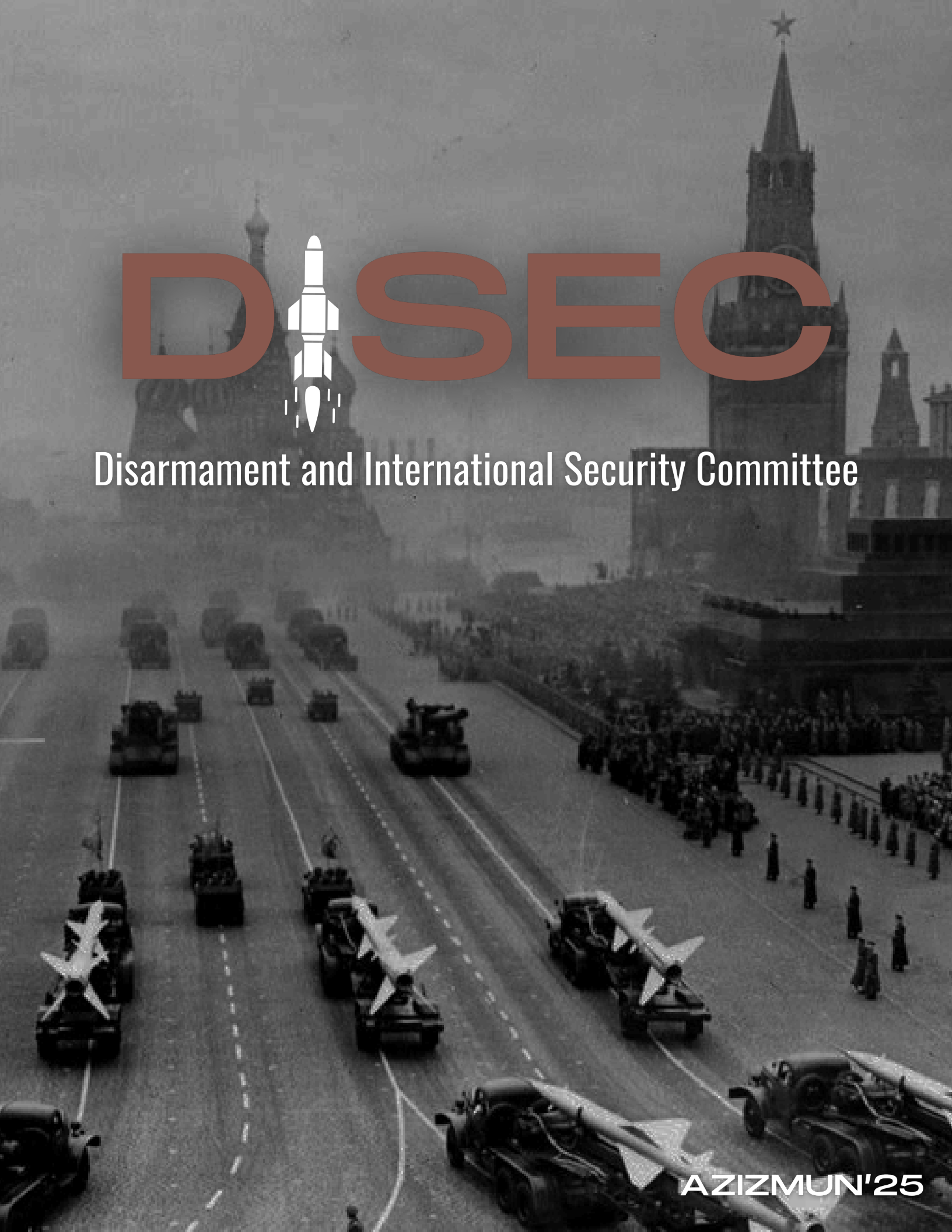

DISEC

Disarmament and International Security Committee

AZIZMUN'25

THE CONTENT

WELCOME LETTER FROM SECRETARY GENERAL

Dear delegates,

I, the secretary general of the conference, would like to welcome you all to AZIZMUN'25. It is an honor for me to be able to present you this work that we have been preparing for months. My team has worked tirelessly to hopefully bring you one of the best MUN experiences you will ever attend.

