SECURITY COUNCIL
BACKGROUND GUIDE 2016

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NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

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Dear Delegates,

Welcome to the 2016 National Model United Nations Conference in Japan (NMUN•Japan)! We are pleased to welcome you to the United Nations (UN) Security Council and introduce you to your Director, Kristina Mader and Assistant Director, Tomomi Hashimoto.

Kristina has a M.S. in Global Affairs, focused on transitional security, from New York University. She currently works for the NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security as Program and Research Manager, a position she has held for seven years, and lives in New York City. She has been involved with NMUN for nine years. Tomomi is a senior university student, currently majoring in International Relations at Kobe City University of Foreign Studies. She spent seventeen years living in Malaysia before moving to Japan. The first NMUN conference she attended was NMUN-Rome 2014, and has been involved with MUN since.

The topics under discussion for the Security Council are:

I. The Situation in North Korea
II. Conflict Prevention and the Empowerment of Women and Girls

The Security Council, as one of the principal organs established in the Charter of the United Nations (1945), has the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security. The Security Council is responsible for taking measures to resolve disputes and prevent conflict through preventative diplomacy, mediation, and strengthening partnerships with regional and subregional organizations. In situations where conflict does occur, the Council can authorize force or adopt other enforcement measures, such as targeted sanctions, to end the violence. In order to accurately simulate the committee, it will be critical for delegates to understand the options available to the Council, both in the form of direct action aimed at preventing and resolving conflict, as well as efforts to strengthen the normative peace and security framework to better reflect the current threats and challenges facing the world today.

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 Deputy-Secretary-General, Yvonne Jeffery at yvonne@nmun.org.

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

Sincerely,

Kristina Mader, Director
Tomomi Hashimoto, Assistant Director

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United Nations System at NMUN

This diagram illustrates the UN System simulated at NMUN. It shows where each committee “sits” within the system, to help understand the reportage and relationships between the entities. Examine the diagram alongside the Committee Overview to gain a clear picture of the committee's position, purpose, and powers within the UN System.
Committee Overview

Introduction

After the devastating effects of two world wars, the international community decided to establish the United Nations (UN) as an intergovernmental organization with the primary responsibility of maintaining international peace and security and creating the conditions conducive to economic and social development while advancing universal respect for human rights.¹ The Security Council (SC) was established as one of its six principal organs and was given the primary responsibility to preserve international peace and security.²

The Committee Overview will provide a comprehensive synopsis of the history, mandate, structure, functions and recent proceedings of the SC. The goal of the Overview is to give a full understanding of the principal policymaking body of the UN in the area of international peace and security and to provide delegates with a clear vision about the Council’s mandate and powers. The Overview’s core element will be the outline of the concrete functions of SC: it is the SC’s primary responsibility to maintain international peace and security and to determine when and where a UN Peacekeeping operation should be deployed.

History

The SC held its first session on 17 January 1946 at Church House in London, England.³ After its first meeting, the Council relocated to its permanent residence at the UN Headquarters in New York, New York.⁴ At that time, five permanent members and six non-permanent members comprised the membership of the Council.⁵ However, over subsequent years, discussions regarding the structure of the Council began to take.⁶ In 1965, the number of non-permanent members increased to ten, and discussions on further changes to the membership remain a frequent topic of formal and informal discussions in both the SC and the General Assembly (GA).⁷

During the Cold War, disagreements between the United States of America and the former Soviet Union blocked the Council from being an effective institution due to lack of agreement on even the most basic of issues and topics.⁸ However, beginning in the late 1980s, the body became more active, authorizing many peacekeeping missions, such as those in the former Yugoslavia, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kosovo, and East Timor.⁹ After the Cold War ended, traditional challenges to international peace and security shifted, forcing the Council to adapt to new scenarios, such as the challenge of addressing multiple humanitarian crises simultaneously, in different regions of the world.¹⁰ After 2000, terrorism, extremism and other thematic, rather than country-specific issues, became priorities of the Council, as evidenced by the adoption of a range of resolutions and the establishment of several subsidiary bodies.¹¹

Governance, Structure and Membership

The SC is the only UN body that has the power to adopt binding resolutions.¹² This means that when the Council adopts a resolution, Member States, in accordance with Article 25 of the Charter of the United Nations (1945), are

¹ Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Preamble.
³ Ibid.
⁴ Ibid.
⁶ Ibid.
obliged to accept and carry out the Council’s recommendations and decisions. The SC also has a variety of other tools to address issues on its agenda. For example, the President of the SC may issue press statements or presidential statements, which are similar to resolutions, but are not legally-binding.

**Presidency**

Each member of the SC holds the presidency for one-month, rotating according to alphabetical order. SC meetings can be held at any time when convened by the President and by the request of any Member State. Under Article 35 of the Charter, the president shall call a meeting if a dispute or situation calls the Council’s attention. The provisional agenda for each meeting is set by the Secretary-General of the UN and is further approved by the President of the SC.

**Participation**

Any UN Member State may be invited to the Council’s sessions if the body decides to extend an invitation. The invited Member States do not have the right to vote, but are allowed to submit proposals and draft resolutions. Furthermore, those Member States can inform the Council about a current crisis in their region. However, such proposals may only be put to a vote at the request of a representative of the Council.

**Membership**

The SC is comprised of five permanent members and 10 non-permanent members. The five permanent members of the SC are China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America. Every year, the General Assembly (GA) elects five of the 10 non-permanent members for a two-year term. Elections for non-permanent seats on the Council can be extremely competitive, with countries expressing interest years in advance. Countries elected to serve on the SC are expected to represent the interests of their region, and also usually have an influence at the international level and demonstrate leadership in particular areas of interest to their foreign policy. Angola, Chad, Chile, Jordan, Lithuania, Malaysia, New Zealand, Nigeria, Spain, and Venezuela are the current non-permanent members. SC elections for non-permanent members are typically held every October to replace the five members rotating off of the Council. The 10 non-permanent members represent countries from five groups: Africa, the Asia-Pacific Group, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Eastern European Group, Western European and Other.

**Subsidiary Organs**

The SC has many subsidiary bodies established under Article 29 of the Charter, including the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY), the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR), sanctions committees, and ad hoc committees, such as the Ad Hoc Sub-Committee on Namibia. Further, the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) reports jointly to the General Assembly and the Security Council.

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13 Charter of the United Nations, 1945, art. 25.
18 Ibid.
19 Ibid.
20 Ibid.
21 Ibid.
22 Ibid.
23 Ibid.
24 Ibid.
27 Ibid.
29 Ibid.
30 Ibid.
Voting
Each member of the SC has one vote. Votes on all matters require a majority of nine Member States, with the concurrent support or abstention of all permanent members. If one of the five permanent members votes against a matter of substance, such as a draft resolution, it is “vetoed,” and does not pass. In the 1950s, SC Member States, in particular, the former Soviet Union, made frequent use of their veto power, but its usage declined in the 1960s, rising again in the 1970s and 1980s.33 Over the twenty years, the use of the veto power has been on a comparatively low level.34 In recent years, the Council has adopted many resolutions by consensus and has only been divided into a very limited number of issues; for instance, a prominent example is the case of Syria.35

Mandate, Functions and Powers

The mandate of the SC is to maintain international peace and security and to take actions whenever peace and security are threatened.36 The Council’s authority is particularly relevant with respect to the UN’s four primary purposes, as specified in the Charter of the United Nations (1945): maintaining international peace and security; developing friendly relations among nations; cooperating in solving international problems; promoting respect for human rights as well as being a center for harmonizing the actions of nations.37 According to Article 39 of the Charter, the Council shall determine the existence of any threat to international security and formulate recommendations accordingly.38 In order to prevent the escalation of a given conflict, the Council may call upon the parties to comply with provisional measures.39

The Charter of the United Nations (1945) lays out Council’s specific powers and responsibilities:

- **Sanctions:** Pursuant to Article 41 of the Charter, the Council can call its members to apply economic sanctions and other measures not involving the use of force to prevent or end violence.40 These include economic sanctions, financial penalties and restrictions, travel bans, severance of diplomatic relations, and blockades, among others.41 It may further mandate arms embargos, enforce disarmament, or call upon international criminal mechanisms to become active.42

