Gender, Pakistan and UN Peacekeeping



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By

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Dedicated to

All the vulnerable women in conflict zones who are being served by UN peacekeepers; all the men and women who have lost their lives whilst serving in UN peacekeeping missions; to UN peacekeepers in all UN missions, especially women peacekeepers who have dedicated their professional lives to achieving gender equity in trying environments; to all Troop Contributing Countries' women peacekeepers especially Pakistani women peacekeepers; to my son Murtaza and future generations who enjoy the fruits of peace delivered by UN peacekeepers.

UN Secretary General Antonio Guterres:

"I am committed to increasing women's participation in our peace and security work. Women negotiators increase the chances of sustainable peace, and women peacekeepers decrease the chances of sexual exploitation and abuse."

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Contributors to Chapter 4 Voice of women peacekeepers: Major Fareeha Tanweer, Major Sadia Saleem and Major Aruza Naeem of the Pakistani armed forces in UN peacekeeping.

A special mention to the voice of reason, compassion and ownership.

Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION 1

FROM PEACEKEEPING TO PEACEBUILDING — EVOLUTION OF GENDER REFORMS IN PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS 5

AND UN RESOLUTION 1325 5

Effects of Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping Operations 10

Reality on the Ground 14

Training 14

Gender Units 21

Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR) 22

SEXUAL EXPLOITATION AND ABUSE IN UN PEACEKEEPING MISSIONS 26

Causes of SEA 27

Cultural Perceptions of Gender and Sexuality 27

Local Community Environments 29

UN Response 29

Legal Framework 30

Zeid Report 31

Conduct and Discipline Units 34

Reducing SEA 34

Recommendations to Implement the Zeid Report 34

Deterrence to Prevent SEA 36

Zero Tolerance 37

Increased Female Participation 39

Peacekeeping Babies 42

HIV among Peacekeepers 44

Immunity 46

THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF GENDER IN PEACEKEEPING 50

UN Gender Advisory Units 52

A Proposed Gender Responsive Agenda for Peacekeeping Missions: 57
1. Gender Data Management through Household Registries 57
2. Promoting a Woman Empowered Legislative Agenda 59
3. Health Priorities in Peacekeeping 82
4. Poverty Alleviation and Peacekeeping 96
5. Gendered Elections and Peacekeeping 100
PAKIATAN'S CONTRIBUTION TO UN PEACEKEEPING 107
RECCOMENDATIONS 100
BIBLIOGRAPHY 139

INTRODUCTION

The turn of the century saw the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations transition from an agenda of traditional peacekeeping to multidimensional peacebuilding. Central to this new holistic peacebuilding model, was the inclusion of a gender perspective in the DPKO's mandates and activity on the ground in post-conflict societies. To this end, the October 2000 United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 solidified the Women, Peace and Security agenda, which was set to be implemented in all peacebuilding missions.

At the outset in Chapter 1, this book identifies three key methods used by the DPKO to facilitate gender mainstreaming; training, in-mission Gender Units and gender-sensitive DDR practices. Peacekeepers' training consists of pre-deployment and in-mission training, which is geared towards creating both a general and mission specific awareness of the need to include women in the peacebuilding process. The research highlights several drawbacks of existing training methods and material and seeks to recommend changes which will facilitate a more genuine internalization of gender sensitivity. In the case of pre-deployment training, a principal drawback is the UN's own lack of agency; the responsibility of pre-deployment training falls on the troop contributing countries (TCCs) which leads to numerous problems of enforcement and oversight. It is not sufficient for such crucial training to be in the hands of agents whose priorities need not align with those being espoused by the UN and the DPKO. Furthermore, in-mission training is not given enough time or adequate resources for its effect to be sufficiently reflected in peacekeepers' activities on the ground. The DPKO must consider the weight of the task at hand, where the aim is to override deeply entrenched cultural perceptions of gender, and devote more time and resources to this cause. To this end, collaboration with agencies such as UN Women, UNICEF, the WHO and various women's organizations is crucial to lend their training material with adequate expertise.

In the case of Gender Units, it must be noted that not all peacekeeping missions possess these; in the absence of gender units and advisors, the WPS agenda cannot be adequately implemented. Similarly, the book makes a case for increased women's inclusion in DDR practices, to ensure sustainable post-conflict reconstruction. It highlights a case study of Liberia, where DDR practices were more gender sensitive, and the subsequent results were remarkable. There is a need therefore to identify and capitalize on the variety of roles women play in conflict, for instance as spies, sexual slaves or helpers, to comprehensively disarm and demobilize these societies. Moreover, the book gives considerable weight to the issue of reintegration and the potential for women to assist in the process. It is crucial to give women adequate opportunities for employment and to uphold their rights and promote their empowerment for them to be effectively reintegrated into society in the aftermath of conflict.

The book then in Chapter 2 explores the prevalence of Sexual Abuse and Exploitation (SEA) in UN peacekeeping on the ground. By highlighting cultural understandings of gender and

sexuality and the distinctiveness of each mission's operational environment, — and the role of women within it — the book makes a case for the improvements required within troop contributing countries and UN DPKO mandates to keep incidents of SEA in check. Even with the creation of Conduct and Discipline Units (CDUs) and the specific inclusion of clauses addressing SEA in peacekeeping mission mandates, it continues to be a hindrance to effective and ethical peacebuilding; thereby posing a continual threat to the UN's notion of holistic peacekeeping and also reinforcing pre-existing problematic societal gender perceptions.

To take stock of this pervasive problem, the book puts forth recommendations for the comprehensive implementation of policies to increase female participation; build a culture against that of UN personnel impunity; facilitate an environment of zero tolerance; address the issues of peacekeeping babies and HIV amongst peacekeepers; as well as establishing strict measures to deter peacekeepers from exploiting women on the ground. The book looks to emphasize the urgency with which SEA in peacekeeping missions must be addressed using a multi-pronged approach in order to be effectively mitigated — it is imperative to highlight its root causes as well as its differing manifestations to ensure that the DPKO maintains respect for the human security and dignity of the most vulnerable people in post-conflict societies.

Next, in Chapter 3 the book studies the Political Economy of peacebuilding, with a special emphasis on gender. Given the UN's shift towards multidimensional peacebuilding, establishing and maintaining the economic security of local communities becomes essential. Typically, post-conflict state and societal reconstruction creates a plethora of economic opportunities for men, to the detriment of the already marginalized women. Women's economic security is a crucial pillar upholding gender equality in general. Consequently, DPKO peacebuilding must strongly establish and promote this equality by ensuring women's access to education, health services, and employment opportunities; as well as respecting their rights with respect to property, inheritance, marriage and SEA compensation. The list is endless; the central tenant however, is to ensure that the UN's multidimensional peacebuilding agenda is genuinely gender-sensitive, gender-responsive and all-encompassing in its protection of women.

In-mission Gender Advisory Units are usually entrusted with the responsibility of ensuring women's protection and inclusion in post-conflict reconstruction. The majority of DPKO missions contains such units, although some do not. Moreover, even those that do, often struggle to comprehensively address the specific needs of women and girls on the ground. To this end, the book proposes a "Gender Responsive Agenda" which rests on five mechanisms to facilitate gender equality in DPKO activity. These include 1) gender data management through household registries, 2) promoting a woman empowered legislative agenda, 3) health priorities 4) poverty alleviation, 5) gender friendly election management. The amalgamation of these pillars promotes gender equality by recognising the specific needs of women in the aftermath of conflict.

Another focal point of the political economy of gendered peacekeeping highlighted in this book, is the health infrastructure and facilities in post-conflict societies. Conflicts greatly damage

healthcare facilities in the societies which need them most; in the absence of adequate services such as medicines, doctors and specialists, the suffering of the already marginalized is further intensified. Moreover, the specific medical needs of women and girls in post-conflict societies often go unnoticed, which further exacerbates the numerous barriers already constraining their access to adequate healthcare. The book identifies gaps in existing policy frameworks which only focus on maternal health and sexual violence, and recommends methods to overcome these shortcomings in the peacebuilding framework. Conflicts pose a unique opportunity to build health infrastructures from the ground up even better than before; this means that a society's healthcare facility can be entirely overhauled keeping in mind a gender perspective, if the funds and resources are adequately and fairly distributed.

Poverty alleviation is another aspect of peacebuilding identified in the book. It notes the extent of women and girls' marginalization by identifying the abject levels of poverty they suffer from; especially in the aftermath of conflict, in comparison to their male counterparts. To address this, the book proposes a comprehensive social safety system which must be central to the DPKO's peacebuilding efforts.

Chapter 4, looks at a Case study of Pakistan, a crucial Troop Contributing Country (TCC) of the UN. The actual voices and priorities of three women peacekeepers from Pakistan namely: Major Fareeha Tanweer (Stress Counselor with Pakbatt at South-Kivu), Major Sadia Saleem (Military Public Information Officer), Major Aruza Naeem (Civil Military Coordination officer at Pakistan Rapidly Deployable Battalion); as well as Pakistan's contributions to UN peacekeeping from inception to date are detailed in this part of the book. And finally, Chapter 5 outlines overall gender specific recommendations which if followed in letter and spirit would pay real tribute to the cause of gender equity within UN peacekeeping.

What makes the inclusion of gender in peacekeeping so crucial – other than the numerous benefits afforded to operational efficacy – is that the WPS agenda acknowledges and respects the contributions, dedication and aspirations of real women on the ground in post-conflict societies and within UN peacekeeping missions. The promotion of gender-sensitivity and gender balancing is essential for women like Maja Bogicevic, who works in the SSR Unit of the UN mission in the DRC. Advocacy and legislation for increased female participation is imperative for the safety, comfort and support of such women working in what are traditionally considered male dominated workspaces. Given Maja's persistence and commitment to women's inclusion in the SSR process, it is crucial that her contributions and those of women like her are recognized and reinforced strongly enough by the UN to facilitate a real shift towards 50-50 gender parity.

Similarly, the contributions of Sanja Dodić, a national officer with the UNMIK Human Rights Office must be supported by the DPKO's firm commitment to women's protection in host countries. Sanja is credited for establishing a Domestic Violence Coordination Mechanism in the Leposaviq region of Kosovo. The efforts of such women highlight not only the need for a heightened level of gender responsivity from the UN itself, but also the strength and resilience

of women on the ground to take a stand for the basic human rights of other vulnerable women. Given such individual commitment to the cause, it becomes the duty of the DPKO to support and strengthen driven, ambitious and courageous women such as Sanja and Aruza through thorough and firm institutional backing.

Commander Carla Monteiro de Castro Araujo of MINUSCA, was a recipient of the UN Military Gender Advocate Award in 2019. Commander Monteiro de Castro acted as the Military Gender and Protection Advisor in the Central African Republic; her efforts included creating and disseminating training on gender and protection and the establishment of numerous gender and child protection focal points throughout the mission. It is crucial for the DPKO to fully commit to and deliver on its WPS agenda to further validate and strengthen the efforts of such women, who dedicate their careers to the cause of advancing women's roles in peacekeeping.

Likewise, women such as Brigadier-General Constance Emefa Edjeani-Afenu of the UN mission in the Western Sahara must be sure that the UN and the DPKO fully support women in positions of power, including her role as Deputy Force Commander. The inclusion of women in peacekeeping, the military and the security sector more generally, has historically been both contested and controversial. Therefore, women in these leadership positions must have full confidence that they have the genuine institutional backing of the UN.

All these women symbolize countless others, each of whom reflect commitment to the WPS agenda, respect for the basic human rights of women and a sense of responsibility and accountability, on an individual level. Together they form a collective, the efforts of which must be recognized and supported against a backdrop of the DPKO's firm commitment to gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping. As it stands, even though the DPKO has made strides in the right direction, the reality on the ground does not reflect an environment that well enough supports these women.

This book's combination of insights from multiple spheres – from the political and economic, to the social and cultural – highlights these inadequacies in an effort to identify the gaps which must be filled in order for the UN to truly serve the women on the ground looking to instill change. The amalgamation of these multiple realms of policy highlights just how many varied problems women in conflict ridden societies face, and reiterates the need to comprehensively tackle each and every one in order to fully deliver on the fundamentals of the UNSCR 1325 and the WPS agenda. There is no doubt that women's equal participation in peacekeeping holds the promise of countless benefits and efficiencies; however, another factor which must not be overlooked in pushing forth this agenda, is the real women working on the ground to the best of their abilities, to facilitate a transition of the WPS framework from theory to practice. The UN's inclusion of women in peacekeeping is therefore not only essential due to the multidimensional peacekeeping it promotes, but also because it is the solemn duty of the organization to support women such as Maja, Sanja, Commander Monteiro de Castro, General Constance Emefa Edjeani-Afenu, Aruza, Sadia, Fareeha and the countless others who they seek to protect, respect and empower, in the name of sustainable peace.

Chapter 1

FROM PEACEKEEPING TO PEACEBUILDING — EVOLUTION OF GENDER REFORMS IN PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS AND UN RESOLUTION 1325

FROM PEACEKEEPING TO PEACEBUILDING — EVOLUTION OF GENDER REFORMS IN PKOs AND UN RESOLUTION 1325

In October 2000, United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 recognized for the first time, the exigent linkage between women, peace and security. This recognition of the central role of gender in international Peacekeeping Operations (PKO) marked a monumental moment in the history of the UN and in the field of international security more generally. The lead up to UNSCR 1325 was a long and arduous affair; the path was far from linear and not always successful. Indeed, the inclusion of gender perspectives in the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) agenda reflected the recognition of the need for a drastic reorientation of traditional conceptions of national and international security, which would take years to be put into practice.

Prior to UNSCR 1325, the 1970s and 1980s saw numerous treaties, declarations and General Assembly resolutions, acknowledging the link between gender and peace. During this period, the UN even went so far as to officially sponsor three world conferences calling for gender mainstreaming in the international system; the narrative adopted was reflective of the Women in Development (WID) agenda of the 1970s, which looked to empower women through a transformative developmental agenda. The focus was at this stage, on integration, but experienced a shift towards agenda setting by the 1980s. The Gender and Development movement (GAD) was one of the first appearances of gender mainstreaming in international policy making, and was subsequently mapped onto various spheres of global governance — including conflict resolution and peacekeeping. Gender mainstreaming is 'the (re)organization, improvement, development and evaluation of policy processes, so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies at all levels and at all stages, by the actors normally involved in policy-making.'[1] Towards the end of the twentieth century, this approach began to gain resonance in the realm of post-conflict reconstruction, peace and security; in this respect, 'mainstreaming gender in peacekeeping activities is the full incorporation of gender perspectives into all peacekeeping activities, from the initial stages of ceasefire negotiations and the establishment of mandates for peacekeeping operations to post conflict situations.'[2] The narrative was centered on the notion that women and girls are disproportionately affected by conflict, and consequently there was an urgent and imperative need for their inclusion in the peace process. Networks of women's groups all over the world called for the recognition of this overarching relationship between women, peace and security, and its subsequent application in UN peacekeeping operations.

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[1] Council of Europe. *What is gender mainstreaming?* (n.d.). Retrieved September 15, 2020. https://www.coe.int/ en/web/gender equality/what-is-gender-mainstreaming

[2] UN Secretary General. (2003). *Gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping activities: report of the Secretary-General* (Report no. A/57/731).

Ultimately, the contextual shift following the Cold War created a circumstantial and normative environment which facilitated the internal acceptance of these demands.

In the aftermath of the Cold War, UN peacekeeping operations were more widespread than ever before; activities were no longer restricted to military matters of simply ending conflict and establishing ceasefires. The peacekeeping agenda in the 1990s was broadened to include amongst other things, institution building, human rights protection and economic development, thus reflecting a new approach to security issues globally. This perception and reorientation of UN security policy was reflective of the changed nature of conflict and the recognition that peacekeeping operations had to address the root causes of conflict, rather than just putting an end to it. As Natalie Hudson poignantly points out, the establishment of peace moved away from traditional notions of territory and military might; the inclusion of the developmental aspect of peace highlighted a shift away from state-centric perspectives of security, and a move towards a more comprehensive human security approach.[3] The human security addition to the international security agenda placed the needs and protection of the individual at the heart of the process; it expanded the international stage to include more actors and agenda — both governmental and non-governmental — in the peace process and reflected the proliferation of normative standards of appropriateness in the modern world.

1994 was marked by Europe setting up its own Steering Committee for Equality between Men and Women (CDEG). Through this committee, for the first time, the notion of Gender Mainstreaming was taken up to the Council of Europe as the committee was responsible for taking measures for the promotion of gender equality, and directly reported to the Council of Ministers[4]. However, it was not until the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing that the role of women in conflict was officially and forcefully brought to the international agenda-setting table. The Beijing Declaration reinforced the UN's commitment to protecting women's rights and fostering gender equality in all spheres and at all levels of international governance. The declaration contained specific provisions on the role of women in armed conflict and the establishment of peace and security; for instance, it reaffirmed member states' commitment to the inclusion of women in power structures and decision-making processes. It solidified an international recognition of the inalienable role of women in establishing long lasting peace and reconciliation in the aftermath of conflict. 189 countries that signed the Beijing Declaration exemplified a unique unified Programme that focused on equality between men and women in twelve critical areas in total that are as follows: Education and Training of Women, Women and Poverty, Violence Against Women, Women and Health, Women and Industry, Women and Armed Conflicts, Mechanism for

[3]Hudson, Natalie. (2005). En-Gendering UN Peacekeeping Operations. *International Journal*, *60*(3).

[4]Council of Europe–Steering Committee for Equality between Women and Men (CDEG). (2015, 17 May). *Euro-Mediterranean Women's Foundation*. Retrieved 18 September 2020, https://www.euromedwomen.foundation/pg/en/resources/view/4356/council-of-europe-steering-committee-for-equality-between-women-and-men-cdeg

Promoting Women, Women in Positions of Power and Decision-Making, Women and Media, Women's Human Rights, Girls, and Women and Environment[5]. It obliged all Member States to develop strategies to implement Gender Mainstreaming as a part of their national plan. From this point, Gender Mainstreaming was highlighted to be adopted on an international level, and as a top-down approach, implemented in European level as well as on the federal level. However, as monumental as this recognition was, implementation once again proved to be problematic; it was testament to the gravity of the policy reorientation which was underway.

Following the Beijing declaration, there was consistent collaboration between various UN agencies, member state governments and women's rights NGOs, to bring these issues to the forefront of the negotiating table; the advocacy of these strategic alliances[6] ultimately resulted in the 2000 Windhoek Declaration. This recognized that adequate implementation of the gender-sensitive approach to peacekeeping espoused in the Beijing Declaration had not taken place, and led to the drafting of the Namibia Plan of Action on Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Multidimensional Peace Operations in June 2000.

The Namibia Plan of Action contained very specific recommendations for the implementation of gender mainstreaming in the UN's peacekeeping missions. These included the mandatory addition of gender perspectives in the official Security Council mission mandate, the appointment of women in leadership roles, and gender specialists' input at all levels of mission planning. Moreover, it also called for the mandatory establishment of Gender Affairs Units in all UN peacekeeping missions, extensive gender training, and the increased recruitment of women within the UN framework and in local populations. The Namibia Plan of Action was in many ways a precursor for what in October 2000, following the two-day Security Council opening meeting, became known as UNSCR 1325.

On October 31st 2000, the United Nations Security Council unanimously passed resolution 1325, institutionalizing the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda firmly into their peacekeeping policy framework. The resolution legally binds member states and troop contributing countries to approach peacekeeping missions with a gendered understanding of security, given the finding that PKOs are more effective with equal gender participation due to varying experiences, needs and statuses. Given the multidimensional perception of security issues in the 21st century, it is crucial to recognize, address and cater to the differing needs of both, men and women, for the purpose of policy development and implementation.

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[5]Earth Negotiations Bulletin. (September 18, 1995). *A Summary Report on the Fourth World Conference On Women* (Vol. 14 No. 21). International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD).

[6]Lamptey, C. (2007). Gender and Peacekeeping: An Evolving Field of Practice. *Journal of International Peacekeeping*, *11*(1), 69-79.

UNSCR 1325 outlined a complex framework of judicial and legal reforms, peace negotiations, peacekeeping, political participation and protection from sexual violence in conflict within the WPS scheme. It identified amongst other things:

- The "urgent need to mainstream a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations"
- The "willingness to incorporate a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations"
- An "understanding of the impact of armed conflict on women and girls, effective institutional arrangements to guarantee their protection and full participation in the peace process can significantly contribute to the maintenance and promotion of international peace and security"[7]

The underlying assumption — which has indeed been supported by statistical data analysis — is that the 'mere presence and participation of women will change the mechanisms that endorse gender hierarchies, and finally lead to equality between men and women.'[8] This understanding, which has come to be known as the 'add women and stir' approach has received much criticism, for the way it essentialises women as peacemakers. It has a tendency to draw upon and reinforce gender stereotypes, for instance that of the gentle, conciliatory woman as opposed to the aggressive warrior man.[9] Despite its criticism however, this understanding is reinforced by numerous studies of peace operations which highlight the observation that female peacekeepers are seen as more approachable than their male counterparts. Because peacekeeping operations in the modern world have 'transformed into intricate civilian-military crisis management operations'[10], interaction with local populations is crucial. To this end, female peacekeepers are generally seen as more trustworthy way to increase the reach of PKOs; better at monitoring unsanctioned behavior; crucial to the transitional process which follows conflict resolution, thereby facilitating processes of democratization; and instrumental in both actively and passively increasing representation for women, thereby increasing the operational effectiveness of peacekeeping missions through their functionalist qualities.[11] Therefore, even if this approach was inadequate and criticized, it somehow did limelight the inclusion of women on significant platforms, as well as providing them with opportunities.[12]

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[7] UN Security Council. (31 October 2000). *Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) [on women and peace and security]* (Report no. S/RES/1325), Retrieved 25 September, 2020, from https://www.refworld.org/docid/3b00f4672e.html

[8] Valenius. J. (2007). A Few Kind Women: Gender Essentialism and Nordic Peacekeeping Operations. *International Peacekeeping*, *14*(4), 510-523.

[9] Valenius, 2007, p.515.

[10] Valenius, 2007, p.510.

[11] Karim, S. & Beardsley, K. (2013). Female Peacekeepers and Gender Balancing: Token Gestures or Informed Policymaking? *International Interactions*, 39(4), 461-488.

[12] Noddings, N. (2001). The Care Tradition: Beyond "Add Women and Stir." *Theory into Practice*, *40*(1), 29-34.

The passing of UNSCR 1325 was followed by directives for the creation of National Action Plans for the implementation of the given provisions, and was further developed through additional UN legislation. Between 2008 and 2009, the UN passed resolutions 1820, 1888 and 1889 reinforcing their commitment to advancing the role of women in peacekeeping operations. Resolutions 1829 and 1888 specifically tackled conflict related sexual violence (CRSV), while resolution 1889 focused on women's leadership in peacekeeping operations. Other legislation addressing gender based violence (GBV) in conflict and post-conflict affected areas include UN resolutions 1999, 1960 and 2106, while others such as resolution 2122 strengthened the enforcement mechanism of UNSCR 1325 by emphasizing accountability for implementation. The decades since the passing of UNSCR 1325 have seen the inclusion of gender perspectives in almost all UN mandate rhetoric, which highlights the profound and long-lasting institutionalizing effect of resolution 1325.

Effects of Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping Operations

There are numerous real and potential impacts of the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and a broader gender mainstreaming policy framework in UN peacekeeping operations. The inclusion of women in all areas of conflict resolution and peacekeeping offers a plethora of benefits which can facilitate the establishment of sustainable peace plans in conflict-ridden regions the world over.

This section looks to elaborate on the many advantages of gender mainstreaming in international peace and security policymaking, with the help of concrete examples of UN peacekeeping missions of the past and present. It sets the stage for the forthcoming section which paints a picture of the reality of these gender-sensitive policies on the ground; that is, it looks at the real and potential benefits of gender mainstreaming which pushed the UN to adopt SCR 1325 and subsequent gender-sensitive legislation.

A good starting point is to elucidate upon the functionalist approach to gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping operations; as briefly mentioned previously, this approach does in many ways capitalize on female stereotypical characteristics to propose that women can make effective contributions to UN peacekeeping efforts, which men would not be able to. Using traditionally 'feminine' traits such as sensitivity, empathy, the ability to be conciliatory or pacifying, this argument suggests that female peacekeepers lend PKOs an increased sense of credibility.[13] Fostering trust within the local communities is crucial to the success of peacekeeping missions, and the inclusion of women in United Nations Police (UNPOL), military contingents and civilian posts facilitates this process, as reports show a tendency for men, women and children of local communities to be more responsive towards and at ease with female peacekeepers.

[13] Dharmapuri, S. (2011). Just Add Women and Stir? *Parameters, 41*(1), 56-70.

Furthermore, because women and children are disproportionally affected and displaced by conflict, it is crucial that peacekeepers are able to effectively and easily relate to and communicate with these sections of the local community; having a gender-balanced group of peacekeepers therefore makes it more reflective of the demographics of the population on the ground, and consequently abler to understand and cater to the needs of women and children. To this end, Karim and Beardsley's hypothesis testing posits that female peacekeepers possess a 'comparative operational advantage'[14] in PKOs. In many societies, especially those that are more conservative, the inclusion of women in police and military units makes activities such as house searches, interrogations, interviews, body searches and women's prison work more efficient; it also reduces the risk of secondary victimization in communities where women may be prohibited from interacting with unfamiliar men.

Female engagement in PKOs also holds immense potential in addressing incidents of sexual and gender based violence (SGBV); women in local communities are likely to be more comfortable reporting such incidents if they are engaging with female peacekeepers. Moreover, studies indicate that women deployed in police or military units will in and of themselves be more sensitive and inherently reactive to such issues, thereby providing local women and girls an increased sense of trust, comfort and safety.

Organizations like UN Women and UN Peacebuilding Commission shed light upon two basic concepts to achieve gender equality, gender balancing and gender mainstreaming. Gender balancing can be explained by the degree to which women share representation equal to that of men in the political institutions and agencies like United Nations, including peacekeeping. However, Gender Mainstreaming refers to the assessment of the implications of actions that are planned, on men and women, such as policies, programs, or legislations at all levels and inclusive of all areas so that the interests of women are guarded and kept intact while planning and implementing any such policies.[15] Gender balancing and mainstreaming in peacekeeping operations also strengthens missions' information gathering capabilities. Women's inclusion in military, police and civilian units offers a better understanding of the operational environment they are deployed in; this 'nuanced intelligence picture'[16] provides them with more chances to engage with the local population. This development of relationships with the civilians on the ground opens doors for greater civil society outreach, thereby generating critical information which would otherwise remain out of reach; for instance, the use of Female Engagement Teams (FETs) in US policy in Afghanistan resulted in better access to the Afghani population through routine patrols, security checks and gathering census data. Effective house searches of areas which are specifically designated for women resulted in the discovery of numerous improvised explosive devices which would

[14] Karim & Beardsley, 2013.
[15] Mazurana, D., Raven-Roberts A., & Parpart J., (Eds.). (2005). *Gender, Conflict, and Peacekeeping*. ed. 1st US Paperback, Oxford: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
[16] Dharmapuri, 2011, p. 59.

otherwise have remained concealed.

Post-conflict reconstruction requires the mobilization of all of a nation's resources, including women. States undergo a transitional process following conflict resolution, which includes processes such as legal and constitutional reform, election preparation, mine reform, and Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR). It is crucial for a gendered perspective to guide these transitional processes in all sectors. Using gender sensitive policies to reform national police units has overwhelmingly positive outcomes. The inclusion of women in peacekeeping forces allows gender mainstreaming and balancing policies to be applied at the national level as well. Studies show that greater recruitment of women for police forces can be found in places with greater proportions of female peacekeepers. Lamptey highlights Timor-Leste, Kosovo and Sierra Leone as examples of conflict ridden regions where the deployment of female peacekeepers resulted in greater numbers of women enlisted into national police forces, here women comprised 15% of national police forces whereas prior to PKO deployment the proportion was significantly lower, approximately less than 5%.[17] Police reform with the aid of gender balanced peacekeeping teams also allow national forces to receive training and guidance so as to make them more prepared and responsive to tackle gender-based violence, which is heavily prevalent in such areas.

Another aspect of post-conflict reconstruction, which is facilitated through the inclusion of female peacekeepers, is national constitutional, electoral and legal reform. Gender balanced PKOs shed light on the voices of the most marginalized sections of society and encourage women's political participation, thereby bringing more people into the political fold. This paves the way for what should be the post-conflict democratization of vulnerable societies. The gender units in the United Nations Operations in Burundi (UNOB) for instance, supported local political and legislative authorities in various political processes including drafting legislation, and guaranteeing the constitutional rights of women.[18] In Burundi, peacekeeping forces helped enforce quota guarantees in government, which reserved 30% of the seats in parliament and the senate for women, and also encouraged women to vote and stand as candidates in national elections. Through public information messages and campaigning, new local voices for change were supported and encouraged by UNOB gender units to challenge the status quo.

There is a huge misconception that persists from a long period of time, that gender mainstreaming is considered synonymous to ensuring an increase in women peacekeepers. This notion is not completely true; in reality gender mainstreaming involves proposing potential practical solutions to the identified conflicts and impacts of such conflicts on the lives of both men and women, especially the younger generation. This negates the concept surfacing that gender mainstreaming only advocates the empowerment of women and men.

[17] Lamptey, 2007.
[18] Lamptey, 2007.

A bigger aspect although revolves around bridging gaps in political, economic, social and educational opportunities for women, empowerment is just a small component of a bigger goal.

Within the gender mainstreaming reconstruction framework, the critical role that the peacekeeper performs in setting a foundation for post conflict societies such as: operationalizing the gender mainstreaming perspectives, which include the participation in demobilization, rule of law, capacity development, reintegration activities. In October 2004, a gender resource package was launched for peacekeeping operations, this has facilitated the highlighting of gender related issues and awareness for these issues for the peacekeepers. In March 2005, the UN Security General issued a policy statement that lay the foundation of operationalization framework for the implementation in the gender mainstreaming.[19]

Similarly, collaboration between UNPKO gender units and local forces also has the potential to empower local women and advance gender equality through the local institution building processes. If PKOs are modelled using a gender mainstreaming framework, there is scope for local institutions to be modelled in a similar manner. For instance, in Timor-Leste and Kosovo, the inclusion of gender units in UN peacekeeping missions resulted in the establishment of Offices for Gender Equality within the two national governments. The inclusion of female peacekeepers and gender units also creates opportunities for gender-sensitive training of officials at the local level and capacity building for local women's rights NGOs which will ultimately help move communities towards more gender-balanced models of governance. With increased women's participation at the peacekeeping and local level, more attention is drawn towards social issues, which may otherwise be overlooked. For instance, with the support and advocacy of UN gender units in Liberia, the national government was pushed to pass a Rape Law offering victims of rape protection. A change in local legislation and political organization. This exemplifies what Karim and Beardsley refer to as active representation; they differentiate this from passive representation, which is another advantage of gendered peacekeeping forces.[20] Passive representation refers to the change brought about in local attitudes and behaviours with respect to women's rights and safety, as a result of gendered peacekeeping missions. That is, for instance women are more likely to report cases of sexual misconduct, or other forms of GBV when there is female representation in UN peacekeeping forces on the ground because they are more reflective of the local population, and also more geared towards representing their real needs. When peacekeeping units reflect a sense of gender-sensitivity, a similar recognition is cultivated or emulated even if subconsciously in the local population.

[19] United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations. (2005). *Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping Operations*.
[20] Karim & Beardsley, 2013.

Reality on the Ground

This section looks to explore the various ways in which the UNDPKO has attempted to implement its gender mainstreamed peacekeeping mission mandates on the ground. It looks specifically at gender-sensitive training, in-mission gender units and gender inclusive DDR policies. As outlined previously, there are numerous advantages to incorporating a gender-sensitive approach to the planning and implementation of UN peacekeeping missions. However, much like agenda setting in almost every realm of public policy, here too there is the inevitable discrepancy between policy and practice. There is no doubt that following the unanimous passing of UNSCR 1325, the DPKO has consciously utilized a gender-sensitive narrative for peacekeeping in mandating all its missions. Indeed, the recognition of the importance of women's inclusion alone is in and of itself a monumental feat. It highlights the UN's commitment to recognizing and understanding the notion that gender, peace and security are inextricably intertwined, and that policymaking must reflect this relationship. However, the internalization of this fact no matter how great its symbolic strength is, without genuine implementation will not suffice. The DPKO's on-field activities in peacekeeping missions must reflect it, or else this drastic shift in perspective and perception towards a more gender-balanced and gender-mainstreamed approach, serves no real purpose.

Training

Gender-sensitive training is a crucial cornerstone of the enforcement mechanism of UNSCR 1325, and subsequent gender mainstreaming legislation; UNSCR 1325 specifically instructed that all peacekeeping personnel receive comprehensive training on the "protection, rights and the particular needs of women, as well as on the importance of involving women in all peacekeeping and peace building measures". Because the resolution catalyzed a massive shift in peace and security perception and policy-development, the cultivation of genuine and comprehensive gender awareness in peacekeepers was crucial for the successful implementation of this new approach on the ground. UN INSTRAW Reports differentiate between two distinct forms of gender-sensitive training, pre-deployment and in-mission[21] which are aimed at capacity building to facilitate a recognition and understanding of the impact of violent conflict on gender roles in host countries.

The material required as part of pre-deployment training is provided by the Training and Estimation Services (TES) of the UNDPKO. The DPKO produced the Gender and Peacekeeping training package, building upon material first produced through the collaboration of the UK

[21]Lyytikäinen, M. (2007). Gender Training for Peacekeepers: Preliminary overview of United Nations peace support operations, UN INSTRAW (Working paper No. 4).

Department for International Development (DFID), and the Canadian Department of International Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT). The UNDPKO's training package contained three distinct modules, each created to serve a specific purpose. The generic module was to be disseminated to all uniformed peacekeeping personnel. The specialist module contained more detailed guidelines for the inclusion of a gender perspective in all military and police activity on the ground. The senior leadership module was geared towards the mission leadership with the goal of emphasizing their central role in ensuring operation efficacy. All UN training material follows these three distinct demarcations till today; however, a notable change came in 2008 with the inclusion of a civilian aspect in addition to the previous military and police guidelines in the UNDPKO's Core Pre- Deployment Training Module.

