



Strategic Security Analysis

Commitment to Control Weaponised Artificial Intelligence: A Step Forward for the OSCE and European Security

Anna Nadibaidze



Commitment to Control Weaponised Artificial Intelligence: A Step Forward for the OSCE and European Security

Anna Nadibaidze



The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), jointly with the Institute for Peace Research and Security Policy at the University of Hamburg (IFSH) and in partnership with the Geneva Centre for Security Policy (GCSP), Moscow State University of International Relations (MGIMO) and the Vienna Centre for Disarmament and Non-proliferation (VCDNP), has launched an “OSCE-IFSH Essay Competition: Conventional Arms Control and Confidence- and Security-Building Measures in Europe”. The project aims at facilitating the continuity of knowledge and expertise on arms control and CSBM processes at the OSCE among students and recent graduates interested in peace and security studies. This essay has participated in the 2021 competition and has been awarded the first prize ex-aequo.

Key Points

- The global debate on weaponised artificial intelligence (AI) often focuses on futuristic “killer robots”, which risks overlooking the fact that these technologies are already part of the security landscape.
- Diminishing human control over the use of force and the differences in states’ discourse pose a considerable risk for European security and stability.
- The impact of AI is not inevitable, and states should address this issue through political means, such as a political declaration with a commitment to ensuring human control over the use of force.
- With its inclusive membership, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) can and should become the platform through which its participating States can take a step forward in the global debate on weaponised AI.

About the Author

Anna Nadibaidze is a PhD fellow at the University of Southern Denmark’s Centre for War Studies. Her doctoral research explores the relationship between the development of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Russian state identity. She is also a researcher for the European Research Council-funded AutoNorms Project, which examines how autonomous weapons systems shape international norms. She holds an MSc in International Relations from the London School of Economics.

The global discussion about autonomous weapons systems is often framed in a futuristic way, but weaponised AI is already a reality of European security.

Introduction

Recent technological and political developments in OSCE participating States suggest a strong interest in pursuing, testing and using weaponised AI and weapons systems with increasingly autonomous features controlled by algorithms. In May 2021 Defence Minister Sergei Shoigu announced that Russia had begun producing combat robots “capable of fighting on their own”,¹ while the French Army is planning to introduce robotic systems by 2040.² The United Kingdom (UK) government has stated its objective of achieving “a leading role in critical and emerging technologies”³ and has established a Defence Artificial Intelligence and Autonomy Unit to better understand them.⁴ In the United States, the National Security Commission on Artificial Intelligence has urged the government “not [to] be a witness to the AI revolution in military affairs”.⁵

The global discussion about autonomous weapons systems is often framed in a futuristic way and focuses on lethal autonomous weapons systems (LAWS) – colloquially called “killer robots” – or the “AI arms race”. But weaponised AI is already a reality of European security. Thus far participating States have been reluctant to utilise the OSCE platform to address the risks caused by the increasing autonomy of weapons systems. Building on this issue, this essay intends to address the following questions: (1) how does the lack of regulation of weaponised AI affect security and stability in Europe? and (2) what role can the OSCE play in mitigating the risks related to weaponised AI?

Weaponised AI practices: implications for European security

A United Nations (UN) Security Council report published in March 2021 stated that “lethal autonomous weapons systems were programmed to attack targets without requiring data connectivity between the operator and the munition” during the Libyan civil war, referring to the Turkish-made Kargu 2 armed loitering drone.⁶ This sparked a wave of worldwide media reaction, with many headlines claiming that the “age of autonomous killer robots” has arrived.⁷ While it is difficult to assess whether a weapon system has been operated in an autonomous mode, whether in Libya or elsewhere, this episode indicates that there is increased public awareness that AI-based weapons are currently being developed, tested and used.⁸ In fact, more attention should be paid to the fact that AI-based autonomy at various levels is already present, among others in armed aerial loitering drones, ground vehicles and air defence systems. The concept of autonomy has many definitions and interpretations but is generally understood to be the ability of a machine to perform an intended task without human intervention by using the interaction of its sensors and computer programming with the environment.⁹