  **Diplomatic Tools:** The Council has the mandate to investigate any dispute or situation that might lead to aggressions between states or other non-state groups or within states’ national territories.43 In order to do so, it may “recommend methods of adjusting such disputes or the terms of settlement; formulate plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments; determine the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression and recommend what action should be taken.”44

- **Military Action:** Besides the above-mentioned diplomatic instruments, the Council may also take military action against a state or other entity threatening international peace and security and may further decide on the deployment of troops or observers. Article 39 of the Charter states that the Council shall determine the existence of any threat to the peace, breach of the peace, or act of aggression.45 Due to the voting structure,
some regions of the world are underrepresented and others user their veto to block draft resolutions.46 Again, Syria serves as an example, where the international community did not have the power to act because of Russia’s and China’s veto.47 The SC may also decide upon the deployment of new UN peacekeeping operations to be led by the Department of Peacekeeping Operations, as well as the extensions of its mandate and subsequent modification or drawdown of any troops.48 Article 41 of the Charter gives the Council the authority to impose measures not involving the use of armed force.49

- **Partnerships and Regional Cooperation**: The Council also cooperates with a number of international and regional organizations as well as non-governmental organizations to implement its decisions.50 Cooperation between the SC and UN-related organizations, as for example, the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons and the International Atomic Energy Agency is significant; but also partnerships with the independent intergovernmental organizations such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and the African Union are of paramount importance for addressing a broad range of issues such as terrorism, disarmament, nuclear non-proliferation, extreme violence from non-state actors, beyond others.51

**Recent Sessions and Current Priorities**

The Security Council’s priorities for any given month, are largely determined by its list of agenda items, also referred to as the “seizure list.52 Every month, the President of the Security Council releases a provisional programme of work that provides the calendar of forthcoming meetings.53 The placement of a specific agenda item on the calendar is determined by the frequency in which the Council has requested reporting, both written or verbal, in resolutions adopted on each agenda item.54 In any given month, the Security Council will discuss, negotiate and adopt several resolutions renewing the mandate of peacekeeping or political missions, as well as hold briefings with senior UN officials to discuss progress in implementing the mandate of several other missions.55

**Crisis response**

Outside of the regular cycle of reporting and mandates, issues can be added to the list upon the request of any Member State, the Secretary-General or the President of the Security Council, usually in the context of political crisis or emergencies. In 2015, the Security Council has focused particular attention on the crisis in Yemen, Burundi, Syria, South Sudan, and Iraq with varying degrees of success and failure.56

In early 2016, the Security Council established a political mission, comprised of unarmed international observers, in Colombia, upon the joint request of the Government of Colombia and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia - People’s Army (FARC-EP), in order to “monitor and verify the definitive bilateral ceasefire and cessation of hostilities agreed to by the parties.” 57 This unique request marked a turning point in the situation in Colombia, as well as provides an example of the important role the Security Council can play in supporting conflict resolution processes.

**Strengthening the thematic and cross-cutting normative framework**

49 Ibid.
Besides this country-specific approach, a number of thematic issues such as terrorism, children and armed conflict, protection of civilians in armed conflicts, women, peace and security, and addressing human rights violations under the responsibility to protect framework are at the core of the Council’s current debate. In the context of recent reports of sexual exploitation and abuse by peacekeepers in the Central African Republic, the Security Council adopted resolution 2272 (2016) focused on holding peacekeepers accountable, and strengthening the mechanisms through which the UN could replace contingents from countries who do not hold their troops accountable.

Issues related to terrorism and counterterrorism remain priorities for the Security Council in both thematic discussions, as well as in the context of its consideration of the situations in Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan, Libya, Mali, West Africa, Somalia and Yemen. In 2015, the Council adopted resolution 2199 (2015) and highlighted that suppressing the financing of terrorism is a core element of SC’s strategy to combat terrorist groups such as the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL). ISIL is a significant threat to international peace and security, and the Council continues to pursue solutions to stop the growing influence of the organization.

Adapting to transnational challenges through coherence and prevention
Over the last several years, the Security Council has increasingly focused on transnational challenges – issue such as climate change, migration, organized crime and trafficking, and health pandemics – which intersect with peace and security issues. The Council has increasingly discussed ways in which to better engage with its preventative mandate, and utilize preventative diplomacy and conflict prevention tools earlier, and with more consistency. This conversation has been bolstered by the outcomes of the three peace and security reviews on peace operations, peacebuilding architecture, and women, peace and security that were convened in 2015. These three reviews, although different in focus, had several common “themes, interlinkages and synergies […] (1) sustaining peace and prevention; (2) gender equality and women’s participation; (3) collaborative and strategic partnerships; and (4) people-centered approaches.” Operationalizing the recommendations in the report and ensuring the UN is “fit-for-purpose” will require the Security Council to more creatively utilize its available tools and change the way in which issues related to human rights and development are integrated throughout the body’s work on peace and security.

Security Council elections
For the first time in 70 years, the Security Council held its annual elections of non-permanent members in June 2016, in response to concerns from Member States that elected members did not have enough time to prepare for their terms when the elections were held in October. During a meeting of the General Assembly Plenary, Member States elected Bolivia, Ethiopia, Kazakhstan and Sweden for the 2017-18 term. The final seat will be split between

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60 UN Security Council, Threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts (S/RES/2199(2015)), 2015.
61 Ibid.
62 UN Security Council, Annex to the letter dated 26 May 2016 from the Permanent Representative of Finland to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council: “Hitting the ground running”: thirteenth annual workshop for newly elected members of the Security Council (S/2016/506), 2016.
63 UN Security Council, Annex to the letter dated 26 May 2016 from the Permanent Representative of Finland to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council: “Hitting the ground running”: thirteenth annual workshop for newly elected members of the Security Council (S/2016/506), 2016; Abdenur & De Carvalho, Getting Clear About Conflict Prevention at the UN, 2016.
Italy and the Netherlands, following tied results after five ballots. The split term was largely welcomed as a “symbolic gesture for European unity,” and is the first time in decades that a term will be split.

**Appointment of the UN Secretary-General**

As per the Article 97 of the Charter, the Security Council will be recommending a Secretary-General candidate for election and appointment to the UN General Assembly. This decision will be taken in the context of a push for greater “transparency and inclusiveness” in the selection process and will have a profound impact on the future of the UN, in a time which is “struggling to cope with increasingly intractable conflicts, deteriorating security situations and humanitarian and environmental disasters.” The Security Council’s recommendation will be formally given to the General Assembly in September 2016.

**Conclusion**

As the international community faces increasing asymmetrical threats from non-state actors and transnational organized crime, the SC has tried to adapt to new working methods. The current situation in Syria, Iraq and Ukraine showcase the SC’s inability to completely guarantee peace and security in all regions of the world. But they also represent the systemic divides among Council members. This lacking capacity can be partially explained by the Council’s controversial decision-making process, specifically the veto power of the five permanent members. However, as the SC represents the only body within the UN that has the authority to adopt binding resolutions, it is still the entity of utmost importance for the maintenance of international peace and security. The interlinkages between issues previously addressed in isolation is an important one to recognize and address. As the world grows more complex, so too must the SC’s understanding of the world and actions taken to maintain peace and security. The Council must use all of the tools in its toolbox - peacekeeping and peacebuilding activities, conflict prevention efforts, and diplomatic and coercive enforcing instruments – as part of a comprehensive approach. These tools are crucial to addressing traditional and emerging global threats and ensuring a secure and peaceful world.

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70 Ibid.
71 *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, art. 97; UN PGA, *Procedure of Selecting and Appointing the next UN Secretary-General*.
73 UN PGA, *Procedure of Selecting and Appointing the next UN Secretary-General*.
Annotated Bibliography


As the fundamental principles of the Security Council are written down in the Charter of the United Nations, this document should be among the first resources to consider. Article 23, which sets the membership structure and articles 23 to 26, which discuss the basic functions and powers, are of particular importance for understanding both the structure and function of the Security Council. In addition, articles 27 to 32 explain the Council’s voting procedure and its overall structure. The Charter can be especially useful for delegates in understanding the powers and limitations of the body.


