GENERAL ASSEMBLY FIRST COMMITTEE
BACKGROUND GUIDE 2017

Written by: Dieyun Song, Leah Madelaine Schmidt, Shaun A. Martinez, and Ivan G. Zhivkov

NATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS
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Dear Delegates,

Welcome to the 2017 National Model United Nations New York Conference (NMUN•NY)! We are pleased to welcome you to the General Assembly First Committee (GA1). This year’s staff is: Directors Dieyun Song (Conference A) and Leah Schmidt (Conference B), and Assistant Directors Shaun Martinez (Conference A) and Ivan G. Zhivkov (Conference B). Dieyun completed her B.A. in Management and Economic Crime Prevention and Investigations in 2015 and is currently pursuing her M.A. in History with an emphasis on drug diplomacy. This will be her fourth year on staff. Leah is currently a student at the University of Calgary, specializing in research on women, peace, and security. This is her fourth year on staff. Shaun left the United States Marine Corps following a deployment to Afghanistan in 2012 and completed his B.S. degree in Political Science from Texas Christian University in the spring of 2016. Ivan is pursuing an M.A. in International Relations and works for the United States Global Leadership Coalition. This is his second year at NMUN-NY.

The topics under discussion for the General Assembly First Committee are:
I. The Role of Science and Technology in International Security and Disarmament
II. Global Nuclear Disarmament
III. Increasing Women’s Role in Disarmament and Nonproliferation

As one of the six principal organs of the United Nations, the General Assembly is the main deliberative, policymaking, and representative body of the organization. The General Assembly First Committee’s role within this framework is to foster high-level dialogue and negotiations on affairs of disarmament and international threats to peace. The General Assembly First Committee works within a forum for multilateral negotiations to ensure global peace and find solutions to any challenges to the international security regime. In order to accurately simulate the committee, it will be key for delegates to emulate the normative and best practice-setting approaches of the General Assembly, as opposed to operational work.

This Background Guide serves as an introduction to the topics for this committee. However, it is not intended to replace individual research. We encourage you to explore your Member State’s policies in depth and 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 by 11:59 p.m. (Eastern) on 1 March 2017 in accordance with the guidelines in the Position Paper Guide and the NMUN•NY Position Papers website.

Two essential resources for your preparation are the Delegate Preparation Guide and the NMUN Rules of Procedure available to download from the NMUN website. The Delegate Preparation Guide explains each step in the delegate process, from pre-Conference research to the committee debate and resolution drafting processes. The NMUN Rules of Procedure include the long and short form of the rules, as well as an explanatory narrative and example script of the flow of procedure. In tandem, these documents thus serve as essential instruments in preparing for the Conference and as a reference during committee sessions.

Please take note of information in the Delegate Preparation Guide on plagiarism and the prohibition of pre-written working papers and resolutions. Additionally, please review the NMUN Policies and Codes of Conduct on the NMUN website regarding the Conference dress code; awards philosophy and evaluation method; and codes of conduct for delegates, faculty, and guests regarding diplomacy and professionalism. Importantly, any instances of sexual harassment or discrimination based on race, gender, sexual orientation, national origin, religion, age, or disability will not be tolerated. Adherence to these policies is mandatory.

If you have any questions concerning your preparation for the committee or the Conference itself, please contact the Under-Secretaries-General for the General Assembly Department, Lauren Shaw (Conference A) and Felipe Ante (Conference B), at usg.ga@nmun.org.

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

Sincerely,

**Conference A**
Dieyun Song, Director
Shaun Martinez, Assistant Director

**Conference B**
Leah Schmidt, Director
Ivan G. Zhivkov, Assistant Director

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United Nations System at NMUN•NY

This diagram illustrates the UN system simulated at NMUN•NY and demonstrates the reportage and relationships between 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.
Abbreviations

ATT          Arms Trade Treaty
AU           African Union
BMS          Biennial Meeting of States
BWC          Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction
CD           Conference on Disarmament
CEDAW        Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
CSO          Civil society organization
CTBT         Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty
CWC          Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction
DDR          Disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration
DPRK         Democratic People’s Republic of Korea
EU           European Union
GGE          Group of Governmental Experts
IAEA         International Atomic Energy Agency
IANWGE       Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality
ICAN         International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons
ICJ          International Court of Justice
IMI          International Monitoring Instrument
IMS          International Monitoring System
INF          Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces
ISIL         Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant
MGE          Meeting of Governmental Experts
NATO         North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NGO          Non-governmental organization
NGOWG        NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security
NPT          Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons
NTI          Nuclear Threat Initiative
NWFZ         Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone
OSCE         Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
PSSM         Physical Security and Stockpile Management
PTBT         Partial Test-Ban Treaty
RCW          Reaching Critical Will
RFID         Radio-frequency identification
SALT         Strategic Arms Limitation Talks
SALW         Small Arms and Light Weapons
SDG          Sustainable Development Goal
SG           Secretary-General
SORT         Strategic Offensive Reduction Treaty
STP          Strategic Technologies Program
UN           United Nations
UN-Women     United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDC         United Nations Disarmament Commission
UNIDIR       United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research
UNIFEM       United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNLIREC      United Nations Regional Centre for Peace, Disarmament, and Development in Latin America
UNODA        United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs
UNRCPD       United Nations Regional Centre for Peace and
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Acronym Expansion</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNREC</td>
<td>United Nations Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>WILPF</td>
<td>Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIN</td>
<td>Women in Nuclear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WMD</td>
<td>Weapon of mass destruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WMDC</td>
<td>Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSP</td>
<td>Women Scholarship for Peace</td>
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Committee Overview

Introduction

The United Nations (UN) General Assembly has existed since the creation of the UN and is one of the six principal organs of the UN established by the **Charter of the United Nations** (1945). The General Assembly is divided into six Main Committees. Each of the Main Committees has a specific focus and reports on its work to the General Assembly Plenary.

The First Committee considers all matters related to disarmament and international security. After the devastation of the Second World War and the shock of the atomic bomb, the desire to build a permanent system of security and peace that initiated with the League of Nations grew even stronger. In this context, disarmament had a vital role in the very founding of the UN and has featured as one of the most prominent issues discussed on the international agenda in the last few decades. Indeed, the first resolution adopted by the General Assembly addressed the issue of atomic energy and its potential threats. Additionally, General Assembly resolution 1378(XIV) of 20 November 1959 on “General and Complete Disarmament” was the first resolution co-sponsored by all Member States and considered the question of disarmament the most important question facing the world at the time. Consequently, the General Assembly established the United Nations Disarmament Commission (UNDC) in 1952 with a general mandate to discuss topics related to disarmament. Furthermore, in its 26th session, the General Assembly declared the 1970s as a Disarmament Decade. During this time additional institutions were established; in 1979 the Conference on Disarmament (CD) was created as the international community’s multilateral negotiation forum on disarmament, and in 1980, the United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) was created with the purpose of undertaking independent research on questions related to disarmament. Several other disarmament-related entities and other organizations also report to the General Assembly through the First Committee, such as the regional centers on disarmament and the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization.

Additionally, the ratification of the **Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons** (NPT) in 1970 was a fundamental cornerstone in the field of nuclear disarmament. Efforts leading to this vital agreement started a decade earlier, and an important element in its development took place in the First Committee. In 1958, when nuclear non-proliferation was on the agenda for the first time, the First Committee recommended the creation of an ad hoc committee studying the dangers of nuclear dissemination, but this resolution failed to be adopted by the General Assembly Plenary. Over subsequent years, this subject was recurrent, and the First Committee adopted a series of resolutions recognizing its central role in pushing negotiations on non-proliferation forward.

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7. UN General Assembly, *Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problem Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy (A/1/1)*, 1946.
11. Ibid.
15. Ibid.
16. Ibid.
More recently, extremism and the potential for extremist groups to obtain and use nuclear weapons or other weapons of mass destruction (WMDs) have become a significant matter of concern for the General Assembly as demonstrated by its adoption of the “United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy” on 20 September 2006.\(^{17}\)

The role of the First Committee in this regard can be seen with the adoption of resolution 59/80 of 16 December 2004 on “Measures to Prevent Terrorists from Acquiring Weapons of Mass Destruction.”\(^{18}\) This is further stressed with the subsequent adoption of the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism (ICSANT) (2005).\(^{19}\)

As the only main body with universal membership, the General Assembly is a unique forum for discussion within the UN system.\(^{20}\) As such, it represents the normative center of the UN and its main role in the maintenance of international peace and security can be summarized in three principal aspects: a generator of ideas, a place of international debate, and the nucleus of new concepts and practices.\(^{21}\) All these points will be further developed in the following sections of this overview. First, a brief explanation of the governance, structure, and membership of the First Committee will be presented followed by an explanation of its mandate, functions, and powers. Before concluding, a discussion about current efforts and recent activities will offer a more contemporary perspective on work of the committee.

**Governance, Structure, and Membership**

As outlined in the Charter, the General Assembly is comprised of all 193 UN Member States.\(^{22}\) However, Observer status can also be granted to intergovernmental organizations such as the African Union and states without full UN membership; currently the Holy See and the State of Palestine are the only two non-Member States with permanent Observer status.\(^{23}\) In the General Assembly, each Member State has one equal vote.\(^{24}\)

Since its 44\(^{th}\) session in 1989, the General Assembly is considered in session the entire year, but the most important time is the General Debate, which takes place from mid-September to the end of December and is called the “main part of the General Assembly.”\(^{25}\) The remainder of the year is called the “resumed part of the General Assembly;” during this time working group meetings take place and thematic debates are held.\(^{26}\) Except for decisions on important matters, votes in the General Assembly require a simple majority and the majority of resolutions are adopted without a vote, illustrating the consensual nature of the General Assembly.\(^{27}\) Elaborated by the General Assembly Fifth Committee, the budget allocated to disarmament for the biennium 2016-2017 is $24.6 million and is mainly attributed to the UN Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) and UNIDIR.\(^{28}\)

The First Committee receives substantive and organizational support from three important entities: the General Committee, UNODA, and the Department for General Assembly and Conference Management.\(^{29}\) The General Committee is comprised of the President of the General Assembly and the 21 Vice-Presidents of the General Assembly as well as the Chairpersons of all the six General Assembly Main Committees; all positions are elected every session on a non-renewable basis.\(^{30}\) The General Committee’s main duty, besides making recommendations on organizational issues, is to deal with the agenda of the General Assembly Plenary and its six Main Committees.\(^{31}\) After receiving a preliminary list of agenda items from the UN Secretariat, the General Committee allocates the

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\(^{22}\) *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Art. 9.


\(^{24}\) *Charter of the United Nations*, 1945, Art. 18.


\(^{26}\) Ibid.

\(^{27}\) Ibid.

\(^{28}\) UN General Assembly, *Proposed Programme Budget for the biennium 2016-2017 (A/708/6 (Sect. 4))*, 2015, p. 3.

\(^{29}\) Ibid.

\(^{30}\) Ibid.

\(^{31}\) Ibid.
different items to each Main Committee. The agenda items that correspond to one of seven clusters discussed below are allocated to the First Committee, which in turn votes upon its own agenda. Within the UN Secretariat, UNODA provides “objective, impartial and up-to-date” information and promotes the implementation of practical measures on nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation, disarmament in the field of conventional weapons, and the general strengthening of mechanisms and frameworks bolstering disarmament. It further encourages norm setting at the General Assembly, CD, and UNDC. Additionally, the Department for General Assembly and Conference Management also provides valuable technical secretariat support and acts as the intersection between the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council.

**Mandate, Functions, and Powers**

The mandate of the General Assembly is set in Chapter IV of the *Charter of the United Nations;* Article 11 requires the General Assembly to address questions of international peace and security and in particular disarmament. This mandate has evolved over time, and the growing range of issues facing the international community ultimately gave the First Committee its focus on disarmament and international security. The question of disarmament is organized in seven clusters: nuclear weapons, other WMDs, disarmament aspects in outer space, conventional weapons, regional disarmament and security, other disarmament measures and security, and the disarmament machinery. The mandate of the General Assembly allows it to be a conduit for ideas that can become the driver of new policies and shared norms through discussion and debate. This can be regarded as one of the main differences with the Security Council. The Security Council is more concerned with concrete threats to security such as ongoing conflicts, whereas the General Assembly aims to create peace by forming habits of cooperation. In other words, while the Security Council can authorize the use of force in the fight against terrorism and freeze assets to prevent illicit arms trade, the First Committee will work towards the development of international conventions to prevent terrorists from acquiring nuclear weapons and other WMDs. It is important to note, however, that the General Assembly considers matters of international security only when the issue is not under the consideration of the Security Council.

The General Assembly and its six Main Committees are the center of the UN System and represent its main deliberative, policymaking, and representative organs; their outcomes thus define new norms that can become treaties or conventions among UN Member States. The General Assembly is tasked with initiating studies and making recommendations to promote international cooperation in the political field; encouraging the development of international law; promoting the implementation of cultural, social, and human rights; and promoting fundamental freedoms free from discrimination. The body “receives and considers reports” issued by “the other principal organs established under the *Charter of the United Nations* as well as reports issued by its own subsidiary bodies.”