In our DISEC committee you will be debating upon the limitation of weapons, mainly conventional, and the rise of the use of nuclear weapons. Both topics which were so important for global security and stability back then and they still are. We saw nuclear weapons destroy nations and you are the ones who can change that from happening again while also securing a better future. I believe if you come prepared enough, you will succeed in your committee. For any questions don't hesitate to reach out to me or your USG.

We are eager to see you and can't wait for the debates we will have. As a team, we will do our best to make this conference unforgettable for everyone. I wish you all the best with your preparations!

Best regards,

Melis KARAALİ
Secretary General of AZIZMUN'25

Contact Information: melis_karaali@icloud.com

WELCOME LETTER FROM DIRECTOR GENERAL

Dear Delegates,

I am Ecem Yaren Ekici, and I have the honor to serve as the Director General of AZIZMUN'25. It, therefore, brings immeasurable joy to me to have you here in this conference. Months of working hard in preparation for everything have passed, and now just seeing you in our committees is the only reward we could have asked for. I am particularly excited about hosting the delegates of DISEC.

The committee will also study areas beyond military activities, that is, among many others, all matters pertaining to construction and/or operation in building peace and international cooperation. Such discussions will follow a spotlight on some pertinent global security issues that have emerged in different parts of the world as as a result of the Cold War. The discussions will revolve around how various conflicts have impacted the globe and possible measures to avoid future conflicts. Each debate, therefore, intends to stimulate some serious thinking, and perhaps radical innovations.

I wish you all a enjoyable, productive,unforgettable and flawless conference. Please don't hesitate to reach out to me any time should you have questions or need assistance with anything.

I am already proud of all of you, and I cannot wait to meet you in our committee!

Best wishes,

Ecem Yaren EKİCİ
Director General of AZIZMUN'25

Contact Information: ecemyarenekici22@gmail.com

WELCOME LETTER FROM UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL

Dear Delegates,

As your Under-Secretary-General, I am both honored and excited to be with you during the AZIZMUN'25 conference. Me and our team are determined to make your experience as enjoyable, interactive and exceptional as we can. We are here to make your time here as well spent as one can make it.

During the sessions of our committee, you will be tasked with resolving one of the greatest threats humanity has brought upon itself: the disarming of weapons. This study guide was put together to help you understand the history of the DISEC committee, what its goals are, what it fought against during the cold war and what it did to achieve its goals.

This study guide is meant to give you a detailed overview of what the DISEC committee did and the events that took place during the cold war that caused it to take action against it. Alongside the Study Guide, all delegates are free to do their own research on this topic.

I genuinely believe that all of our delegates can come together and understand and realise the importance of this committee and act accordingly. I am assured that your knowledge and your determination will lead the committee to success.

Throughout this process, we will always be there to aid and support you with any of your questions or concerns.

We are here to make sure and guarantee you that you will have an exceptional and unforgettable MUN experience. We are certain that you will gain immense knowledge and information over the subjects we will speak over. I hope and wish you all the best and look forward with gratitude to meet you all at AZIZMUN.

Kadir Yiğit AKIN
Under Secretary General of DISEC

Contact Information: kadiryigitakin@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

The United Nations (UN) Disarmament and International Security Committee (DISEC) was created as the first of the Main Committees in the General Assembly when the charter of the United Nations was signed in 1945. Thus, DISEC is often referred to as the First Committee. DISEC was formed to respond to the need for an international forum to discuss peace and security issues among members of the international community.

According to the UN Charter, the purpose of DISEC in the General Assembly is to establish 'general principles of cooperation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and the regulation of armaments and also to give "recommendations with regard to such principles to the Members or to the Security Council."