This website, provided by the Council on Foreign Relations, gives a comprehensive introduction to the structure and work of the Security Council and therefore constitutes a good starting ground for more detailed research. The Website discusses the Council’s powers, and possibilities in taking coercive actions and addresses broadly discussed issues as criticism to the Security Council’s structure as well as possible reforms. In addition, the Website contains links to further resources on the Security Council and recent international security issues as, for example, the Global Governance Monitor, which evaluates the international regime for armed conflict.


This collected volume provides readers with a very detailed overview of the Security Council and its past and present challenges. Written on a high academic level, this book touches upon a large number of the Council’s themes, institutions, and operations. As it discusses major operations on four continents, the document can be a useful tool for detailed analysis of various international security crises.


While giving a brief overview of the history, structure, mandate and perspective of the United Nations in general, this volume also includes a comprehensive section on the Security Council as well as a separate chapter on peacekeeping and peacebuilding. The book offers a succinct explanation of the Council’s political and operational constraints, including the veto power principle. It further provides delegates with a general overview of the importance of the Security Council for international security from its creation until now. Due to its comprehensive language, this book may serve delegates as a first starting point for further research on the Security Council as well as on international power relations.


This independent, non-profit organization provides information on the working methods of the Security Council, country and regional issues, and thematic and general issues. It further presents monthly forecasts highlighting issues that are currently being debated by the Council. These include counter-terrorism strategies, the situation in Afghanistan, Syria or Liberia, among others. The Website is a source of updated information for delegates and will prove very useful when further researching on the current activities of the Council.


This resolution is the core document for the upcoming High-Level Review and Global Study of Resolution 1325 (2000). The resolution considers the role of women during armed conflict and highlights important gender perspectives in sectors of peace and security. In preparation for the 2015 High-level Review, the Secretary-General has commissioned a global study on the implementation of Resolution 1325 (2000). The study will highlight examples of good practice...
implementation gaps, challenges, and priorities for action with regard to women, peace, and security.


This website gives an overview of the Security Council’s history, its mandate, and its basic functions and powers. It should be considered one of the most important resources and a foundation for delegates’ further research since it provides detailed information on how the Security Council works in practice. The Website contains the body’s provisional rules of procedure and a section on frequently asked questions. The latter is particularly useful when it comes to understanding the Council’s functions and powers. Delegates will find on this Website detailed information about the Council’s recent sessions as well as other worth noting outputs.


This resolution, in particular, emphasizes “the need to combat by all means, in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations and international law, [...] threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts”. Delegates may learn that suppressing the financing of terrorism is a core element of SC’s strategy to combat terrorist groups such as Al-Qaida or the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL). Furthermore, the Council points out that it condemns any engagement in direct or indirect trade, in particular of oil and oil products and highlights that states are required to freeze without delay the funds and other financial assets or economic resources of terrorists.


Delegates should familiarize themselves with this resolution, which renews the United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in the Central African Republic’s (MINUSCA) mandate at currently authorized troop levels until 30 April 2016 and tasks the United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara (MINURSO) with monitoring the ceasefire in Western Sahara. Both missions are mandated to protect civilians and support transition processes in the Central African Republic (CAR). The document calls upon all Member States to “fully cooperate” with the peacebuilding operations, and it provides the starting point for in-depth research into SC’s work.

Bibliography


I. The Situation in North Korea

Introduction

The Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK) has earned the attention of the international community and the United Nations (UN) Security Council since the nation was founded. The earliest involvement of the Security Council dates back to 1950 when the DPRK, established in 1948, invaded the Republic of Korea. The Security Council determined that the invasion constituted an act of aggression and “a breach of peace,” and called for the provision of military support and assistance to the Republic of Korea, resulting in the Korean War. Over the last 60 years, the Security Council and the international community has actively monitored and addressed the situation in the DPRK due to its impact on the region; the primary concern in recent years is the proliferation of nuclear weapons by the DPRK, and also its violations of human rights against its people.

History of the Nuclear Program in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea

The development of nuclear weapons has long been a cornerstone of the DPRK’s national security and defense strategy, which is often termed by the DPRK as necessary in response to “unprecedented” “aggression” and “provocation” by the United States and its allies, including the Republic of Korea. Recent statements by government officials have reinforced the DPRK’s intent to continue to “bolster, in quality and quantity, nuclear deterrence for self-defense,” in order to mount pre-emptive and “indiscriminate” attacks. The DPRK’s development of its nuclear program began in the late 1950’s when the government signed a series of agreements with the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) that facilitated information sharing and technical capacity building for nuclear technology research and development. Over the intervening years, the DPRK alternated between proliferation and non-proliferation policies. The DPRK acceded to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) in 1985, and signed the South-North Joint Declaration on the Denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula with the Republic of Korea in 1991; however, the government was widely criticized for failing to take action to implement the agreements. It wasn’t until 1992 that a safeguards agreement was signed with the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), triggering inspections of existing nuclear facilities. The report contained inconsistencies between the DPRK’s declared nuclear capabilities and the IAEA’s findings, triggering a series of inspections and efforts by the international community to ensure compliance with the NPT and “freeze” further development of nuclear technology, including the establishment of the United States-North Korean Agreed Framework in 1994, which promised energy assistance and established the Korean Peninsula Energy Development Organization (KEDO) in exchange for the dismantlement of a 5-megawatt reactor, plutonium-reprocessing plant, 50-megawatt reactor and 200-megawatt plant. In the years following the signing of the Agreed Framework, it was found that there were challenges related to verification and implementation, and ultimately confirmation that the DPRK had a “programme to enrich uranium for nuclear weapons,” thereby violating existing international and

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78 BBC, North Korea profile – Timeline, 2016.
79 UN Security Council, Complaint of Aggression upon the Republic of Korea, 1950.
83 Pruitt, What You Need to Know About North Korea, History, 2013.
84 NTI, Joint Declaration of South and North Korea on the Denuclearization of the Korean Peninsula, 1992; Fischer, The DPRK’s Violation of its NPT Safeguards Agreement with the IAEA, 1997.
bilateral agreements. In 2003, the DPRK expelled IAEA inspectors and announced its withdrawal from the NPT; this was in retaliation for the joint military exercise by the United States and the Republic of Korea that included a “nuclear war rehearsal,” and also to the accusations of the IAEA which DPRK saw as “interferences in internal affairs.” The Six-Party Talks between China, US, Japan, Russia, and the Republic of Korea, and the DPRK began in 2003, in order to persuade the DPRK to discontinue nuclear activities and return to the NPT. In 2006, the DPRK claimed that it conducted a successful nuclear test, leading to the adoption of Security Council resolution 1718 (2006), which demanded that the DPRK immediately suspend all activities related to its ballistic missile program and further established a sanctions regime banning certain imports. The DPRK launched its second nuclear test in 2009, earning condemnation from the international community for violating the Security Council resolution 1718 (2006); further sanctions onto DPRK led it to declare nonparticipation in future Talks, effectively ending the Six-Party Talks. Four more nuclear tests followed in the years 2009, 2013 and 2016, leading to further condemnation by the Security Council and the international community.

The human rights situation in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea

Over the last twenty years, the human rights situation in the DPRK has been subject to increasing scrutiny and condemnation by the international community due to repeated reports of widespread violations of fundamental human rights. The UN General Assembly as well as the Human Rights Council, have both adopted several resolutions on the human rights situation in the DPRK, calling for access for the UN and international organizations in order to provide humanitarian assistance and also for government compliance with international human rights obligations. The Commission of Inquiry (COI) on Human Rights in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, established by the Human Rights Council, published a report (A/HRC/25/63) in 2014 of the widespread, systematic human rights abuses in the DPRK, where the Office of High Commission for Human Rights (OHCHR) published a report (A/HCR/31/38) in 2016 underlining its content. In the reports, violations of the freedom of expression and movement, denial of the right to food and life, discrimination, gender-based violence, arbitrary arrests and enforced disappearances or abductions were concluded as systematic doings of the state to its people. In food insecurity, for example, the government’s uneven food distributions and strict control of humanitarian aids are responsible for the only allowing 624,275 people out of 18 million malnourished North Koreans to be reachable by the World Food Programme (WFP). Harsh living conditions have forced more than 28,000 North Koreans to flee to neighboring countries; however, governance under Kim Jong-un for the past five years intensified its crackdown on citizens seeking to flee. The relationship between the ongoing and widespread human rights violations and regional instability, led to the inclusion of human rights issues in Security Council meetings on the DPRK the Council had approved at its 7353rd meeting to include the situation of human right in the debate on the situation of DPRK due to the alarming degrees of atrocities by the country.