The General Assembly Plenary receives recommendations from the six Main Committees, which can recommend the General Assembly Plenary address the functions or priorities of UN funds and programs. Once the

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32 Ibid, p. 36.
33 Ibid.
35 Ibid.
36 UN DGACM, *Functions of the Department,* 2014.
37 *Charter of the United Nations,* 1945, Art. 11.
41 Ibid.
42 Ibid.
48 *Charter of the United Nations,* 1945, Art. 4; UN General Assembly, *Functions and Powers of the General Assembly,* 2013; UN General Assembly, *Statement by the Chairperson of the Fourth Committee (7 May),* 2013; UN General Assembly,
recommendations are sent to the Plenary Committee, the Plenary then votes on whether to adopt the resolutions as presented. 49 Although decisions reached by the General Assembly are non-binding, they are often adopted as customary international law and serve as a good indicator of key international policy norms. 50 Additionally, the General Assembly can request the Secretary-General or other UN organs to issue a report to one of the Main Committees on a specified question such as the implementation of recommendations made by the General Assembly. 51

The First Committee is capable of introducing resolutions that initiate new negotiations on arms control and disarmament that, in turn, can lead to the creation and funding of agencies or meetings as well as ad hoc committees or working groups that consider a particular question with the purpose of reporting to the General Assembly. 52 The General Assembly Plenary must also adopt resolutions adopted in the First Committee before they are put into effect. 53 It is additionally important to remember that even when adopted by the Plenary, General Assembly resolutions are not legally binding. 54 Only Security Council resolutions enacted under Article 7 of the Charter are legally binding. 55 Nonetheless, the consensus reached in the First Committee often leads to more concrete initiatives at the UN. 56

The First Committee also works in close cooperation with the UNDC and the CD. 57 The CD has a crucial role in addressing issues of disarmament and has been central to negotiations of international agreements such as the NPT. 58 Unlike the CD, the UNDC is a subsidiary organ of the First Committee and is composed of all 193 Member States. 59 Essentially making recommendations to the General Assembly, it has been important in the formulation of principles and guidelines that have subsequently been endorsed by the committee in its own reports. 60 Both bodies report either annually or more frequently to the First Committee. 61 Additionally, as a crucial partner with the UN system, civil society organizations have an important relationship with the General Assembly and are often invited to speak at the General Assembly. 62

Recent Sessions and Current Priorities

The strategic framework of the Biennial Programme Plan, adopted on 14 February 2014, covers the years 2016-2017 and consists of five subprograms: multilateral negotiations on arms limitation and disarmament, WMDs, conventional arms, information and outreach and, regional disarmament. 63 In this regard, the main objectives of the First Committee are to: support efforts on agreements towards disarmament, promote non-proliferation of nuclear weapons and other WMDs, facilitate mutual confidence among Member States and the regulation of conventional weapons, increase understanding of Member States and the public on disarmament issues, and promote regional disarmament as a fundamental means towards global disarmament. 64

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49 UN General Assembly, About the General Assembly, 2016.
53 Ibid.
54 Ibid.
55 Charter of the United Nations, 1945, Ch. VII.
56 UN General Assembly, About the General Assembly, 2016.
59 Ibid.
60 Ibid.
64 Ibid.
During the most recently completed 70th session, the First Committee adopted a total of 57 resolutions. All of the seven clusters were discussed with nuclear disarmament being the most discussed cluster. The priorities laid out in the Biennial Programme Plan continue to be priority topics each session, in addition to emerging security issues reflective of the complex security environment the international community is confronted with today, such as nuclear terrorism and the relationship between gender and disarmament. Among the 57 adopted resolutions there are three major thematic areas, which are nuclear disarmament, information and international security, and minority groups and international security.

In recent years, a great emphasis has been placed on the role of information security in the context of greater levels of inter-connectedness among Member States. In 2011, the General Assembly requested the establishment of a Group of Governmental Experts (GGE) to study the existence of threats to Member States with respect to information security and report its findings at its 68th session. In 2013, the GGE submitted to the General Assembly its report, Group of Governmental Experts on Developments in the Field of Information and Telecommunications in the Context of International Security. In 2015, the GGE submitted a follow-up report which included several notable items, such as a declaration against the use of proxies on behalf of Member States to “commit internationally wrongful acts using ICTs [(information and communication technologies)],” and the importance of international law as it applies to the security of ICTs. In addition to these reports, the Secretary-General (SG) submits annually to the General Assembly their report on the view of Member States with respect to information security. General Assembly resolution 70/237 of 23 December 2015 requested the SG to form a new GGE that would report to the General Assembly in 2017, and this new GGE had its first meeting in August 2016. During the 70th session, General Assembly resolutions 70/273 and 70/21 both addressed the vital role of information technology in the context of international security and disarmament.

Equally important, the entry into force of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban-Treaty (1996) continues to be a priority for the First Committee and resolution 69/48 of 11 December 2014 on “Nuclear Disarmament” calls for its early entry into force. Previously, a group comprising internationally recognized experts in the fields of disarmament, WMDs, and nuclear proliferation as well as political personalities was formed. This Group of Eminent Persons promotes the treaty’s entry into force. A milestone document, Universal Declaration on the Achievement of a Nuclear-Weapon-Free World, was adopted on 7 December 2015, which reiterates the importance of further establishing nuclear-weapon-free zones, especially in the Middle East. General Assembly resolution 70/73 of 11 December 2015 requested the UN SG prepare a report for the 71st session to highlight the significance of the universalization of the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban-Treaty, as well as accelerating the full implementation of the plan. In relation to nuclear security, one of the most important recent events was the Review Conference of the Parties to the NPT, held 27 April to 22 May 2015. Despite its importance, States parties were

65 UN General Assembly, Resolutions: 70th Session, 2016.
67 Ibid.
68 UN General Assembly, Resolutions: 70th Session, 2016.
69 UN General Assembly, Developments in the field of information and telecommunications in the context of international security (A/RES/66/24), 2011.
71 Ibid.
76 CTBTO, Group of Eminent Persons, 2014.
77 Ibid.
78 UN General Assembly, Universal Declaration on the Achievement of a Nuclear-Weapon-Free World (A/RES/70/57), 2015.
80 UN DPI, Consensus Eludes Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty Review Conference as Positions Harden on Ways to Free Middle East of Mass Destruction Weapons (DC/3561), 2015.
not able to reach an agreement on the draft Final Document. Following up to agreements made during the 1995, 2000, and 2010 Review Conferences of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, General Assembly resolution 70/38 of 11 December 2015 outlines a six-step plan to promote international security.

Additionally, the continuous emergence of armed conflicts imposes a great amount of threat on all individuals’ safety, especially marginalized groups, such as women, children, and people with disabilities. A landmark document specifically highlighting women’s role and the significance of ending violence against women is Security Council resolution 1325, which urges all Member States to streamline gender sensitivity in peacekeeping, conflict resolution, post-conflict reconstruction, and humanitarian assistance. A major challenge facing the UN currently is the gap between gender sensitivity and disarmament, and this should be a priority in future debate and policy makings. In order to fill in the disconnectedness, it is crucial for General Assembly First Committee to engage civil society and to maximize available resources to collaboratively form comprehensive human-centered disarmament policies, as well as accelerating the implementation of the existing international frameworks would be vital. The First Committee can encourage Member States to take action, including addressing violence against women in treaties and policies, as well as reiterating gender diversity during discussions.

Finally, issues surrounding human security as it relates to sustainable development have become a key component of the post-2015 development agenda. In September 2015, the General Assembly adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as a follow-up to the expiring Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). While the SDGs focus largely on sustainable development indicators, the role of security is highlighted particularly in SDG 11, “Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable,” and SDG 16, “Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.” As such, while many of the SDGs do not specifically reference matters within the First Committee’s purview, the maintenance of international security is a foundational issue as conflict negatively impacts human and economic development.

Conclusion

Disarmament has been an important issue for the UN and for the achievement of international peace since its founding. As new threats arise and complicate the question of disarmament, addressing disarmament has become even more important. Efforts such as those made in the field of nuclear disarmament or non-proliferation are a testimony of the General Assembly’s dedication towards a nuclear weapons free world. As a place where new ideas are shaped, the General Assembly has the ability to introduce standards and norms to promote disarmament and eventually a more peaceful world. In the recently concluded 70th session, delegates’ participation in debate increased by 40% more than that of the 69th session, and the spirit of achieving a “global public good of the highest order,” as well as the dedication to working towards collaboration and consensus led to a successful session. Nevertheless, it has been argued that the First Committee has not been able to achieve its full potential and has only been reaffirming its resolutions year after year with no introduction of new or improved substantive work. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the First Committee to achieve new advancements towards the pursuit of international peace and security while continually seeking consensus in collaboration with the whole of the international community.

81 Ibid.
82 UN General Assembly, Follow-up to nuclear disarmament obligations agreed to at the 1995, 2000, and 2010 Review Conferences of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (A/RES/70/38), 2015.
83 Reaching Critical Will, Statement on Gender and Disarmament to the UN General Assembly First Committee, 2015.
85 Reaching Critical Will, Statement on Gender and Disarmament to the UN General Assembly First Committee, 2015.
86 Ibid.
87 Ibid, p. 39
89 UNDP, Sustainable Development Goals, 2016.
90 Ibid.
92 UN DPI, On Recommendation of First Committee, General Assembly Adopts More than 50 Drafts, including New One on “Ethical Imperatives” for Nuclear Disarmament, 2015.
93 Reaching Critical Will, UN General Assembly First Committee, 2014.
Annotated Bibliography

This handbook, published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade of New Zealand, is an attempt to contribute to the strengthening of information available to the international community on the UN system. It provides extensive information on the structure and membership as well the purpose of UN organs. As such, it represents the perfect introduction to the UN system as a whole for individuals less familiar with its complexity. Therefore, delegates should consider this a must-read during preparation for the conference.

Inspired by the documentary Planet UN, this book offers an in-depth analysis of the role of the United Nations and its challenges for the 21st century. It gives special attention to three pillars: peace, development, and human rights. It also stresses the importance of the UN’s ability to adapt itself to our changing world and to react to new threats such as terrorism or nuclear risks. An account of the genesis of the UN also allows delegates to understand how the UN was started with the intent of creating a system to maintain peace and security and to become the organization it is today. Furthermore, this book contains a series of testimonies of important personalities such as the last five Secretaries-General of the UN.

This publication undertaken by the Permanent Mission of Switzerland to the UN is another contribution by a Member State of introductory information about the UN system. The General Assembly is a central focus of this handbook. A detailed description of its organization, structure, rules, and working methods can be found. Further providing information specific to all six Main Committees, this handbook offers a unique source of information to delegates to understand the work of the General Assembly and its place within the UN system.

Ramesh Thakur, a renowned commentator on the UN, examines the UN from a contemporary perspective and looks at it from new angles such as human security. The author’s focus is on questions related to international peace and security. By doing so, he critically analyzes the use of force by the UN with the intention of making it more effective in the light of today’s threats and with a particular focus on security and how it has evolved over the years and the role of the UN system including the General Assembly. His book is a valuable guide to the UN and will be of useful reading to delegates and offers an interesting perspective on international peace.

The Proposed Strategic Framework is drafted biennially and outlines the priorities of each year. In the section on disarmament, there are two main segments, which are overall orientation and legislative mandates. Under the overall orientation, five priority subprograms are listed, which include multilateral negotiations on arms limitations and disarmament, weapons of mass destruction, conventional arms, information and outreach, and regional disarmament. Delegates will gain more knowledge on the General Assembly’s current priority for the year from this document, and have a clearer direction on moving the research forward.

Bibliography


I. The Role of Science and Technology in International Security and Disarmament

“Every gun that is made, every warship launched, every rocket fired signifies, in the final sense, a theft from those who hunger and are not fed, those who are cold and are not clothed. This world in arms is not spending money alone. It is spending the sweat of its laborers, the genius of its scientists, the hopes of its children.”

Introduction

The United Nations (UN) first noted the role of science and technology in the General Assembly’s initial resolution 1 (I), “Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy” adopted on 24 January 1946, where Member States acknowledged the significant impact that harmful technological advancements can have on international security and disarmament. The First Committee acknowledged that technological and scientific progress need to be guided in a peaceful direction to ensure its benefit to humanity. While much of the First Committee’s early work concerning the potential of these advancements was centered around preventing technological arms races, recent innovations extend beyond the traditional scope of conflict and are expected to have a significant impact on policymaking and the operational success of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). Technological advancements are increasingly identified as crucial components in addressing all SDGs, and the UN profoundly recognizes the significant degree of cooperation required to facilitate their success in a world of constantly evolving communication, information, and industrial technologies.