Although DISEC cannot directly advise the Security Council's decision-making process, the UN Charter explains that DISEC can suggest specific topics for Security Council consideration. Aside from its role in the General Assembly, DISEC is also an institution of the United Nations Office for Disarmament Affairs (UNODA), formally named in January 1998 after the Secretary-General's second special session on disarmament in 1982. The UNODA is concerned with disarmament at all levels—nuclear weapons, weapons of mass destruction, and conventional weapons—and assists DISEC through its work conducted in the General Assembly for substantive norm-setting support to further its disarmament initiatives.

NUCLEAR PROLIFERATION AND SECURITY IN THE CONTEXT OF THE COLD WAR

Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons and Safety

The initial development of nuclear technology was military, during World War II. Two nuclear bombs made from uranium-235 and plutonium-239 were dropped on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki respectively in August 1945 and these brought the long war to a sudden end. The immense and previously unimaginable power of the atom had been demonstrated. Then attention turned to civil applications. In the course of half a century nuclear technology has enabled access to a virtually unlimited source of energy at a time when constraints are arising on the use of fossil fuels.

In the 1960s it was widely assumed that there would be 30-35 nuclear weapons states by the turn of the century. In fact there were eight – a tremendous testimony to the effectiveness of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) and its incentives both against weapons and for civil nuclear power, despite the baleful influence of the Cold War (1950s to 80s) which saw a massive build-up of nuclear weapons particularly by the USA and the Soviet Union. Possession of nuclear weapons is evidently for military deterrence, but the proposition that more of them in more countries would diminish warfare is not widely accepted, and is rejected as a basis for international policy.

Tested its first thermonuclear bombs non-proliferation regime is much more than the NPT, although this is the pre-eminent international treaty on the subject. The regime includes treaties, conventions and common (multilateral and bilateral) arrangements covering security and physical protection, export controls, nuclear test-bans and, potentially, fissile material production cut-offs. The international community can apply pressure to states outside the NPT to make every possible effort to conform to the full range of international norms on nuclear non-proliferation that make up this regime.

There are currently a total of 9 nations that possess nuclear weapons with South Africa dismantling their nuclear warheads in the 1970's. However their exact date of dismantlement and their current state in terms of nuclear stability are classified. The following text contains the list of nation that have developed nuclear weapons during the cold war and the history of their development:

United States (1945)

The United States is famously the first nation to develop nuclear weapons as well as use them in combat. On July 16th, 1945, the United States detonated the World's first atom bomb, codenamed Trinity, in the New Mexican desert as a part of the Manhattan project. After the successful test, the United States developed 2 more bombs, which were called Little boy and Fat Man, in order to drop them on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. There was a third bomb under development at the time that was intended as a last-ditch effort to be dropped on the Japanese capital city of Tokyo and knock Japan out of the war. However, the devastation caused by the 2 Nuclear bombs was enough to convince the Japanese Empire to Surrender and effectively end the Second World War.

After WWII, the United States continued developing stronger and more efficient nuclear weapons. All previous weapons until November 1st 1952 relied on fission in order to create a nuclear blast. However, under the orchestration of Edward Teller, The US developed the Hydrogen bomb. This weapon relied on a fusion reaction instead of a fission one. The first test was conducted on November 1st 1952 at Enewetak Atoll. The bomb was called Ivy Mike and was so powerful that it erased the island that it was tested on off the face of the planet. After the success of Ivy Mike, The US continued developing and constructing nuclear weapons. At the peak of its might, the US possessed around 31.000 nuclear weapons in 1965. However, in the decades that followed, they would be challenged by a new nuclear superpower.