References:
- IAEA, Factsheet on DPRK Nuclear Safeguards.
- UN Department of Public Information, Security Council, in Divided Vote, Puts Democratic People’s Republic of Korea’s Situation on Agenda following Findings of Unspeakable Human Rights Abuses, 2014.
The issue of nuclear activities is a threat to the international peace, and the issue of human rights violations is just as critical for the North Koreans and the region. To address the complexity of the situation, it is essential to understand the political, security and human rights framework, relevant UN engagement, and opportunities for Security Council action in the areas of both nonproliferation and human rights.

**International and Regional Framework**

In the context of the issue of nuclear nonproliferation, the *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons* (NPT) (1968) is a widely accepted treaty that focuses on non-proliferation, disarmament, and peaceful use of nuclear energy. The NPT offers a definition of Nuclear Weapon States (NWS), which are “those that have produced and detonated a nuclear explosive device” before 1 January 1967. Countries that have acceded to the NPT and are non-NWS should not be receiving, acquiring, or manufacturing any nuclear weapons. The *NPT Safeguards Agreements* (1972), another significant agreement that underpins discussions on this topic, keeps nuclear material and activities of non-NWS States under the IAEA’s safeguards and close inspection to verify commitments.

The *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* spells out basic human rights that should be respected and protected. The DPRK is a member to four international human rights treaties: the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)* (1966), the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESR)* (1966), the *Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)* (1989), and the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)* (1979). *ICCPR* ensures the “enjoyment of all civil and political rights,” while *ICESR* ensures the “enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural rights;” *CRC* underlines the basic need of protection, well-being, and rights as a human being for children, and *CEDAW* underlines those for women, respectively. Though the DPRK utilizes the “fear of collective punishment to silence dissent” from its citizens, which was confirmed by the Human Rights Watch, as the DPRK is a Member State to the conventions, these conventions apply to the country in the protection of its citizens and hence will be able to pursue the state for violations.

**Role of the International System**

The UN Security Council is the primary UN organ that discusses the situation in the DPRK, focusing on both nuclear nonproliferation as well as human rights. Other relevant international organizations engaged on the issue of nuclear nonproliferation include the IAEA. In the context of human rights, the human rights situation in the DPRK is discussed by the UN Human Rights Council (HRC) and the General Assembly Third Committee (Third Committee).

The Security Council has adopted five resolutions on the DPRK and issued a series of press statements in response to political and security developments in the region. Resolutions 1718 (2006), 1874 (2009), 2087 (2013), 2094 (2013) and 2270 (2016) were adopted in response to DPRK’s nuclear and similar tests and provide the policy framework that grounds the work of the SC on this topic. In the context of nuclear nonproliferation, the Council’s actions largely encompass: calling for the political settlement of the situation and cessation of nuclear weapons tests and development; and establishing, implementing and monitoring a sanctions regime which bars the sale or transfer of a range of items. The sanctions and associate panel of experts was adopted pursuant to Resolution 1718 (2006) and prohibited further efforts to develop nuclear weapons and its nuclear ambitions, and imposed strict sanctions and

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100 NTI, *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT)*, 2015.

101 Ibid.

102 Ibid.


104 UN OHCHR, *International Human Rights Law*.


106 UN OHCHR, *The Core International Human Rights Instruments and their monitoring bodies*.

107 HRW, *North Korea*.


inspection on cargoes for weapons and luxury goods while establishing a monitoring body that “review[s] and adjust[s] the imposed sanctions and violations of the sanctions.”\textsuperscript{111} As a follow-up, Resolution 1874 (2009) tightened sanctions further by placing additional restrictions on financial aid and the establishment of an expert panel for the monitoring body.\textsuperscript{112} Resolution 2087 (2013) condemned DPRK for the launching of a satellite, which, though not a nuclear test, is still a technology applicable to the development of nuclear/ballistic weapons.\textsuperscript{113} Resolution 2094 (2013) strongly condemned the third nuclear test, specifying sanction targets which could be of use to DPRK’s ambitions and reinforcing the existing monitoring body with additional measures.\textsuperscript{114} The newest resolution 2270 (2016) contained the “toughest” measures ever, including new sanctions on shipping, prohibition of aviation fuel to the country, and more asset freezes of suspects.\textsuperscript{115} Throughout all resolutions, the SC called on to the DPRK to return to the Six-Party Talks.\textsuperscript{116}

The IAEA plays a core duty in assuring the safe, peaceful use of nuclear materials in the international community and implements safeguards to verify that governments are not misusing nuclear materials on one hand while assisting peaceful usage on the other.\textsuperscript{117} Though the DPRK withdrew from the IAEA in 2009, the IAEA Director Yukiya Amano says the organization is ready to resume nuclear activities in DPRK “once a political agreement is reached among countries concerned.”\textsuperscript{118}

The UN Human Rights Council has regularly discussed violations of human rights in the DPRK over the last two decades, establishing a Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea in 2004 to investigate and report the human rights situation and the government’s compliance with international human rights law.\textsuperscript{119} In 2013, a COI was established for one-year to “investigate systematic, widespread and grave violations of human rights” in the DPRK with the Special Rapporteur a member.\textsuperscript{120} Its 2014 report (A/HRC/25/63) was welcomed by the HRC and circulated to other bodies of the UN, including the SC, earning significant attention due to “the scale and gravity of human rights violations,” documented.\textsuperscript{121} This report contributed to the Council’s renewed discussions on the human rights situation and laid the groundwork for future SC action on the issue.\textsuperscript{122} OHCHR provides the substantive support to the HRC and the Special Rapporteur and in 2015 opened an office in Seoul, Republic of Korea, as directed by the HRC, in order to monitor the human rights situation in the DPRK.\textsuperscript{123} The Third Committee of the UN General Assembly adopted the resolution (A/C.3/70/L.35) in which the protection and promotion of human rights were discussed, and the suggestions from the COI were supported, such as encouraging the Security Council to “take appropriate action to ensure accountability” of criminal offenders (namely the “leadership”) in DPRK “including referral of the situation […] to the International Criminal Court (ICC).”\textsuperscript{124}

\textsuperscript{111} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{112} UN Security Council, Non-proliferation/Democratic People's Republic of Korea (S/RES/1874 (2009)), 2009.
\textsuperscript{113} UN Security Council, Non-proliferation/Democratic People's Republic of Korea (S/RES/2087(2013)), 2013.
\textsuperscript{114} UN Security Council, Non-proliferation/Democratic People's Republic of Korea (S/RES/2094 (2013)), 2013.
\textsuperscript{115} UN Security Council, Non-proliferation/Democratic People's Republic of Korea (S/RES/2270 (2016)), 2016.
\textsuperscript{117} IAEA, Basics of IAEA Safeguards, 2016.
\textsuperscript{118} IAEA, IAEA & DPRK: Video: IAEA Director General Yukiya Amano’s Statement on the DPRK’s Announcement of a Nuclear Test, 2016.
\textsuperscript{119} UN HRC, Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea: Overview of the mandate.
\textsuperscript{121} UN Security Council, Letter dated 5 December 2014 from the representatives of Australia, Chile, France, Jordan, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Republic of Korea, Rwanda, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council, 2014.
\textsuperscript{122} Security Council Report, Meeting on the Human Rights Situation in North Korea, 2014.
\textsuperscript{123} UN OHCHR, Zeid opens new UN Human Rights Office in Seoul to work on human rights issues in the DPRK, 2015; UN News Center, FAQ’s on the Human Rights Council.
\textsuperscript{124} UN General Assembly, Situation of human rights in the DPRK (A/C.3/70/L.35), 2015.
There are many UN organizations that work on the DPRK, including UN Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), UN Development Programme (UNDP), Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO), the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the WFP, the World Health Organization (WHO), and the UN High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). Additionally, the newly established Human Rights Up Front initiative by the Secretary-General seeks to encourage transforms in the entire UN system so that “early and effective” action may be prompted from the UN, and prevents large-scale violations of human rights or international law, and conflict.

