NMUN•DC

GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE
BACKGROUND GUIDE 2016

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NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

Dear Delegates,

Welcome to the 2016 National Model United Nations Conference in Washington, DC (NMUN•DC)! We are pleased to introduce you to our committee, the General Assembly First Committee (GA1). This year's staff is: Director Camille Ellison and Assistant Director Kenny Nguyen. Camille her B.A. in Political Science and Public Policy and is currently receiving her M.A. in Public Policy and Public Administration at Northwestern University. This will be her second year on staff. Kenny recently completed his B.A. in Political Science and Communication from the University of Colorado at Boulder this year and is currently serving as an AmeriCorps member at a local elementary school for 2016-2017. This will be his first year as a NMUN staff.

The topics under discussion for GA 1 are:

   I.   The Implication of Technology on Global Security
   II.   Sexual Violence in Conflict Zones

The General Assembly First Committee is an important organization within the UN system, serving as the organ of disarmament. The GA 1 allows Member States to participate in the international stage on a wide range of topics related to disarmament and challenges to international security within the world. In order to accurately simulate the committee, it will be critical for delegates to understand its role in debating thematic discussions and operational or programmatic work.

We hope you will find this Background Guide useful as an introduction to the topics for this committee. However, it is not intended to replace individual research. We highly encourage you to explore your Member State's policies in-depth, as well as use the Annotated Bibliography and Bibliography to further your knowledge on these topics. In preparation for the conference, each delegation will submit a position paper. Please take note of the NMUN policies on the website and in the Delegate Preparation Guide regarding plagiarism, codes of conduct, dress code, sexual harassment, and the awards philosophy and evaluation method. Adherence to these guidelines is mandatory.

The NMUN Rules of Procedure are available to download from the NMUN website. This document includes the long and short form of the rules, as well as an explanatory narrative and example script of the flow of procedure. It is thus an essential instrument in preparing for the conference, and a reference during committee.

If you have any questions concerning your preparation for the committee or the conference itself, feel free to contact the Under-Secretary-General for the committee, Angela Shively, or the Secretary-General for the conference, Lauren Shaw. You can reach either staff member by contacting them at: usgangela.dc@nmun.org or secgen.dc@nmun.org.

We wish you all the best in your preparations and look forward to seeing you at the conference!
Sincerely,

Camille Ellison, Director
Kenny Nguyen, Assistant Director

Committee Overview

"[You] have realized the objectives of many men of vision in your own countries who have devoted their lives to the cause of world organization for peace... This new structure of peace is rising upon strong foundations." [1]

Introduction

The United Nations (UN) was created in 1945 at the United Nations Conference on International Organization, also known as the San Francisco Conference. [2] The UN was intended to replace the obsolete League of Nations, an international organization established after the conclusion of World War I. [3] The UN was created with the goal of maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations between sovereign states, reaching international cooperation to solve global problems, and to be the focal point of peace and harmonization to reach common goals by all states. [4] The General Assembly (GA) is one of the six primary organs of the UN, which also includes the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the Security Council (SC), the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice, and the Secretariat. [5] Every Member State of the UN participates in the GA, giving it uniquely universal representation. [6] The GA has been divided into six Main Committees to cover a broad range of topics and responsibilities. [7] The First Committee's primary focus is issues of disarmament and questions of international security. [8] It occasionally shifts additional agenda items to the Fourth Committee which is primarily focused on special political issues and decolonization. [9]

Disarmament and security have been major topics of concern for the GA, particularly within the First Committee, since it adopted multiple resolutions on atomic energy as its first actions. [10] The desire of the UN to monitor the production of nuclear energy and disarmament led to the creation of United Nations Disarmament Commission (UNDC) in January 1952. [11] The culmination of the work by the First Committee and the UNDC led up to the *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons* (NPT) in 1968, a landmark treaty due to the wide range of support it has gained. [12] Outside of nuclear issues, the GA First Committee has also produced various resolutions spanning from "Relationship Between Disarmament and Development" to the amended *Arms Trade Treaty* (2014), which regulates the international trade of conventional weapons such as handguns, tanks, and aircrafts. [13]

Governance, Structure and Membership

As stated in the *Charter of the United Nations*, the GA is composed of all Member States of the UN, each having one vote. [14] However, there have been entities like the European Union (EU), the Holy See, and Palestine that have been granted observer status, including the ability to attend and participate within formal session but not the ability to vote on substantive matters, such as the adoption of resolutions. [15] The General Committee makes recommendations on issues to be covered by the GA. [16] The six Main Committees of the GA then take the

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[1] Schlesinger, *Act of Creation Book*, 2003, p. 294.
[2] Schaefer, *Conundrum*, 2009, p. 1.
[3] Ibid., p. 1.
[4] Ibid., p. 2.
[5] *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. III.
[6] Ibid., Ch. IV.
[7] Ibid., Ch. III.
[8] UN General Assembly, *Main Committees*, 2016.
[9] Ibid.
[10] UN General Assembly, *Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy (A/RES/1(I))*, 1946.
[11] UNODA, *United Nations Disarmament Commission*, 2016.
[12] UNODA, *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons*, 2016.
[13] UN General Assembly, *Relationship between disarmament and development (A/RES/52/38/D),* 1998; UN General Assembly, *The Arms Trade Treaty (A/RES/69/49)*, 2014.
[14] *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. IV.
[15] Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the United Nations, *The PGA Handbook: A Practical Guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 30.
[16] Ibid., p. 30.

recommendation of the General Committee for the purpose of setting their agendas.[17] In the case of the First Committee, the body will take all recommendations that pertain to its thematic discussions and then vote on its agenda at the beginning of its session.[18]

The GA remains in session the entire year, but the bulk of its work occurs during the fall.[19] For the 70th session, the GA Fifth Committee designated $25.4 million to the overall disarmament initiatives under the First Committee.[20] In each session it is typical for the First Committee to adopt over 50 resolutions and decisions.[21] From mid-September until the break in December the GA is in its most intense work period, completing the majority of its General Debate and the bulk of the substantive work.[22] With guidance from the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA), the GA First Committee is able to clearly organize its substantive work to pursue its goals of international disarmament and non-proliferation.[23] All votes in the GA require a simple majority, with the exception of a two-thirds majority for items called to "important question," a designation given to matters deemed very important by the body, such as the admission of new members to the GA.[24]

Mandate, Functions and Powers

The GA's mandate is established in Chapter IV of the *Charter of the United Nations* (1946).[25] Specifically, Article 11 enables the GA to address international issues concerning peace and security.[26] Article 11 also designates the GA to govern disarmament principles and international regulations of arms.[27] In an effort to strengthen the First Committee's designated task of disarmament, the work of the First Committee has been divided into thematic discussions, specified in GA resolution 48/87, including nuclear weapons, other WMDs, outer space, and regional disarmament and security.[28] It is important to note that the First Committee also has the power to discuss issues of disarmament and threats to international peace and security, and make recommendations to solve these issues.[29] However, the power to address these issues using any legally binding support resides with the SC.[30]

The GA's functions and powers are outlined within the *Charter of the United Nations* in Chapter IV, Articles 10-17.[31] Since 1945 the GA has served as the chief deliberative and policy-making organ of the UN.[32] The GA has the ability to receive and approve the UN budget, elect non-permanent members of the SC, and initiate studies and make recommendations in areas such as international political cooperation and international law.[33] The GA cannot supersede the SC when they are deliberating on a topic; however, when there is a threat to international security and peace and the SC has been limited by a veto by one or more of the permanent members, the GA can take action to promote peace.[34] In this situation, the GA can address and adopt resolutions despite the inaction of the SC.[35] In the