Weaponised AI is affecting European security and stability in two main ways. Firstly, due to the absence of international regulations on the use of weaponised AI, the growing trend of automation and autonomy in weapons systems is silently changing the way in which humans are involved in the use of force.¹⁰ Current applications of weaponised AI are shifting the understanding of human control involved in critical functions of weapons systems, especially those of identifying and attacking targets.¹¹ For example, many OSCE participating States use air defence systems with automatic or semi-automatic features. The automation of critical functions of air defence systems “has diminished the capacity of human

Current AI-based weapons systems are said to be unable to satisfy the requirements of distinction between legitimate and illegitimate targets during combat.

operators to exercise meaningful human control over specific targeting decisions”.¹² The use of autonomy is gradually changing warfare norms, similarly to the way in which the proliferation of armed drones has encouraged targeted killing operations.¹³ Such developments pose legal, ethical and security risks.

The diminishing role of human control over weapons systems also infringes upon several principles of international humanitarian law (IHL) applicable to armed conflict.¹⁴ The principles of moral responsibility and accountability are challenged by the process of delegating crucial decisions such as selecting and attacking a target to an autonomous function that has no moral agency.¹⁵ Current AI-based weapons systems are said to be unable to satisfy the requirements of distinction between legitimate and illegitimate targets during combat. These types of weapons systems lack the situation awareness necessary to discriminate between combatants and civilians.¹⁶

Moreover, a diminishing human involvement in the operation of weapons systems with autonomous features has substantial security risks, since the risk of potentially catastrophic failure “can never be entirely eliminated”.¹⁷ Humans do not fully understand AI-based weapons systems, and the declining role of humans in their operation exacerbates this knowledge gap. As a UN Institute for Disarmament Research report has noted, “All complex weapon systems can have failure modes that cannot be foreseen. But it is likely to be harder to anticipate, quantify and characterize the risks associated with those issues in autonomous weapons”.¹⁸ The factors causing these risks include an acceleration of the speed of warfare,¹⁹ a destabilising effect,²⁰ the strengthening and “normalisation” of practices such as targeted killings,²¹ an increase in the asymmetries of warfare,²² and the proliferation of autonomous weapons among terrorist organisations and non-state actors.²³

Both Azerbaijan and Armenia used uninhabited aerial vehicles during the 2020 Nagorno-Karabakh conflict, and several IHL violations such as indiscriminate attacks on civilians were recorded.²⁴ While these weapons systems are not officially classified as LAWS, many analysts have deemed their use to be an efficient way of conducting warfare that could contribute to other states’ pursuit of similar technologies. Since there is no way of verifying the level of human control over these systems, operational practices are silently continuing to change the norms of war and legitimise the use of weaponised AI. In other words, “the operational trend towards developing AI-enabled weapon systems continues and is on track to becoming established as ‘the new normal’ in warfare”.²⁵ While there are no legal norms defining a responsible use of weaponised AI, the way in which states use this technology will continue to shape the way warfare is conducted and may increase risks to European and global security.

Secondly, the discourse surrounding weaponised AI – i.e. how OSCE participating States talk about LAWS – also has a considerable impact on European security. Both a common definition of LAWS and agreement on the appropriate level of human control over weapons systems are lacking, resulting in the misinterpretation of the risks that arise. Looking at the discourse of three major players in European security – France, Russia, and the United Kingdom – one sees that their official positions converge on the importance of retaining human control over these weapons. The French Armed Forces minister has said that “France refuses to entrust the decision of life or death to a machine that would act in a completely autonomous manner and would be beyond any human control”.²⁶ Russia has said that it “is committed to the need to maintain human control over

As a possible response, several states, scholars, and civil society organisations have been arguing for a ban on LAWS.

