GLOBAL DIALOGUE ON NUCLEAR SECURITY PRIORITIES

NUCLEAR SECURITY PRIMER: THE EXISTING SYSTEM

September 2014

This Nuclear Security Primer provides an overview of the key international organizations, agreements, guidelines, multilateral engagement mechanisms, and implementation services that make up today’s nuclear security system. It also summarizes the benefits and limitations of each.

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Overview and Benefits

The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) was established by the Statute of the IAEA, which was approved on October 23, 1956, by the Conference on the Statute of the International Atomic Energy Agency, held at the United Nations (UN). The Statute came into force on July 29, 1957, and the IAEA currently has 162 member states. The genesis for the IAEA arose from a speech to the UN General Assembly by President Dwight D. Eisenhower encouraging the establishment of an entity to promote the peaceful use of energy and ensure that nuclear energy would not be used for military purposes.

The purpose of the IAEA as originally stated in the Statute is to “seek to accelerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health and prosperity throughout the world.” The IAEA was tasked with encouraging, assisting, and supporting research on the peaceful use of atomic energy through materials, services, equipment, and facilities and by fostering scientific and technical exchanges. Importantly, it was tasked with “establish[ing] and administer[ing] safeguards designed to ensure that special fissionable and other materials, services, equipment, facilities, and information made available by the Agency or at its request or under its supervision or control are not used in such a way as to further any military purpose; and to apply safeguards, at the request of the parties, to any bilateral or multilateral arrangements, or at the request of a State, to any of that State’s activities in the field of atomic energy.” In addition, the Statute authorizes the IAEA to establish or adopt nuclear safety standards.

As more states began to acquire nuclear weapons, there was a desire to come to an internationally legally binding agreement to stop the further spread of nuclear weapons. This resulted, in 1968, in the Treaty on the Nonproliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT). The NPT is often described as resting on three pillars: (1) nonproliferation: NPT non-nuclear-weapons states (NNWS) agree not to acquire nuclear weapons and the five recognized nuclear-weapons states (NWS) (China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States) agree not to assist a NNWS in acquiring nuclear weapons; (2) peaceful use of nuclear energy: the NWS agree to share the benefits of peaceful nuclear technology with the NNWS and NNWS agree to accept and comply with IAEA safeguards; and (3) disarmament: all parties agree to “pursue negotiations in good faith” toward nuclear disarmament. The NPT had an initial duration of 25 years, with a decision to be taken on extension beyond this period. In May 1995, the parties agreed to extend the NPT indefinitely.
One of the IAEA’s primary missions is to apply safeguards. Safeguards allow the IAEA to verify the identification, characterization, quantification, and accounting for all nuclear materials within the state’s purview for the purpose of verifying that nuclear material is not diverted from peaceful uses to use in nuclear weapons or nuclear explosive devices. Only NNWS under the NPT are legally required to submit all their nuclear material and facilities to safeguards. The five nuclear-weapons states (NWS) recognized by the NPT voluntarily submit in varying degrees to safeguards over certain “eligible” facilities in their civilian sectors. The four nuclear-armed states not party to the NPT also accept safeguards on some facilities (e.g., where required by the technology supplier). The safeguards regime is described in further detail below.

The head of the IAEA is the Director General. Decisions of the body are made by the Board of Governors operating by consensus. The Board of Governors is currently made up of 35 member states. The IAEA Statute requires broad geographic representation on the Board of Governors. Some decisions are subject to approval by the General Conference, which is made up of all member states.

Currently, the IAEA’s role in ensuring the security of nuclear materials is limited, by both its mandate and its budget. The Statute does not specifically refer to physical protection or security, though there are provisions on protection of health and safety which could be read as including security if the member states agreed to do so. Recognizing that the IAEA has the technical knowledge and experience to provide advice and assistance in the area of security, the IAEA provides advisory services, funded primarily through voluntary donations of member states to the Nuclear Security Fund. The IAEA also publishes recommendations, guidelines, and other materials through its Nuclear Security Series. These services and publications are important resources to help states strengthen their nuclear security. IAEA guidelines and services are described in further detail below.

Limitations

- The IAEA’s security work is primarily funded by voluntary donations to its Nuclear Security Fund.
- Currently, the IAEA has a limited mandate in the area of nuclear security.
- The IAEA’s existing mandate is limited to civilian materials.
Overview and Benefits

The United Nations (UN) was formed in 1945 with the signing on June 26 of the United Nations Charter (Charter). There are currently 193 member states. The UN’s mission is to maintain international peace and security. The UN is made up of several bodies, the most prominent of which are the Security Council and the General Assembly. The Security Council has 15 members, five of which are permanent (China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States). Security Council resolutions are binding on all member states. Security Council resolutions must be passed with the affirmative vote of nine members. The five permanent members have the power to veto Security Council resolutions. The General Assembly is made up of all member states. The General Assembly deliberates on a broad array of international issues covered in the UN Charter and can pass non-binding resolutions. The General Assembly also elects non-permanent members of the Security Council, approves the UN budget, makes recommendations, and initiates studies on general principles of international peace and security, among other functions.

