 132/2000 : Cm 5008

_ Sweden 1989 - concerning the restraint and confiscation of the proceeds of crime
eif: 01/04/92 Treaty Series 072/1992 : Cm 2079

_ Saudi Arabia 1990 - concerning the investigation of drug trafficking and confiscation of the proceeds of drug trafficking
eif: 20/09/1991 Treaty Series 065/1991 : Cm 2047

_ South Africa 1992 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to drug trafficking
Not yet in Force Not yet published

_ Spain 1989 - concerning the prevention and suppression of drug trafficking and the misuse of drugs
eif: 15/12/1990 Treaty Series 044/1991 : Cm 1614

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the Kingdom of Spain extending the Agreement between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Kingdom of Spain concerning the Prevention and Suppression of Drug Trafficking and the Misuse of Drugs, signed at Madrid on 26 June 1989, to Gibraltar (signed 03/04/1991).
eif: 11/03/1992, Treaty Series 063/1992, Cm.2046

_ Thailand 1994 - on mutual assistance in criminal matters
eif: 10/09/1997 Treaty Series 066/1997 : Cm 3783
[2001 ext. to Isle of Man]
eif: 30/08/2002 Treaty Series 015/2003 : Cm 5816

_ Trinidad and Tobago 1998 - concerning mutual assistance in relation to crime,
eif: 05/01/1998 Country Series 001/1998 : Cm 3900

_ Ukraine 1996 - concerning the restraint and confiscation of the proceeds and instruments of criminal activity other than Drug Trafficking
eif: 01/04/97 Treaty Series 047/1997 : Cm 3731

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the Ukraine extending the Agreements concerning the Restraint and Confiscation of the Proceeds and Instruments of Criminal Activity other the Drug Trafficking and concerning Mutual Assistance in Relation to Drug trafficking, both done at Kiev on 18 April 1996, to the Isle of Man (signed 17/08/2001-20/02/2002)
eif: 01/04/2002, Treaty Series 015/2003, Cm.5816

_ Treaty between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United Arab Emirates on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters (signed 06/12/2006)
eif: 02/04/2008, Treaty Series 005/2008, Cm.7383

_ United States - concerning the Cayman Islands relating to Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters
eif: 19/03/1990 Treaty Series 082/1990 : Cm 1316

_ Agreement between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America concerning the Investigation of Drug Trafficking Offences and the Seizure and Forfeiture of Proceeds and Instrumentalities of Drug Trafficking (signed 09/02/1988)
eif: 11/04/1989, Treaty Series 032/1989, Cm.755.

_ Exchange of Notes extending the Treaty between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America concerning the Cayman Islands relating to Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters - Grand Cayman 3 July 1986 - to Anguilla, British Virgin Islands and Turks and Caicos Islands (signed 09/11/1990)
eif: 09/11/1990, Treaty Series 049/1991, Cm.1624

_ Exchange of Notes extending the Treaty between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America concerning the Cayman Islands relating to Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters - Grand Cayman 3 July 1986 - to Montserrat (signed 26/04/1991)
eif: 26/04/1991, Not Published by UK.

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America extending the Agreement between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America concerning the Investigation of Drug Trafficking Offences and the Seizure and Forfeiture of Proceeds and Instrumentalities of Drug Trafficking, signed at London on 9 February 1988, to Gibraltar (signed 30/09/1992).
eif: 30/09/1992, Treaty Series 084/1992, Cm.2264

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America extending the Agreement between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America concerning the Investigation of Drug Trafficking Offences and the Seizure and Forfeiture of Proceeds and Instrumentalities of Drug Trafficking, signed at London on 9 February 1988, to the Isle of Man (signed 30/09/1992).
eif: 30/09/1992, Treaty Series 084/1992, Cm.2264

_ United States 1994 - on mutual legal assistance in criminal matters
eif: 02/12/1996, Treaty Series 014/1997, Cm 3546

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America amending the Agreement concerning the Investigation of Drug Trafficking Offences and the Seizure and Forfeiture of

Proceeds and Instrumentalities of Drug Trafficking, signed at London on February 9, 1988 (signed 06/01/1994).
eif: 06/01/1994, Treaty Series 032/1994, Cm.2613

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America further amending the Agreement concerning the Investigation of Drug Trafficking Offences and the Seizure and Forfeiture of Proceeds and Instrumentalities of Drug Trafficking, Done at London on 9 February 1988, as amended by the Exchange of Notes of 6 January 1994 (signed 19/06/1996-29/07/1996).
eif: 29/07/1996, Treaty Series 082/1996, Cm.3380

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America amending the Treaty on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters done at Washington on 6 January 1994 (signed 30/04/2001).
eif: 01/05/2001, Treaty Series 008/2002, Cm.5375

_ Exchange of Notes between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America to extend the Treaty on Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters signed at Washington on 6 January 1994 to the Isle of Man (signed 02-05/06/2003)
eif: 05/06/2003, Treaty Series 014/2009, Cm. 7671

_ Exchange of Notes to amend the Treaty between the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the United States of America concerning the Cayman Islands relating to Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminals Matters, signed at Grand Cayman on 03 July 1986 (signed 10/09/2004-09/02/2005)
eif: 09/02/2005, Treaty Series 021/2010, Cm.7988

_ United States - with Bermuda - relating to Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal Matters
[Not yet in Force] Not to be Published (done under Deed of Entrustment)

_ Uruguay 1992 - in relation to drug trafficking
eif: 19/01/1994 Treaty Series 004/1994, Cm 2458

_ Vietnam - Mutual Legal Assistance in Criminal matters (Hanoi 13/1/2009)
eif: 30/09/2009, Treaty Series 088/200, Cm. 7879.

Additional Protocol to the 2005 Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism

On 22 October 2015, the UK signed but has not yet ratified an Additional Protocol to the 2005 Council of Europe Convention on the Prevention of Terrorism; the 2005 Convention has been signed but not yet ratified by the UK. This new measure sets out common and shared minimum standards to tackle the growing terrorist threat posed by individuals, who travel abroad for the purposes of terrorism, often referred to as “foreign terrorist fighters”.

1.2 What national legislation has been adopted in your State to implement the abovementioned agreements and arrangements?

On 13 July 2010, the then Home Secretary announced her intention to review counter-terrorism and security powers. The purpose of the review was to look at the issues of security and civil liberties in relation to the most sensitive and controversial counter-terrorism and security powers. The aim of the review was to ensure that the powers are necessary, effective and proportionate. The Review examined six key counter-terrorism and security powers and measures.

The key recommendations resulted in changes to the following areas:

Pre-charge detention of terrorist suspects: the review concluded that the maximum period of pre-charge detention in respect of terrorist suspects under the Terrorism Act 2000, should be reduced from 28 days to 14 days. The review found that 28 days were not routinely needed in terrorism investigations and this should be reflected in legislation by the repeal, through section 57 of the Protection of Freedoms Act 2012, of the existing 28 day provisions contained in the Terrorism Act 2006. Emergency legislation has been drafted which would temporarily extend the maximum period of pre-charge detention to 28 days but this would only be introduced in the most exceptional circumstances.

Terrorism stop and search powers. The Review concluded that existing powers under sections 44 – 47 of the Terrorism Act 2000 were too broad, and noted that the European Court of Human Rights had found them to violate the appellants' Article 8 rights in the case of *Gillan & Quinton vs United Kingdom*. These powers, where authorised, allowed police to stop and search vehicles and individuals without suspicion in potentially a large geographical area and for purposes that did not need to be connected to specific intelligence of a terrorist threat. The powers were repealed and replaced through the Protection of Freedoms Act 2012 with section 47A of and Schedule 6B to the Terrorism Act 2000, which provide a more limited power that can only be authorised in relation to the minimum area and duration of time necessary to prevent a specific act of terrorism, and authorisations must be confirmed by the Secretary of State within 48 hours otherwise they will cease to have effect

Use of the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act by local authorities. The current legislative framework which governs investigatory powers, including the interception of communications and the retention and acquisition of communications data, primarily consists of the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000 and the Investigatory Powers Act 2016. This legislation ensures that these powers can only be used where it is necessary and proportionate to do so and for a specific set of purposes.

Following its consideration by both Houses of Parliament, the Investigatory Powers Act 2016 received Royal Assent on 29 November 2016. The 2016 Act transforms the law relating to the use and oversight of investigatory powers, strengthening safeguards and introducing world-leading oversight arrangements.

The review recommended that the use by local authorities of the most intrusive surveillance powers under the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act (RIPA) to investigate low level offences should be ended, and that a requirement for applications by local authorities to use any RIPA techniques should be approved by a magistrate. These changes were brought into force by the Protection of Freedoms Act 2012. The Investigatory Powers Act 2016, which will replace the powers in RIPA to acquire communications data, maintains the same approach.

- The changes were introduced by the RIPA (Directed Surveillance and Covert Human Intelligence Sources) (Amendment) Order 2012 and Protection of Freedoms Act 2012.
- Local authorities currently use covert techniques to investigate crimes such as trading standards offences and benefit and council tax fraud. These offences can have a significant impact on local communities.

- Local authorities do not have access to all types of communications data. They are not able to access "traffic data" – the most intrusive form of communications data – under any circumstances and in practice most of their requests are for subscribers to telephones.
- In addition to the stringent safeguards set out in RIPA, local authority requests for communications data must also receive judicial approval under provisions contained in the Protection of Freedoms Act 2012.
- From 1 December 2014 the Government also ensured all local authority requests for communications data must be made via a centralised body, the National Anti Fraud Network.
- In England and Wales, local authorities can now only use directed surveillance to investigate offences which attract sentences of six months or more or relate to the underage sale of alcohol or tobacco.
- In addition, in all cases, decisions by local authorities to grant or renew the authorisation of covert techniques will take effect only when an order approving the authorisation has been granted by a Justice of the Peace.

Communications data. The review included a commitment to rationalise the legal bases by which communications data can be acquired and, as far as possible, to limit those to the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act.

The Data Retention and Investigatory Powers Act 2014 ensured that data retained under that legislation may only be accessed in accordance with the Regulation of Investigatory Powers Act 2000, a court order or other judicial authorisation or warrant. The Data Retention and Investigatory Powers Act 2014 has now been revoked. The Investigatory Powers Act 2016 has replaced and abolishes or amends other information gathering powers in law which provide for access to communications data without appropriate safeguards. There are only in limited circumstances where public authorities can user powers other than those provide for in the Investigatory Powers Act.

Deportation with Assurances. The review recommended a stronger effort to deport foreign nationals involved in terrorist activities in this country, while fully respecting our human rights obligations.