The UNDPKO did indeed consider a multitude of factors in developing its peacekeeping training material, and continued to integrate guidelines for more specific provisions as time went by. For instance, while the departments' 2003 standard training module on gender and peacekeeping contained more simplistic notions of gender roles, and the unacceptability of in-mission sexual misconduct, subsequent training material consciously included social and cultural considerations in understanding a mission's operational environment. To this end, the 2004 gender resource package for peacekeeping operations highlighted the importance of accounting for the social norms and perceptions of the host country in planning and carrying out duties. Still however, the UNDPKO's pre-deployment training material and enforcement mechanisms failed to guarantee full compliance on the ground.

It has been shown through evidence that there is a positive effect of women peacekeepers in the UN missions. But it has been recorded that despite the request by United Nations to increase the female participation, the number on the field has remained lower than expected. The increased participation of women in the military do signify some equality, which may result in the improvement of women's status in the host countries. But it does not vouch for the fulfillment of local community women's needs. The participation of women has gradually decreased, between the time period of 1957 to 1989; only 20 women were deployed as UN peacekeepers, which accounts for 0.07% of the total peacekeepers deployed all over. The percentage increased to 3% in military personnel and 4% in civilian police personnel in 2000. By 2008, only 2% of female personnel participated in UN peacekeeping operations.[22]

At the outset, the material did not address the effect of the peacekeepers' cultural backgrounds on their perception of gender roles. A person's understanding of sexual violence is highly dependent on their cultural background and may well be influenced by a cultural perception of militarized masculinity, and consequently is deeply rooted in cultural

[22]Dillon, T. (2018, 29 May). *A Case for Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping Missions*. Retrieved 18 September, 2020, from https://oursecurefuture.org/blog/gender-mainstreaming-peacekeeping-missions

notions of what is acceptable and what isn't. In this respect, the training material simply noted that sexual exploitation on the ground was unacceptable, without exploring or accounting for the obvious room for varying interpretations of this instruction. Dean Laplonge highlights a sense of reluctance[23] on the part of the UN to thoroughly investigate cultures of masculinity in the home countries of the peacekeepers, which can have detrimental effects on the operational effectiveness of the mission. Angela McKay echoes similar views in highlighting the 'tension between gender and culture' and the inability, or rather aversion, of the UN to address this. McKay emphasises the impact of culture on human perceptions of gender, sex and masculinity to show that short-lived, superficial training will not suffice in ensuring the implementation of gender-mainstreaming on the ground because human beings are inherently resistant to change. Furthermore, changing one's perceptions of gender and sex becomes an exclusively moral task. It challenges one's deeply entrenched belief system, which is not only difficult to accomplish but can also cause sufficient blowback which the department was clearly keen to avoid. As Lalponge notes, there was a clear 'tendency to be more concerned with how men might react to gender conversations, rather than ensuring they are qualified to work in gender sensitive missions.'[24] The 'imported'[25] views of peacekeepers therefore had the potential to pose physical, sexual and psychological risks to the local populations.

Another obstacle faced by the UNDPKO in ensuring the genuine internalization of its training material was that the implementation of this is in the hands of the troop contributing countries (TCC) and not the UN. The department's responsibility in pre-deployment training only went so far as the TES providing all necessary material and also training the trainers; but beyond that the responsibility of imparting lessons and guidelines lay with individual contributing states. This highlights a lack of control which reflects a ubiquitous principal-agent problem preventing the effective enforcement of the UNDPKO's gender mainstreaming agenda. Because individual countries are in control, effective training depends largely on their own priorities which need not to line up with those of the UN and resolution 1325. To this end, McKay notes a pervasive issue of sovereignty which robs the UN of full control.[26] It is noteworthy that the preliminary discussions for the creation of UNDPKO training packages in 2000, specified that training must take place at the national level, this indicates a deliberate decision on the part of the UN to revoke its agency and hand it over to a third party. It highlights a sense of detachment which is problematic because it lends the TCCs a significant degree of control when there is no guarantee that they are committed to the UNDPKO's gender-sensitive agenda.

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[23]Laplonge, D. (2015). The Absence of Masculinity in Gender Training for UN Peacekeepers. *Peace Review*, *27*(1), 91-99.
[24] Laplonge, 2015, p.95.
[25] Laplonge, 2015, p.95.
[26]Mackay, A. (2003). Training the uniforms: Gender and peacekeeping operations. *Development in Practice*, *13*(2-3), 217-223.

A UN INSTRAW[27] report shows that in actuality TCCs with relatively greater capacity for comprehensive gender-sensitive training at the national level contribute fewer troops. The trend shows that developing countries tend to not only contribute the most troops, but also have the most gender balanced contributions. They however, have the least capacity for effective training, especially in non-traditional aspects of peacekeeping which continue to increase in importance as the UN's multidimensional peacekeeping agenda comes into play. Most of the gender-training opportunities emerge from the North rather than the South, which deploys most of the troops in UN peacekeeping missions. One of the troop-contributing regions, West Africa, imparted scarce pre-deployment training in such non-technical areas such as gender mainstreaming and/or sexual exploitation and abuse, according to a research by Refugees International.[28] This reflects the aforementioned principal agent problem; it brings to the fore a major problem of compliance which result from a lack of strong enforcement mechanisms.

The abundance of agency afforded to TCCs requires that this analysis sidesteps UN training momentarily to identify and analyse the motivations for their contributions to peacekeeping operations, in order to better understand how this agency coupled with TCC priorities prevents the proper implementation of gender-sensitive training. Since TCCs have the authority to act in accordance with their own preferences without fear of accountability or punishment, they tend to place a lot of importance on the social and political risks to their domestic standing. The UN has been actively promoting agendas such as increased female balancing as military personnel in peacekeeping operations. The percentage of female deployed in such missions was to be increased from 10 percent to 20 percent in 2009. Moreover, even the mandates were being incorporated with 'gendered languages'. Irrespective of such UN guidelines to include women in their troop contributions, TCCs are reluctant to follow these because they are inherently risk averse. They carefully consider the risks of sending women to missions which might be too dangerous — and these are the ones which usually require the most gender-sensitivity — out of the fear that they may face political and social blowback upon endangering female citizens' lives. There is also the pervasive cultural backdrop against which such decisions are made; given the fact that some cultures hold conflicting opinions about the role of women in combat, this too proves to be an obstacle in the national allocation of women in peacekeeping operations. Furthermore, another risk considered by TCCs is that of disrupting the perception that the security sector is male dominated. These stereotypes lead to the allocation of females in administrative or medically relevant jobs, considered as 'feminine' jobs.[29] In countries where gender balancing is comparatively stronger than others, women are subject to gender discrimination due to stereotyping, and are assigned administrative jobs being labelled as the 'weaker

[27] Lyytikäinen, 2007.
[28] Martin, S. (2005). Must Boys Be Boys? Ending Sexual Exploitation & Abuse in UN Peacekeeping Missions. Washington DC: Refugees International.
[29] Karim & Beardsley, 2013.

sex'.[30] Because stereotypes of immense strength and skills considered as predominantly masculine hold true[31], gender balancing in troop contributions could be potentially unpopular at home both politically and socially. This combination of TCC agency, a dearth of UNDPKO enforcement mechanisms, and a weak accountability regime prevents peacekeepers from receiving and acting in accordance with comprehensive gender-sensitive training.

To this end, the DPKO has recognized and taken steps to alleviate the problem; for instance, in 2010 the DPKO and DFS collaborated to publish detailed Guidelines for Integrating a Gender Perspective into the Work of the United Nations Military in Peacekeeping Operations, which emphasized the importance of including uniformed female personnel in peacekeeping missions and specifically laid out guidelines for TCCs to follow. The document included instructions to ensure TCCs had recognized the need to maintain sex-disaggregated data on the number of men and women in various ranks of their national armed forces and appointed gender focal points within military contingents. This initiative was imperative due to the fact that TCCs deployed highly lop-sided allocations of men and women in their national troops, and that was the same source of extracting personnel for the peacekeeping missions.[32] This, and further policy reinforcements highlight a recognition on the part of the DPKO of the prevailing principal-agent problem and an attempt to overcome it by specifically directing instructions towards TCCs. In practice, many countries such as Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden and South Africa have adopted national action plans of their own to include gender advisors and focal points at the national level. Another important step is taken by the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) due to SCR 1325. It paved way to incorporate gender-sensitive perspective in conflict operations; carry out projects/programs centered on the protection of women and children under conflicting scenarios; utilize the gender-disaggregated data in UN's precautionary systems; strategize ways to enhance and support increased female participation in peacemaking and peacebuilding, followed by a pro-gender equality approach in judicial reforms.[33] Other initiatives include the 2009 UN Police Division's Global Effort, aimed at increasing the number of female UNPOL personnel in peacekeeping missions. This effort too included recommendations to member states to identify assets and ultimately overcome barriers to women's inclusion in their national UN recruitment processes. Furthermore, besides the UN-INSTRAW's survey 'Women with a Blue Helmet survey' to analyze issues of female recruitment at the national level in 2011, it has published highly effective guide for women to work in policy and planning, while also sponsoring the initiatives of formulating and promoting tools, networks, and websites for training in the said area.[34] All these initiatives

[30]Sasson-Levy, O., & Sarit. A. (2007). Gender Integration in Israeli Officer Training: Degendering and Regendering the Military. *Signs*, *33*(1), 105–133, 2007.
[31]Karim & Beardsley, 2013.
[32]Karim & Beardsley, 2013.
[33]Baranyi, S., & Powell, K. (August 2005). Fragile States, Gender Equality and Aid Effectiveness: A Review of Donor Perspectives. The North South Institute.
[34]Winslow, D. (2009). Gender Mainstreaming: Lessons for Diversity. *Commonwealth & Comparative Politics*, *47*(4), 539-558.

suggest that the DPKO is aware of its lack of agency in the national recruitment process. This recognition is significant because it highlights a commitment to address the problem of TCC resistance to adopting a gender perspective in its troop contributions. Still however, without institutionalized accountability mechanisms, state contributions to peacekeeping missions remain at the mercy of the priorities and preferences of the TCCs.

In addition to TCC-administered pre-deployment training, peacekeeping personnel also receive in- mission training upon arrival in the host country. Because pre-deployment training is often inadequate (depending on TCC commitment to gender-sensitive and gender-inclusive peacekeeping), in-mission training is especially critical for the thorough implementation of UN mission mandates. This training constitutes a gender-training package that targets the peacekeepers, and requires them to incorporate the information related to gender-awareness disseminated in the package in all their activities. The key gender-related issues are mainly highlighted in the manual, focusing both on the planning as well as the implementation stage of the peacekeeping operations. Furthermore, practical tools such as "gender-assessment checklist" complement the guide.[35] In-mission training places generic training and peacekeeping guidelines within the framework of the social, cultural and political landscape of the host country. This is crucial because a thorough understanding of the operational environment on the ground cultivates a nuanced awareness of gender roles and the impact of violent conflict on them, in the context of the local population, their beliefs, traditions and institutions.

Upon arrival, peacekeepers attend induction sessions delivered by Gender Advisors from the in-mission Gender Unit. This inclusion of and delivery by trained experts is meant to ensure comprehensive and well-informed oversight. The incorporation of gender-related issues along with their application to maintain common standards in the peacekeeping missions shows the DPKO's grave measures towards the principal-agent problem. For instance, about 130 military and civilian police in the East Timorese were actively engaged in these trainings. Gender Affairs Unit was set up by the Timor-Leste UN Mission to train women and foster their interests in public service and civil society structures.[36] In theory, the intention underpinning this in-mission training is sure to bring about positive results, but in reality many shortcomings endure. Since the UNDPKO can never have full confidence in the TCC's commitment to pre-deployment training, in-mission training should be given much more importance. It should be thorough enough to make up for the uncertainty surrounding the efficacy of pre-deployment training. To this end, training sessions of between 30 minutes to one hour[37] are not sufficient to cultivate a strong enough awareness of both the importance and the methods of implementing gender-mainstreaming effectively. It is unlikely that such a short period of time can undo or over-write years of deep-seated cultural understandings of gender, conflict, and the relationship (or lack thereof) between the two. Furthermore, UN

[35] Winslow, 2009.
[36] Winslow, 2009.
[37] Lyytikäinen, 2007.

INSTRAW reports indicate that in practice not all peacekeeping missions include gender units; in this event, not only do missions lack an over-arching gender perspective, but in-mission training is also left up to gender focal points who must take on the responsibility of training delivery in addition to the daily tasks they are already assigned. These gender focal points do not always possess the time, capacity, knowledge, or commitment to comprehensively fulfill this added responsibility. Apart from this, another important gap, and perhaps a major one, is the monitoring of the steps designed to implement the SCR 1325 on ground, and at all levels. The Gender and Peace building Working Group (GPWG) in Canada explicates that there has been much more stress upon designing the activities than monitoring whether they are actually being actualized.[38]

It must be said however, that irrespective of inadequacies in the implementation of gender-sensitive training, the UNDPKO has devoted considerable time and resources to the development of training tools and materials. Since the adoption of UNSCR 1325 in 2000, gender training material has continued to evolve over the years, from being predominantly generic to increasingly specialized. The UNDPKO has also developed training manuals and modules geared towards different personnel in peacekeeping missions. Examples of this include the extension of training to include the needs and activities of civilian peacekeeping personnel; modules outlining the implementation of DDR; a gender training toolbox developed specifically to guide police units through the process of restructuring local police units and academies; and the development of numerous guidelines addressing sexual exploitation and gender based violence following the adoption of UNSCR 1802. It also released gender resource package for men, women, police, and military working in the peacekeeping operations in October 2004. According to a study, about 11 by 18 UN Missions now consist of a gender adviser. DPKO's another devotional act for this purpose was the establishment of the Gender Community of Practice in December 2006 that promoted the sharing of the learnt habits during the gender-awareness trainings in peacekeeping.[39]

Moreover, the DPKO has also consistently funded and supported the development of training material on the reconstruction of local security, political, social and economic institutions in conformity with the notion of multidimensional peacekeeping; for instance, the restructuring of local police units and prisons using a gender-sensitive framework. Guidelines for holistic and gender-balanced peacekeeping have resulted in increased women's confidence in the local security sector in the post conflict societies of Chad, Liberia and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), especially as gender mainstreaming has allowed peacekeeping personnel to help restructure local institutions in such a way so as to make them more responsive to the needs of women. Gender sensitive guidelines for post-conflict reconstruction have historically helped make local law enforcement agents more responsive to incidents of sexual exploitation and other forms of gender based violence,

[38] Winslow, 2009.
[39] Winslow, 2009.

which otherwise go unaddressed in these societies.

Gender Units

The establishment of in-mission gender units is the DPKO's primary mode of coordinating gender mainstreaming policies. The creation of an altogether separate agent to manage gender policy is imperative for the comprehensive, nuanced, and organized implementation of UNSCR 1325 and other gender-sensitive UN initiatives. It facilitates collaboration between experts, local women, women's organizations, and governmental authorities and agencies, thereby having a twofold positive impact. Firstly, designating all gender-related policy creation and implementation to one specific unit or agent, holds the promise of efficiency and commitment to the cause. Secondly, it ensures effective civil society outreach due to the presence of experts who recognize the importance of collaborating with local people and institutions in order to obtain the best results.

In practice, UN peacekeeping missions who have well established gender units have obtained more favorable results in implementing the gender mainstreaming expectations of their mandates than those with ad hoc mechanisms of implementation. For example, the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) included a Gender Affairs Unit established specifically to coordinate gender-inclusive policies on the ground. The GAU set up The Female Assessment/Analysis and Support Team (FAST) in 2015, containing 21 uniformed female peacekeepers to ensure the inclusion of a gender perspective in culturally sensitive environments. Moreover, the UNIFIL GAU also paid considerable attention to civilian outreach programs, which focused on capacity building of local women; for instance, in collaboration with UN Women, UNIFIL began regular workshops with local women to train them on matters of conflict resolution and mediation, and to encourage political, economic and social participation in their communities.

In the case of the United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the DR Congo (MONUSCO), the Gender Affairs Section (GAS) requires the whole of its staff to incorporate gender perspectives in their activities as illustrated by the WPS. Specifically, clause 2409 implies gender as the main theme to be considered across the mandate. GAS coordinated the implementation of the mission's gender-inclusive mandate in four ways; firstly, using Gender Markers as an accountability tool allowed the GAS to monitor MONUSCO activity in delivering on the WPS mandate; it ensured a gender analysis of all in-mission work and even maintain sex-desegregated data to facilitate gender sensitive policy development. Secondly, the GAS focused on in-mission and local capacity building through routine trainings and induction sessions to facilitate adequate transfer of information. It also aimed to fortify peacekeeping from gender perspective by providing platforms for women referees who would work to promote women engagement in the peace-building operations, and would contribute for the appeasement of their own community members. Thirdly, MONUSCO's GAS implemented a Gender Parity Strategy in 2017. The aim was to achieve gender

balancing in accordance with the expectations of the UNSG, and to provide an example of gender inclusion for the local community to emulate. Lastly, the GAS in the DRC made considerable headway in promoting gender sensitivity through advocacy and increased use of the media — an avenue which typically offered women very little representation. It promoted a safe and secure arena for the women voters and political aspirants so that they may take independent steps to counter the challenges they face in matters related to gender.[40]

However, if there is no Gender Unit established in a certain UN Mission, the training is done by the gender focal point. A major and/or notable gap in this regard is that a number of UN Missions remain without a gender unit or a gender focal point. United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire (UNOCI), United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Sahara (MINURSO), United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP), United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF), United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL), United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO), and United Nations Integrated Office in Sierra Leone (UNIOSIL) are among the many UN peacekeeping operations that have worked without a gender unit.[41]

Disarmament, Demobilization, Reintegration (DDR)

Given the UNDPKO's multidimensional peacekeeping agenda, the importance of comprehensive Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) strategies became all the more important after the passing of UNSRC 1325. The resolution specifically drew upon lessons learnt from past experiences to highlight the need to involve women in all stages of the creation and implementation of peace agreements. DPKO involvement in places, such as Sierra Leone highlighted how the exclusion of women from DDR only heightened instability in post-conflict societies. Lessons from UNAMSIL indicated that in 2002 it was the disenfranchised women and girls who re-instigated riots and perpetuated instability. The DPKO's Gender Resource Package for Peacekeeping Operations notes this creation of a new class of disenfranchised citizens as a recurring pattern in missions where DDR frameworks exclude women. Gender blindness in DDR is therefore dangerous because not only does it reinforce existing social, economic, political and cultural inequalities between men and women, but it also encourages re-recruitment into armed forces. By contrast, lessons from UN missions in the Central African Republic and Kosovo highlight the importance of gender-mainstreaming and women's inclusion in the DDR process. Here, women assisted in locating hidden routes and weapons caches, which peacekeeping forces would otherwise have been unaware of. Similarly, their roles as gun collectors during the conflict also proved helpful in the overall disarmament effort.

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[40]United Nations Organisation Stabilisation Mission in the DR Congo MONUSCO. *Mandates and Objectives*. Retrieved September 18, 2020, from https://monusco.unmissions.org/en/mandates-and-objectives

[41] Lyytikäinen, 2007.

At the outset, it is crucial to discuss the issue of DDR eligibility criteria. Typically, DDR programs are centered on the male combatant; women and girls have traditionally been almost entirely overlooked. The fact is that this exclusion is in and of itself illogical, given the multitude of ways in which women contribute to the dynamics of conflict; on the one hand there is the very real presence of female combatants (albeit in proportionately few numbers), and on the other is the host of supporting roles women take on to support male combatants — for instance, as cooks, sexual slaves, spies, and to carry and conceal supplies. Following UNSCR 1325, a gender mainstreamed DDR strategy was first implemented in Liberia; here, the definition of a combatant was broadened to include women in supporting roles, dependents and children. This extension of eligibility criteria gave women the opportunity to present a weapon with 150 round of ammunition to qualify for inclusion in the DDR program. The underlying logic for this change in UN policy was the realisation that women in supporting roles often engaged in combat with shared weapons; furthermore, it allowed peacekeepers to tap into secret caches of weaponry which only the women had knowledge of.

UNMIL's gender-inclusive DDR policies went further than just extending the eligibility criteria; a crucial step taken here was the use of public information campaigns. On the issue of DDR, the DPKO's Gender Resource Package emphasizes the need for public information to encourage female ex-combatants and women in peripheral roles to come forward to take part in DDR programs. Women are less likely to come forward for inclusion for many reasons, including the stigma attached to women in combat in certain communities, and the fear of coercion, isolation and sexual assault. Moreover, women in conflict ridden societies tend to have less access to education and media, leaving them uninformed of the potential benefits of participation. To this end, the Ministry of Gender in Liberia launched a mass media campaign to spread awareness of the gender inclusive DDR program being implemented by the UNMIL. The efforts of the mission proved to be extremely successful as over 21,000 women participated in DDR, as opposed to the earlier predictions of only 2100.

The DPKO has highlighted the importance of women in every aspect of the DDR process, from preliminary planning all the way up to and including the reintegration phase. To facilitate the practical implementation of its recommendations, the department has collaborated with various UN agencies; with UNIFEM to revise DDR manuals; with UNDP to systematically include more women in weapons collections; with UNICEF to reach out to younger female soldiers; and with the UN Population Fund (UNFPA) to provide health services to women, including psychological help to female victims of conflict and SEA trauma.

Irrespective of the many resolutions and recommendations calling for more inclusive DDR programs, there remain certain shortcomings in on-the-ground implementation. Firstly, there is the continuing need for more female peacekeepers to engage with female ex-combatants and local women. Increasing female personnel will facilitate increased

engagement with portions of local communities which are otherwise marginalized in the DDR process. To this end, collaboration with local women and women's organizations is needed to ensure that their needs are brought more comprehensively to the table — not only for the sake of gender sensitivity but also because this will ensure a more exhaustive disarmament effort. It is important to note that traditional, male oriented DDR programs rarely result in the thorough recovery of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) — a feat which can only be conclusively achieved through coordination and collaboration with women on the ground. SALW destruction tends to be an almost exclusively government controlled activity, but can be made more effective through greater gender inclusive civil society engagement. In addition to this, UNIFEM recommendations highlight the DPKO's poor track record in weapons of cash exchange, which makes local populations distrustful and hinders total disarmament as weapons often remain in circulation. In addressing the demobilization phase, a serious drawback remains the disorganization of assembly and cantonment sites which often do not consider the separate needs of women. It is crucial for such discrepancies to be corrected, for instance through separate sites for women and girls. Moreover, despite the DPKO's recommendations, reintegration packages are rarely gender inclusive. The DPKO's resource package specifically highlights the need to consider the varying needs of men and women, and a comprehensive analysis of societal attitudes on the ground of women having more access to resources. In practice however, this is not implemented and packages remain short sighted and inconclusive.

Chapter 2

SEXUAL EXPLOITATION AND ABUSE IN UN PEACEKEEPING MISSIONS

SEXUAL EXPLOITATION AND ABUSE IN UN PEACEKEEPING MISSIONS

The international mandate for peacekeeping includes peace security and upholding the rule of law; protecting women and children from gender violence, sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) is an integral part of the UN Department of Peacekeeping Organizations' (UNDPKO) peacekeeping agenda. At the turn of the millennium, the department's efforts were scarred by revelations of serious crimes of sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA), as allegations surfaced of rape, forced prostitution, survival sex and pedophilia by UN peacekeepers in Bosnia Herzegovina, Macedonia, Kosovo, Cambodia, Timor-Leste, West Africa, the DRC, Liberia and Eretria. One of the most damning revelations to have surfaced came in late 2001, when the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and Save the Children's collaborative report alleged that SEA was rampant in internally displaced camps of Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone by UN humanitarian aid and peacekeeping workers. Such allegations were not the first of their kind; however, they were taken up publicly by the United Nations Secretary General (UNSG). Investigations revealed that these reported incidents were only just the tip of the iceberg and in the years since the initial accusations, SEA has, in many ways, come to be known as the UN's weak underbelly. It highlights an inability on the part of the DPKO to ensure discipline and compliance with the ethical and moral standards expected of peacekeepers.

In 2003, the UNSG declared the Zero Tolerance Policy, according to which, any kind of sexual activity with individuals below the age of 18, specifically between the UN peacemakers and the people of the host country[42] was prohibited. However, the violations continued as the media reported SEA of the women and girls of the Democratic Republic of the Congo in the UN Mission in 2004. The UN's multidimensional peacekeeping agenda looked up to recognize and respond to the vulnerabilities of post-conflict societies. However, these criminal transgressions were violating them further. The abhorrent behavior of some peacekeepers was casting doubts on the efficacy of UN peacekeeping capabilities and tarnishing its reputation. In the years since the initial accusations, SEA has in many ways come to be known as the UN's weak underbelly; its inability to ensure discipline and compliance with the ethical and moral standards expected of peacekeepers has been the subject of much public debate.

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[42] Preventing Sexual Exploitation and Abuse. (October 9, 2003). *Secretary-General's Bulletin: Special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse* (Report no. ST/SGB/2003/13). Retrieved 25 September, 2020, from https://undocs.org/ST/SGB/2003/13

Causes of SEA

It is crucial to fully understand the main causes driving increased incidents of SEA[43] in peacekeeping missions to develop successful resolution policies to reduce these crimes. These can be divided into two broad categories: UN peacekeeper's cultural attitudes and perceptions, and the local community environments of the host country.

Cultural Perceptions of Gender and Sexuality

At the outset, when analyzing the cultural perceptions which result in incidents of SEA in the DPKO's peacekeeping missions, it is crucial to first look at the in-mission militarized masculinity warrior culture which has been prevalent in the security sector since time-immemorial. The concept of military masculinities does represent a useful sensitizing category, however gender power and sexuality is better understood whilst capturing the notion of oppressive social masculinities.[44] This exploitative masculinity is shaped by socioeconomic structure and a culture of impunity and privilege. It offers an insightful edge to the analysis of male peacekeeping activities which result in SEA misconduct. The notion of the inferior and weaker female is a commonly held cultural belief, which contributes to the creation of military masculine identities. A concept which has an even larger bearing on this identity is the inter sectionalism of gender with politics and power shaped by an unequal socioeconomic context. Given how deeply rooted such oppressive cultural understandings tend to be, an unfortunate reality remains that despite training, it is not easy to facilitate the change from a soldier trained for war fighting into a mindful individual working non-violently with cultural sensitivities even if in a militarized environment. It must be noted however that even though there is indeed doubt as to whether effective training can overrule deeply rooted cultural behaviors and attitudes, in many cases, this is not even given a fair try. Lack of effective pre-deployment training by TCCs only encourages peacekeepers to act upon problematic and dangerous cultural perceptions of gender and sexuality. TCC units often comprised of retired and piecemeal assembled units with structure of pay, which necessitated the expectation of 'fun' on the side. If the unit's identity is considered more masculine and the tour of duty longer in length, SEA often becomes a large problem.

Furthermore, units with a history of misconduct, combined with a culture of absence of civilian reporting of incidents fueled criminal sexual activity on the ground. In the absence of

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[43] Lutz C., Gutmann M., and Brown K. (October 2009). *Conduct & Discipline in UN Peacekeeping operations*: *Culture, Political Economy and Gender*. Watson Institute for International Studies.

[44] Higate, P. (July 2007). Peacekeepers, Masculinities, and Sexual Exploitation. *Men and Masculinities*, *10*(1), 99-119. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1097184X06291896

comprehensive and effective training, exploitative attitudes were reinforced, there was a clear reluctance on the part of these troops to accept that increased SEA was leading to the direct prostitution of society where they were the main drivers of the demand for such prostitution. It follows therefore that the struggle to operate with compassion, empathy and gender-sensitivity in post-conflict environments becomes somewhat inevitable. The use of force entails gaining power and control over an enemy often leads to an 'anything goes' attitude within peacemakers, which begin to operate under the paradigm of a conquering army.

Under such conditions, female peacekeepers have identified three differing attitudes which do not augur well for the effective handling of SEA misconduct. Firstly, there is the sense of relief on account of male peacekeepers having regular sexual outlets within local communities, which are ignored to ensure relatively controlled behavior with their in-mission female co-workers, secondly there are instances of competing paid sexual encounters which male peacekeepers boast of with one another; and thirdly, there is the reluctance by female peacekeepers to report on the crimes of their male colleagues in order to gain acceptance within the mission.

A recurring obstacle to the systematic and effective prosecution of SEA cases is the consensual nature of some relations between male peacekeepers and local prostitutes or local women. It is vital to note that irrespective of how consensual these paid or unpaid relations may be, they nevertheless reflect sexual relations with a vulnerable community, highlighting unequal power dynamics. A common excuse is that local women pursue peacekeepers and actively seek them out as partners. Even so, the power dynamics remain unequal as these women require money, food or protection from these peacekeepers. Whilst there may be consent therefore, such relations are still based on exploiting the biological needs of the peacekeepers in return for privileges or material benefit. Such relations cannot therefore be seen as a woman acting upon her sense of agency and control over her body, because it is still an act deeply rooted in an unequal distribution of power and capitalizing on the vulnerabilities that UN peacekeepers are deployed to protect.

This occurrence coupled with the shallow perception that male human nature is unchangeable has reinforced the militarized masculinity which permeates some peacekeeping missions. The notion that while male peacekeepers could be warned with financial and disciplinary admonition, but that this would not change their deep rooted exploitative masculinity was perpetuated from even the very top leadership of peacekeeping missions. Further, because these missions are considered temporary; a concept of the 'privilege of temporality' emerged which preyed on the fact that soft prosecution of misconduct is difficult. As such mission leadership saw its responsibility as merely containing this so called natural tendency; one where rape and SEA were seen as simply an inevitability of sexual desires; where military commanders would often go to extreme lengths to thwart investigations into incidents of SEA to prevent any reputational backlash. This commander climate covered up problematic attitudes, harassed whistleblowers, and encourage a climate

of impunity. Thus a subculture developed whereby peacekeepers were considered unaccountable for their criminal sexual activities in host countries. This hyper masculine culture encouraged SEA through a tradition of silence.

In addition to this, another manner in which cultural perceptions perpetuate incidents of SEA is through the perennial fear of offending TCCs and host states through the discussion of cultural differences. Cultural beliefs on gender and sex are diverse within peacekeeping missions; crucial differences arise around different understandings of the legality of prostitution, the age of consent and the age of marriageability. The very purpose of the CDU training was to create an even playing field where cultural conceptions of sexuality faded to the back and UN approved universal standards prevailed. The UN has however, consistently shown itself to be reluctant to engage too deeply into individual members' cultural perceptions; a reluctance which ultimately strips it as a considerable portion of its agency in addressing harmful culturally condoned behavior.

Local Community Environments

The second prominent cause fueling SEA in peacekeeping missions is the local environment which allowed such activity to take root and develop. The societal and cultural backdrop of peacekeeping missions is crucial because only a thorough understanding of this operational environment and its vulnerabilities can lead to policies for the reduction incidents of SEA. Local poverty, stigma, fear of foreign soldiers seen as violent invaders, ignorance, and a sense of powerlessness prevails in many post-conflict societies. A lack of awareness regarding individuals' rights and mission, and norms and codes of conduct exacerbates the sense of hopelessness felt on the part of the local population; it casts a shade of doubt across, whether or not their complaints would be seriously considered and investigated. Language barriers often led to miscommunication, and also further bred mistrust between locals and peacekeeping personnel, increasing incidents of SEA. The erosion of networks of women's organizations in host countries during the conflict only made such crimes more pervasive. All this heightened vulnerability on the ground cultivated attitudes of subjugation within women, and acts of forcible dominance within male peacekeepers.

UN Response

The initial and immediate UN response to the revelation of these crimes was a flurry of resolutions, bulletins, and the commissioning and acknowledgement of numerous reports. For instance, General Assembly Resolution 57/306 called on the UN Secretary General to take stringent measures to prevent SEA in humanitarian and peacekeeping operations; April 2001 saw the launch of the Office of the Internal Oversight Services (OIOS); the UN Secretary

General promulgated detailed rules prohibiting sexual exploitation for all staff irrespective of the type of appointment.

Broadly speaking, there were three elements of the UN Response. Firstly, there was the 2002 UNSG Bulletin which contained special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and abuse. Secondly, there was the UNSG commissioned Zeid Report. And thirdly, the November 2005 launch of the Conduct and Discipline Units (CDU), focusing on training, monitoring and enforcement. A Press Release of the UNSG Kofi Annan in November 2004 clearly identified the direction such responses UN was taking: "We cannot rest until we have rooted out all such practices… We must make sure that those involved are held fully accountable." All action was deeply rooted in the notion of accountability.

Legal Framework

In order to comprehensively understand its effectiveness, or lack thereof, it is crucial to understand the legal framework within which the UN was taking action to address the incidents of SEA in peacekeeping operations. Very early on, the OIOS investigation of May 2004 proved to be inadequate in tackling the problem, as it became clear that the UN had no legal authority to prosecute. At best, it could repatriate offenders without ensuring real justice through prosecution.

To this end, May 2005 saw the dismissal of 152 peacekeepers. Similarly, based on data from investigations from January 2004 till December 2005, 16 civilians and 122 military personnel were repatriated, including 6 commanders. UN Peacekeeping functioned as a subsidiary organ of the UN, and fell under Article 105 of the UN Charter – the UN Convention on the Principles and Immunities of the UN 1946. A further legal limitation was that the UN was not a cohesive legal entity, rather it comprised of five different groups of personnel, each with diverse legal rules as follows: the national military contingents, civilian police, civilian staff, UN Volunteers, and military observers. As such, the UNSG bulletin prohibiting SEA did not apply to all. There was therefore, an urgent and imperative need to bind it to the rule of law. To this end, there were numerous resolutions of the UNSC and GA, Status of Force and Mission Agreements between the UN and host states, agreements by exchange of letters, and forced regulations issued by the UNSG[45].