In the area of nuclear nonproliferation and security, the UN has been very active. The Security Council has passed a long list of resolutions related to non-compliance with IAEA safeguards, including the authorization of sanctions. It has also passed several resolutions related to preventing acts of nuclear terrorism and securing weapons-usable nuclear materials, including UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1373 and UNSCR 1540. See below for more details on these resolutions.

Limitations

- Political disputes may result in vetos that prevent action by the Security Council on important issues.
- Though Security Council resolutions are binding on member states, limited Security Council membership does not require broad political support for Security Council resolutions.
- There is a lack of effective enforcement even for Security Council decisions.
Overview and Benefits

INTERPOL is the world’s largest international police organization, with 190 member states. INTERPOL provides training, investigative support, and facilitates international police cooperation. Upon request of a member state with a valid arrest warrant, INTERPOL may issue notices for certain individuals. Member states are free to decide how to act on a notice. A separate mechanism called a diffusion allows member states to automatically transmit assistance requests to other member states of its choosing without INTERPOL review.

INTERPOL’s activities are defined by its Constitution, which highlights the need for INTERPOL’s activities to be conducted within the spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Constitution serves a vital role in preserving its neutrality and insulating INTERPOL against attempts to use INTERPOL for political purposes. INTERPOL is led by a Secretary General and Executive Committee, made up of 13 member states.

One of INTERPOL’s focus areas is preventing radiological and nuclear terrorism by ensuring that the world’s law enforcement services are prepared to confront the threat. The INTERPOL strategy for countering the threat posed by radioactive or nuclear materials consists of three pillars: (1) operational data services: collating and analyzing information on illicit trafficking and other unauthorized activities involving radioactive or nuclear materials; (2) investigative support: operational assistance in the face of an imminent threat through issuing notices, conducting searches of DNA, fingerprint, or travel databases, and deploying Incident Response Teams (IRTs); and (3) capacity building: training courses and tabletop exercises designed to help member state police forces to develop capacity to prevent and respond to nuclear or radioactive incidents. In support of the 2012 Nuclear Security Summit, INTERPOL initiated Operation Fail Safe to support the international law enforcement community in tracking individuals involved in the illicit trafficking of radioactive or nuclear materials.

INTERPOL has a relationship with the IAEA, together developing the IAEA manual, “Combating Illicit Trafficking in Nuclear and Other Radioactive Material.” INTERPOL also represents the law enforcement community as an observer of the Global Initiative to Combat Nuclear Terrorism (GICNT). It is also an observing international organization in the Nuclear Security Summit process, taking part in the 2012 and 2014 Nuclear Security Summits.

Limitations
There are no membership standards or mechanisms for expulsion of member states.
INTERPOL has not been immune to politically motivated requests to issue notices in several controversial cases.
The use of “diffusions” does not require review and can be abused for political reasons.
Member states can choose how to respond to a notice and there is no enforcement mechanism.

II. AGREEMENTS AND GUIDELINES

CONVENTION FOR THE PHYSICAL PROTECTION OF NUCLEAR MATERIAL (CPPNM) AND 2005 AMENDMENT

Overview and Benefits

Physical protection of nuclear material, weapons, and facilities is the first line of defense against the unlawful acquisition of nuclear material by terrorists. The Convention on Physical Protection of Nuclear Materials (CPPNM) establishes the foundation for the physical protection of nuclear materials. It requires states to apply measures of physical protection to nuclear material used for peaceful purposes during international transport. The CPPNM also requires states to provide cooperation and assistance in the case of theft of nuclear materials to recover and protect the nuclear material, inform concerned states, and exchange information. It requires states to criminalize certain offenses related to the theft or unlawful possession of, and threats to use, nuclear material.

Recognizing the limited scope of the CPPNM (i.e., primarily to nuclear material in international transport), the 2005 Amendment to the convention increased the scope of the CPPNM’s coverage to require physical protection measures on nuclear materials in use, storage, and domestic transit and also protection of nuclear facilities from sabotage.

The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) is the depositary for the CPPNM. Under Article 14.1, states party to the CPPNM are to “inform the depositary of its laws and regulations which give effect to [the CPPNM]. The depositary shall communicate such information to all States party.”

Limitations

- The CPPNM is not universal, having only 150 parties.
- The 2005 Amendment is not in force. The amendment will enter into force when two-
thirds of the states party to the CPPNM ratify the amendment. To date, only 78 out of the 150 CPPNM member states have ratified the amendment.

- There is no mechanism to enforce the treaty or monitor implementation, and there are no prescribed consequences for non-compliance.
- The Article 14.1 reporting mechanism is underutilized and there is no other mechanism to provide verification or assurances to other countries through external review.
- Both the CPPNM and the 2005 Amendment define basic security levels, but neither provides specific guidance on implementation. Therefore, variable implementation across states may compromise achievement of CPPNM objectives.
- Neither the CPPNM nor the 2005 Amendment cover military materials.

**UNITED NATIONS SECURITY COUNCIL RESOLUTION 1540**

**Overview and Benefits**

United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1540 is binding on all members of the United Nations, making it the only universal legally binding instrument requiring physical security measures for nuclear material. Moreover, as long as the 2005 Amendment is not in force, UNSCR 1540 covers a broader range of nuclear material than the CPPNM, including military materials.