As these developments continued, It soon became apparent that the Air Force urgently needed a replacement for their aging fleet of piston-powered Boeing B-29 and B-50 bomber aircraft that they had been using to drop nuclear bombs until 1953 in order to drop a nuclear warhead without being attacked by jet fighter aircraft. The jet Engine was a new way of propulsion that was originally developed by the British and the Germans independently. The speed and altitude advantage that jet engines provided to the aircraft they were mounted led to the creation of the North American B-45 jet-powered long-range high-altitude bomber on 22 April 1948. This date also marked the creation of the first long-range jet-powered nuclear bomber. The USA also tried to create a Doomsday bomb under the leadership of Professor Edward Teller called Project Sundial. It was designed to destroy the world by causing a Global nuclear fallout.

Much of the project is still classified, but we know that construction began and tests were planned. However, such an idea during the craze of nuclear development was considered too much. Politicians who were secretly informed reacted with terror. Even the USA Army reacted with utter disbelief. Building it was considered a crime against humanity. It also raised a lot of ethical questions that are still discussed to this day.

USSR (1949)

After witnessing the destructive power of an atomic bomb built by the Americans, the Soviet Union also decided to build and develop their own nuclear weapons in order to keep the balance of power between the two nations. Such an action can be justified when the risk of defencelessness against such a threat is taken into consideration. The USSR only initially developed their nuclear weapons to deter and prevent American nuclear aggression against themselves and their communist allies.

Their development efforts were marginally sped up thanks to Klaus Fuchs who was a German theoretical scientist working on the Manhattan project and also one of the people who worked on the design of the 2 bombs dropped on Japan who the USSR unofficially called “useful idiots”.

In early 1942 Soviet physicist Georgy Flerov noticed that articles on nuclear fission were no longer appearing in Western journals—an indication that research on the subject had become classified. In response, Flerov wrote to, among others, Premier Joseph Stalin, insisting that “we must build the uranium bomb without delay.” In 1943 Stalin ordered the commencement of a research. However, due to the Nazi invasion of the USSR, initial progress was slow since most of their manpower as well as their resources were being funneled to the army instead of research facilities. After the end of the war, the soviet union had more time, more resources, more information thanks to spies, a bigger budget, and a bigger reason to build and develop an atomic bomb.

The first test was conducted on August 29th, 1949 in the Kazakh SSR. The bomb was called the RDS-1 or “First Lightning” (codenamed “Joe-1” by the United States), at Semipalatinsk on August 29, 1949. The USSR was also the first nation to develop intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBM) on August 21st 1957. The missile was called the R-7 or Smeyorka-7. It was capable of reaching the United States as well as other planets in our solar system. It could also be placed in our planet’s orbit and could be called down to a certain point to strike.

The Soviet Union also holds the record of the Largest single nuclear bomb ever tested. The bomb was called the RDS-220 and Tsar Bomba in the west and had a yield of 50 megatons of TNT. It was tested over Novaya Zemlya on October 30th, 1961. By 1962 the Soviet Union was making so many ICBMs that the Soviet premier, Nikita Khrushchev, said that they were “making missiles like sausages”. At its peak in the late 1980’s, The USSR had around 39.000 Nuclear weapons.

United Kingdom (1952)

The United Kingdom initially began research in June 1941 by the order of Prime Minister Winston Churchill under the codenamed project “Tube Alloys”which became the first nuclear weapons programme in the world. The project was assisted by German scientists who were seeking refuge in the United Kingdom such as Otto Frisch and Rudolf Peierls. However, they did not possess the raw materials or the funds to develop the bomb on their own at the time. Therefore they aided the Manhattan project with Canada that was building an atomic bomb for the Americans Under the Quebec Agreement.This aid significantly reduced the development time of the A-Bomb since the British scientists had a huge sum of information that they had gathered over the years of development on the Tube Alloys programme.

The US initially promised the UK and Canada that they were going to share the test results with the UK under the terms of the Quebec Agreement. However, after testing them on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the US terminated their agreement and did not give any scientific data after the tests. The UK decided to continue its own research and develop their own nuclear weapon without the aid of the US. After the war had ended, the UK could redirect most of its money to funding the development of nuclear weapons

Their first test was conducted on October 3 1952 on the Monte Bello islands which were north of Australia. The test was codenamed “Operation Hurricane”. With the success of the test, the UK became the first western European power to own nuclear weapons.

