General Assembly HS

Topic: **“Regulating Artificial Intelligence in Armed Conflict: Balancing Military Innovation, International Security, and Human Rights ”.**

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Writer’s note:

Welcome delegates to LIMUN 2027.
As your committee Dais, we are looking forward to meeting you and to hear your ideas about how to solve international problems. As this is a new committee following international MUN procedures, you will be provided with a guide to help you throughout this process. Keep in mind that a position paper is not required, instead you will be writing opening speeches.

As your committee Dais, we will work to keep the committees running as smoothly as possible. We will do our best to help you understand the procedures and to ensure that the perspectives of all delegates are heard and respected. If you have any questions that are not found in the guide, be sure to ask us. Once again welcome delegates and good luck.

I. COMMITTEE BACKGROUND

a. Origin of the General Assembly

The United Nations General Assembly originated during World War II when Allied powers planned a postwar organization to maintain peace. It was the first principal organ of the United Nations to convene. Its structure was designed at the 1944 Dumbarton Oaks Conference, established officially in October 1945 by the UN Charter, and first convened on January 10, 1946, in London.

The General Assembly has a body called the First Committee (Disarmament and International Security Committee, also known as DISEC), which was established alongside five other main committees when the UN was founded in October 1945.

b. Functions and objectives

The United Nations General Assembly was established to serve as the main deliberative, policymaking, and representative organ of the United Nations. It was created to provide a universal democratic forum where every member nation has equal voice and representation to prevent future global conflicts following World War II.

The objectives of the GA are to provide a global platform for open talks and joint agreements among all countries. Secondly, to promote international cooperation in political, social, cultural, and educational fields. Support human rights and fundamental freedoms for everyone without discrimination. And to advance global development goals like the reduction of poverty and climate action

II. HISTORY OF THE TOPIC

a. Introduction of the topic

Artificial intelligence (AI) in armed conflict involves using machine learning and data tools to process intelligence, automate targeting, and guide autonomous drones. While AI speeds up tactical decisions, it raises severe legal and ethical worries about human control, accountability, and compliance with the rules of war. Systems analyze massive data streams to flag military objectives and suggest strikes at a speed humans cannot match causing great disadvantage. Predictive maintenance and automated missile-defense shields track and intercept incoming threats

b. Evolution of the topic

Artificial intelligence has fundamentally shifted from an experimental auxiliary tool to an important weapon in modern armed conflict. Global military AI spending past USD 10 billion, while operational conflicts in Ukraine, Gaza, and the Middle East acted as real-time testing grounds that compressed traditional target-to-strike kill chains from nearly a day down to mere seconds.

Systems like the Maven Smart System and localized platforms process massive feeds of satellite and drone telemetry to flag enemy positions and recommend strikes at machine speed. Private AI developers have become deeply enmeshed with military commands. Firms like Anthropic and OpenAI faced public and political pressure over red lines concerning mass surveillance and autonomous weapons. Defense demands have also driven traditional contractors (such as Lockheed Martin and RTX) to heavily layer AI software into legacy hardware

c. Relevant Events

Israel and Gaza

They used a Lavender System which is a machine to assist in identifying tens of thousands of suspected militant targets in Gaza. They also used The Gospel to rapidly generate building and infrastructure targets for strikes.

Ukraine and Russia

Both sides use small FPV and long-range drones equipped with AI for terrain matching and terminal guidance to bypass electronic jamming and hit infrastructure. Platforms like

Palantir Technologies combine satellite imagery, radar, and intercepts for real-time battle management. Russia deploys AI-generated deepfakes and automated social media operations for narrative control

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United States and Middle East

The U.S. Department of Defense uses this AI computer-vision initiative to scan drone and satellite feeds, prioritizing objects and generating recommendations for strikes. Advanced foundation models (including tools associated with Anthropic and xAI) have been utilized by the Pentagon for data analysis, logistics, and target evaluation in operations across the Middle East and Venezuela

III. CURRENT ISSUES

a. Panorama

The use of AI in armed conflicts can cause many severe risks and challenges. To start, for example, flawed training data can cause systems to misidentify civilians as combatants. Machine-to-machine speed can trigger rapid flash wars (an unintended, rapid escalation of military conflict) before humans can intervene causing massive disruption and damage. Blurring who is responsible under international humanitarian law when an AI-driven tool makes a fatal mistake, causing accountability gaps.

These are some of the many problems AI can cause and there will be more if this doesn't stop now. The problem can escalate to the point where AI is attached to nuclear bombs, killing thousands of people. Artificial Intelligence was created to be used as a tool, not a weapon. Delegates, as mentioned, AI is becoming a serious problem and may be used to kill hundreds or even thousands of people. AI has to stop or at least be limited so it won't be a problem in the future.

b. Points of View

The United States of America

The United States military uses artificial intelligence primarily to process massive streams of battlefield data, accelerate intelligence analysis, and generate target lists. They use platforms like the Palantir Maven Smart System to fuse satellite imagery, drone feeds, and intelligence databases. Leverages large language models (such as tools from OpenAI) for processing intercepted communications, running battle simulations, and planning logistics. Deploys autonomous and semi-autonomous systems, including attack drones to accelerate decision-making.