UNSCR 1540 requires states to take measures to prevent non-state actors from developing, acquiring, manufacturing, possessing, transporting, transferring, or using nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons and their delivery systems. It requires states to establish “appropriate effective” laws to prohibit such acts and appropriate controls, including appropriate effective security and accounting, over related materials, to prevent the proliferation of nuclear, chemical, or biological weapons and their means of delivery. The resolution also calls upon states to:

- **Promote the universal adoption**, as well as full implementation and strengthening, of multilateral treaties aimed at preventing the proliferation of nuclear, biological, or chemical weapons
- **Adopt national rules and regulations** to ensure compliance with their commitments under the key multilateral nonproliferation treaties
- Renew and fulfil their commitment to multilateral cooperation
- Develop appropriate ways to **work with and inform industry and the public** regarding
their obligations under such laws.

Responsibility for managing the implementation of the resolution rests with the **1540 Committee**. States must report progress on their implementation of the resolution to the committee. Since the committee’s inception, the UN Security Council has passed subsequent resolutions extending the committee’s mandate. On April 20, 2011, **UNSCR 1977 extended the mandate** for a period of ten years to 2021. It also **strengthened the committee’s role** to facilitate the provision of technical assistance and to enhance cooperation with relevant organizations. The resolution also provided for two comprehensive reviews of the implementation of UNSCR 1540. The most recent resolution, **UNSCR 2055**, adopted on July 29, 2012, **requested an increase in the size of the group of experts** that leads the committee in recognition of the committee’s increased workload.

**Limitations**

- There is **no mechanism to enforce the resolution** beyond the UN Security Council, and there are **no consequences** for non-compliance.
- **UNSCR 1540 does not provide specific guidance on implementation**, including the definition of “appropriate effective.”
- Although countries are required to submit reports to the 1540 Committee, the **reporting requirements are weak and ill-defined**. The content of the reports varies widely, and many of the reports are incomplete and provide inadequate detail.
- The **1540 Committee is under-resourced and overburdened**. As such, UNSCR 1540 does not provide for a strong and reliable **mechanism or body to monitor implementation** or **provide verification or assurances** to other countries through mandatory reporting or external review.
- **Variable implementation across states** may compromise achievement of UNSCR 1540 objectives.

**UNUNITED NATIONS SECURITY COUNCIL RESOLUTION 1373 AND INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF ACTS OF NUCLEAR TERRORISM (ICSANT)**

**Overview and Benefits**

The nuclear security system would be incomplete without a means of **deterring, preventing, and punishing** malicious acts, including acts of terrorism, using nuclear material. Following the events of 9/11, the UN Security Council, recognizing the threat of terrorism, passed **UNSCR 1373** requiring states to **take action to prevent terrorist attacks**, including by suppressing the
financing of terrorist acts, criminalizing activity to finance terrorists, suppressing the provision of safe havens for terrorists, and providing other countries assistance in criminal investigations related to the financing or support of terrorist acts.

This resolution was a precursor for the International Convention for the Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism (ICSANT), the first anti-terrorism treaty adopted after 9/11. The treaty was designed to strengthen the global legal framework for countering terrorist threats specifically involving radioactive materials and nuclear facilities. ICSANT requires states to criminalize and prosecute offenses related to the use or possession of radioactive material and use or damage of a nuclear facility, or threats to do so. ICSANT also establishes a legal framework for cooperation among states to detect, prevent, suppress, and investigate offenses, and to institute criminal proceedings against alleged offenders by sharing information and assisting one another in connection with criminal investigations and extradition proceedings. ICSANT does not apply when the offense occurs within a single state, is committed by a national of that state, and when no other state can claim jurisdiction over that offense.

ICSANT establishes a system of cooperation through which the global community can respond to the offenses set forth in the treaty and establish consequences for those who commit those offenses but does not describe how to prevent acts of nuclear terrorism.

The United Nations is the depositary for ICSANT.

Limitations

- ICSANT is not universal, having only 94 parties.
- There is no mechanism to enforce the treaty or monitor implementation, and there are no consequences for non-compliance.
- There is no mechanism to provide verification or assurances to other countries through mandatory reporting or external review.
- Language on physical protection is limited. For example, ICSANT states that parties “shall make every effort to adopt appropriate measures” to protect radioactive material and to “take into account” International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) recommendations.
- Variable implementation across states may compromise achievement of ICSANT objectives.
Overview and Benefits

While the CPPNM, its 2005 Amendment, and UNSCR 1540 require states to apply physical protection measures, they do not provide specific guidance on implementation. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) has attempted to fill this gap and now plays an increasingly important and unique role in the nuclear security system beyond its original safeguards mandate, including through the publication of recommendations and guidance in its Nuclear Security Series.

The primary IAEA document on nuclear security is INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5, which provides guidelines and recommendations for the physical protection of nuclear material and facilities, measures against unauthorized removal of nuclear materials, and protection of nuclear material or facilities against sabotage. The protections apply to nuclear material in use and storage and during transport. INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5 provides basic international guidance for physical protection of nuclear material and facilities.