At its peak in 1974, the UK had a total of 500 Nuclear warheads.

France (1960)

On October 18, 1945, the French Atomic Energy Commission (Commissariat à l'Énergie Atomique; CEA) was established by Gen. Charles de Gaulle with the objective of exploiting the scientific, industrial, and military potential of atomic energy. The military application of atomic energy did not begin until 1951. In July 1952 the National Assembly adopted a five-year plan with a primary goal of building plutonium production reactors. Work began on a reactor at Marcoule in the summer of 1954 and on a plutonium separating plant the following year.

On December 26, 1954, the issue of proceeding with a French atomic bomb was raised at the cabinet level. The outcome was that Prime Minister Pierre Mendès France launched a secret program to develop an atomic bomb. On November 30, 1956, a protocol was signed specifying tasks the CEA and the Defense Ministry would perform. These included providing the plutonium, assembling a device, and preparing a test site. Key figures who contributed to the development of the atomic bomb were Pierre Guillaumat, Gen. Charles Ailleret, and Yves Rocard. On July 22, 1958, de Gaulle, now president, set the date for the first atomic explosion to occur within the first three months of 1960. For de Gaulle, especially, French attainment of the bomb symbolized independence and a role for France in geopolitical affairs. On February 13, 1960, France detonated an atomic bomb from a 105-meter (344-foot) tower in the Sahara in what was then French Algeria. The plutonium implosion design had a yield of 60 to 70 kilotons, three times the yield of the atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki, Japan.

China (1964)

Shortly following the post-Korean War cease-fire declaration and after the conclusion of peace talks in Geneva in 1954, China's national nuclear weapons program was conceived. The Third Ministry of Machinery Building – what is now the China National Nuclear Corporation (CNNC) – was established in 1956. The CNNC is government-owned and is the largest nuclear enterprise in China. Between extensive Soviet-Chinese cooperation and the provision of Soviet resources to China throughout the decade, China's nuclear weapons research quickly accelerated and flourished into a fully-fledged, independent nuclear weapons program. With Soviet assistance, Chinese nuclear research took off at the Institute of Physics and Atomic Energy in Beijing, and a gaseous diffusion uranium enrichment plant was constructed in Lanzhou to produce weapons-grade uranium.

In 1957, the USSR agreed to supply China with a sample of an atomic bomb and supporting data, with which Beijing could independently manufacture a nuclear weapon.

From 1955 to 1959, hundreds of Chinese and Soviet nuclear scientists and engineers worked and studied in the nuclear energy industry of the USSR and China, respectively, allowing great mutual understanding of each other's technology and nuclear research procedures. However, the Soviet Union disallowed this exchange and discontinued assistance to China in 1959, following the development of a mutual political rivalry and related suspicion. Even after the USSR cut ties to the Chinese nuclear program, the Chinese continued on with their nuclear weapons program.

The PRC conducted its first nuclear test under the codename of "Project 596". The test was conducted on October 16, 1964. They conducted their first thermonuclear bomb test on June 17 1967 under the codename "Test No. 6", only 32 months after their first nuclear test. This makes te PRC the fastest nation to jump from fission to fusion bombs.

Israel (19??)

Israel has an official policy of ambiguity with respect to nuclear weapons. It has never confirmed or denied possessing nuclear weapons and has never conducted a nuclear test. However, it is universally acknowledged that Israel has a nuclear weapons capability which it developed outside the framework of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT).

Along with India and Pakistan, Israel has therefore considered a de facto nuclear-weapon state. Due to its official stance, clarification of Israel's nuclear policies and capabilities is difficult.