COUNTER-TERRORISM AND SECURITY ACT 2015

The UK Government considered that there was a need to legislate in order to reduce the terrorism threat to the UK. On 29 August 2014, the UK independent Joint Terrorism Analysis Centre (JTAC) raised the UK national terrorist threat level from SUBSTANTIAL to SEVERE, meaning that a terrorist attack is "highly likely". Nearly 850 people from the UK who are of interest to the security services are thought to have travelled to Syria and the region since the start of the conflict, and the security services estimate that around half of those have returned whilst 15% have been killed. In the context of this heightened threat to our national security, the provisions in this Act will strengthen the legal powers and capabilities of law enforcement and intelligence agencies to disrupt terrorism and prevent individuals from being radicalised in the first instance.

On 1 September 2014, the Prime Minister announced that legislation would be brought forward in a number of areas to stop people travelling overseas to fight for terrorist organisations or engage in terrorism-related activity and subsequently returning to the UK, and to deal with those already in the UK who pose a risk to the public. The provisions in this Act will ensure that the law enforcement and intelligence agencies can disrupt the ability of people to travel abroad to fight, such as in Syria and Iraq, and control their return to the UK. It will enhance operational capabilities to monitor and control the actions of those in the UK who pose a threat, and help to combat the underlying ideology that supports terrorism.

This Act contains a considered, targeted set of proposals to tackle terrorism. Measures include:

- Providing the police with a power to seize a passport at the border temporarily, during which time they will be able to investigate the individual concerned.

- A Temporary Exclusion Order to disrupt and control the return to the UK of a British citizen suspected of involvement in terrorism-related activity abroad.
- Enhancements to the Terrorism Prevention and Investigation Measures regime, including stronger locational constraints on subjects, and a power to require them to attend meetings as part of their ongoing management e.g. with the probation service or JobCentre Plus staff.
- Improve law enforcement agencies' ability to identify who is responsible for sending a communication on the internet or accessing an internet communications service.
- Enhancing our border security for aviation, maritime and rail travel, with provisions relating to passenger data, 'no fly' lists, and security and screening measures.
- Creating a general duty on a range of organisations to prevent people being drawn into terrorism.
- Putting Channel – the government's voluntary programme for people vulnerable to being drawn into terrorism – on a statutory basis.
- Amending the Terrorism Act 2000 to put beyond doubt:
- the legal basis of measures relating to preventing the payment of ransoms to terrorist organisations; and
- The scope of the power for examination of goods at – or near – ports.
- A power to create a board to support the Independent Reviewer of Terrorism legislation on privacy and civil liberties issues.

The Independent Reviewer of Terrorism Legislation

- The Act also extends the statutory remit of the Independent Reviewer so as to include other counter-terrorism legislation. The full list of the Acts which will now fall within his remit are as follows: The Terrorism Act 2000, Part 1 of the Terrorism Act 2006, the Terrorism Prevention and Investigation Measures Act 2011, the Terrorist Asset-Freezing Etc Act 2010, , the Anti-Terrorism Crime and Security Act 2001, and part 2 of that Act in so far as it relates to terrorism, the Counter-Terrorism Act 2008 and Part 1 of the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act 2015 (which covers Temporary Passport Seizure and Temporary Exclusion Orders).

- The Act also made changes to provide that the Independent Reviewer must set out a work programme at the beginning of each calendar year, starting in 2016, to include what he will report on in that 12 month period. These amendments would allow the Independent Reviewer to determine the area on which he will report in each 12 month period, which he must notify to the Secretary of State. The exception to this is the Terrorism Act 2000, which remains subject to the existing annual reporting requirement.

SERIOUS CRIME ACT 2015

An Act, which received Royal Assent on 3 March 2015, to amend the Proceeds of Crime Act 2002, the Computer Misuse Act 1990, Part 4 of the Policing and Crime Act 2009, section 1 of the Children and Young Persons Act 1933, the Sexual Offences Act 2003, the Street Offences Act 1959, the Female Genital Mutilation Act 2003, the Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation (Scotland) Act 2005, the Prison Act 1952 and the Terrorism Act 2006; to make provision about involvement in organised crime groups and about serious crime prevention orders; to make provision for the seizure and forfeiture of drug-cutting agents; to make it an offence to possess an item that contains advice or guidance about committing sexual offences against children; to create an offence in relation to controlling or coercive behaviour in intimate or family relationships; to make provision for the prevention or restriction of the use of communication devices by persons detained in custodial institutions; to make provision approving for the purposes of section 8 of the European Union Act 2011 certain draft decisions under Article 352 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union relating to serious crime; to make provision about codes of practice that relate to the exercise and performance, in connection with the prevention or detection of serious crime, of powers and duties in relation to communications; and for connected purposes

Preparation and training for terrorism

The Act includes a provision, at section 81, which extends UK territorial jurisdiction over sections 5 and section 6 of the Terrorism Act 2006. This enables the prosecution of those who have prepared or trained for terrorism overseas and came into force on 3 March 2015. The measure is targeted at tackling UK-linked individuals and those who seek to harm UK interests. Any prosecution under this provision requires the express consent of the Attorney General, in addition to satisfying the Crown Prosecution Service and the police that there is sufficient evidence and a public interest to prosecute. As an additional safeguard, sections 5 and 6 of the Terrorism Act 2006 fall within the remit of the Independent Reviewer of Terrorism Legislation, David Anderson QC.

IMMIGRATION ACT 2014

Prior to the Immigration Act 2014, Section 40 of The British Nationality Act 1981, as amended in 2002 and 2006, allowed the Home Secretary to:

- Deprive any British citizen (British born, registered or naturalised) of their nationality if she is satisfied that deprivation would be conducive to the public good provided that it would not make them stateless.
- Deprive a naturalised or registered British citizen of their nationality if she is satisfied that it was gained by means of fraud, false representation or concealment of material fact.
- The Immigration Act 2014 included a provision to strengthen existing deprivation of citizenship power to enable deprivation of naturalised British citizens (i.e. not British born, or registered British Citizens) where they have conducted themselves in a manner 'seriously prejudicial to the vital interests of the UK' even if this leaves them stateless, in cases where the Home Secretary has reasonable grounds to believe that the person could, under the laws of another country or territory, become a national of that country or territory. "Conduct considered seriously prejudicial" is a higher test and considered to be a distinct sub-set of non-conducive cases involving national security (including espionage and terrorism) and those who take up arms against British or allied forces.

TERRORISM PREVENTION AND INVESTIGATION MEASURES ACT 2011

The Act allows the Home Secretary to impose a powerful range of disruptive measures on a small number of people who pose a real threat to our security but who cannot be prosecuted or, in the case of foreign nationals, deported. These measures include; overnight residence requirements, daily police reporting, a GPS tracking tag, exclusion from specific places, limits on association, limits on the use of financial services and use of telephones and computers, and a ban on holding travel documents. The **Counter-Terrorism and Security Act 2015** enhanced the Terrorism Prevention and Investigation Measures Act 2011. The amendments include:

- allowing the Secretary of State to require TPIM subjects to reside in a particular location up to 200 miles from their current locality;
- providing for additional measures to restrict a subject's travel outside the area in which their residence is situated;
- including a power to require a TPIM subject to meet with organisations or other persons specified by the Secretary of State;
- creating a new measure prohibiting TPIM subjects from acquiring/holding a firearms licence, offensive weapons or explosives;
- increasing the sentence for breaching a TPIM travel measure from a maximum of five years to a maximum of ten years, where the person travels outside the area in which their residence is situated or where they leave the UK;
- amending the definition of terrorism-related activity in the TPIMs Act to remove conduct which gives 'support or assistance' to individuals who are known or believed by the individuals concerned to be involved in the 'encouragement or facilitation of acts of terrorism'; and
- raising the threshold for imposing a TPIM notice to the Secretary of State being satisfied on the 'balance of probabilities' that the individual has been engaged in terrorism-related activity.

COUNTER TERRORISM ACT 2008

An Act to confer further powers to gather and share information for counter-terrorism and other purposes; to make further provision about the detention and questioning of terrorist suspects and the prosecution and punishment of terrorist offences; to impose notification requirements on persons convicted of such offences; to confer further powers to act against terrorist financing, money laundering and certain other activities; to provide for review of certain Treasury decisions and about evidence in, and other matters connected with, review proceedings; to amend the law relating to inquiries; to amend the definition of "terrorism"; to amend the enactments relating to terrorist offences, control orders and the forfeiture of terrorist cash; to provide for recovering the costs of policing at certain gas facilities; to amend provisions about the appointment of special advocates in Northern Ireland; and for connected purposes.

The Counter-Terrorism Act 2008 includes:

- Post charge questioning for terrorism suspects;
- Power to remove documents for examination;
- Enhanced sentences for those convicted of non-terrorist offences (such as conspiracy to murder) but where the offence is clearly related to terrorism;
- Notification requirements for convicted terrorists which requires them to notify certain personal information such as name, address and travel plans and confirm such details annually;
- Power on the disclosure of information to intelligence services;
- Power to retain and use covertly obtained DNA and fingerprints;
- Ability to ban convicted terrorists from travelling overseas;
- Offence of eliciting information about members of armed forces, intelligence agencies or police;
- Powers for the Treasury to direct financial and credit institutions to take certain action in respect of business with persons in a non-EEA country of money laundering, terrorist financing or proliferation concern;
- Powers allowing the Treasury to base its financial restriction decisions on all available intelligence including closed material (i.e. material the disclosure of which would be contrary to the public interest).

UK BORDERS ACT 2007

The UK Borders Act increased the powers the Border and Immigration Agency, now Border Force, had to build stronger borders, tackle organised crime and remove incentives for illegal immigrants wanting to come to Britain.

The UK Borders Act:

- introduced powers to require persons subject to immigration control to apply for a biometric immigration document, strengthening and standardising the format of immigration documents confirming a migrant's status and conditions of stay in the UK;
- provided new powers to immigration officers allowing them to detain at ports in England, Wales and Northern Ireland (subsequently amended to include the UK control zones in France and Belgium at international rail stations and the fixed Channel Tunnel link terminal in the UK), individuals they think may be liable to arrest by a constable or subject to an arrest warrant
- to arrest those they believe to have fraudulently been acquiring asylum support and to access Her Majesty's Revenue Customs (HMRC) data to track down illegal immigrants;
- extended powers to enable the prosecution of those who facilitate or traffic from abroad, even if their crimes were committed outside of the UK;
- required automatic consideration for deportation of foreign national offenders sending out a clear message that those who abuse the hospitality of the UK by committing serious crimes will not be tolerated;

- introduced a Code of Practice to keep Children Safe from Harm which the Border and Immigration Agency will have regard to when dealing with children and;
- established an independent Chief Inspector of borders and immigration.