INFCIRC/225 was created when the Director General of the IAEA convened an international group of experts to draft guidelines for the protection of nuclear materials. These recommendations were revised and published as the first iteration of INFCIRC/225 in 1975. It has since undergone revisions in 1977, 1989, 1993, 1999, and most recently in 2011. The latest revision was made to reflect contemporary threats, such as terrorism, and the need to align the document with the 2005 Amendment to the CPPNM. It also strengthened guidance related to protection of nuclear facilities against sabotage and provides a graded approach to physical protection based on the type and quantity of nuclear materials at a location.

The IAEA’s Nuclear Security Series also includes implementation guides to support the recommendations. Finally, the IAEA takes INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5 into account as a basis for evaluation during the provision of advisory services (discussed below).

Limitations

- INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5 is non-binding and does not provide clear performance objectives or any performance criteria for ensuring that all states consistently meet a minimum standard or best practice.
- There is no mechanism to provide assurances to other countries that states are meeting INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5 recommendations through reporting or external review.
• Variable implementation across states may compromise achievement of INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5 objectives.
• IAEA guidelines apply to civilian materials only.

**IAEA SECURITY OBJECTIVES AND FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES**

**Overview and Benefits**

In September 2001, the IAEA Board of Governors considered and endorsed a set of Security Objectives and Fundamental Principles (Fundamental Principles) based on the recommendations of a team of legal and technical experts convened to consider possible amendments to the CPPNM. The Fundamental Principles were drawn from the recommendations, concepts, and terminology of INFCIRC/225.

Endorsement of the Fundamental Principles was meant as a step toward strengthening the physical security regime and promoting the effective implementation and improvement of physical protection worldwide. The purpose was to define and establish principles at the state level. The Fundamental Principles were later incorporated into the 2005 Amendment to the CPPNM. The following is a summary of the Fundamental Principles:

- Primary responsibility for the physical protection regime rests entirely with the state.
- States’ responsibilities for protection of nuclear material extend to international transport.
- States are responsible for establishing and maintaining a legislative and regulatory framework to govern physical protection, which should include a system of evaluation and licensing, a system of inspection to verify compliance, and means of enforcement.
- States should establish a competent authority responsible for implementation of the legislative and regulatory framework that is independent from the body charged with promoting nuclear energy.
- Primary responsibility for implementation of physical protection should rest with the holders of licenses or other authorizing documents.
- Organizations involved in implementing physical security should give priority to security culture.
- The state’s physical protection should be based on the state’s current evaluation of the threat.
- Physical protection requirements should be based on a graded approach.
- The state’s requirements for physical protection should reflect several layers and
methods of protection.

- The state should establish and implement a quality assurance policy and programs to provide confidence that requirements of physical protection activities are satisfied.
- **Contingency plans** to respond to unauthorized removal of nuclear material or sabotage of nuclear facilities should be prepared.
- The state should establish **requirements for protecting confidentiality** of information, the unauthorized disclosure of which could compromise physical protection.

**Limitations**

- The Fundamental Principles are **non-binding until the 2005 Amendment to the CPPNM enters into force**, and then will only be binding for parties to the amendment.
- There is **no mechanism to provide verification or assurances** to other countries that states’ security practices reflect the Fundamental Principles through mandatory reporting or external review.
- **Variable implementation across states** may compromise achievement of the Fundamental Principles’ objectives.

**SAFEGUARDS AND NUCLEAR MATERIAL ACCOUNTING (INFCIRC/153)**

**Overview and Benefits**

An essential first step in securing all nuclear material is to ensure that all nuclear material is identified, characterized, quantified, and accounted for. The IAEA has developed a **standard nuclear material accounting system** that it requires of all states with nuclear material subject to IAEA safeguards. The outline of the system is given in the standard safeguards agreement, **INFCIRC/153**. The system is further elaborated in the IAEA’s **Nuclear Material Accounting Handbook**, Services Series 15, and a number of more specific technical guides. In combination, these requirements and guidelines form a **standardized accounting system**, with defined technical procedures and standards.

The Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (NPT) requires **non-nuclear-weapon states** (NNWS) to conclude **comprehensive safeguards agreements** (based on INFCIRC/153) with the IAEA and place under safeguards all nuclear materials in all peaceful nuclear activities in the state’s territory, jurisdiction, or under its control. Safeguards allow the IAEA to verify the identification, characterization, quantification, and accounting for all nuclear materials within the state’s purview for the purpose of verifying that nuclear material is not diverted from peaceful uses to
use in nuclear weapons or devices. In case of non-compliance with IAEA safeguards, the IAEA Board of Governors may call upon the violator to remedy such non-compliance and must report the non-compliance to the UN Security Council and General Assembly. The Security Council may impose measures to enforce compliance.

As the nuclear-weapon states (the P5 countries) and non-NPT states (India, Pakistan, Israel, and North Korea) have nuclear material outside safeguards, comprehensive safeguards agreements are not applicable to them. The NWS have concluded voluntary offer safeguards agreements (based on INFCIRC/153) offering nuclear material and facilities from which the IAEA may select to apply safeguards (the United States and the United Kingdom have designated all civilian facilities). India, Pakistan, and Israel have concluded item-specific safeguards agreements (based on INFCIRC/66) offering specified material and facilities for safeguards. Voluntary offer agreements and item-specific agreements have similar material accounting requirements to comprehensive safeguards agreements.