Women were protected by Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) 1979 and the 2000 United Nations Security Council (UNSC) Resolution 1325; under the Women Peace and Security measures, women were to be

[45] Murphy, R. (December 2006). An Assessment of UN Efforts to Address Sexual Misconduct by Peacekeeping Personnel. *International Peacekeeping*, *13*(4), 531-546. https://doi.org/10.1080/13533310600988820

protected from gender based violence. Furthermore, the 1990 Convention on Rights of the Child gave special protection to children subjected to SEA, and the UNSG Bulletin on special measures prohibited sex with persons under the age of 18. Moreover, the Code of Personal Conduct for Blue Helmets defined sexual exploitation as any actual or attempted abuse of a position of vulnerability. The UNSG Bulletin on Observance by UN forces of humanitarian law, Section 7, sets the treatment of civilians hors de combat as prohibiting acts of abuse and exploitation. Section 7.3 and 7.4 protected women and children from attack and indecent assault.

Zeid Report[46]

Besides the formation and implementation of such strong policies regarding SEA, certain challenges can hurdle their effectiveness. Firstly, it is hard for the victims to come forth and report the crime due to various reasons. For instance, they may face stigmatization from their respective families and communities when it comes to sexual abuse. Similarly, they may also refrain from reporting due to the threats from the criminals who also happen to own firearms and weapons, and can cause potential harm to them and their families.

Secondly, peacekeepers of the UN staff come from various backgrounds and hail from different cultures, inculcated with different values. This may cause a problem as the age of marriageability and consent may vary. In some troop contributing countries (TCCs), it is below the age of 18. Hence, it is important to train them accordingly before sending them on the field for conducting outreach activities.

Thirdly, these peacekeeping troops are under the legal influence of their respective TCCs. Since UN Model Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) has a limited authority over them legally, they cannot be prosecuted for their crimes in the host country. It is for the TCCs to carry out the required investigation and proceedings, and take necessary actions accordingly.

In order to deal with these challenges, and following the very public blowback faced by the UN on account of allegations of SEA misconduct, the UNSG Kofi Annan commissioned a report under the leadership of the Jordanian Prince Zeid, to address and handle the precarious position the organization was suddenly found in, since he himself was a former civilian peacekeeper, as well as the UN ambassador of one of the significant most troop contributors. The report was released in 2005, and was an important step towards combatting SEA. It broke down recommendations into four key categories: rules on

[46] United Nations General Assembly. (2005, 24 March). *Letter dated 24 March 2005 from the Secretary General to the President of the General Assembly: A Comprehensive Strategy to eliminate future sexual exploitation and abuse in UN peacekeeping operations* (Report No. A/59/710).

standards of conduct, reformation of the investigative process, strengthening of the organizational, managerial and command responsibilities, and instituting the individual disciplinary, financial and criminal accountability. While the recommendations were indeed comprehensive in their scope and reach, they proved quite difficult to be implemented on the ground.

The foremost difficulty faced in outlining standardized rules of conduct, was that peacekeeping personnel were divided into many categories, worked in different environments around the globe, spoke different languages, and each was governed by a different set of rules. The responsibility of troop's conduct and discipline ultimately fell on the troop contributing countries (TCCs), causing enforcement and accountability problems for the UNDPKO. To this end, the Zeid Report identified this as a fundamental cause of the peacekeepers' violations of expected conduct, and recommended that the General Assembly should ensure and enforce the application of specific rules set out in the UNSG bulletin on Special Measures for Protection from SEA on all categories of UN peacekeeping teams, including national contingents, civilian police, military observers, UN Volunteers, consultants, and contractors. It was further recommended that the standards in the 'Ten Rules: The Code of Conduct for Blue Helmets' and 'We are UN Peacekeepers' should be included in every MOU signed with TCCs, and should be bound with national military contingents. To ensure these rules were easily accessible to multicultural peacekeeping groups, the report also highlighted the need for translations to be made publicly available and distributed.

For investigative purposes, the Zeid Report emphasized the need for specialized SEA experts. It recommended the creation of a permanent professional investigative mechanism to ensure a routine, comprehensive, and standardized investigative process. To this end, it recognized the need to include experts in military law and prosecutors from individual TCCs in the investigative process to ensure that the national laws are abided by. Although this was indeed a wise recommendation, it was difficult to ensure its effective implementation, because it necessitated willingness on the part of TCCs to cooperate and provide the said experts, once again highlighting the pervasive principal agent problem faced by the UN. The report further went on to demand that MOUs signed between TCCs and the UN should require information sharing with the UNSG to ensure that national contingents were restrained by certain checks and balances. Moreover, it recommended the execution of on-site court martial, where necessary, to ensure the facilitation of access, and stopped witness and investigative evidence. The report specifically noted that in cases where national legislatures did not permit such measures, it was imperative that these were to be rectified to ensure compliance. Once again, while the report's call for transparency in the SEA investigative process was well-informed and indeed much needed, its implementation proved problematic because it relied too heavily on TCC compliance, which the UNDPKO had no practical control over.

To overcome the issue of organizational, managerial and command accountability, the Zeid Report laid out detailed recommendations to fill the pervasive gap. In order to address and

correct the lack of organizational accountability, the report suggested extensive training and effective outreach programs for local populations, efficient and comprehensive data collection systems to facilitate investigative efficacy, permanent and full time positions at the UN headquarters to coordinate action, and the thorough provision of at least basic assistance to alleged SEA victims. To ensure managerial and command accountability, the report recommended the inclusion of measures to eliminate SEA, as specific performance goals for managers and commanders. This was suggested to address the managerial tendency of overlooking or making excuses for SEA misconduct. It was common for such incidents to be downplayed in accordance with the notion of 'boys will be boys' and on account of the militarized masculinity which permeates the security sector. Given such attitudes and tendencies, leadership commitment to take strict and timely action against SEA incidents was considered crucial.

Furthermore, the report honed in on the role of the individual in addressing and preventing SEA misconduct. It recommended that those who investigated abuse were to be rewarded, while others who overlooked it were to be removed from service. The UNGA was required to define the acts of SEA as a serious breach of staff regulations to ensure that member states did not tolerate such incidents in any capacity. Furthermore, as per the report, the SG was to introduce expedited procedures, such as immediate suspension without pay, to increase the impact of punishment and act as a deterrent. TCCs were also required to pass investigations onto their national authorities for prosecution with routine reporting to the UNSC. Peacekeeping personnel involved in incidents of SEA were to be held financially accountable. Responsibility for any and all harm caused by such incidents was to be paid for by those responsible; for instance, the Zeid Report recommended that the UNGA authorization of DNA and paternity tests be made essential to fulfil child support obligations following incidents of SEA.

In guaranteeing criminal accountability, Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) signed with TCCs had to ensure that the local laws of the host country were respected at all stages of peacekeeping missions. In return for the immunity granted by host countries, the report suggested that TCCs exercise criminal jurisdiction under the Status of Forces Agreement. It was crucial that the privileges and immunities of UN officials were not exploited and used to the detriment of the local communities; incidents of SEA were never to be hidden under the guise of these privileges. In practice however, there remained the problem that the organization of some peacekeeping missions did not include judicial systems to ensure the implementation of these recommendations. Furthermore, the Zeid report also recommended that the UNSG should establish a group of experts to collaborate and advise on the possible drafting of international instruments ensuring that UN personnel could indeed be subject to criminal prosecutions. This suggestion was problematic on many accounts, not least that the development of an international convention could give the illusion of protection while still possessing loopholes in practice. Furthermore, the legal consequences for an international organization were never categorically addressed by the International Court of Justice (ICJ). If the UN were to have a legal personality, that would

entail certain obligations as well. As the UN is not a state, it is not party to the Geneva Convention, and consequently does not possess the power to discharge obligations of the convention. At the same time, it was also understood that international forces had to act under the auspices of the UN in accordance with the principles and spirit of relevant laws.

Conduct and Discipline Units

Conduct and Discipline Units (CDUs) were established to investigate incidents of SEA by collecting data, and to ensure effective communication of UN policy and codes of conduct to in-mission peacekeeping personnel and the local communities. They were to implement victim assistance programs specifically assigned by the UN on the ground, and perpetuate comprehensive knowledge of SEA to all — what it was, what forms it could take, and how to report it. To this end, CDUs also had to advertise complaint helplines for citizens of the host country. Furthermore, the CDU also communicated a zero-tolerance policy for prostitution and sex with minors. In addition to this, the task of mission induction training also fell to the CDUs, in which they were to ensure the inclusion of gender-sensitive and gender-mainstreamed guidelines to curtail incidents of sexual exploitation on the ground.

Reducing SEA

Recommendations to Implement the Zeid Report

In 2005, Refugee International conducted research investigating the ability of peacekeeping missions to effectively implement the Zeid Report in light of the operational environments in host countries.[47] It focused on six key areas: mainstreaming gender into UN peacekeeping mission mandates; changing attitudes of UN senior leadership of peacekeeping operations; ensuring a focus on civilian personnel; improving training within UN missions; improving access to the UN complaint system; and increasing local women's empowerment. The underlying idea of the investigation was that whilst UN rhetoric did indeed display a commitment to the cause of gender mainstreaming in its peacekeeping missions, there was an urgent and imperative need for an effective shift from policy to practice in order to tackle the burgeoning problem of SEA on the ground.

While numerous gender resolutions were prevalent at the time, genuine gender mainstreaming had not yet permeated through the system. The research suggested the

[47] Martin, 2005.

separation of the positions of Gender Advisor and Sexual Exploitation Focal Point, as these were separate functions which ought to be given individual and nuanced attention. In case this was not possible, appropriate financial as well as human resources were to be deputed to the same position. Further, all these advisory positions were made a matter for priority and afforded adequate budgets. To this end, member states were to be asked for more resources specifically for the purpose of gender mainstreaming; in addition to financial support, member states were to be encouraged to nominate more female candidates for senior managerial positions to tilt the attitudinal balance at the top towards sensitivity to SEA, as well as to recruit more women in their militaries and nominate more for combat roles in peacekeeping missions. Similarly, contractors were to be encouraged to provide more local women for police forces. Along with these potential recommendations, the UN was advised to deploy senior personnel such as Code of Conduct officers, Senior Gender Advisors, and investigators in this regard in the very beginning stages of UN peacekeeping missions to help tackle SEA at practical grounds.

Changing attitudes at the top necessitates strict accountability measures; those not fulfilling performance goals (which should include the elimination of SEA) were to be dismissed on account of this failure. The appointment of a gender watchdog to monitor actual implementation on the ground was also recommended.

In addition, another important aspect to be taken into account was to focus on civilian personnel. Similar measures to the above mentioned were to be implemented throughout the mission by suggesting the inclusion of SEA as a serious form of misconduct under Staff Regulations. The research also highlighted the perennial problem of loopholes in UN policy interpretation which often perpetuated SEA, and suggested the hiring of a group of experts to curtail such ambiguity.

The research also made multiple recommendations to ensure training efficacy in accordance with the Zeid Report. It suggested that UN universal mandate like gender mainstreaming and human rights enforcements be made mandatory for all civilian and military peacekeeping personnel.

Training was to be carried out by seasoned experts and instructors, and was to include regular training feedback to ensure peacekeepers genuinely internalized crucial concepts and the methods of their implementation. Furthermore, UN regional peacekeeping institutes were expected to incorporate UN curriculum and support TCCs in the training of the national contingents, with special attention paid to the issue of SEA, while also being funded by donor agencies. TCC militaries needed to work with national women's groups to collaborate on relevant training materials in accordance with their own culture and language requirement. The Department of Peacekeeping Operations was required to run regular evaluations so as to monitor the effectiveness of the trainings carried out by the peacekeeping department. To maintain the relevance and credibility of the training, military commanders and civilian personnel supervisors were also recommended to keep a regular check while stressing on

the importance of sexual abuse and exploitation as the main theme of the training.

To improve access to the UN complaint system, public information directors were to design programs in conjunction with local groups to educate local communities on SEA complaint systems. These same public information programs were to share any SEA investigative findings with UN missions on the ground. It was crucial that throughout this process, all in the reporting chain of investigation must practice gender sensitivity. Feedback to victims of their complaints was emphasized to ensure transparency. For the same reason, any and all feedback from TCCs on the process and results of their prosecution was to be charged and ultimately communicated back to the complainants. Moreover, the UN was expected to strengthen safety mechanisms for whistleblowers by imposing strict tenets for confidentiality. Furthermore, a relevant stakeholder individual was to be deputed by the UN for surveillance of trafficking in any or all UN peacekeeping projects.

Women from the local communities needed to be empowered through the introduction of micro-credit schemes and similar income-generation projects in the post-conflict countries, specifically designed and targeting women. The Demobilization, Disarmament, and Reintegration program's designers needed to focus on the needs of former female warriors. Above all, donor agencies were required to ensure that the perspective and theme of gender was being highlighted in every program being implemented in post-conflict countries, and encourage women to actively appear in social, economic, and political events.

Deterrence to Prevent SEA

The concept of deterrence hinges on the certainty of punishment after thorough investigation, to explain the reduction in SEA. A quick, certain and proportionate punishment is meant to ensure that people do not commit SEA crimes, as the perceived effort and risk to commit the crime increases, and the perceived benefits fall. When the potential risks are laid out — for instance, being dismissed of duty — one will naturally carefully evaluate this risk before committing an act of SEA.

The concept of deterrence theory assumes that the criminals conduct a logical and reasonable cost-benefit analysis before committing to a crime. The certainty of credible punishment is the factor that constitutes the cost side of this analysis, whereas deterrence aims to "minimize the perceived benefits and increase the perceived risks". This approach — increasing the cost of a crime— is often visible in the UN peacekeeping operations. While making a signed agreement with a member state, the UN halts its right to penalize a soldier on committing crime. Rather, it opts for the greatest punishment of all—sending the soldier back home.[48]

[48]Neudorfer, K. (November 2014). Reducing Sexual Exploitation and Abuse: Does Deterrence Work to Prevent SEAs in UN Peacekeeping Missions? *International Peacekeeping*, *21*(5), 623-641. https://doi.org/10.1080/13533312.2014.976996

For some peacekeepers who rely on the extra funds earned from a foreign post, being sent home will be a relatively greater risk as compared to those who do not have the same financial needs. In other cases, where there is a culturally rooted element of shame and the guarantee of national prosecution, deterrence will also be greater. It follows therefore, that in countries with cultures of impunity and the absence of adequate (or any) punishment for SEA crimes committed on the home front, the concept of deterrence will not hold true. In environments where whistleblowers are not protected, where there is a suppression of SEA evidence facilitated by a subculture of extreme loyalty, and where culprits rely on their boy's network to get away with such crimes, deterrence again, will not work, and SEA rates will be proportionally higher.

Zero Tolerance

Acts of SEA tend to cause society's indignation more than most other crimes; it is more visibly and physiologically abhorrent and has disastrous effects on the UN's reputation as an upholder of justice. This is why, from the time of the very first public allegations of SEA in peacekeeping missions, the UN has consistently promulgated a zero tolerance policy towards such criminal acts.[49] Section 1 of the 2003 UNSG Bulletin defines SEA as 'abuse of a position of vulnerability for sexual purposes or the physical intrusion of a sexual nature under unequal conditions.' Prostitution and child prostitution was also included in this. Further, CEDAW 1979 also aimed to suppress the 'exploitation of prostitution of women,' but at the same time did not claim that prostitution was exploitative per se. Similarly, Article 34 of Convention on the Rights of the Child also proposes prevention not prohibition of child prostitution.

The zero-tolerance policy was issued by the UN Secretary-General in 2003, defining it as the "prohibition of all forms of transactional sex/sexual activities with persons below the age of 18 years, and a strong discouragement in maintaining sexual relationship between the UN Staff and the host population".[50]

It is important to note that the practical implementation of this zero tolerance policy has proven difficult because of the UN's lack of agency within TCCs. The bulletin does not prescribe criminal proceedings on SEA violations in TCCs and host states; while the rule of law is a priority for the DPKO, not all acts in the bulletin are crimes in these countries. Moreover, the age of consent is a shifting target in different peacekeeping missions, and leads to the exploitation of a number of loopholes. To fix this problem, the age of consent must be standardized in the legislation and extended to TCCs as well. This policy was only

[49]Kanetake, M. (April 2010). Whose zero tolerance counts? Reassessing a zero tolerance policy against sexual exploitation and abuse by UN peacekeepers. *International peacekeeping*, *17*(2), 200-214. https://doi.org/10.1080/13533311003625092
[50]Preventing Sexual Exploitation and Abuse, 2003.

launched in African Union Peacekeeping in 2013, which has recently begun to establish such policies and procedures.[51]

As exemplified by the Zeid Report, the UN must implement to the best of its commanding authority to translate the zero-tolerance policy to actions. The universality of UN codes of conduct constitutes the preliminary line to implement this policy. It can be enforced in two ways for the effective implementation of a zero tolerance policy towards SEA. Firstly, individual agreements with TCCs, in the form of model MOUs between the UN and national contingents, must be revised; the UN attempted to implement this in light of the Zeid Report. Unlike TCC troops, UN police and military personnel are appointed individually by the UN; they sign undertakings in which they are bound by the 'Ten Rules' and 'We Are the UN Peacekeepers', both of which have been revised to include provisions from the Special Bulletin. Similar revisions have been made in the General Condition for consultants and individual contractors. Another more comprehensive and less time consuming methods for the inclusion of all clauses of the Special Bulletin is the UNSG's revised bulletin or mission directives issued by the UNSG's Special Representative and Force commanders. These directives are regularly promulgated by the in-mission senior leadership to ensure good conduct. To date, these have not been challenged by any TCC.

The second approach to implement the UN's zero tolerance policy is the improvement of investigative capacities, of which the formation of the CDU and OIOS are the primary reform initiatives. It is important to note however, that the revised model of MOUs limits the investigatory role of the OIOS in relation to TCCs. Under the MOU, the TCC undertakes responsibility for the investigation; to this end, the field investigation is led by the National Investigations Officer of the TCC. The UN's role remains fairly modest, and is restricted to the provision of administrative and logistical support. The UN's role goes insofar as either 'initiating a preliminary fact finding inquiry until the TCC starts its own investigation,' or beginning an administrative investigation when the TCC fails to notify within a period of ten days and is thereby considered unwilling to conduct the investigative process.

The UN does however, retain disciplinary authority over its own staff and can terminate such contracts—as described to be the third step to implement zero-tolerance policy. Even so, the DPKO's directive for disciplinary matters involving civilian police officers and military observers makes no provision for staff dismissal — rather, it repatriates, as these contingents can be deployed back into their home countries. Therefore, even the UN's disciplinary capabilities remain inadequate. When member states are entrusted with the dispensary process, a huge drawback is that the OIOS cannot conduct a parallel

[51]Stern, J. (February 2015). *Reducing Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in UN Peacekeeping: Ten Years after the Zeid Report*. Civilians in Conflict (Policy Brief No.1). Stimson Center. https://www.stimson.org/wp-content/files/file-attachments/Policy-Brief-Sexual-Abuse-Feb-2015-WEB_0.pdf

investigation; this cultivates immense dependence on the investigative capabilities of TCCs. TCCs can also easily fail to notify the UNSG of any punitive measures undertaken, thereby depriving the UN any formal assessment. The inability to counter-check the TCC investigative process greatly reduces the operational effectiveness of the zero tolerance policy. The host state is often equally limited in its jurisdiction for two reasons: firstly, that many post-conflict societies do not have clear and effective judicial process in place; and secondly, they cannot circumvent the immunities enjoyed by most UN contingents. The host state may however, according to the model SOFA, launch proceedings after the UN conducts any necessary supplemental inquiry and agree upon the initiation of such proceedings; however, when host states demonstrate a non-functional judicial system, TCC commitment to zero tolerance becomes more urgent.

Zero tolerance by victims remains one of the strongest measures in tackling SEA, because if individuals pursue investigations and bring misconduct in the public eye, it produces the strongest possibility of adequate punishment. To this end, the UNGA's May 2008 comprehensive strategy to assist victims can prove beneficial in garnering cooperation from these victims. Complainants are to receive medical care, legal services, psychological and social assistance and immediate material benefits such as housing and food; however, this only constitutes the fulfilment of the victims' immediate needs, and in no way enforces punishment on the culprits.

Increased Female Participation

Increasing the number of women in peacekeeping has long been considered an effective avenue to reduce and prevent incidents of misconduct.[52] The Windhoek Declaration and the Namibia Plan of Action both demanded gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping operations, and argued that the discipline of male peacekeepers improves when women work with them; further, it was also stated that these female peacekeepers often served as role models to local women. Consequently, as allegations of SEA became increasingly common, so too did calls for increased female participation in peacekeeping operations.

Women, peace and security play a crucial part in the international umbrella of peacekeeping. The term peacekeeping in terms of women may be considered multidimensional. The inclusion of women in peacekeeping ensures more empowerment of women, less violence against the marginalized female communities, more security for the females that is long lasting. Women of today are serving in front lines of conflict resolutions, they have the opportunities to expand and play a key role in peace keeping by fighting for it in their own respective ways. History is saturated with events that have affected women adversely and

[52]Simić, O. (2010). Does the Presence of Women Really Matter? Towards Combating Male Sexual Violence in Peacekeeping Operations. *International Peacekeeping*, *17*:2, 188-199. DOI: 10.1080/13533311003625084

especially girls. Women are still believed to be under portrayed to solve or prevent a conflict; they are subjected to under influence the peace building process. A bigger picture which focuses on the immense efforts of women to resolve and prevent conflict and the diverse roles they play for the war in support of peace, against terrorism, and extremist attitudes in various forms is still not highlighted because of the dominant nature of the patriarchy culture submerged in the world. The studies have demonstrated that the participation of women can be disregarded, especially when a great proportion of population to be dealt with belongs to the same gender. There is a wide array of areas where women participation must be inculcated; the most important may be the leadership position, as women are discouraged to take a leadership role in various societies. There is a direct relation between the efficiency in performance and the role of women in peace keeping.[53]

The essentialisation of certain female characteristics — for instance being more nurturing and peaceful, contributed heavily to the perception that their inclusion in missions would prevent SEA crimes. Not only is their presence aimed at improving access to and trust within local women, thereby increasing reporting and punishment of misconduct, it is also geared towards making male peacekeepers more mindful, reflective and responsible. This supports a typical modern binary structure where gender is equated with women, and women are differentiated from men. Given such perceptions of the female presence, women peacekeepers carry a threefold burden: supporting local women in reporting SEA, preventing violent disputes amongst men and encouraging better behavior in the male colleagues. It is interesting to note here, that male peacekeepers were seen to be more mindful in the presence of women from their own countries and cultures as opposed to those from other parts of the world; they tended to act in a more 'civilized' manner when they were in the midst of female peacekeepers from similar backgrounds. This reduced their tendency to indulge in abhorrent behavior on the basis of race and inferiority. Such a narrative is problematic, as it views women peacekeepers as merely pacifying the innate tendencies of their male counterparts, as opposed to genuinely internalizing the mandate of gender mainstreaming within the UN.

Increased female inclusion in peacekeeping operations is also beneficial because they tend to be more effective in handling investigations of SEA cases. Their commitment to upholding respect for women's rights coupled with the increased access they provide to local women makes for a more thorough investigative process. However, evidence does not show that women necessarily make better whistleblowers. Often in an effort to ensure job security and to avoid isolation from their peers, they too turn a blind eye to incidents of SEA. There have been instances where such behavior of female peacekeepers has raised eyebrows across the board, as to the true efficacy of their involvement on the ground.

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[53]Pulliam J. (2020, 29 May). Women in Peacekeeping: A Key to Peace – and a U.S. Priority. Dip note: military and security. https://www.state.gov/women-in-peacekeeping-a-key-to-peace-%CC%B6-and-a-u-s-priority/#:~:text=This%20year's%20theme%2C%20%E2%80%9CWomen%20in,as%20peace%20efforts%20are%20more

There is no doubt that an increase in the number of female peacekeepers hold immense potential in curtailing incidents of SEA; however, it must be said that the UN lacks the authority to demand more women from TCCs, and to insist that the women provided are not deployed in a medical, educational or legal capacity as opposed to combat roles. These decisions are entirely at the mercy of TCC preferences and priorities, depending on what female personnel they can redirect away from their own national militaries. They often prefer deploying women in military contingents in peacekeeping operations which are not extremely dangerous, even though these missions often require the most gender-mainstreaming to counter violent SEA on the ground.

United Nation's peace and security is defined by the foundations of peacekeeping; the women peacekeepers are given significant roles in this regard. The contribution of women in the UN's peacekeeping has increased over the past years and is the maximum in terms of contribution. Currently women are serving in all sectors of life including military, police etc. The Security Council resolution 1325 on "Women, Peace and Security" has been staying true to the provision of equal rights to women both in the political circle and in other spheres of life.

Women on the forefront have been involved in peacekeeping for decades. Women are undoubtedly included in all sorts of peacekeeping activities. Women have been part of the UN civilian peacekeeping operations for a couple of decades now. Women are able to perform every sort of function in the peacekeeping missions. Not only are they involved in operational activities but they are in in frontline for the promotion and protection of human rights, they play good influencers in the reconciliation and political processes. As civilian peacekeeper they serve as mechanics, pilots, public information officers who deploy and help promote the mission of UN to garner more peace. Women as military personnel serve in the form of military officials, troops, staff officers and soldiers. From carrying out patrolling duties to providing medical facilities, flying airplanes, and most importantly engaging with the local population are some of the highlighted activities that women perform as part of peacekeeping. They provide a safe area for the successful operation of the peacekeeping activities. Women play a key role in promoting the rule of law, smooth process of justice, administrational operations, institution building, and supporting women especially girls through proper law enforcement channels.[54]

Furthermore, the simple inclusion of women as a mean to overturn natural tendencies is in many ways too simplistic an expectation. Given TCC reluctance to create effective deterrents and exercise more punitive action, increased women in peacekeeping is only a short term solution to the issue of SEA. This, coupled with the continued tolerance of SEA by male

[54]United Nations. (n.d.). *Women in Peacekeeping: A Key to Peace*. Retrieved from September, 2020, from https://www.un.org/en/exhibits/page/women-peacekeeping-key-peace

leadership at the top reinforce gender hierarchies, which allow male peacekeepers to not only get away with abhorrent crimes, but also feel entitled to engage in them. The 'boys will be boys' attitude is deeply internalized — not only by men but by women too, as they fear this might disrupt the status quo within the masculine space that is the security sector.

Peacekeeping Babies

Peacekeeping babies are an unintended and controversial legacy of many UN peacekeeping operations.[55] Peacekeeping babies are routinely viewed through the lens of SEA as opposed to that of consensual relationships; this conflates sexual abuse and consensual sexual relationships, and heightens the difficulty in creating comprehensive policy guidelines to tackle the problem. The risk of stigmatization of the mother and child only increases in the face of this ambiguity. Because the power dynamics between local women and peacekeepers is inherently unequal, the potentially consensual element of the relationship becomes altogether irrelevant. Some of the most shocking cases of SEA and peacekeeping babies emanated from ONUMOZ (Mozambique), UNTAC (Cambodia), UNMIBH (Bosnia), and UNMEE (Eritrea). UNDPKO presence in East Timor (2001) and Liberia further highlighted the urgency of this issue, with the abandonment of over 6600 peacekeeping babies. As a result, the UN drafted the Comprehensive Strategy for assistance to victims of SEA, including financial assistance for mothers. However, it must be said that the issue of peacekeeping babies had traditionally warned less international attention than trafficking, prostitution, pornography and SEA in general.

SEA has brought some severe consequences and among the top is the peacekeeping babies. Peacekeeping babies are biological products as a result of the relation between a peacekeeper father and a local mother in which the peacekeeper father is positioned at the moment. The child is not designated a status of a son or daughter, and hence does not receive any kind of financial support from the peacekeeper father, who evacuates the place when his mission is over. This particular situation has been under discussion for a good amount of time now, but sadly no solution has been reached until now, neither by UN nor by TCC, and the peacekeeping children are subjected to legal and practical problems owing to this unresolved problem. However, many proposals have been submitted to find a possible solution, but legal obstacles always are a barrier. In the legislative terms, the promptest reaction would be to sue the peacekeeper father and hold him accountable and responsible for the child and mother's protection and financial support. But this is nearly impossible in the normative legal framework; the private international law of action is expensive and not locally a suitable method to give the child its due right. Keeping in mind the fragile circumstances, the international community gets the responsibility to make efforts taking

[55]Simić, O. & O'Brien, M. (2014). 'Peacekeeper Babies': An Unintended Legacy of United Nations Peace Support Operations. *International Peacekeeping*, *21*:3, 345-363. DOI: 10.1080/13533312.2014.938581

into account the position of father, mother and United Nation (UN) on moral and legal grounds.[56]

Irrespective of UN policy however, the stigma attached to foreign babies remains deeply rooted in local communities and results in an unwillingness to accept them. There is therefore an urgent need for UN policy to better differentiate between what constitutes a consensual relationship as opposed to a sexual exploitative one, to more effectively handle the problem of stigmatization. The 2003 UNSG Bulletin for example, 'strongly discourages' sexual relations with 'beneficiaries of assistance.' The ambiguity of such language only exacerbates the problem because the entirety of the local population of host countries is considered the beneficiary of UN assistance; this leaves room for loopholes whereby some relationships can be considered as discouraging rather than categorically forbidden. A document entitled 'Guidelines on the Application of ST/SGB/2003/13', attempts to clarify this lacuna by stating that beneficiaries of assistance 'should be guided by and adjusted according to the particular mandate of the UN office'. This however, only reinforces the notion that there is no overarching prohibition of relations with beneficiaries of assistance, rather in accordance with the UNSG Bulletin; there is simply the demand for vigilance to ensure that such relations are not sexually exploitative. Moreover, definitions of SEA are to be decided on a case by case basis, in the absence of universal overarching definitions, it becomes much more difficult to differentiate between consensual and forced relationships. UN training modules also leave room for relations with local staff employed by the UN, once again, this leaves a room for the creation and exploitation of loopholes whereby local women are often conveniently categorized as UN hired staff, therefore concealing sexually abusive activities.

According to a research conducted in Haiti in the year 2019, the UN peacekeepers were found to be involved in sexual misconduct of vulnerable communities and left many women and girls pregnant. According to the research, during the stabilization mission carried by UN troops, 2,500 Haitians were surveyed and of which 265 people narrated their ugly incident of children fathered by UN personnel, as are a result of sexual abuse, consent or money in exchange of sex. The United Nations announced that it has received 116 allegations subjected to sexual exploitation of the vulnerable communities, which involve the peacekeepers deployed in Haiti. Previously, United Nations' efforts have already been stained by sexual misconduct allegations leading to serious trials. The United Nations' peacekeeping mission started in Haiti in 2004 after the elected president was overthrown for sexual misconduct and introducing cholera to Haiti.[57]

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[56]Villaverde, A. (2015, 15 December). Peacekeeping Babies. Nine Months to Be Born, Years to Be Recognized. *SSRN*. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2737984

[57]Saddler, M.B. (2019). U.N. peacekeepers fathered then abandoned, hundreds of children in Haiti, report says. Washington: The Washington Post. https://www.washingtonpost.com/world/2019/12/18/un-peacekeepers-fathered-then-abandoned-hundreds-children-haiti-report-says/

A pervasive gap remains between the adopted Comprehensive Strategy and the draft originally presented to the UNGA, the former comprising of 2 pages as opposed to the original 14 pages. It becomes clear that many of the clarifications now being sought were in fact originally included in preliminary drafts, therefore it would be helpful for original documentation to be reviewed and to include more rather than less of its provisions in the official adopted strategy on the ground. For instance, a point explaining that UN staff possesses 'a particular duty of care to the people they serve' has unfortunately been removed from the final strategy. Furthermore, whilst the draft included 'support for cases that are being pursued in the alleged perpetrators own country' and would include 'the authorization of deductions from the staff member's salary and emoluments', this too is not included in the final strategy. Similarly, clauses detailing with parents' obligations were also not seen as particularly appealing to TCCs, which did not wish to provide child support in a foreign country. Moving forward it is crucial for such gaps in official UN discourse to be addressed and corrected.

While there is no doubt that the Comprehensive Strategy is indeed an achievement for the UN as it addresses the issue of peacekeeping babies of the first time, there is still a need for the provision of detailed rules for its implementation by the focal point; the Victim Support Facilitators. Under new MOUs, TCCs are obligated to 'seek to facilitate paternity claims provided by the UN or host states. In this respect, the UN must ensure that all claims are accompanied by conclusive evidence such as DNA testing. This provision must be specifically included in TCC's MOUs, because without TCC support such claims cannot be adequately investigated. The 2009 report of the UNSG challenged the implementation of the Comprehensive Strategy as the 'provision of a safe and accessible complaints system', under reporting of SEA, cultural perceptions such as mistrust of local judicial systems, economic concerns, identification of and access to complainants, security and logistical considerations, and lack of designated funding or budget. Unfortunately, the specific issue of peacekeeping babies was not addressed here. While the UN may well be facilitating access of locals to other services, it urgently needs to facilitate the 'pursuit of paternity and child support claims for victims'. Further, another limitation of the Strategy is that it does not include children born of consent and legitimate marriages between peacekeepers and local women. Once again it becomes clear that in this respect too, the UN functions merely as a facilitator, with the TCCs remaining the primary party under obligation. Whilst the Hague Convention on the International Recovery of Child Support and other forms of family maintenance could be applied in cases of consensual peacekeeping babies, it is not an easy judicial route. There is therefore a pressing need for the UN to effectively and comprehensively bear responsibility for addressing the paternity support claims of children born to peacekeepers through consensual relationships.