With every action of civil society in the DPRK being strictly restricted by the government, international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) naturally stepped up in addressing human rights situation in DPRK. These groups have played an important role, where many have helped provided information for the COI when issuing its reports. Human Rights Watch provides facts on the humanitarian rights in DPRK and promotes change for human rights and justice through diplomatic dialogues. It is also a member of the International Coalition to Stop Crimes against Humanity in North Korea (ICNK), which consists of 40 other organizations worldwide who also fight against human rights violations in DPRK. The coalition’s aim was to the establishment of the COI.

### Non-proliferation and Disarmament of Nuclear Weapons

With the ongoing development of nuclear technology posing a grave risk to humanity, stopping its proliferation has become an utmost importance for the international community. In the context of the DPRK, the Security Council calls for and promotes non-proliferation, which is aims to stop the spread of nuclear weapons, as well as eventual disarmament, with the goal being the complete cessation of activities and destruction of nuclear materials.

The importance of ensuring the effectiveness and success of the measures imposed on the DPRK is increasing, particularly in the context of the ongoing tests by the DPRK. All Security Council resolutions adopted on the DPRK (1718 (2006), 1874 (2009), 2087 (2013), 2094 (2013) and 2270 (2016)) are in line with Article 41 of the Charter of the United Nations (1945) as economic interruptions. In response, to the DPRK’s fourth nuclear test and launch of a satellite using ballistic missile technology on 7 February 2016, the SC adopted resolution 2270 (2016), denounced the DPRK’s actions, and further urged Member States to strengthen their implementation of all resolutions. The response from the international community includes a wave of condemnation, as well as new sanctions, including notably from the United States, whom, for the first time, imposed sanctions on the leader of the DPRK, Kim Jong-un and several other officials, as a result of the ongoing human rights violations.

The Security Council has an important role to play in continuing to seek a diplomatic solution to the current conflagration, to put pressure on the DPRK to end its nuclear research and tests as well as ensure all Member States are held accountable for fully implementing and adhering to the sanctions regime put in place. There are several options available to Council members to continue to enhance the existing accountability mechanism, for example, the panel of experts monitoring the sanctions could assist Member States in implementation and encourage the timely submission of “national implementation reports […] as models of good practice.” Further, given the importance of diplomatic action and mediation in this situation, considering spiking tensions between the DPRK and the international community, there may be a need to consider mediation and conflict resolutions instead, where parties are encouraged to facilitate less tense, peaceful dialogues, in order to achieve end goals. The Security Council has a range of preventative diplomacy tools it could employ, in this regard, which could be useful in bolstering relations at the regional and bi-lateral level.

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125 UNDP, UNDP in DPRK (DPRK): Our Partners; UNICEF, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea; UNDP, UNDP in DPRK (DPRK): Our Work; UN FAO, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, 2016; IFAD, IFAD in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea; UN WFP, Korea, Democratic People’s Republic (DPRK); UN WHO, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea; UNHCR, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea.
126 UN Secretary-General, ‘Human Rights Up Front’ Initiative.
128 HRW, About.
129 ICNK, Introduction.
130 NTI, Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT), 2015.
Human Rights in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea

The DPRK is characterized as a “totalitarian state” for its characteristics of single-ruler, single-party, indoctrination, suppression and control in governance. It is also defined as “a state that does not content itself with ensuring the authoritarian rule of a small group of people, but seeks to dominate every aspect of its citizens’ lives and terrorizes them from within.” The COI established by the Human Rights Council, noted, that in this context, there are widespread violations of human rights, including “violations of the freedoms of thought, expression and religion […] discrimination, […] violations of the freedom of movement and residence […] violations of the right to food and other aspects of life […], arbitrary detention, torture, executions and prison camps [and…], abductions and enforced disappearances from other countries.” These violations are aimed at ensuring the state maintains control over the population and its “rigid social structure,” and class system, referred to as songbun. The class system is maintained by forced isolation and restrictions on freedom of movement, as well controlled distribution of food with the goal of prioritizing individuals who the state considers “crucial in maintaining the regime over those deemed expendable.” Police and security forces of the DPRK “systematically employ violence and punishments” to quell any protest or challenge, and there are numerous reports of forced disappearances and imprisonment in camps where a range of violations, including torture, extrajudicial executions, forced labor, starvation, sexual and gender-based violence occur, with the goal of instilling fear.

The DPRK denies that they are perpetrating any human rights violations, although there is evidence that both the state officials, such as those from the State Security Department which are under the control of governing central organs like the Worker’s Party of Korea, and other individuals act “in accordance with state policies” when carrying out most violations. As a result, there is a widespread culture of impunity whereby violators are not only protected, but also encouraged to continue their actions as long as they are in accordance with policy. In response to such systems, the COI strongly urged in its report to consider addressing impunity by sending the matter to the ICC or by establishing an ad-hoc tribunal, potentially managed by the UN. Additionally, potential witnesses residing outside the DPRK fear of reprisals from the country, hence the COI urged that responsibility of protection laid in the witnesses/victims residing and national state.

The state government displayed a lack of cooperation when aiding human rights investigations. The COI received a negative response during its investigation for report-writing. Hence information was obtained through public hearings, personal interviews, written submissions, and country visitations. Humanitarian aid, especially in times of famine, was met with impedance from the state, resulting in the loss of many lives. However, the COI once expressed hope since “representatives of DPRK have previously given to the HRC that the DPRK “prioritizes human rights and honours the UN Charter and international human rights instruments.” Dialogue with and urging the DPRK to at least allow humanitarian assistance within the country hence could be possible, though the possibility of further denial may seem very likely.

Impact of nuclear disarmament sanctions on human rights

In 2015, the UN Secretary-General reported (A/70/393) that the sanctions in the DPRK had caused “an unintended and indirect negative impact on vulnerable people,” particularly in the context of the UN’s ability to provide humanitarian assistance and support development, as the sanctions made it difficult for UN agencies obtain essential supplies and severe cash shortage, resulting in the suspension of certain activities in order to prioritize lifesaving

135 Ibid.
136 Ibid.
137 Ibid.
138 Ibid.
139 Ibid.
140 Ibid.
141 Ibid.
142 Ibid.
143 Ibid.
144 Ibid.
147 UN OHCHR, Commission of Inquiry on Human Rights in the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea: Introduction.
activities.\textsuperscript{148} Given historical experiences with sanctions, the Security Council aims to “minimiz[e] the impact of the measures taken in other parts of the population and economy” when taking action, and thus shifted targets from punishing the entire nation to responsible political elites like reflected in resolution 2270 (2016).\textsuperscript{149} There are several options for further mitigating the negative impact; the Security Council attempted to alleviate some of these concerns in the recently resolution 2020 (2016).\textsuperscript{150} Tighter sanctions are generally not seen as preferable by certain countries especially the Republic of China, who feared that the economic sanctions smothering the DPRK would result in a regime collapse and an outflow of refugees to its country.\textsuperscript{151} Hence, “multiple approaches” are needed and also balance of the impact of sanctions on the country and the impact on the citizens.\textsuperscript{152}

\textit{Conclusion}

The DPRK continues to pose threats towards the international community. Its recent nuclear tests have prompted international condemnation in the form of Security Council sanctions, causing the country to become more aggressive in its nuclear ambitions and leading to spiking tensions between it and the international community. Widespread and systematic violations of human rights by the government has finally earned the attention of the SC, both because of landmark reports from the COI and the growing consensus that there is a link between systematic human rights violations and insecurity and conflict. The DPRK has expressed its defiance and noncooperation, but organizations and other responsible bodies, such as the IAEA for nuclear nonproliferation and the OHCHR for human rights, have shown eagerness to cooperate in resolving the issues with the DPRK government. The SC is vital in maintaining international peace and security; hence, when addressing the nuclear proliferation ambitions and human rights violations of the DPRK, it should be noted that the two are intertwined, so any solutions will be multi-faced and address all aspects of the situation.