Countries That Attempted but Failed or Abandoned Their Nuclear Programs:

Switzerland

During the Cold War, Switzerland explored the possibility of developing nuclear weapons as part of its neutrality policy. It conducted research and even built a reactor capable of producing plutonium. However, by the late 1960s, Switzerland abandoned its nuclear weapons program and signed the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) in 1969.

Sweden

Sweden pursued a nuclear weapons program in the 1950s and 1960s, motivated by concerns over Soviet aggression. It conducted extensive research and built a heavy-water reactor. However, by the late 1960s, Sweden decided to forgo nuclear weapons and joined the NPT in 1968.

South Korea

In the 1970s, South Korea initiated a covert nuclear weapons program under President Park Chung-hee, fearing North Korean aggression and U.S. withdrawal from the region. The program was discovered and shut down under U.S. pressure in the mid-1970s.

Taiwan

Taiwan (Republic of China) began a nuclear weapons program in the 1960s with the help of foreign scientists. However, the program was dismantled in the late 1980s under U.S. pressure and after the 1988 Chung Shan Institute of Science and Technology incident, where a scientist exposed the program.

Libya

Under Muammar Gaddafi, Libya pursued a nuclear weapons program in the 1970s and 1980s, acquiring technology and materials from various sources. However, the program was abandoned in 2003 due to international pressure and lack of progress.

Iraq

Iraq initiated a nuclear weapons program in the 1970s, with assistance from France and other countries. The program was significantly set back by Israel's Operation Opera in 1981, which destroyed the Osirak reactor. After the Gulf War (1990–1991), Iraq's nuclear program was dismantled under UN supervision.

Argentina and Brazil

Both countries pursued nuclear programs during the Cold War, driven by regional rivalry and a desire for technological prestige. However, by the 1990s, both nations abandoned their weapons programs and committed to peaceful nuclear energy under mutual inspection agreements.

Crises and Close Calls

The Cold War witnessed several crises that brought the world to the brink of nuclear war. The most notable was the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) when the U.S. discovered Soviet nuclear missiles in Cuba. A tense 13-day standoff ensued, ultimately resolved through diplomacy but highlighting the precarious nature of nuclear security. Other close calls included:

U-2 Incident (1960)

A U.S. spy plane called the U-2 was shot down over the USSR, escalating tensions. The United States claimed that it was a high-altitude weather plane that flew off course. However, the photos captured from the U-2's camera showed that it took photos of the USSR's top secret military bases and nuclear missile silos.

Soviet Nuclear False Alarm (1983)

A Soviet early-warning system falsely detected a U.S. missile launch, nearly triggering a nuclear response. The false alarm was caused by sunlight reflecting from clouds that Soviet satellites misinterpreted as ICBM launches.

Cuban Missile Crisis (1960)

The Cuban Missile Crisis was a pivotal Cold War confrontation between the U.S. and the Soviet Union, bringing them closest to nuclear conflict, marked by high-stakes decisions and direct communications between leaders. Following the failed Bay of Pigs invasion and U.S. plans for Operation Mongoose, Soviet Premier Khrushchev secretly agreed with Cuba's Castro to deploy nuclear missiles on the island to deter future U.S. aggression.

U.S. surveillance flights in September 1962 detected Soviet military activity in Cuba, prompting Kennedy to publicly warn against offensive weapons there. On October 14, a U-2 flight captured images of Soviet medium- and intermediate-range ballistic missile sites under construction in Cuba, triggering the crisis. Kennedy convened advisors, weighing options from airstrikes to diplomacy, ultimately choosing a naval "quarantine" (avoiding the legally charged term "blockade") to prevent further Soviet arms shipments. On October 22, Kennedy announced the quarantine in a televised address, framing any nuclear attack from Cuba as a Soviet act requiring full U.S. retaliation. The U.S. military escalated to DEFCON 3, while Khrushchev denounced the quarantine as aggression but initially allowed some Soviet ships to avoid confrontation. By October 25, U.S. reconnaissance confirmed Soviet missile sites nearing completion, prompting DEFCON 2, the highest alert short of war.