HIV among Peacekeepers

A long accepted narrative of HIV in the sphere of peacekeeping is that the spread of HIV is a direct consequence of peacekeeping missions because peacekeepers are often from countries with extremely high rates of infection.[58] The UNSC met to discuss HIV and Security in 2001 to tackle the fear of HIV spreading through peacekeepers. Some host countries specifically request the exclusion of peacekeepers from countries with high HIV rates, which has only added to the perception that peacekeeping missions have high HIV rates upon deployment. A common estimation is that HIV prevalence in the armed forces is equal to country rates; however, research has proven this to be inaccurate. Peacekeepers are not likely to pose a significant public health threat to host populations because only very small proportions are infected; numbers are insignificant compared to the prevailing rates of infection in many host populations. Moreover, a helpful practice now employed by TCCs includes pre-deployment HIV testing, which significantly minimizes the chances of HIV spreading upon deployment.

The uniformed personnel are ranked at a high position among the populations that are most affected by sexually transmitted infections especially HIV. According to a research conducted to find out the rate of military personnel being vulnerable to HIV, it was found that they have 2 to 5 times more chances of contracting HIV than the local population and an additional disadvantage could be a conflict prone situation. However, on the other hand military personnel can play a pivotal role in decreasing the HIV prevalence across host countries, with proper knowledge, education and awareness strategies. Peacekeeping is a major pillar of the international security system and the increase in the number of HIV cases among peacekeepers is proving to be a great hurdle in the UN peacekeeping mission. One third of the UN peacekeeping officers are deployed in Africa which is home to 70% HIV positive population. In 1995, it was identified that UN peacekeeping mission may be disrupted by the threat of HIV spread through peacekeepers, which can be a source to infect the people or may get affected, leading to further spread. According to the Institute of Strategic Studies in South Africa, if the spread of HIV may not be stopped among peacekeepers then it is possible that the countries running on high prevalence rates of HIV may not be able to participate in the UN peacekeeping missions. This would be a serious drawback as the soldiers taking part in the peacekeeping mission hail from countries that have 5% of HIV spread, and they account for 37% of the total population of peacekeeping officers.[59]

The United Nation has taken certain steps to prevent the spread of HIV among the peacekeepers and from peacekeepers to the host countries and vice versa during UN's peacekeeping missions. Some of the actions include voluntary HIV testing of the troops going on peacekeeping missions, counseling regarding the use of contraceptives or precautions

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[58]Lowicki-Zucca, M., Karmin, S. & Dehne, K. (2009). HIV among Peacekeepers and its Likely Impact on Prevalence on Host Countries' HIV Epidemics. *International Peacekeeping*, *16*:3, 352-363. DOI: 10.1080/13533310903036400

[59]McLellan, I. (August 2003). *Peer Education Kit for Uniformed Services Implementing HIV/AIDS/STI peer education for uniformed services*. UNAIDS Series: Engaging uniformed services in the fight against AIDS. https://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/jc927-engaginguniservices-peered_en_0.pdf

and awareness training sessions etc. The implementation of these actions have been well recorded on practical grounds as the actions taken are thought be less culture specific and too technical to grasp.[60] The United Nations PKO is representative of diverse cultures which is representing almost 36 countries; amendments are necessary in order to assimilate the culture specific element in the actions taken to cease the HIV spread.[61]

What is still a cause for concern however, is the potential for HIV rates to increase on account of unsafe sex in host countries, given the presence of many sex industries geared to cater to peacekeepers' needs. To allay this fear, TCCs must develop standardized HIV training (pre deployment and in-mission) and prevention programs once deployed, as sensitization towards HIV remains the responsibility of these countries. Shorter tours of duty can also be used to limit HIV exposure on the ground. In addition to this, the UN itself also possesses HIV advisors, voluntary counselling, testing and training on codes of conduct; prevention programs and aggressive testing prior to and after deployment must be strengthened and consistently favored as the strategy of choice as opposed to scare tactics, which have only proven to intensify stigmatization against local communities.

Immunity

The notion of peacekeepers' immunity has long perpetuated incidents of SEA in peacekeeping missions.[62] The accountability regime is inadequate for many reasons.[63] In addition to the many immunities granted to UN staff, there are inconsistencies between the legal systems of different countries as to what constitutes a SEA offence. There are also ambiguities in legal jurisdiction with regards to civilian and military personnel, gaps which often promulgate cultures of impunity.

Moreover, there are discrepancies in capacity, jurisdiction and willingness of TCCs to hold their troops responsible. In addition to this, evidence gathering mechanisms remain weak and inefficient; it is impractical to obtain reliable evidence to enforce criminal legislation in peacekeepers' home countries, if incidents of SEA took place abroad. There is also the ever present concern regarding human rights violations, with the possibility that local courts' punishments may not align with the fair practices accepted by TCCs.

The governments that are a member of United Nations extend certain right to the UN representatives deployed in their country, these certain rights are only applicable to the UN

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[60]Bazergan, R. personal communication with C. Halle, DPKO, 2002.

[61]Bazergan R, Easterbrook P. (2003, January 24). HIV and UN peacekeeping operations. *AIDS*, *17*(2):278-9. doi: 10.1097/00002030-200301240-00027. PMID: 12545097

[62]Allred, K. J. (2006). Peacekeepers and Prostitutes: How Deployed Forces Fuel the Demand for Trafficked Women and New Hope for Stopping It. *Armed Forces & Society*, *33*(1), 5–23. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095327X06288803

[63]Ladley, A. (2005). Peacekeeper Abuse, Immunity and Impunity: The Need for Effective Criminal and Civil Accountability on International Peace Operations. *Politics and Ethics Review, 1*(1), 81–90. https://doi.org/10.1177/1743453X0500100108

peacekeepers and the local citizens have no access to those specific rights. Some of the UN representatives are protected by diplomatic immunities given to them through consent or through agreements signed by the respective countries. The most common of the immunity is protection in a foreign state, the state in which the peacekeeper is residing provides immunity to him, however the right to punish remains with the native country of the peacekeeper, according to the home jurisdiction, it is to be understood that the law only gives immunity in a foreign land and the diplomat is accountable for his actions in front of the country he is a permanent resident of.[64]

TCCs contribute troops to peacekeeping operations through MOUs which preserve their right to discipline their forces. Subsequent to this, the UN enters into Status of Force Agreements with host nations. The TCC therefore maintains exclusive jurisdiction to punish its soldiers if when and how it deems fit, whilst the host nation loses all sorts of agency in this respect. It is this lack of host nation jurisdiction over peacekeepers in its own territory, which gives de facto immunity from prosecution. In addition to this, Article 105 of the UN Charter also provides peacekeepers with privileges and immunities; UN staff is given full diplomatic immunity from arrest and detention. Though this functional immunity is indeed limited to official acts which would not cover SEA, ultimately it is the UN which decides what constitutes an official act. In the face of inadequate investigative procedures, immunity from local host and TCC prosecution, incidents of SEA have only increased. A noteworthy caveat in the UN Convention is that whenever the UNSG feels 'immunity would impede the course of justice,' it can be repealed; however it should be noted that this has never been implemented in practice.

The technical issue with UN peacekeeper immunity is that the UN has given up the practice of asking TCCs to commit to punishing offenders; this means that the TCC has the right but not the obligation to take disciplinary action. This promulgates a culture of brushing SEA violations under the rug so as to protect TCC image on the international stage. To this end, the implementation of a mandatory requirement to examine every report of misconduct, comprehensively consider disciplinary action and report progress and decisions to the UN, would help tighten control over TCCs, and consequently increase compliance in accordance with UN codes of conduct. The UN also requires modern evidence collection techniques so that witness statements can be collected in accordance with TCC law; this requires legal advisors trained specifically in the national laws of individual TCCs. Similarly, sexual assault counsellors must also be trained in order to navigate TCC legal systems and understand local cultural perceptions on the ground. The current system of shipping evidence with the soldier has thus far proven to be inefficient, but must nevertheless be strengthened if on site court martial is not feasible.

Better training programs, zero tolerance policy, increased recreational facilities, family

[64]Ladley, 2005.

hotlines, sensitivity to SEA and human trafficking can afford the UN a better hold over misconduct facilitated by the immunity granted to its personnel. Better evidence gathering, enforced off limits areas, aggressive patrolling, and the addition of legal advisors will increase pressure on peacekeeping personnel, thereby facilitating compliance even if they are immune to local laws. Furthermore, this immunity to local laws will continue so long as the local rule of law is not systematically well established. The issue of UN personnel immunity therefore, must be dealt with in a multifaceted manner; it must be a collaborative strategy between TCCs, the UN and host states, which highlights a credible and overarching commitment to the reduction of SEA.

Chapter 3

THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF GENDER IN PEACEKEEPING

THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF GENDER IN PEACEKEEPING

Economic and political empowerment of women in the reconstruction of post-conflict societies is a key to successful peacebuilding.[65] The establishment of law and order, the military security pillar of peace building, has traditionally taken precedence over the restoration of livelihoods, that is, the economic security pillar. As a result, multidimensional peacebuilding becomes a more challenging goal. The UN's gender mainstreaming resolutions have all stressed the importance of integrating economic goals and the elimination of human rights violations and discrimination against women into peace building activities in post-conflict societies. The UN has consistently included mandates for women's equal participation in post-conflict societies, which has resulted in the establishment of Gender Advisory Units within most peacekeeping missions, despite these resolutions.[66] However, the UN has been unable to comprehensively fulfill its gender mainstreaming goals due to a continued pattern of low priority and inadequate gender budgets and allocations. For instance, an analysis of UNDP reports of four post-conflict countries (Timor-Leste, Sierra Leone, Kosovo and South Sudan) and Post-Conflict Needs Assessments highlights that gender-sensitive activities and budget lines remained scanty; consequently, critical gender

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[65]True J. (2014). The Political Economy of Gender in UN Peacekeeping. In Heathcote G. & Otto D. (Eds.), *Rethinking Peacekeeping, Gender Equality and Collective Security* (pp 243-262). Thinking Gender in Transnational Times. Palgrave Macmillan, London. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137400215_13

[66] Security Council resolution 1325, 2000;

UN Security Council. (October 2008). *Security Council resolution 1820 (2008) [on sexual violence during wars]* (Report no. S/RES/1820), Retrieved 25 September, 2020, from https://undocs.org/en/S/RES/1820(2008);

UN Security Council. (5 October 2009). *Security Council resolution 1889 (2009)* (Report no. S/RES/1889), Retrieved 25 September, 2020, from https://www.un.org/ruleoflaw/files/4acdd8512.pdf;

UNDP. The Eight Point Agenda: Practical, positive outcomes for girls and women in crisis. Crisis Prevention and Recovery. http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/crisis%20prevention/undp-cpr-8-point-agenda-practical-positive-outcomes-girls-women-crisis.pdf

gaps between men and women persisted.

Women are considered to be two elbowing pillars for long term peace, stable economy, social cohesion and political competency. Peacekeeping involves a transition in the socio-economic as well as political domains, yet there is great distortion in the political military and socio economic pillars. This misfit integration has led to negative impact on women's rights especially in the areas struck with conflict. The international security being at stake puts the women's rights in extreme danger. The political reinstatement is blindly rein enforced without taking into consideration the social and economic impacts that place women at a vulnerable position. It is considered that peacekeeping missions hardly provide any solid economic opportunities for women and especially girls, and barely play a part in their post conflict survival strategies. One of the key objectives of the UN peacekeeping mission is addressing the gender inequalities that devoid women and men of the opportunities that have been taken away from them through gender mainstreaming. Another perspective that is found in Gender mainstreaming is the marginality of men, who are equally affected by gender oppression such as economic, political, social barriers.[67]

Some crucial Indicators for measuring gender equality are women's rights with respect to access to education and health; access to water and agricultural inputs; access to economic reconstruction planning; access to land, inheritance, property, and housing transaction rights; equality in marriage; reparations of war rights; SEA compensations; and most importantly sustainable livelihood. These indicators become even more imperative in post-conflict societies when the death of relatively more men positions women as the head of their households. As these women have taken on sole responsibility for their families, their obligations increase. It is vital to note however, that irrespective of this, the opportunities accorded to them by society do not necessarily increase. Female providers tend to lose assets, employment and educational opportunities more than their male counterparts; who are usually given priority access to these crucial cornerstones of post-conflict recovery, this makes women more vulnerable to high levels of poverty, and further widens the gender equality gap. As a result, the work of UNDPKO Gender Advisory Units becomes much more difficult. The priority afforded to men for reintegration purposes, coupled with women's relatively weaker employability skillsets makes their reintegration harder. Such circumstances highlight a pattern whereby discrimination against women's livelihood opportunities pushes them to slip into informal modes of employment such as prostitution. It is crucial that such trends be actively monitored and contained, as they only worsen women's economic and physical insecurity.

Whilst mass employment opportunities are usually created for men, for instance in the form of large scale infrastructure and building projects, women are often overlooked in post-conflict society quotas. It is important to account for cultural differences here, as culturally

[67] True, 2014.

rooted notions of what types of employment are acceptable and unacceptable for women prevail, for instance, while women can partake in heavy construction work in Nepal, the same is not considered culturally acceptable in Afghanistan. Similarly, different crops and modes of animal husbandry exist in different cultures. Consequently, knowledge of local practices based on pre-conflict circumstances is essential for humanitarian and development interventions to be effective. In addition to higher levels of poverty, sexual exploitation and employment discrimination, women are also more displaced in post-conflict societies. This often causes increased urban migration into slums with poor services, high levels of violence and increased poverty, women are then subjected to even more hardship when forced to carry out the most banal tasks, such as retrieving water from distant conflict prone areas. As a result, female combatants and women leading their households are subject to economic marginalization as well.

The task of facilitating economic reconstruction and relieving women of the disproportionate levels of hardship they are subject to in post-conflict societies is shared between the UN and its financial arms such as the IMF, the World Bank and other regional development banks. Together, this financial consortium designs, develops and executes programs in peacekeeping zones, with the aim of gender-sensitive and gender-inclusive political, social and economic rebuilding. The inclusion of a gender perspective recognizes the definite link between improving women's development indicators and overall poverty reduction.

UN Gender Advisory Units

The UN has developed Gender Advisory Units within its peacekeeping missions to implement its Gender responsive strategy. All of them derive their mandates from various UNSC Resolutions, which enforce women's roles in the prevention and resolution of conflict, namely: UNSCR-1325 UNSCR-1769 (2007) and UNSCR- 2113 (2013) and from the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions 1325 (2000), 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013) and 2122 (2013).

The Gender Responsive strategy of the UN peacekeeping operations is detailed in a policy document titled "DPKO and DFS Policy on Gender Responsive United Nations Peacekeeping Operations"[68], its purpose is how to operationalize gender equality. Its roles and responsibilities are divided in the following categories, leadership and accountability, policy and planning, analysis and reporting, partnerships, rule of law national institutions and political processes (including SSR, justice and corrections, DDR, mine action), protection function (including UN Police, UN Military, Human Rights, protection of civilians, SGBV,

[68] DPKO and DFS Policy on Gender Responsive United Nations Peacekeeping Operations https://peacekeeping.un.org/sites/default/files/english_gender_responsive_united_nations_peacekeeping_operations_policy_1.pdf

HIV/AIDS, SEA), support functions (including budget resource and support, logistics support, training and capacity development, gender parity), communication and knowledge management (including public information, IT).

It is important to examine the services being offered by the GAU in all UN Peacekeeping missions. The shared goals of these GAUs include gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping operations through improved gender responsiveness of all senior management; the protection and promotion of women's rights in all operational plans; the creation of an enabling environment to facilitate gender justice; effective and increased responsiveness towards addressing and mitigating gender-based violence; enhanced women's participation in the peace process and political decision making; the promotion of women's participation in livelihood and economic development initiatives.

One of the most challenging agenda to be implemented in terms of political economy of war and peace is the Women Peace and Security (WPS) agenda which is driven by a complex array of power structures. It is both regressive and transformative in the change process. Although the inclusion of women in the peacekeeping operations lags behind expectations, but WPS is playing an instrumental role in restricting the gap and has been empowering women informally as well.[69]

Some of the key individual gender focuses of each peacekeeping mission are as follows:

MINURSO - WESTERN SAHARA

The UN mission in Western Sahara does not have a specific gender advisor or unit; all gender related work is to be carried out by the gender focal point, a role taken on by the CDU. The CDU 'acts as the mission focal point in all conduct and discipline matters, including sexual exploitation and abuse.' It acts as a reporting mechanism for incidents of SEA by gathering and forwarding reporting information to the IOIS. MINURSO also includes an HIV/AIDS Task Force which carries out awareness lectures and campaigns, distributes free birth control and post-exposure Prophylaxis (PEP), and in March 2007 it began Voluntary Confidential counselling and testing training for HIV.

MINUSCA - CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

The UN mission in the Central African Republic contains a Gender Unit which looks to include women in all stages of the peace building and peacekeeping process, from transitional justice to DDR and SSR. The Office of Gender Affairs works on two levels, internally, within the MINUSCA mission, and externally with actors including judicial and legal professionals,

[69]Ertürk, Y. (2020). The political economy of peace processes and the Women, Peace and Security agenda. *Conflict, Security & Development, 20*:4, 419-439. DOI: 10.1080/14678802.2020.1790211

NGOs, and government bodies to facilitate a comprehensive understanding of UNSCR 1325 and its implementation in the mission. Key achievements of the MINUSCA gender unit include facilitating women' political participation through the organization of a women's symposium and political march, the organization of workshops for capacity building of women leaders from Central Africa, and the creation of adhoc gender and delegations committees to support the activity of women candidates for the November 2014 election. Other activities of the gender unit include SSR with a gender perspective, which is strong advocacy for women amongst new recruits, and capacity building of the Central African Armed Forces (FACA) on matters of SGBV. Furthermore, the gender unit also encouraged reforms at the local level, including the Mbeki prison QIP rehabilitation project; this constructed separate cells and designated areas for female prisoners and ensured their safety from SEA.

MINUSMA - MALI

UN Resolutions 2100 and 2164 included gender in MINUSMA's mandate and were the basis for the creation of its gender unit. The MINUSMA gender unit focuses on capacity building of the senior leadership to develop comprehensive gender strategies, capacity building of mission staff through training, SSR with a gender perspective through external partnerships with actors such as the Malian Defence and Security Forces, and encouraging local women's political participation by supporting Malian authorities and civil society organizations.

MONUSCO - DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

UN resolution 2409 asks that MONUSCO includes a gender perspective in all its work, the Gender Affairs Section implements this mandate in four ways. Firstly it maintains accountability through the Gender Markers accountability tool; this monitors MONUSCO activity in delivering on the WPS mandate, offices within the mission have to carry out a gender analysis of all work and maintain sex disaggregated data. Secondly, the GAS provides capacity building through training, inductions and specialized trainings for managers and external partners to facilitate the transfer of knowledge. It ensures women' protection by mapping all potential risk hot spots and promotes responsible citizenship by encouraging a narrative of 'positive masculinities and young women leadership.' Thirdly, to achieve parity, the MONUSCO GAS implemented a Gender Parity Strategy in 2017 in accordance with that of the UNSG. A balanced MONUSCO workforce is to be a model of local communities. Lastly, to increase women's participation, the GAS promotes gender sensitivity through the media; it increases opportunities for female representation in the media; and creates safe spaces for women candidates and votes to share experiences.

UNAMID - DARFUR

The UNAMID Gender Advisory Unit implements gender mainstreaming through capacity

building of senior management. It also encourages increased women's political participation in the peace process; it uses external partnerships to achieve this, for instance through collaboration and coordination with civil society, local leaders and the Darfur Regional Authority. The GAU also established the Women Legislative Caucuses (WLC) on the grounds to ensure the local government was working in the interests of the Darfurian women.

UNFICYP - CYPRUS

The UNFICYP Gender Advisor, in collaboration with the Civil Affairs team, held a workshop in June 2018 with 25 young leaders participating in the Peace Players International-Cyprus summer camp, to encourage local women's political participation. UNPOL in Cyprus also has over 20% women in its police force as well as a gender focal point.

UNIFIL - LEBANON

The UNIFIL Gender Affairs Unit established The Female Assessment/Analysis and Support Team (FAST) in 2015, FAST had 21 uniformed female peacekeepers within it, to provide a gender perspective in culturally sensitive settings. Every individual UNIFIL batman also has a military gender task force to ensure daily activities are gender sensitive. Moreover many of the quick impact projects (QIP) within the mission in Lebanon focused on capacity building for local women, for instance, the Professional Development Training/Workshop for Women Members of Cooperatives of SEA in Abbasiyah, and a workshop to ensure the involvement and representation of women from local communities, entitles Enhancing Women's Capacities in Mediation Skills. In collaboration with UN Women, UNIFIL also began regular training workshops with local women in November 2018, to train them on matters of conflict resolution.

UNISFA - ABYEI

UNISFA Conduct and Discipline Teams (CDT) carry out in-mission training, including on matters of SEA. In 2019 the UNISFA Gender Advisory Team also implemented training on gender and basic human rights concepts with local leaders. In collaboration with Gender and Community Liaison Officers, the CDT also uses outreach campaigns to educate the local communities on SEA. Furthermore, the Community Liaison Office (CLO) works with the Office of the Principal Officer to mobilize women in the peace building process; to this end, the 2018 workshop on Raising Awareness on Gender Equality and Education informed them of their roles and responsibilities in society and sensitized women on gender issues and inclusion.

UNMIK - KOSOVO

UNMIK established its Gender Task Force in 1999, to ensure gender sensitivity in political and economic development; sub groups of this task force were further created to focus on

GBV and women's economic empowerment. The Office of Gender Affairs also provides training in collaboration with the agency for Gender Equality in the office of the prime minister. Furthermore, UNMIK is also a stakeholder in The Security and Gender Group which is chaired by UN Women, and in 2004 the mission produced its first report of SEC disaggregated data titled Women and men in Kosovo; this is crucial for policy planning and development.

UNMISS - SOUTH SUDAN

The UNMISS Office of the Gender Advisor facilitated dialogue between local women and the Special Representative of the Secretary General (SRSG) through global open days. It also conducted weekly induction trainings on gender and SGBV for UNMISS military contingents. Moreover, through research and analysis, the office integrated gender perspectives in all conflict analysis, keeping in mind the context of UNSCR 1325 and the WPS agenda. UNMISS also contained a Gender Task Force which further ensured gender sensitivity and mainstreaming in mission activities.

A Proposed Gender Responsive Agenda for Peacekeeping Missions:

There are certain gender priorities within UN peacekeeping missions which can be commonly applied and monitored. These can be prioritized into the following categories: **1) gender data management through household registries, 2) promoting a woman empowered legislative agenda, 3) health priorities 4) poverty alleviation, 5) gender friendly election management.**

1. Gender Data Management through Household Registries

Post conflict societies have a common problem of stationary as well as nomadic vulnerable populations mixed together and non-identified in the state demographics. Un-identified people are almost stateless; and difficult to account for just like internally displaced people are difficult to account for. Their demographics are often a source of political controversy. As such a scientific measurement which is credible, accurate, up-to-date, real time, and complete is necessary for peacekeeping and general political management. Household registries can be costly but their costs far outweigh their advantages if managed appropriately and used for various development programs. If you know where the vulnerable are, what they do, you can fix their gender problems better. It is a basic age old concept and yet often not prioritized.

Amongst the indicators required for gender responsive decision making for post-conflict populations, is the establishment of women led households. This affords women a sense of empowerment and decision making priority over men. A standard profile of the household head entails woman the following fields: household woman head name, household address (GPS location), area (urban or rural), cluster, sub-block, enumeration areas, household number, district, Village, structure type (single story, multiple, compound), age, mobile number, contact number, post office, member part of any government social safety program, mother tongue, family members and names, relation to head of household, gender, marital status, state ID number, children's data, household size, educational attainment of household members, reading ability in any language with understanding, ever attended school, highest class completed, work status during last one month (employed, not employed, seeking work, student, housewife, etc), on average how many hours in a week does the member work for pay or income generating activities including agriculture, status or nature of employment in main activity over the past one year (government employee, semi gov, autonomous employee, regular, Seasonal Paid Employee/Day Laborer Agriculture, Seasonal Paid Employee/ Day Laborer (Non-Agriculture), Self Employed, Non-Agriculture, Self Employed, Agriculture: Own Cultivator, Sharecropper/ Livestock Or Contract Cultivator, Unpaid Family Worker Contributing Family Helper, Employer, Unemployed, Other), disability prevalence (no disability, upper limb disability, lower limb disability, mental disability, speech

disability, hearing disability, visual disability, other disability), income data, agricultural outputs and inputs, vocational skills, life threatening and infectious disease prevalence (heart, cancer, obstructed pulmonary and asthma, diabetes, hepatitis, TB, polio, kidney failure, blood pressure, thalassemia, AIDS), housing and assets availability, What is your present occupancy status? (01-Owner Occupied (Not Self Hired), 02-Owner Occupied (Self Hired), 03-On Rent, 04-Subsidized Rent, 05-Rent Free), Which material is used for walls? (1-Burned Bricks/Blocks, 2-Raw Bricks/Mud, 3-Wood/Bamboo 04- Stone, 05-Others), Which material is used for roof? (RCC/RBC=1, Wood/Bamboo=2, Iron/Cement Sheets=3, Girder /T-Iron=4, Others=5), How many rooms does your household occupy, include bed rooms and living rooms? (Do not count storage rooms, bath rooms, toilets, kitchen or rooms for business), What is the main fuel used for cooking? (01-Fire-Wood, 02-Gas, 03-Kerosene Oil, 04-Dung Cake, 05-Electricity,06- Crop Residue, 07-Charcoal\ Coal, 08-Other), What type of toilet is used by your household? (01-Flush Connected To Public Sewerage, 02-Flush Connected To Pit, 03-Flush Connected To Open Drain, 04-Dry Raised Latrine, 05- Dry Pit Latrine, 06-No Toilet In The Household), What is the main source of drinking water for the household? (01-Piped Water, 02-Hand Pump, 03- Motorized Pumping/Tube Well, 04- Open Well, 05-Closed Well, 06- Pond/Canal / River / Stream, 07- Spring, 08-Mineral Water, 09-Tanker/Truck / Water Bearer, 10- Filtration Plant, 11-Others), Does the household have an Electricity connection?, Does the household have a Gas connection?, Does the household have a landline/PTCL Telephone connection?, Does the household own any of the livestock (Buffalo, Cow, Goat / Sheep, Horse / Mule / Donkey, Camel) presently?, Number of livestock household owns (Buffalo, Cow, Goat / Sheep, Horse / Mule / Donkey, Camel), Does the household own any agricultural land presently?, If yes, how much land is owned in total?, Items owned by this HH during the last 1 year? (1. Heater 2. Washing machine/ dryer 3. Geyser (Gas, Electric) 4. Air cooler 5. Air conditioner 6. Fan (Ceiling, Table, Pedestal, Exhaust) 7. Cooking range, Microwave oven 8. Cooking stove 9. TV 10. VCR, VCP, Receiver, De11.Refrigerator 12. Freezer 13. Generator /UPS/ solar panel 14. Sewing/ knitting machine 15. Personal Computer/laptop 16. Motorcycle /scooter 17. Tractor 18. Car/vehicle 19. Mobile/cell phone 20. Internet), Is any HH member employed in government ?, During last 3 years, have you or any member of the household taken a loan from the following sources, (1-Not taken, 2- Relatives/friends/neighbors, 3- Commercial Bank, 4-Micro Finance Institutions, 5-Informal Money lenders (Landlords / Shopkeepers), 6-others), utility usage, land and livestock ownership, skills, and job preferences, During last three years, have you or any member of the household received financial assistance from any government source?, During last 12 months, has any household member temporarily migrated for economic activities for more than 30 days? Has your family experienced an infant death (a child under the age of 01 year) or stillbirth during the last 12 months?, How do you resolve your personal disputes? (1-Conventional Jirga/Panchayti, 2- Formal/State Organization, 3-Parliamentarians/Local Government Representatives, 4- Influential Person, 5-Others, 6-Don't Know,) How do you resolve complaints against state departments/organizations? (1-Ignore It, 2-Complain To Relevant Department, 3-Contact Court, 4- Contact Ombudsman, 5-Contact Parliamentarians / Local Government Representatives 6-Contact Influential Persons,7- Don't Know), What is your level of satisfaction with the State Justice System (Police,

Administration, Courts, Prosecution)?, Household agriculture status (1-Cultivate land in an individual capacity, 2-Cultivate land at the household level, 3-Don't cultivate land), Types of cultivation (1-Own cultivator, 2-Contract cultivator, 3-Share cropper), If agriculture type is contract cultivator OR Share cropper than what is land owner name, Crops cultivated in different seasons, (01-Tomato=, 02-Potato, 03-Citrus Fruit, 04-Lentils, 05-Corn,13-Fodder, 07-Onion, 08-Cucumber, 09-Wheat, 10-Chick pea, 17- Oil Bearing Crops, 19-Other Vegetables, 20-Fruit Gardens, 21-other, 01-Rice, 02-Cotton, 03-Maize,04- Sugarcane / Kamad, 05-Green Pepper, 06-Mango, 07-Sorghum Vulgare /Jawaar, 08-Grapes, 09-Guava, 10- Strawberry, 11-Bitter Gourd, 12-Garlic, 13-Fodder, 14-Water Melon, 15-Melon, 16-Groundnut, 17-Oil Bearing Crops, 18-Cauliflower, 19- Other Vegetables, 20- Fruit Gardens,21-Other.), Select the types of source of water used for cultivation? (1-Canal=1, 2-Electric Tube-well, 3- Solarized Tub-well, 4-Diesel TubeWell, 5-Motorized Hand Pump, 6-Solarized Hand Pump, 7-Well, 8- Rain Water), Select as appropriate, which of the following asset/s is/are owned by the farmer?Electric TubeWell, Diesel TubeWell, Solarized Tubwell, Cultivating Machine, Threshing Machine,Tractor,).

Health, banking, and violence related gender specific details can also be sought sensitively. Based on these details, a poverty scorecard must be developed to track a household's level of poverty. It is crucial that this data be available in real time, so that potential changes in the status of the household are duly recorded and all stakeholders using the database are informed and updated at all times. Furthermore, more equitable resource allocation for post conflict populations can be managed through the existence of income details; this allows subsidies and food supplements to be distributed fairly based on scientific data.

The above template is fairly expansive and can allow a better understanding of the gender issues based on the socio economic characteristics of the household.

2. Promoting a Woman Empowered Legislative Agenda

Post-conflict societies must have adequate legislative capabilities to facilitate a gender-sensitive legislative agenda. In the aftermath of a violent conflict however, state democracies tend to be fragile, under such circumstances, the prioritization of a context-driven legislative agenda is crucial. The perspectives which are relevant in more mature democracies with higher levels of women empowerment indicators will not hold true in post-conflict societies. Even so, there is a standardized framework, which if correctly pursued, can tackle regressive trends in women's empowerment.

This framework ensures that post-conflict societies have the most up-to-date and culturally relevant laws on the following issues: A) Access to Financial Inclusion, and E-Commerce for the Vulnerable Women, B) Acid Crime Control, C) Climate Sensitive Livelihood and Income Generating Activities, D) Domestic Violence, Femicide, and Honour Killing, E) Early Marriage, F) Gender Pay Gap, G) Meaningful Participation in Democracy and Decision Making Top

Positions, H) Sexual Harassment and Women Trafficking, and I) Reproductive Child and Maternal Health.

Such an agenda needs to be executed through Women's Parliamentary Caucuses in each of these UN peacekeeping missions. It is these legislative bodies that are eager to champion progressive legislative agendas, and therefore hold the promise of making a considerable impact on the promotion of gender roles. The Darfur example shows that there is tremendous wealth in such unity of purpose. To this end, UN Women, women's empowerment NGOs, development banks and UN peacekeeping GAUs need to collaborate and coordinate their activities to execute legislation which can mitigate gender based discriminatory practices.

A. Access to Financial Inclusion and E-Commerce Opportunities for the Vulnerable Women

A primary indicator of women's economic empowerment is the extent to which women are integrated into a country's banking systems; women's inclusion in these systems ensures that their economic activity is accounted for, and that they have access to financial instruments which are a key to economic growth. Financial inclusion is often considered a stepping stone for inclusive growth, all post-conflict state governments, the UN and its financial arms are cognizant of the importance of financial inclusion for poverty and inequality reduction and job creation.[70] A dearth of such opportunities often leads to cyclical poverty traps, including the otherwise economically unidentified into post-conflict state's banking systems through bank accounts, access to loans, e-wallets, micro-credit banking, phone banking and other financial instruments, which opens up livelihood possibilities for the most vulnerable women in these societies. Most women first require state identification in order to be assimilated into the state's beneficiary systems for food and national security, subsequent to this, increased opportunities for financial inclusion become attainable.

This strongly resonates with the UN's financial inclusion target strategy, led by Queen Maxima of The Netherlands, the UNSG Special Advocate for Inclusive Finance for Development.[71] She recently stated of the policy, that "fostering financial inclusion for women can promote national economies … To close the gender gap in financial inclusion; we need policies based on evidence and data on women's financial inclusion. Getting high-quality gender-disaggregated data can truly help policymakers make this happen."

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[70]Memon, M. (2018). *Those who Matter the Most: BISP Pride of Pakistan*. Manzil Printers.

[71]United Nations Secretary-General's Special Advocate for Inclusive Finance for Development. (2020, 25 June). *Study Highlights How Policymakers Use Gender-Disaggregated Data to Design Effective Women's Financial Inclusion Policies*. https://www.unsgsa.org/resources/news/study-highlights-how-policymakers-use-gender-disaggregated-d/

There is a 7% global gender gap in account of ownership between men and women, whilst that of developing countries stands at 9%. According to the 2017 Global Findex (World Bank Group), the number for post-conflict states is even higher. For instance, according to the World Bank Group's 2017 Findex, in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), only about 25.8% of the adult population and 24.2% of women had access to financial institutions through a bank account. The rate for Malian women is about 25%, and in the Central African Republic (CAR) and South Sudan the rates of female financial inclusion is under 10% and 5% respectively.