To address the role of science and technology in international security and disarmament, this guide will start by presenting the international and regional frameworks adopted by the international community that shape the historical foundation and contemporary discussion on the topic, and then it will transition to describing the roles of the General Assembly and other UN bodies, international and regional international organizations, and civil society organizations (CSO) that cooperate to address science and technology’s relationship to international security and disarmament. The following sections will address the links between the SDGs and international security and disarmament, as well as will address beneficial and harmful innovation and the potential impacts on international security and disarmament.

International and Regional Framework

The consideration of science and technology’s role in disarmament and international security traces its origin back to 17 June 1925, with the League of Nations signing the Protocol for the Prohibition of the Use in War of Asphyxiating, Poisonous or Other Gases, and of Bacteriological Methods of Warfare (Geneva Protocol), in which the use of chemical and biological weapons and technology was prohibited in response to their observed usage in World War I. The Geneva Protocol is the international community’s earliest effort to establish prohibitive norms and deter the harmful use of science and technology. While it established international law prohibiting use of these technologies, it did not address potential future innovations; its scope was restricted to the technology that existed at the time.

The First Committee’s work on this topic began with the General Assembly’s first official resolution 1/(I), which emphasized the importance of monitoring scientific and technological advancements after atomic energy use in weapons during World War II. The risk posed by this destructive technology led the First Committee to adopt

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94 Eisenhower, Chance for Peace Speech, 1953.
95 UN General Assembly, Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy (A/RES/1(I)), 1946.
96 Ibid.
98 UN General Assembly, Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (A/RES/70/1), 2015.
100 Ibid.
101 Ibid.
102 UN General Assembly, Establishment of a Commission to Deal with the Problems Raised by the Discovery of Atomic Energy (A/RES/1(I)), 1946.
numerous multilateral treaties, policies, and conventions to on disarmament and non-proliferation that emphasize science and technology’s role.105 The most widely enforced treaties and conventions include including the Partial Test-Ban Treaty (PTBT) (1963), the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) (1968), the Convention on the Prohibition of Bac teriological and Toxin Weapons (BWC) (1972), the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction (CWC) (1992), and the Comprehensive Test-Ban Treaty (CTBT) (1996), as well as the creation of the Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects (PoA SALW) to address impacts on international security affected by the illicit transfer of arms.104 The multiple frameworks established by the General Assembly emphasize its important role in creating normative international policy.105

The PTBT was adopted on 5 August 1963 to be the swiftest response to the environmental danger posed by unrestricted atomic weapons testing.106 Both the BWC and CWC corrected policy deficiencies of the Geneva Protocol on allowable uses and sharing of chemical and biological technologies, some of which have both military and industrial applications.107 On 1 July 1968, the NPT was adopted by the First Committee and established the first global framework for nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation, while also emphasizing technology to be used in peaceful endeavors.108 During the 2015 NPT Review Conference that was held from 27 April to 22 May 2015, in its Final report of the Preparatory Committee for the 2015 Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, the preparatory committee focused on three specific issues including nuclear disarmament and security assurances, regional issues, as well as peaceful uses of nuclear energy.109 This report also contains dozens of working papers and reports that cover international and regional progress in implementing the NPT, confidence-building measures, as well as nuclear power implications.110 To correct regulatory gaps in the PTBT and NPT, the First Committee adopted the CTBT on 10 September 1996, which contained the International Monitoring System (IMS), guidance regarding inspections, as well as measures to build confidence.111 The CTBT has been ratified by 166 Member States, but due to concerns expressed over the lack of framework for time-bound disarmament requirements and conflicts with international laws, it has not been ratified by the states needed to bring it into force.112 On 20 July 2001, the First Committee created the PoA SALW which serves to focus on research and data collection on illicit arms transfer for the General Assembly in determining implications to policy and operations.113 The PoA SALW has since formed the Meeting of Governmental Experts (MGE) and the International


104 Ibid.


108 UN General Assembly, Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (A/RES/2373(XXII)), 1968.


110 Ibid.


112 Ibid.

Monitoring Instrument (IMI) to further enable Member States to report on their efforts at combatting illicit conventional arms trade.\textsuperscript{114}

On 17 October 1990, the Report of the Secretary-General on “Scientific and Technological Developments and Their Impact on International Security” provided insight on emerging technologies in nuclear, space, materials, information, and biotechnology.\textsuperscript{115} It emphasizes the evolving concerns over the direction of modern technology, citing an overriding anxiety that innovations “should assist rather than hinder the positive trends in international relations.”\textsuperscript{116} It illustrates major trends regarding innovations in nuclear, conventional, and advanced weapons technology as well as civilian applications, to emphasize the dual nature of scientific and technological advancements.\textsuperscript{117} The report also called for the UN to act as a catalyst of ideas regarding the criteria for technology assessment, in cooperation with external institutions that promotes peace and security.\textsuperscript{118}

Technological advancements are the subject of 15 targets under 10 separate SDGs in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2030 Agenda), adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015.\textsuperscript{119} The 2030 Agenda emphasizes global accessibility of information communication technology, multilateral cooperation on innovation, and supporting peaceful advancements that are critical to the maintenance of international security and disarmament, and subsequently the success of the SDGs.\textsuperscript{120} To achieve the goals set forth in the document, the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (2015), a global framework for financing endorsed by the General Assembly, was then incorporated in the 2030 Agenda.\textsuperscript{121} This global framework provides key policy commitments that provide financial and supplemental support to sustainable development mechanisms that promote international security and disarmament within the UN.\textsuperscript{122} Included in this framework is the Technology Facilitation Mechanism, which enables collaboration by Member States, international organizations, and CSOs that staff a task team on science, technology and innovation for the SDGs.\textsuperscript{123} The adoption of this framework increased the capability of the First Committee to monitor and maintain awareness of emerging technologies that may impact the promotion of security and disarmament.\textsuperscript{124}

\textit{Role of the International System}

The First Committee is charged with monitoring and engaging Member States in efforts towards disarmament and international security, including the innovations that affect these goals.\textsuperscript{125} The UN Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) works to strengthen nuclear disarmament and non-proliferation regimes, and was created through reform enacted by the Secretary-General, outlined in his report “Renewing the United Nations: A Programme for Reform” on 14 July 1997.\textsuperscript{126} The PoA SALW established the MGE which convenes professionals from all sectors of international and civil society to address advancements in arms tracing and tracking mechanisms.\textsuperscript{127} In the second

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{114} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{116} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{117} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{118} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{119} UN General Assembly, \textit{Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development} (A/RES/70/1), 2015.
\textsuperscript{120} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{121} UN General Assembly, \textit{Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development} (A/RES/69/313), 2015.
\textsuperscript{122} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{124} UN General Assembly, \textit{Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development} (A/RES/69/313), 2015.
\end{footnotesize}
MGE between 1-5 June 2015, the developments in conventional weapons manufacturing, technology and design, increased weapon durability, as well as how 3-D printing can impact arms proliferation, were topics of discussion.\textsuperscript{128}

Another important actor is the United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR), which reports research on potential solutions for evolving challenges in disarmament and proliferation.\textsuperscript{129} It is composed of many representatives from Member States, international organizations, think tanks, and CSOs.\textsuperscript{130} UNIDIR’s Strategic Technologies Program (STP) is an initiative run by the one of its members, the Center for Strategic & International Studies (CSIS), a think tank that synthesizes the research of CSOs and independent organizations with the UN.\textsuperscript{131} The STP’s purpose is to conduct ongoing research on developments in technology to effectively support policymakers, and its most recent contribution to UNIDIR’s Report of the International Security Cyber Issues Workshop Series in June 2015 provides insight on developments in cyber technology and its implications on policy.\textsuperscript{132}

Furthermore, regional efforts have manifested in unions of geographically proximate Member States, as described in General Assembly resolution 69/70 on “UN Regional Centers for Peace and Disarmament,” whose coordination is overseen by the Regional Disarmament Branch of the UNODA.\textsuperscript{133} Collective unions such as the UN Regional Centre for Peace, Disarmament, and Development in Latin America (UNLIREC), the UN Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Africa (UNREC), and the UN Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Asia and the Pacific (UNRCPD), provide support to Member States to address regional stability challenges and to develop effective mechanisms in regards to disarmament and security.\textsuperscript{134} UNLIREC recently contributed to a regional framework on competency testing of forensic ballistics to support regional disarmament progress and reporting.\textsuperscript{135} UNREC is 16 months into a 36-month initiative, the “Physical Security and Stockpile Management (PSSM) Activities to Reduce the Risk of Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) and their Ammunitions in the Sahel Region,” which is designed to build regional cooperation on small arms disarmament, with a noted emphasis in investigating technological advancement that could affect regional disarmament.\textsuperscript{136} Additionally, UNRCPD, between 13-15 September 2016, hosted the Pacific Capacity-Building Workshop for the Implementation of the Arms Trade Treaty, in which region-specific step, benefits, and challenges from joining the Arms Trade Treaty were discussed.\textsuperscript{137}

Outside of the UN system, other international agencies also make significant contributions in addressing disarmament and the use of technologies. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) is an international organization that works with the First Committee in research on emerging nuclear and atomic technologies and corresponding policy recommendations.\textsuperscript{138} The IAEA places emphasis on both harmful and peaceful applications of nuclear technology and innovations, which can potentially benefit energy and climate change concerns in SDGs 7 and 13.\textsuperscript{139} Furthermore, the Nuclear Threat Initiative (NTI) is a non-profit disarmament research and policy organization that provides support through funding and conducting research in disarmament policy and developing creative strategies.\textsuperscript{140} The NTI works to prevent “catastrophic attacks with weapons of mass destruction and

\textsuperscript{128} UN General Assembly, Second Open-Ended Meeting of Governmental Experts on the Implementation of the Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat, and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects (A/CONF.192/MGE/2015/L.3), 2015.

\textsuperscript{129} UNIDIR, About the Institute, 2016.

\textsuperscript{130} Ibid.


\textsuperscript{132} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{133} UNODA, Regional Disarmament Overview, 2016; UN General Assembly, United Nations Regional Centers for Peace and Disarmament. (A/RES/69/70), 2014.

\textsuperscript{134} UNODA, Regional Disarmament Overview, 2016.

\textsuperscript{135} UNLIREC, In The News: UNLIREC contributes to regional framework on competency testing in the area of forensic ballistics, 2016.

\textsuperscript{136} UNREC, Physical Security and Stockpile Management (PSSM) Activities to Reduce the Risk of Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) and their Ammunitions in the Sahel Region, 2016.

\textsuperscript{137} UNRCPD, Pacific Capacity-Building Workshop for the Implementation of the Arms Trade Treaty, 2016.


\textsuperscript{139} Ibid.

disruption” through policy-analysis and research. One of the NTI’s most significant contributions is the collaborative proposal with the IAEA of the Low-Enriched Uranium Bank, a safe and regulated centralized location for low-grade uranium to be transferred into peaceful applications, which eliminates the need to proliferate enrichment technology while providing peaceful applications the material needed to function.

Furthermore, CSOs also play a vital role in supporting the UN’s capacity to address disarmament and international security. For instance, Reaching Critical Will (RCW), founded by the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom in 1999, is a disarmament program that reports to the UN. RCW researches and advocates on disarmament and its impact on the world, and is a key influencer and advocate for disarmament affairs. The Ploughshares Fund, created in 1981 and headquartered in San Francisco, California, is a grant-making foundation recognized by Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon that networks and financially supports disarmament and security research experts and initiatives. The fund seeks to support international security and disarmament by promoting disarmament of nuclear arsenals through concrete measures in collaboration with world leaders, preventing the emergence of new nuclear-equipped states, and building peace and stability by funding confidence-building measures. Another example is the Institute for Economics & Peace, a think tank dedicated to quantifying the effects of violence and peace in terms of economic value, focuses its works on providing support to numerous international agencies as well as the UN.

**Beneficial Innovation Trends in Science and Technology Supporting International Security and Disarmament**

On 6 November 2013, the General Assembly received report PV.43 from the IAEA with information on opportunities to utilize peaceful nuclear applications to benefit disarmament and international security, such as converting weaponized nuclear material into low-grade material for power reactors. The use of radioactive isotopes has also made its way into multiple facets of infrastructure, especially the fields of construction, agricultural, medicine, and in sanitation, all of which are areas for development outlined within the SDGs. Due to the sensitive nature of nuclear technology proliferation and nuclear disarmament, however, it is appropriate for the First Committee to analyze current non-proliferation regulations that may inhibit peaceful applications. Simultaneously, the body can look to encourage opportunities to divert nuclear material into peaceful applications through the collaboration and sponsorship of research. Failures in stockpile management and tracking are significant contributing factors to continuing violence in current unstable regions and post-conflict scenarios. Supporting advancements in weapons tracking and stockpiling enables Member States to more effectively manage stockpiles that can tailor the cost to meet the states’ needs. The use of radio-frequency identification (RFID) systems has been recently proposed by the 2MGE as an efficient mechanism to establish and maintain effective weapons tracking and stockpile management systems.