TERRORIST ASSET-FREEZING ETC. ACT 2010

The Terrorist Asset-Freezing etc. Act 2010 (TAFA) is the UK's main domestic asset-freezing legislation. It permits the Treasury to impose an asset freeze on an individual or entity where the Treasury (i) reasonably believes that the individual or entity is or has been involved in terrorist activity, and (ii) considers the designation is necessary for purposes connected with protecting the public from terrorism. Final designations (i.e. asset freezes) under TAFA last for one year unless reviewed and renewed before then. Designations can only be renewed if the statutory test continues to be met at each annual review. It is also possible to make an interim designation under TAFA. These last for 30 days and cannot be renewed. Designations under TAFA have effect in the UK and some overseas territories. TAFA designations do not have to be disclosed publicly if any of the conditions in s.3(3) are met.

The consequence of being designated is that funds or economic resources owned, held or controlled by the designated individual or entity are frozen. Further, it is prohibited to make funds, economic resources or financial services available directly or indirectly to or for the benefit of a designated person where the person making them available knows or has reasonable cause to suspect that they are doing so (and, in the case of economic resources, that the designated person would be likely to exchange the economic resources, or use them in exchange, for funds, goods or services).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW NATIONAL ACTION PLANS OR STRATEGIES RELATING TO TERRORISM

The UK has had a comprehensive strategy in place to counter the threat to the UK and to UK interests overseas from terrorism since 2003. This is known as the Counter Terrorism Strategy (CONTEST), and its aim is to reduce the risk to the UK and its citizens and interests overseas from terrorism, so that people can go about their lives freely and with confidence

CONTEST was first made public in 2006, revised and republished in 2011, and was reviewed again in 2016-17. Following the UK Government's National Security Strategy (NSS) and Strategic Defence and Security Review (SDSR) in 2015, the UK Government committed to increasing its spending on counter-terrorism by 30% in real terms over the course of the Spending Review Period, and to reviewing its national counter-terrorism strategy

Since the SDSR in 2015, the UK Government has increased resources for counter-terrorism police and the security and intelligence agencies, increased investment in aviation security and in digital surveillance, made additional investments in the counter-terrorism capabilities of its armed forces, and is also increasing its global network of counter-terrorism and counter-extremism experts.

The latest review of CONTEST was led by the Home Office in 2016-17, including learning lessons from the terrorist attacks in 2017. The strategy is structured in terms of four work-streams:

- Pursue – to stop terrorist attacks;
- Prevent – to stop people from becoming terrorists or supporting terrorism;
- Protect – to strengthen our protection against terrorist attack;
- Prepare – where an attack cannot be stopped, to mitigate its impact.

CONTEST is designed to be a comprehensive strategy: Prevent safeguards people from becoming terrorists or supporting terrorism; Pursue aims to stop terrorist attacks; Protect strengthens our protection against a terrorist attack and reduces our vulnerabilities; and Prepare mitigates the impact of a terrorist incident and ensures recovery as quickly as possible. Together, these work strands reduce the threat from terrorism, reduce the UK's vulnerability to terrorist attacks, and increase our resilience, and so reduce the overall risk from terrorism to the UK and our interests overseas.

1.3 What are the roles and missions of military, paramilitary and security forces and the police in preventing and combating terrorism in your State?

In England and Wales, the police service, working with the Security Service, is responsible for disrupting or responding to terrorist incidents in the UK. The police play a vital role in each of the four strands of CONTEST (the UK counter terrorism strategy). Around the country there are eleven regional counter terrorism units (CTU) and intelligence units (CTIU), which bring together intelligence, operations and investigation functions, engaging with a range of partners to prevent terrorist activity. The regional Counter Terrorism Units gather intelligence and evidence to help prevent, disrupt and prosecute terrorists and terrorist activities. Each CTU provides coordination and specialist support and has a wide range of expertise including skilled detectives, financial investigators, analysts, forensic specialists and high-tech Investigators.

Counter terrorism throughout the UK is the responsibility of the UK Government, but policing and justice are devolved in Scotland and Northern Ireland; Police Scotland and the Police Service of Northern Ireland have their own units with similar capabilities. For the UK countering terrorism within the boundaries of the UK is primarily the concern of the civil security authorities. Nevertheless, it is recognised that terrorist threats to the UK emerge in other States and this is where military capabilities might be employed to counter the threat. The Ministry of Defence (MOD) has a part to play alongside other Departments like the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) and the Department for International Development (DFID), and this 'integrated approach' is at the heart of the UK's considerations when tackling the threat of terrorism overseas.

The employment of lethal force is at one end of the spectrum of military activities and is a last resort. Military skills are used widely throughout the world to enable security, and contribute to the UK's significant commitment to aid and development overseas. The Joint Counter-Terrorist Training & Advisory Team continues to provide military counter-terrorism capacity building support to countries in the Middle East and the Horn of Africa that have asked for UK military counter-terrorism assistance. The MOD's International Policy & Planning (IPP) branch also sponsors the provision of Short Term Training Team (STTT) assistance in a similar context, but normally in lower threat areas and generally in a broader context than just counter-terrorism.

Defence has a part to play on all four CONTEST strands using military capability. The military supports 'Pursue' through primarily counter-terrorism capacity building for partner nations, and also supports 'Protect' by encouraging improved domestic security and cooperation between the Armed Forces and the UK civilian Emergency Services. In the event of a terrorist attack that exceeds the capability or immediate capacity of the UK civilian response, the military can provide support to 'Prepare' through Military Aid to the Civil Authorities.

1.4 Provide any additional relevant information on national efforts to prevent and combat terrorism, e.g., those pertaining inter alia to:

Financing of terrorism

"The financial challenge to crime and terrorism" launched jointly by Home Office, HM Treasury, the FCO and the Serious Organised Crime Agency (SOCA)[2] in February 2007, set out for the first time how the public and private sector would come together to deter terrorists from using the financial system, detect them when they did, and use financial tools to disrupt them. The UK aim is to deprive terrorists and violent extremists of the financial resources and systems needed for terrorist-related activity. Action against terrorist finance includes safeguards to prevent terrorists using common methods to raise funds, or using the financial system to move money. Financial intelligence and financial investigation tools are used to support all counter-terrorist investigations; and asset freezing can be used to disrupt the activity of terrorists and their supporters. The financial sector plays a significant role in preventing terrorist abuse, by carrying out 'know your customer' checks and by identifying suspicious customers or activity.

In 2007, the Government implemented the European Union (EU) Third Money Laundering Directive which tightened controls on the regulated financial sectors. HM Revenue and Custom's (HMRC) mandatory registration of money service businesses introduced a 'fit and proper' test to ensure that owners and persons who direct the businesses cannot abuse those businesses for terrorist financing. These sectors are obliged by law to provide the SOCA with Suspicious Activity Reports on any financial activity they suspect may be related to terrorism. The Charity Commission plays an important role in preventing the abuse of charitable organisations to raise or move funds for terrorists.

The Terrorism Act 2000 created specific terrorist finance offences. Financial tools are used to disrupt terrorists and their supporters. In October 2007, HM Treasury set up a dedicated Asset Freezing Unit to increase the expertise and operational focus that the Government is able to bring to bear in this area, enabling the UK to be more effective and proactive in freezing assets of suspected terrorists and facilitators. In December 2010, the United Kingdom introduced a new legislative framework for terrorist asset freezing that meets the UK's national security needs, international standards and the requirements of UNSCR 1373. The UK robustly implements Al Qaida and Taliban asset freezes by EC Regulation 881/2002, underpinned by domestic secondary legislation.

To combat the international financing of terrorism, we work closely with other governments and international organisations such as the Financial Action Task Force (FATF), to develop and enforce international standards and, to ensure all countries have robust systems in place for countering the financing of terrorism. In June 2014, FATF adopted a UK co-chaired typology report on the Risk of Abuse in Non-Profit Organisations and going forward, the UK will continue to develop a Best Practice Paper in relation to this.

Terrorists have long used kidnap for ransom to raise money to increase their capability. The UK has been clear that money or property to a terrorist group in response to a ransom demand only fuels further terrorist activity and encourages kidnaps. The UK has recently introduced legislation to strengthen its position on payments made in relation to terrorist demands. The Counter-Terrorism and Security Act (which received Royal Assent in 2015) included a measure which explicitly prohibits the reimbursement of a payment where an insurer knows or has reasonable cause to suspect has been made in response to a terrorist demand.

Border control

On 12 February 2015, the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act 2015 entered into force. This legislation was adopted in the context of a heightened threat to UK national security from radicalised individuals travelling to and returning from Syria and Iraq. The legislation makes

[2] Replaced by the National Crime Agency in 2013.

provision to stop people travelling overseas to fight for terrorist organisations or engage in terrorism-related activity and subsequently returning to the UK, and to deal with those already in the UK who pose a risk to the public. The provisions in the Act ensure that the law enforcement and intelligence agencies can disrupt the ability of people to travel abroad to fight, such as in Syria and Iraq, and control their return to the UK.

The Act strengthens powers to place temporary restrictions on travel where a person is suspected of involvement in terrorism. It enhances existing Terrorism Prevention and Investigation Measures to monitor and control the actions of individuals in the UK who pose a threat, including restrictions on their travel. It implements a number of measures on border and international transport security. These include extending the scope for authority-to-carry ("no fly") schemes to refuse carriers to carry specified classes of individual to and from the UK; allowing the Secretary of State to make regulations in relation to passenger, crew and service information which support the operation of the UK's Border System (including the authority to carry arrangements); and to give directions in relation to security measures to aviation, shipping or rail transport operating to the UK. The Act also introduces powers to make regulations which impose penalties for failure to comply with requirements to provide passenger, crew and service information; an authority-to-carry scheme; or, in the case of aircraft, screening requirements.

Container and supply chain security

The UK complies with the industry standard practice for securing ISO containers in accordance with the International Maritime Organisation's International Ship and Port Facilities Security (ISPS) Code. Wider supply chain security is achieved through adherence to specific government departmental publications which outline the appropriate procedures to be followed.

Security of radioactive source

The UK Government's aim is to deny terrorist access to chemical, biological, radiological, nuclear, improvised explosive (CBRNE) materials, whether produced and stored in the UK legally or imported (legally or illegally), and to screen for CBRNE materials entering protected areas, for example at airports. Work with European and other partners is particularly important. Tighter controls on the movement of CBRNE materials in Europe and beyond reduce their availability to terrorists, directly increasing UK security. European standards are being developed for explosives screening in commercial aviation, building on the measures initiated by the UK and put in place for liquids in August 2006, which seek both to improve explosive detection capability and to reduce disruption and inconvenience to the travelling public.