There is a direct correlation between this gender gap and the poverty and GINI indexes of these conflict ridden states. As such it is imperative that Gender Advisors collaborate with the UNSGA for Financial Inclusion such as the IMF and regional development banks to encourage legislation which mandates financial inclusion for the most vulnerable sections of post-conflict societies. Successful examples of high rates of financial inclusion can be seen in the social safety nets of many developing countries, in these countries, prevailing systems of cash handouts through bank accounts have proven to be huge accelerators of this empowerment. To this end, it is imperative that UN GAUs coordinate their efforts with local social safety nets to ensure enhanced rates of financial inclusion for vulnerable women.

Within this framework for financial inclusion is the ability to sell products made by vulnerable women in post-conflict societies, through e-commerce technologies. Often the environment on the ground in post-conflict states make markets inaccessible. Having made handcrafted products they often find themselves unable to access customers and are thereby deprived of an income, due to circumstances out of their control. E-commerce has the unique advantage of reaching out to markets which would otherwise be inaccessible. GAUs must therefore encourage the development of products which are marketable through e-commerce, within vulnerable communities. Following women's financial inclusion, the establishment of e-commerce strategies will be comparatively easier. GAUs should encourage national legislation to determine the viability of e-commerce in individual post-conflict contexts. Working with local women's networks, NGOs and social safety nets can facilitate the process by training interested women for such economic activity. A careful study must be conducted to gauge demand; which products can be easily and cost-efficiently produced; and to mark up and market these products effectively.

B. Acid Crime Control

Acid or related substances disfigures and 'kills' a women either mentally or physically due to burns. Incidents of acid violence have no territorial boundaries; it is prevalent in both developed and developing countries, because it is rooted in notions of honour, pride and violent masculinity, which are present in the world all over, irrespective of the state's socio-

economic circumstances. It is important to note that reporting on acid crime tends to be less frequent relative to the rate of incidence due to societal pressures and stigma. India, the world's largest democracy, reports a minimum of 1000 deaths per year caused by acid crime, while the UK reportedly on average experiences 730 acid violence related deaths annually. The post-conflict societies of the DRC, Sudan and the Central African Republic are amongst the most dangerous territories in the world for women. Such substances are easily and cheaply available in post-conflict societies; in many Central African states, car batteries are a frequently employed source of acid for use in these crimes. Further, because awareness and reporting on these crimes remains slow, legislation for its prevention is virtually nonexistent in most national jurisdictions.

The proven strategy to reduce incidents of acid crime is legislation, specifically geared towards mitigating it; this includes adequate punishments for perpetrators, rehabilitation and compensation of victims and regulation on the sale of corrosive substances. Model legislation already exists which can be shared with UN GAUs, and such crimes can be effectively tackled through collaboration between GAUs, local NGOs and state governments. In the absence of frameworks to tackle such problems, it is unlikely that victims will come forward. It is therefore vital that GAUs in conflict ridden states engage with local women on the ground to build trust and spread awareness on acid violence to facilitate timely reporting of incidents.

C. Climate Sensitive Livelihood and Income Generating Activities

The effects of climate change can be felt all over the world, but post-conflict societies are increasingly at risk because they possess the least adaptive resources. The vulnerability and marginalization of women in these states is only heightened as changing weather patterns hinder already scarce employment opportunities. Given that climate change exacerbates societal vulnerability, it is crucial for UN GAUs to analyze these impacts and create policy frameworks to mitigate the increasing risks.

Low cost Climate Smart Agricultural technologies need to be built into the legislative frameworks of post-conflict states to facilitate an enabling environment whereby markets are created to ensure demand and supply for such products. The specific modes of technology relevant to their individual markets will depend on market studies which can be undertaken by in-mission GAUs, the UNEP, FAO, IFAD and regional development banks. Together these agents can create a framework within which to pursue livelihood saving and income generating activities based on state and societal resilience.

Climate Smart Agriculture technologies need to be climate, socio-economic and future

resilient[72], as well as aligned with the UN's Sustainable Development Goals 2030. They must improve farming systems and facilitate water and energy efficiencies; they must be gender sensitive and build sustainable institutions within communities; they must provide financial and food security to the vulnerable and improve disaster preparedness.

As it stands, most post-conflict states have been unable to build sufficient linkages, markets, systems and process for this climate smart technologies because they have struggled to scale them into their broader national agricultural policies. To this end, the Resilience Alliance's research on Climate Smart Villages in the Ecology and Society Journal build an integrative strategy to provide a template for scaling up adaptation and mapping lessons from local to national ranks.[73]

GAUs must aim to build Climate Smart Agricultural Villages (CSAV) in post-conflict countries whilst maintaining an emphasis on gender, so as to mitigate the effects of climate change and reduce levels of poverty for the most vulnerable through sustainable agricultural practices. This will create the following opportunities for local communities: high-value products and value chains, sustainable energy, remittances for development, eco-tourism, scientific collaboration, upstream-downstream linkages and decreasing political tensions on account of various parties being stakeholders in a common ecosystem. Peacekeeping missions that are situated in geographically similar climatic zones must collaborate and coordinate their activities so that their shared approach can result in complementarities. All such activities must be supported by national legislation, without which the establishment of such structures will not be possible.

Any CSAV product line implemented by these states needs to have the following characteristics for it to be sustainable and cost efficient for the vulnerable populations of post conflict states: water smart, crop smart, future smart, nutrient smart, energy smart, and ICT smart.[74] Water smart characteristics include a reduced level of water extraction; conservation of natural resources; reduced labour and increased time efficiency in collecting water; and an overall enhancement of capability in studying and performing other related tasks. Typical agricultural practices which would facilitate these outcomes are natural spring water harvesting; rooftop rain water harvesting; stone lining and grass waterways; gravity sprinkler and drip irrigation; and treadle pumps.

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[72] United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2017). Resilient Mountain Solutions in the Hindukush. https://unfccc.int/sites/de%20%20%20%20%20%20fault/files/resource/ICIMOD%20RMS%20flyer.pdf

[73] Aggarwal, P. K., Jarvis, A., Campbell, B. M., Zougmoré, R. B., Khatri-Chhetri, A., Vermeulen, S. J., Loboguerrero, A., Sebastian, L. S., Kinyangi, J., Bonilla-Findji, O., Radeny, M., Recha, J., Martinez-Baron, D., Ramirez-Villegas, J., Huyer, S., Thornton, P., Wollenberg, E., Hansen, J., Alvarez-Toro, P., Aguilar-Ariza, A., Arango-Londoño, D., Patiño-Bravo, V., Rivera, O., Ouedraogo, M. and Tan Yen, B. (2018). The climate-smart village approach: framework of an integrative strategy for scaling up adaptation options in agriculture. *Ecology and Society 23*(1):14. https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-09844-230114

[74] ICIMOD. (April 11, 2016). Pakistan's Minister of State visits ICIMOD projects. https://www.icimod.org/pakistans-minister-of-state-visits-icimod-projects

Crop smart characteristics on the other hand, include increased crop yields; increased adaptability; increased income; and better household resilience. Agricultural practices required to obtain such changes include beekeeping, growing high value and return products such as kiwis, nuts and spices, medicinal and aromatic plants and the cultivation of organic vegetables.

For the implementation of CSAVs to be future smart, they must mitigate risks and increase the resilience of households to climate changes, for instance through community based flood early warning systems. In order to be nutrient smart, agricultural practices such as green manure and cover crops, composting, and utilizing agriculture land technology and bio-pesticides and plant tonics must be implemented in order to ensure better soil quality, lower costs, less environmental degradation and healthier nutrition through reduced uses of harmful chemicals.

In order to be energy smart, practices must lessen energy costs, labour usage and time consumption. Methods to achieve such outcomes include solar technologies, wind power and cold champers. Lastly, in order to be ICT smart, agricultural practice characteristics must include timely action and responses to DDR and the ability to make strategic and informed decisions in order to increase household resilience.

Below is a selection of climate smart tools, products and technologies for policy makers. Needless to say, individual peacekeeping missions will each have their own specific sets of requirements and circumstances; each individual village will require an in depth study to assess which practices will best suit the operational environment on the ground. Therefore, the following proposals are suggested as possible starting points for larger CSAV frameworks which can each be geared towards the specific ecosystems of UNDPKO missions.

a. Energy needs of the small farmer

Assessing the energy needs of smallholder farms requires an integrative approach between energy and agro-food sectors; this will facilitate a bottom up approach which not only focuses on the needs of the farmer, but will also ensure sustainable agricultural practices. The inclusion of a gender perspective is crucial, as the FAO reports that almost 43% of the people employed in the agricultural sector are women. Small scale agriculture tends to be heavily dependent on either human or animal power, which can be physically taxing or time consuming. Small farms therefore require energy to fill this gap for two chief reasons, transport and production. The energy needs and the viability of different interventions vary greatly from one region to another, as small farms are not homogenous entities; there is therefore a need to comprehensively evaluate individual rural contexts, keeping in mind the gender-sensitive goal of creating income opportunities for vulnerable women in society.

To this end, Black Gold or the bio briquette[75] is a product which is both sustainable and cost efficient for vulnerable post-conflict populations, it is a low cost gas substitute and an alternative to burning trees. It is a block developed by compacting the ash produced through the burning of biomass within a special mold. Components of the substance include sawdust, wood-chips, peat, paper or charcoal, water and clay. The American Journal of Engineering Research's[76] literature on 'Bio-mass briquette production' has identified the substance as a substitute energy medium for fossil fuels. It is environmentally friendly, cost-effective, reduces pressure on forests and rangeland reduces vulnerability to respiratory diseases and is also a potential livelihood source for women, it is therefore a sustainable product for small farmer usage, whilst also creating income opportunities for vulnerable women.[77]

Case studies of small farmer energy needs in countries with UN peacekeeping missions further highlight the potential methods of bridging energy gaps in post-conflict societies. In West Africa for instance, small scale farming is almost entirely reliant on human muscle power. It is not enough to simply impose rural electrification schemes or facilitate generic mechanization in the region because this does not consider the individual needs of the farmer. To this end, beginning in the 1990s, the UNDP promoted the use of Multifunctional Platforms (MFPs) in countries such as Mali, specifically targeting the duties of women in agriculture, such as post-harvest food processing. Here, the UNDP made female management an ownership a prerequisite, thereby ensuring the inclusion of a gender perspective in its provisions.

In the Sahara on the other hand, a perennial problem remains that of water availability. Efficiency in water consumption is crucial, as is maintaining quality groundwater reserves. Mechanized irrigation systems are not economically viable in the region. To this end, the use of treadle pumps helps bridge the energy gap in a cost effective and context-driven manner.

b. Fertilizer needs of the small farmers

Small farmers in post-conflict zones already grapple with the issue of uncertain income, which is only exacerbated by high input costs. The economies of these societies are left fragile in the aftermath of conflict, which poses the biggest risk to small scale farmers. For

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[75]Malikyar, G. M. & Sharma, B. (January 2009). Renewable Energy Technologies for Rural Development. In Mendez, J. M., Fox, E. & Kerkhoff, E. (Eds.), Mountain Development Resource Book for Afghanistan. The International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Bikash_Sharma2/publication/281898336_Renewable_Energy_Technologies_for_Rural_Development/links/55fd05e608aeba1d9f4caa79.pdf

[76]Sharma, M. K., Priyank, G., Sharma, N. (2015). Biomass Briquette Production: A Propagation of Non-Convention Technology and Future of Pollution Free Thermal Energy Sources. *American Journal of Engineering Research*, *4*(2), 44-50. http://www.ajer.org/papers/v4(02)/F042044050.pdf

[77]Methodology for brio-briquette based on the ICIMOD literature to understand it is good for the ecosystem: The origins of the product go back to 1870s Britain, Thailand, Japan in 1978, and Nepal in the 1980s. Moreover, the fuelwood consumption of these countries is about 31.523 mm^3 which causes second highest deforestation globally. If not stopped, forests in the region will disappear in next 10-15 years largely.

instance, small farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa constitute around 70% of the region's total population, and their economic productivity is harmed by persistent high fertilizer costs. Given the intense heat, aridity, reduced groundwater and low soil fertility in countries such as the DRC and Mali, fertilizer use is essential, although in practice; it remains low due to soaring costs.

To this end, it is crucial for UN GAUs on the ground in such areas to encourage the production of sustainable, easily manufactured alternatives to traditional market fertilizers which remain out of reach for small farmers. Jholmal[78] is one such alternative; it is a natural fertilizer and pesticide which can be easily produced at home using readily available local materials such as animal urine, farmyard manure, plant waste material and other beneficial microbes. It improves yields, reduces expenses for agricultural inputs, has zero demands for chemical inputs, promotes farmer/consumer/soil health and is a sustainable livelihood source. The Austrian Development Cooperation's paper on 'Sustainable Mountain Development Services'[79] recognized Jholmal as the safest sustainable fertilizer for use in post conflict zones. Not only would such substances prove to be a sustainable income source for vulnerable and marginalized sections of society, but it will also facilitate higher crop yields thereby increasing small farmer revenue.

A further example to take inspiration from is the UNICEF Innovations Lab backed social venture in Kosovo, which has come to be known as 'Terra Crawlers.' The initiative was started by a group of three young citizens working towards a zero-waste lifestyle, but offers lessons which can be adapted for use in small scale farms. The process relies on a special kind of worm which uses organic waste as food, the decomposition process results in the creation of an organic fertilizer for plants, which improves soil fertility, reduces the need for artificial pesticides and facilitates sustainable agricultural practices. This example highlights the potential for sustainable livelihood sources for small farmers through the production of natural fertilizers. It is crucial therefore, that GAUs on the ground in such areas collaborate with already established organizations working towards similar goals, to inform and train members of local communities in such practices in order to facilitate sustainable livelihoods.

c. High value crop needs of the small farmer

Cultivation of certain high value crops in post-conflict societies can facilitate stronger cash revenues to small scale farmers. UN GAUs must encourage policy makers to find their niche markets, specialize in these products, create market linkages for exports and consequently

[78]Subedi, R. (2016, October 6). Jholmal – A chemical-free solution for farmers in Kavre. http://icimod.org/jholmal-a-chemical-free-solution-for-farmers-in-kavre

[79] Wymann von Dach, S., Bachmann, F., Alcántara-Ayala, I., Fuchs, S., Keiler, M., Mishra, A. & Sötz, E., (Eds.). (2017). Safer lives and livelihoods in mountains: Making the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction work for sustainable mountain development. Sustainable Mountain Development Series. Centre for Development and Environment (CDE), University of Bern, with Bern Open Publishing (BOP). https://www.entwicklung.at/fileadmin/user_upload/Dokumente/Publikationen/Downloads_Laender_DivBerichte/Himalaya_Hindukusch/Safer_lives_and_livelihoods_in_mountains.pdf

drive up their revenue streams; a possible subsequent effect of such practices is also the improvement of state GDPs.

High value cash crops differ from region to region depending on individual climates and the many ways in which these are continuing to change. In the Central African Republic, sisal and tobacco are important cash crops for the country's economy. Cotton exports too, have historically benefited the CAR's economy greatly, although FAO reports a drastic drop in cotton production due to continued political instability. Likewise, Mali is also a net exporter of cotton. It is the country's second largest export, with over four million Malians employed in its production. Essential cash crops in the DRC include unmanufactured tobacco, green coffee and raw centrifugal sugar, while in Sudan — specifically the Darfur region — sesame has increasingly become the cash crop of choice. Sesame exports were greater in volume and revenue than any other crop for the DRC in the period 2018/19. Moreover, the Cypriot agricultural sector is increasingly becoming associated with high value products such as aloe-vera, pomegranates and opuntia (prickly pears). In Kosovo, USAID's New Opportunities for Agriculture (NOA) Project lead to the cultivation of high value chains of crops such as saffron, berries and medicinal and aromatic plants; while in the Western Sahara, high value crops such as cherry tomatoes are grown with the help of hydroponics.

Capitalizing on the production of crops which will yield high revenue streams is crucial and most viable, given that market demand for these products will always exist. It is crucial for policymakers to facilitate this production so that the most vulnerable sections of society can benefit from more fruitful income opportunities.

d. Soil and Water conservation needs of the small farmer

Soil and water conservation (SWC) technologies are defined as "agronomic, vegetative, structural, and/or management measures that prevent and control land degradation and enhance productivity in the field"[80]. There are a variety of agricultural practices that can be employed to facilitate SWC, for instance, the treadle pump.[81] This is a foot operated water lifting mechanism which is used by small scale farmers in regions where the water table is too high to effectively irrigate land. Because its installation and maintenance costs are low, it is a viable option for small farmers; it is therefore both sustainable and cost-effective.[82] Other technologies to improve and facilitate soil fertility and conservation include the planting of salix babylonica on streams, no-till garlic farming and using Polpits to cultivate seedlings in cold conditions.

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[80]ICIMOD. (n.d.). *Nepal Conservation Approaches & Technologies, NEPCAT*. Retrieved September 25 2020, from https://www.icimod.org/get-informed/nepcat

[81]ICIMOD. (2020, 2 January). *Treadle pump*. Retrieved September 25 2020, from https://www.icimod.org/solutions/treadle-pump

[82]Orr, A., Islam, A. M., & Barnes, G. (1991). *Treadle pump: manual irrigation for small farmers in Bangladesh*. Rangpur Dinajpur Rural Service. https://www.doc-developpement-durable.org/file/eau/pompes/pompes-a-pedales/the%20treadle%20pump%20manual%20irrigation%20for%20small%20farmers_Bangladesh.pdf

The effects of climate change in post-conflict countries such as Cyprus have resulted in soil degradation and groundwater overexploitation; this poses a huge risk to small farmers who are unable to keep up with the high costs of water and soil conservation. To this end, the Cypriot agricultural sector utilises micro-irrigation systems such as drip irrigation. These practices are low pressure and low volume methods which considerably decrease water requirements for small farmers.

Moreover, soil management in Sub-Saharan countries such as Mali and the DRC is crucial to meet small farmer needs in the region. To this end, Conservation Agriculture (CA) is increasingly being promoted in smallholder farms in these countries. CA includes simple, sustainable practices such as the combination of no tillage, mulching and crop rotation, which not only increases crop yields, but also prevents soil degradation and increase soil fertility.

All the climate smart technologies discussed above need to be positioned from a gender perspective. They need to be designed and marketed especially to advance the socio-economic status of vulnerable women in post conflict societies so that the poverty alleviation livelihood strategies can accomplish two goals: put cash in the women's hands and save the environment by being sustainable at the same time.

D. Domestic Violence, Femicide, and Honour killing

The WHO defines femicide as the most severe form of a range of gender discriminatory acts of violence – "from verbal harassment and other forms of emotional abuse, to daily physical or sexual abuse. At the far end of the spectrum is femicide: the murder of a woman."[83] Femicide is therefore, a larger term for many evils. Some of them are: honor killings, dowry killings, intimate femicide, non-intimate femicide, kidnapping for prostitution and trafficking, female genital mutilation, infanticide. The term femicide refers to the killing of women and girls because of their gender. Incidences of femicide are not "isolated" or "sporadic" cases of violence, but result from unequal power structures – these are deeply rooted in "traditional" gender roles, customs and mindsets, where women and girls often find themselves in a subordinated and/or marginalized position. Femicide is not only the most extreme form of violence against women, but also the most violent manifestation of discrimination against them and inherent societal inequality. It occurs both, in the private and in the public sphere,

[83]World Health Organization & Pan American Health Organization. (2012). *Understanding and addressing violence against women : intimate partner violence* (WHO/RHR/12.36). https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/77432

by an intimate-partner, or by any other member of the community, and in some contexts, it might be perpetrated or tolerated by the States' actions or omissions.

Femicide is often intimate in nature, that is, it is often carried out by current or former partners, or other close relatives – especially in post-conflict societies. A common motive behind the crime is jealousy, honour or domestic quarreling. Pregnant women are also generally considered more at risk of such incidences of violence. Moreover, patterns of incidences also demonstrate that surviving children of a murdered parent are at risk long term.

In post-conflict societies or societies under stress from pandemics or other crises, women become the inevitable collateral damage; they take the brunt of the pressures in the form of violence, because in these situations, their economic dependence is linked to their partners, and consequently, their options of escape are limited. According to the WHO, "most cases of femicide are committed by partners or ex-partners, and involve ongoing abuse in the home, threats or intimidation, sexual violence or situations, where women have less power or fewer resources than their partner." Furthermore, estimated statistics of femicide cases are not reliable in most developing countries including such conflict-ridden states due to underreporting.

Post-conflict societies are prone to the worst forms of femicide. Here, the brunt of all the evils of conflict fall on the sex perceived to be 'weaker' and 'fairer.' In the Central African Republic for instance, the World Bank reports a femicide rate of 10.6 out of a 100,000 sample size of women – a considerably high rate than those regional countries which are not experiencing conflict. Moreover, it is these countries themselves, which do not possess the legislative mechanisms to counter such forms of GBV. For instance, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) is widely regarded as one of the most dangerous countries in the world for women; a 2014 government report indicates that from the age of 15, 52% of women have experienced physical domestic violence; 67.9% of cases identify husbands or partners as the perpetrators of such violence; 53% of married women in the DRC have suffered acts of domestic, physical and sexual violence.84 Irrespective of such shocking statistics however, till date the DRC does not have any specific national legislation to address domestic violence either through punishment of offenders or protection of survivors.

Motivations for femicide are plentiful; it can have racist, homophobic, political, economic or marital causes, to name a few. Legislative punishments must therefore, be comprehensively drafted in order for them to apply to all cases effectively. UN GAUs on the ground states

[84]Ministry of Planning and Follow-up of the Implementation of the Modernity Revolution (MPSMRM), Ministry of Public Health (MSP) and ICF International. 2014. Demographic and Health Survey in the Democratic Republic of the Congo 2013- 2014, Rockville, Maryland, USA (FR300/EN300). MPSMRM, MSP and ICF International, p. 317. Available in French at: https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR300/EN300.pdf

reporting incidences of such gender based violence need to join hands with local women's rights organizations and international agencies, such as White ribbon, Orange the World, Ni Una Menos, Red Shoes movement, UNITE to End Violence against Women, Blue Heart Campaign and UN Women and the WHO,[85] in order to address and correct these crimes. In Kosovo for example, the EU-UN Women's regional program aimed at ending violence against women, Implementing Norms, Changing Minds, led to a 20% increase in violence reporting since 2018 in some municipalities. The program is aimed at changing the root causes of GBV through education, information dissemination, encouragement of reporting, and public involvement.

UN GAUs also need to take their legal support from international human rights conventions such as The United Nations (UN) Beijing Platform for Action, including Section L, that pledges to eliminate all forms of discrimination against girls, The Convention on the Rights of the Child, The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women 2014, UN Women and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights launched the Latin American Model Protocol for the investigation of gender-related killings of women, Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, September 15, 1995 Policies, Guidelines, Jurisprudence. The legislation and the response mechanism, therefore, needs to be well coordinated between multiple agents working to reduce GBV. Furthermore, close coordination is time critical, given the UN Women's goal to support the countries that adopted the protocol to develop specialized legislation on femicide, specifically to properly investigate and punish all forms of violence against women.[86]

Femicide response systems must also include provisions such as increased shelter availability for women from abusive households, SOS hotlines for complaint registration, civil injunction relief, temporary injunctions during divorce, arrests without warrants in domestic violence cases, essential documentation of domestic violence incidents, and increased funding for women's protection services.

Honour killing is another form of GBV commonly found in post-conflict societies. Incidences of honour killing can have a variety of motivations, such as premarital sex and sexual assault or rape, refusal to marry, suspicions of adultery or requesting a divorce, seeking to escape marital violence, or forgoing cultural norms to select one's own partner or career. Legislation to address honour killings must transcend tribal and culturally accepted forms of justice. For this reason, UN GAUs on the ground post-conflict societies must ensure that all relevant ministries operate within a gender-sensitive framework and have adequate legislation in place for the punishment of perpetrators, as well as protection of possible victims and their families. Deterrence is crucial; the best form of deterrence is the certainty of punishment. A

[85]UNWomen http://interactive.unwomen.org/multimedia/infographic/violenceagainstwomen/en/index.html#nav-2

[86]UN General Assembly. (11 February 2014). *Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 18 December 2013: Taking action against gender-related killing of women and girls* (Report no. A/RES/68/191). Retrieved 25 September, 2020, from https://undocs.org/en/S/RES/1820(2008)

further form of femicide and GBV which post conflict societies commonly experience is dowry marriage killings. This often involves women's in-laws, who highlight the vulnerability of young brides. Dowry killings often take the form of kerosene stove deaths, bride drowning, poisoning and suicide.[87]

Female genital mutilation (FGM) is another form of GBV found predominantly in Africa, the Middle East and Asia. It is commonly inflicted on young girls, typically between infancy and the age of 15. The WHO notes that FGM has no health benefits for women; it is therefore an archetypical hate crime and a fundamental violation of human rights. Article 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, CEDAW, the UN Convention Against Torture and the Convention on the Rights of the Child can each be invoked against incidences of FGM. The WHO further notes that FGM is a social convention in many regions, and the continuation of the practice is therefore, governed by the social pressure to conform; in other cases, FGM practices are motivated by societal perceptions of sexuality, and there is an innate need to curb sexual acts which conservative societies consider unacceptable. Irrespective of its motivation however, it is nonetheless a fundamental breach of international human rights law.

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[87]5 countries where femicide is at its peak (https://www.elitedaily.com/news/world/femicide-worst-countries/1077001);
The Irish Times. (2019, September 3). *Femicide in France: 'He killed me,' she said with her dying breath.* Retrieved September 25, 2020 from https://www.irishtimes.com/news/world/europe/femicide-in-france-he-killed-me-she-said-with-her-dying-breath-1.4006943;
France24. (2019, September 2). *French govt convenes femicide conference – but critics say it's 'meaningless'.* Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.france24.com/en/20190902-france-femicide-conference-schiappa-philippe-macron-noustoutes-autain;
Scott, I. (2019, August 07). *A culture of domestic violence: France's femicide problem.* France 24. Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.france24.com/en/20190708-culture-domestic-violence-france-femicide-problem;
Rafferty, Y. (2013). International Dimensions of Discrimination and Violence against Girls: A Human Rights Perspective. *Journal of International Women's Studies, 14*(1).;
Qualitative Analysis. Retrieved from http://web.a.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=2&sid=6701e690-3344-41f4-8a34-149862e22b8a%40sdc-v-sessmgr02 ;
Political Economy of Violence Against Women. Retrieved from https://moodle.sciences-po.fr/pluginfile.php/317005/mod_resource/content/1/S7%20TRUE.pdf;
Weil, S., & Berg, N. M. (2016). Femicide of girls in contemporary India. *Ex Aequo*, 31-43. 10.22355/exaequo.2016.34.03;
Howe, A. (2013). Mastering Emotions or Still Losing Control? Seeking Public Engagement with 'Sexual Infidelity' Homicide. *Feminist Legal Studies, 21*(2), 141-161.;
India Today. (2019, July 30). *Bills against honour killing and mob lynching introduced in Rajasthan assembly.* Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.indiatoday.in/india/story/bills-against-honour-killing-and-mob-lynching-introduced-in-rajasthan-assembly-1575257-2019-07-30;
Radford, J. & Russell, D. (Eds.). (1992) *Femicide*. Open University Press. http://www.dianarussell.com/f/femicde%28small%29.pdf;
Grewal, P. K. (2012). Honour Killings and Law in India. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (JHSS), 5(*6), 28-31.;
RFI. (2016, 17 March). *France wants 'femicide' included in international law*. Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.rfi.fr/en/france/20160317-france-wants-femicide-included-international-law;
HuffPost. *France Femicide: Violence against Women.* Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.huffpost.com/entry/france-femicide-violence-against-women ;
Femincide Watch. Retrieved from http://femicide-watch.org/search?f[0]=field_product_type:3765; and
UNWomen Fact Sheet. Retrieved from http://interactive.unwomen.org/multimedia/infographic/violenceagainstwomen/en/index.html#nav-2

UNICEF statistics show that FGM is widespread in post-conflict societies; Mali, Sudan and Sierra Leone for instance, each have FGM rates of 89%, 88% and 88% respectively. Moreover, reports highlight that a majority of women and girls in these countries who have undergone FGM believe that the practice should be abolished; in Sudan for instance, the number stands at 53%. This highlights the forced nature of FGM in many of these post-conflict states.

GAUs on the ground in post-conflict states where FGM practices are prevalent must collaborate with international organizations which are at the forefront of the fight against FGM; these include the WHO, UNICEF and the UNFPA. Tackling this form of GBV also requires coordination with the health sectors of these countries; GAUs must therefore facilitate the provision of adequate resources and expertise to develop post-conflict societies' health sectors within a gender-sensitive framework. Furthermore, the WHO emphasizes the need for adequate public information dissemination of FGM practices in order to curb incidences of such GBV. This transmission of knowledge is crucial to empower local women and girls to take a stand against practices which they do not accept.

In order to create the strongest possible policy frameworks to tackle all these forms of GBV in post-conflict societies, GAUs must work with local institutions and governments to implement an 11-point Action Plan. This involves: 1) Spreading awareness through information dissemination and more effective record keeping; 2) Capacity building through communication, coordination and collaboration with organizations such as UN Women and UNICEF; 3) Standardized legal definitions of femicide and other forms of GBV to ensure convictions; 4) Effective sensitivity training for police and health workers to facilitate the early identification of possible violence; 5) Stricter gun laws; arms availability in post-conflict societies tends to be rife; statistics suggest that when a gun is brought into a home, women are three times more likely to be put to death; 6) Promotion of community involvement; 7) Provision of adequate resources and funding for the empowerment of women and girls; 8) Criminalization of offences and closing gaps in law enforcement frameworks; 9) Prevention of abuse through the provision of social protection; 10) The collection, study and dissemination of sex disaggregated data; and 11) Identifying and sharing best practice information and guidelines.

E. Early Marriage

Early and forced marriages are common injustices faced by vulnerable women and girls in post-conflict societies. This phenomenon has been prevalent in developing countries especially in Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa - since time immemorial. Moreover, in many societies, it is considered a cultural and religious norm, thereby facilitating its continuation over time. However, given the ascendency of feminist movements the world over, the last

few decades has brought the phenomenon of early and forced marriages under increasing levels of scrutiny.[88] UNFPA data indicates that over 150 million girls are expected to be married off before the age of 18 in the coming decade. [89] Common causes for early and forced marriages include dire levels of poverty, maintenance of girls' virginity, 'legalized' child labour, child trafficking, and the pervasive issue of a dearth of legislation against such harmful practices. These forced marriages typically involve coercion, trickery and the threat of honour-motivated violence upon refusal; this is usually orchestrated by the patriarchal heads of families in post-conflict societies, and in some cases also involves other female relatives. This occurrence is in turn leading to a multitude of further crises including lower rates of education for young girls, increased incidences of rape and sexual exploitation, unwanted pregnancies, maternal mortality, and forced child labour. Increased numbers of child brides also exacerbate sexual and domestic violence in post-conflict societies. Young brides are often relegated to household chores and treated like employed staff; they are also not allowed much movement apart for in service of their much older husbands. Such circumstances result in stunted social development and the complete deprivation of a normal childhood. Any semblance of agency on the part of these young girls frequently results in domestic violence. The likelihood of 'accidental' stove burnings and 'accidental' acid burns increases with incidences of early marriage. Despite international resolutions and policy guidelines to mitigate the occurrence and subsequent effects of early and forced marriages, however, the crisis prevails.

The brunt of this human rights crisis is manifesting itself in its worst form in vulnerable post-conflict societies. UNICEF reports indicate that the Democratic Republic of Congo has the nineteenth highest rate of child marriage in the world, with 37% of girls getting married before turning 18, and 10% before the age of 15. The absolute value of child brides in the DRC stands at a colossal 1.3 million. In Sudan too, 38% of girls are married off before the age of 18. In Mali, 52% of Malian girls are married before the age of 18, and 17% before turning 15.

In order to comprehensively address the issue, a better international understanding of the phenomenon is required. There is an urgent need for campaigning and policy development which is sustainable, and sensitive to the individual cultural norms of post-conflict societies. Local, grass roots organisations need to be at the heart of this process, so that campaigns are not perceived as Western-led agendas attacking religious and cultural norms in host countries. A perceptional shift is also required, whereby early and forced marriage mitigation is seen beyond simply the scope of developing legislation to control it. Emphasis must be placed on adequate enforcement mechanisms, disseminating information about women's rights and more generally creating an environment on the ground where even the most

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[88]UN Women. *World Conferences on Women*. Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.unwomen.org/en/how-we-work/intergovernmental-support/world-conferences-on-women

[89]UNFPA. (2012). *U. N., Marrying Too Young End Child Marriage*. United Nations Population Fund. https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/MarryingTooYoung.pdf

vulnerable woman can take back her agency and refuse to give in to such violations of her human rights.

Muslim and International law: Data indicates that a large proportion of early and forced marriages occur in the Muslim world; as a result, the responsibility for this human rights violation typically falls on Islam as a whole. It is vital to note however, that unlike commonly held perceptions, the Islamic faith does not promote or condone coercion in this manner. It clearly gives a bride an individual right to accept or reject the 'Nikkah'; it teaches us that consent from both parties to a marriage is essential. The Qur'an states[90] "O you who have believed, it is not lawful for you to inherit women by compulsion..." (4:19). Furthermore, when one closely analyses the teachings of the Sunnah, Sahih al-Bukhari[91], it quotes the Prophet Muhammed (Peace Be Upon Him) as saying: "The widow and the divorced woman shall not be married until her order is obtained, and the virgin girl shall not be married until her permission is obtained." (Bukhari, 67:42). Such evidence clearly indicates that the practice of forced marriage is in no way, a part of the teachings of Islam. Rather, it is a tradition facilitated by deep seated patriarchy.

In the international realm, there have been numerous legal perspectives on the incidence of early and forced marriages. The first treaty to address this issue was 'the Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages,' adopted by the UNGA in 1962. The Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) also recognises[92] that a woman's right to choose is central to her dignity, life and equality as a human being. Therefore, according to CEDAW, Article 16(1)(b), consent is key. As most states have indeed ratified the CEDAW framework, the continuation of child marriages in some states constitutes a clear violation of international human rights law. Similarly, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child93, - ratified by all except for by the US - clearly prohibits child marriages.