Israel

Israel uses artificial intelligence as a military decision-support system to process vast amounts of surveillance, communication, and drone data to rapidly generate. They

employ AI-based targeting and recommendation systems to cross-reference vast amounts of data and rapidly generate potential strike options in dense combat zones. Use machine learning models to translate intercepted signals and audio communications to assist analysts.These systems accelerate target selection far beyond human capabilities, shifting intelligence analysis from elite units to widespread operational use

China

China integrates artificial intelligence into its military strategy termed "intelligentized warfare". They use AI as an overarching principle for military modernization and command decision-making via the People's Liberation Army. Adapts open-source foundational models (like customized variations of Meta's Llama) to build localized intelligence-gathering and field-command assistance tools. Beijing leverages domestic large language models (such as DeepSeek) alongside private tech and university partnerships to bridge gaps with Western military capabilities.

North Korea

North Korea integrates artificial intelligence into its military strategy as an asymmetric force multiplier. Pyongyang utilizes AI for autonomous weapons guidance, advanced cyber espionage, revenue generation for its weapons programs, and psychological operations, relying on localized adaptation of older commercial hardware. North Korea has tested precision cruise missiles featuring AI-based terminal guidance systems designed to identify, track, and lock onto targets autonomously using real-time optical and radar data.

United Kingdom

The UK uses artificial intelligence primarily to speed up decision-making, process battlefield intelligence, and manage autonomous systems. Rather than fully independent killer robots, current deployment focuses on data fusion, electronic warfare, and simulation training, maintaining a human in the decision loop. Systems like the Asgard digital architecture connect frontline data from drones, radar, and thermal imaging to headquarters in seconds. AI tools sort through massive streams of open-source and battlefield data to identify enemy troop movements and reduce planning times.

IV. UN & EXTERNAL ACTIONS

a. UN

The United Nations is actively working on establishing guardrails through General Assembly resolutions, Security Council debates, and expert dialogues. Led by Secretary-General António Guterres, the UN is pushing for legally binding agreements to mandate human control over life-and-death battlefield decisions. They have tried to formulate specific policy frameworks within the Secretary-General’s peace agenda that

call on member states to prohibit autonomous weapons functioning without meaningful human oversight.

They have also installed High-Level Security Council Warnings. Convening formal briefings to sound the alarm on autonomous drones, algorithmic target generation, and the severe existential risks of delegating nuclear command decisions to AI.

More than 120 countries including the majority of nations in Latin America, Africa, and several European states actively support creating a legally binding treaty to outlaw or heavily restrict the use of AI. Austria has been the main country introducing these resolutions at the UN. Other highly vocal champions leading the push include Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Ireland, New Zealand, Costa Rica, Sweden, and Switzerland

b. External actions

REAIM Summits

The Responsible AI in the Military Domain initiative introduced non-binding frameworks urging countries to keep human oversight, run risk tests, and maintain transparency. Established non-binding guidance documents (such as the Call, Blueprint, and Pathways to Action) urging nations to ensure human oversight, conduct risk assessments, and maintain transparency.

ICRC Advocacy

The International Committee of the Red Cross continues to push for a formal international treaty to completely ban autonomous weapons that target humans or control nuclear systems. ICRC advocates for new legally binding rules to prohibit unpredictable autonomous weapons and those designed to apply force against people, alongside strict restrictions on other systems. It also maintains that artificial intelligence must be banned from nuclear command and control systems.

Fragmented State Policies

While the U.S. issued general "responsible AI" military guidelines and nations like China have voiced conditional support for restrictions. Both the U.S. and China maintain narrow definitions of military AI guidelines to preserve their own tactical advantages, despite issuing high-level statements on responsible use and conditional support for international restrictions.

V. CONCLUSION

The existing policy divergence between states reveals the major problem of contemporary diplomacy. Firstly, some powerful nations advocate for flexible and voluntary principles, which will give them an advantage in terms of technological superiority of their military

equipment. Secondly, many humanitarian organizations as well as more than 100 countries support the idea of legally-binding treaties. Given that artificial intelligence becomes more influential as a commander of battlefields, the time when it would be possible to impose the necessary limits on the use of AI comes to an end.

In case there are no effective international policies regarding AI, the problems will become even bigger. It is necessary to set up clear boundaries, according to which people should always be in charge of decisions taken on the basis of artificial intelligence technology, somebody should be responsible for the failures of the mentioned algorithms, and all kinds of nuclear command structures should not use AI.

VI. QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

1. Who is legally responsible when an AI makes a fatal mistake?
2. What is the difference between an automated system and a fully autonomous weapon?
3. To which point is the use of AI considered legal?
4. How do current AI target-generation tools work?
5. Can AI distinguish between a soldier and a civilian?
6. What risks do AI systems pose to nuclear command networks?
7. What existing treaties or UN resolutions regulate AI weapons?
8. How are commercial tech companies involved in military AI?
9. Why do major military powers resist a complete ban on AI weapons?
10. What consequences should a country or government have in case of misuse of AI?

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