In the 2015 UN World Water Development Report, UN Water notes the likelihood that the increasing water scarcity will result in new conflicts that threaten human rights, and that 60% of the world’s transboundary water basins lack...
even basic international and regional cooperative frameworks. Over 660 million people do not have access to sources of drinkable water, and at least 1.8 billion people drink from water sources that are contaminated by fecal matter. Addressing water scarcity is vital to preventing the conflict that will inevitably follow as access to water becomes more valuable. An increasingly popular solution for this scarcity of access by the international community is water desalination, in which the salt is filtered from seawater to produce potable water. This process is very energy-demanding, but by using economically stable and climate-friendly nuclear energy, climate change and water scarcity can be effectively addressed. Research into technologies such as this can positively address SDG targets 6.1 on achieving universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all, and 6.4 on expanding international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water-related desalination programs. Portable filtration devices, such as “LifeStraw,” are specifically engineered to enable individuals to safely drink from contaminated water sources. The LifeStraw device is engineered to last one year of constant use by one person, and the General Assembly can support innovations such as this that can have a significant impact on international security by guaranteeing access to critical resources.

**Innovation Trends of Science and Technology that Threaten International Security and Disarmament**

Potentially hazardous advancements show no sign of slowing, with ever-increasing resource dedication that threatens to offset efforts of disarmament and international security. One of the most infamous examples is the research and development of the technologically-advanced F-35 fighter jet by the United States and its partner states, which has drawn heavy criticism for being the most expensive weapons procurement program in recent history and represents an ongoing multilateral cooperative investment in high-tech weaponry. Additionally, the evolution of artificial intelligence has raised concerns over autonomous technology potentially making military decisions without human oversight, which would have major impacts on international security. The First Committee has also raised concerns over the use of space for weapons deployment and other military applications, and its implication on starting another arms race. Developments of this nature threaten the stability of international security by encouraging an outer space arms race, directly contend with the mission of the UN Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, and show how evolving technology threatens the effectiveness of international framework.

The potential of nuclear technology applications remains a very attractive proposition to many Member States that do not have access, as well as states and non-state actors that seek to use this technology maliciously, posing challenges for non-proliferation regimes and policies. Virtually all nuclear material is capable of enrichment to weapons-grade levels, and because peaceful enrichment uses the same processes and mechanisms as producing weapons, maintaining oversight and adherence to international regulations is critical to any programs the First

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158 Ibid.


163 UN DPI, *Amid Warnings of New Cold War, Speaker in First Committee Denounces Inventories of Nuclear Weapons in States Pursuing Non-Proliferation with ‘Messianic Zeal’* (GA/DIS/3525), 2015.


167 UN OOSA, *Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space*, 1959.

Committee chooses to support. Similar hazards exist in the realms of biological and chemical weapons, in which processes used to produce vaccines or fertilizers can also be used to produce weapons. These types of dual-use technologies are a growing concern for the international community as more states pursue peaceful utilization.

Implications of Disarmament and International Security on the Sustainable Development Goals

The UNODA’s vision statement highlights the reallocation of resources from nuclear and conventional arms into peaceful applications, which has substantial implications on the success of the SDGs. According to the International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons, nuclear armed nations spend nearly $330 million daily on maintenance alone. In 2002, the World Bank assessed that half of the annual amount spent on maintaining nuclear weapons would have been enough to meet the internationally agreed upon Millennium Development Goals, the predecessors to the SDGs, by the target date of 2015. Through resource liberation of maintenance costs, investment in converting nuclear material into peaceful applications can address SDG 16, targets 16.1 and 16.2, on ensuring equal rights to economic resources and 1.A on ensuring significant mobilization of resources to provide adequate and consistent development funding, as well as SDG 17, targets 17.1 and 17.3, also concerning strengthening resource mobilization.

SDG 7, target 7.1 on universal access to reliable and affordable energy, and SDG 13 on Climate Action, specifically target 13.3 concerning improving human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation and impact reduction, can experience significant benefit as well by investigating the capability of nuclear energy to replace non-renewable, carbon-producing fuels. According to the World Nuclear Association, an independent firm dedicated in uniting nuclear power producers and research agencies for efforts on climate change, current nuclear generation “avoids [the emission of] over two billion tons of carbon dioxide each year.” Conventional weapons are the most frequently used tools of war, and poor stockpile management and illicit arms continue to exacerbate present day conflicts. Investigating innovations that can assist with the accessibility and efficiency of tracking technologies supplements efforts outlined in SDG 16, targets 16.1 and 16.4, referencing ending all forms of violence and significantly reducing the illicit arms flow.

Conclusion

While much of the early discussion of science and technology by the First Committee targeted the security implications, greater research has revealed the need for continuous monitoring of scientific and technological progress. With this comes encouraging peaceful innovation and preventing arms races that give incentive to harmful advancements. Regardless of which specific instrument of disarmament is referenced, to effectively promote the common themes of multilateral cooperation and investment in beneficial technologies, the General

170 Barzashka, Converting a Civilian Enrichment Plant into a Nuclear Weapons Material Facility, 2013; UN Conference on Trade and Development, Technology opens new opportunity; policy makers must prepare for disruption, 2016.
172 Ibid.
175 Ibid.
176 UN General Assembly, Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (A/RES/70/1), 2015; UN General Assembly, Declaration on the Conversion to Peaceful Needs of the Resources Released by Disarmament (A/RES/1837(XVII)), 1962.
178 Ibid.
179 UN DPI, Governments Reminded to Respect Embargoes as Russian Federation Abstains (SC/11131), 2013
180 UN General Assembly, Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (A/RES/70/1), 2015. p.25
182 UN Open-Ended Meeting of Governmental Experts on the Implementation of the Programme of Action to Prevent, Combat and Eradicate the Illicit Trade in Small Arms and Light Weapons in All Its Aspects, Chair’s Summary, 2015; UN General Assembly, Options for a Facilitation Mechanism that Promotes the Development, Transfer and Dissemination of Clean and Environmentally Sound Technologies (A/67/348), 2010.
Assembly prioritizes collaboration with CSOs and other international organizations to gain the most accurate and timely information on challenges that inhibit progress.\(^{183}\) Although the methods and tools of violence and destruction usually take the spotlight, the potential for converted nuclear material and diverted weapons development funding into peaceful application are equally important to progress on the SDGs.\(^ {184}\) Innovation, disarmament and international security, and the outcome of the SDGs are factors that are closely connected, and addressing these issues simultaneously is the most efficient method for achieving success.\(^ {185}\)

**Further Research**

As delegates begin their research on this topic, they should consider the following questions: How can the First Committee further incentivize disarmament? What challenges hinder innovative progress in proliferation of peaceful-use nuclear applications? How can the First Committee effectively support peaceful innovation? Can the First Committee counter the incentives of arms races? What can the First Committee do to more effectively partner with industry innovators, in order to ensure the First Committee is supporting innovation designed to benefit the SDGs? Is the General Assembly adequately structured to sponsor beneficial innovations?

**Annotated Bibliography**


The Joint-NTI and IAEA Light-Enrichment Bank Program jumpstarted by philanthropist Warren Buffet is an amazing example of policy innovation that effectively addresses concerns from both the threat perspective as well as the viewpoint of development. This program centralizes the source of low-grade enriched uranium for states that desire peaceful uses of nuclear material. This ensures UN oversight of nuclear supply, eliminates the long-term need for state-based enrichment facilities while ensuring access to developing nations.


This report represents some of the most recent substantive work on the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, and identifies the corresponding works of international organizations and civil service organizations party to the treaty along with official United Nations bodies. It also links delegates to dozens of working papers and draft resolutions submitted at the conference covering subjects on disarmament as well as the advancement of technologies at both the international and regional levels. This document assists delegates by providing direct linkage to the agendas discussion topics, as well as recent working papers submitted by their Member State and regional bloc.


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The Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons is one of the most significant frameworks on disarmament, and the single most-observed treaty in international history. The treaty ensured that, of the already existing nuclear technology, none of it was allowed to be transferred to non-nuclear states. This was done specifically to eliminate the chance of localized arms races, as well as limit the spread of nuclear weapons technology. Delegates of the General Assembly First Committee should take note of the provisions of the NPT and its objectives, as it is one of the primary frameworks governing the committee’s work. A deep understanding of the NPT’s expectations and limitations on technology transfer and material enrichment are vital pieces of information on these topics.


Though not yet in force, the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty provides a very detailed framework for disarmament efforts against nuclear technology. The treaty covers significant gaps in coverage of the NPT as well as the PTBT. This treaty also significantly enables states to participate in disarmament through the implementation of a number of programs to make reporting simple and to build confidence. This treaty has not been ratified by every Member State, and it would benefit delegates to know the States parties. This document will also benefit delegates by giving them a comparison to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons to visualize the evolution of policy within the General Assembly on the issue.


This report of the Secretary-General contains options for a facilitation mechanism that encourages the transfer and dissemination of clean and environmentally sound technology, and even establishes guiding provisions on the function, format, and working methods of such a mechanism. This document responds to the increasing disparity between the degrees of technological innovations of globally North and South nations. The document assists delegates in educating them on the United Nations’ perspectives on the life-cycles of technology and global trends in science and technology that affect the Sustainable Development Goals, as well as highlighting the role of international and regional actors in benefiting this progress.


This report from the International Atomic Energy Agency was the result of years of collaboration between independent organizations and civil service organization, as well as experts in the fields of science and technology involving nuclear energy that provides significant insight into its potential peaceful applications. These advancements require further development and support by the international community, but they already possess significant implications on progress under the Sustainable Development Goals. This document will help give delegates options to research in terms of innovations that apply to their specific Member States.


The United Nations Regional Centers for Peace and Disarmament, as created through the adoption of this resolution, signify the most focused regional organizations that seek to positively impact global disarmament through prioritizing local and regional challenges. This resolution outlines three specific regional centers, which benefits delegates by identifying a more regionally-based resource for region-specific challenges and success in disarmament and international security. Highlighting regional efforts will give delegates a better idea of how to synthesis the Sustainable Development Goal indicators and targets with their Member States’ and region’s resource capacity and ongoing challenges.
The adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is one of the most unifying resolutions passed in recent history, and constitutes the primary focus of the United Nations. This document is the most comprehensive single source for the direction of the General Assembly, and thorough knowledge of this document will greatly improve delegates focus on not only the problems faced by individual Member States, but on how international organizations and civil service organizations are structured under the Addis Ababa Action Agenda to support the General Assembly’s work.

This report provides a very detailed assessment of current and ongoing issues that affect international security in regards to access to clean water. It highlights the global trend of rapid population growth and notes the severe implications that follow if more emphasis is not placed in expanding clean water solutions and efforts into water-scarce regions. The increasing global water deficit presents a future danger to international stability, and this document provides delegates with the areas in which water affects the Sustainable Development Goals and international security as a whole.

The Second Meeting of Governmental Experts is one of the most recent conferences that addressed science and technology specifically. This document notes the challenges of evolving technology and makes recommendations on which technologies directly impact the UN’s efforts in conventional weapons disarmament and how to address them. This information is passed on to the Programme of Action, and then to the General Assembly with recommendations on how to address current and emerging trends in conventional weapons technology. The degree of collaboration between the United Nations and independent and civil service organizations frames the capacity of international and regional actors to assist in accomplishing the Sustainable Development Goals through efforts on disarmament.