The multilateral Global Threat Reduction Programme (GTRP) plays an important role in denying terrorists access to CBRNE materials. The aim of the GTRP is to improve the security of fissile materials held around the world; reduce the number of sites containing nuclear and radiological material; contribute to the destruction of chemical weapons stocks; and provide sustainable employment for former weapon scientists whose expertise could otherwise be acquired by terrorist organisations. It is the UK's largest cooperative counter proliferation assistance programme, and is coordinated with other key donors. The UK is a leading participant in international multilateral regimes and instruments designed to combat not only the illicit transfer of CBRNE material, but also their means of delivery; these include the Chemical Weapons Convention, the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention, the Missile Technology Control Regime and the Nuclear Suppliers Group.

The Cyclamen Programme was established in 2002 as a joint programme between the Home Office and the former HM Customs & Excise to deter or detect the illicit importation of radiological materials into the UK that could be used for terrorist purposes. Cyclamen involves the development and roll-out of a suite of radiological detection systems at ports of entry to the UK, now operated by Border Force.

Substances with legitimate industrial or domestic uses can be exploited by terrorist groups for the purposes of creating a CBRNE or improvised explosive device. Much work has already been undertaken to minimise the opportunities to do so. The UK provides specialist advice to industry

on the security of hazardous substances and the sites which handle them. The 'Know Your Customer' campaigns raise awareness about the 'dual-use' nature of certain products and encourage suppliers to be more enquiring of new customers and to report suspicious enquiries to the police.

The Government is delivering a programme to enhance the protective security controls of CBRNE materials. This includes work to reduce accessibility to hazardous substances posing the highest risk, based on their threat, vulnerability and impact across their life-cycle (from their precursors through to their disposal). The Government works with its international partners to improve the security of hazardous substances and potential radioactive sources and to ensure that the UK's measures are not taken in isolation. Awareness-raising measures for specific sectors, such as the academic community, are being delivered and a new regulatory regime, the Environmental Permitting Regulations 2010, has been introduced to license the use of high activity, sealed radioactive sources. The UK provides specialist advice to industry on the security of hazardous substances and the sites which handle them and how to identify and report suspicious incidents.

Use of the Internet and other information networks for terrorist purposes

Terrorists use the internet for:

- Propaganda and recruitment;
- Attack planning and research;
- Communications;
- Financing operations.

The UK believes that the threat to our societies comes not from technology or innovation, but from the terrorists and extremists themselves. States should share information and expertise in combating the threat from criminal and terrorist use of the internet as appropriate, and support capacity building work bilaterally and through suitable international bodies. States should ensure that they have the appropriate legislation, law enforcement capability, and international agreements to support investigations domestically and internationally into terrorist use of the internet.

The UK approach is based on recognising that the rights and obligations that we value offline must similarly be protected online. We seek to act proportionately, with due process and democratic oversight. We employ a dual approach of: 1) restricting access to unlawful terrorist and legal, but harmful, extremist content; and 2) building the capabilities of civil society groups to promote positive alternatives.

1. Restricting access

As part of our 'Prevent' strategy, the UK Government and law enforcement work with industry to remove unlawful terrorist content from the internet. There is a clear role for the internet industry and responsible Communications Services Providers (CSPs) to ensure their networks are not exploited by terrorists. We continue to press the main companies to implement best practice in responding to terrorists' use of their platforms, including through the industry-led Global Internet Forum to Counter Terrorism.

The UK police Counter Terrorism Internet Referral Unit (CTIRU) refers content (predominately to social media platforms) which breaches UK terrorism legislation to industry for removal. The companies then voluntarily remove this content if it breaches their terms and conditions. Since February 2010 CTIRU has secured the removal of more than 300,000 pieces of unlawful terrorist-related content. This number increases all the time.

Members of the public can anonymously report terrorist information, pictures or videos to the police (CTIRU) via the UK government website. The UK also encourages the public to refer terrorism related content directly to social media companies or report direct to their Internet Service Provider.

The UK Government is in parallel working with UK Internet Service Providers (ISPs) to ensure their filtering products provide a facility to filter out legal but harmful extremist material. This measure aims to provide web users with the tools to protect themselves and their children from potentially harmful extremist material online.

2. Promoting positive alternatives

The UK Government has developed considerable expertise in understanding the powerful role that communications can play in reducing the impact of terrorist and extremist influence. An effective response to terrorist and extremist communications must involve tackling extremist ideology; and the psychological and emotional state of mind that offers it fertile ground.

Over the past five years the UK Government has developed a methodological approach to the delivery of highly targeted campaigns which address the range of influences and motivational factors that lead to young people across the UK developing radicalised mindsets; and which match the pace and scale of the communications output of terrorists and extremists.

The UK Government works with a range of civil society groups to safeguard communities from radicalisation and equip them with the ability to challenge the twisted ideologies of groups including Daesh, al-Qa'ida and far-right. By bringing organisations together with communications professionals and industry experts, the UK builds communications capability and expertise enabling them to make best use of it. We believe that this approach should be replicated internationally to drown out extremists online.

Legal co-operation including extradition

Terrorist activity has often been conducted by foreign nationals who have come to live in the UK. The Government has always sought to deport foreign nationals suspected of being involved in terrorist-related activity, or who have completed terrorist-related prison sentences, back to their countries of origin using immigration powers exercised by the UK Border Agency. However, many of the foreign nationals concerned come from States that are alleged to have abused human rights. European case law has established that Article 3 of the ECHR prevents a state from deporting a foreign national to a country where there are substantial grounds for believing that there is a real risk the person will be tortured or suffer inhuman or degrading treatment. The European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) also held that this applies irrespective of the conduct of the persons to be returned.

The substance of Article 3 is reflected in other international instruments. Article 3 of the UN Convention Against Torture prohibits the removal of someone where there are substantial grounds for believing they will face torture. The UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights has been interpreted to include a prohibition on return comparable to the ECHR. It is against this background that since 2004, the Government has negotiated Memoranda of understanding (MoUs) or similar arrangements to protect foreign nationals whom it wishes to deport to countries where there are concerns on ECHR Article 3 grounds about safety on return.

The UK currently has arrangements with Algeria, Ethiopia and Jordan. In January 2011, the UK Government announced the outcome of its Review of Counter-Terrorism and Security Powers, which included a commitment to expand the policy of deporting foreign nationals engaged in terrorism. As part of this the UK is seeking to agree deportation arrangements with a number of other countries, enhancing how we defend deportation decisions in the courts, and seeking to engage more widely on the policy with other Governments and NGOs.

Safe havens and shelter to terrorists

Wherever possible, the UK prefers to prosecute foreign nationals suspected of involvement in terrorism and deport them on completion of their prison sentence. In cases where it is not possible to prosecute, the UK will seek to deport foreign nationals suspected of involvement in terrorism to their countries of origin, in so far as it is consistent with our international human rights obligations to do so. Please refer to the previous section for further information.

Prevention of violent extremism and radicalization that lead to terrorism

The UK firmly believes that we must tackle the causes of terrorism as well as its symptoms. That is why there is a preventative strand of CONTEST, the UK's counter-terrorism strategy. Although *Prevent* is under review at the moment, we believe that it will continue to (a) challenge terrorist ideology and undermine terrorist ideologues, (b) support those institutions where radicalisation may occur and (c) protect those individuals who may be vulnerable to the influence of terrorism.

Critical energy infrastructure protection from terrorist attack

As part of the UK's counter terrorism strategy (CONTEST), UK officials and experts work with owners and operators of infrastructure (including some energy assets) in the UK and overseas that is critical to the UK to provide advice on proportionate security mitigations.

Public-private partnerships (PPPs) in countering terrorism

The UK has no information on public-private partnerships in countering terrorism.

2. Stationing of armed forces on foreign territory

2.1 Provide information on stationing of your States armed forces on the territory of other participating States in accordance with freely negotiated agreements as well as in accordance with international law

The UK has ratified the Agreement between the States Parties to the North Atlantic Treaty regarding the Status of their Forces, completed at Brussels on 19 June 1951.

The UK has ratified the Agreement among the States Parties to the North Atlantic Treaty and the Other States participating in the Partnership for Peace regarding the Status of their Forces, completed at Brussels on 19 June 1995.

UK military forces were deployed in 35 locations around the world, undertaking a number of standing military tasks and providing assistance to a number of Governments in support of UK commitments and interests. More specifically, in relation to UK armed forces stationed on the territory of other participating States we have the following: Canada (permanent staff for Army Training Exercises and RAF training detachments); Cyprus (UK contribution to UN peacekeeping and UK personnel in Sovereign Base Areas); Kosovo (UK contribution to operations in support of NATO and EU); Bosnia and Herzegovina (support to EU mission); Ukraine (short-term training team); and Estonia and Poland (NATO enhanced Forward Presence). UK military forces are also deployed in support of UN and EU missions in South Sudan, Somalia, DRC, Libya, Mali and Colombia.

Concurrent Jurisdiction

The UK has concurrent jurisdiction in 77 Countries which includes 29 NATO members, 21 Partnership for Peace members (excluding Malta), 28 Bilateral Agreements (with Algeria, Australia, Bahrain, Bermuda, Botswana, Brunei, Cyprus, Gabon, Ghana, Guyana, Jamaica, Jordan, Kenya, Kuwait, Malawi, Malaysia, Morocco, New Zealand, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Tanzania, Trinidad & Tobago, UAE, and Zambia,)

Exclusive Jurisdiction

The UK has exclusive jurisdiction in 14 countries (Afghanistan, Belize, Cameroon, Chad, Ethiopia, Gambia, Lebanon[3], Mauritania, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, and Somaliland[4], Uganda).

[3] The UK is currently in negotiations with Lebanon about renewal of a bilateral agreement
[4] Somaliland is a non-UN member state and not recognised by any state

3. Implementation of other international commitments related to the Code of Conduct

3.1 Provide information on how your State ensures that commitments in the field of arms control, disarmament and confidence- and security-building as an element of indivisible security is implemented in good faith

The UK is active across a broad range of multilateral organisations aimed at strengthening global security, including NATO, the EU, OSCE and the UN.

The UK's Strategic Defence and Security Review (SDSR) of 2015 positions bilateral and multilateral security co-operation and Soft Power as a central element of the UK's approach to defence and security. It gives particular consideration to conflict prevention and security co-operation, which includes the field of arms control, disarmament and confidence and security building.

Arms control and Confidence and Security-Building Measures (CSBMs) are key elements of the UK's Soft Power instrument, which also includes influence operations, humanitarian assistance, counter-proliferation, stabilisation, counter-narcotics, counter-piracy, and counter terrorism. The influence that is generated through Soft Power directly supports current operations, builds and develops burden-sharing alliances and prepares the ground for contingent operations.