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[17] Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the United Nations, *The PGA Handbook: A Practical Guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 16.
[18] Ibid., p. 16.
[19] Ibid., p. 14.
[20] UN General Assembly, *Programme Budget for the biennium 2015-2016 (A/70/6/Add.1)*, 2015.
[21] Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the United Nations, *The PGA Handbook: A Practical Guide to the United Nations General Assembly*, 2011, p. 63.
[22] Ibid., p. 14.
[23] UNODA, *About Us*, 2016.
[24] UN General Assembly, *Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly (A/520/Rev.17)*, 2008; UN General Assembly, *About the General Assembly,* 2015.
[25] *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. IV.
[26] Ibid.
[27] Ibid.
[28] UN General Assembly, *Rationalization of the Work of the Disarmament and International Security Committee (First Committee) (A/RES/48/87)*, 1994.
[29] *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Ch. IV.
[30] Ibid., Ch. VII.
[31] Ibid., Ch. IV.
[32] UN General Assembly, *Functions and Power of the General Assembly*, 2016.
[33] Ibid.
[34] Ibid.
[35] Ibid.

event the GA is not in session, a vote of seven members of the SC or a majority vote by the GA can constitute an emergency session to discuss the important subject matter.[36]

Recent Sessions and Current Priorities

The 70th session of the GA opened with the landmark adoption of resolution 70/1 entitled *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. During the General Debate several world leaders highlighted the complex security concerns that face the international community, including the on-going threat of terrorism.[37] Accordingly, the First Committee adopted a resolution on the prevention of terrorists acquiring WMDs, including the means for their fabrication and the delivery of the materials.[38] The First Committee also discussed the impact of Small Arms and Light Weapons in the hands of terrorist groups, in particular the use by the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), Al-Qaida, Al-Shabaab, Boko Haram, Lord's Resistance Army, and Allied Democratic Forces.[39] It also deliberated the growing complexity of security concerns within the Middle East and a need to create a nuclear-free zone, as well as need to promote confidence-building measures within the region.[40] Furthermore, the First Committee adopted a draft resolution which included a universal declaration on the achievement of a nuclear-weapon-free world, and called on all states to comply with existing international laws on the matter.[41]

Additionally, the Committee discussed space security and debated the merits of binding versus non-binding agreements. In particular, the threat of destructive anti-satellite systems became a focus during the discussion, although consensus on how to proceed has not been reached.[42] First Committee considered on-going developments in the field of information and telecommunications development as it pertains to international security and expanded its discussion on the role of science and technology in regards to peace and security.[43] The committee also continued to work closely with the United Nations Disarmament Commission and the Conference on Disarmament, on a wide variety of disarmament topics.[44]

Conclusion

International peace and security is one of the principal missions of the UN, and through the First Committee the UN is able to actively and effectively address issues that negatively affect international security. The challenge of the First Committee is to address issues of peace and security in a world facing the proliferation of new weapons technologies, both nuclear and non-nuclear.[45] Recognizing the changing world, the GA has taken measures to ensure that it is working efficiently and effectively, as well as responding to external concerns through discussion of reform.[46] However, the GA is limited to the scope of its mandate and by the activities of the SC.[47] Ultimately, as a central policy-making body of the UN, the underlying responsibility of GA First is to continue progress in combating threats to international peace and security while continuing to build the consensus between Member States and among other UN entities.

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[36] UN General Assembly, *Uniting for Peace (A/RES/377)*, 1950.
[37] UNDPI, *Amid Climate Change, Terrorism Fears, Seventieth General Assembly Opening Follows Adoption of Key 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development,* 2015.
[38] UNDPI, *First Committee Approves Texts on Disarmament Aspects of Outer Space, Weapons of Mass Destruction, in Voting Pattern Reflecting Complex Security Concerns,* 2015.
[39] UNDPI, *Consequences of Small Arms Claim Attention in First Committee, as African Nations Underscore Dangers of Terrorist Use,* 2015.
[40] UNDPI, *Growing Complexity in Troubled Regions Shapes Debate in First Committee, as Calls Intensify to Rid Middle East of All Mass Destruction Weapons,* 2015.
[41] UNDPI, *First Committee Approves 20 Drafts, Including New One Containing Declaration Aimed at Relinquishing 'They versus Us' Approach to Nuclear Disarmament,* 2015.
[42] UNDPI, *Divergent Paths Emerge in First Committee on Ways to Achieve Outer Space Security, Safety, Sustainability, through Legally or Non-Legally Binding Pacts,* 2015.
[43] UN General Assembly, *Allocation of Agenda Items*, 2015.
[44] UN General Assembly, *Disarmament and International Security: First Committee*, 2016.
[45] UN General Assembly, *Disarmament and International Security: First Committee*, 2016; UN General Assembly, *Regulation, Limitation, and Balanced Reduction of all Armed Forces and all Armaments; International Control of Atomic Energy (A/RES/502)*, 1952.
[46] UN General Assembly, *Revitalization of the Work of the General Assembly*, 2016.
[47] Hansen, *Update on Revitalization of the General Assembly: A recap of developments during the 65th GA session*, 2011, p. 1.

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http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/index.shtml

> *The Charter of the United Nations is one of the most important and fundamental documents for the UN. As a delegate of the GA, it is imperative to understand the mandate and most basic purpose of the GA as outlined in the UN's founding document. The document also outlines the powers and functions of other UN bodies which report to the GA. The Charter will also give insight to the powers that the GA has at its disposal, and will provide a solid foundation from which delegates can draw upon to address the various topics before them.*

Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the United Nations. (2011). *The PGA Handbook: A Practical Guide to the United Nations General Assembly*. New York, New York, United States. Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the United Nations. Retrieved 9 June 2016 from:
http://www.unitar.org/ny/sites/unitar.org.ny/files/UN_PGA_Handbook.pdf

> *The President of the General Assembly (PGA) Handbook is an excellent source to supplement the basic knowledge of the GA provided by the background guide. This source provides information about agenda-setting, voting, and the individual function of each of the Main Committees. While lacking some contemporary information regarding current operations of the GA, this source does provide some historic information relevant to the current structure of the GA. Lastly, the source provides delegates with a different scope of the GA and internal procedures regarding elections and structure.*

United Nations, General Assembly. (2016). *First Committee* [Website]. Retrieved 9 June 2016 from:
http://www.un.org/en/ga/first/

> *The GA has separated itself into several committees in order to address the various issues that the UN has to consider in the world today. The First Committee has been charged with the task of addressing issues of disarmament and international security. This Website is key as it provides the mission, process, and work of the First Committee; as well as providing delegates with further databases that contain important work and resolutions that the First Committee has passed. In accordance with GA resolution 66/246, specifically Part VII, all formal sessions of the GA can be found online at UN Web TV to provide a level of transparency with the UN and for individuals not present.*

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http://www.centerforunreform.org/?q=node/465

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http://www.unitar.org/ny/sites/unitar.org.ny/files/UN_PGA_Handbook.pdf