While the purpose of safeguards is not security, the requirement for a national system of accounting for and control of all nuclear material subject to safeguards is a basic foundation for nuclear security. However, it is important to remember that although the IAEA, through its safeguards system, has a crucial role in verifying that nuclear materials are not diverted from peaceful use to nuclear weapons, its role in ensuring the security of nuclear materials is limited, by both its mandate and its budget.

Safeguards are not—nor have they ever been—designed to provide physical security measures for the safeguarded facilities. IAEA safeguards inspections are designed for the specific purpose of detecting—after the fact—whether nuclear material is missing from a facility or has not been declared and whether the inspected state may have diverted the material to a weapons program. Such inspections do not prevent material from being stolen.

Limitations

- Because IAEA comprehensive safeguards are not, and in current circumstances cannot be, universal, there is no universal system of accounting for nuclear materials. Even if IAEA safeguards were applied to all civilian facilities and inventories, military materials would be excluded.
- While INFCIRC/153 requires a material accounting system, it does not provide specific guidance on implementation. The Nuclear Material Accounting Handbook and technical guides are non-binding. Therefore, variable implementation across states may compromise achievement of INFCIRC/153 objectives.
• IAEA safeguards agreements are designed to detect and deter the diversion of nuclear material from peaceful uses, **not to prevent acquisition of nuclear material by unauthorized persons.** Accounting and control measures for preventing theft of nuclear materials are somewhat different from the measures required for confirming non-diversion.

**NUCLEAR SUPPLIERS GROUP (NSG) GUIDELINES**

**Overview and Benefits**

The Nuclear Suppliers Group (NSG) was established in 1975 to ensure that suppliers apply a **uniform approach to nuclear and nuclear-related exports and dual-use exports.** NSG members pursue the aims of the NSG through **voluntary adherence to NSG Guidelines** that are adopted by consensus, and through an **exchange of information,** notably on developments of nuclear proliferation concern. The NSG Guidelines have two parts, one for nuclear material, equipment, and technology (the “trigger list”) and one for dual-use items. The NSG Guidelines aim to ensure that nuclear trade for peaceful purposes **does not contribute to the proliferation** of nuclear weapons or other nuclear explosive devices, while not hindering international trade and cooperation in the nuclear field.

The NSG is an **important adjunct to the NPT regime,** addressing a core dilemma posed by the NPT—that nuclear material and technology acquired for peaceful purposes can also be used in weapons. Key to the NSG Guidelines is that **suppliers should authorize transfers of trigger list items to a NNWS only where those items will be subject to IAEA safeguards,** in most cases **comprehensive safeguards.** The NSG Guidelines also state that **recipients should have physical security measures** in place to prevent theft and unauthorized use of their imports.

NSG membership is composed of 46 supplier states; the European Commission serves as a permanent observer.

**Limitations**

• Guidelines are **non-binding,** political commitments.
• Adherence to the NSG Guidelines is dependent on national laws and practices, leading to **inconsistent implementation.**
## Overview and Benefits

For over two decades, attempts have been made to begin formal negotiations for development of a Fissile Material Cutoff Treaty (FMCT), which would end global production of fissile material for use in nuclear weapons. In addition to the primary objective of capping the quantity of nuclear material available for weapons, ending production of fissile material for weapons is important to nuclear security because of the relationship between quantities and risk—the more material, the greater the risk that material could be stolen.

The principal body responsible for negotiations of the FMCT is the Conference on Disarmament (CD), which operates on the basis of consensus. Because the CD has been in deadlock, agreement for negotiations has not been possible.

### Limitations

- The FMCT is only a concept, and there are major obstacles, including strong opposition from at least one key country to the conclusion of such an agreement.
- Requirement for consensus means one country or a small group of countries can stall negotiations.
- There is a lack of political will required to agree to end production of fissile material for nuclear weapons and major hurdles to agreeing on a verification system.

## III. MULTILATERAL ENGAGEMENT MECHANISMS

### NUCLEAR SECURITY SUMMITS

#### Overview and Benefits

Securing all nuclear materials worldwide requires first an acknowledgment of the urgency of the threat and political will on the part of key decision makers to act to reduce the threat. The Nuclear Security Summit process has been an important step toward reaching a consensus and focusing high-level attention on the threat. The Nuclear Security Summits bring together government leaders from countries around the world and representatives from key international bodies to agree on an agenda for securing all vulnerable nuclear material, including nuclear materials used in nuclear weapons.
The first Summit, held in Washington, D.C., in April 2010, was attended by 47 countries and three international organizations and resulted in more than 60 national commitments to take specific actions. Over 80 percent of the commitments made at the Summit had been fulfilled as of March 2012. The second Summit, held in Seoul, Korea, in March 2012, was attended by 53 countries and resulted in over 100 national commitments. The third Summit, held in The Hague, The Netherlands, in March 2014, was attended by 53 countries and resulted in 18 joint statements or “gift baskets,” through which countries made joint commitments in certain topical areas (e.g., information security, radiological security, etc.). National commitments include reducing quantities of nuclear materials, strengthening nuclear security laws and regulations, ratifying important international agreements, participating in workshops and training through the Global Initiative to Combat Nuclear Terrorism or Centers of Excellence, and providing financial support to the IAEA’s Nuclear Security Fund or the World Institute for Nuclear Security, among others.