On October 26, a Soviet agent proposed a secret deal to ABC's John Scali: missile removal in exchange for a U.S. pledge not to invade Cuba. Hours later, Khrushchev sent Kennedy an emotional letter echoing this offer, urging de-escalation to avoid nuclear war. The next day, Khrushchev added a public demand for the removal of U.S. Jupiter missiles in Turkey, complicating negotiations as a U-2 was shot down over Cuba. Kennedy privately agreed to withdraw Turkey's missiles via his brother Robert, who relayed the assurance to Soviet Ambassador Dobrynin but insisted it remains secret. On October 28, Khrushchev publicly accepted Kennedy's terms, announcing the dismantling of Cuban missiles in exchange for a no-invasion pledge and a secret Turkey deal. The U.S. ended its quarantine on November 20 after the Soviets withdrew IL-28 bombers; Jupiter missiles were removed from Turkey by April 1963.

The crisis highlighted communication failures, leading to the 1963 establishment of the Washington-Moscow "Hotline" for direct dialogue. It also spurred arms control efforts, culminating in the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty later that year. Kennedy's handling of the crisis bolstered his global reputation, offsetting the Bay of Pigs fallout. The event reshaped Cold War diplomacy, emphasizing crisis management and deterrence strategies.

During the Cold War, efforts to limit the use of conventional weapons (non-nuclear arms such as tanks, aircraft, and artillery) were pursued to reduce the risk of large-scale wars, stabilize military balances, and ease tensions between NATO and the Warsaw Pact. While arms control talks often focused on nuclear weapons, several key agreements and initiatives addressed conventional forces. The following contains the key agreements that shaped the Cold War.

LIMITATION OF CONVENTIONAL WEAPONS

Early Attempts (1950s–1960s)

- **UN Conventional Arms Commission (1947–1952)**

The UN proposed to regulate arms production, but Cold War tensions prevented progress.

- **Rapacki Plan (1957)**

It was a Polish proposal to create a nuclear-free zone in Central Europe (Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia), including limits on conventional forces. It was later rejected by NATO due to concerns over Soviet conventional superiority.

- **Kennedy's "Build-Down" Proposal (1963)**

It suggested mutual reductions in NATO and Warsaw Pact forces, but no formal agreement was reached.

Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT) & Related Efforts

While SALT I (1972) and SALT II (1979) primarily dealt with nuclear weapons, they set the stage for conventional arms talks by improving US-Soviet relations.

Mutual and Balanced Force Reductions (MBFR) (1973–1989)

It was meant to reduce NATO and Warsaw Pact forces in Central Europe. However, disputes over troop numbers (especially Soviet vs. NATO estimates) and their verification led to no significant treaty, but discussions paved the way for later agreements.

Stockholm Conference (1984–1986) & Confidence-Building Measures

It led to the Stockholm Document (1986), which required advanced notification of large military exercises as well as on-site inspections to verify compliance. It also pushed for greater transparency in troop movements.

Conventional Forces in Europe (CFE) Treaty (1990, signed post-Cold War but negotiated during it)

It was the most significant Cold War-era conventional arms control treaty. It set equal limits on NATO and Warsaw Pact tanks, artillery, armored vehicles, aircraft, and helicopters as well as mandating the destruction of excess weapons. It also included strict verification measures. It single-handedly and effectively ended the risk of a massive conventional war in Europe.

The main factor that caused many of these treaties to fail was ironically nuclear weapons. Since proxy wars were happening during the cold war, the superpowers had to aid their puppet states with weapons. However, giving them nuclear weapons would definitely cause unwanted political turmoil that could end in a nuclear war. So, in order to prevent this, these agreements were initially loosened and then were dissolved altogether.

REGIONAL SECURITY AGGREMENTS

During the Cold War, several regional peace agreements were made to control conflicts and reduce tensions. The following list includes all of the notable armistices during the cold war.