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United Nations, Department of Public Information. (2015, November 5). *First Committee Approves 20 Drafts, Including New One Containing Declaration Aimed at Relinquishing 'They versus Us' Approach to Nuclear Disarmament* [Meetings Coverage]. Retrieved 20 April 2016 from:
http://www.un.org/press/en/2015/gadis3541.doc.htm

United Nations, Department of Public Information. (2015, December 29). *Amid Climate Change, Terrorism Fears, Seventieth General Assembly Opening Follows Adoption of Key 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development* [Meetings Coverage]. Retrieved 20 April 2016 from: http://www.un.org/press/en/2015/ga11749.doc.htm

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I. The Implication of Technology on Global Security

Introduction

The progression of technology in recent years has created significant impacts to the world in terms of global security.[48] Maintaining regulations and protocols in the international community has proven challenging with the advances of technology on security and weapons systems.[49] New technologies, such as the Internet, have allowed the global community to come together with international dialogue and cooperation; however, other technologies have been used to develop more advanced weapons systems.[50] Throughout the Cold War, concern grew about the increasing amounts of research and the testing of weapons.[51] More specifically, the development and testing of Intercontinental Ballistic Missiles (ICBMs) and related combat systems caused the international community a grievous amount of concern.[52] Technology also has positive implications and has become an integral part of the development and implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which exemplifies that technology can promote global security.[53] Innovation and technological progress is a keystone for many Member States' national security.[54] Several Member States have stated that new technologies are intended for peacekeeping or self-defense purposes.[55] These technologies are often information and communication technologies (ICTs), which includes any communication device or application such as radio, television, cellular phones, computer and network hardware and software, and satellite systems and the various services and applications associated with them, such as videoconferencing and distance learning.[56] The impact of weapons technology on global security is somewhat ambiguous and complicated on the international level as many technologies have not yet been specifically defined or addressed in United Nations (UN) resolutions, international treaties, and weapons protocols.[57]

International and Regional Framework

The international community began to address technology in global security with the *Geneva Conventions*, which were adopted in the aftermath of World War I and established numerous laws, norms, and protocols for states related to the emergence of new technologies and weapons.[58] Since then, multiple treaties and conventions have been established to mitigate the potential dangers of newly developed weapons systems.[59] One example is the *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons*, which came into force in 1970 in order to stop the development and use of nuclear weapons and to promote constructive, peaceful uses of nuclear technologies.[60] Under Article I and II of the Treaty, States Parties have agreed to not develop or share nuclear technology in order to maintain global security.[61] Additionally, the *Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to Be Excessively Injurious or to Have Indiscriminate Effects* (CCW) came into force in 1983 to address technological transformations, new developments in weapon technologies, and advanced strategic security realignments of waging war.[62]

New technologies challenge the precedents established by existing resolutions and treaties.[63] In 1988 the General Assembly (GA) a resolution on *Scientific and technological developments and their impact on international*

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[48] Arms Control Association, *The UN Takes a Big Step Forward on Cybersecurity,* 2013.
[49] UNIDIR, *Framing Discussions on the Weaponization of Increasingly Autonomous Technologies*, 2014.
[50] UN DPI, *Sustainable Development Knowledge Platform: Technology*, 2016.
[51] UN General Assembly, *Group of Governmental Experts on Developments in the Field of Information and Telecommunications in the Context of International Security (A/70/174),* 2015.
[52] Ibid.
[53] UN DPI, *Sustainable Development Knowledge Platform: Technology*, 2016.
[54] Humans Right Watch, *Case Against Killer Robots*, 2012.
[55] Mallik, *Technology and Security in the 21st Century*, 2004.
[56] UNODA, *Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security,* 2016.
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[58] Mallik, *Technology and Security in the 21st Century*, 2004.
[59] UNODA, *Disarmament Treaties Database*.
[60] Arms Control Association, *The Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (NPT) at a Glance*, 2012.
[61] Ibid.
[62] UN Office at Geneva, *The Convention on Certain Conventional Weapons,* 2016.
[63] Arms Control Association, *The UN Takes a Big Step Forward on Cybersecurity,* 2013.

security.[64] The resolution requested the Secretary-General (SG) to monitor future scientific and technological developments and, more specifically, developments with potential military applications.[65] The technologies included in the 1989 GA report 45/568, also titled *Scientific and technological developments and their impact on international security,* were nuclear technology, biotechnology, materials technology, space technology, and information technology.[66] These technologies were considered to be the most advanced technologies of the time and most likely to pose challenges to the maintenance of global security.[67]

A gap in security protocols has emerged due to advancements in weapons over the last two decades, including the emergence of technologies such as unmanned aerial vehicles and cybercrime.[68] In 2013 the Groups of Governmental Experts (GGEs) gave Ban Ki-moon several reports as part of a reporting mechanism from the GA.[69] These reports addressed new norms and principles for the responsible behavior of Member States in cyber-spheres.[70] The reports recommended confidence building measures, international cooperation, and capacity building between all states.[71] The SG noted that few technologies are as powerful as ICTs in reshaping economies and international relations within Member States because cyberspace connects every aspect of people's lives.[72] The SG also highlighted that making cyberspace and ICTs more stable must be achieved through cooperation and maintaining international laws.[73] Further, the report established that in their use of ICTs, states must observe principles of international law, including sovereignty, the settlement of disputes by peaceful means, and non-intervention in the internal affairs of other Member States.[74] The GA has not adopted a substantive decision on this issue since 2006, but in 2015 voted to keep the item on the agenda for its 71st session in 2016.[75]

In addition to the GA, the UN Security Council (SC) has adopted several resolutions aiming to limit technology sharing with regard to nuclear weapons.[76] An example of this is SC resolution 2087 of 2013, which addressed the use of ICBMs by the Democratic People's Republic of Korea.[77] The SC also adopted resolution 2231 concerning the Islamic Republic of Iran, which lifted sanctions and established specific restrictions on Iran's domestic nuclear energy program, in exchange for Iran's guarantee not to pursue any development of nuclear weapons technology or high levels of uranium enrichment.[78]

Role of the International System

In 1998 the UN concentrated its disarmament efforts into the UN Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA), with the mandate of promoting nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation, strengthening disarmament regimes for other weapons of mass destruction, and working on disarmament efforts for conventional weapons, particularly small arms and light weapons and landmines.[79] Other international organizations that promote disarmament and address the impact of emerging technologies include the International Atomic Energy Agency and the Organisation for the

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[64] UN General Assembly, *Scientific and Technological Developments and Their Impact on International Security (A/RES/43/77)*, 1988.
[65] UNODA, *Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security*, 2016.
[66] UN General Assembly, *Scientific and Technological Development and Their Impact on International Security: Report of the Secretary-General (A/45/568),* 1990.
[67] Ibid.
[68] Arms Control Association, *The UN Takes a Big Step Forward on Cybersecurity,* 2013.
[69] UNODA, *Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security,* 2016; Nuclear Threat Initiative, *United Nations General Assembly*, 2016.
[70] UNODA, *Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security,* 2016.
[71] Ibid.
[72] Ibid.
[73] Ibid.
[74] Ibid.
[75] UNODA, *The Role of Science and Technology in the context of International Security and Disarmament*, 2016.
[76] UN General Assembly, *Scientific and Technological Development and Their Impact on International Security: Report of the Secretary-General (A/45/568),* 1990.
[77] UN Security Council, *Non-proliferation/Democratic People's Republic of Korea (S/RES/2087) (2013))*, 2013.
[78] UN Security Council, *Non-proliferation (S/RES/2231) (2015))*, 2015.
[79] UNODA, *About Us*, 2016.