3.2 Provide information on how your State pursues arms control, disarmament and confidence and security-building measures with a view to enhancing security and stability in the OSCE area.

The UK is a participant, partner state or supportive of all treaties and agreements promoting arms control, disarmament and confidence and security building applicable to the OSCE area. We are proactively engaging in processes to update elements of our security architecture, such as continued modernisation of the Vienna Document CSBMs and further negotiations on Euro-Atlantic Arms Control Treaties.

The UK is strongly committed to its obligations and promotes the respective instruments actively. In order to facilitate implementation and verification of the relevant treaties and agreements the UK has an established verification agency in the Joint Arms Control Implementation Group based at RAF Henlow. The UK has been engaged in bilateral and multilateral activities to support other nations in improving their individual skills and collective arms control, disarmament and confidence and security building capabilities, on a voluntary basis.

Section II: Intra-State elements

1. National planning and decision-making process

1.1 What is the national planning and decision-making process in determining / approving military posture and defence expenditures in your State?

Military Planning and Decision Making

The National Security Council integrates at the highest level the work of the Treasury, the foreign, defence, home, energy and international development departments, and all other arms of Government contributing to national security. The Council brings together all the senior Ministers concerned, under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister. The Council is responsible for the National Security Strategy (NSS) and the Strategic Defence and Security Review (SDSR) White Paper, which together constitute UK defence policy. These two items were published as a single document in November 2015. The Council is also responsible for overseeing their implementation, and commissioned a focused National Security Capability Review (NSCR) in 2017. The NSCR does not revise any of the NSC principal commitments, but does introduce a Fusion Doctrine to improve the UK's collective approach to national security.

The NSS/SDSR set out three clear National Security Objectives (NSOs): (i) to protect our people – at home, in our Overseas Territories and abroad, and to protect our territory, economic security, infrastructure and way of life from all major risks that can affect us directly; (ii) to project our global influence – reducing the likelihood of threats materialising and affecting the UK, our interests, and those of our allies and partners; and (iii) to promote our prosperity – seizing opportunities, working innovatively and supporting UK industry.

It also includes the National Security Risk Assessment, which organises potential threats to UK security into three tiers according to judgement of both likelihood and impact. This helped to inform the strategic judgement of the Council when taking decisions about the relative importance of different national security capabilities, and choosing where to focus new investment and savings.

The NSS/SDSR covered defence, security, intelligence, resilience, development and foreign affairs, and identified the 'means' (resources) and 'ways' (or course of action) across Government that are needed to deliver the NSOs. These ways and means were captured in a series of commitments, which articulate where departments should direct effort and focus available resources, and what capabilities the UK will need by 2025. Individual departments and their Ministers are responsible for implementing the commitments that they own. The document also set the armed forces eight missions, which combine the routine missions that they will be expected to undertake, and the contribution they will be expected to make to the Government's response to crises.

In MOD, the NSS/SDSR gives rise to a document called Defence Strategic Direction (DSD). DSD contains direction on all aspects of Defence activity, including MOD's Arms-length Bodies, and addresses how the NSS/SDSR will be implemented over the long-term and within the resources available. It includes a number of Defence Planning Assumptions, which are classified. These outline the size of operations the military expects it might be required to undertake, the type of operation, where they may occur (distance from permanent bases), and who they may be conducted with. The Assumptions serve as a planning tool to guide development of forces rather than a set of fixed operational plans or a prediction of the precise operations that will be undertaken.

We take steps to reduce the likelihood of risks affecting the UK or our interests overseas, and apply our instruments of power and influence to shape the global environment and tackle potential risks at source. The Cabinet controls the various means, diplomatic, economic and military, at the Government's disposal to deal with routine or expected events, and to resolve crises. Ministers

decide on the most effective approach to tackling a particular crisis, and the political decision to deploy the Armed Forces rests with the Cabinet.

Defence Expenditure

The Government carries out a Spending Review every two-to-three years to allocate Departmental Budgets. Spending Reviews set fixed Departmental Expenditure Limits typically for a three year period. The defence budget is allocated by the Ministry of Defence to its Top Level Budget (TLB) holders, meaning the Service Chiefs, the Joint Force Commander, the heads of other major delivery organisations and the MOD Head Office itself, who are responsible for the delivery of defence outputs.

1.2 How does your State ensure that its military capabilities take into account the legitimate security concerns of other States as well as the need to contribute to international security and stability?

The UK is active across a broad range of multilateral organisations aimed at strengthening global security, including NATO, EU, OSCE and UN. In the vast majority of cases, the UK will be working with partner nations, and through NATO, OSCE and UN and, in some cases, informal coalitions. Overall, the UK Force Generation process is sufficiently flexible, agile and balanced and includes diplomatic, international and military engagement at the strategic level to inform military planning.

2. Existing structures and processes

2.1 What are the constitutionally established procedures for ensuring democratic political control of military, paramilitary and internal security forces, intelligence services and the police?

The Secretary of State for Defence is an elected member of the British Government and is accountable to Parliament for all defence matters. He is responsible for the formulation of British defence policy and ultimately for the conduct of all military operations. Defence Ministers account to Parliament for all defence issues and will appear, when requested, before both Houses and before relevant Parliamentary committees.

The legal basis for Defence comes from two sources: the Crown's constitutional responsibilities and responsibilities imposed by Parliament. Parliament also has an important role in Defence. The Crown's Prerogative powers in relation to Defence are in some cases subject to requirements for Parliamentary approval or are limited by Parliamentary legislation.

Expenditure on Defence is subject to the normal requirements of Parliamentary approval through annual Appropriation Acts. By this mechanism Parliament controls both Defence expenditure and the size of the Armed Forces (the expenditure is voted by Parliament by reference to specified numbers in the Armed Forces).

Under the Bill of Rights 1688 the raising of a standing army within the UK in time of peace is unlawful unless Parliament consents. The constitutional practice adopted on the basis of this requirement is that the consent of both Houses of Parliament is required each year to the continuation in force of legislation under which the Armed Forces are recruited and discipline is maintained. In addition, an Armed Forces Act is required every five years in order to continue in force the legislation that governs Service discipline and the military justice system. The main legislation is now the Armed Forces Act 2006. This was approved by Parliament and came into force in October 2009. In accordance with the requirement for renewal of the Armed Forces legislation, the 2006 Act was renewed, with amendments, by the Armed Forces Act 2016. The 2006 Act provides, among other things, for a system of justice which is compliant with the European Convention on Human Rights and under which criminal conduct by members of the Armed Forces (wherever it occurs) is judged in accordance with what amounts to criminal conduct under the law of England and Wales.

The circumstances in which the Armed Forces may be deployed within the UK in time of peace is governed by emergency powers legislation; it is a constitutional principle that only by legislation can members of the Armed Forces be given powers beyond those of other citizens; there are additional responsibilities under legislation as to the way the Armed Forces are run; for example to provide for the terms of service of members of the Armed forces and for a system by which they can seek redress of individual grievances.

The Armed Forces Act 2006 replaced the single Service Discipline Acts (the Naval Discipline Act 1957, the Army Act 1955 and the Air Force Act 1955) with a single system of service law that applies to the personnel of all three services. Although a more modern piece of legislation, the Act, and the subsequent 2016 Act, did not set out to make radical changes for the sake of it. The main intention behind the 2006 Act is to support operational effectiveness by the creation of a single system of Service law. This covers the full range of disciplinary work from the internal disciplinary process, which is normally the responsibility of unit commanding officers, right through to the Court Martial.

The Act covers some other important areas such as the right of personnel to make a service complaint; Service Inquiries; and a range of miscellaneous matters such as recruitment, enlistment and terms and conditions of service. The 2016 Act makes a number of changes, including provision to add further protections to Service police independence.

The UK does not have paramilitary or internal security forces.

2.2 How is the fulfilment of these procedures ensured, and which constitutionally established authorities/institutions are responsible for exercising these procedures?

As explained above, the ultimate constitutional authority for control of the Armed Forces is Parliament.

2.3 What are the roles and missions of military, paramilitary and security forces, and how does your State control that such forces act solely within the constitutional framework?

The overall purpose of Defence is to defend the UK so that we can live in peace, by providing credible military options to Government in support of UK national interests, alongside other levers of national power and combined with allies and partners. The Government published its Strategic Defence and Security Review (SDSR), which sets out how it will deliver the priorities identified in the National Security Strategy, on 23 November 2015. The contribution of the Armed Forces is further defined through the eight Military Tasks, which describe what the Government may ask the Armed Forces to undertake:

- Defend and contribute to the security and resilience of the UK and Overseas Territories;
- Provide the nuclear deterrent;
- Contribute to improved understanding of the world through strategic intelligence and the global defence network;
- Reinforce international security and the collective capacity of our allies, partners and multilateral institutions;
- Support humanitarian assistance and disaster response, and conduct rescue missions;
- Conduct strike operations;
- Conduct operations to restore peace and stability; and
- Conduct major combat operations if required, including under NATO Article 5.

Overall, the UK will maintain its ability to use Armed Forces where necessary to protect our national interest. Although our future forces will be smaller than now, they will retain their geographical reach and their ability to operate across a spectrum from high-intensity intervention to enduring stabilisation activity. In addition, military capability has to remain flexible and adaptable and to evolve over time to meet new threats and other challenges to our security.

It is a principle of the UK's democratic system of Government that the Armed Forces remain under Government control and that civilian Defence Ministers are publicly accountable for the actions of the Armed Forces. The Ministry of Defence is headed by a Cabinet Minister, the Secretary of State for Defence, who is accountable to the Prime Minister and Parliament for all its activities. It also has an Accounting Officer, the Permanent Secretary, who is separately accountable to Parliament for managing the Department, and for the proper use of the funds voted by Parliament. The Chief of the Defence Staff is the professional head of the Armed Forces as a whole, and is responsible for the delivery of military capability, including the direction of military operations. The command structure of the Armed Forces is a single chain, stretching from the Crown, through the Defence Council comprising the Defence Ministers, and the most senior Armed Forces officers and MoD civil servants to the individual unit and Service personnel.

3. Procedures related to different forces personnel

3.1 What kind of procedures for recruitment and call-up of personnel for service in your military, paramilitary and internal security forces does your State have?

The UK does not have military conscription and has no plans to do so; an act of Parliament would be required to re-introduce it. The UK has an all-volunteer regular and reserve armed force. Selection procedures differ slightly for each Service and between officers and other ranks. Applicants are required to meet specified eligibility requirements for their chosen trade and be medically and physically fit. The call out and recall of Reservists is undertaken in accordance with the provisions of the Reserve Forces Act 1996.