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29


II. Global Nuclear Disarmament

“The world is over-armed and peace is under-funded.”186

Introduction

Nuclear weapons have become the defining hallmark of total warfare since the end of World War II.187 The first nuclear bomb was developed during the Manhattan Project in 1945, and then used in warfare against Japan, in the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.188 In addition to large-scale casualties, the nuclear weapons also released significant amount of radiation into the surrounding area, ultimately affecting citizens’ health, and the natural environment for years following the war.189 The fallout of the bombs and the resulting radiation demonstrated the consequences of using nuclear armament in warfare.190 The traumatic aftermath helped to establish the legitimate threat that nuclear weapons represented to the world, and proved that the permanent threat of nuclear warfare was antithetical to achieving sustainable global peace.191

Currently, nuclear weapons still remain a threat to global peace and security.192 According to the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), a nuclear weapon is a device that releases explosive energy as a result of nuclear fission and fusion.193 Nuclear weapons are therefore expensive, complicated, and dangerous.194 However, nuclear devices still appeal to states from a national security perspective based on the premise that the presence of nuclear weapons deter military rivals from launching an attack on a state out of fear of reprisal and give a state military credibility.195 Currently, several United Nations (UN) Member States possess some form of nuclear weapon.196

As a nuclear reprisal to military threat would ultimately have widespread and long-term consequences outside of the immediate conflict, the UN is committed to the complete eradication of nuclear weapons to provide for a more secure world and ensure the wellbeing of humanity.197 This sets the ground for disarmament and non-proliferation; while disarmament refers to the full eradication of nuclear weapons in the world, non-proliferation simply aims to limit the spread.198 The current state of global nuclear disarmament depends on the ability of various Member States to work together and decrease their nuclear arsenals.199

International and Regional Framework

Since 1945, there have been extensive efforts and instruments created to limit the impact of nuclear weapons, with complete disarmament as the ultimate goal.200 The most pivotal document is the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) (1968), created to limit the levels of nuclear proliferation.201 The aim of the NPT is to halt the production and spread of nuclear weapons, and to encourage denuclearization efforts around the world.202 Even though they possess nuclear weapons, the Permanent Five Members of the Security Council are signatories of the NPT, while the remaining Member States that possess nuclear weapons are not signatories.203 One country, the

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187 UN General Assembly, General and complete disarmament (A/RES/14/1378), 1959.
189 Ibid.
190 UN General Assembly, General and complete disarmament (A/RES/14/1378), 1959.
191 UN News Centre, At Security Council, Ban calls for eradicating weapons of mass-destruction ‘once and for all’, 2016.
193 IAEA, IAEA Forum for the Creation of a Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zone in the Middle East, 2011, p.3.
195 Ibid.
196 Ibid.
197 Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968.
198 Ibid.
199 Ibid.
200 UN News Centre, At Security Council, Ban calls for eradicating weapons of mass-destruction ‘once and for all’, 2016.
201 Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968.
202 Ibid.
Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, has withdrawn from this instrument.\textsuperscript{204} This lack of adherence by nuclear-possessing Member States has sometimes resulted in a challenge for the full application of the NPT.\textsuperscript{205} Ensuring full international cooperation with the NPT and transparency of nuclear programs would promote greater trust and collaboration among countries.\textsuperscript{206} One important component of the treaty is the application of nuclear safeguards set by the IAEA for the peaceful application of nuclear energy.\textsuperscript{207} The treaty recognized the importance of nuclear energy for the development of communities and industries, along with the importance of peaceful use of such energy for environmentally friendly economic growth.\textsuperscript{208} In Article IV of the NPT, it was affirmed that every Member State has the inherent right to research and develop nuclear energy for peaceful purposes.\textsuperscript{209} Furthermore, in the NPT, the IAEA was established as the main United Nations specialized agency for nuclear related matters.\textsuperscript{210}

The \textit{International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism} (2005) set clear definitions on what constitutes a nuclear weapon, radioactive substance, nuclear device, nuclear energy, and established the rights and obligations of Member States.\textsuperscript{211} The Convention determined that the agreement is violated when an individual or Member State possesses the capability to create and employ a nuclear weapon, engage in nuclear terrorism, or is supplying terrorist groups with nuclear capability.\textsuperscript{212} The \textit{International Conference on Nuclear Security} (2013), is hosted by the IAEA and held every three years, with the next conference in December 2016, to set and clarify individual commitments and actions for the following year.\textsuperscript{213}

Some of the most recent frameworks include the \textit{Hague Agenda for Peace and Justice in the 21\textsuperscript{st} Century} (2000), the \textit{Convention on Nuclear Safety} (1994), and the \textit{Vienna Declaration on Nuclear Safety} (2015).\textsuperscript{214} The Hague Agenda deals with the causes of war, human rights and humanitarian affairs, and disarmament issues.\textsuperscript{215} It incorporates mutual Member State encouragement and bottom-up methods as a way to increase disarmament efforts among Member States.\textsuperscript{216} The \textit{Convention on Nuclear Safety} stipulated fundamental norms regarding nuclear weapons safety and it has recently gained international attention due to the fact that Switzerland submitted a Proposal to amend the initial Convention in light of the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster.\textsuperscript{217} The Convention also saw the production of the \textit{Vienna Declaration on Nuclear Safety}, which was unanimously adopted.\textsuperscript{218} It set new rules and stipulations on nuclear safety, including systematic safety assessments, national requirements and regulations for nuclear power plants, ensuring long-term protective measures and actions.\textsuperscript{219}

In terms of key resolutions, the General Assembly passed resolution 14/1378 in 1959 calling for complete nuclear disarmament.\textsuperscript{220} Two additional resolutions were passed dealing directly with global nuclear disarmament. General Assembly resolution 69/66 on the “Third Conference of State Parties and Signatories to Treaties that establish Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones and Mongolia” (2014) addressed the importance of regional nuclear-free zones.\textsuperscript{221} Furthermore, the body adopted General Assembly resolution 67/54 on “Implementation of the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and Use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction”\textsuperscript{222}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{204}Arms Control Association, \textit{Israel, India, and Pakistan: Engaging the Non-NPT States in the Nonproliferation Regime}, 2012.
\item \textsuperscript{205}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{206}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{207}Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, 1968.
\item \textsuperscript{208}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{209}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{210}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{212}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{213}IAEA, \textit{International Conference on Nuclear Security}, 2016.
\item \textsuperscript{215}The Hague Agenda for Peace and Justice in the 21\textsuperscript{st} Century, 2016.
\item \textsuperscript{216}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{218}IAEA, \textit{Vienna Declaration on Nuclear Safety}, 2015.
\item \textsuperscript{219}Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{220}UN General Assembly, \textit{General and complete disarmament} (A/RES/14/1378), 1959.
\item \textsuperscript{221}UN General Assembly, \textit{Third Conference of State Parties and Signatories to Treaties that establish Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones and Mongolia} (A/RES/69/66), 2014.
\end{itemize}
(2012), and it urges the prohibition of the production, development, and stockpiling of chemical weapons, and encourages their destruction.  

Lastly, during the 70th Session of the General Assembly in 2015, resolution 70/40 was passed, calling for the achievement of a nuclear-weapon-free world. Most recently on 27 October 2016, the United Nations General Assembly First Committee adopted resolution 71/L.41 to start negotiations in 2017 in order to produce a treaty calling for the total ban of nuclear weapons. Over 123 Member States voted in favor of the resolution, while nuclear states and their allies voted against. This resolution sets a precedent for the full ban on nuclear weapons in the future.  

The application of these documents has been difficult to achieve but they serve as solid foundation for future action of the United Nations and the impact of 71/L.41 is yet to be seen.

### Role of the International System

The role of the General Assembly First Committee is to facilitate high-level disarmament efforts in the international community through mechanisms such as brokering agreements, mediating talks, directing subsidiary bodies, and engaging Member States on negotiations. Due to its focus and the thematic nature of its discussions, the General Assembly First Committee is uniquely placed within the international system to bring together Member States and to address the challenge of global nuclear disarmament.

The United Nations Office on Disarmament Affairs (UNODA) is a key subsidiary body that reports directly to the committee and helps to promote nuclear disarmament and nonproliferation, strengthen disarmament regimes, and support efforts to ban weapons of mass destruction. Other efforts of the organization include the limiting of small arms and light weapons, ban of land mines, and limitation of other weapons in conventional warfare. Furthermore, UNODA provides substantive and organizational support, working in collaboration with the General Assembly First Committee and the Disarmament Commission to ensure dialogue, transparency, and confidence-building measures among Member States throughout non-proliferation processes.

There are several other key bodies that guide the General Assembly’s high-level dialogue on nuclear non-proliferation. The Weapons of Mass Destruction Commission (WMDC) was created in 2003 to help track and ensure the elimination of weapons of mass destruction, and held a special final meeting in 2009. Even though the WMDC is on indefinite hiatus, its research continues to influence high-level dialogue on creating a nuclear-free world, along with the current tri-annual meetings of the Conference on Disarmament and its predecessors, and the Disarmament Commission. Further, the voluntarily funded United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) helps to conduct independent research and relevant studies on the development and use of nuclear weapons. UNIDIR reports annually to the General Assembly, with information that can aid in the formulation of resolutions pertaining to global nuclear disarmament.

An important international body that works on non-proliferation under the Security Council and holds Member States accountable to their international obligations is the 1540 Committee, which helps to enforce legal and regulatory measures against chemical, biological, and nuclear weapons on a domestic level.

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223. UN General Assembly, *United Action with renewed determination towards the total elimination of nuclear weapons (A/RES/70/40)*, 2015.
225. Ibid.
226. Ibid.
228. Ibid.
229. Ibid.
231. Ibid.
232. Ibid.
234. Ibid.
reports directly to the Security Council and contributes to more informed decision-making through their reports, research findings, and recommendations, based on feedback from Member States and research.238

The IAEA is a related organization that directly deals with nuclear related matters, and serves as the main intergovernmental body on all nuclear related matters.239 It provides technical and scientific expertise to Member States dealing with nuclear power.240 As the main body to manage on-the-ground nuclear support, the IAEA sends inspectors to Member States to determine the level of nuclear capability that each possess, whether it is used for peaceful purposes or not, and then report to the United Nations General Assembly of its work.241 The IAEA reports directly to the First Committee, which in turn produces the necessary resolutions in accordance with the findings.242 Furthermore, the IAEA serves as a mediator in nuclear negotiations, through claim verification, providing necessary information, and employing inspectors to survey the nuclear facilities of Member States.243 Most recently, the IAEA expertise was employed in the P5+1, European Union (EU), and Iran nuclear negotiations in which all parties agreed to send IAEA inspectors to Iran by consensus.244

On a regional level, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) serves as a security alliance to ensure the tracking and assessment of every member’s nuclear capability.245 NATO serves as a nuclear alliance “as long as there are nuclear weapons in the world,” and helps other Member States to destroy their existing nuclear stockpiles.246 Similarly, the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), addresses arms control, confidence and security building measures among participating states, human rights, counterterrorism, democratization, among other issues.247 The OSCE works together with the international community to help with denuclearization on the European continent and helping to track nuclear materials.248 Similar regional nuclear disarmament initiatives were launched by the Asian Nuclear Safety Network (2003) and the Declaration of San Salvador by the Organization of American States (2011), which aim to foster dialogue and ensure nuclear-free areas in their respective regions.249 In 2012, the 16th Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-Aligned Movement helped to assess and clarify the role of former non-aligned states in the modern world of global nuclear disarmament, and released the Declaration of the XVI Summit of Heads of State or Government of the Non-Aligned Movement (2012), which created specific goals to support global governance regionally.250 Key regional frameworks such as these solidified involved Member State’s commitment to not pursue the creation of a nuclear weapon or test highly enriched uranium.251 They reduced the need for détente and add additional levels of regional and on-the-ground support to the high-level negotiations in the General Assembly.252

There is also significant historical precedent for nuclear limit bilateral negotiations, such as the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT I, 1969; SALT II, 1979) between the United States and the Soviet Union for the reduction of each country’s nuclear arsenal during the Cold War.253 The resulting agreement set a precedent for future nuclear negotiations that a solution is within reach given the necessity for all sides to collaborate.254 The Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty (1987) helped the United States and Soviet Union to curb their ground and surface-to-air ballistic missiles.255 It led to the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (entered into force in 1994) between the countries.

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238 UN Security Council, 1540 Committee, 2015.
239 IAEA, Statute of the IAEA, 2016.
240 Ibid.
241 Ibid.
242 Ibid.
244 Ibid.
246 NATO, Basic Points, 2016.
247 Ibid.
249 Ibid.
253 Ibid.
254 Nuclear Threat Initiative, Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT I), 2011.
255 Ibid.
that curbed their offensive nuclear capacity. This further led to the Moscow Treaty in 2002 between the United States and the Russian Federation, helping to curb offensive capability regarding nuclear weapons. Following the Moscow Treaty, the new Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty helped to further eliminate offensive nuclear arms. This shows the progression of treaties and collaboration that eventually led to the denuclearization of two major world powers. It was achieved through continual work and effective international collaboration.

The creation of regional Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones (NWFZs) by the UNODA is a success on strengthening international nuclear safety and promoting nuclear norms on the regional level. NWFZs are determined through agreement of Member States from a particular region. Currently there are five treaties that specify the creation of a NWFZ in the following regions: Latin America and the Caribbean, South Pacific, Southeast Asia, Africa, and Central Asia. Additionally, the international community has agreed and passed the Antarctic Treaty, which enables Antarctica to remain nuclear free, and sets a precedent in the case of global nuclear disarmament, since regional initiatives can be adapted to an international context.

Civil society is also thoroughly involved in the process towards nuclear non-proliferation. The Arms Control Association for instance is a non-partisan organization based in Washington DC that supports arms control and reduction, including nuclear arms. It produces research documents, briefs, and reports that inform the international community on the current situation pertaining to arms control. Similarly, the Nuclear Threat Initiative and other research organizations submit publications, reports, and other data on the level of nuclear activity around the world. They aid policymakers through submitting relevant research work pertaining to the issues, helping to reach an informed and efficient decision. Civil society organizations also play an increasingly more prominent role in steering the international debate through lobbying in local governments and campaigning for political change. For instance, the International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons (ICAN) works to spread knowledge of nuclear weapons in various countries and help to pressure governments to halt the creation and distribution of those weapons. Employing the work and cooperation of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to aid the work of the UN can usher more efficient and timely responses to pertinent problems.