Prohibition of Chemical Weapons.[80] Agencies like these collectively coordinate many of the major international efforts on understanding and mitigating the impact of technology on global security.[81]

In December of 2011, the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) held a joint event with the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) and the International Telecommunication Union on *Cybersecurity and Development*.[82] The primary consideration was that Member States must recognize international policy by providing ECOSOC members with an understanding of the current situation and challenges concerning cybersecurity and its links to development; identifying best practices and policies to create a culture of cyber-security; and establishing a global response for cybercrime.[83] Presently, there are limitations with definitions of cybersecurity because of a lack of specific language in international treaties and frameworks.[84] The GGE suggests that the UN play a leading role in promoting dialogue on the security of ICTs used by Member States, and also in developing common understandings on the application of international law and norms, rules and principles for Member State's behavior.[85] Similarly, efforts continue to create a bilateral or multilateral consultative framework for confidence-building measures related to new technologies.[86] For example, confidence building measures are being established within the Arab League, the African Union, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations Regional Forum, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), and the Organization of American States.[87]

Lethal Autonomous Weapons Systems (LAWS)

Some organizations have expressed caution regarding the advancement of technology.[88] Humans Right Watch published a report on lethal autonomous weapons systems (LAWS) entitled *Losing Humanity* in 2012.[89] Advanced technologies such as LAWS are fully autonomous weapons that can select and fire upon targets without a human at the controls.[90] Because LAWS are an emerging technology there are few international regulations addressing these systems.[91] In the report, Human Rights Watch stated its deep concern that highly advanced technologies could create dangerous situations, such as allowing LAWS to make decisions on their own without human input.[92] Presently, there are at least six Member States that are known to be developing and testing fully autonomous weapons.[93] Although no treaties or conventions address LAWS, there was an informal discussion at the fifth Review Conference of the States Parties to the CCW with experts from Member States and regional bodies.[94] This informal meeting included recommendations on the importance of human involvement when using such weapons systems and compliance under international law.[95]

Technological Gap

There is a significant divide between industrialized and developing countries in the access and utilization of ICTs and other technologies.[96] According to Noeleen Heyzer, Executive Secretary of the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, there is a digital divide that spans income, gender, education, and

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[80] IAEA, *About Us*, 2014; Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons, *About OPCW*.
[81] UNODA, *About Us*, 2016; IAEA, *About Us*, 2014; Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons, *About OPCW*.
[82] UN DESA, *Cybersecurity: A Global issue demanding a Global approach*, 2011.
[83] Ibid.
[84] Geers, *Cyber War in Perspective*, 2015.
[85] UN General Assembly, *Scientific and Technological Development and Their Impact on International Security: Report of the Secretary-General (A/45/568),* 1990.
[86] Arms Control Association, *The UN Takes a Big Step Forward on Cybersecurity,* 2013.
[87] Ibid.
[88] Humans Right Watch, *Case Against Killer Robots*, 2012.
[89] Ibid.
[90] UN Office at Geneva, *Background - Lethal Autonomous Weapons Systems,* 2016.
[91] Humans Right Watch, *Case Against Killer Robots*, 2012.
[92] UN Office at Geneva, *Background - Lethal Autonomous Weapons Systems*, 2016.
[93] Humans Right Watch, *Case Against Killer Robots*, 2012.
[94] Review Conference of the States Parties to the CCW, *Recommendations to the 2016 Review Conference Submitted by the Chairperson of the Informal Meeting of Experts.*
[95] Ibid.
[96] UN DPI, *Realizing Goals of 2030 Agenda, Assurance of Global Security Require Sharing of Space Technologies*, 2015.

knowledge.[97] One reason for this is the creation by industrialized states of dual-use technologies that have both civilian and military applications, such as Global Positioning Systems (GPS).[98] Another rising issue has been ownership, control, and innovation.[99] Intellectual property rights have resulted in vast monopolies of various technologies from computers to software, causing less developed states to be dependent upon more developed states.[100] Developing states have requested states that develop these technologies to allow technology sharing and mutual partnerships to promote the long-term access and sustainability of technologies.[101] As technology advances and continues to expand throughout the world, states have called upon the UN to address the growing divide between Member States.[102] Many weapon systems and new military strategies, such as cyber warfare or Internet-based conflict, utilizes information systems that can disrupt Websites, networks, services, and data.[103] States without access to the newest technologies will find it difficult to protect themselves from such attacks, which may come from non-state actors.[104]

Non-State Actors

The Internet has created international communication opportunities, including increased options for non-state actors to engage with states.[105] This rise of non-state actors within the cyberspace has created a security dilemma for the international community.[106] Non-state actors, including al-Qaeda and the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), have begun to utilize the Internet to distribute propaganda and recruit members.[107] This, combined with the legal ambiguity of cyberspace and the difficulty to enforce and regulate content standards, has created an environment in which non-state actors can participate in crime, espionage, military aggression, and other forms of cyber warfare.[108] Islamic militant groups such as al-Qaeda and ISIL have been very successful in attracting young adults into their organizations in the past few years using Internet-based recruitment and coordination techniques.[109] Technology as warfare and a lack of international regulations in defense technologies for cybercrime results in vulnerability that requires the creation and implementation of counter-measures.[110] Terrorist groups and non-state actors have been largely successful in their efforts due to a lack of coordinated efforts from states and the frequent inability to prosecute in cases of attacks involving the use of the Internet.[111] The Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the UN Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force is attempting to address terrorists utilizing the Internet, citing GA resolution 66/178 which reaffirms the mandate of UNODC to continue to develop specialized legal knowledge in the area of counter-terrorism and pertinent thematic areas, including the use of the Internet.[112]

Case Study: Ukraine

In 2014 the Russian military, with support from Ukrainian separatists, annexed Crimea from Ukraine.[113] For two years the Russian separatists in Donbas, a region in eastern Ukraine, have fought a civil war to attempt to secede from Ukraine.[114] During the annexation of Crimea, Ukrainian officials claimed that Russian separatists and Russian espionage agencies used electronic warfare to disable Ukrainian radios, phones, and other electronic devices in order

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[97] UN DPI, *UN launches first interactive information superhighway to help bridge digital divide*, 2013.
[98] Pyor, *Japan's New Approach to Defense Technology,* 2015.
[99] UN DPI, *Realizing Goals of 2030 Agenda, Assurance of Global Security Require Sharing of Space Technologies*, 2015.
[100] Dano, *Addressing the "Technology Divides": Critical Issues in Technology and SDGs,* 2015.
[101] UN DPI, *Realizing Goals of 2030 Agenda, Assurance of Global Security Require Sharing of Space Technologies*, 2015.
[102] Humans Right Watch, *Case Against Killer Robots*, 2012.
[103] Arms Control Association, *The UN Takes a Big Step Forward on Cybersecurity,* 2013.
[104] Ibid.
[105] Sigholm, *Non-State Actors in Cyberspace Operations*, 2015.
[106] Ibid.
[107] Engel, *Here's the manual that Al Qaeda and now ISIS use to brainwash people online*, 2015.
[108] Sigholm, *Non-State Actors in Cyberspace Operations*, 2015.
[109] Engel, *Here's the manual that Al Qaeda and now ISIS use to brainwash people online*, 2015.
[110] UNODC, *The use of the Internet for terrorist purposes*, 2012.
[111] Ibid.
[112] Ibid.
[113] Defense One, *Ukrainian Blackout and Future War*, 2016.
[114] Ibid.

to disrupt communication between Ukrainian security forces.[115] Alongside this, the OSCE reported observing drone use and "military-grade GPS jamming" which disrupted OSCE operations within cease-fire zones.[116] Throughout the conflict, both Ukraine and Russia have stated that they are exercising their right to self-defense as protected by Article 51 of the *Charter of the United Nations*.[117] While the UN has requested the Russian Federation to respect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of Ukraine, there are still reported cases of cyber-attacks against Ukrainian media and journalists, alongside electronic warfare throughout the Donbas such as media blackouts and propaganda attacks.[118] These events suggest that future intra- or interstate conflicts will likely include growing use of emerging technologies.