LAWS, no matter how ‘advanced’ these systems may be”.²⁷ The UK Ministry of Defence has noted, “the operation of our weapon systems will always be under human control and no UK weapons systems will be capable of attacking targets without this”.²⁸

Nevertheless, autonomy and the concept of appropriate human control over weapons systems are perceived differently. Russia remains opposed to a legally binding treaty that would ban LAWS, arguing that the definition of LAWS should “strike a balance between humanitarian concerns and [the] legitimate defence interests of states”.²⁹ France has suggested a division between “fully” and “partially” LAWS and is only prohibiting “fully” autonomous weapons.³⁰ Meanwhile, the UK has stated that “an autonomous system is capable of understanding higher-level intent and direction”, a definition that is more precise and constraining on the user³¹ and is “clearly out of step with the definitions used by most other governments”.³²

As a common denominator, these states agree on the principle that weapons systems should not function completely autonomously. However, the differences in their views create misperceptions about the uses of AI, specifically among the leading states in this sphere, which are all carefully watching one another’s technological developments. There are risks of misunderstanding, for instance when one state is developing a weapon system that another state considers to be a lethal autonomous system. Such communication issues can lead to a security dilemma in which “one state’s pursuit of greater automation and faster reaction times undermines other states’ security, leads them to similarly pursue more automation just to keep up” and encourages experts to speak of an “AI arms race”.³³

As a possible response, several states, scholars, and civil society organisations have been arguing for a ban on LAWS. Since 2013 this issue has been discussed in the framework of the UN Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons (CCW). A Group of Governmental Experts (GGE) on emerging technologies related to LAWS was established in 2016 to pursue the debate in a more formal setting. However, the discussions are often framed in futuristic terms, focusing on “killer robots” and their potential to operate fully autonomously and without human oversight, while existing weapons systems with increasingly autonomous features already have the potential to affect security and stability.

At the same time, the implications of weaponised AI for European and international security are not set in stone. Ultimately, AI is not an agent that decides its own path. The trajectory of weaponised AI, as other technologies in the military sphere used for conventional weapons, is not inevitable. The AI arms race scenario may or may not develop: much will depend on how states decide to use the AI capabilities that they are pursuing.

Strengthening human control: the role of the OSCE

The OSCE's
inclusive approach
is needed to show
that tensions can
be dealt with in a
forum rather than
on the battlefield.

Reaching a common position on weaponised AI regulation is challenging. The current global and European political atmosphere is one of distrust, particularly between two major European security players: Russia and the United States. In June 2021 both President Joe Biden and President Vladimir Putin said that the bilateral relationship “has deteriorated to its lowest point in recent years”.³⁴ There is also distrust of technologies such as the Internet, AI, 5G, and robotics, not least because they can be weaponised and used for threatening activities such as cyber attacks. This environment makes it difficult to attain a common understanding and commit to agreed principles on the use of weaponised AI. Nevertheless, the OSCE possesses some key advantages that could make it the platform for taking a step forward in the global debate.

Just like the CCW, the OSCE operates by consensus, which requires it to seek a compromise among participating States on whatever issue is being discussed. However, the organisation has been historically known for its ambition to form an inclusive security community and to build practices that “suggest a new model of international security” that is “comprehensive”, “indivisible”, and “cooperative”.³⁵ The OSCE's predecessor, the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, was a symbol of détente between the United States and the Soviet Union, and a place for two rivals to find compromise on security issues, demonstrating the possibility of coexistence on the European continent.³⁶ The OSCE has not only been able to survive, but also to adapt to the rising security challenges of the new world order. Its broad membership and comprehensive approach to security make it a key – if not the most – legitimate institution for European security.³⁷ At a time when some experts debate whether Russian-US relations have entered a new cold war, the OSCE's inclusive approach is needed to show that tensions can be dealt with in a forum rather than on the battlefield.

Other international institutions have demonstrated their ambitions to create some form of AI regulation. In April 2021 the European Commission presented its legal framework proposal, which could lay down a path towards defining a regional approach to governing weaponised AI.³⁸ The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) has also set out its principles for the responsible use of AI in the area of defence.³⁹ The key difference is that these institutions have favoured exclusive membership in terms of which prospective countries need to fulfil specific conditions to join. However, the OSCE has relatively broad accession rules because it was initially based on the concept of geopolitical diversity.⁴⁰ Settling the differences and misunderstandings between different actors, especially Russia and the United States, is a key step in achieving a security agreement such as a commitment to human control over weaponised AI. In recent years the Russian discourse has expressed disappointment that Western countries have made NATO the main European security organisation.⁴¹ By engaging with Russia on the issue of weaponised AI within the OSCE framework, the United States would contribute to easing the tensions between it and Russia, while also diminishing the chances of misunderstanding and misinterpretation. The OSCE's inclusive membership is thus a valuable advantage in terms of building trust and mitigating the security implications of modern technologies.⁴²

What should be the way forward? In the 2019 Luxembourg Declaration on Advancing Sustainable Development to Promote Security, the OSCE

Shifting the discussion towards the current impacts of weaponised AI rather than the potential future impact of “killer robots” would help to mitigate the risks inherent in these technologies.