**Furthering Global Nuclear Disarmament**

**Lack of Adherence**

Nuclear weapons currently represent the only type of weapons of mass destruction that have yet to be prohibited, while the use of such weapons is constituted as a crime against humanity according to the International Court of Justice (ICJ). The main obstacle to total nuclear disarmament remains the lack of adherence to the NPT and relevant documents by Member States. In the 2016 sessions of the General Assembly, several States expressed

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260 Ibid.
266 Ibid.
268 Ibid.
269 Ibid.
270 Ibid.
271 Ibid.
272 UN DPI, *Frustrated with Piecemeal Approach to Non-proliferation, Speakers Call for Final Farewell to Nuclear Arms, as Disarmament Commission Concludes General Debate (DC/3621)*, 2016.
ongoing frustration with States that possess nuclear weapons who were “reluctant to budge from entrenched positions,” and continual failures of approaches to nuclear disarmament frameworks.274 Part of this criticism came from the fact that Member States that own nuclear weapons represent a “privileged club” of countries who continue to possess nuclear capabilities while criticizing developing countries for using nuclear energy for peaceful purposes, speaking to the larger inter-state divisions which must be addressed in nuclear negotiations.275 Additionally, the ongoing threat of nuclear weapons discourages non-party states from becoming signatories of documents such as the NPT due to distrust, inequality and insecurity among them, and the ongoing prioritization by States of national security over international peace.276 Lack of cooperation with the IAEA is a significant international cause for concern because a lack of transparent communication between states, or between a state and the UN, can exacerbate a security dilemma and threaten global security.277 A recent instance of this issue was on 23 August 2016, when the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK) tested a submarine-fired ballistic missile, despite calls from the international community for cessation of these activities.278 The test, which was conducted off the coast of the Korean peninsula and facing Japan, earned the condemnation of the international community, including Japan, the Republic of Korea, and the United States, as these ballistic missile tests were interpreted, by various Member States, to be a lack of adherence to international norms for nuclear safety.279 Since the DPRK does not announce its nuclear tests, there are even speculations if it is a test indeed, and because they are not a signatory to the NPT, they do not have a requirement to meet specific international obligations.280 However, in an address to the UN General Assembly, DPRK defended its actions as a “righteous self-defense measure” against the “constant nuclear threats of the United States,” speaking for the need to disarmament to be comprehensive and global.281 This issue is also reflected among other Member States. The state of Israel is not party to NPT and does not to allow IAEA inspectors to monitor and record their nuclear capability.282 In a recent vote by the General Assembly in 2012, the UN called for Israel to open its nuclear program for international inspection.283 The resolution received the overwhelming majority of the Member States, showing the international commitment to transparency.284 However, Israel has not complied with the resolution, citing national self-determination and security as the main causes of concern.285 Disputes such as these demonstrate the crux of the issue of disarmament: the clash between a state’s sovereign right to defend itself against foreign aggression, and the fact that this state-level defense framework fosters obstacles to disarmament and greater global distrust.286

**Non-State Actors**

Non-state actors have become an increasingly pressing topic in UN discussion, as they represent threat to international peace and security, from implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals to issues of nuclear security.287 The rise of the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) and other terrorist organizations into the international spotlight have led to the concerns about these actors acquiring nuclear capabilities, and questions on whether they would be subject to the same norms as Member States.288 If this situation were to occur, recognizing these actors as a legitimate threat would then also recognize their statehood, and if they are not acknowledged, then it can put the international community under risk from an attack.289 The spread of terrorist organizations across

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274 Ibid.
275 Ibid.
276 **Ibid.**
277 **Ibid.**
278 **Ibid.**
279 **Ibid.**
280 **Ibid.**
281 **Ibid.**
282 **Ibid.**
283 **Ibid.**
284 **Ibid.**
285 **Ibid.**
286 **Ibid.**
287 **Ibid.**
288 **Ibid.**
289 **Ibid.**
borders is a challenge to the capabilities of international organizations to respond, especially because there is no precedent on addressing the nuclear threat posed by non-state terrorist actors. For instance, the General Assembly created the 2005 *International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism*, which criminalizes all acts of nuclear terrorism and utilizes the IAEA as the pre- and post-crisis support body. In addition the *Convention on the Physical Protection of Nuclear Material* (CPPNM) (1987) was created. Nevertheless, concerns still remain about whether these frameworks are sufficient to addressing the threat of nuclear terrorism. Considering the nuclear threat of terrorist organizations and non-state actors is therefore key to future international frameworks on nuclear disarmament.

**Disarmament and Good Practices: A Case Study of Iran**

The Iran Nuclear Deal and the resulting *Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action* (2015) was a landmark agreement that successfully led to the relative disarmament of a potential nuclear state. Prior to the agreement, Iran was aiming to cultivate highly enriched uranium in an effort to create a nuclear weapon. According to Iran, it was intended for national security, since it is their right to pursue the creation of such a weapon. The international community perceived this goal and the development of another nuclear state as a threat to international peace and security, resulting in motivation for States to broker a deal to limit Iranian capability of obtaining a nuclear weapon while dismantling pre-existing sanctions on the country’s economy as incentive. It allowed the international community to serve as a mediator, while the Member States negotiated and produced the main components of the deal that decreased nuclear weaponry in the region, maintaining Iran’s right to national security. Differing viewpoints and perspectives did present significant challenges in reaching an agreement. The P5+1 members advocated for greater transparency pertaining to nuclear energy, such as enabling IAEA inspectors to enter Iran and assess the relevant facilities to determine adherence to the established norms. In contrast, Iran saw national self-determination as a key component of its position to obtain a nuclear weapon, and did not want to follow these measures. The resulting *Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action* was agreed upon through taking into account the economic and security concerns of both sides. The P5+1 agreed to lift economic sanctions on Iran, if the latter agreed to abide by international norms on nuclear energy. This success in high-level negotiations presents a key model to emulate for future diplomatic negotiations in the General Assembly, in order to meet the eventual goal of total nuclear disarmament.

**Conclusion**

While there have been successes on the reduction of nuclear capability and the promotion of international norms, many challenges remain to total disarmament. The lack of adherence to international guidelines continues to remain a big challenge when attempting to reach an international agreement on nuclear disarmament. The presence of new threats in the twenty-first century like non-state actors are also forcing international community to

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290 Ibid.
292 Ibid.
293 Ibid.
296 Ibid.
297 Ibid.
298 Ibid.
299 Ibid.
300 Ibid.
301 Ibid.
302 Ibid.
303 Ibid.
304 Ibid.
307 Ibid.
redefine its pre-existing norms on disarmament.\textsuperscript{308} However, the 2015 \textit{Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action} from the Iran Nuclear Deal has demonstrated that it is possible to come to an agreement pertaining to nuclear weapons and disarmament.\textsuperscript{309} Stopping the spread of nuclear weapons, bringing Member States on the negotiating table through various incentives, and holding states and non-state actors accountable is of the utmost importance for the UN General Assembly.\textsuperscript{310} Total global disarmament is the means to more secure and peaceful beneficial world, and achieving this goal through negotiation and consensus will be the ultimate test of the General Assembly’s capabilities.\textsuperscript{311}

\textit{Further Research}

Given the current challenges to global nuclear disarmament, delegates should consider some key questions while beginning research, including: How should the international community address the lack of adherence of Member States to international norms and preexisting agreements on nuclear safety? How can the international community emulate the successes of the Iran Nuclear Deal in future negotiations? How should the General Assembly First Committee address the threat of non-state actors and their possible acquisition of nuclear capability? What are some of the methods that the General Assembly First Committee can foster dialogue for greater international collaboration on nuclear matters? How will resolution 71/L.41 alter nuclear negotiations in the future? While there are no easy answers, it is up to the General Assembly to create the consensus that can lead to a more nuclear-secure world.

\textit{Annotated Bibliography}


This issue brief by the Council on Foreign Relations discusses history, challenges, and successes of the global nuclear non-proliferation regime. It explains the historical context of nuclear weaponry, the beginning of the non-proliferation movement, and the recent challenges of reducing the number of nuclear weapons worldwide. The Strengths and Weaknesses section is particularly important as it directly states the obstacles that the international community is facing on disarmament. Additionally, this research presents some options to strengthen the non-proliferation regime, which delegates will find useful when working on their own research.


This is the full text of the Vienna Declaration which was established to amend the Convention on Nuclear Safety in an effort to mitigate accidents and other unforeseen consequences. It was produced as a result of rising fears pertaining to mishandling of nuclear weapons and fallout that can affect populations. The document touches on health concerns and sets forth ways of handling nuclear materials. It is important for delegates to consider some of the externalities pertaining to nuclear weapons, how they can affect various communities, along with some of the health and wellness effects. It is very important to note these topics when proposing recommendations for global nuclear disarmament.


This is the complete record of the International Conference on Nuclear Security and it includes all of the commitments made by Member States along with the respective actions that each state has pledged to undertake. Furthermore, it shows the key role that the IAEA plays in global nuclear disarmament. This resource is essential for future delegate research because it will allow delegates a deeper understanding of the role of the IAEA in the international system, and the existing commitments that Member States have pledged to commit.

\textsuperscript{308} International Campaign to Abolish Nuclear Weapons, \textit{UN Resolution to ban Nuclear Weapons in 2017}, 2016.

\textsuperscript{309} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{310} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{311} Ibid.
The Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action is the outcome document from the Iran Nuclear Deal. It includes stipulations that each signatory must undertake pertaining to the agreed upon terms. It allows IAEA inspectors to revise Iran’s nuclear facilities while P5+1 countries agree to lift sanctions over the Iranian economy. This document would allow delegates to become familiar with the text of the Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action and use it as a model for future high-level negotiations on global disarmament.


This treaty is the most important document to date on international guidelines for non-proliferation, including stipulations for Member States and a list of all signatories. The treaty divides international opinion on the basis of security and national self-determination, since there are notable exceptions for Member States who have not signed it. It will complement the work of General Assembly First Committee since it will serve as the core document from which delegates can build up their arguments and recommendations for global nuclear disarmament.


This is the text of the Hague Agenda, setting forth some of the major themes of the international system, including the abolishment of nuclear weapons. It is key to understanding some of the main participants and documents behind the movement for nuclear disarmament, as well as global action prevent nuclear war. In particular, Section 44 details the goal to “Negotiate and Ratify an International Treaty to Eliminate Nuclear Weapons,” and references the NPT and ICJ’s previous work on nuclear weapons. Delegates will find this document key to understanding the lengthy history of the anti-nuclear weapon framework in the international community.


This is one of the first resolutions calling for a general and complete disarmament of nuclear weapons. Adopted in 1959 in the early stages of the Cold War, it set the stage for future talks and deliberations for decreasing the amount of nuclear weapons present. It is important for delegates to be familiar with this document as it can serve as a great reference point when drafting working papers and some of the key precedents in discussing related to nuclear weapons.


Through resolution 55/33, the General Assembly upheld the Geneva Protocol, thereby banning poisonous gases and other biological weapons from their use in war. It is one of the earliest documents that can help guide delegates as they grapple with a similar issue in the 21st century. The threat of nuclear weapons can be included as of equal importance to biological weapons in warfare. Biological weapons are currently banned in warfare and this is the document that achieved this feat. It draws parallels between biological and nuclear weapons and provides delegates with a good foundation for proposed resolutions on this topic.


This resolution sets the goals and actions that go along with implementing the Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling and use of Chemical Weapons and on their Destruction. It sets forth the ways and means of achieving the prohibition and development of nuclear weapons. Delegates can examine the application of such efforts and determine their
respective successes and shortcomings. It will allow delegates to see some of the benchmarks present in the international system, and emulate them in their work within committee.


This resolution establishes the creation of regional NWFZs, focusing Mongolia. Having an in-depth understanding of the processes utilized in this document will enable delegates to comprehend how NWFZs are created and how non-proliferation is discussed in international negotiations. Moreover, this document will show delegates the diplomatic language that goes in the process of drafting a proposal for the nuclear-weapon-free zone and sets a model for future nuclear weapon-free negotiations.


This is the key document of the United Nations that describes the organizations’ end goal of a nuclear-weapon-free world. Having a good understanding of this document and its aims is critical to understanding the future goals of the international community on disarmament. Delegates will be able to use this document as a core from which to base their research, as well as a good source for understanding the rhetoric used in international negotiations on nuclear disarmament.


This report offers the most recent developments pertaining to the NPT, and discusses what Member States agreed during the Conference, and what still remains to be addressed. Delegates would find this source particularly helpful since most of the working papers produced dealt with NWFZs, security assurances pertaining to nuclear capability, nuclear testing activities, and various safeguards that must be implemented. Additionally, this page provides the outcome documents of the previous 2010 Review Conference, which will be useful for historical context.