The 2014 Summit produced a communiqué identifying areas of priority toward improving nuclear security, including the need for a nuclear security architecture and the importance of confidence-building mechanisms, such as peer review, and newer areas of focus such as radiological security and information security. The next Summit will be held in the United States in 2016.

Limitations

- Commitments made at the Summits are voluntary, non-binding, political commitments.
- There is no mechanism to provide assurances to other countries through reporting or external review that countries are meeting their commitments.
- As the communiqué is a consensus-driven document, this can lead to a lowest common denominator outcome.
- A means to maintain high-level attention is needed to ensure sustainability of the nuclear security mission after the Summit process ends.

G8 GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP AGAINST THE SPREAD OF WEAPONS AND MATERIALS OF MASS DESTRUCTION

Overview and Benefits

While international agreements and other binding instruments are important pieces of the global nuclear security system, informal mechanisms for country cooperation on nuclear
security enable countries to match resources to specific projects, resulting in more effective implementation of international agreements and commitments. The G8 Global Partnership Against the Spread of Weapons and Materials of Mass Destruction (Global Partnership) has played an important role in bringing countries together for this purpose.

The Global Partnership, announced at the June 2002 G8 summit in Kananaskis, Canada, is a G8 initiative committed to preventing terrorists, or those that harbor them, from acquiring or developing nuclear, chemical, radiological, or biological weapons, missiles, or related materials, equipment, and technology. The G8 countries pledged $20 billion over ten years to fund projects to secure and dismantle stockpiles of weapons of mass destruction, initially in Russia. G8 leaders agreed on six principles for the initiative and on a set of guidelines for implementation. The principles focus on:

- Universalizing multilateral treaties and international instruments
- Measures to secure and account for weapons of mass destruction and weapons-related materials, equipment, and technology
- Physical protection measures
- Effective border controls, law enforcement, and international cooperation to detect, deter, and interdict illicit trafficking of such items
- National export and trans-shipment controls
- Management and disposal of stockpiles of fissile materials, elimination of chemical weapons, and minimization of holdings of biological materials.

A Senior Group coordinates Global Partnership activities, monitors progress, and identifies priorities.

Since its inception, the G8 has successfully implemented numerous projects, mainly in Russia and the former Soviet Union but also in other places. The number of Global Partnership donor countries also has expanded to include 18 non-G8 countries. At the G8 summit in Deauville, France, in May 2011, members agreed to extend the Global Partnership for ten more years and address security of nuclear and radiological materials, biosecurity, engagement with weapons scientists in the field of nonproliferation, and implementation of UNSCR 1540. Members also agreed to expand the Global Partnership’s membership.

Limitations

- Commitments are voluntary, non-binding, political commitments.
- There is no mechanism to enforce commitments or provide verification or assurances to other countries through mandatory reporting or external review.
Operations are based on voluntary contributions.

GLOBAL INITIATIVE TO COMBAT NUCLEAR TERRORISM (GICNT)

Overview and Benefits

Another informal mechanism that has helped countries establish nuclear security approaches and share information on different elements of their nuclear security enterprise is the Global Initiative to Combat Nuclear Terrorism (GICNT). The mission of GICNT, established on July 15, 2006, by President George Bush and President Vladimir Putin in part as a complement to ICSANT, is to strengthen global capacity to prevent, detect, and respond to nuclear terrorism by conducting multilateral activities that strengthen the plans, policies, procedures, and interoperability of partner nations. Countries become partners by endorsing a Statement of Principles encompassing the following deterrence, detection, prevention, and response objectives:

- Improve accounting, control, and protection of nuclear and radiological materials
- Enhance security at civilian nuclear facilities
- Develop capabilities to detect and halt illicit trafficking of such materials
- Improve capabilities to search for, confiscate, and establish safe control over nuclear or radiological materials
- Assure denial of safe haven and resources from terrorists seeking to acquire or use nuclear or radiological materials
- Put in place laws to counter nuclear terrorism-related activity
- Share information to prevent and respond to acts of nuclear terrorism
- Develop capability to respond to and mitigate acts of nuclear terrorism.

Partner nations conduct multilateral activities, workshops, and table-top and field exercises. Recently, partners have recognized the importance of cooperation between the private sector and governments. An Implementation and Assessment Group is charged with implementing priorities and ensuring that GICNT’s activities are coordinated with and complementary to other international efforts, in particular implementation of ICSANT, the CPPNM and its amendment, and UNSCR 1540. There are 85 partner nations and the IAEA is one of four official observers.

Limitations

- Membership is voluntary and not universal.
• There is no mechanism to enforce commitments, monitor implementation, or provide verification or assurances to other countries through mandatory reporting or external review.
• Focus areas are defined by consensus agreement leading to a limited scope of large project areas, although “one off” activities can be hosted by GICNT members acting independently.
• Operations are based on voluntary contributions.