\textit{Further Research}

Delegates should keep themselves updated on the current situation, and while researching, they may consider the following questions: How will the sanctions in the newest, and toughest, resolution 2270 (2016) affect to the DPRK? Would it spark more hostilities or negotiations? How should human rights violations in DPRK be addressed, e.g. sanctions? In what ways can existing bodies be reinforced and the UN can cooperate with? For both issues, is there any possibility for peaceful dialogues? Keeping in mind of the Security Council mandates, how should solutions be established so that nuclear non-proliferations and human rights protection are both ensured simultaneously and cohesively?

\textsuperscript{151} Borger, \textit{North Korea nuclear test: UN considers new punitive action}, 2016.
Annotated Bibliography


Since 2006, the Security Council has adopted five major resolutions that address the situation of nuclear weapons and missile issues in North Korea: 1718 (2006), 1874 (2009), 2087 (2013), 2094 (2013) and 2270 (2016). Each resolution is explained briefly on this site by sections of Principal Provisions, Sanctions, and Monitoring Mechanisms, and Excerpts. Delegates may look through these five resolutions to know what has been addressed and imposed by the Security Council first, which could serve as a guide for them in what to find next for their research. Also, delegates are recommended to look at the historical timeline of North Korea’s activities on nuclear weapons provided by the same website (URL is stated in the Bibliography below too).


The Charter of the United Nations (1945) is an international treaty signed by countries in 1945 for the establishment of the United Nations. With goals of making the world a better place after the misfortunes of two world wars, the Charter is, therefore, binding, and countries are obliged to follow its contents when playing a role in the international community. All UN bodies adhere to the Charter, where the Security Council is referenced in Articles V-VIII. Delegates may review the Charter, along with the Security Council mandate to be aware of what measurements they may take as Security Council members.


The IAEA is an association “within the United Nations family”, and was established to promote the “safe, secure and peaceful use of nuclear technologies” in the world. This factsheet provides a well-organized, detailed fact sheet of events that took place between the DPRK and the IAEA around NPT Safeguards Agreements. This website is recommended to delegates for details on the progress on DPRK’s nuclear power development and international interaction up until 2009 before the IAEA completely withdrawn from the country.


The Nuclear Threat Initiative (NTI) is a non-profit organization founded in 2001, which works to “prevent attacks of mass destructive weapons such as nuclear, biological, radiological, chemical and cyber weapons.” The organization currently runs a project that oversees the nuclear activities around the world; their significant works include actual prevention and detection of nuclear movements, the provision of an index of such activities like provided here, the Nuclear Security Index, and suggesting effective/innovative solutions to issues at hand. Delegates may want to read this so they may obtain several factors affecting the issues around nuclear power and weapons.


This report is “the first research on human rights” by the Security Council Report, a non-governmental organization that provides research and analysis on the work of the UN Security Council. It dwells on the evolving position human rights have in the scope of the Security Council and examines the issue of human rights from all perspectives including history, and especially future possibilities for the Council to better regard the issue when dealing with it. As this is a new report by the Council itself, delegates may refer to the Report to understand the possibilities open in this new purview, and hopefully be able to expand further/enrich their ideas.

The Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT), adopted in 1968 and launched in 1970, is an international treaty aiming for the peaceful usage, safeguard, and sharing of information of nuclear power and the disarmament of nuclear weapons. Knowing the Treaty should be the minimum requirement as this treaty is the base for all countries in regards to handling nuclear energy/power. Additionally, becoming familiar with the content of the NPT will help delegates understand what the minimum requirements of the international community are in regards to nuclear-handling, such as: what is prohibited and what should be considered asides.

Bibliography


II. Conflict Prevention and the Empowerment of Women and Girls

“Women’s empowerment contributes to our defence against militarism and violent extremism, and requires our greater support and investment.” - Ms. Mlambo-Ngcuka, Executive Director, UN-Women

Introduction

The Charter of the United Nations (1945), in Article 1(1), states that one of the central purposes of the United Nations is “to maintain international peace and security, and to that end, to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace.” With this mandate, the United Nations plays a “unique and important role” advancing the normative and policy framework for conflict prevention, as well as, directly contributing to operationalizing these norms by funding, managing or supporting development, peacebuilding, conflict resolution, and mediation efforts at local, national and regional levels via a range of UN programmes and funds. The UN Security Council has been granted particular authority to prevent conflict as per Chapters VI and VIII of the Charter.

The empowerment of women and girls is critical to conflict prevention, efforts, and also a necessary aspect of broader efforts to achieve gender equality in all conflict-affected situations. Gender equality cannot be achieved without the establishment of an environment in which women and girls are empowered and able to make choices regarding their lives. However, women face a range of barriers to their full participation in conflict prevention ranging from cultural discrimination and stigmatization to violence and intimidation to structural barriers, including lack of access to education or property.

Over the last 20 years, there have been a number of studies that have demonstrated a strong correlation between gender inequality, and women’s disempowerment and the potential for conflict; not only does gender inequality increase “the likelihood that a state will have internal” or international disputes, but countries with weak human rights standards “are more likely to have militarized and violent interstate disputes.” The result being that gender equality can be considered “a consistent predictor of both international violence and internal conflict.”

In the context of conflict prevention, the UN Security Council recently noted the “substantial link between women’s full and meaningful involvement in efforts to prevent, resolve and rebuild from conflict and those efforts’ effectiveness and long-term sustainability.” Supporting women’s participation is one of the primary ways in which women’s empowerment is often achieved, and thus often the Security Council will utilize terminology related to women’s participation and women’s empowerment interchangeably.

In 2015, the UN facilitated three peace and security reviews on peacebuilding, peacekeeping operations and women, peace and security. These reviews helped diagnose current gaps and challenges in the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda, and in the context of conflict prevention effort, noted particular challenges related to “inconsistent levels of political will,” impunity, weak or nonexistent funding and capacity, and “negative societal attitudes regarding full and equal participation of women in conflict resolution and mediation.”

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158 Herbert, Links between women’s empowerment (or lack of) and outbreaks of violent conflict, 2014, p. 2
159 Ibid.
There are three primary aspects of the work of the Security Council on conflict prevention that provide opportunities to better address women and girls’ empowerment: addressing the root causes of conflict; early warning systems; and preventative diplomacy and mediation. Drawing on the obligations and commitments made in existing Security thematic and country-specific resolutions, the Security Council has the opportunity to strengthen the existing normative framework in order to ensure that women and girls’ empowerment is central to conflict prevention in both policy and practice.

**International and Regional Framework**

The international and regional framework for conflict prevention is grounded in Chapters I, VI, VII, and VIII of the *Charter of the United Nations* (1945). Article 33 of the Charter states that the responsibility for preventing conflict lies with Member States, however, the UN Security Council is given the authority to call for settlement of disputes via “negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice.”

Building on the human rights obligations laid out in the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948) and the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women* (CEDAW) (1979), the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) (1995), the outcome of the Fourth World Conference on Women, is the first international document to recognize the importance of women’s role in conflict prevention efforts. Over the intervening years, resolutions adopted under the agenda item “women and peace and security” provide the normative framework on this issue and have served as the basis for the further codification of the issue at both the international and regional level. Security Council resolutions 1325 (2000), 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013), 2122 (2013) and 2242 (2015) collectively form what is referred to as the “women, peace and security agenda,” and provide specific guidance for the UN system, Member States and civil society on the importance of women’s participation in conflict prevention efforts, and ways in which to ensure engagement at all levels.

In 2013, the committee responsible for monitoring the implementation of CEDAW adopted *General recommendation No. 30 on women in conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations* (CEDAW/C/GC/30) in order to provide additional guidance on the way in which CEDAW should be implemented in the context of conflict-affected situations. The recommendations reinforce that conflict prevention policies should be non-discriminatory, and “that efforts to prevent or mitigate conflict neither voluntarily or inadvertently harm women nor create or reinforce gender inequality.