3.2 What kind of exemptions or alternatives to military service does your State have?

The UK does not have compulsory military service. The call out and recall of Reservists is undertaken in accordance with the provisions of the Reserve Forces Act 1996. Reservists, or their employers, may apply for exemption or deferral from call out or recall under the provisions of Part VIII of the Reserve Forces Act 1996.

3.3 What are the legal and administrative procedures to protect the rights of all forces personnel as well as conscripts?

Civil remedies (including cases referable to courts of law and tribunals) are available to UK Service personnel, apart from those which are specifically excluded by legislation. Additionally, there is a statutory redress of individual grievance procedure for all ranks.

The post of Service Complaints Commissioner was created by the Armed Forces Act 2006, an Act that also introduced a number of significant changes to the Service complaints system to make it more independent and more transparent. As well as the Service Complaints Commissioner, these included the use of Service complaint panels, with in some cases an independent member to consider some complaints on behalf of the Defence Council. The Commissioner's role was to provide a rigorous and independent oversight of how the complaints system was working and to report to Ministers and to Parliament. The Commissioner also provided an alternative point of contact for Service personnel, or someone acting on their behalf, such as a member of their family, a friend or MP to raise concerns. Because of concerns that UK Service men and women should be treated properly, the Commissioner had special powers where a complaint is about unacceptable behaviour such as: bullying, harassment, discrimination, victimisation, dishonest or improper behaviour. In these cases, by law, the Commissioner had to be kept informed about the handling of an allegation referred by her to the chain of command and of the outcome.

The Armed Forces (Service Complaints and Financial Assistance) Act 2015 amended the relevant provisions for the complaints process and SCC in the Armed Forces Act 2006. A reformed Service complaints system was introduced on 1 January 2016 to make the process shorter and to promote greater confidence in the system through more open communication. The 2015 Act also replaced the SCC with a new Service Complaints Ombudsman (which also came in to force in January 2016). The Ombudsman has significant new powers, whilst maintaining the right balance between the authority of the military chain of command – which must be responsible for looking after its own people – and strong, independent oversight through the Ombudsman. The Ombudsman has increased powers:

- to overturn a decision by the chain of command to exclude a complaint, for example for being out of time;
- to review the handling of a complaint if the complainant is not satisfied once it has completed the internal process;
- to investigate the substance of a complaint once it has completed the internal process; and

- to recommend action to put matters right.

Like the Commissioner before, the Ombudsman is required to produce an annual report on the fairness, effectiveness and efficiency of the system in the preceding calendar year. The Ombudsman's report for 2017 is due to be published in April 2018 and will report on the working of her office and the service complaints system in 2017. Once received, the MOD will consider fully the findings and any recommendations made in the report before responding formally to the Ombudsman.

4. Implementation of other political norms, principles, decisions and international humanitarian law

4.1 How does your State ensure that International Humanitarian Law and Law of War are made widely available, e.g., through military training programmes and regulations?

The UK armed forces provide Law Of Armed Conflict (LOAC) training to all Service personnel. This includes instruction during initial basic training phases, staff and promotion courses, and mission specific pre-deployment training for operations. Service personnel receive LOAC training at a level and frequency that is appropriate to their rank, responsibility, force readiness status and Service.

The provision of LOAC instruction as part of pre-deployment training packages is mandatory. It is regularly updated as the operation evolves. Army Personnel are required to take the 'Army Military Annual Training Test (MATT) 7', which provides training and assessment in LOAC, investigations and accountability, captured persons, and the use of force. All Army units will receive training in relevant operational law prior to all operational deployments. All Army trainers in LOAC are trained by Army Legal Services, specifically, the Operational Law Branch. Operational Law Branch provides expert advice on the practical application of international law on operations. No Army lawyer deploys on operations without having attended the requisite training in operational law, delivered through a combination of internal military instruction and external academic sources. The Operational Law Branch is also involved in higher level processes. This includes contributing to the Operational Law Customer Executive Board, which oversees, co-ordinates and reports on the operational law training delivered to each of the single Services and at the Defence Academy of the United Kingdom. There are equivalent tests, governance arrangements and training for Naval and RAF personnel.

Additionally, all deployed personnel have access to the Joint Service Publication 381 (JSP 381) Aide Memoire on LOAC. All Service personnel receive training in the application of LOAC appropriate to the theatre and the nature of the operation.

JSP383 (the Joint Service Manual of the Law of Armed Conflict) is published in the public domain through Oxford University Press. It is regarded as an essential reference and source for the following persons: service lawyers who advise the chain of command, legal scholars working in this field, officials working in foreign and defence ministries around the globe, and for military officers and lawyers requiring an understanding of the legal framework of military operations.

The armed forces also receive training on the protection of cultural property in times of armed conflict as provided for in the LOAC manual, the Chief of the Defence Staff's Directive, Targeting Policy, and Rules of Engagement. In addition, in 2017, the UK enacted the Cultural Property (Armed Conflicts) Act, which provides for the ratification and accession of the 1954 Hague Convention and its two Protocols. The Cultural Property (Armed Conflicts) Act 2017 established the cultural emblem, and a system to authorise, use, prevent and repress misuse of that distinctive (protective) emblem. The Act also established a new offence of dealing in unlawfully exported cultural property from occupied territory. In November 2017, two guidance documents were published by the government to support the effective implementation of the 1954 Hague Convention and its two protocols and the 2017 Act. A Cross-Government Cultural Protection Working Group has also been established. It includes experts from external organisations and among other objectives, aims to ensure that the UK implements effectively the 2017 Act and related international obligations. As part of the United Kingdom's ratification of the 1954 Hague Convention, the Ministry of Defence is in the process a establishing a military cultural property protection unit.

Besides the armed forces, the National Committee on International Humanitarian Law also encourages the dissemination and training of international humanitarian law to the armed forces, police, civil servants (practitioner level training courses by the FCO), teachers, the judiciary, the medical profession, journalists and others as necessary. International humanitarian law is also

included as a statutory subject in schools in England in the formal Key Stage 4 (ages 14 - 16) curriculum documentation for citizenship.

4.2 What has been done to ensure that armed forces personnel are aware of being individually accountable under national and international law for their actions?

The UK ensures that armed forces personnel are aware of being individually accountable under national and international law for their actions through training in LOAC. The UK LOAC training policy is set out in JSP 898 and is subject to evaluation and review. It applies to all Service personnel, including Reserves, and is included in training programmes throughout an individual's career. All Service personnel are required to achieve and maintain a common baseline of LOAC knowledge.

The revision of LOAC training is a mandatory part of pre-deployment training and is tailored to the theatre and the nature of the operation on which they are to deploy.

4.3 How does your State ensure that armed forces are not used to limit the peaceful and lawful exercise of human and civil rights by persons as individuals or as representatives of groups nor to deprive them of national, religious, cultural, linguistic or ethnic identity?

This is undertaken through programmes of training and education based on The UK Defence Language and Cultural Awareness Training Policy, May 2008. Cultural awareness is on a spectrum of education and training aimed at modifying behaviour and creating understanding, ranging from 'Standards and Values', 'Ethos and Heritage', 'Equality and Diversity' training on the non-operational side to 'Combatant Cultural Awareness' on the operational side. Cultural awareness concerns aspects of foreign cultures and has a predominantly operational focus. The components of UK cultural awareness training are as follows:

- **Structures and Politics.** The structures of government, the dynamics and agendas of government, defence, law and order and commerce in a particular country, nation or culture.
- **History.** The effect that ancient and recent history has in shaping national, regional and tribal attitudes, beliefs and relations. Critical in this area are the relative perceptions of 'The West', the UK and Christianity to the particular operational theatre and environment.
- **Social.** The social, religious or cultural conventions which shape operational and social interaction. Examples include entering homes, searching, meetings, use of weapons, the acceptance of hospitality, alcohol, gift giving, dogs and sanitation.
- **Daily Life.** The pattern and quality of life, employment, education, worship, sport, literacy, poverty, diet, home ownership, access to utilities and wages.
- **Verbal and Non-Verbal Communications.** Greetings, insults, words, phrases, gestures and taboos. This can be achieved through a variety of strategies and techniques, for example, residential short courses or workshops, distance learning tasks, or on-line tutorials. Maintenance training should normally be undertaken once an individual is no longer 'in-role' regularly using those language skills. Relations between society and indigenous/foreign police/military forces.
- **Taxonomy.** The level of cultural awareness required varies with both rank and type of operation. The spectrum of cultural awareness requirements can be broadly described as:
  - **Top.** 1* upwards for commanders engaged with politicians or defence staff at a regional or national level.
  - **High.** Sub-unit upwards for commanders engaged in military / political relations with local and regional representatives of the police, government, armed forces and utilities.
  - **Mid.** Section to sub-unit for commanders engaged with local authorities at community level.
  - **Low.** All ranks for those who engage with, or whose actions affect, the local population.

Defence Intelligence and Security Centre (DISC). The DISC is the UK focus for ensuring the delivery of coherent and cost effective MOD language training, wherever delivered. Consequently, although it has no budgetary influence over training delivery, and whilst individual language training (foreign and English) organisations are responsible for their own rigorous quality assurance measures in accordance with DSAT (JSP 822), the DISC is responsible for taking the lead in the development of good practice in the delivery of language training and in assisting other MOD schools in the development of relevant processes.

4.4 What has been done to provide for the individual service member's exercise of his or her civil rights and how does your State ensure that the country's armed forces are politically neutral?

Civil Rights

The military justice system supports operational effectiveness and safeguards individual service member's civil rights. It has to be fair and be seen to be fair. It provides a single coherent source of authority which applies at home and abroad, ensuring that justice is not delayed and is fully compliant with the European Convention on Human Rights.

The Armed Forces are an equal opportunities employer and are committed to ensuring a working environment free from harassment, intimidation and unlawful discrimination, in which each individual is not only valued and respected – but encouraged to realise their full potential.

Armed Forces personnel may join trade and professional associations, as well as organisations representing their interests; they are not prohibited from joining any lawful organisation, including political ones, providing they do not participate in industrial action or in any form of political activity organised by such an organisation.

Political Neutrality

The UK Armed Forces remain impartial and politically neutral. Queen's Regulations ensure that Regular Service personnel are not to take any active part in the affairs of any political organisation, party or movement. Neither are they to participate in political marches or demonstrations, although no restriction is placed upon their attendance at political meetings of such personnel provided that uniform is not worn, Service duties are not impeded, and no action is taken which would bring the Service into disrepute.

Political Accountability

The UK Armed Forces' existence in peacetime is by the consent of Parliament, and both the strength of the Armed Forces and the Defence budget have to be approved by Parliament each year. The consent of Parliament is also required each year to continue in force the legislation that governs the Armed Forces - currently the Armed Forces Act 2016 - and for this legislation to be renewed by an Act of Parliament every five years; the most recent was the Armed Forces Act 2016 and the next is required in 2021.