Conclusion

Technology, advanced weapon systems, and cybersecurity are becoming a pivotal part of global security as developed states continue to research and build new weapons.[119] Although such technologies are not explicitly regulated by existing legal frameworks, some Member States have stated that under Article 51 of the *Charter of the United Nations* cyberattacks may be classified as an "armed attack" between Member States, and that cyberwarfare may constitute an act of aggression or war.[120] Innovation of technology has created opportunities for both civilians and militaries, but as technologies advance, there are unaddressed gaps between newer technologies and older UN resolutions and guidelines.[121] Numerous Member States and many non-governmental organizations have reiterated that action must be taken to incorporate technologies into the international framework for improved global security.[122]

Further Research

It is important to consider how technology is impacting global security. When researching the topic further, delegates should consider the representation of their Member States on technological advancements and the use of technologies in attacks and defense measures. Should action be taken under the umbrella of disarmament to remove threats of cyber warfare, cyber attacks, and the use of technology-based weapons not defined and addressed in recent guidelines? Can programmatic action be taken to prevent continued vulnerability and uncertainty in the international community? How can the GA First Committee assist in strengthening global security and mitigating risk due to advancements in weapons technologies?

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[115] Geers, *Cyber War in Perspective*, 2015.
[116] Ibid.
[117] Ibid.
[118] Ibid.
[119] Humans Right Watch, *Case Against Killer Robots*, 2012.
[120] Geers, *Cyber War in Perspective*, 2015.
[121] UN DPI, *Effects of Armaments with Depleted Uranium, Implications of Information Technology Developments on Global Security among 28 Drafts Approved by First Committee,* 2014.
[122] Ibid.

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> *This Website provides a general background on the GA including various treaties and information on the UN. Nuclear Threat Initiative (NTI) provides definitions and specific treaties of various security issues such as nuclear and cyber securities. Delegates are able to look into their own Member States within NTI and research their own positions within various treaties and resolutions. Delegates should focus particularly on the UN Disarmament Commission and UN Group of Government Experts on Verification in All Its Aspects.*

United Nations, Department of Public Information. (2014, October 31). *Effects of Armaments with Depleted Uranium, Implications of Information Technology Developments on Global Security among 28 Drafts Approved by First Committee* [Meetings Coverage]. Retrieved 10 June 2016 from:
http://www.un.org/press/en/2014/gadis3515.doc.htm
> *The GA First Committee considers topics of disarmament and international security. This report delivers important information on the emergence of technologies in the global security area with depleted uranium and other technologies in the 21st century. Alongside this, the report gives resources with numerous treaties, laws, and positions of Member States to understand the depth of this issue. The report also provides several recommendations and options for Member States in addressing these new technologies and their effects within the UN mandate. Delegates will find this resource useful in understanding Member State's engagement with the topic.*

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> *The UN Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) provides an enormous amount of information on autonomous technologies in the 21st century. Through this source, delegates will find a wide range of information regarding advanced technologies alongside relevant information in current efforts of disarmament. Additionally, UNIDIR provides information on relevant treaties related to arms control and organizations that are involved in the issue, such as Humans Right Watch*

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> *This report provides a large pool of resources regarding the use of the Internet by non-state actors and terrorism. The report features several important discussions and themes in regards to terrorist recruitment and how Member States have acted to address the rise of the use of the internet for terrorist goals. Further information on various technologies and resources may be found here as well which will offer insight to other methods and improper use of the internet.*

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> *Detlev Wolter was Director for the Conventional Arms Control Association and served as an expert to the UN as a governmental expert on information and telecommunications in the context of international security. This Website provides additional resources related to emerging technologies and cybersecurity, such as UN resolutions and important information regarding the GA and cybersecurity. Wolter additionally provides invaluable insight regarding transparency and definitions established by the Charter of the United Nations.*

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II. Combating Sexual Violence in Conflict Zones

Introduction

Recent years have seen unprecedented developments in warfare, including the absence of clear battlefields, the targeting of traditional safe havens such as hospitals, and the increased targeting of civilians by terrorist groups.[123] Additionally, it has become increasingly complex to predict development of these new threats.[124] A recent report from the United Nations (UN) Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights (OHCHR), detailed the extreme nature of many conflict zones and the obstacles humanitarian efforts are faced with.[125] In this report, OHCHR singled out atrocities in Libya as a way to highlight the increased use of these destructive and complex tactics.[126] In these conflict zones the UN sees an increased number of unlawful killings by many armed militias and governments: indiscriminate attacks for the purpose of increasing of fear among the civilian population.[127] OHCHR noted increased amounts of torture, arbitrary detentions, and disappearances of civilian and human rights personnel in these conflict zones.[128] Along with an ongoing struggle to provide consistent humanitarian assistance in these areas, there has been a disturbing rise in sexual violence in areas of conflict since the 1990s, including rape, human trafficking, forced marriage, sexual slavery, and other forms of sexual violence.[129] On the International Day for the Elimination of Sexual Violence in Conflict on 19 June 2015, the forum recognized sexual violence as way to "terrorize and control the civilian populations in conflict zones."[130] Sexual violence as a tool of war has become increasingly visible and of the most viable means of destabilizing a region.[131] Sexual and Gender-based Violence (SGBV) against women and girls accounts for the majority of sexually-based violence; however, reporting on sexual violence against men and boys has become more frequent.[132] There is a strong international framework and much global attention to sexual violence as a tool of war, but reporting and prosecuting sexual violence still proves to be difficult due the fear of retaliation or family pressure due to social or religious norms.[133] One of the main functions of the General Assembly (GA) First Committee is seeking out solutions to global security issues, which includes sexual violence due to the instability it causes in already unstable situations.[134] The increasing visibility of the issue of sexual violence during times of conflict has led to increased attempts in establishing concrete and lasting frameworks and policies to help prevent instability in conflict zones.[135] The goal of the GA First Committee is to stabilize these areas during and after conflict to prevent these regions from falling back into instability.[136]

International and Regional Framework

The GA First Committee, in strengthening its role in preventing and ending sexual violence, looks first to the frameworks the UN has already established.[137] These include the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948) which declares the "right to life" and the end of slavery, and also to the *Geneva Conventions* (1949) which prohibit sexual violence in a non-discriminatory manner.[138] Both the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* and the *Geneva Conventions* created a legal framework for recognizing human rights, but neither document holistically addresses

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[123] UN OHCHR, *Investigation by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights on Libya: detailed findings (A/HRC/31/CRP.3),* 2016.
[124] Ibid.
[125] Ibid.
[126] Ibid.
[127] Ibid.
[128] Ibid.
[129] UN General Assembly, *Statement at the Presentation of the draft Resolution on "International Day for the Elimination of Sexual Violence in Conflict,* 2015.
[130] Ibid.
[131] Ibid.
[132] Ibid.
[133] Ibid.
[134] UN General Assembly, *Disarmament and Security*, 2016.
[135] Ibid.
[136] Ibid.
[137] UN DPI, *Geneva Conventions*, 1949.
[138] UN DPI, *Geneva Conventions*, 1949; UN General Assembly, *Universal Declaration of Human Rights (A/RES/217 A (III))*, 1948.