Parliamentary Assembly urged “participating States to support international negotiations to ban lethal autonomous weapons with a view to establishing international, legally binding rules”.⁴³ A legally binding treaty banning the development of weaponised AI would be challenging, given that, unlike nuclear weapons or blinding lasers, AI is not a specific type of weapon and can also be applied for civilian use.⁴⁴ Some participating States hold the position that a ban will affect the development of useful civilian technology. Within the framework of the CCW, Russia has argued that banning LAWS too hastily could “hinder technological progress”,⁴⁵ while the UK government believes that “a legally binding instrument which hampers the legitimate development and use of such technologies would be counterproductive”.⁴⁶

As a realistic starting point, the OSCE’s confidence- and security-building measures (CSBMs) could provide a framework to exchange information and observations on the use of weaponised AI, in order to facilitate communication and dialogue.⁴⁷ The OSCE already has CSBMs for information communication technologies, which, like weaponised AI, create “an area with much room for speculation, doubt, and ambiguity” and “increase the potential for tensions between States”.⁴⁸ There is also the potential to go further than exchanging information informally within the CSBMs framework.

Based on the recommendations of the International Panel on the Regulation of Autonomous Weapons, the next step should be to “focus on the obligation to maintain human control over the use of force”, which would “apply to all conventional weapons”.⁴⁹ Taking this path will avoid the debate on defining LAWS, which has been hindering the progress of the CCW discussions. In 2019 the GGE on LAWS adopted a set of guiding principles that are broad, have no legally binding force and do not clarify the concept of human control, only stating that “human responsibility for decisions on the use of weapons systems must be retained since accountability cannot be transferred to machines”.⁵⁰ While OSCE member States accept in principle the importance of human control, they have until now not been able to agree on a common definition of this concept. The commitment to human control should be enshrined in a normative framework such as a political declaration or a manual of best practices. Any such document would already be a step forward. It could be part of the Vienna Document or the result of a new OSCE working group.

Importantly, an OSCE political declaration or guide on human control and weaponised AI would not undermine or negate the efforts at the CCW but would build on them. Shifting the discussion towards the current impacts of weaponised AI rather than the potential future impact of “killer robots” would help to mitigate the risks inherent in these technologies. It would demonstrate that finding consensus, especially in an atmosphere of political distrust, is possible. While debates at the CCW continue, the operational trend towards further autonomy in the armed forces of OSCE participating States is a reality. Practices related to the use of weaponised AI have the potential to shape warfare norms. Yet this trajectory is not inevitable, and with the right approach, a political declaration containing a common definition of human control would be a realistic achievement.

A political declaration should therefore contain a commitment to retaining human control over AI-driven weapons systems. This would be a crucial step towards addressing regional security threats and creating an international framework on weaponised AI. The history and membership of the OSCE make it the most appropriate organisation to build trust and take a key step forward on weaponised AI when global discussion at the UN is stalling and operational trends continue to increase the use of autonomous weapons systems.

Conclusion

Current practices related to the use of weaponised AI are already impacting European stability and security. Operational trends that reflect a reduction in the level of human control over weapons with increasingly autonomous features pose significant legal, ethical and security risks. Moreover, the lack of definition of LAWS and agreement on an appropriate level of human control among states creates uncertainty and potential misinterpretation. However, the trajectory of AI is not permanently set to be an “arms race”. Finding a common agreement is a challenging, but not impossible task. The OSCE is a promising platform to build on the stalled discussions at the CCW, because it has a history of acting as a bridge between various perspectives of European security. It is an inclusive organisation that brings together the key developers of weaponised AI and players in European security. By debating this issue at the OSCE and agreeing on a political declaration containing a commitment to human control, participating States will address some of the risks of autonomous weapons systems and demonstrate the relevance of the OSCE in tackling the impact of modern technologies and their use in conventional weapons.