Legislation on consent: An analysis of the age of consent identified across the legislation of different Asian countries highlights an interesting trend; it seems that there are in fact, a substantial number of states whose civil laws allow marriage before the age of 18.[94] A 2010 Equality Now report reveals 3 important bands which are crucial for the purpose of this analysis. The first is a list of Asian countries including Vietnam, Taiwan, Oman, Iraq, Cambodia,

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[90] The Noble Qur'an. (n.d.). Retrieved from The Noble Qur'an: https://quran.com/

[91] Sahih Bukhari. (n.d.). Retrieved from Sahih Bukhari: https://www.sahih-bukhari.com/

[92] United Nations International Human Rights Instruments. (1994). General Recommendation (No 21, UN Doc HRI\GEN\1\Rev 1), p.90.

[93] United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner. (n.d.). Conventions on the Rights of the Child. Retrieved from: https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx

[94] Equality Now: A just world for women and girls. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.equalitynow.org/

Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, Mongolia, Singapore and Tajikistan, each of which require consent for marriage at or beyond the age of 18; the fact that this list contains a substantial number of Islamic states highlights that they have indeed reconciled Islamic laws within the contexts of their individual countries. The second band appears more problematic, in that it does specify the minimum age of 18 but also leaves room for certain exceptions. The countries within this category have three types of exceptions: those that require parental consent, those who differentiate between their civil and Mohammadan laws, and those that require civil court consent. The third band is the most worrying because the countries within it either specify legal ages below 18, or in some cases, none at all. Yemen and Saudi Arabia for instance, have no specification for consent or a legal age, Uzbekistan specifies the age of 17 but also 16 under special circumstances, Thailand notes a legal age of 17 but reduces this to 13 given parental consent, Syria notes the age of 17 but 13 given judicial consent, Pakistan specifies the age of 16 as does Malaysia, but allows for a younger age given court consent, Iran notes the age of 16, but 13 with parental consent, Brunei specifies the age of 14, and Azerbaijan and Armenia note the age of 17.

The age of consent-country analysis above presents serious issues for this debate. Firstly, it highlights that the Muslim countries listed above are not making these decisions based on any religious mandate, rather they are doing so in accordance with their historic traditions. Islamic law leaves no room for grey areas; the age a girl can legally be married is after she reaches puberty. Secondly, the age of consent is not 18 in most cases, which is problematic because it shows that there is no recognition of adulthood in the civil laws of these countries.

The dichotomy between Islamic law and civil law in the Muslim countries mentioned above is inherently paradoxical. This highlights that the given data is not truly reflective of the actual situation on the ground in these states. Firstly, there is no way to ensure that civil law minimum ages are adhered to, because in the presence of Islamic law, individuals would be reluctant to report violations out of fear of reprisal from religious clerics. The only time cases get mass public attention are when media reports pick up cases of forced marriages before girls reach puberty; when these girls are married off to older men, or when these marriages take place as a result of some tribal *Jirga* punitive action against families, and the child brides are the punishment or payment for those families. It is clear therefore, that the number of marriages being forced upon girls before reaching adulthood is actually significantly higher than that which is reported and internationally recognised.

This dichotomy deepens when one considers that the civil laws in many Muslim countries allow marriages above puberty which clearly comes into conflict with Islamic law. Marriage in these countries under the civil family law is defined as a union between two intending spouses, contracted with full consent of both spouses. Muslim jurists have settled this issue on the basis of adulthood, having sound mind and having attained puberty. The first issue requiring some semblance of standardization, therefore, is what constitutes adulthood in each country. Still however, as previously noted, even if uniformity was brought to this

question, enforcement of such an understanding would be limited given fear of religious retaliation.

Given this, the struggle for a standardized minimum consent age of 18 may seem futile; but it is not. Addressing the issue of child brides must be seen as an evolutionary process. Only since the recent past, have we seen a push for legislation specific to this occurrence being comprehensively developed and implemented due to a combination of international commitments and the efforts of INGOs, NGOs, parliaments, media and civil societies more generally. GAUs on the ground in vulnerable societies experiencing incidences of early, forced marriages must commit themselves to the power of an enabling environment. By collaborating with national legislatures and advocacy organisations, it is crucial that UN GAUs dedicate considerable resources to establishing a minimum legal age of 18 in post-conflict countries where this is not already the case.

Forced marriages: The notion of coercion is the second aspect of this phenomenon which must be addressed. As previously confirmed, Islamic law does not permit forced marriages; in fact, forced marriages are criminalized in most Muslim countries. However, the same is not true for arranged marriages. Issues arise because quite often, forced marriages are concealed under the guide of arranged ones, and therefore, go undetected. As such, this aspect of the debate is often overlooked, even though the continual fear of violent reprisal still persists in these cases.

In order to comprehensively address and correct incidences of forced marriages, it is crucial to understand the socio-economic factors which create the environment in which these persist. Poverty is considered a fundamental cause of early and forced marriages. Often, parents wish to pass on the responsibility of caring for their female children in order to reduce associated expenses. In some cases, the inability to provide a dowry results in the 'sale' of the child for marriage. This takes on the shape of a somewhat profitable business and facilitates child trafficking as well. Another common reason for marrying off one's young daughter is to avoid the same and social stigma associated with pregnancy outside of marriage. It is considered easier to have them married off than to have to oversee, control or monitor their behavior. Moreover, in cases where girls choose their own partners, possibly outside of their own social, religious, economic or cultural circle, they are forced into marriage with matches considered more 'suitable.' In such cases, a clear motivation is the perceived honour of the family.

Perhaps one of the cruelest causes of early, forced marriages is the tribal tradition to 'compensate' one party's wrong doings through the sale of a young daughter to the wronged party. This tradition of self-proclaimed justice through tribal *jirgas* unilaterally decides the fate of innocent girls. Moreover, Islamic inheritance laws seek to ensure that girls are not cheated out of their due inheritance. Therefore, in order to sidestep this provision, girls are often married off at young ages so that their inheritance money can be distributed amongst

the male heirs.

UN GAUs need to focus on the dissemination of information on the health hazards of early marriages in order to effectively mitigate societies' tendencies to practice them. The more community members are aware of the serious repercussions of early marriages, the more likely they are to be deterred from engaging in them. To this end, UNFPA reports indicate that early marriages increase incidences of maternal and infant mortality. The likelihood of death during childbirth increases five times over when mothers are below the age of 15. Moreover, 65% of obstetric fistula takes place in girls under 18 years of age; in addition to this being an extremely painful disease for the girls in question, it is also likely to cause husbands' rejection, thereby perpetuating cycles of violence. Similarly, an initiative in Kosovo further highlights the importance of knowledge-transfer in addressing the problem. The Network of Roma, Ashkali and Egyptian Women's Organisations in Kosovo (NRAEWOK) has implemented a civil society project to facilitate a reduction in instances of early and forced marriage. Within the EU-UN Women framework, the initiative emphasises the importance of community mobilization and information dissemination to spread awareness, empower women and girls and break gender stereotypes.

A crucial problem of enforcement, is that governments and GAUs cannot execute the required steps – such as establishing SOS hotlines and creating shelters – if there is no legal clarity regarding the criminalization (or lack thereof) of early and forced marriages, due to religious complications. Where the law is clear however, such measures will help mitigate the problem. Therefore, a crucial aspect of addressing early and forced marriages in post-conflict societies is the need for clear legislation.

To this end, the UNFPA specifies five policy interventions which GAUs on the ground must utilise in their policy development to tackle early and forced marriages. Firstly, girls' access to information on their rights, and access to life skill development and support networks must be ensured. Secondly, girls' access to education must be drastically improved. Research indicates that as girls attain higher levels of education, the chances of such human rights violations significantly decrease. Thirdly, community mobilization is crucial to facilitate an attitudinal shift whereby culturally rooted norms and behaviours towards this issue are altered. This requires the engagement of influential members of society. Fourthly, by improving family poverty indicators and girls' ability to be financially independent, the monetary causal factor of early marriage is removed. This may include social safety net cash transfers which are both, unconditional and also conditional on sending girls to school. And finally, it is also crucial to create an enabling legal environment, as well as to sensitise local governments and police units to the reality of this issue so that monitoring and enforcement is comprehensive and effective. These UNFPA recommendations highlight the need to entwine legislative changes with information dissemination in order to best address this problem. It must be stressed that there is no one framework which can be unilaterally applied to all cases of early, forced marriages in post-conflict societies. Each peacekeeping mission must consider the operational environment on the ground and adapt a more general

framework to its specific context.

F. Gender Pay Gap

The issue of gender pay gaps manifests itself in two distinct ways in post-conflict societies; in women peacekeepers and in the local vulnerable women populations. Female inclusion in peacekeeping personnel has been accepted to have a multitude of unique advantages for the purpose of peacebuilding.[95] They have better access to vulnerable women populations, thereby improving intelligence on potential security risks. They screen women in searches for amplifying situational awareness, they de-escalate tensions by building trust within communities better than their male counterparts, and their participation is associated with fewer misconduct complaints, increased receptivity towards civilians, and less threatening attitudes. Despite these and many other benefits of their inclusion in peacekeeping operations, however, almost half of all TCCs so not contribute female personnel to missions. In addition to this, the proportionately fewer women peacekeepers, who are included, experience a considerable gender pay gap from the TCCs in comparison to their male counterparts.

It is important that while the UN is encouraged to pay premiums for women contributions based on the percentage of high ranking women assigned to each contingent, the same premium must be provided for pay scale parity between men and women. Given that it is an established fact that women improve operational effectiveness, then it follows, therefore, that they should be well rewarded for their effectiveness by being compensated at least at par with their male counterparts. A reporting structure needs to exist ensuring that TCCs confirm the same to UN Peacekeeping personnel in order to be eligible for any UN paid premiums.

In addition to this, there is the pervasive gender pay gap within post-conflict societies. In Sierra Leone for example, the mean monthly gender pay gap stands at 46.6%, while the global gender pay gap stands at only 20.5%. Mali and the DRC also exhibit the lowest rates of gender pay parity in Sub-Saharan Africa. GAUs must be able to gauge exact pay gaps in order to address them most effectively. Most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have no standalone wage surveys or administrative records for this purpose. To this end, GAUs must undertake some form of household income survey on the ground. Invariably, whether within the DDR process – where men are given preference over women in terms of reintegration and general employment opportunities – or elsewhere, it is likely that attitudinal shifts on gender pay gaps have not yet occurred. In order to facilitate this transition, the GAU must, as a

[95]Council on Foreign Relations. (2018). *Increasing Female Participation in Peacekeeping Operations*. Retrieved from: https://www.cfr.org/report/increasing-female-participation-peacekeeping-operations

starting point, ensure equal pay for work given to DDR communities. This needs to be effectively legislated within post-conflict states. This is an effective starting point beyond which the promotion of equality of pay in all fields can be promoted. When the benefits of gender pay parity within PKOs is recognized, the same can be mapped onto the host community more generally.

G. Meaningful Participation in Democracy and Decision making Top Positions

Women's meaningful participation in peacekeeping also operates on two levels: again, the first being within female peacekeepers, and the second on the ground within local communities in the host country.

For women peacekeepers, the only real leverage the UN can have by way of meaningful participation in democracy, is insisting that its members – whether TCCs or fund contributors – provide names of senior women from their respective national institutions for positions within peacekeeping missions. There must be a required minimum number of women or a standardized premium on forwarding names to encourage the highest possible levels of female representation. The proposed candidates must be of exceptional qualification because it is crucial that they compete with men on merit for these positions; this is key to ensure legitimacy and credibility.

Within local communities, meaningful participation is crucial to facilitate gender-sensitive peacebuilding and reconstruction on the ground. Firstly, there needs to be uniformity in terms of what constitutes democratic practices, so that fragile post-conflict states have the opportunity to develop in accordance with commonly accepted legislative standards. The most basic starting point for this process is the imposition of female quotas for parliamentary seats for a specific period of time, in order to facilitate the inclusion of a gender perspective within national legislatures. Lessons from countries where such measures have been implemented show great potential; whether it is within the upper house (Senate), lower house (National Assembly) or the local government (grassroots democracy), all these legislative forums require a certain percentage of guaranteed female legislators for gender gaps to be comprehensively corrected. Prior to 1995, only about 6 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa included quotas within their governments; whereas, by 2019 more than half of Sub-Saharan African states have implemented gender quotas to increase women's representation. For instance, Mali utilises voluntary party quotas, whereas Sudan implemented a 25% quota in the aftermath of conflict in the region.

In parliamentary democracies, there are two ways to achieve this: selection of women by party leadership, or direct election. The two can be applied depending on the state of the democracy. The advantage of the direct election route is clear; it brings legitimacy to those female candidates who ultimately reach parliament. In post-conflict societies, it is these women who will then be able to exercise more decision making power over conflict

resolution and peace negotiations. In the absence of any allegiance to a party or party leadership, these women will be in a better position to act independently of the male agency which typically dominates such arenas.

It is crucial for GAUs operating in post-conflict societies to encourage this female representation in all stages. Information dissemination regarding women's rights to lead, coupled with capacity building is crucial; this could include increased access to education and leadership skills. Such methods must be carried out in collaboration with local women's rights organizations and national leaders to ensure maximum impact; because governing bodies and decision making roles tend to be male dominated arenas, it is essential that GAUs on the ground coordinate their activities with local and international bodies with sufficient authority and influence.

H. Sexual Harassment and Women Trafficking

Gender based violence and its associated legislative challenges have been detailed in Part 2. It is important that the same recommendations are followed so that legislation in post-conflict societies and TCCs can be brought up to internationally accepted standards. Only when national judicial processes fare well in comparison to their international counterparts will convictions increase and prevailing cultures of impunity be overridden. When SEA crime definitions and categorizations will differ in host and TCC countries, the certainty of punishment will decrease. Therefore, it is imperative that GAUs on the ground coordinate their activities with international bodies and in accordance with international conventions in order to equalize standards.

I. Reproductive, Child and Maternal Health

By reproductive, child and maternal health, those interventions are of relevance and importance that are designed to counter the possible threats across the passage of life of women and children, pre, during and post pregnancy, the first 28 days of a newborn's life, and children till their fifth birthday.[96] It has been proved through studies that armed attacks adversely affect the reproductive, maternal and child health. According to a study, 13 national surveys were evaluated across the sub-Saharan African countries that suffered the highest number of armed conflicts from 1990-2016 revealed a positive relation between a sharp deterioration in the reproductive, maternal, and child health (especially under-5

[96]Black, R. E., Laxminarayan, R., Temmerman, M., & Walker, N. (2016). *Disease Control Priorities*, Third Edition: Volume 2. Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn and Child Health. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank.

mortality rate) and armed conflicts.[97] The host population of the highly fragile post-conflict countries is subject to a higher level of child mortality rates than their counterparts with similar social status in non-armed conflict countries.[98] Women and children fall among the most vulnerable/marginalized members of the society; for this reason, they often fall victim to armed conflicts. In Colombia, a study showed that the functioning of the municipalities was directly linked with the levels of conflicts, which also aggravated reproductive and child health, and other key social factors such as access to health care facilities. Moreover, information that was imperative to disseminate among the remote communities regarding reproductive health was a difficult task, as according to the leaders of such indigenous communities, higher levels of conflict aggravate instances of child morbidity, and/or maternal and neonatal mortality.

Another stance in this regard comes from the officials of the United Nations that the conflict situations of many of the regions of Colombia force the locals to stay where they already are, as a pregnant woman would be prone to be victimized if she were to be relocated. The health facilities in Colombia have been provided a chance to be registered as Women and Child Friendly Institution (IAMI) which was an initiative taken by the national government in collaboration with UNICEF. This strategy took actions to guide the population regarding reproductive, child and maternal health. But this too was not possible for the facilities established in areas with higher levels of armed conflicts.[99]

It is imperative to keep the legislature in line with the reproductive, child and maternal health of the post-conflict societies. As many fragile societies are unable to pursue the medical care, and hence are unaware of the reproductive health care basics, health information needs to be assured to have reached such remote communities. The governments need to collaborate with the GAUs for this purpose. Gender-sensitive workshops must be arranged so as to reach the target population in this regard.

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[97] Jaraba, S. M., Toro, N. Q., Sierra, M. O., Sánchez, L. R., Jiménez, M. A., Salazar-Barrientos, M. Y., Bedoya, E B., Álvarez, G A., Langer, A., Gausman, J., Garcés-Palacio, I C. (2020, May 27). Health in conflict and post-conflict settings: reproductive, maternal and child health in Colombia. *Conflict and Health, 14*(33), 52-72. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13031-020-00273-1

[98] Akseer, N., Wright, J., Tasic, H., Everett, K., Scudder, E., Amsalu, R., Ties, B., Eran, B., Mahdis, K., Aluisio, B., Silva, I., Bhutta, Z A. (2020, January 26). Women, children and adolescents in conflict countries: an assessment of inequalities in intervention coverage and survival. *BMJ Global Health, 5*, Article e002214. https://doi:10.1136/ bmjgh-2019-002214 https://doi:10.1136/ bmjgh-2019-002214

[99] Black, R. E., Laxminarayan, R., Temmerman, M., & Walker, N., (2016).

3. Health Priorities in Peacekeeping

Conflict ridden states are faced with two simultaneous healthcare priorities; the first is protecting the health of UN peacekeepers themselves, and the second is the establishment of adequate health services for the local populations on the ground – specifically for the most vulnerable sections of post-conflict societies, that is, the marginalized women and children. These two priorities are inherently interlinked as both peacekeepers and locals work together, and are therefore exposed to similar health risks, pandemics, irrespective of the differing levels of access they have to health services. As in many peacekeeping operations, the peacekeepers might be vulnerable to many infectious diseases like malaria or dengue prevailing in the host population. Nevertheless, there have been cases opposite to this scenario as well; for instance, Cholera has been reported to have spread in the host population of Haiti from the peacekeeping troops. Hence, both the peacekeepers and the locals share health risks. The main threats that bloom in mind when we talk about health and peacekeeping operations are: death, physical harm, and/or mental suffering.[100]

Conflict invariably affects local health systems due to increased violence and the spread of infectious diseases; furthermore, as conflict reduces access to healthcare facilities, destroys healthcare infrastructure, lessens the number of available healthcare workers, and disrupts drug supplies, post-conflict societies tend to be plagued with a multitude of different healthcare difficulties. Two SDG goals are directly affected by the impact of conflict on local healthcare systems; SDG 3, Health for all and SDG 16, towards peace and justice. The challenge to protect, provide, and maintain adequate health services in conflict zones falls on UN peacebuilding teams and various development and humanitarian aid stakeholders. Through coordination and collaboration, they can protect vulnerable populations from disease and death by creating suitable healthcare systems prior to, during, and post-conflict. Throughout this process, it is crucial to maintain gender-sensitivity because the well-being of women and girls – that is, their protection from human rights violations – is directly related to the health outcomes of communities as a whole.

Battle related deaths have increased dramatically as armed conflict has escalated in the Middle East[101]; Syria alone saw 141,948 deaths by the year 2016. This increased violence has been accompanied by a pattern of the systematic erosion of all principles of International Humanitarian Law (IHL), with increased attacks on healthcare facilities. UNSC Resolution

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[100] Davies, S. E., & Rushton, S. (2015). *Healing or Harming? United Nations Peacekeeping and Health Providing for Peacekeeping* No. 9. International Peace Institute (IPI). Retrieved September 25, 2020, from https://www.ipinst.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/IPI_Rpt_Health_and_Peacekeeping.pdf

[101] Druce, P., Bogatyreva, E., Siem, F. F., Gates, S., Kaade, H., Sundby, J., Rostrup, M., Andersen, C., Rustad, S., Tchie, A., Mood, R., Nygård, H., Urdal, H., Winkler, A S. (2019, January 29). Approaches to protect and maintain health care services in armed conflict – meeting SDGs 3 and 16. *Conflict and Health, 13*, Article 2. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13031-019-0186-0

2286 was adopted to condemn and mitigate such trends; however, unless such breaches of IHL are not sanctioned strongly enough, attacks on healthcare facilities will continue to increase. Medical neutrality is a fundamental principle of civilized societies; it refers to principles of non-interference in medical services in conflict zones. It promotes the freedom of health personnel to attend to the sick irrespective of political affiliations related to conflict. The targeting of these health workers is a manifestation of irregular violence. Since the 1990s, attitudes towards the neutrality of medical personnel have been in transition; with the war on terror following 9/11, this neutrality is eroding fast. Hospitals are no longer necessarily safe spaces. The worst health impacts of this eroding neutrality is on women and children who suffer most as a result.

One of the most relevant examples in this regard is the Phebe Hospital of Liberia, when Dr. Walter Gwenigale was targeted in 1994 and 2002, including the looting of hospital equipment and attacks on the staff. Conflict-stricken areas pose grave danger and vulnerability to the health workers and facilities. They are usually targeted through bombing, shelling, or gun-shooting; this also prevents the needy to seek critical, or even basic health treatment.[102] According to a study, about 655 violent and armed attacks have been located on the health units in sixteen countries, in about two and a half years.[103] The effect of this shift has been felt intensely by women and children specifically; what was once a safe space for the marginalized, is now increasingly becoming just another part of the battlefield. The healthcare professionals of the civilian side who are at risk of attack in conflicts are as follows: midwives, nurses, paramedics, pharmacists, physicians, laboratory technicians, community health workers as well as medical students and trainees.[104]

In order to understand the declining respect of International human rights law, it is crucial to recognize the politicization of humanitarian work. The same applies to the shift in UNDPKO activity in peacekeeping zones, from traditional peacekeeping to integrated peacebuilding; with this shift, peacekeepers lose their neutrality just as healthcare facilities lose their safe zone status. Consequently, increasing violence and strikes on health related infrastructure such as electricity and water supply have adversely affected the ability of healthcare workers and facilities to effectively handle infectious diseases. The impact on child mortality for example, is far greater than those directly killed in combat; the Norwegian Red Cross has calculated that infant mortality increases by 13% when conflict continues for five years, and malnutrition and disease related deaths overtake those occurring in conflict. Increasing risks

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[102] Haar, R. J., & Rubenstein, L. S. (2012). *Health in Post-Conflict and Fragile States.* United States Institute of Peace. https://www.usip.org/sites/default/files/SR_301.pdf

[103] Coupland, R., Wille, C., Taback, N., & Regard, S. (2011). *A Sixteen-Country Study Health Care in Danger.* International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC). https://www.icrc.org/en/doc/assets/files/reports/4073-002-16-country-study.pdf

[104] Bou-Karroum, L., El-Harakeh, A., Kassamany, I., Ismail, H., Arnaout, N. E., Charide, R., Madi, F., Jamali, S., Martineau, T., El-Jardali, F., Akl, E A. (2020, May 29). Health care workers in conflict and post-conflict settings: Systematic mapping of the evidence. *PloS One, 15*(5), Article e0233757. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0233757

of doctors being targeted or kidnapped has a direct impact on the safety of patients, thereby contributing to the worsening of health conditions in conflict prone communities. Moreover, a study of World Health survey showed that about 378,000 annual deaths were recorded under the umbrella of war-related on-violent deaths from 1985 to 1994.[105] About 87 percent civilian deaths that were recorded above the usual benchmark were non-violent in Darfur, from 2003 to 2008.[106] It therefore creates a vicious and unending cycle.

Fragile and conflict-affected states (FCAS), in which UN peacekeeping missions function, usually lag behind in achieving international health goals because of their weak health systems.[107] FCAS constitute about one-sixth of the global population; these areas have suffered most of the conflict-related activities, and hence have a damaged and below par health infrastructure. This also compels the health workers to evacuate the facilities which leads to further deterioration of the already poorly equipped units.[108] It is important for peacekeeping missions to contribute to improved health systems for their affected populations, by understanding the state of the healthcare workforce and systems of health financing in their territories.

Health systems vary in transitional environment, from humanitarian aid to development support. The variables that affect health system outputs are plenty; these include health system resilience in fragile settings, gender health equity, accessibility amidst conflict, capacity planning of health systems, community involvement and community health worker's availability, healthcare delivery models most capable of delivering in conflict, human resources for health management, and health financing availability. Health systems in fragile states function amidst a multitude of different challenges;[109] they may be operating in a variety of difficult settings such as police states, poorly governed states, localized conflicts, chronic ethnic unrest, and economic crises. Each of these constitute varying levels of violence, and consequently have differing effects on the security and conditions of health systems for the vulnerable.

It is essential for UN peacekeeping mandates to include protecting, fixing and building local

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[105]Obermeyer, Z., Murray, C., & Gakidou, E. (2008, June 28). Fifty years of violent war deaths from Vietnam to Bosnia: analysis of data from the world health survey programme. *British Medical Journal, 336*(7659), 1482. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.a498

[106]Degomme, O., & Guha-Sapir, D. (2010, January 23). Patterns of Mortality Rates in Darfur Conflict. *Lancet, 375*(9711), 294-300. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(09)61967-X

[107]Woodward, A., Sondorp, E., Witter, S., & Martineau, T. (2016, July 21). Health systems research in fragile and conflict-affected states: a research agenda-setting exercise. *BioMed Cental, 14*, Article 51. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12961-016-0124-1

[108]Haar, R. J., & Rubenstein, L. S. (2012).

[109]McPake, B. (n.d.). Health systems in conflict affected states - are they different from in other low and middle income countries? Early ideas from the work of the ReBUILD programme. Retrieved from ReBUILD Consortium: https://rebuildconsortium.com/media/1110/health-systems-in-post-conflict-settings-are-they-different-from-other-low-and-middle-income-countries.pdf

health systems; if this is not attended to, cycles of violence persist and poverty levels worsen. Peacekeepers function in regions which see one third of the world's maternal deaths, where 50% of children die before the age of five, and which are reservoirs for disease, conflict and terrorism. Operating in environments with crumbling health systems poses a number of significant challenges to peacekeeping teams. These include non-existent capacity building systems, lack of infrastructure for healthcare delivery, ineffective referral systems, lack of management capacity, non-operational health systems, lack of health policies, inequality in health services allocation including discrimination against women, and lack of coordination of health services. In order to address and tackle such challenges, there are certain aspects of the UN peacekeeping response mechanism which must be adhered to. These design priorities include social solidarity, inclusion and equity, reconciliation, human rights, and public participation.

Even so, certain challenges remain. For instance, conflict inevitably upsets healthcare labour markets through depressed production and recruitment, severed employment ties, accelerated outward migration of workforce, and accelerated inward migration of expatriate workforce. This combination often results in the emergence of multiple healthcare agents; during and post-conflict, many non-state health actors such as international and local NGOs and private sector entrepreneurs attain prominence in local communities. Often, post-conflict societies have little capacity to coordinate with these powerful non-state actors. Multiple actors also contribute to the fragmentation of incentive packages and remuneration. A further challenge is that the aftermath of conflict sees an immediate injection of international donor funds; this increases reliance on foreign interventions in domestic health policy making, and reduces local capacity and good state governance on healthcare. Three common trends which are heavily donor dependent and therefore inadequate as post-conflict health systems are free health care policy, large salary uplifts for health professionals, and performance based contracts.

Health and Gender

The gender equity provisions required in accordance with UNSCR 1325 is currently limited to dealing with sexual violence and child and maternal healthcare; these constitute ad hoc responses as opposed to comprehensively drafted long term plans. Often health systems are superficially integrated with apparent gender provisions but without any real reform or reconstructive practices; this results in an absence of genuine gender responsive approaches.

In theory, post-conflict zones should provide a unique opportunity to reform health systems with a gender perspective, as donors tend to be eager to facilitate improvement through their funding.[110] In these situations, political barriers and social norms are momentarily

[110]Percival, V., Dusabe-Richards, E., Wurie, H., Namakula, J., Ssali, S., & Theobald, S. (2018, August 30). Are health systems interventions gender blind? examining health system reconstruction in conflict affected states. *Global Health, 14*(1), Article

absent, allowing for effective gender mainstreaming. The question, of course, is whether this expectation translates from theory to practice. A persistent problem however is, if and how one can disentangle inherent inequalities within health systems from the inadequacies of health services in conflict zones. The violent nature of conflict in regions such as Mozambique, Timor Leste, Sierra Leone, and Northern Uganda was accompanied by increasing indicators of domestic violence against women; for instance, increased instances of female genital mutilation. Such cases of GBV led to the highest maternal mortality rates with reportedly 953 deaths per 100,000 live births. Maternal mortality rates, fertility rates, HIV rates and contraceptive prevalence all reflected gender inequity.

There are six useful benchmarks which can be used to evaluate health systems in post-conflict societies; the first is health system governance. National governments must promote gender equity within health systems and decentralize them without forgoing its commitment to gender-sensitivity. Decentralization should enhance health system responsiveness; however, if this is carried out without essential human, institutional and financial resources, the system will not be able to fulfill gender needs. Leadership practices are key for this benchmark. The establishment of Gender Focal Points within Ministries of Health and integrated strategies for gender mainstreaming are crucial. Such goals are hindered by limited gender skills, inadequate gender sensitive policymaking, inadequate STI/HIV/AIDS feminization, and the restriction of gender concerns on GBV and maternal mortality concerns. Donor influx and fragmentation is another important element of this benchmark; whether or not donor funds are able to facilitate more gender equitable health systems is not always clear. Moreover, these donations are usually channeled to address GBV and maternal health, thereby largely ignoring broader systemic failures of gender mainstreaming within the health sector.

The second benchmark is health service deliveries, which must be gender equitable. While governments do commit to basic, minimum packages of health services for pregnant women and children, the quantities and quality of services often remain inadequate due to geographical, financial and cultural barriers. This has clear impacts on effective gender responsiveness. Certain regressive gender and cultural norms also impede health access for women; abusive behavior and a lack of respect often characterizes healthcare service delivery. Further, prenatal healthcare is also typically frowned upon in many communities, and as such, these norms are also impediments to service delivery for vulnerable women. Fear of stigma of HIV is another factor undermining female access to healthcare.

The third benchmark is human resources. Shortage of health workers often leads to deteriorating gender related health deliveries. Shortage of doctors during pandemics put significant pressure on nurses; as do the lack of availability of female health workers in rural

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90. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12992-018-0401-6.

areas. The issue of unpaid female community health workers leaves rural health deliveries in a myriad of problems. Whilst severe shortages of staff affect all, women are disproportionately affected because of their heavier reliance on healthcare services. Human resource planning lacked gender considerations in the causes of Mozambique, Timor Leste, Sierra Leone and Northern Uganda. Health worker recruitment and distribution is arguably one of the most important factors affecting health system performance; it directly affects the ability of the health system to respond appropriately and in a timely manner, and is particularly vital for the rebuilding of resilient post-conflict health systems.

The fourth benchmark is health information systems. For these systems to be gender sensitive, they must identify gendered dimensions of health outcomes. Data must be sex disaggregated, and rapid data analysis systems must be put in place; this includes the transition from paper based to electronic record keeping. Health information systems in post-conflict societies tend to be manual as opposed to electronic; this makes gendered planning and resource allocation arduous. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) supported the government of Zambia on national, provincial and district level through their capacity building, in order to disaggregate the data on the basis of sex and other stratified indicators. Major factors of capacity building were in-depth analysis, data generating, and using the data disaggregated on the basis of sex, geographic location and wealth quintile. WHO developed a Gender, Equity and Human Rights (GER) team in 2012 in order to trace the health discrimination on a global level as a result of the gender inequalities or inequities. Integration of gender into all the levels of health information system (HIS) was deemed a prerequisite for its Roadmap for Action 2014-2019.

The fifth benchmark is health financing for gender. A common difficulty in post-conflict societies is a lack of transparency in gender spending. Moreover, under resourced systems have also disproportionately, and heavily, affected the female population. When under resourcing is combined with donor dependence, gendering healthcare priorities becomes difficult. Countries like India show a significant gendered gap in health services.

The sixth benchmark is medical products and technology. In order to ensure gender equity, health systems must facilitate equitable access to medical products. Women tend to be disproportionately affected by drug stock outs and equipment shortages; given the high levels of dependence on these services during pregnancy, such shortages are further damaging for women. A dearth of contraceptives, blood pressure machines, immunization vaccines for children, ultrasound machines, birth control pills, and natal medicines leads to severe setbacks in women's health indicators.

It is crucial to identify the shortcomings of each of these six benchmarks moving forward; UN peacebuilding teams must monitor all these factors on the ground in host communities with relevant stakeholders so that the difficulties experienced in the past are not repeated; and so that health system improvement continues with gender sensitization. Monitoring and evaluation necessitates a need for an impartial system of judgement, whereby the influence

and priorities of donors do not obstruct those of the national health system at large. To this end, on the ground monitoring and evaluation must be accompanied by some semblance of a national health strategy to ensure that there is no directional discrepancy. To this end, the High Office of Oversight and Anti-Corruption (HOO) established in Afghanistan has seen some success, however, this does require a stable, functioning local government. In post-conflict societies where this is not available, a multilateral organization handling the reconstruction phase must assume this responsibility until local governing bodies can do so.

The identification of the shortcomings for each of these six benchmarks is important for moving forward. UN peacebuilding teams must monitor the same in peacekeeping settings with relevant stakeholders so that history is not repeated and health systems improve with gender sensitizations versus minus them. Five key components of a gender equitable health system include the provision of health services which recognize and address the most urgent healthcare needs of men and women; ensuring men and women can access those healthcare services without social, geographical and financial impediments; the provision of relevant, sex disaggregated health information to inform policy development; the provision of equal opportunities for male and female health professionals; and ensuring equitable health outcomes across populations irrespective of gender. International health systems focus on the WHO bricks approach for the foundation of their gendered methodology; a combination of skilled personnel, gender sensitive financing and access to medicines and technology ensure optimal gendered health outputs. The UNFPA also helped Zambia through the development of a Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) plan and its implementation. This consisted of generating as well as documenting the gender related programs and policies, information and relevant data.