Ministerial Accountability

The Secretary of State for Defence (SofS) is accountable to Parliament for all the policies, decisions and actions of Defence that has the most day-to-day impact on people working in Defence. One of the principles of Ministerial conduct is that: "it is of paramount importance that Ministers give accurate and truthful information to Parliament, correcting any inadvertent error at the earliest opportunity. Ministers who knowingly mislead Parliament are expected to offer their resignation to the Prime Minister". In practice, SofS is held to account by Parliament in five main ways:

- **Parliamentary Questions (PQs)**. Members of Parliament (MPs) and Peers may raise PQs to seek information or to press for action. They may require either an oral or written answer;
- **Parliamentary Debates**. These may include debates on legislation, general topics of interest or issues selected by the major parties. There are typically five set piece debates on Defence in every session in the House of Commons: Defence in the UK, Defence in the world, procurement, Armed Forces personnel and Defence policy. There are also regular adjournment debates in Westminster Hall and in the Commons. The Lords may also hold debates on defence issues;
- **Select Committees**. Select Committee's roles include examining the expenditure, administration, and policy of the principal Government departments;
- **House of Commons Defence Committee (HCDC)**.[5] The HCDC looks specifically at Defence, and may decide to have an inquiry on any Defence issue. It takes oral and written evidence from Defence Ministers, Service personnel, Defence officials and other interested parties outside Government, before producing a report to which the Secretary of State will then respond. The Public Accounts Committee (PAC), further details of which are given below, and other select committees also obtain evidence, both written and oral, from Defence;
- **Ministerial Correspondence**. MPs may write directly to Ministers about the concerns of their constituents or on a topic in which they have an interest; Peers also write to Ministers and will receive a Ministerial reply.

The SofS is also required to produce an annual report to Parliament on financial and non-financial performance. The Annual Report and Accounts provides a comprehensive overview of Defence and how it has used the resources authorised by Parliament. The National Audit Office (NAO) under the Comptroller and Auditor General (C&AG) certifies the Accounts and reports to Parliament on any qualification of the audit certificate.

- **Permanent Under Secretary of State (PUS).** PUS is the Departmental Accounting Officer and as such is personally accountable to Parliament for the economic, efficient and effective use of Defence resources, prudent administration and the regularity and propriety of Defence expenditure. Chief Executives of Trading Funds have similar accountabilities in respect of their Agencies.
- **The Public Accounts Committee (PAC).** PAC is a select committee of the House of Commons, established to help give Parliament better control of the expenditure of public funds. The role of the PAC is to satisfy itself as to the accounting for, and the regularity and propriety of, expenditure; and also to explore the economy, efficiency and effectiveness issues set out in NAO value for money reports.

4.5 How does your State ensure that its defence policy and doctrine are consistent with international law?

The UK Ministry of Defence (MOD) is responsible for leading the defence contribution to the development of the UK Government's foreign and security policy and wider government objectives, and for translating those objectives into departmental policy. Within MOD Head Office, MOD Legal Advisers provide legal advice and input into the development of all MOD policy.

The Development, Concepts and Doctrine Centre (DCDC) at Shrivenham produces UK concepts and doctrine, based on MOD policy – underpinned by thorough research – to help inform decisions in Defence strategy, capability development and operations, both now and into the future. To accomplish this, DCDC concentrates its efforts in five core activities:

- **Futures - Strategic Trends.** The provision of cross-dimensional analysis of the future context for Defence out to 30 years - *looking at the future world environment in which our Armed Forces will have to operate.*

[5] http://www.parliament.uk/business/committees/committees-a-z/commons-select/defence-committee/

- **Futures - Joint Concepts.** The initiation, formulation and validation of analytical concepts to shape coherent capability development - *determining how we might wish to operate in the future;*
- **Joint Strategic and Operational Doctrine.** The development, articulation and dissemination of Joint doctrine, focused at the strategic and operational levels that incorporates enduring principles and proven good practice established from experience gained on operations - *providing a common framework of understanding.*
- **Development, Analysis and Research.** The provision of empirical evidence to underpin DCDC products – hunting and gathering information from a wide range of sources including:
- **Research and analysis.** Operational Lessons, Analysis and Studies, Academic texts and Military papers, experimentation and analysis, all to inform DCDC thinking and provide a Research Hub for DCDC;
- **Legal.** Ensuring UK Armed Forces legal compliance and sustaining a favourable legal environment for Defence activity and capability - *acting within the law. All DCDC outputs are examined to ensure legal compliance.* DCDC conducts legal weapons reviews for all new means and methods of warfare, a requirement for procurement through Defence Equipment and Support.

Section III: Public access and contact information

1. Public access

1.1 How is the public informed about the provisions of the Code of Conduct?

Members of the public may request information through the Freedom of Information Act (2000)

1.2 What additional information related to the Code of Conduct, e.g., replies to the Questionnaire on the Code of Conduct, is made publicly available in your State?

Information related to the Code of Conduct may be requested through the Freedom of Information Act (2000)

1.3 How does your State ensure public access to information related to your State's armed forces?

The MOD places great importance on informing and educating the public about the role and activities of the Armed Forces, and on opening up the MOD to the public. To that end, it puts considerable effort into identifying opportunities to publicise and promote the work of the Armed Forces, and into increasing the means by which such information can be provided to the public.

Press notices are issued and briefings given on all significant decisions and events, for example, decisions on the procurement of equipment, the deployment of forces on operations and major exercises and decisions on policy matters.

The MOD website, https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/ministry-of-defence is updated on a regular basis, and provides links to other associated sites, including those maintained by each of the single Services. These sites provide a considerable amount of information about the Armed Forces.

Members of the public can also request information about the UK Armed Forces through the Freedom of Information Act (FOIA), subject to certain exemptions within the Act, and under the Environmental Information Regulations. A FOIA Publication Scheme is maintained on the MOD website https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/ministry-of-defence/about/publication-scheme where information of public interest is proactively published.

MOD also proactively publishes datasets under the government's Transparency Framework. These are made available to the public through the MOD website and signposted on the www.data.gov.uk site.

There are a number of other ways for the public to access information on the UK military, including through Parliamentary Questions and Ministerial Correspondence posed through their respective Members of Parliament.

The MOD Annual Report and Accounts is a comprehensive overview of UK Defence and how the MOD has used the resources authorised by Parliament. It has two volumes: the first is MOD's Annual Performance Report for the year, including our contribution to Public Service Agreements and performance against our Departmental Strategic Objective targets. The second comprises the MOD Resource Accounts for the financial year.

Finally, regular links are maintained with the academic community, and conferences and seminars are held at which information is exchanged in an open atmosphere. The services have designated

presentation teams that travel the country delivering and staging productions to inform the public about today's defence services. Influential opinion formers from local communities are invited to Core Events, while Special Events are less formal and are usually held in response to an invitation from an interest group; these events provide an excellent opportunity for the general public to hear more about the work of the armed forces. Community engagement is also actively encouraged at lower levels to promote and maintain a positive relationship between the military and its local community.

2. Contact information

The national point of contact for the implementation of the Code of Conduct:

Euro-Atlantic Security Policy Department
Foreign and Commonwealth Office
King Charles Street
London
SW1A 2AH

Tel: 020 7008 1500
Email: EASP-NATOTeam@mod.gov.uk

Section IV: Information on democratic political control of Private Military Security Companies and Women, Peace and Security

1. Democratic political control of private military and security companies (PMSCs)

The UK Government is leading efforts with other states, industry and civil society organisations, at both a national and international level, to raise standards across private security companies (PSCs) globally and to put in place a system to independently monitor PSC adherence to the International Code of Conduct for Private Security Providers (ICoC).

The ICoC sets out principles for PSCs working in complex environments, and mandates the creation of standards, based on the ICoC principles, to which PSCs can be certified and subsequently monitored. The ICoC was drawn up by a group comprising representatives of governments, industry and civil society.

The ICoC Association (ICoCA) launched in September 2013 and is charged with oversight and governance of the ICoC. It will be able independently to monitor member PSCs, including in the field, to ensure they are adhering to the ICoC's principles and provisions. The ICoCA comprises governments, industry and civil society organisations. The UK has a representative on the government pillar of the ICoCA Board, and we will continue to work closely with the ICoCA as an ICoCA member as it develops its procedures and processes.

The UK has closely supported the introduction of professional standards for private security companies working on land or at sea in complex or high risk environments, against which private security companies can be certified by independent third party auditors. The United Kingdom Accreditation Service (UKAS) accredits independent certification bodies that will certify PSCs to the professional standards ISO 18788 for land-based PSCs, and ISO 28007 for maritime PSCs. PSCs can gain accredited certification from these certification bodies to demonstrate they are meeting the standards.

Until now there has been no international system that can effectively raise standards, including of human rights, in the private security sector working in dangerous or complex environments. So we are actively encouraging all states, companies and NGOs that contract PSCs to recognise ICoCA membership and accredited certification to relevant standards in their contracting processes. The Government will do likewise.

The UK Government does not contract PSCs in a combat or offensive role. They are contracted to provide protection to government staff and property in complex environments.

2. Women, Peace and Security (WPS)

I Other Information

The UK is one of the principal supporters of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and, in 2006, was one of the first nations to devise a National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security (WPS). This provides the framework for integrating the aims of UNSCR 1325 into a range of UK diplomacy, defence and development policies. The UK engages bilaterally at levels of the UN including the UN Security Council and the UN General Assembly and is the penholder for WPS issues at the Security Council.

In 2015, the UK played an active and important role in the UN's High Level Review to mark the 15th anniversary of the adoption of UNSCR 1325, including holding the pen on UNSCR 2242, adopted unanimously on 13 October. This landmark resolution, co-sponsored by an unprecedented 72 Member States, is the most wide-ranging to date, placing WPS as a central component of efforts to address the challenges of the current global context, including the rise in

violent extremism, climate change, and unprecedented numbers of displaced people. The resolution also called on the UN to do more to implement the WPS agenda, including through doubling the number of women in UN Peacekeeping and increasing senior accountability for WPS within UN Missions, and through inviting women civil society briefers to country-specific debates in the Security Council.

The UK continues to support the inclusion of UNSCR 1325 as standard in UN mandates for peacekeeping missions, and continues to support all related resolutions including 1820, 1888, 1889, 1960, 2106, 2122 and 2242 through which the Security Council seeks a genuine step change in global WPS implementation.

In September 2016, the UK hosted the UN Peacekeeping Defence Ministerial in London, at which WPS was a major agenda item. 63 member states, including the UK, signed the resulting Communiqué, making firm commitments to increase the numbers of women in UN peacekeeping contingents and the numbers of gender advisors at headquarter and unit levels, and to develop gender sensitive training.