CENTERS OF EXCELLENCE AND NUCLEAR SECURITY TRAINING AND SUPPORT CENTERS

Overview and Benefits

Centers of Excellence (COEs) and IAEA-supported Nuclear Security Training and Support Centers (NSSCs) are schools or training centers hosted by states to provide domestic or regional nuclear security training and education. Many COEs and NSSCs also provide training in other areas, such as nuclear safety, or broadly focus on nuclear science and technology. COEs/NSSCs provide a means of exchanging best practices, providing technical assistance, and offering networking opportunities to nuclear security practitioners.

The IAEA plays a coordinating role for COEs/NSSCs and provides a platform for the exchange of information through its online portal. Several states have committed to opening COEs/NSSCs at the Nuclear Security Summits.

Limitations

• Participation is voluntary.
• Despite some coordination, the quality of COEs/NSSCs varies and there are no agreed-upon standards to ensure consistent training across centers.
• Some COEs/NSSCs may not be sustainable due to lack of financial or other resources.

PROLIFERATION SECURITY INITIATIVE (PSI)

Overview and Benefits

The Proliferation Security Initiative (PSI) is an informal grouping of states which have joined together to prevent trafficking by detecting and intercepting weapons of mass destruction (WMD), their means of delivery, and WMD-related materials.
The **PSI Statement of Interdiction Principles** commits participants to establish a more **coordinated and effective basis** through which to impede and stop these items. Countries commit to:

- **Interdict transfers** to and from states and non-state actors of proliferation concern to the extent of their capabilities and legal authority
- Develop procedures to facilitate the **exchange of information** with other countries
- **Strengthen national legal authorities** to facilitate interdiction
- Take specific actions in **support of interdiction** efforts.

103 countries participate in the PSI.

A number of members have signed **bilateral Mutual Shipboarding Agreements** with the United States that allow both parties to the agreement **permission to board vessels** sailing under their national flags which are suspected of transporting proliferating material or technology. Many of these countries are **flag-of-convenience states** allowing the PSI to **broaden its reach**. Several **high-profile successes** in interdicting or turning back WMD-related shipments have been attributed to PSI cooperation.

**Limitations**

- Participation is **voluntary**.
- Commitments are **non-binding, political commitments**.
- The PSI **lacks an organizing structure**.
- A number of countries do not participate in PSI, such as India, Pakistan, and China, and cooperation is **not universal**.
- Boarding agreements **apply only to commercial transportation**, not government transportation.

## IV. IMPLEMENTATION MECHANISMS

### IAEA NUCLEAR SECURITY ADVISORY SERVICES

**Overview and Benefits**

The IAEA’s inspections mandate is currently limited to safeguards, not security. Recognizing that the IAEA has the **technical knowledge and experience to provide advice and assistance in the area of security**, the IAEA, funded through voluntary donations of member states to the
Nuclear Security Fund, provides advisory services. Combined with IAEA recommendations, guidelines, and other materials, these services provide a needed resource to help states strengthen their nuclear security.

Upon a state’s request, the IAEA may conduct missions, evaluations, and provide technical services to help the requesting state assess its nuclear security needs and improve its capabilities for securing its nuclear material. The IAEA offers the following services relevant to nuclear security:

- **International Physical Protection Advisory Service (IPPAS):** IPPAS missions carry out detailed reviews of a state’s legal and regulatory basis for physical protection of nuclear activities and assess whether systems are consistent with the recommendations of INFCIRC/225/Rev. 5. IPPAS missions also compare the state’s practices to IAEA guidance. Additionally, they are focused on specific facilities and are not state-wide assessments. Following the review, the IAEA may conduct follow-up assistance, such as training and technical support. Additional follow-up missions can review actions taken to address prior recommendations. Although mission reports are confidential, at least one state has published a redacted version of its report.

- **International Nuclear Security Advisory Service (INSServ):** INSServ missions help identify a state’s nuclear security requirements and measures needed to meet them.

- **SSAC Advisory Service (ISSAS):** ISSAS missions provide recommendations and suggestions for a state’s systems for accountancy and control of nuclear material. The missions evaluate the regulatory, legislative, administrative, and technical components of the SSAC and assess how the SSAC meets the obligations contained in the state’s safeguards agreement and, if applicable, additional protocol.

- **Integrated Regulatory Review Service (IRRS):** IRRS missions help states to improve the effectiveness of national regulatory bodies and to implement national safety legislation and regulations.

- **Integrated Nuclear Security Support Plan (INSSP):** INSSP is a means to provide a holistic approach to nuclear security capacity-building based on findings and recommendations from its nuclear security missions in a way that is tailored to country-specific needs.

The IAEA’s advisory services are offered in connection with the IAEA’s Nuclear Security Plan (2014-2017). The 2014-2017 Nuclear Security Plan covers seven elements: 1) information collation and assessment; 2) external coordination; 3) supporting the nuclear security framework globally; 4) coordinated research projects; 5) assessment through self-assessment and/or through peer review missions; 6) human resource development; and 7) risk reduction and security improvement. The plan envisions supporting states, upon their request, through
assistance in capacity-building, guidance, human resource development, sustainability, and risk reduction.