International health systems focus on the WHO bricks approach for gender building blocks. The mortar or hardware of gender focused healthcare is the skilled personnel, gender sensitive financing, access to medicines and technology. Together, they combine to give the optimal gender health outputs. However, while the international community tends to focus on these strategies with targets on antenatal visits, attended births and girls enrolled in schools, a more comprehensive approach is needed. The emphasis on respectful non-discriminatory behavior towards women is essential. The impact of healthcare workers on men's social behaviors is hardly ever addressed in health reforms regardless of the potential this has to positively affect women. Health workers can stop smoking, reduce and discourage violence, and encourage safer sexual behaviors in order to reduce discriminatory behavior.

'Gender equality' and 'gender equity' are terms which are interchangeably used. Equality refers to individuals objectively possessing the same rights and receiving the same benefits; equity acknowledges differences in social and economic factors that result in unequal opportunities; thus necessitating higher levels of distribution to disadvantaged groups like women. The impacts of gender biases on the health outcomes of women include sex selection, boy child bias during pregnancy, early forced marriages, child birth practices that are harmful to women, and the perennial failure to protect women's rights. The fact that

women are economically lower on the ladder also affects their communication with health workers. Women have different exposure to disease, disability and injury in conflict zones than men; this discrimination of healthcare workers results in ignorant diagnosis for women, which aggravates their heath indicators. Gender pay gap issues also exist for healthcare workers in post-conflict settings which further affects the quality of their services. Health outcomes are quite adversely affected if the services are not equitable. For example, in Bostwana, healthcare seeking is considered equivalent to asking for help. Therefore, the men do not seek healthcare timely as they believe it puts a question mark to their masculinity. This kind of behavior makes the women more vulnerable to catching diseases like HIV from their sexual male partners.

Whilst conflict kills more men than women, those women who are left behind in host communities are often at risk of sexual and gender based violence (SGBV). These are the same women who require health services more strongly, due to their innate reproductive roles. Rates of unsafe abortions and maternal mortality are both common consequences of violent conflict for women. The problem worsens when conflict displaces medical personnel; lack of funding and interruption of supply chains adversely affects patients. Insecure environments coupled cultural restrictions makes healthcare access more difficult for women, even though they require these services more strongly and in more time-sensitive circumstances.

Humanitarian programming focuses on sexual violence and maternal health more so than any other health risk faced by women in post-conflict societies. As mentioned before however, this is too narrow an approach as it overlooks various crucial aspects of gendered sensitive programming. Maternal health services for instance, must be integrated with treatments related to other health needs such as tuberculosis and cataracts, in order to increase cost effectiveness; women visiting health facilities for multiple health needs reduces their transportation and social costs. However, integration is difficult even in normal settings; in post-conflict environments therefore, it is that much harder. Managers need to integrate primary and specialist services, implement high level planning, budgeting, purchasing, and training. To this end, contracting for the delivery of basic packages of essential health services (BPHS) is a model which successfully worked in Afghanistan and is therefore considered useful in conflict settings. However, there are limitations to how gender responsive such a system can be; often BPHS is restricted to family planning and motherhood interventions; in some states it does not include the entire ambit of women related critical services. Barriers to access therefore persist, and comprehensive coverage is not ensured. This is the gap which needs to be filled by UNDPKO teams on the ground in post-conflict peacebuilding missions, so that stakeholders of healthcare systems can improve BPHS. Another crucial factor which must be monitored is whether the donor-determined emphasis on certain gender based priorities in the health sector is maintained when foreign agents leave host countries.

On the issue of contracting, it must be noted that the operational environment of post-

conflict settings does not facilitate easy contracting to external agents such as NGOs. These agents are often unable or unwilling to directly fund public services, and are therefore reliant on pooled funds, as was the case in Afghanistan. However, the environment of all post-conflict societies does not facilitate this process – for instance, in the case of South Sudan, logistical and security challenged severely hindered the effective implementation of contracted programs.

As previously noted, post-conflict systems combine public and private healthcare providers; the successful merging of the two, avoiding duplication, is a crucial responsibility of post-conflict national governments. Regulating the activities of these providers poses a significant challenge for them. While women are a majority in the health workforce, their occupation of senior positions with decision making authority is less likely. Affirmative action in training of female doctors is also lacking; and little attention is paid to recruitment, retention and career advancement for women health workers. Moreover, post-conflict settings have seen an increase in women community health workers (CHW) as of late, however their remuneration due to previous voluntary statuses remains problematic. This gap needs to be comprehensively addressed for better healthcare delivery in the future.

Sex disaggregated health information is not always enough for gender equity either; it is crucial for health information to determine how gender inequities actually influence health outcomes. In conflict settings, such data is often unavailable. Similar sex disaggregated data is also lacking for children. Sometimes disease data is divided but data regarding the services used is not. There is a need to design a standardized system of sex disaggregated health information for post-conflict societies, and to ensure its effective collection and analysis; and also to ensure that policy development is truly reliant on the insights provided within such data sets.

Health financing determines availability of health care, financial protection, and who can access it. Literature on FCAS indicates that these environments are often characterized by reduced public funding and increased private spending. Public funding typically only covers health worker salaries, and allocates specifically for drug procurement and delivery remain limited. In regions facing prolonged conflicts such as the DRC and CAR, even minimal health worker salaries often do not reach employees; in such cases, out of pocket payments for the local populations increase. Since women have more health needs they incur more out of pocket payments. Equitable financing for women in post-conflict settings is therefore imperative. States do contribute to some form of universal health care, and donors in post-conflict settings can contribute to this objective by directing more budgetary support for the same. Here too however, the risk of donor dependence prevails. Moreover, direct budgetary support without oversight is likely to lead to encourage corruption. For a sustainable approach to domestic sources of funding, social private insurances, user fees and community financing need to be built into the system.

User fees have been used in conflict states and can raise unrestricted funds which stay at the

local level. If this is accompanied by formal and informal fees, the burden on the vulnerable can be immense, as per a DFID 2010 report, user fees are seen as restricting the poorest and most marginalized communities from access to services in conflict settings. Since women are largest users of health systems, user fees discourage them from comprehensively using the system; this causes cases of untreated illnesses to grow exponentially. Social health insurance schemes are typically reserved for the formal sector, which does not cater to women in conflict zones, private insurance remains unregulated and only exacerbates discriminatory biases and behaviors. What can prove to be more useful however, is a form of national insurance which is government funded and linked to social safety poverty scorecards, thereby delivering adequate help to the most vulnerable women in the system. This method is growing more and more popular in conflict zones. Along with this, disability cards for the poorest women in society have also been used and have shown to lessen inequity in the system.

Social health insurance is one of the best possible instruments for pooling funds in order to finance healthcare services. SHI covers tax financing, community health insurance, private health insurance etc. In general SHI systems, the people who are in the workforce including the ones who are self-employed pay a certain amount that covers the health and other benefits. In most of the countries the people are obliged to pay contributions by the law of the country. Many governments provide subsidies to improve financial sustainability.[111]

Social health insurance schemes have generally been for the formal sector employed which doesn't necessarily cater for women in conflict zones. Private insurance is unregulated and creates more discrimination. What is perhaps more useful is a form of national insurance, which is government funded linked to social safety poverty scorecards thus delivering the biggest help to the most vulnerable and poor women in the system. This has recently been the trend and needs implementation in conflict zones. Along with this disability cards for the poorest women has also been a trend which has fixed inequities.

The implementation of the Prime Minister National Health Insurance Programme (PMNHIP) in Pakistan is an example of a government funded framework within the health sector which facilitates access to adequate medical services, for the poorest and most marginalised members of society. The health programme initiated by the Prime Minister is a he milestone which leads to many socio economic reforms for the under privileged people that are spread across the country. The basic aim is to provide medical health care in a very dignified manner without any financial difficulties. It mainly targets the underprivileged people of the country and provides them with best health care facilities. The eligibility of the treatment depends on the inpatient basis, which may be secondary or emergency treatment.[112]PMNHIP

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[111]Doetinchem, O., Carrin, G., & Evans, D. (2010). *Thinking of introducing social health insurance? Ten questions.* World Health Organisation. https://www.who.int/health_financing/documents/pb_e_09_04-10qshi.pdf?ua=1

[112] *Prime Minister National Health Program*. Retrieved from NADRA: https://www.nadra.gov.pk/local-projects/social-protection/prime-minister-national-health-program/

provides individuals with medical coverage up to an amount of 50,000 PKR generally, and up to 300, 00 PKR for seven specifically costly diseases including cancer, diabetes and cardiovascular diseases. The implementation of similar schemes in post-conflict zones should follow similar guidelines, it may be useful for instance, to single out certain health conditions which are common in individual conflict zones and include them as part of this special coverage.

The implementation of the Insaf Card in Pakistan's northern areas is another example of a national insurance card aimed at increasing access to healthcare facilities and reducing poverty by curtailing the need for out of pocket payments. This initiative was a collaborative affair between the governments, private sector hospitals and insurance companies of the KP province; this framework of a public-private partnership could be useful in post-conflict settings where fragile governments may not be able to unilaterally bear the burden of financing such schemes.

The Governmental Health Insurance (GHI) plan in Palestine is another example of a similar initiative; it must be noted however, that GHI was not found to have reduced levels of inequity. Moving forward, the use of national insurance strategies in post-conflict environments must be geared towards specifically closing the gender health gap. All these models need replicating in conflict zones to lessen the burden of health costs on vulnerable women and children.

Community financing schemes called Mutual Health Insurance could also prove to be useful in post-conflict settings. Such frameworks involve community based voluntary prepayment schemes and have been implemented in Sub-Saharan countries. Maintaining gender sensitivity within these schemes has however continued to pose a significant challenge, consequently, gender responsive budgets must be ensured, to guarantee that gender responsive budgeting is not restricted to only maternal health and violence.

The provision of medical products and technologies to women is also impeded by cultural norms and biases. Post-conflict health systems must be sure to avoid such biases and ensure comprehensive access for women. The myth of gender neutral medical products and technologies must be shattered, especially for conflict zones, so that inequities are reduced. To comprehensively achieve such targets, it goes without saying that women must enter decision making positions across the board, this includes within the UN, in DPKO GAUs, development partner organizations, governments and NGOs.

Health in Peacekeeping amidst COVID-19

Amidst the COVID-19 pandemic, the UNDPKO is coordinating its activities with a wide range

of actors such as the WHO, the Division of Healthcare Management and Occupational Safety and Health, the Department of Operational Support and the Office of Military Affairs. The department has provided detailed guidelines to promote health and safety, and addressing methods to mitigate the spread of COVID-19 in all aspects of peacekeeping missions' activities. For instance, the Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions (OROLSI) have prepared operational guidance on this matter. The Justice and Corrections Services and UNITAR have collaborated to prepare an operational toolbox addressing the spread of the pandemic in prisons, geared towards prison staff and administrators; it proposes prison decongestion and guaranteed remote access to justice during and after the pandemic.

One of the key elements of the WPS agenda is inculcating women in peacemaking. The participation of women is vital to attaining sustainable solutions in the wake of the pandemic. The WPS agenda tries to offer an analytical perspective to understand and take action accordingly. COVID-19 has affected all sectors of the populations, but women have been subjected to certain hurdles in getting equal treatment and participation in the decision making process amidst the pandemic. The participation of women in the decision making process helps to broaden the issues under discussion and increases the likelihood of addressing the root cause of certain conflicts in addition to reaching the local masses that and providing awareness to them, most of which are women who are running the households. The women participate in the peacekeeping processes through direct (delegation members, advisors, mediators etc.) participation, and through Indirect (observers, members of advocacy board and briefers) participation and have played an instrumental role in addressing the pandemic in a gender sensitive way.[113]

In light of the prevailing health and safety restrictions, the DPKO has been forced to halt many of its community outreach programs. However, the Strategic Communication Section of the Department of Peace Operations has outlined a number of innovative alternative practices being employed in UN missions to facilitate information dissemination regarding COVID-19 and to counter misinformation. To this end, UN missions are utilizing all viable avenues for this purpose, from radio services and social media to posters and billboards and messaging platforms.

Similarly, the UN gender unit has also prepared an analysis of COVID-19 and Women, Peace and Security (WPS), detailing the reorientation of the WPS agenda in light of the current situation. Past experiences of infectious disease outbreaks have shown that such occurrences can reinforce existing inequalities, the Coronavirus pandemic, therefore is sure to have far reaching gendered implications. UN Women has highlighted five key areas which exacerbate the vulnerability of women and girls in post-conflict societies in light of COVID-

[113]Women, U. (2020). *COVID-19 and conflict: Advancing women's meaningful participation in ceasefires and peace processes*. United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women). Department of Political and Peacebuilding Affairs (DPPA). Retrieved from https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2020/08/policy-brief-covid-19-and-conflict

19. These include, increased risks of GBV, unemployment, economic and livelihood impacts, unequal distribution of care and domestic work, women's exclusion in informed and effective COVID-19 response mechanisms, and gender blind policy response mechanisms and plans.

MINUSCA - CAR

MINUSCA units have dedicated 80% of their Radio Guira FM broadcast contents to CONVID-19 information dissemination. The mission has partnered with 15 local radio stations and distributed 50,000 'wind up radio sets' to local populations, especially to the marginalized women in areas such as Bangui, to offset their typically restricted access to information. The mission's radio stations also produce weekly home schooling material to be broadcasted via radio, in partnership with UNICEF and the Ministry of Education. MINUSCA has also produced billboards and posters with the WHO and the Ministry of Health, and supported COVID-19 information sessions for media professionals, organized by the Central African Health Ministry.

MINUSMA - MALI

MINUSMA's Mikado FM provides 63 local radio stations with official WHO certified information on COVID-19 in various local languages. The radio station has also collaborated with local Malian artists to launch a COVID-19 sensitization campaign via social media. Peacekeepers are also delivering hygiene and CIVID-19 prevention kits to the Timbuktu and Taoudeni regions. Moreover, in support for Mali's COVID-19 Response Plan, MINUSMA has facilitated the delivery of 48 tons of UN medical supplies and equipment.

MONUSCO - DRC

MONUSCO radio stations produce and disseminate up to 14 hours of weekly home schooling material in collaboration with UNICEF and the Ministry of Education. COVID-19 mitigation practices include cleaning and covering microphones with disposable material to avoid the spread of the virus. Given the adverse effect of the pandemic on women's incomes, MONUSCO is working with women's organisations to empower local women to engage in income generating activities such as crafting face masks, from home.

UNAMID - DARFUR

UNAMID is also reaching out to communities directly through messaging platforms such as WhatsApp and others to strengthen their digital outreach. To this end, UNAMID is relaying information and public service announcements to specific interest groups via message. UNAMID peacekeepers are also distributing hygiene materials and dignity kits to displaced women and girls in Central Darfur; the initiative included the distribution of water tanks and washing soap. The mission's Rule of Law Team, along with the Prison Directorate and the Ministry of Health in South Darfur State held a sensitisation workshop on the prevention and

mitigation of COVID-19 at the Nyala Central Prison's female wing.

UNFICYP - CYPRUS

UNFICYP has crafted social media challenge dot, which promotes health and safety regulations amidst the pandemic; for instance, the mission leadership has taken part in an online hand washing challenge via video to promote healthy practices and has called upon local leadership to do the same. The mission is also partnering with Cypriot women's organisations on the ground, to support their efforts in spreading awareness and mitigating increasing GBV trends amidst quarantine requirements. UNFICYP's Gender Affairs Officer held a virtual meeting with Hands Across the Divide, a Cypriot women's group to discuss the implementation of WPS in Cyprus in the aftermath of COVID-19. She stressed the importance of creating more livelihood opportunities for women in economic sectors and areas which may not receive financial subsidies as part of COVID_19 response mechanisms.

UNIFIL - LEBANON

UNIFIL is working to protect and support survivors of SGBV on the ground by disseminating referral guidelines, and by creating radio programs dedicated to women on issues of SGBV, empowerment and female leadership. Peacekeepers on the ground are also supporting the host community's fight against COVID-19 by donating PPE and other medical and sanitary supplies to communities in south-eastern Lebanon.

UNMIK - KOSOVO

Using the Balkan Investigative Reporting Network, UNMIK hosts weekly remote debates to increase community sensitization on COVID-19. Given the rising trend of GBV amidst the pandemic, UNMIK is working to increase SGBV awareness by issuing statements and messages in women's correction facilities. In order to cater to the increasing demand for PPE, UNMIK facilitated the production and distribution of 24,000 masks within the Mitrovica community, the project entailed the provision of extra supplies to all sewers so that having completed the initial 24,000 masks, they could set up they own business ventures to facilitate income security amidst the pandemic.

UNMISS - SOUTH SUDAN

UNMISS is coordinating its social media presence with local journalists and civil society actors in partnership with Facebook, to track and counter COVID_19 related misinformation and provide accurate and timely updates on virus statistics. UNMISS radio stations have also collaborated with UNICEF to produce up to 14 hours of weekly home schooling material to be broadcasted via radio, to make up for restricted access to schools. UNMISS is also carrying out a mass education campaign across the country, this involves distributing flashcards and posters to community members to explain COVID-19 symptoms and prevention techniques. The mission is also collaborating and coordinating with humanitarian partners to spread

awareness of COVID-19 prevention and preparation to displaced families.

4. Poverty Alleviation and Peacekeeping

Vulnerable women and children in peacebuilding post-conflict societies suffer from chronic poverty. Governments take development partner assistance and usually set up social safety nets for these populations so as to provide them enough to escape hunger and death. Rising food prices, food insecurities, food shortages, disease, violence, political instabilities further accelerate the need for social safety nets. What follows is a model social protection system which is required to be set up by UN peacebuilding teams in coordination with financial stakeholders like IMF, World Bank Regional development banks in post-conflict societies. These systems need to be legislated into post-conflict state constitutions so that there is a stable sustainable system of social protection that is set up for the vulnerable women which can survive political instability of potential change of governments. Women in post-conflict society have certain basic needs which the social protection system is supposed to cater for: food, education, livelihoods, health, children's needs, dignity empowerment, and security.

Social protection typically is made up of 3 systems: social safety nets, (SSN), Social Insurance, (SI), Labour Market Programs (LMP). SSNs are required to promote resilience, equity, opportunity; to help individuals and societies manage risk, volatility. They are non-contributory interventions designed to help individuals and households cope with destitution. The products of SSN are as follows: unconditional and conditional cash transfers, non-contributory social pensions, food and in kind transfers, school feeding programs, public works and fee waivers.

Social insurances are contributory interventions designed to help individuals manage sudden changes in income. They are required for the most vulnerable because of old age, sickness, disability and natural disaster. Individuals pay insurance premiums to be eligible for coverage or contribute a percentage of their earnings to a mandatory insurance scheme. The products of SI are contributory old age survivor and disability pensions; sick leave and maternity and paternity benefits; health insurance coverage. Labour markets are contributory or non-contributory programs designed to help and protect individuals against loss of income from unemployment, often very urgently required after pandemics, violence and war. They also help individuals acquire skills and connect them to labour markets.

All these products and services need to be built into a legislative framework so that there is security for the vulnerable. Since UN peacekeeping and peacebuilding teams have access to the best models created by international organizations, development partners, and national governments in the world of social protection, it is important that a proper market analysis

be done for the conflict state. A needs analysis be carried out and the best models be legislated into the constitutions.

Primarily for any social protection system to truly work for women, it has to position the woman as the head of the household so that the prime beneficiary, the prime measure of success in a society is the woman. Benefits, programs, and empowerment has to be women driven so that they can then accrue and pass on the benefits to their family members including children. It is a well-established fact that when women are given the benefits, they are likely to bring out of poverty entire families because their calculations and priorities are family focused and not selfish individual focused.

The first system that needs to be set up as discussed earlier is a household registry; to know the poverty levels of each family living in a conflict society is the starting point to be able to service them. To know their demographics and to have the maximum information on them leads to the possibility of delivering a targeted social protection system to achieves the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). The first step for the UN peacebuilding teams in the women empowerment revolution is establishing the identification of a woman within the post-conflict state. This gives the woman a voice in the elections because voter registration is linked to this. As discussed earlier, this power gives the woman an importance in the state building process.

Social protection systems are aimed at directly contributing to the various SDGs. Firstly, it deals directly with No Poverty (SDG 1); the Food Energy Intake (FEI) poverty line, and the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) are important indicators that need to be measured so as to be able to assess the SDG1. Gender Equality (SDG5) is automatically set into motion when women have financial empowerment. Their respect within their own household and their utility within their families increase when the cash handouts are delivered through them. Quality Education (SDG4) is a goal which conditional cash transfer promoting adult literacy of women and promoting children's education can fulfill. Often women and children afflicted with poverty, war and violence have interrupted education cycles. This can be rectified when a conditional cash transfer product aimed at giving benefits based on changed improved behaviors are established. When women are incentivized for pursuing education goals for themselves and their children, the rates of education and future livelihood opportunities improve. Similarly, Zero Hunger (SDG2) is contributed to when food intake improves and malnourishment within mother and child decreases. This goal is linked to education on the type of nutrients and food intakes are necessary for mother and child especially during first 1000 days of the child's development in a pregnant woman. Again a conditional cash-transfer encouraging women to take nutrients to help against stunted growth, awarded to pregnant women can encourage better mother child health. Similarly, a conditional cash transfer linked to immunization of children is useful for health indicators; as is the family component transfer which encourages responsible population planning practices in the conflict state.

All these conditional cash transfer products need encouragement, advocacy and education. They can be made a reality through a system of women beneficiary committees. Such a system ensures that women meet in clusters periodically to encourage each other to take up such positive behavioral change cash handouts. Through this very system, Peace, Justice and strong institutions (SDG16) is encouraged. Decent Work and Economic growth (SDG8) which promotes sustained, inclusive economic growth is possible through social safety nets encouraging livelihoods. They can take different forms: micro credit schemes; e-commerce options to sell sustainable products by women beneficiaries of social safety nets; assets transfer graduation programs. Idea is for women to graduate out of chronic poverty, and for that some form of loan schemes need to be devised so that women can start having sustainable incomes. Climate smart technology options as well as agricultural products which are suited to the environment are apt.

In terms of the main product of a social safety net, the first one which needs to be set up undoubtedly is the unconditional cash transfer (UCT). This is given to the poorest of the poor women with no restrictions on how the cash is spent.[114] No requirements and conditions are required beyond meeting the eligibility criteria of being poor on a Poverty Scorecard mechanism derived from the Household Registry database. Giving cash to vulnerable women protects current consumption and gives them autonomy over their own lives. Subsidies can also be given on basic food item but they are not easy to navigate amidst a conflict zone with corruption possibilities. Cash gives poor a choice to spend on what they need at the time and is internationally considered the best option. Women use cash on food, education, health generally. Cash transfers are considered low risk poverty reduction strategy because the cash gives poor women control over their decisions. Whether it is unconditional cash transfers or conditional cash transfers, both act as social insurance.

The timing of stipends is important element for any conflict state. The monthly cash handouts given at the same time every month gives a certain reliability, credibility, and systemic approach to social safety nets. When vulnerable women are to receive cash on certain dates per month, they plan their expenditures accordingly. The funding for social safety nets is generally funded by development partners and the government in question. As conflict states start their journey, the percentage of development funds are higher and their own contributions less. As they progress towards stability, their own financial space should increase and the contributions of development partners should decrease. Similarly, there is always a balance in terms of product mix between Unconditional and conditional cash transfers in a portfolio. The UCT element is higher at the start of the conflict state journey and as societies become more geared to behavioral change this mix changes.

The rate of stipend given to the vulnerable women needs to be pegged with two elements. Firstly, a sense of a food basket cost per family per month. The bear minimum so that there

[114] Memon, 2018.

is no dependency and women are encouraged to get real sources of income other than just the SSN cash stipends. Secondly, cash stipends must always be pegged to inflation in a country so that the most vulnerable women are not to suffer that exogenous cost. The Consumer Price Index should be the indicator that needs periodic review, based on which these cash handout should be assessed for increment. The social safety net overall budgets must also be monitored for how they compare as percentage of GDP. In conflict states, the spend needs to be in between 0.5% to 1% of GDP, so that the real impact on poverty alleviation can be realized fast. Anything lower is acceptable for developing, but not necessarily conflict states.

The credibility of social safety nets in a conflict state is driven by the sophistication of the targeting system of a SSN. The plague of politicization, favoritism, and nepotism needs to be avoided. Beneficiary selection needs to be according to the highest forms of a scientific targeting system. There are different internationally acceptable systems: means tests, Proxy Means Test (PMT), community based targeting, geographic targeting, demographic targeting, and self-targeting. Based on the system most suitable to the conflict state's needs, the targeting system needs to be devised accordingly. Recently in the world of safety nets, states have preferred Proxy Means Tests (PMT). This generates a score for the vulnerable household based on easy to observe household characteristics such as the following: location and quality of household dwelling; ownership of durable goods; demographic structure, education, and occupations of household members. The indicators used to calculate the score and weights are based on a statistical analysis system. Large number of applicants can be covered through this system at lower costs. It gives a provision of a welfare ranking of households that can be used for supplementary graduation programs that may use eligibility cutoff points, which suit those products better. In a conflict setting, a scientifically devised PMT establishes payment credibility especially since populations are in movement and not permanently placed. A credible household registry is not just useful for targeting beneficiaries for a social safety net but this data can establish subsidies for government planning. It can also be used for all other organizations wanting to target poverty alleviation programs in the conflict state. The duplication of benefits can be avoided with a centralized system of knowing who is being given what and when, so that benefits are spread with equity to vulnerable women.

The second major element of a social safety net in conflict states is the payment system. As discussed in the financial inclusion section, women are paid cash through bank accounts making them financially inclusive. The most recent payment mechanism that is preferred as the mode of employment is bio metrically verified payment system. The advantages of such a system are that payments are made to the real beneficiary; there is proof of life of that beneficiary and they can be ghost beneficiaries due to the biometric verification; process of cash withdrawal is easy for illiterate beneficiaries since only a basic Identification with a biometric verification is required.

Safety nets generally encourage graduation strategies, which promote sustainable livelihood

options. Recently in the world of safety nets for conflict states, the 'business incubation and asset transfer for self-employment' (BISE) model is popular. The woman beneficiary must be competent to do self-employment. A Micro Investment Plan is selected for each beneficiary. A parallel system of unconditional cash transfer continues during the period to mitigate against risks of abject poverty. There is some transfer of assets to start economic activities; a provision of income generating grants to help the poor set up their business; there are support services through linkage to existing microfinance programs (for inputs) and markets and value chains (for sales). Other than asset transfer, direct cash is also a possible graduation strategy, whereby a grant is given once after which the beneficiary is weaned off the unconditional cash transfer. In the peacebuilding system, there is a possibility of engaging financial institutions who then engage community based organizations to undertake these graduation strategies.

A general guideline to have when devising graduation programs, based on research done by DFID is as follows: the poor do have basic skills and limited opportunities; they can be good portfolio managers but their options are severely limited due to multifaceted poverty; they can be good entrepreneurs but they can also be entrenched in a spiral of poverty; they need handholding to get them onto a sustainable route for escaping poverty; the least poor amongst the poor should be targeted to escape poverty through graduation programs especially designed for their capacity; pilots and scale interventions have different benefits and must be managed accordingly; local engines of growth are necessary for poor to take off; counseling to ultra-poor through training financial literacy is a must; multi-dimensional indicators of poverty do not move fast.

For poverty alleviation strategies to function in a conflict setting, an engagement with media is necessary. Health drives, pandemic drives, education programs, women empowerment campaigns to encourage financial inclusion must all be coupled with ensuring that women feel safe. UN peacebuilding teams whilst mandated to ensure vulnerable population security have to work with community based NGOs who encourage such campaigns too.

5. Gendered Elections and Peacekeeping

UN has undertaken the responsibility to assist states with "political transitions, implementation of peace agreements and consolidation of democracy."[115] The overall coordination of assisting lies on the Under-Secretary for Political Affairs as focal person with all relevant UN bodies, organizations coordinating, and working with this office as one seamless team. The teams, which can at any time work together, are Department of Political and Peacebuilding Affairs (DPPA), the Department of Peace Operations (DPO), the UNDP, the

[115](DPPA). *Elections*. Retrieved from Political and Peacebuilding Affairs (UN DPPA): https://dppa.un.org/en/elections

Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, the UN Volunteers, the UN Office for Project Services (UNOPS), UNESCO, UN Women, and IOM.

The UN gives various types of electoral services depending on the demands, needs, and requests of member states: technical assistance, supports in creating a conducive environment, organizes and conducts the electoral process, certifies and verifies, conducts electoral observation, supervises elections, provides panel of electoral experts, and coordinates electoral observers.

In the case of peacekeeping conflict zones, the direct nature of responsibility of UN peacekeeping and peacebuilding increases, and elections fall under the creation of a just and democratic society goal. Whether they are elections, or referendums for assessing the will of the people, the success as per certain parameters is well defined within UN documents: "mitigating zero-sum politics; pursuing dialogue and consensus in establishing the legal electoral framework; focusing on inclusion and non-discrimination; and encouraging broad participation."[116]

Increasing women representation in the parliaments of post-conflict states, and increasing women voter participation are both important goals for UN peacebuilding teams. UN Gender teams have a responsibility to work towards the accomplishment of the UN 2013 Policy directive on "Promoting women's electoral and political participation through UN electoral assistance".[117]

The normative framework, which establishes obligations of member states, is derived from International Human Rights Law that has been ratified. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights ensures women's full participation in political and electoral processes. Additionally, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR, 1966), the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (CPRW, 1952), the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979) and regional conventions, all emphasize the same right with no discrimination. Other non-binding instruments such as UN Economic and Social Council resolution 1990/15, the UN World Conference on Women in Mexico City in 1975, and the Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action (1995) also encourage states to increase women political participation. The famous UNSC Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security accepts that women marginalization in post-conflict reconstruction must be eliminated by their "equal participation and full involvement in all efforts for the

[116]UNSG, U. N. (2017). Strengthening the role of the United Nations in enhancing the effectiveness of the principle of periodic and genuine elections and the promotion of democratization : Report of the Secretary-General. United Nations. https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/1302192/files/A_72_260-EN.pdf

[117]DPPA. (2013). *Promoting women's electoral and political participation through UN electoral assistance.* Department of Political and Pacebuilding Affairs (DPPA).
https://dppa.un.org/sites/default/files/ead_pd_promoting_womens_electoral_political_participation_through_un_ea_20131224_e.pdf

maintenance and promotion of peace and security" UNSC Resolution 1889 (2009) insists on an increase in women's participation and so does the UNSG 2010 action plan insist on "increasing the proportion of women decision makers in post-conflict governance institutions'. UNSC Resolution 2122 (2013) reiterates women's safety during elections. The lists of Resolutions and Policy Directives on the same are indeed, all emphasizing similar concepts.

Statistics on women electoral participation have increased over the years as a result of the flurry of international commitments: from 11.3% in 1995 national parliamentarians to 24.3% in February 2019 as per UN Women. In June 2019, about 11 women had been serving as the Head of State, while 12 as the Head Government. The state with the most number of female parliamentarians is Rwanda, with about 61.3 percent of female secured seats in the lower house.[118]

Considering women as half the population, and considering their role in reconstruction of post-conflict societies is proportionately higher based on the number of dead men in war, this number is frightfully low. National legal frameworks mirror international commitments on the right of women's participation in elections and political office.

Issues and impediments for women electoral participation on ground do exist and they can vary based on the post-conflict state's democratic levels: denying women to run for certain offices, denying access to identification documentation for registration as a voter or a candidate, biases in party primaries and internal political party mechanisms to discourage female candidates.

Whatever the list of impediments is, it is clear that nascent post-conflict states provide international donors a perfect arena to instill from scratch correct practices. It's the same 'build back better' concept. When institutions have crumbled, building back the fairest, just gender sensitive electoral practices needs to be seen as an opportunity for such states. Secondly, post-conflict states have the advantage of pre-existing models of gender sensitive electoral models they can copy paste best practices from.

The first challenge in ensuring maximum women voters' participation in post-conflict societies is to keep women safe. False information, hate speeches, protests can incite violence against men and women candidates. In the case of women candidates, the struggle is harder; to keep women candidates safe in midst of such physical and verbal attacks controversies is even more of a challenge. Women candidates are often discouraged from taking part in political processes because of the kind of violence that ensures when they enter the political arena. UN Gender teams have a responsibility to work with relevant

[118]Women, U. (2019). *Facts and figures: Leadership and political participation*. Retrieved from UN Women: https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/leadership-and-political-participation/facts-and-figures

organizations to keep the environment violence and attack free.

The challenge is also to ensure that women voters feel safe to physically vote on the day of the elections.[119] PKOs' election education is seen to reduce violent protests during electoral periods in three specific ways: learning about PKO electoral security can give a sense of security to women voters that they will be safe whilst voting; secondly, election education events provide political information which can reduce resorting to violent means since political channels are obvious; thirdly, peace messages do change behaviors of potential trouble makers. When PKO maintains its impartiality as an arbiter, its election-education events do have violence-mitigating effects at the individual and sub-national levels.

A gender sensitive election reform agenda for UN and its election partners must include the following elements: Continue capacity-building for women in politics and expand the training to include the newly elected women at both the parliamentary and the local levels[120]; Increase training to promote caucusing on women's issues across party lines at local and parliamentary levels; Strengthen coordination among national gender management machineries; Sensitize voters and other stakeholders, including traditional and religious leaders and the media, to support women's political leadership; and Review the legal framework for temporary special measures, such as reserved seats, quotas and affirmative action, as mandated by the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

The UN policy guidelines detail some practical and cultural impediments to women candidates being able to have level playing field for contesting elections. These are as much conflict related issues as general issues. Women have lack of access to financial resources; they could face unnecessarily high educational requirements or inflexible voter registration procedures; or they could face the threat of attacks surrounding the entire electoral process. UN Gender experts have to ensure that relevant campaigns are carried out to mitigate such issues. Advocacy and education on electoral processes, electoral systems, electoral laws or electoral provisions in constitutions constitute a bigger requirement for encouraging women candidates because such processes can be over intimidating on purpose. UN standards on advocacy should technically include the following for maximum credibility: "national sovereignty, national ownership, sustainability, and norm based approach".