**Role of the International System**

The UN Security Council and the General Assembly, as well as to a lesser extent, the Peacebuilding Commission, are the primary bodies through which the normative policy framework for gender and conflict prevention has

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164 Ibid., art. 33.


developed directly or indirectly over the last 20 years. These policy norms articulated in the form of resolutions and other outcome documents, are operationalized by relevant entities within the UN Secretariat, namely the Department of Political Affairs (DPA), Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO), UN Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA), and Department for Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO); as well as a range of UN agencies, programmes and funds, such as the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women) and UN Development Programme (UNDP).

The UN Security Council seeks to prevent conflict in two ways: (1) by applying a range of preventative tools in the context of countries that are at risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict; and (2) by discussing the issue at a thematic level, which strengthens and builds the UN’s conflict prevention efforts, and also provide normative guidance for Member States to adapt at the regional, national and local level. It is within these two strands of Council activity that issues related to gender equality and women’s empowerment are addressed in varying degrees of consistency and intensity, depending on political context and other dynamics of the Security Council.

The thematic issue of women’s empowerment and conflict prevention has been referenced throughout several resolutions and presidential statements adopted on both women, peace and security and conflict prevention thematic agenda items. The provisions adopted in thematic outcome documents provide guidance for the way in which the Security Council should address that issue in the context of its country-specific work. Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) first emphasized “the important role of women in the prevention and resolution of conflicts,” “stress[ed] the importance of their equal participation and full involvement in all […] peace and security,” efforts, and called on stakeholders to “increase their role in decision-making with regard to conflict prevention and resolution.” Building on this foundation, in subsequent outcomes adopted on women, peace and security the Security Council called for more concrete action by the Secretary-General, peacekeeping and political missions, the Department for Political Affairs (DPA), the Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), and Member States in order to ensure women, and women’s civil society participation.

In the context of action on specific countries, women and girls’ empowerment has been referenced as an important aspect of conflict prevention and resolution efforts in Liberia, Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, Sierra Leone, Libya, Mali, Timor-Leste, and Afghanistan. In these resolutions, the Security Council typically reinforced that women’s empowerment is necessary in order to “dismantle” the barriers to fully implementing the women, peace and security agenda; and further, asks or directs Member States or the relevant peacekeeping or political mission to ensure women’s empowerment is a consideration in their activities.

**Preventative Diplomacy and Mediation**

Preventative diplomacy and mediation encompass “diplomatic action taken, at the earliest possible stage ‘to prevent disputes from arising between parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflicts and to limit the spread of the latter when they occur.’” The UN Security Council has previously recognized and reinforced the importance of increasing and supporting the equal participation, representation and full involvement of women in preventative diplomacy efforts, underlining its concern regarding the low numbers of women leaders and participants in preventative diplomacy and mediation processes. There are two particular areas in which the

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Security Council has the opportunity to better address women and girls’ empowerment in the context of preventative diplomacy: support for good offices and mediation efforts.

**Support for good offices**

As Chapter VI of the *Charter of the United Nations* (1945), the Security Council and the Secretary-General can deploy Special Representatives and Envoys to carry out good offices and mediation, with the administrative and substantive support of the UN Department of Political Affairs. The Security Council has called for an increase in the number of women appointed to senior-level positions within the United Nations, including as Special Representatives and Envoys; inclusion of information on women, peace, peace and security issues in briefings to the UN Security Council; and consultations between special representatives and envoys and with civil society organizations at the mission-level. For example, as part of its role supporting the peace process, the UN Good Offices mission in Cyprus continues to support women’s civil society efforts to integrate gender across the agenda of the peace process, specifically by liaising with the Gender Advisory Team, a group of women activists and civil society leaders, and the negotiators, in order to communicate specific recommendations for inclusion in the discussion. Another example of the use of good offices to support women and girls’ empowerment can be seen in the context of Yemen, where the Special Envoy has made an effort to strengthen women’s participation in the peace process as members of the negotiation team.

The Security Council has several opportunities to ensure its good office efforts are promoting women’s empowerment, including in the mandates for good offices missions and the terms of reference for special representatives and envos. In terms of mandates for good offices mission, the Council has the ability to express its intent to ensure there is gender expertise supporting all good offices efforts, as well as training for all special envoys and representatives on women, peace and security issues, particularly in the context of conflict prevention efforts. The Council can also require good offices missions support the development or implementation of national and regional action plans on women, peace, and security, as well as regularly consult with women civil society organizations throughout their work. Further, another option for the Security Council is to express its intent to include a “specific responsibility drafted into the Terms of Reference” of every special representative and envoy, “to advance women’s engagement in national decision-making processes, and specifically all aspects of conflict resolution, power-sharing, national dialogue, reconciliation” and conflict prevention efforts.

**Mediation**

In situations where the United Nations is involved in mediation efforts, either as the lead actor, or in coordination with regional and subregional organizations, the Security Council can appoint or formally recognize the mediator for a specific situation, as well as call for expertise, consultation processes, and reinforce important cross-cutting issues that should be embedded throughout the process, such as inclusion or equality. The overall participation of women in peace processes is increasing, however, at present, less than 5% of all peace processes were led by female mediators. Pursuant to multiple resolutions and presidential statements adopted under the agenda items women, peace and security and conflict prevention, the Council has emphasized the importance of: appointing women as

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183 Ibid.

184 Ibid.


high-level mediators, as well as on mediation teams; training on gender and women’s rights for mediators and mediation teams; supporting the participation of women and women’s civil society; and including gender-sensitive provisions in any mediation effort outcome. Currently, the Security Council has included provisions calling for women’s participation in mediation efforts in resolutions adopted on the situation in Darfur, Mali, and the Central African Republic. The emphasis, in this context, tends to be on calling for the government and other stakeholders to support the engagement of civil society, including women and women-led organizations. However, this only addresses one way in which the UN Security Council can promote women’s empowerment in the context of mediation processes.

There are examples of good practice related to women’s empowerment and mediation to draw from. For example, in Burundi, through the Women Network for Peace and Dialogue, which is supported by the UN Peacebuilding Fund and UN-Women, over 530 women mediators have been trained and are now working across the country, addressing, by their estimate over 5,000 local level disputes in 2015 and facilitating dialogues in 17 provinces with actors from politics, security and civil society. Similarly, the OSCE Centre in Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan serves as another example: utilizing its existing network of women’s groups across the country to facilitate training on mediation skills as a way to engage women in community-level conflict prevention mechanisms.

The Security Council has the ability to expand the existing normative framework in order to provide further detail regarding the specific ways in which mediation efforts can better address women’s empowerment with a focus on the terms of reference for all mediators, procedures and processes related to mediation efforts, and the content of agreements being discussed. In terms of the expectations of mediators, the Council can also call on UN-appointed mediators to “report on their consultations and outreach to women’s groups,” as per the obligations laid out in Security Council resolution 2122 (2013). Further, the Council can call on UN-appointed mediators to “advise all parties to dialogue/peace talks/constitutional reform about the value of temporary special measures to increase the numbers of women on negotiating parties,” and further support and provide advice for local women’s organizations on “the range of temporary special measures available and their effectiveness.” Relatedly, the Council can require all mediators to “meet with representatives of a cross-section of women’s organizations within the first 30 days of any deployment, and to follow this with periodic (at least four times a year), scheduled, and minuted meetings,” in order to share perspectives on conflict prevention efforts, as well as provide “information about opportunities to engage in upcoming dialogue, donor conferences, and informal and formal peace processes.”

As support for the mediation efforts, the Council can “commit to include a gender advisor on the mediation team as well as to include women who are experts in political analysis and other areas covered by the team,” and further “ensure that technical experts on a mediators’ team are trained on the gender-related aspects of their technical area, and that these technical experts themselves have the relevant technical knowledge on the impact of women’s participation and the skills to support effective inclusion.”