SGBV.[139] It wasn't until the 1970s that the UN and Member States began to establish legal frameworks specific to gender-based issues.[140] One of the first documents that addressed gender-specific issues was the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women* (1979).[141] While this convention established the equal rights of women, it wasn't until the *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women* was adopted by the GA as resolution 48/104 in 1993 that the UN began to discuss SGBV.[142] *The Declaration* established definitions for what constitutes sexual violence and aimed to expand beyond acknowledging the issue to taking concrete action.[143] This particular framework is unique because it recognizes that sexual violence is more than just a physical act and requires mental and physical support for all survivors.[144] This declaration emphasizes the importance of legal deterrents, including prosecution by state and local government and sanctions against countries that are not proactive in prosecuting war crimes.[145] It also outlines the role of governments in preventing sexual violence and holding offenders accountable.[146] Recognizing the importance of the *Declaration of the Elimination of Violence Against Women*, the Fourth World Conference on Women was held in Beijing, China in 1995 and adopted the *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*. The *Beijing Declaration* aims to eliminate all obstacles that prevent women from participating in all elements of government and economic and social structures.[147] The declaration also discusses women and poverty and addresses the need for institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women.[148] The *Beijing Declaration* discusses in detail the status of violence against women and women and armed conflict, including the issue of sexual violence being used as a means of war and terrorism.[149] The Platform for Action established in the *Beijing Declaration* includes studying the consequences of violence against women and eliminating forced prostitution and trafficking.[150] In conjunction with the *Beijing Declaration* and its significant emphasis of the role women must have in preventing conflict and promoting peace building, the GA adopted resolution 68/303 on *Strengthening the role of mediation in the peaceful settlement of disputes, conflict prevention and resolution* in 2014.[151] This resolution encourages the Secretary-General (SG) to give women a lead role as mediators to act as leaders in UN-sponsored peace processes.[152]

Additionally, the Security Council's (SC) role in creating a strong legal framework is imperative to the work of the GA.[153] The SC has recently devoted a substantial amount of time to addressing the issue of sexual violence.[154] SC resolution 1820 (2008) specifically addresses how sexual violence is becoming more pronounced as a tactic of war used to instill an atmosphere of fear in a community.[155] While work has been done to strengthen prevention and support, there is less attention given to men and boys who survive sexual assault.[156] SC resolution 2106 (2013) acknowledged sexual assault is committed against women and girls in larger numbers, but also stated that men and boys who have survived sexual assault need to be given the same access to the resources and support available to women.[157] In resolution 1960 (2010) the SC sought to end continued impunity for perpetrators of sexual violence and to have greater prosecution of genocide, crimes against humanity, and sexual violence.[158] SC resolution 1888 (2009) outlined how impunity can be curtailed through whatever legal means are at the disposal of governments,

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[139] UN DPI, *Geneva Conventions*, 1949; UN General Assembly, *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, 1948.
[140] UN General Assembly, *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, 1979.
[141] Ibid.
[142] UN General Assembly, *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (A/RES/48/104)*, 1993.
[143] Ibid.
[144] Ibid.
[145] Ibid.
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[147] UN Fourth World Conference on Women, *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 1995.
[148] Ibid.
[149] Ibid.
[150] Ibid.
[151] UN General Assembly, *Strengthening the role of mediation in the peaceful settlement of disputes, conflict prevention and resolution (A/RES/68/303)*, 2014.
[152] Ibid.
[153] UN Security Council, *Women and peace and security (S/RES/1820 (2008))*, 2008.
[154] Ibid.
[155] Ibid.
[156] UN Security Council, *Women Peace and security (S/RES/2106 (2013))*, 2013.
[157] Ibid.
[158] UN Security Council, *Women and peace and security (S/RES/1960 (2010))*, 2010.

including criminal courts, tribunals, and truth and reconciliation commissions.[159] This is a way to recognize the rights of survivors and of victims and to help aid in prosecution of these crimes when a government may have a weak legal framework due to ongoing conflict.[160] The SC has recognized the importance of women in addressing the issue of sexual violence.[161] In resolution 1889 (2009) the SC acknowledged that too often women in armed conflict are seen only as victims while not recognizing their important role in peace building.[162] It discussed the need for women to participate in all stages of the peace building process and reaffirmed "the key role women can play in re-establishing the fabric of a recovering society."[163]

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) has also devoted time to addressing the issues of sexual violence.[164] In resolution 2010/15, *Strengthening crime and criminal justice response to violence against women*, ECOSOC stressed the importance of providing support for survivors and victims of sexual violence, while ECOSOC resolution 2005/20, *Guidelines on Justice in Matters involving Child Victims and Witnesses of Crime*, gave special attention to the vulnerable position of children who are witnesses to sexual violence.[165] It further recommended special protections and assistance given to children in order to prevent further trauma that may arise during any reporting of these crimes or legal prosecution of perpetrators.[166] The frequently inadequate response of governments and organizations to these crimes led the United Kingdom to create the *International Protocol on the Documentation and Investigation of Sexual Violence in Conflict Zones* (2014).[167] The UN sought collaboration with the United Kingdom's Department of Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs due to its extensive research in conflict areas in order to create detailed solutions to close the gaps in documenting and pursuing sexual assault cases.[168] This international protocol details methods to properly train teams to gather information, take necessary precautions when working with child survivors, and make sure all documentation and witness testimony is gathered within the legal mechanisms.[169] Implementation of the protocol has been difficult with reports of sexual assault still being low, minimal cooperation from governments, and lack of access to medical and legal personnel.[170]

Role of the International System

There has been a more concentrated effort in recent years to address sexual violence.[171] The UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict (UN Action) is the combined membership of 13 UN entities, including the Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS, the UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women), and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF).[172] UN Action is built on country-level programs where regional UN teams are deployed to help the work of UN bodies already on the ground, such as UN-Women, UNICEF, and peacekeeping operations.[173] They are tasked with creating and maintaining a functional operation system so any work done by UN Action can work in harmony with other UN bodies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and civil society working in these areas.[174] UN Action advocates for raising public awareness of sexual violence and building a

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[159] UN Security Council, *Women and peace and security (S/RES/1888 (2009))*, 2009.
[160] Ibid.
[161] Ibid.
[162] Ibid.
[163] Ibid.
[164] UN ECOSOC, *Strengthening crime prevention and criminal justice responses to violence against women (E/RES/2010/15)*, 2010.
[165] UN ECOSOC, *Strengthening crime prevention and criminal justice responses to violence against women (E/RES/2010/15)*, 2010; UN ECOSOC, *Guidelines on Justice in Matters involving Child Victims and Witnesses of Crime (E/RES/2005/20)*, 2005
[166] UN ECOSOC, *Guidelines on Justice in Matters involving Child Victims and Witnesses of Crime (E/RES/2005/20)*, 2005;
[167] United Kingdom State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, *International Protocol on the Documentation and Investigation of Sexual Violence*, 2014.
[168] Ibid.
[169] Ibid.
[170] Ibid.
[171] World Congress Against Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescence, *The Rio de Janeiro Declaration and Call for Action to Prevent and Stop Sexual Exploitation of Children and Adolescents*, 2008.
[172] Stop Rape Now, *About UN Action*, 2016.
[173] Ibid.
[174] Ibid.