II Prevention

The Ministry of Defence is integrating Women, Peace and Security (WPS) into relevant military doctrine and standardising WPS training across Defence, in order to ensure that when deployed, the UK Armed Forces operate in a way which takes into account the specific needs of women and girls in conflict and women's contribution to conflict resolution.

In August 2016, Field Army submitted a comprehensive tri-Service Training Needs Analysis which made recommendations for the development of gender specialist training, as well as setting basic requirements for all personnel. These recommendations continue to be implemented in 2018.

WPS is already included in the pre-deployment training provided to all UK troops. This includes training on the impact of gender upon operations, and on prevention of, and response to, sexual and gender based violence in conflict and sexual exploitation and abuse. There are practical serials, simulating scenarios troops might encounter in the field.

The Ministry of Defence currently holds a small pool of 8 Gender Advisors (GENADs) and a larger number of Gender Focal Points (GFPs), who advise at command and unit level on integrating gender perspectives into the planning, execution and evaluation of operations. This will enhance situational awareness, improving protection of, and prevention of violence against, civilians. The UK has recently deployed a military Gender Advisor to MINUSCO, the UN mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

The UK has plans to greatly increase the numbers of military Gender Advisors and Gender Focal Points in the ranks of the Armed Forces. Presently, the UK depends on securing a small number of places at the Nordic Centre for Gender in Military Operations. MOD is now developing its own Gender Advisor course, with the help of the Nordic Centre, which we hope will begin in 2018.

Gender Advisors have attended a variety of courses including those offered by Swedint, UK Stabilisation Unit, NCGM GENAD course, UNPoC through NORDEFCO and other ACO online training serials. UK-based gender specialist training is in development at the Defence Academy. The deployment of the Gender Focal Points is not recorded in detail as they are often used to support Exercises and pre-deployment as well as other training activity; however approximately 50 have been deployed since 2014.

WPS and prevention of sexual violence in conflict are also important elements of the training provided by UK Armed Forces to a range of international partners. For example, the British Peace Support Team (Eastern Africa) provides training to over 7000 African peacekeeping personnel every year. This includes sexual and gender based violence (SGBV) training to those deploying from Kenya and Uganda to the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM). A standardised curriculum for the training provided to overseas partners was rolled out in 2017.

III Participation

As at 1 October 2016, females comprise 10.2% of the UK Regular Forces. This figure has remained stable since October 2014 (10.0%) and October 2015 (10.1%) and is part of a longer term increasing trend. Overall, 12.9% of officers and 9.6% of Other Ranks are women. Between 1 October 2014 and 1 October 2016 the Naval Service increased female representation from 9.2% at 1 October 2014 to 9.3% at 1 October 2016; the Army has increased from 8.9% to 9.0% over the same time period. Representation in the RAF has also increased, from 13.9% at 1 October 2014 to 14.0% at 1 October 2016.

The 1 October 2016 publication of the "*UK Armed Forces Biannual Diversity Statistics"* shows that 13.8% of FR2020 volunteer Reserves were female; with 14.9% of the Maritime Reserve; 13.1% of the Army Reserve; and 20.1% of the RAF Reserves being female.

The profile of women in the Naval Service has changed over the last two years with representation increasing or remaining the same at all OF ranks, and increasing at all OR ranks except for OR-4 and OR-9. The Naval Service has a female OF6 for the first time since 2008. With 26 women having qualified in the Submarine Service, and a further 25 being in the training pipeline, it is now regarded as normal business for women to be serving in all areas of the Naval Service with the exception of Royal Marines (General Service and Special Forces) which will open to women in 2019. The Naval Service remains at the forefront of diversity policy with the First Sea Lord launching his own gender initiative, Horizon 50, in 2016. This makes support to diversity a central leadership activity for all senior officers.

The Army continues to improve progression of women. There are currently four female Brigadiers (OF6).

On 8 July 2016, the then Prime Minister, David Cameron, announced that he had accepted the recommendations offered to him by CGS and the Service Chiefs to lift the exclusion on women serving in Ground Close Combat (GCC) roles. Whilst implementation is being delivered individually by each Service, a common approach has been adopted and implementation will occur in a deliberate and methodical manner. The Royal Armoured Corps were opened first in November 2016 with the Infantry, Royal Marines and RAF Regiment due to open by the end of 2018. The maintenance of existing standards is a pre-requisite to the delivery of this policy change. There will be no lowering of entry or performance standards and no quotas for the inclusion of women in the GCC environment.

The RAF has remained committed to improving female representation from its current position; the RAF has the largest female representation of the UK Armed Forces with a figure of 14% in Regular and 20.1% in Reserve forces, a healthy talent pipeline and an increasing number of females in senior appointments and positions of influence.

Government recruitment targets set in 2014 for BAME and females include a target of 15% female recruitment for all three services by 2020. The RAF has subsequently committed to achieving 20% female inflow in the same timeframe; the RAF is confident that initiatives and activities are in place to achieve this enhanced target.

Development of initiatives to address the gender gap is focussed on the challenges of occupational segregation, whereby in UK society as a whole, women are under-represented in the Science Technology Engineering Mathematics (STEM) related occupations. The majority of the RAF's workforce is employed in STEM related roles (i.e. within technical trades and engineering and flying branches), hence the efforts being made to address this challenge as a matter of priority. RAF Service personnel are encouraged to participate and many are engaged as STEMNet and 'Inspiring the Future' ambassadors, volunteering to support school road shows and outreach to engage support recruiting activities.

Aside from the high profile female appointments (currently the RAF has one Reserve 2* and two Regular female 2*) that have provided positive messaging to all RAF personnel, other RAF developments in the last 12 months include: the appointment of a Gender Advocate, a senior male officer to champion female participation; development of an online mentoring platform (ALTA) developed as a result of academic research to provide support for women employed within the

Aerospace and Aviation; and the growth of a virtual women's network (WINGS) which supports a growing population (currently 2300 members) of serving and veteran RAF women to provide an opportunity for collaboration, participation in policy development and the sharing of inspirational stories.

Number and percentage of discrimination and sexual harassment complaints that are referred, investigated and acted upon

The Ministry of Defence is committed to tackling all types of harassment, including sexual harassment and is determined to create an inclusive working environment that delivers opportunity for all, recognises and values difference, and eradicates bullying, harassment and discrimination. The Ministry of Defence has developed policies to ensure that individuals are treated fairly, and with respect.

Annual reports published by the Service Complaints Commissioner (now the Ombudsman) show the total number of complaints about sexual harassment. The Commissioner's reports are available at: http://armedforcescomplaints.independent.gov.uk/. The findings of the Armed Forces Continuous Attitude Surveys also report on the number of personnel who believe they have been subject to discrimination, harassment or bullying. The latest Armed Forces Continuous Attitude Survey is available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/armed-forces-continuous-attitude-survey-2017

The three Services take seriously all allegations of bullying, harassment and discrimination and have all taken action to tackle the causes of complaints. For example the Army has established a Bullying, Harassment and Diversity team to reduce incidences of this nature.

IV Protection

The UK has made considerable progress since the launch of the UK Government's Preventing Sexual Violence Initiative in May 2012. There is a new readiness among national governments and international institutions to confront sexual violence in conflict as a war crime and social taboo, and to introduce practical measures to combat it. The Declaration of Commitment to End Sexual Violence in Conflict launched at the UN in September 2013 has now been endorsed by 156 governments. The Global Summit to End Sexual Violence in Conflict, which the UK hosted in June 2014, brought together over 125 countries, eight UN Agencies, the major multilateral institutions, over 900 experts and survivors from around the world, and thousands of members of the public who visited the Summit Fringe or took part in a social media campaign.

At the Summit, the UK launched the first International Protocol on the Documentation and Investigation of Sexual Violence in Conflict, and has translated it into ten languages including Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Burmese, French, Kurdish, Serbian, Spanish and Swahili. The UK has worked with governments, the judiciary, police and civil society in countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Colombia, DRC, Iraq, Nepal and Uganda to provide training on the International Protocol, to help them gather evidence and bring prosecutions against perpetrators of sexual violence. By boosting the capacity of States to prosecute offenders and offer justice to victims and encouraging human rights defenders and grass roots organisations to press for specific changes to domestic legislation, the International Protocol is making a real and practical difference to the fight against impunity and tackling sexual violence in conflict. The International Protocol was always intended to be a living document, to be updated as best practice evolved and in light of the feedback received on its use. In 2016, this revision process was launched and a second version of the International Protocol is now available online. The revised version contains a number of additions, including guidance on the specific context, challenges and techniques required for interviewing and documenting conflict and atrocity-related sexual violence against children and against male victims; further guidance on trauma; and a focus on analysing evidence and establishing patterns of violations.

The UK has carried out over 85 deployments of its Team of Experts and trained over 17,000 overseas military and police personnel on sexual violence issues. Over £35 million has been

allocated to support more than 70 projects in 26 countries to provide capacity building on advocacy, protection, survivor support, evidence gathering, judicial reform, prosecution and reparations work.

The UK government will host an international meeting in 2019 to review commitments made at the 2014 Summit and galvanise further international action and commitment. The 2019 meeting will focus on what further action is needed to end sexual violence in conflict including how to further support survivors and tackle the stigma and negative attitudes associated with sexual violence.

National Action Plan

The UK National Action Plan (NAP) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) is the tri-departmental (FCO/DFID/MOD) strategy on WPS. In January 2018 the UK published its fourth revised NAP on UNSCR 1325 following a review conducted by the three key departments in consultation with civil society, in particular the coalition group Gender Action on Peace and Security (GAPS) and the All Party Parliamentary Group on WPS.

The NAP ensures a more joined-up approach to the work on WPS and the best use of UK Government resources. There is a greater focus on participation, as it is essential that peace negotiations provide for the active participation, perspectives and needs of both men and women. The MOD provides transparent data on women's participation in the UK Armed Forces, which can be accessed at the link below:

https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/uk-armed-forces-monthly-service-personnel-statistics-index

The aims of the NAP are: to provide a clear framework for our work on WPS; to maximise the impact of UK efforts by focusing on where we have the most influence; to ensure cross departmental working; to ensure that UK action covers the four UN pillars of UNSCR 1325 (Prevention, Protection, Participation, and Relief and Recovery); to strengthen our annual reporting and monitoring process; and to promote a close and on-going working relationship with civil society on WPS.

Officials from the FCO, MOD and DFID report on progress to Parliament and civil society, and Ministers from the three departments attend an annual meeting with the All Party Parliamentary Group on WPS.

For more detail on specific activity please follow the link below to the UK Government NAP on WPS.

https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/uk-national-action-plan-on-women-peace-and-security-2018-to-2022