Preventing Conflict by Addressing Structural and Root Causes

Long-term conflict prevention strategies, also referred to as “structural” or “systematic” conflict prevention approaches, encompass efforts to address the root causes of conflict and underlying causes of war and violence, such as extremism, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, corruption, and organized crime. The UN Secretary-General has repeatedly reinforced that addressing the root causes of conflict comprise the majority of the work of

187 Ibid.
189 Ibid.
190 UN-Women, Women mediators promote peace in Burundi, 2016.
191 OSCE, OSCE Centre in Bishkek trains women in southern Kyrgyzstan on conflict prevention and mediation, 2016.
193 Ibid.
194 Ibid.
195 Ibid.
the UN system on conflict prevention. Approaches to conflict prevention that seek to address the root causes of conflict both reinforce and overlap with peacebuilding and sustainable development interventions, and ideally address underlying political, social and economic inequalities with the aim to transform corrupt, exclusionary, and unjust institutions and systems. This approach to conflict prevention “focuses on risks that transcend borders, potentially leading to or exacerbating conflict.” The causes and consequences of conflict and armed violence are highly gendered, and as a result, long-term conflict prevention efforts, must recognize, as a cross-cutting issues, the gender dynamics of all root causes, “including the male social roles that often shape [conflict] and the structural subordination of women and girls,” such as militarized masculinities and femininities, as well as the gendered beliefs, structures, and practices.

The Council can reinforce the importance of supporting “nonviolent, non-militarized expressions of masculinity,” in recognition of the relationship between violent masculinities and conflict. Further, the Security Council has the opportunity to recognize some important connections between high military spending and the “destabilizing impact on international peace and security and women’s rights,” calling for Member States to “adopt gender-responsive budgeting practices, including through consultation with civil society.” Further, the Council can reinforce the importance of ensuring women’s empowerment and participation is mainstreamed across efforts to protect and manage natural resources.

**Strengthening Early Warning Systems**

Early warning systems, in practical terms, are efforts to systematically collect data, analyze that data, and develop a risk assessment that includes recommendations on ways to prevent the outbreak of conflict. In societies that are experiencing rising levels of insecurity, women may be the first to be affected, as part of the “continuum of gendered violence,” women experience over the course of their lives. Gender-sensitive conflict analysis “can reveal otherwise unseen conflict drivers and triggers,” and by ensuring women’s participation in early warning efforts, “women can help identify changing dynamics in grassroots, familial and community level relations that may contribute to national level tensions.” In South Sudan, for example, the UN Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) supports the Community Women Peace Dialogue Forum, which “engages women to identify early warning signs to solve community conflicts and lead campaigns to prevent sexual and gender-based violence.”

The Security Council has a variety of ways in which it can gather information that can serve as early warning of potential conflict or instability, however, the extent to which these methods are consistently utilized varies and remains ad-hoc. Early engagement by the Security Council, in discussing country situations at risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict, has been a key recommendation resulting from the three peace and security reviews that were carried out in 2015. The Security Council’s early warning approach includes: monthly briefings with DPA, often termed “Horizon scanning briefings;” receipt of written information and analysis regarding a specific country situation; and briefings by senior-level officials in both formal and informal settings. As an example of the type of information that the UN Security Council is able to request, in March 2016, the Director-

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202 Ibid.
206 Ibid.
207 Ibid., p. 199.
General of the UN Food and Agriculture Organization and the President of the UN Security Council decided that the FAO will provide a report every quarter with information on food security in the countries on the agenda of the Security Council.211 In addition to its own early warning efforts, the Council has also increasingly included provisions in the mandates for peacekeeping and political operations that are related to early warning. As of July 2016, the mandates for the peacekeeping operations in Darfur, South Sudan, Cote d’Ivoire and Mali contain provisions which call for the development of early warning strategies in partnership with Member States and regional organizations as a way to inform mission activities generally, but particularly in order to inform human rights and protection of civilians efforts by determining activities such as patrolling.212

In Security Council resolution 2122 (2013), the Council articulated its intent to include provisions related to women’s empowerment in the mandate of peacekeeping and political missions, however, there have yet to be specific provisions calling for women’s empowerment as part of a mission’s early warning activities. Strengthening the existing language on this issue is one potential avenue for Security Council action, as is explicitly requiring all missions include gender analysis in their regular reporting.213 Further, the Council could express its intent to include mandate provisions which call for missions, in partnership with the UN system and Member States, “collaborate, including through financial, technical and political support, to strengthen the capacity of women’s civil society to organize and play a greater role in national and community-led election monitoring and electoral violence prevention, dispute resolution and mediation initiatives.”214

The Security Council has the opportunity to explicitly call for Member States, the UN, regional and international organizations to ensure early warning indicators “include women’s participation, gender-responsive indicators and sexual and gender-based violence related indicators (including conflict-related sexual violence),” with “links to official channels for response at the local, national, regional and international level.”215 Building on this, the Security Council can also choose to creatively utilize its power to establish special representatives and envoy positions, by establishing a network of special envoys to explicitly gather information as part of early warning efforts.216

Conclusion

There is a consensus amongst civil society organizations, Member States, and the UN system, articulated in the context of the High-level Review on 1325 (2000) which took place in 2015, that there has been an inconsistent and inadequate attention to the issue of conflict prevention. By strengthening the normative policy framework, and detailing specific strategies and actions for empowering women and girls’ in conflict prevention efforts, the Security Council is able expand its own efforts to address this issue in its own work, and further influence the way in which regional and subregional organizations, as well as Member States, empower women and girls in regional and local conflict prevention efforts.

Further Research

To explore this topic further, delegates should consider the following questions: What are the current gaps, in the existing normative framework, contained in resolutions and presidential statements adopted, in terms of language on women’s empowerment and conflict prevention? What are the different options the Security Council has for strengthening the responsibilities that peacekeeping and political missions have for supporting women’s empowerment in conflict prevention efforts? How can the Security Council ensure UN-led mediation efforts promote women’s participation and empowerment? What good practice can the Security Council lay out for regional mediation efforts? The Security Council has increasingly addressed root causes of conflict at the thematic and country-specific level; how can the Security Council better integrate gender into its policymaking in this area?

211 FAO, FAO to provide UN Security Council with regular analysis on food security status in countries in conflict, 2016.
Annotated Bibliography


This report provides a comprehensive overview of the normative conflict prevention framework, in the context of the UN Security Council. Published by the International Peace Institute as part of its research on multilateral diplomacy, the report provides concrete recommendations on ways the Security Council can advance its work on conflict prevention. Delegates will be able to draw on this report to develop a greater understanding of the tools available to the Security Council, which can then be utilized to advance women’s empowerment and participation.


In advance of the 15th anniversary of Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), civil society organizations were invited to submit research and analysis to feed into the review of the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda. This paper was submitted to draw attention to the issue of conflict prevention, which is often overlooked in broader peace and security decision-making. Delegates will find the paper useful in providing a conceptual and analytical framework to better understand the linkages between gender and conflict prevention as it relates to policymaking.


Security Council resolution 2242 (2015) is the most recent resolution adopted under the agenda item “Women and peace and security.” The resolution focuses on strengthening the Security Council’s implementation of the women, peace and security agenda, and further strengthened existing language related to countering violent extremism and humanitarian assistance. This resolution provides the most recent and strongest language laying out the Security Council’s obligations related to implementing the women, peace and security agenda, and as such, will serve as an important guide for delegates.


Adopted on 15 June 2016, this statement by the President of the UN Security Council focuses on the role of women in conflict prevention in Africa. This presidential statement advances the existing normative framework on women and conflict prevention by specifically laying out concrete actions that the UN system as well as regional and subregional organizations, can take. Delegates should look to this presidential statement as a blueprint and starting point for the development of more detailed and concrete ideas on this topic.


Published by UN-Women in 2015, this report was the outcome of an extensive regional consultation process that took place over 18 months leading up to the 15th anniversary of Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) in October 2015. This report covers a wide range of key issues of relevance to the women, peace and security agenda, including women’s participation in peace processes; security sector reform; and disarmament. Delegates should carefully review the chapter focused on conflict prevention and utilize it as a helpful starting point to better understanding some of the options available to transform the way the Security Council currently addresses women’s empowerment in the context of conflict prevention efforts.
Bibliography