framework for effective response to sexual assault.[175] Many cases of sexual assault are reported by persons fleeing conflict or forced out of their homes by conflict.[176] In response to this issue, the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) created two documents as a means to create standards for helping internally displaced persons (IDPs).[177] The first is *Sexual Violence Against Refugees: Guidelines on Prevention and Response*, released in 1995.[178] Following these guidelines UNHCR established a protocol called *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons*.[179] These guidelines and protocol has been a benchmark in helping various UN agencies manage sexual assault cases during and after conflict.[180] This protocol also includes guidelines for helping IDPs who are experiencing a change in environment.[181] IDPs are frequently unable to seek proper and consistent medical treatment, due to both their movement to new locations and their frequent settlement in areas with little to no infrastructure.[182] The World Health Organization (WHO) released a document on *Strengthening the Medico-Legal Response to Sexual Violence* which outlines the importance of conducting full investigations into sexual assault cases.[183] This protocol also gives an outline of how to conduct investigations in areas of conflict where there are few resources available.[184] WHO specifies the necessity of proper medical examinations and a commitment to forensic science in collecting, cataloging, and using this evidence in any potential prosecution.[185] WHO gives recommendations on standardizing the practice of collecting and testing evidence but also recognizes the issue of technological access, such as the ability to properly store or test DNA collected in a rape kit, for many governments, NGOs, and civil society while operating in conflict zones.[186]

While this international framework has created a way for regional entities to respond to these issues more effectively, most work is done on the national level.[187] The annual UN Action *Progress Report* (2010-2011) highlighted several countries' attempts to increase visibility and prevention of sexual violence.[188] In 2011, the Democratic Republic of the Congo received funding from Denmark to focus on the elimination of SGBV in the northern provinces.[189] While funding can increase the effectiveness of some support programs, capacity growth is still significantly needed for the UN, civil society, and state and local governments.[190] Ongoing instances of SGBV are widespread.[191] In Liberia, rape is one of the most reported crimes.[192] During the Bosnian war from 1992 to 1995, the UN estimates there were between 20,000 and 50,000 victims of SGBV in Bosnia and Herzegovina.[193] In these cases, adequate support during and after these conflicts for survivors was very low, in part due to lack of training on how to manage sexual assault cases.[194] Inadequate cooperation between governments, the UN, and other organizations led to poor handling of cases overall.[195]

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[175] Stop Rape Now, *About UN Action*, 2016.
[176] UNHCR, *Sexual Violence Against Refugees: Guidelines on Prevention and Response*, 1995.
[177] UNHCR, *Sexual Violence Against Refugees: Guidelines on Prevention and Response*, 1995; UNHCR, *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons,* 2003.
[178] UNHCR, *Sexual Violence Against Refugees: Guidelines on Prevention and Response*, 1995.
[179] UNHCR, *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons,* 2003.
[180] UNHCR, *Sexual Violence Against Refugees: Guidelines on Prevention and Response*, 1995; UNHCR, *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons,* 2003.
[181] UNHCR, *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons,* 2003.
[182] Ibid.
[183] WHO, *Strengthening the Medico-Legal Response to Sexual Violence*, 2015.
[184] Ibid.
[185] Ibid.
[186] Ibid.
[187] Ibid.
[188] Stop Rape Now, *UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict 2010-2011*, 2012.
[189] Ibid.
[190] Ibid.
[191] Ibid.
[192] Ibid.
[193] Ibid.
[194] Ibid.
[195] Ibid.

Medical Response in Conflict Areas

While the increase in attention to sexual violence is leading to action, there is a need to strengthen access to medical care for victims of sexual assault, which is often difficult to provide in an unstable region.[196] A report by the Physicians for Human Rights (PHR), *Enhancing a Regional Response to Crimes of Sexual Violence,* discusses the challenges of collaborating and coordinating medical responses among organizations such as the UN, NGOs, and civil society.[197] The PHR established the Program on Sexual Violence in Conflict Zones, a training and advocacy initiative dedicated to creating stronger coalitions between medical care workers, law enforcement, and legal personnel at local, national, and regional levels.[198] Beyond the ability to effectively coordinate medical responses, there is the need to properly recognize and fund the various methods of addressing SGBV.[199] Pregnancy as a result of sexual assault presents the problem of how to provide long-term care for a survivor, often in unstable areas.[200] A lack of reliable reproductive health care can lead to increased mortality rates, dangerous abortions and transmission of sexually transmitted infections.[201] Areas of conflict often experience an increase in HIV/AIDS infection rates due to the prevalence of SGBV.[202] During the Rwandan genocide, an estimated 70% of female SGBV survivors were infected with HIV/AIDS.[203] Additionally, the migrant populations in conflict zones often increase the number of people who are victims of human trafficking.[204] The United Nations Population Fund estimates 700,000 to two million women are trafficked every year.[205] However, there is a lack of reliable statistics on these issues, which could lead to an underestimation of the actual resources needed to meet the medical needs of the population.[206]

Strengthening Legal Protocols

While there have been a number of recommendations regarding this issue, the legal framework for implementing these recommendations was not developed until 1998.[207] *The Rome Statue of the International Criminal Court* (ICC), which came into force in 2002, specifically identifies "rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity" as crimes against humanity.[208] *The Rome Statute* not only declares these acts "crimes against humanity," but specifically qualifies that when these acts are perpetrated in the midst of conflict they constitute "war crimes."[209] The statute acknowledged the establishment of some legal standards, including prosecution and convictions of these crimes, but did not establish standards for consequences for those convicted.[210] In many instances, survivors of sexual violence who are able to report and name the perpetrator of these crimes never see any charges brought against their attacker.[211] While the *Rome Statue* creates solid precedence for prosecution of crimes of sexual violence sanctioned by governments or militant groups, the ICC does not supersede the sovereignty of government courts and their requirement to prosecute individuals.[212] One method for holding offenders accountable is to create, in cooperation with governments, a concrete method for prosecuting offenders.[213] This includes creating stronger laws against sexual violence.[214]

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[196] Physicians for Human Rights. (2015). *Enhancing a Regional Response to Crimes of Sexual Violence: Regional Roundtable Discussion Summary*
[197] Ibid.
[198] Ibid.
[199] Ibid.
[200] Ibid.
[201] Ibid.
[202] Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces, *Women in an Insecure World: Violence Against Women Facts, and Figures,* 2005.
[203] Ibid.
[204] Ibid.
[205] Ibid.
[206] Ibid.
[207] UN Diplomatic Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court, *Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court*, 1998.
[208] Ibid.
[209] Ibid.
[210] Ibid.
[211] UN Fourth World Conference on Women, *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 1995.
[212] WHO, *Strengthening the Medico-Legal Response to Sexual Violence,* 2015.
[213] Ibid.
[214] UN Fourth World Conference on Women, *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, 1995.