The OSCE is a promising platform to build on the stalled discussions at the CCW, because it has a history of acting as a bridge between various perspectives of European security.

Endnotes

1. TASS, "Russia Launches Serial Production of Combat Robots", 21 May 2021, <https://tass.com/science/1292483>.
2. N. Barotte, "Les Robots à l'orée du champ de bataille", *Le Figaro*, 21 June 2021, <https://www.lefigaro.fr/international/les-robots-a-l-oree-du-champ-de-bataille-20210621>.
3. UK government, "Global Britain in a Competitive Age: The Integrated Review of Security, Defence, Development and Foreign Policy", 16 March 2021, p.38, <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/global-britain-in-a-competitive-age-the-integrated-review-of-security-defence-development-and-foreign-policy>.
4. UK Ministry of Defence, "Science and Technology Strategy 2020", 2020, p.15, https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/927708/20201019-MOD_ST_Strategy_2020_v1-23.pdf.
5. NSCAI (National Security Commission on Artificial Intelligence), *Final Report*, March 2021, p.77, <https://www.nscai.gov/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/Full-Report-Digital-1.pdf>.
6. UNSC (United Nations Security Council), *Final Report of the Panel of Experts on Libya Established Pursuant to Security Council Resolution 1973 (2011)*, 8 March 2021, p.17, <https://undocs.org/S/2021/229>.
7. J. Vincent, "Have Autonomous Robots Started Killing in War?", *The Verge*, 3 June 2021, <https://www.theverge.com/2021/6/3/22462840/killer-robot-autonomous-drone-attack-libya-un-report-context>.
8. Z. Kallenborn, "If a Killer Robot Were Used, Would We Know?", *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists*, 4 June 2021, <https://thebulletin.org/2021/06/if-a-killer-robot-were-used-would-we-know/>.
9. See V. Boulanin and M. Verbruggen, *Mapping the Development of Autonomy in Weapon Systems*, Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, 2017, https://www.sipri.org/sites/default/files/2017-11/siprireport_mapping_the_development_of_autonomy_in_weapon_systems_1117_1.pdf.
10. I. Bode, "Reflecting on the Future Norms of Warfare", AutoNorms Project, 25 June 2021, <https://www.autonorms.eu/reflecting-on-the-future-norms-of-warfare/>; I. Bode and H. Huelss, "Autonomous Weapons Systems and Changing Norms in International Relations", *Review of International Studies*, Vol.44(3), 2018, pp.393-413.
11. N. Sharkey, "Staying in the Loop: Human Supervisory Control of Weapons", in Nehal Bhuta et al. (eds), *Autonomous Weapons Systems: Law, Ethics, Policy*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2016, pp.23-38.
12. I. Bode and T. Watts, *Meaning-less Human Control: Lessons from Air Defence Systems on Meaningful Human Control for the Debate on AWS*, Oxford and Odense, Drone Wars UK and Centre for War Studies, University of Southern Denmark, 2021, p.63, <https://dronewars.net/wp-content/uploads/2021/02/DW-Control-WEB.pdf>.
13. M. Senn and J. Troy, "The Transformation of Targeted Killing and International Order", *Contemporary Security Policy*, Vol.38(2), 2017, pp.175-211.
14. C. Heyns, "Human Rights and the Use of Autonomous Weapons Systems (AWS) during Domestic Law Enforcement", *Human Rights Quarterly*, Vol.38, 2016, pp.350-378.
15. P. Asaro, "Autonomous Weapons and the Ethics of Artificial Intelligence", in M.S. Liao (ed.), *Ethics of Artificial Intelligence*, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2020, p.224.
16. A. Sharkey, "Autonomous Weapons Systems, Killer Robots and Human Dignity", *Ethics and Information Technology*, Vol.21, 2019, pp.75-87; L. Suchman, "Algorithmic Warfare and the Reinvention of Accuracy", *Critical Studies on Security*, Vol.8(2), 2020, pp.175-187; L. Suchman, "Situational Awareness and Adherence to the Principle of Distinction as a Necessary Condition for Lawful Autonomy", 2016, https://eprints.lancs.ac.uk/id/eprint/86141/1/CCW_Autonomy_Suchman.pdf.