This is the website of the 1540 Committee, explaining in detail its creation, its mandate, functions, and some of the work that it currently pursues. It will enable delegates to gain further knowledge of the work and function of the 1540 Committee, allowing them to utilize its resources for the purposes of drafting position and working papers. The Committee is particularly important because its Programme of Work specifically targets issues regarding non-state actors, and its research does impact discussion in the General Assembly through committee briefings and working group meetings.

Bibliography


III. Increasing Women’s Role in Disarmament and Nonproliferation

“Gender perspectives in disarmament, peace, and security must be about exposing and challenging ...existing systems of structural inequalities and violent masculinities.”312

Introduction

Increasing the role of women in issues of peace and security is an established goal of the United Nations (UN); however, the specifics of involving women in disarmament and nonproliferation are relatively a recent theme within the General Assembly.313 Though the participation of women in peace and security processes has been rising, a study of 31 major peace processes between 1992 and 2011 showed that only 9% of negotiators were women, and only 4% of the military in UN missions were women, with the majority of these being support staff.314 As of 2016, civil society research shows that any given intergovernmental meeting on disarmament has less than 25% female participants, and almost half of delegations are composed of men.315 In 2015, only 54 countries had formulated national actions plans on women, peace, and security issues, with the majority of these lacking follow-through mechanisms or any reference to disarmament and non-proliferation.316

Women also have a unique relationship with arms. The Inter-Parliamentary Union and Centre for Humanitarian Dialogue released an extensive report in 2007 about reducing gun violence, and noted that women “are subject to a disproportionate range of non-fatal threats involving the misuse of small arms,” often corresponding with their marginalized social status and lack of legal protections.317 Women play a unique and key role in disarmament and nonproliferation efforts during local post-conflict processes, and yet continue to face structural obstacles to receiving the same recognition as their male peers in the areas of leadership and high-level dialogues.318 With increased international research on how men and women experience conflict differently, and because sustainable peace necessitates disarmament, involving women fully and equally in pre-conflict prevention and post-conflict disarmament processes is critical.319 This is particularly true in recognizing the lack of women in peace processes and non-proliferation negotiations, and it is key that the General Assembly reach diplomatic consensus on this key piece of the women, peace, and security agenda.320

International and Regional Framework

The UN General Assembly has long defined global arms non-proliferation and disarmament as the collection, control and disposal of small arms, ammunition, explosives and light and heavy weapons from combatants.321 However the relationship between gender and disarmament was first substantively addressed through General Assembly resolution 65/69 (2010) and a follow-up updated General Assembly resolution 67/48 (2010), recognizing women’s contribution to the discussion, encouraging their participation at high-level meetings, and mandating Member State consultation on what support the UN can provide regarding domestic gender-inclusive policies.322 This document was further amended during the sixty-eighth and sixty-ninth sessions, concluding in a comprehensive

312 Acheson et al., First Committee Briefing Book, 2016, p. 37.
315 Acheson et al., First Committee Briefing Book, 2016, p. 37.
320 UN DPKO, Women, peace and security, 2016.
While this document was ground-breaking in a number of ways, it is most notable for its suggestion on the adoption of a gender-based violence criterion in the Arms Trade Treaty (ATT) and a reaffirmation of the UN commitment to including the topic of women and disarmament on key meeting agendas. These suggestions were supported by the report of the Secretary-General, “Securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in supporting security sector reform” (2008) which includes some recognition of the need to include women in security discussions, and of the particular vulnerability of women and children in post-conflict situations.

The UN’s commitment to gender equality and improving disarmament and non-proliferation action has several historical documents of particular importance. Perhaps the most important international document that provides the framework for equal women’s rights is the Charter of the United Nations (1945), particularly Article 8. However, when looking at the role of women under conflict, the key framework is the Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War (1949), which offers specific provisions to women participation in conflict and disarmament. The most comprehensive treaty specifically targeting the rights of women remains the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), which in particular notes that regardless of a state’s level of disarmament and nuclear disarmament, a women’s right to full attainment of equality is required.

One of the most important UN frameworks for women, peace and security is the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995). Building upon CEDAW and the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (1985), this declaration definitely affirms the idea that “[t]he empowerment and autonomy of women and the improvement of women’s social, economic and political status is essential for the achievement of...accountable government and administration and sustainable development in all areas of life.” Reviews on the Beijing Declaration and Platform were completed in 2005 and 2010, with both reviews reaffirming the continued need to reassess women’s role in disarmament. More specifically, it endorses the idea that diverse gender perspectives need to be integrated into all levels and types of policy. The ultimate goal of UN gender mainstreaming is full empowerment of women and equal level to men in upper-level policy decisions.

A fundamental start on gender mainstreaming for disarmament is Security Council resolution 1325 on Women and Peace and Security adopted in 2000. This was the first UN resolution on peace and security to specifically mention women as well as the first legal document to mandate the involvement of women in peace accords and other key negotiations. This crucial document spurred a wealth of annual follow-up reports and studies by the recognized NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security, in addition to the pivotal Ten-year Impact Study on Implementation of SCR 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace, and Security in Peacekeeping. The Ten-year Impact Study was key in establishing the effect of Security Council resolution 1325, but also utilized extensive case studies.

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330 Ibid.
331 UN-Women, Beijing and Its Follow-up, 2016; UN Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women, Important Concepts Underlying Gender Mainstreaming, 2016.
333 Ibid.
335 Ibid.
to demonstrate how women continue to be underrepresented in peace, disarmament, and non-proliferation negotiations in both in numbers and in status, and even when present, are often only informal participants.  

Security Council resolution 1325 also resulted in a number of follow-up Security Council resolutions. Key examples include Security Council resolution 1889 (2009), which was developed to do follow-up and measure progress on resolution 1325. Also resolutions 1820 (2008) and 1888 (2009), were targeted specifically to protect and involve women in discussions of anti-sexual violence during disarmament processes. Security Council resolution 1325 also resulted in the creation of the first official Secretary-General’s study on “Women, Peace and Security” in 2002.  

The Briefing Notes on Gender Perspectives on Disarmament (2000) from UNODA and the Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women, is also a key foundational document. The Briefing Notes provide concrete recommendations on the creation of national action plans and recognition of the grassroots work done by women on these issues. UNODA also released a complementary UN Strategic Results Framework on Women, Peace, and Security in July of 2011, which focused on four keys pillars of involvement: prevention, participation, protection, and relief and recovery, with a focus on numeric targets and deliverable outcomes.  

The ATT and follow-up “Conferences of States” remains the key framework regarding conventional weapons, and integral to understanding disarmament processes. There was pressure in the drafting of the ATT to incorporate a stronger call for women’s participation and consultation, which was largely rejected. This was further emphasized by the most recent ATT review conference, where any discussion on the impact of disarmament on women was largely removed. Other key non-proliferation documents, including the International Atomic Energy Agency Statute (1956), and the Treaty on Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (1968), also lack any language pertaining to gender equality or women’s inclusion.  

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015) and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) represent both progress and failings on the topic of gender, disarmament, and non-proliferation. While there are stand-alone goals on gender equality (Goal 5), and stable and peaceful societies (Goal 16), in addition to specific targets on peace and non-violence (4.7), illicit arms (16.4), and inclusive and participatory decision-making (16.7), there are no goals or targets specifically dedicated to women and disarmament or non-proliferation. This has prompted pushback from civil society, including the Post-2015 Women’s Coalition and Women’s Major Group, who have put specific calls for inclusion of women, disarmament, and non-proliferation targets or recognition in the SDG framework. However, the SDGs have also been recognized as widening the scope of the women, peace, and security agenda, with SDG 5 in particular aiming to ensure women’s full and effective participation for leadership at

338 UN DPKO, Women, peace and security, 2016.
341 Inter-agency Task Force on Women, Peace and Security & Special Adviser of the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women, Women, Peace and Security: Study submitted by the Secretary-General pursuant to Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), 2002; UN Security Council, UN Documents for Arms Control and Disarmament, including small arms, 2016.
342 UNODA, Gender Perspectives on Disarmament, 2016.
343 Ibid.
347 Ibid.
349 UN Department of Public Information, Sustainable Development, 2016.
all levels of decision-making, presenting a more ambitious scope than the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).352

Role of the International System

The role of the General Assembly First Committee is to encourage cooperation and set high-level policy goals that UN programmes can then work to implement on the ground.353 However, outside of high-level policy setting, much of the General Assembly’s work is enacted through UNODA.354 This office released its Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan in 2003, with updates released in 2014 and 2016.355 These documents propose substantive efforts to involve women in disarmament, including utilizing the updates to create pragmatic and strategic state action plans for gender mainstreaming, providing concrete definitions of key terms, and creating matrices of the suggested actions to be taken by Member States.356 With its most recent update released in 2016, UNODA continues to act as an oversight body to ensure that Member States continue to implement the suggested recommendations of the Action Plan.357 Regional bodies such as the European Union (EU) and African Union (AU) have responded to UNODA prompts on gender and disarmament, and the AU in particular releasing the 2009 “AU Gender Policy.”358

The Security Council is also involved in efforts to increase the role of women in disarmament and non-proliferation, although their work involves more on-the-ground practice.359 Outside of the seven key Security Council resolutions discussed above, the Security Council also reiterates the importance of gender mainstreaming in practice, through policies such as “Gender Equality in UN Peacekeeping” and the deployment of gender advisory teams.360 This enables peacekeeping missions to consider the unique needs of women and families during the disarmament process, as well as to guarantee gender representation within the post-conflict peacekeeping forces themselves.361

A significant representation of gender mainstreaming within the UN system remains the Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality (IANWGE), which is chaired by the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women), and serves to compile all gender-based actions plans in the UN network, and make recommendations on gender mainstreaming in all UN bodies.362 Starting with the 2004 report “Getting it Right, Doing it Right: Gender and Disarmament,” UN-Women has been a leader in creating key recommendations on how to meet the needs of women in disarmament processes.363 UN-Women was specifically responsible for the creation of the “Gender Advisor” position on Security Council peacekeeping missions, who are deployed during post-conflict disarmament processes.364 In addition, UN-Women has been a leader on calling for gender-disaggregated data in all peace and security data collection, and the usage of specific gender-inclusive language during disarmament negotiations, to expand existing policy definitions of combatants.365 However, many of UN-Women’s recommendations have thus far been unsuccessful.366 These rejected recommendations include a minimum 30% ratio of women involved in peace talks; increased gender analysis by leadership positions in post-conflict negotiations; and review of the failures in cash-for-weapons disarmament policies.367 As a result of these

352 Shadung, African women are still underrepresented in matters of security, disarmament and arms control, but the SDGs could change this, Institute for Security Studies, 2016.
353 UN General Assembly, General Assembly First Committee, 2016.
354 Ibid.
359 UN DPKO, Gender and Peacekeeping, 2016.
360 UN DPKO, Gender and Peacekeeping, 2016; DPKO, Gender Equality in UN Peacekeeping Operations, 2010.
361 UN DPKO, Where We Work, 2016.
363 UNIFEM, Getting it Right, Doing it Right: Gender and Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration, 2004.
364 Ibid., p. 15.
365 Ibid., p. 4.
366 Ibid., p. 3.
367 UNIFEM, Getting it Right, Doing it Right: Gender and Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration, 2004, p. 2.
rejected or unfulfilled recommendations, UN-Women has been consistent in releasing updated recommendations and statistics regarding women’s involvement in high-level discussions.368

The IAEA remains the global leader on non-proliferation, and has a specific approach to gender mainstreaming in the technical aspects of nuclear management, found in the “IAEA Gender Equality Policy and their Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan.”369 The IAEA possesses the most comprehensive and specific policies to achieving gender equality in the field, and their work presents a model of how to create specific targets and considerations for involving women in a high-level technical field, especially through their work in the technical cooperation program.370 In particular, the IAEA has implemented specific target-oriented policies ensuring the gender analysis is a part of every technical cooperation project, and specialized advising on project activities to ensure that both men and women will benefit from programming.371

The Programme of Action on Small Arms and Light Weapons (PoA SALW) has also shown increasing recognition of gender issues, through engagement with civil society.372 During the Third Biennial Meeting of States (BMS), active civil society organizations such as Reaching Critical Will (RCW), a project of the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF), produced gender-focused reports on the meeting’s progression.373 Ultimately, the groups’ recommendations that Security Council resolution 1325 be formally recognized within the mandate of the PoA SALW, were left unheeded.374 Similarly, at the Fourth BMS, sample guidelines on gender mainstreaming in small arms non-proliferation were created but have not yet been implemented.375