Egypt-Israel Armistice Agreement (1949)
Ended the 1948 Arab-Israeli War.

Camp David Accords (1978)
These accords led to the Egypt-Israel Peace Treaty (1979), normalizing relations.

Algiers Agreement (1975)
Ended the border disputes between Iraq and Iran (later collapsed before the Iraq-Iran War).

Korean Armistice Agreement (1953)
Ended active fighting in the Korean War (but no formal peace treaty).

Geneva Accords (1954)
Temporarily divided Vietnam and ended French colonial rule.

Simla Agreement (1972)
India and Pakistan agreed to resolve Kashmir disputes peacefully after the 1971 war.

Trujillo-Bethancourt Treaties (1958–1960)
Venezuela and the Dominican Republic resolved disputes under OAS mediation.

Esquipulas II Agreement (1987)
Central American peace plan (Costa Rica, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras) to end civil wars.

These agreements were meant to ease tensions in their respective regions. And even though some met their goals, most of them would only act as fuel for future conflicts around the Globe.

PEACEKEEPER FORCES AND CEASEFIRE INITIATIVES

During the Cold War, several important peacekeeping forces were established by the United Nations (UN) and other organizations to manage conflicts and prevent escalation between warring states. The following contains the list of peacekeeper forces that took action during the Cold War.

United Nations Peacekeeping Forces (Major Missions)

UNTSO (United Nations Truce Supervision Organization) (1948)

The UNTSO was the first-ever UN peacekeeping mission. Its main mission was to monitor the Arab-Israeli ceasefire after the 1948 Arab-Israeli War. The organization is still active today.

UNMOGIP (United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan) (1949)

The UNMOGIP monitored the ceasefire in Kashmir after the First Indo-Pakistani War (1947–1948). Even though it is still operational, it has been inactive due to recent tension in the region.

UNEF I (First United Nations Emergency Force) (1956–1967)

The UNEF I was deployed after the Suez Crisis in order to supervise the withdrawal of British, French, and Israeli forces from Egypt. It is the first armed UN peacekeeping force. It was later dissolved before the Six-Day War (1967).

UNFICYP (United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus) (1964)

The UNFICYP was deployed after intercommunal violence between Greek and Turkish Cypriots and is still active due to the unresolved Cyprus dispute.

UNEF II (Second United Nations Emergency Force) (1973–1979)

The UNEF II was established after the Yom-Kippur War to supervise the ceasefire between Egypt and Israel. Its significance is also great since it paved the way for the Camp David Accords (1978).

UNDOF (United Nations Disengagement Observer Force) (1974)

The UNDOF was tasked with monitoring the ceasefire between Israel and Syria after the 1973 Yom-Kippur War. It is still active in the Golan Heights.

UNIFIL (United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon) (1974)

The UNIFIL was created after Israel's invasion of Lebanon codenamed Operation Litami. It was tasked with confirming Israeli withdrawal and assisting the Lebanese government. The organization is still operational and it expanded after the 2006 Lebanon War.

Non-UN Peacekeeping Forces (Cold War Era)

Multinational Force and Observers (MFO) (1981)

The MFO was established after the Camp David Accords to monitor the Egypt-Israel peace treaty. Due to veto theats from the USSR, it was not able to become a UN peacekeeping organization. However, it did become a multinational oganization.

International Commission of Control and Supervision (ICCS) (1973)

The ICCS was a short-lived mission to supervise the Paris Peace Accords (Vietnam War ceasefire). It later failed due to violations by North Vietnam and the US withdrawal.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED IN THE RESOLUTION PAPER

1. **How can a second nuclear arms race be prevented?**

2. **How can the further development of new nuclear weapons be prevented worldwide?**

3. **How can the international disarmament of conventional weapons be sustainably achieved?**

4. **What can be done to lessen the need for peacekeeper forces around the world?**

5. **How can complete nuclear disarmament be achieved?**

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