A frequent recommendation is annual reporting of sexual violence in conflict zones and in areas experiencing ongoing instability before and after conflict.[215] In 2015 the UN SG gave a report to the SC entitled *Conflict-related sexual violence* which gives detailed accounts of the work the UN has taken in eliminating sexual violence.[216] While efforts to eliminate SGBV are increasing there are still many shortfalls in government responses to sexual assault.[217] In Afghanistan, organizations such as the Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission and the UN Assistance Mission for Afghanistan have been able to increase the amount of data collected on sexual assault; however, there have been few responses to these findings and the government has been slow to recognize sexual assault as a serious crime.[218] In the Central African Republic, the Transitional Government is in talks to create a stronger response to the ongoing sexual violence in the region, such as creating a special unit for the prosecution of human rights violations including "conflict-related sexual violence;" however, lack of rule of law has inhibited implementation.[219]

Much attention was given to UN peacekeeping forces and the issue of sexual assault in early 2016.[220] While peacekeeping remains an important element in stabilizing conflict zones, accusations of misconduct by peacekeepers has become an important issue.[221] In response the SC adopted resolution 2272 recognizing the misconduct and sexual assault perpetrated by members of peacekeeping operations, most notably in the Central African Republic.[222] The resolution acknowledges the lack of adequate framework for how to manage cases of sexual misconduct and assault by peacekeeping forces.[223] The resolution also takes steps in making a clear mandate for how to manage cases of sexual assault perpetrated by peacekeepers, including suspending countries from being supplying peacekeeping forces, but a strong legal framework for how a peacekeeper may be held accountable is lacking.[224]

Conclusion

Addressing SGBV during conflict continues to be a very complicated issue.[225] In recent years the increase of attention by the UN, governments, and civil society has led to greater emphasis on the need to provide better support for survivors of sexual assault and for legal means to prosecute those accused of sexual assault.[226] The increase in visibility of these crimes has yet to translate into significant coordination of medical responses, especially when dealing with pregnancy, HIV/AIDS, and mental health.[227] Sexual assault is still one of the most underreported crimes committed and provides many challenges which are heightened during the instability of conflict.[228]

Further Research

When examining the complicated environment of conflict zones and warzones, how can governments better supply survivors of sexual assault with support during and after times of conflict and war? How can this support be implemented regionally and globally? When considering frameworks for assisting survivors, the role of governments cannot be underrepresented. What are some of the major hurdles governments face in implementing legal framework aimed at prosecuting those accused of sexual assault? Are there ways for governments to prevent or deter sexual assault beyond the existing framework?

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[215] UN Security Council, *Conflict-related sexual violence: Report of the Secretary-General (S/2015/203 (2015))*, 2015.
[216] Ibid.
[217] Ibid.
[218] Ibid.
[219] Ibid.
[220] UN Security Council, *United Nations peacekeeping operations (S/RES/2272 (2016))*, 2016.
[221] Ibid.
[222] Ibid.
[223] Ibid.
[224] Ibid.
[225] UN OHCHR, *Investigation by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights on Libya: detailed findings (A/HRC/31/CRP.3)*, 2016.
[226] UN Security Council, *Women and peace and security (S/RES/1820 (2008))*, 2008.
[227] Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces, *Women in an Insecure World: Violence Against Women Facts, and Figures*, 2005.
[228] UN Security Council, *Women and peace and security (S/RES/1820 (2008))*, 2008.

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> *The Rome Statute is one of the first international legal frameworks that gives specific details of what SGBV in conflict is. The Rome Statute expands on the definition of sexual assault to include situations such as forced pregnancy, forced prostitution, and human trafficking. The Rome Statute contains a legal definition that also includes men and boys as potential victims of sexual assault and also recognizes the large number of cases against women and girls. The Rome Statutes recognizes that sexual assault is not only a "crime against nature," but also a "war crime" when used in times of conflict and war. This can be an important tool for delegates in understanding the legal norms of what can be prosecuted by international law and the International Criminal Court. This is a tool for delegates to understand the legally binding definition of sexual assault and the legal means for international courts to prosecute those accused of these crimes.*

Stop Rape Now. (2014). *UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict 2013-2014*. Retrieved 7 April 2016 from: http://www.stoprapenow.org/uploads/docs/UN_Action_Progress_Report_2013-2014.pdf

> *This report gives the latest updates on proposals and implementation to help those who have been victims of sexual violence in conflict zones. Specifically, it outlines some countries currently going through conflict or transitioning out of conflict and the measures the UN, Member States, NGOs, and civil societies are taking to support victims of sexual violence. The report outlines many of the policies including media campaigns, legal frameworks, or social supports including counseling and ongoing, affordable medical care. Additionally, it highlights the ongoing shortcomings in some of these conflict areas including the inability to reach regions where sexual violence is still very high and there is low government involvement in supporting victims or promoting deterrents. The continuation of conflict makes it difficult to implement much needed safety protocols. This resource will assist delegates in understanding the far-reaching effects of sexual violence and the contemporary works of the global community in combating this issue.*

United Nations, General Assembly, Forty-eighth session. (1993). *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (A/RES/48/104)* [Resolution]. Retrieved 9 April 2016 from: http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm

> *This declaration is one of the first major frameworks for recognizing the large number of women and girls who suffer violence during times of conflict and war. It establishes ways in which the UN and governments can aim to protect women and girls from physical and sexual violence. The dialogue of how to support survivors of sexual assault, beyond the initial crimes, includes reflections on ongoing counseling and medical care. It spotlights the severity of physical and sexual violence perpetrated on women and girls and how this is exasperated by conflict. This is one of the first frameworks of its kind to give specific cadence to the amount of violence women and girls suffer during times of conflict. This is a good resource for delegates to understand what many of the frameworks the UN produced are based on. This is also a good way to compare and contrast what steps have been taken when thinking about how to best address the multitude of issues faced when dealing with sexual assault in conflict zones by the UN, governments, and many organizations.*

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. (2003). *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons* [Report]. Retrieved 15 April 2016 from: http://www.unhcr.org/3f696bcc4.html

> *This report was published in response to the growing number of reports from conflict zones where sexual violence has been used as "tools of war." This report aims to structure the definition of sexual violence to include more than rape and to discuss how issues such as underage marriage, forced prostitution, and other modes of sexual violence is to be included in what is considered. The report also seeks ways to include greater government involvement, especially after the conclusions of conflict to create safe spaces for victims of sexual violence to seek counseling or to return home in safety. The proposed frameworks include stronger legal measures against those*

accused of sexual violence as well as stronger social care for those dealing with the aftermath of sexual violence. This can be used as a good resource for delegates to understand the complicated definitions of what sexual violence is. This can be a great tool for understanding some of the gaps in programmatic action for helping victims seek support and it a beginning knowledge of international laws on the subject of sexual violence.

United Nations, Security Council. (2015). *Conflict-related sexual violence: Report of the Secretary-General (S/2015/203)*. Retrieved 15 April 2016 from: http://www.undocs.org/S/2015/203
> *The SG outlines in this report specific measures being taken by governments, the UN, and NGOs to prevent sexual violence in conflict zones and support survivors. There are detailed case studies within the report spanning one to three years and giving updates on independent human rights group's efforts, joint task forces, and any legal frameworks being update or created to stem any more cases. This is important to delegates due to the various case studies in the report that are specific to Member States or governments involved in ongoing conflict or war. This report gives recommendations for all the case studies as an example of the work the UN does on the ground in these locations. It is also a good example of the recommendations needed to be implemented directly by Member States or governments.*

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