Finally, on a grassroots level, women have been working at disarmament and non-proliferation efforts independently for decades.376 Mobilization on this issue actually dates back to the First World War, when “nearly 1,200 women from warring and neutral countries came together to protest against the conflict, and formed the [non-profit] WILPF,” which continues today to push for gender-inclusive disarmament efforts.377 Some of them are successfully advocating for the UN to create the “International Day for the Total Elimination of Nuclear Weapons.”378 In addition, WILPF was the key organization of the 2011 “Women, disarmament, arms control and nonproliferation” seminar, which remains the most recent civil society meeting to bring together experts, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and civil society groups to develop recommendations on gender, disarmament, and nonproliferation.379 Even the creation of the Partial Test-Ban Treaty of 1963 can be partly attributed to the pressure from mothers who were “prompted by the discovery of strontium-90 in mother’s milk and other radioactive hazards from the fallout from atmospheric nuclear tests.”380 Global women’s peace movements across the developed world and South-East Asia in the 1980’s inspired organization against nuclear testing and peaceful protests for weapons collection programs, inspired by the differential threat that the proliferation of weapons in post-conflict situations present to women.381 Also, currently, other significant work has been done by the NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security (NGOWG) which releases key reports, pre-PoA BMS “PrepComs,” position papers, toolkits, and other key documents to help civil society groups and NGOs prepare for negotiations at the UN.382 Finally and most recently, Reaching Critical Will recently published their “First Committee Briefing Book,” published in advance of the 71st session of the General Assembly, which criticized the gendered impacts of the use and trade of weapons, the

370 IAEA, Gender Mainstreaming and the IAEA’s Technical Cooperation Programme, 2016.
371 Ibid.
372 Cook, Gender & Small Arms, 2008; Gonzales, Gender and the UN Programme of Action: Including All Voices, 2010.
373 Cook, Gender & Small Arms, 2008.
374 Ibid.
375 Gonzales, Gender and the UN Programme of Action: Including All Voices, 2010.
376 WILPF, Women, Disarmament, Non-Proliferation and Arms Control, pp. 5-11.
378 Ibid.
379 WILPF, Women, Disarmament, Non-Proliferation and Arms Control, 2011.
381 Inter-agency Task Force on Women, Peace and Security & Special Adviser of the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women, Women, Peace and Security, 2002; WILPF, Women, Disarmament, Non-proliferation, and Arms Control, 2011.
382 IANSA, Women, Gender, and Guns, 2016.
consistent framing of women as “victims” of all violent conflict, and the importance of fostering feminized notions of peace.383

**Gender-Specific Disarmament Needs and Capacity-Building**

Helping a state with preventive disarmament needs and post-conflict disarmament is a complex process.384 The General Assembly is increasingly recognizing the simultaneous importance of national, regional, and local coordination mechanisms in disarmament, noting that both high-level dialogue and field instruments must be combined for maximum impact of disarmament resources.385 When looking at gender specifically, the General Assembly has established that women must be involved in the design and implementation of high-level disarmament, non-proliferation, and arms control efforts, as well as engaged locally.386 At the community level, UN research has also established that former women combatants are often neglected and their specific post-conflict needs disregarded throughout the disarmament process.387 This neglected sphere of consultation brings into question larger issues such as the relationship between masculinity and arms ownership, the invisibility of female soldiers, and the lack of formal recognition of the importance of female-driven community support in disarmament processes.388

Disarmament and non-proliferation are no longer simply about reducing numbers of weapons, but are complex socio-cultural processes that disproportionally impact and rely on women.389 Significant obstacles still remain. Most recently in East Timor and Sierra Leone, the UN has recognized issues in the application of disarmament programmes such as failures to recognize effects on sexual violence, gun violence, forced prostitution and marriage, and domestic violence, on women both in formal combat and during the disarmament process.390 Additionally, official UN research on the actual numbers of female combatants, the means to get more women involved in high-level disarmament discussion, and the needs of women whose male partners have been combatants, are all currently lacking.391 As it currently stands, the UN does not have strategies to address the specific needs of women during the disarmament process, and has yet to formally consult involved women on their disarmament needs.392

**Acknowledging the Value of Grassroots Organization**

In understanding women, disarmament, and non-proliferation, it is key to recognize that the process of disarmament is now understood to also include the much more complex processes of reintegration, consultation, research, and community support.393 This is particularly evident in the SDGs, where disarmament and non-proliferation are emphasized as key ingredients of sustainable development, particularly in Goal 16, which calls for an end to illicit arms flows.394 In SDG negotiations, Member States also noted the importance of redirecting funding previously used for military processes to development and gender programming, with specific attention paid to development-focused disarmament.395 With this knowledge also comes recognition of women’s strong connection to maintaining the

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384 UN General Assembly, *General Assembly First Committee*, 2016.
386 Ibid.
community prior to and during conflict, including looking after children, nursing the wounded, caring for the elderly, and domestic maintenance.  

Women themselves have been historically involved in efforts to bring recognition to this topic and to create community-level change via grassroots efforts. With increased recognition of the key role women perform in pre- and post-conflict settings, comes similar research on the value of consultation with women regarding weapons, the types and numbers of weapons, and identification of caches of illicit weapons, and during disarmament with attention paid to how weapons can negatively impact sustainable community development. Women have been noted as a valuable resource for providing insight on increases in local weapons accumulation and proliferation as a sign of impending conflict; as well as knowing locations of arms caches, transportation routes, and expressing the varying social impact of increased conventional arms within a community. Women are key to understanding the best way to implement community-focused disarmament and non-proliferation practices, as they have vested interests in creating communities free of violence. Also, these groups have also historically been key partners in the UN’s public campaigns to urge combatants to turn over their arms to collections and public destruction of weapons.

**Engaging Women in High-Level Negotiations**

Since 2000, significant steps have been taken to involve more women in the high-level research and negotiations during disarmament and non-proliferation processes. The Women Scholarship for Peace Program, funded by the UNODA, has enabled women from the Global South to further their advanced education in order to become experts in the field, and allowed conferences and meetings amongst similar women. High-level round tables and capacity-building workshops have helped increase attention and education on women and disarmament within the UN. Additionally, the Disarmament and Non-proliferation Education Partnership has funded global forums for women to discuss building policy on gender, development and peace.

There has also been increased focus by civil society on how to better frame discussions of gender in high-level negotiations, moving away from consistently portraying women as victims of conflict and instead reflecting their autonomy and significant community influence in disarmament practices. This supports current dialogue at the UN about moving away from portraying “women” as a homogenous group with universalized disarmament needs, and instead reflects the need to consult diverse female perspectives in all high-level negotiations. Some Member States have also proposed the adoption of formal national framework documents or action plans on supporting and strengthening effective participation of women in peace processes and post-conflict peacebuilding. Finally, there have been calls for women to be more involved in every stage of domestic disarmament and non-proliferation.

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397 Ibid

398 UN DPKO, *Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration*, 2016.


404 Ibid.


406 Acheson, *Statement on gender and disarmament to the UN General Assembly First Committee*, 2015.

407 Ibid.

408 UN General Assembly, *Response by the Republic of Lithuania to the request by the UN Secretary-General to seek the views of Member States on ways and means of promoting the role of women in disarmament, non-proliferation and arms control*, 2013.
process, from negotiators, to heads of missions, to experts, in addition to increased collaboration with NGOs and civil society to develop more gender-inclusive codes of military conduct.409

**Conclusion**

Despite some progress since Security Council resolution 1325, the UN still faces significant challenges in order to involve women equally in non-proliferation and disarmament processes.410 Goals such as educating women to self-advocate in high-level dialogues; including reference to gender in key disarmament and non-proliferation documents; and the specific requirements of gender-specific disarmament capacity-building, remain elusive.411 Regardless of UN progress on this issue, women are still increasingly representing a significant group in disarmament processes, as well as valuable resources in negotiating post-conflict culturally relative contexts.412 As the international community has access to increasing research on the role of gender in disarmament and nonproliferation, it is key that existing gender mainstreaming tools be adapted to increase the role of women in disarmament and non-proliferation efforts at the UN.413

**Further Research**

While researching solutions, delegates should consider questions such as: how can we best involve women at high-level discussions of disarmament and non-proliferation? What role does the UN play in supporting existing grassroots and community-level women’s organizations in disarmament processes? How can the UN most effectively aid Member States create opportunities for women’s participation at the national, regional, and sub-regional levels of efforts on disarmament and non-proliferation? How can the UN better train disarmament staff to respond to gender-specific needs in dialogues and negotiations? And finally, how do we ensure an equal level of policy support for both high-level discussion and on-the-ground work following conflict, in order to ensure that women are represented at all levels of disarmament and non-proliferation?

**Annotated Bibliography**


This statement provides a brief but key reflection of the United Nations’ gender mainstreaming goals, and the specific rhetoric used to make these recommendations. Specifically, the page provides details on the impact of disarmament measures on women, and a discussion on how the UN can adopt more effective gender equality strategies in the field by increasing female leadership. Delegates will find this piece a good example of the gender mainstreaming and disarmament topic crossover in action, and will be key to guiding their understanding of how gender mainstreaming policy priorities work within the UN.


This study submitted by the Secretary-General pursuant to Security Council resolution 1325 remains the most comprehensive document to date and future of involving women in peace and security processes. Its focus on disarmament makes it particularly applicable to this topic, most notably, its impressive research on the disproportionate impact of conflict on women (explored

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409 UN General Assembly, *Response by the Republic of Lithuania to the request by the UN Secretary-General to seek the views of Member States on ways and means of promoting the role of women in disarmament, non-proliferation and arms control*, 2013.


thoroughly in the “Impact of Armed Conflict on Women and Girls” section) and the included exploration on adjusting humanitarian and peacekeeping missions to the needs of women. Delegates will find this document extremely useful to understanding how disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) processes can be changed to be more inclusive of different experiences under conflict.


This study is one of the most inclusive case studies in existence on involving women in disarmament processes, and is particularly useful for its level of consultation with Colombian women and culturally relative approach to recommendation creation. In addition to proving the importance of women’s involvement in the disarmament process and how women and men experience conflict differently, this document proves the affordability and effectiveness of sustainable gender-informed DDR planning. Delegates should use this case as model for how to create an inclusive policy framework in culturally-specific conflict situations, and as a strong example of synthesizing DDR with post-conflict reconstruction plans.


This comprehensive report from the UN Development Fund for Women (now UN-Women) provides a well-supported document of technical recommendations for gender and disarmament policies. One of the only documents released from the UN that provides such exacting gender inclusion targets, this report excels in its ability to analyze past failures of the UN on gender equality (explored in the “Lessons Learned” section) and make adjusted gender mainstreaming proposals. This report also provides two excellent case studies on Liberia and Papua New Guinea, which will be of use to delegates for UNIFEM’s included critical examples of policies that were particularly effective.


This webpage is a comprehensive summary of key UN documents and research on mainstreaming gender in disarmament work, and provides links to most of these key documents. It includes details on the role that lead organizations, such as UN-Women and UNODA, play on this issue and how these organizations collaborate to reach goals such as Action Plans and Briefing Notes. Delegates should utilize this page as a starting point for understanding the framework of international documentation that supports the issue of women and disarmament, particularly replies from individual Member State governments, Secretary-General’s reports, and replies from independent bodies and international organizations.


This article presents one of the most recent success stories in gender mainstreaming and disarmament affairs. In addition to discussing the usage of scholarships to enable women to become involved in the field, it also discusses the specific goals of these two key organizations under the UN. In particular it provides an example of how concrete measures to involve women in disarmament topics can be enacted, and discusses the impact of high-level involvement by women in the international system. This source is a key example of current work being done on the issue and should prove a good research starting point for delegates.


Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) is the most important UN resolution on women, peace and security, and the foundational document of all work in gender and disarmament. Delegates
should have a good understanding of this document prior to committee, including all resolutions referenced in the preamble as well as all relevant presidential statements and reports of the Secretary-General discussed as forming the framework in this resolution. Delegates should also have a thorough grasp of the limits of this binding resolution, and key terminology utilized.


This webpage provides a comprehensive and critical overview of progress (or lack thereof) in involving women in peace and security processes. Much of the information is provided through statistics with a strong focus on women’s leadership; justice and security; peacebuilding and recovery. Delegates will find this resource particularly useful because of its extensive use of sourcing and links, allowing easy access to dozens of key UN reports and studies on gender and conflict, particularly reports from the Security Council and UN-Women.


This lengthy document is a huge review of Security Council resolution 1325, spanning from an evaluation of its initial implementation, to a critical reflection on its posterior impact. Aside from being the most comprehensive and recent review to date, it is an excellent resource for how ambitious its scope is. This all-encompassing review considers case studies from every region and continent, and discusses the intersections between gender and human rights law, peacekeeping, finance, violent extremism, transformative justice, social norms, and the global security agenda. Delegates will find this document key to understanding the UN’s approach to DDR and gender, regional civil society consultation, and wide-ranging discussion on the creation and impact of related resolutions.


This comprehensive research report effectively summarizes the challenges of having women become further involved in disarmament affairs, and presents concrete external recommendations. Additionally, the document provides a summary of panel discussions between developed and developing nations on the unique obstacles to attaining gender equality in disarmament affairs, with perspectives from Costa Rica, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Pakistan, and the United Kingdom. Delegates may utilize this report as a key examination of the current state of the issue, a starting point as to where recommended future work should begin, and to understand where resistance from Member States on this topic could potentially emerge.

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