17. P. Scharre, "Autonomous Weapons and Operational Risk", Center for a New American Security, 2016, p.25, https://s3.us-east-1.amazonaws.com/files.cnas.org/documents/CNAS_Autonomous-weapons-operational-risk.pdf?mtime=20160906080515&focal=none.
18. A. Holland Michel, *Known Unknowns: Data Issues and Military Autonomous Systems*, Geneva, United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research, 2021, p.11, <https://unidir.org/known-unknowns>.
19. T. Vestner, "Military Operations and Artificial Intelligence", Geneva Centre for Security Policy, 8 July 2021, p.8, <https://dam.gcsp.ch/files/doc/military-operations-and-artificial-intelligence>.
20. D. Garcia, "Lethal Artificial Intelligence and Change: The Future of International Peace and Security", *International Studies Review*, Vol.20(2), 2018, pp.334-341; J. Altmann and F. Sauer, "Autonomous Weapon Systems and Strategic Stability", *Survival*, Vol.59(5), 2017, pp.117-142.
21. M.C. Haas and S.C. Fischer, "The Evolution of Targeted Killing Practices: Autonomous Weapons, Future Conflict, and the International Order", *Contemporary Security Policy*, Vol.38(2), 2017, pp.281-306.
22. I. Bode and H. Huelss, "The Future of Remote Warfare? Artificial Intelligence, Weapons Systems and Human Control", in A. McKay et al. (eds), *Remote Warfare: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*, Bristol, E-International Relations Publishing, 2021, p.220, <https://www.e-ir.info/2021/02/16/artificial-intelligence-weapons-systems-and-human-control/>.
23. M.M. Maas, "How Viable Is International Arms Control for Military Artificial Intelligence? Three Lessons from Nuclear Weapons", *Contemporary Security Policy*, Vol.40(3), 2019, p.286.
24. V. Kozyulin, "Autonomous Weapons and the Laws of War", Valdai Discussion Club, 9 February 2021, <https://valdaiclub.com/a/highlights/autonomous-weapons-and-the-laws-of-war/>.
25. Bode and Huelss, 2021, p.224.
26. Ministère des Armées, "Discours de Florence Parly, Ministre des Armées_ Intelligence artificielle et défense", 5 April 2019, https://www.defense.gouv.fr/salle-de-presse/discours/discours-de-florence-parly/discours-de-florence-parly-ministre-des-armees_intelligence-artificielle-et-defense.
27. Russian Federation, "Considerations for the Report of the Group of Governmental Experts of the High Contracting Parties to the Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons on Emerging Technologies in the Area of Lethal Autonomous Weapons Systems", September 2021, p.2, <https://undocs.org/ccw/gge.1/2021/wp.1>.
28. UK Ministry of Defence Counter Proliferation and Arms Control Centre, "Reply to the Letter to the UK Government: Human Dignity, Responsibility and Common Ground on Human Control", 4 January 2021, <https://article36.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/01/UK-govt-reply-2020-LAWS.pdf>.
29. Russian Federation, 2021, p.2.
30. French Permanent Mission in Geneva, "Written Contribution by France: Possible Consensus Recommendations in Relation to the Clarification, Consideration and Development of Aspects on the Normative and Operational Framework on Emerging Technologies in the Area of LAWS", June 2021, <https://reachingcriticalwill.org/images/documents/Disarmament-fora/ccw/2021/gge/documents/France.pdf>.
31. UK Ministry of Defence, "Joint Doctrine Publication 0-30.2: Unmanned Aircraft Systems", August 2017, p.13, https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/673940/doctrine_uk_uas_jdp_0_30_2.pdf.
32. UK House of Lords Select Committee on Artificial Intelligence, "AI in the UK: Ready, Willing and Able?", 16 April 2018, p.105, <https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/ld201719/ldselect/ldai/100/100.pdf>.
33. P. Scharre, "Debunking the AI Arms Race Theory", *Texas National Security Review*, Vol.4(3), 2021, <https://tnsr.org/2021/06/debunking-the-ai-arms-race-theory/>.