Limitations

- The IAEA provides advisory services only upon the request of a state.
- Unless requested, review missions do not assess the actual quality of physical protection at facilities but rather whether systems are in place to support the security mission.
- IAEA advisory services are designed to cover civilian material only.
- Advisory service outcomes are confidential, with no public release of even broad conclusions. States are not obligated to respond to conclusions or address identified deficiencies.
- The IAEA’s advisory services are only partly covered by the IAEA’s regular budget and are instead primarily supported through voluntary contributions to the Nuclear Security Fund.

WORLD INSTITUTE FOR NUCLEAR SECURITY (WINS)

Overview and Benefits

The World Institute for Nuclear Security (WINS) is an organization whose purpose is to provide a forum for nuclear security professionals to share and promote best security practices. Best practice exchanges can be a valuable tool to enable rapid and dynamic improvements for facilities’ security implementation. WINS produces best practices guides in 10 languages, including self-assessment tools, conducts international and country-specific workshops on specific nuclear security topics and has started the WINS Academy to enable professional accreditation for those engaged in nuclear security activities from the guards to the senior executives with legal responsibilities for material protection. WINS is also developing peer review offerings for its members. WINS has over 2,000 members from over 108 countries. Participation in WINS is voluntary.

Limitations

- Best practices are non-binding.
- WINS activities are funded through donations, which means its budget is contingent on (and activities limited by) these commitments.
Overview and Benefits

The mission of the Global Threat Reduction Initiative (GTRI) is to reduce and protect vulnerable nuclear and radiological material located at civilian sites worldwide. As part of a coordinated global effort, GTRI is working cooperatively with more than 100 countries around the world. GTRI supports the global nuclear security goal by preventing terrorists from acquiring nuclear and radiological materials that could be used in weapons of mass destruction or other acts of terrorism. GTRI works towards achieving its mission by converting research reactors and isotope production facilities from the use of highly enriched uranium (HEU) to low enriched uranium (LEU), removing and/or disposing of excess nuclear and radiological materials, and protecting high-priority nuclear and radiological materials from theft. Together, these efforts provide a comprehensive approach to preventing terrorists’ access to nuclear and radiological materials. A key part of this effort has been to work with the Russian Federation and the IAEA to safely and securely transport Russian-origin HEU from third countries back to Russia. Since the first Nuclear Security Summit in April 2010, all Russian-origin HEU has been removed from seven countries -- Ukraine, Libya, Hungary, Vietnam, Romania, the Czech Republic, and Serbia.

- **GTRI’s Convert program** works with domestic and international civilian research reactors and isotope production facilities to assist them in converting from the use of WMD-usable HEU fuel and targets to LEU fuel and targets. These efforts result in permanent threat reduction by eliminating the need for WMD-usable HEU fuel and targets. Once the need is eliminated, any remaining HEU fresh and spent fuel can be permanently disposed of by GTRI’s Remove Program.

- **GTRI’s Nuclear and Radiological Material Removal program** removes or disposes of excess WMD-usable nuclear and radiological materials from civilian sites worldwide. The scope of work includes removing Russian-origin nuclear material, U.S.-origin nuclear material, other nuclear material not covered by the Russian and U.S. origin efforts, and removal of excess radiological material worldwide that could be used to make a dirty bomb. These efforts result in permanent threat reduction because WMD-usable material is eliminated.

- **GTRI’s Nuclear and Radiological Material Protection program** protects at-risk WMD-usable nuclear and radiological materials worldwide from theft and sabotage until a more permanent threat reduction solution can be implemented. These efforts result in threat containment because WMD-usable materials are protected from theft.

Limitations
Overview and Benefits

The International Materials Protection and Cooperation (IMPC) program began in 1994 as a task force to mitigate the security vulnerabilities of special nuclear material arising from the collapse of the Soviet Union. Since that time, the program has evolved into a global effort, engaging over 40 countries to deny terrorists the vital materials needed to engage in acts of nuclear terror.

The IMPC program employs a two-tiered strategy to implement its mission:

- **The Material Protection, Control, and Accounting program** (MPC&A) improves the security of nuclear weapons and materials at their source, through material protection, control, and accounting upgrades at nuclear sites in Russia and other countries of concern. The scope of the MPC&A Program includes 37 Russian nuclear material sites, 73 Russian nuclear warhead sites, and 13 non-Russian nuclear material sites. The MPC&A Program also includes efforts to consolidate and convert weapons-usable nuclear material stocks, to develop a sustainable MPC&A infrastructure in Russia, and to support the implementation of nuclear security best practices by countries outside of Russia.

- **The Second Line of Defense** strengthens the capability of foreign governments to deter, detect, and interdict illicit trafficking in nuclear and other radioactive materials across international borders and through the global maritime shipping system. IMPC works collaboratively with foreign partners to equip border crossings, airports, and seaports with radiation detection equipment. The Second Line of Defense (SLD) Program provides training in the use of the systems for appropriate law enforcement officials and initial system sustainability support as the host government assumes operational responsibility for the equipment.

Limitations

- Participation is voluntary.
- Projects are subject to funding availability.