34. J. Walters, "Biden Says US-Russia Relations at Low Point but 'We're Not Looking for Conflict'", *The Guardian*, 13 June 2021, <https://www.theguardian.com/us-news/2021/jun/13/joe-biden-russia-vladimir-putin-g7>.
35. E. Adler, "Seeds of Peaceful Change: The OSCE's Security Community-building Model", in E. Adler and M. Barnett (eds), *Security Communities*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1998, p.119.
36. V. Rittberger et al., *International Organization*, 2nd edition, New York, Palgrave Macmillan, 2012, p.42.
37. M.W. Mosser, "Embracing 'Embedded Security': The OSCE's Understated but Significant Role in the European Security Architecture", *European Security*, Vol.24(4), 2015, p.584.
38. European Commission, "Europe Fit for the Digital Age: Commission Proposes New Rules and Actions for Excellence and Trust in Artificial Intelligence", 21 April 2021, https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/ip_21_1682.
39. NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), "Summary of the NATO Artificial Intelligence Strategy", 22 October 2021, https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/official_texts_187617.htm.
40. G. Pourchot, "The OSCE: A Pan-European Society in the Making?", *Journal of European Integration*, Vol.33(2), 2011, p.183.
41. E. Kropatcheva, "Russia and the Role of the OSCE in European Security: A 'Forum' for Dialog or a 'Battlefield' of Interests?", *European Security*, Vol.21(3), 2012, p.386.
42. P. Dunay, "The OSCE in Crisis", Institute for Security Studies, Chaillot Paper no. 88, 2006, p.25, <https://www.iss.europa.eu/content/osce-crisis>.
43. OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, "Luxembourg Declaration and Resolutions Adopted by the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly at the Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting", 2019, p.4, <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/annual-sessions/2019-luxembourg/3882-luxembourg-declaration-eng/file>.
44. E. Rosert and F. Sauer, "How (Not) to Stop the Killer Robots: A Comparative Analysis of Humanitarian Disarmament Campaign Strategies", *Contemporary Security Policy*, Vol.42(1), 2021, pp.4-29.
45. Russian Federation, 2021, p.2.
46. UK Ministry of Defence Counter Proliferation and Arms Control Centre, 2021.
47. N. Egel, "Reducing Military Risks through OSCE Instruments: The Untapped Potential in the European Arms Control Framework", Strategic Security Analysis Issue 16, January 2021, <https://dam.gcsp.ch/files/doc/reducing-military-risks-through-osce-instruments-the-untapped-potential-in-the-european-arms-control-framework>.
48. OSCE, "Cyber/ICT Security", n.d., <https://www.osce.org/secretariat/cyber-ict-security>.
49. iPRAW (International Panel on the Regulation of Autonomous Weapons), "Building Blocks for a Regulation on LAWS and Human Control: Updated Recommendations to the GGE on LAWS", July 2021, <https://www.ipraw.org/publications/building-blocks/>.
50. GGE (Group of Governmental Experts) on Emerging Technologies in the Area of Lethal Autonomous Weapons Systems, *Final Report*, 25 September 2019, Annex IV, <https://undocs.org/CCW/MSP/2019/9>.



GCSP

Geneva Centre for
Security Policy

Where knowledge meets experience

The GCSP Strategic Security Analysis series are short papers that address a current security issue. They provide background information about the theme, identify the main issues and challenges, and propose policy recommendations.

Geneva Centre for Security Policy - GCSP

Maison de la paix
Chemin Eugène-Rigot 2D
P.O. Box 1295
CH-1211 Geneva 1
Tel: + 41 22 730 96 00
Fax: + 41 22 730 96 49
e-mail: info@gcsp.ch
www.gcsp.ch

ISBN: 978-2-88947-308-3

The opinions and views expressed in this document do not necessarily reflect the position of the Swiss authorities or the Geneva Centre for Security Policy.