Women sometimes face double discrimination and UN systems are cognizant of this: they are women and perhaps also part of a minority ethnic group. The gaps and gender sensitivity are required at the legal framework level, electoral management level, during civic and voter

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[119]Smidt, H. (2020, January 3). Mitigating election violence locally: UN peacekeepers' election-education campaigns in Côte d'Ivoire. *Journal of Peace Research, 571*(1), 199-216. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343319884993

[120]Commonwealth, T. (2019). *Interim Statement of the Commonwealth Observer Group Malawi Tripartite Elections.* The Commonwealth. https://thecommonwealth.org/sites/default/files/inline/intrim%20statement%20final%20final.pdf

registration, at voter registration, during political parties campaigning, at polling counting and observation level, special treatment for pregnant and older women at polling stations, at challenges and complaints process level, and to avoid electoral violence. In effect, it is the entire electoral cycle that requires careful collaboration between international standards and culturally acceptable standards by UN teams. The UN guidelines provide a complete check list of all that needs to be done to ensure a fair gender sensitive process.

The concept of 'temporary special measures' and quotas to encourage women's representation in legislatures have spread to more than 100 countries in the 21st century. Interestingly they have taken two casual pathways[121]: either directly through post-conflict peace operations, or indirectly through aid linkages to developing countries. UN peace building teams have been positive reinforces of gender quotas. They are reserved seats set aside for women in parliaments, which are legally and constitutionally enforced. To get societies to legislate such clauses requires lobbying, awareness campaigns, and stakeholder teamwork. It is a given that countries which have democracy promoting UN peace operation will be more likely to adopt gender quotas than other countries. Kosovo was a prime illustration of this causal mechanism, where women only meetings with special debates for female candidates would be encouraged. In 2000, the UN Interim Administrative Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) Regulation 39 established 30% quota among first 15 candidates on all party lists for elections (national and local level). Interestingly this provoked a domestic backlash. Thus, for future reference, a local consensus building on types of quota is important so that it is not seen as an international imposition. Afghanistan is a case of international incentives that encouraged women quotas in a post-conflict state.

Increasing women voters in post-conflict societies is an uphill task for many reasons: women are either not part of the state ID system or thus not registered, or they are uprooted and homeless and on the move in refugee mode, or they simply have no concept of safe voting possibilities in the midst of fear. Social safety nets bring such women into the state identification system so that their voter identification is automatically guaranteed, their locations are geo tagged, and they are able to be part of voter lists in their new places of residences. Much often, traditional conservative societies surfacing from conflict women are not encouraged to get voter identification. Such social safety measures, which link state identification to financial cash handouts force family members to allow their women to get identification, which in turn enables them to vote. At times, women are stopped from voting in such conservative societies. Legislation, and its strict enforcement inspired by international stakeholders of the peacebuilding process, is a must to ensure that women's voting rights are not curtailed due to such backward behaviors. Another way to increase women voters and women representatives is by launching campaigns on radio in conflict

[121]Bush, S. S. (2011). International Politics and the Spread of Quotas for Women in Legislatures. *International Organisation, 65*(1 (Winter 2011)), 103-137. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0020818310000287

zones.[122] Research centered on the West Bank has shown that radio is especially effective for reaching women in conflict affected areas, and that "broadcasting content aimed at women by women is essential in terms of increasing their representation and voting".

Wars have traditionally brought female losses; some electoral gains for women of post-conflict states have also been witnessed.[123] Case in point is Liberia, where war brought out leadership abilities in women. Women have used opportunities that arise in periods of conflict to remove traditional gender restrictions permanently, mostly through elections and progressive legislature. This empowerment post war can be explained by the fact that they became bread earners after the men died, and they could not go back to their lack of empowerment prior to the conflict. During the time that Liberia elected a woman as head of government (Sir leaf Johnson 2006), it also saw with her 5 full Ministers, 15 deputy ministers, 16 assistant ministers and 9 members of House of Representatives. More women than men had registered in 2005 elections according to international observers.

The trend favouring women legislators post-conflict has been most prevalent in Sub Saharan Africa, where the number of women legislators tripled between 1990 and 2010. This was largely due to gender quotas and the presence of proportional representation systems. The end of civil war in these countries was a big accelerator for this political women empowerment.[124] The gains of having more women in political office translate into bigger budgets on social welfare, which are key in any peacebuilding environment of reconstruction. Moreover, this positive trend has been explained in the following manner: "African women's recent political success, including changes to electoral institutions, democratization, economic development, women's growing education and labor-force participation, the rise of left-leaning political parties, increasing international pressures from the UN and various regional organizations, and the influx of foreign aid".

A correlation between end of conflict and increasing women's participation exists positively. The Rwanda example after genocide is interesting; it elected the world's highest ratio of women in parliament and in 2008 became the first country to elect majority women to national parliament. Armed conflict has influenced women's legislative representation because it facilitates institutional change, quotas, and democratization. Rapid political change in favor of women fueled by widespread social disruption led to rise of women in political leadership roles. Societies recovering from war have a chance to recreate themselves with new constitutions, thus gender quotas and proportional representation systems favorable to women can easily be built into such states, through good offices of UN

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[122]Heywood, E. (2018, December 25). Increasing female participation in municipal elections via the use of local radio in conflict-affected settings: The case of the West Bank Municipal elections 2017. *Journalism*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1464884918820752

[123]Fuest, V. (2008, March). 'This is the Time to Get in Front': Changing Roles and Opportunities for Women in Liberia. *African Affairs, 107*(427), 201-224. https://doi.org/10.1093/afraf/adn003

[124]Hughes, M. M., & Tripp, A. M. (2015, June 12). Civil War and Trajectories of Change in Women's Political Representation in Africa, 1985–2010. *Social Forces, 93*(4), 1513–1540. https://doi.org/10.1093/sf/sov003

and other democracy stakeholders. Benefits of democracy are many with each election cycle, where more and more women are likely to enter parliament post-conflict. Similarly, post violence, expanding civil liberties do create space for women to agitate for change.

There is a tendency for women candidates to be gender stereotyped negatively as sensitive, and thus unfit for office globally. In post-conflict settings, opponents of women political empowerment use this stereotype actively.[125] UN peacebuilding teams, when creating awareness programs on ground during campaigns for increased women participation, must dispel such propaganda. Such stereotypes hinder electoral success of female candidates, especially when they are actively used in campaigns.

Whilst it has been established that quotas have helped women representation in post-conflict societies, there is a distinction which is important to understand: "it is not democracy—as measured by a nation's level of democratic freedoms at a particular moment in time—but rather the democratization process that matters for women's legislative representation." Here democratization is measured as "the combined effects of a nation's pre-democratic regime type, the global context of democratic transition and quota implementation, and historical experiences with elections—as it affects women's legislative representation over time." The good news for higher levels of women's legislative representations is that it correlates with passage of more pro women policies. Thus, as a goal for post-conflict societies, it is seen as a self-perpetuating positive contagious necessity: get more women in parliament so they can create more pro women legislation.

The UN peacebuilding teams often make the case for more women at the peace negotiating table; suggesting that they negotiate peace accords better faster and are more reasonable, bringing an overall positivity to the process.[126] Gender inclusive peace processes also accelerate adoption of women's electoral quotas. Thus an engaged women's movement that remains active even after the peace accord has been signed helps cement this connection.

Peacebuilding as a process derives its legitimacy from including displaced populations in elections. As per former UNHCR chief Antonio Gueterres, "and provide critical perspectives on the causes of conflict and contribute to a sense of shared ownership in peacemaking and peacebuilding". Women displaced in war bring an even bigger premium for credibility when included in elections.

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[125]Bauer, N. M. (2015, December). Emotional, Sensitive, and Unfit for Office? Gender Stereotype Activation and Support Female Candidates. *Political Psychology, 36*(6), 691-708. https://doi.org/10.1111/pops.12186.

[126]Anderson, M. J., & Swiss, L. (2014, March). Peace Accords and the Adoption of Electoral Quotas for Women in the Developing World, 1990–2006. *Politics and Gender, 10*(1), 33-61. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1743923X13000536

Chapter 4

PAKISTAN'S CONTRIBUTION TO UN PEACEKEEPING

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1) Voices of Pakistan's Peacekeepers

HEALING THE INVISIBLE WOUNDS

The Pakistan Army troops have remained part of the United Nations (UN) Peacekeeping missions since 1960. From then on, they form part of the observers group as well as the lightly armed military group. Pakistan Army is the third largest manpower contributor to UN peacekeeping and stabilizing missions. The Pakistani troops are deployed in 28 different countries. They have served for peacekeeping in 46 different missions of variable threat index and 157 sons of Pakistan soil laid their lives for the noble cause. [1]The aim is to contain the conflict parties while maintaining order in a particular area of influence. With every plan of action, there comes an opportunity to make improvements over time with knowledge, experience and expertise. The mandate is the platform on which each UN peace operation is based and has underwent realistic alternative courses which were tailored as per specificity of every area of conflict. From peacekeeping to peace stabilization, the Pakistani troops have been a part. They have proven themselves as hardcore professionals and accomplished the level of execution for which Pakistan Army is renowned worldwide.

The year 2020 marks the 20th anniversary of the UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 which ensures the rights, the voices, and the needs of women across the globe. Traditionally, women's executive skills have always been under appreciated. They have been raised as to fit in the role of home-making, child rearing and care-giving. They have to struggle very hard in order to secure a place in business, politics, economy, in a country that has faced an armed conflict since decades. The women and children of Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) have faced physical victimization. Being the soft targets they have mostly been a tactical objective in formidable expression of power. Gender-specific violence has always been an easier way to demoralize the opponent and to achieve the ultimate satisfaction of leaving a long lasting impact. The cases of psychotic illnesses go un-diagnosed in the violence stricken areas as the baseline statistics are usually not available for better comparison in a specific range of time. Pre-existing personality factors are capable of shaping collective archetypal image of a community that has faced violence, poverty and chronic malnutrition in their generations. The psychosocial impact of extreme experiences has a manifold risk of acquiring mood related disorders, suicidal ideation, post-traumatic stress disorder, concentration-camp syndrome, war neurosis, and survivor syndrome. There are illnesses of constant fatigue, malnutrition, memory related issues, liability of mood, and psychosomatic symptoms which are not considered as a disability in cultural households but these are a cultivating ground for long-term demoralisation and feelings of incompetence.

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[1] *Zeshan Ahmad, Green, white and blue: Pakistan on the front-lines of UN peacekeeping, Tribune, Feb 16, 2020.*

While recognising the equality and importance of gender in every walk of life, it is inevitable for a force to implement significant changes at the community level where the population consists more than 50% of women and children. Hence, the placement of Female Engagement Teams (FET) in the mission areas was carried out in 2019 to hold 15% of the troops' strength. The decree of this team ranges from offering emotional support to proffering basic skills for self-sufficiency. The aim of FET regime centers on the concept of assisting women segment by enlightening and empowering. The FET consists of officers from varying professional cadres as psychologists, medical and nursing officers, IT professionals, vocational training officers, legal, logistics, and operations officers. The composition of team depicts the wide array of community engagement and facilitation. FET has played a significant role as an agent of change in peacekeeping and in efforts for peace building. They actively participate, engage, protect, and educate the women in local community with the aim of empowering them in their own lives.

Being a part of FET as a stress counsellor, I would enunciate the psychological perspective in providing sustenance to the violence torn women and children. The psychologist officers of FET have espoused the axis of child protection and as focal person in gender advisory and sexual exploitation cases. The compounding effect of fear, insecurity, trauma, and poverty in concentration camps explicitly calls for a need to counsel them; to educate them; and to help them reintegrate. Stress counsellors formulate simplest healing modalities while keeping various factors in mind: be it cultural, social or psychological. It takes quite some time to bring about a clinically significant therapeutic change but quick impact programs are also being incorporated to provide immediate relief.

. Pak FET has performed the tasks of training women out of the predicament of sexual exploitation and assault, holding awareness lectures, skill-training workshops, carrying out riot control and peace patrolling missions. They work in close coordination with government, semi-governmental and non-profit organizations in order to facilitate the women in their area of responsibility. They have successfully executed awareness modules upon basic healthcare, nutritional value, mental health, trauma support, endemic diseases, first-aid trainings, childcare and rearing practices. English language and computer courses were also incorporated for the benefit of the local women. Vocational trainings to create small scale self-help opportunities have proven to be another feather in the FET cap. They have effectively tried to break the discrimination platitude by setting their own example in the community and operational working. The efforts of FET have been recognised at various international forums. Pakistan's permanent envoy to the UN, Maleeha Lodhi has acknowledged that the Pakistani women in the UN Peacekeeping Missions have inscribed a significant mark in the history of peacekeeping, "Proud of these female Peacekeepers from Pakistan deployed in United Nations

Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo or MONUSCO". [2]The United States chief diplomat for South Asian affairs Alice Wells has shared her inspiration in a tweet about the Pakistani women who are serving in the UN peacekeeping mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo. United Nations Secretary General Antonio Guterres, in his recent visit to Pakistan, appreciated Pakistan's contribution towards UN peacekeeping raising above the discrimination of gender.

Pak FET sends out a message of equality, not only in terms of realising discrimination against a larger stratum of society but also for stimulating gender parity in a realistic way. The feat of Pakistan Army in placing their lady officers in the active field of influence augments this advocacy of balance two-pronged: gender equality and gender parity. It has ingratiatingly served to the advantage of the Congolese community at large and women in particular.

Being a woman myself, I pledge my contribution towards UN peacekeeping and Pakistan Army, to be never-ending and ever enduring for the women and peace of DRC.

"There is no tool for development more effective than the empowerment of women"

(Kofi Annan).

Written by: Major Fareeha Tanveer

Major Fareeha Tanveer was commissioned in Pakistan Army in **2005**. She is a **psychologist by profession** and holds a Masters degree in **Psychology.** She is **pursuing her MPhil in Clinical Psychology**. She has a vast experience in **human resource selection** and **personality assessment domain**. Currently, she is employed as a **Stress Counselor with Pakbatt at South-Kivu, DRC since Feb 20**.



[2] **Maleeha Lodhi**, Twitter post, February 6, 2020, 1:57 p.m. https://twitter.com/LodhiMaleeha

IN PURSUIT OF BLISS



kagera with Peacekeeper at SCD

"I can still remember that horrible night. We were preparing to sleep and suddenly I heard cries and screams. Those yelps were horrible. People were crying with pain and fear. It was a scene from hell. My father grabbed me and my two siblings and we started running towards mountains. I did not know what was happening, but when I turned back, most of the houses of my village were burning," said Kagera, a resident of the Mikenge village who was residing in the Internally Displaced People (IDP) camp established in Mikenge by MONUSCO Force. "We stayed in mountains for six days with very little food to eat and then these godfathers established this camp here," Kagera said, while pointing towards the MONUSCO guards standing there to protect the IDPs. "When my father saw the flag of United Nations, we all ran towards this camp. They are real custodians of peace. We feel safe here. Even my parents go to their houses to bring back ration to IDP camps with the escort of MONUSCO." Kagera, a seven-year-old child who was recalling what happened that horrible night of 7th September 2019 at his village.

The situation in Mikenge deteriorated after the killing of a notable from the Bufuliro community and Gumino Armed Group leader. This erupted clashes between Mai Mai and Guminos. In this context on 7 September 2019, the houses of Bunyamulange community in Tulambo were burnt by *Mai Mai* and approximately 800 IDPs reached Mikenge area which resulted in establishment of Static Combat Deployment (SCD) at Mikenge on 13 September 2019.

While talking to the child about what happened with his family and why he was there at the IDP camp, I was just wondering he will be able to heal these traumatic wounds. The interaction with other IDPs revealed that their last hope was MONUSCO. They all were of the view that, had MONUSCO not established this Static Combat deployment, they wouldl have been part of history by now.



A/FC Maj Gen Thierry Lion and Comd SS Brig Gen Kashif Abdullah visited IDP camp at Mikenge

The skills of MONUSCO for protecting the civilians from any conflict at any cost are worth mentioning. Patrolling in the area surrounding Static Combat deployment was carried out on surge rate by MONUSCO. Force Commander



Maj Gen Thierry Lion, Sector Commander Brig Gen Kashif Abdullah and Military Observers were regularly interacting with locals, accompanying the patrols and carrying out damage assessments. Extensive community engagement meetings were carried out with all stakeholders. Because of these assessment visits by the force and other concerned UN agencies, 700 shelters reached Mikenge. Medicines in bulk were provided to the hospitals. Survey for track repair to high plateaus also started which will be followed by physical work on track.

The sight of locals feeling secure and satisfied at the IDP camp was worth watching. They were all hopeful for restoration of peace due to efforts of MONUSCO.

Like his entire fellow IDPs, Kagera was also hopeful that one day he would return to his home in Mikenge and again start going to school. His dream was to join the Armed Forces of Democratic Republic of Congo and help his community and people. His role models were the MONUSCO officers at SCD.

Written By Major Sadia Saleem

Maj Sadia Saleem was commissioned in Pakistan Army in **2007**. She joined the United Nations stabilization mission at **DR Congo** in **June 2019.**. While performing the duties of **Military Public Information Officer**, she left no stone unturned in projecting the groundbreaking roles of all ranks of Southern Sector in the line of duty and commitment to the UN, in particular, and **Female Engagement Teams** in general.



FIRST EVER PAKISTANI FEMALE ENGAGEMENT TEAM (FET) IN UN MISSION (MONUSCO)

Democratic Republic of Congo is marred by the Paradox of Plenty, a country rich in mineral resources such as gold, diamond, copper, timber and Colton, in contrast to the economic destitution of its people. While the war-torn country is ravaged by the armed groups, sexual violence against women has brought them at the apex of the conflict. These **women** are ensnared by the patriarchal society in marginalized roles, which refrains them from harnessing their true potential.

As the United Nations Peacekeeping has evolved to encompass a broader humanitarian approach, women have become increasingly part of the peacekeeping family. The United Nations through it Security Council Resolution 2242, **called for** doubling the number of women in uniformed components. Pakistan being a responsible member-state of this prestigious international organization responded immediately to this call by achieving the milestone of deploying 15% female military staff officers in its missions. These women in boots are working on key appointments such as operations, human resource, Information Operations, Geographical Information System and Military Aviation Cell at MONUSCO Force Headquarter, Goma, under direct command of multinational Chiefs of staff. Their work ethics are being recognized at the United Nations, which speaks volume for the professionalism of these women and in extension of Pakistan Army. Maj Samia Rehman is one among these brilliant Military Staff Officers; she is the first female blue beret to receive the highest level of recognition through award of Special Representative of the Secretary General Appreciation Certificate of the year 2019. The resolve and commitment of Pakistan towards global peace and stability, further manifests itself through the deployment of its first ever Female Engagement Team in Democratic Republic of Congo in 2019, followed closely by the second Female Engagement Team in 2020.

Armed conflicts are omni destructive; however, the most vulnerable segment of the society is indubitably the women and children who are prone to be gruesomely affected by the adversities. The outreach of the peacekeepers was limited as these women could not share their problems with male peacekeepers. The presence of Pakistani female peacekeepers will not only diversify the engagement perspective, but also ensure 100% outreach with special focus on the vulnerable, owing to their innate social acuity, sensitivity and compassion. These women aspire to protect, engage, inspire, educate and empower the local women.

The Centre for International Peace and Security is a center established by Pakistan that is committed to excellence and promotion of the best practices in peacekeeping. It is in this center that Female Engagement Team (FET) is trained holistically with a purpose to orientate them on the United Nations mission functions and projected roles when deployed in the conflict-stricken regions to act as critical enablers.

The First Female Engagement Team landed in Congo on 20 June 2019. These are no ordinary women. They include doctors, psychologists, engineers, legal officers and educationists properly trained and ready to undertake challenging tasks. The Female Engagement Team (FET) in mission area is expected to respond instinctively and precisely, shoulder to shoulder with their male counterparts, and are themed around Protection of Civilians, Riot Control and Crisis Management in accordance with the UN environment.

From the outset, these formidable and robust Pakistani uniformed women walked out of the safety and security of their camps, negotiating austere and hostile terrain accessing distant and remote locations. Acting as a force multiplier, through **patrolling and conducting operational missions**, they serve the information need of the command and offered protection through projection by supplementing and complementing their basic task function.

Employing a multifarious approach in its engagement strategy, the Female Engagement Team (FET) members **interacted with the Government and Non-governmental organizations** and **educated the local community**. Meetings with various **Government** and Non-governmental Organizations paved the way towards exploring and establishing the various avenues of mutual support and developing sustainable and practical solutions for the difficulties faced by the locals.

In order to raise awareness among the locals on various health issues and equip them with the ways to avoid common maladies that befall them, **lectures** on 'common health problems, diseases and their prevention' were conducted. The **First Aid training** also paved way towards educating in initial and quick management of patients in emergency situations. Besides, regular **free medical camps** are established under the supervision of medical officer.

Support for Students Exposed to Trauma program is an established and a structured approach to reduce distress resulting from the exposure to violence and enhance the resilience of the traumatized children. The program was adopted for training of teachers from different schools in a wide variety of skill-building techniques focusing on changing maladaptive thoughts and promoting positive behaviours for the management of trauma reactions among the school children.

Regular workshops on '**psychological first aid**' were conducted at police stations with an aim to enable the PNC members manage psychological trauma during the exigent circumstances.

In DRC, while mostly men are found well-conversant in English language, women predominantly seem to be engaged in fields of agriculture and trade. In order to bring about gender parity, a **basic English language course** was designed by Female Engagement Team (FET) to enable the local women to communicate in English language, and develop positive attitude towards honing on this newfound skill, and to enable them to seek job opportunity in different fields.

Regular workshops for teachers titled '**Class management and teaching strategy with psychological perspective**' were conducted to educate them about the modern and effective trends in pedagogy. Basic **computer skills training** is being imparted to the locals with an aim to open the avenues for youth to acquire jobs and pursue business opportunities in digital arena.

. **Tailoring courses** are being conducted by Female Engagement Team (FET) in coordination with a local NGO in order to help them unlock their potentials in marketable skills, to reduce marginalization and achieve social mobility. A series of lectures delivered by the legal officer to local women to bring awareness among them about their **basic constitutional rights** and equal household responsibilities.

. **Child Protection Trainings** were conducted at **Sector and Battalion levels** with an aim to educate the officers on implementation of the United Nations plan and procedure on child protection during operations.

. An inter-community clash in Uvira territory led to the displacement of thousands of civilians, including women and children. After evaluation of the situation, the fearless yet compassionate Female Engagement Team (FET) members regularly listen to their plight, engaging them and ensuring them their support.

Clean water drive with the theme of 'Clean water, Healthy Community' was executed at various places to educate the locals about the importance of clean water and demonstrate the homemade water filtration process by means of using commonly available items.

. To help imbibe the locals of Democratic Republic of Congo that they are part of a global community, various **UN and International days** are observed exuberantly and enthusiastically. The zeal with which local people participate in the events exudes their trust in the Pakistani peacekeepers and appreciation for MONUSCO Force.

The overarching response of the people of Democratic Republic of Congo towards Female Engagement Team (FET) and the indelible imprint on their daily lives **necessitates the continuity in deployment of Female Engagement Team (FET). Seeing the success of** the First Female Engagement Team, the second Female Engagement Team has been deployed in February 2020 in Democratic Republic of Congo. It is foreseen that the incoming Female Engagement Team (FET) will build on and supplement the efforts of their peers with a resolve that is hallmark of Pakistan Army.

. Across the spectrum of fields, Female Engagement Team (FET) has proven it mettle by performing the same roles, to the same standards and under the same difficult and dismal conditions. Whether it be traversing the arduous and unforgiving terrains offering protection to civilians or winning hearts and minds by engaging and socializing with the people, these female blue berets employed diversity of thought and social sensitivity. Wearing the gender lens, these progressive women not only

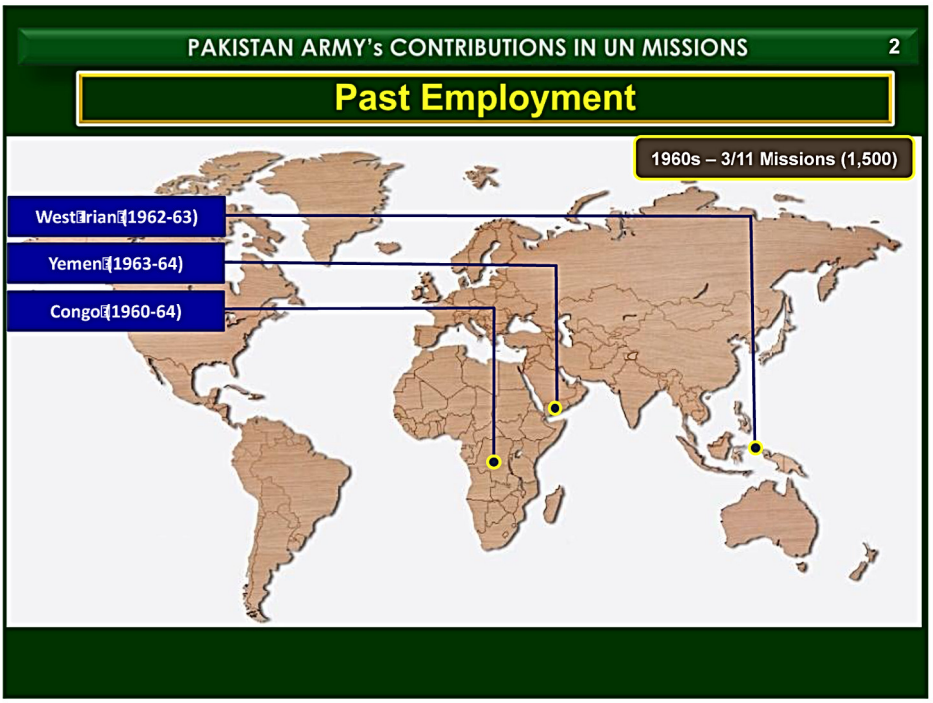
extended their support to the women and children but also engaged men ensuring an inclusive and tandem community. Pakistani Female Engagement Team **continues to make it mark** in the Democratic Republic of Congo through peacekeeping under the umbrella of MONUSCO with compassion, diligence, diverse approach and missionary zeal that is quintessentially - a woman.

Written By Maj Aruza Naeem

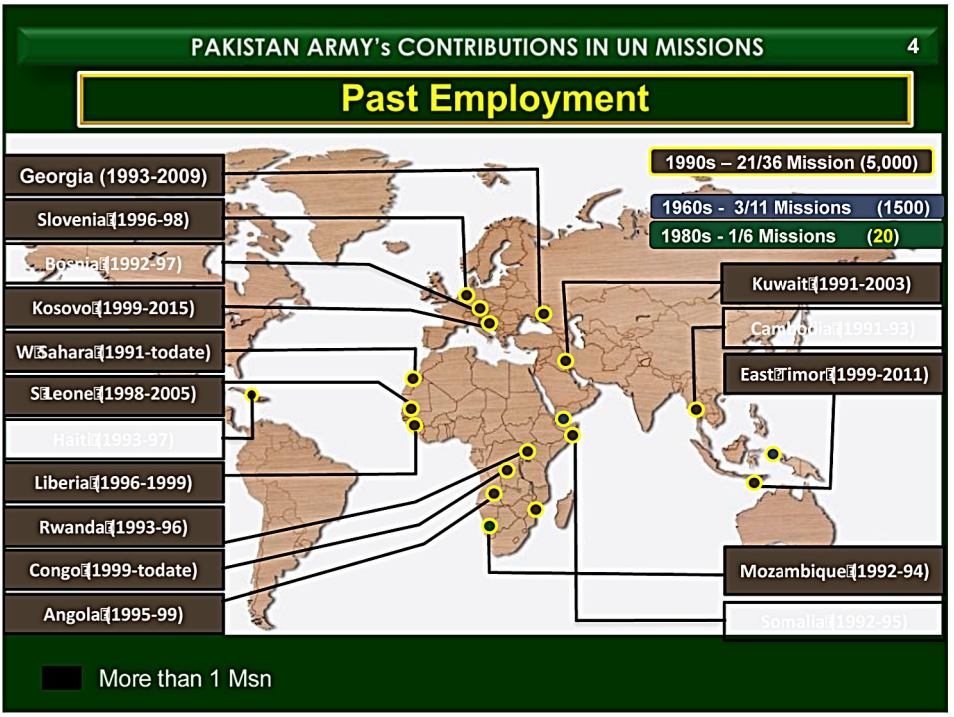


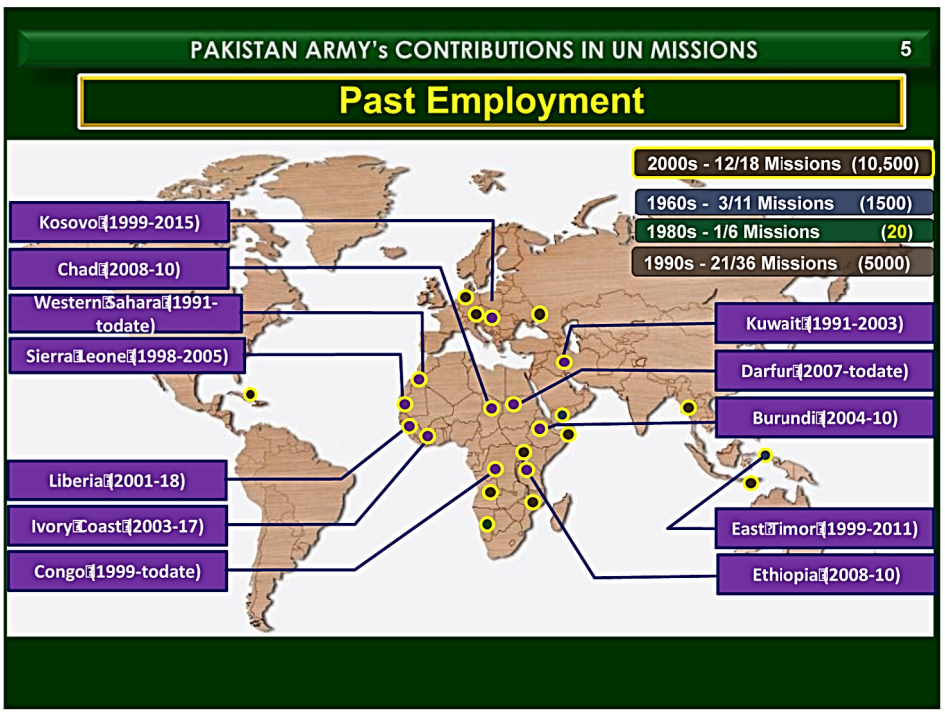
Maj Aruza Naeem was commissioned in Pakistan Army in **2010**. She joined the United Nations stabilization mission at **DR Congo** in **June 2019**. She is currently performing the duties of **Civil Military Coordination Officer** at **Pakistan Rapidly Deployable Battalion**. She has displayed conspicuous forethought and initiative in projection of MONUSCO force through **novel CIMIC activities**. As part of **Female Engagement Team** she played a pivotal role in giving impetus to a synergic relation between MONUSCO and locals through various ongoing vocational cadres.

2) PAKISTAN PEACEKEEPING AT A GLANCE

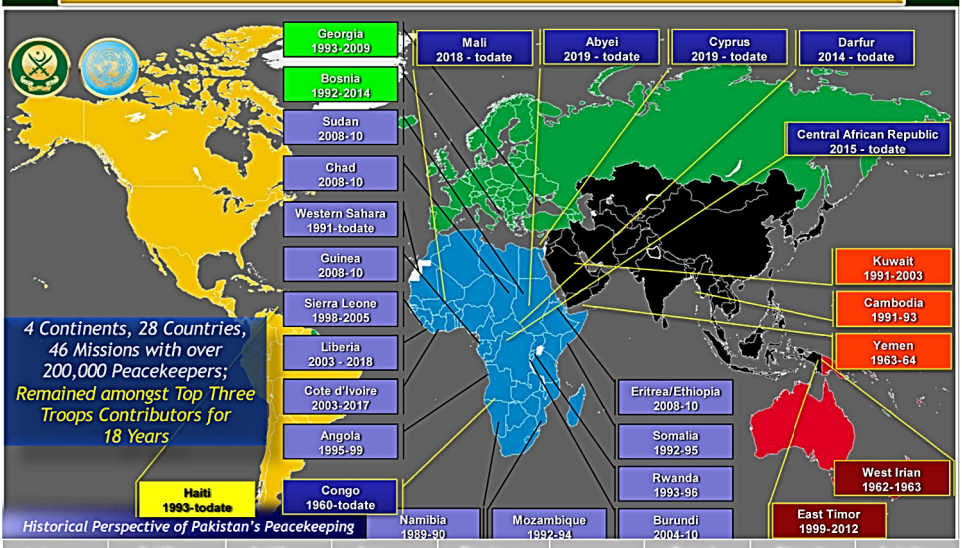





PAKISTAN ARMY's CONTRIBUTIONS IN UN MISSIONS
4
Past Employment
1990s – 21/36 Mission (5,000)
1960s - 3/11 Missions (1500)
1980s - 1/6 Missions (20)
Georgia (1993-2009)
Slovenia (1996-98)
Bosnia (1992-97)
Kosovo (1999-2015)
W Sahara (1991-todate)
S Leone (1998-2005)
Haiti (1993-97)
Liberia (1996-1999)
Rwanda (1993-96)
Congo (1999-todate)
Angola (1995-99)
Kuwait (1991-2003)
Cambodia (1991-93)
East Timor (1999-2011)
Mozambique (1992-94)
Somalia (1992-95)
More than 1 Msn


PAKISTAN ARMY's CONTRIBUTIONS IN UN MISSIONS
5
Past Employment
2000s - 12/18 Missions (10,500)
1960s - 3/11 Missions (1500)
1980s - 1/6 Missions (20)
1990s - 21/36 Missions (5000)
Kosovo (1999-2015)
Chad (2008-10)
Western Sahara (1991-todate)
Sierra Leone (1998-2005)
Liberia (2001-18)
Ivory Coast (2003-17)
Congo (1999-todate)
Kuwait (1991-2003)
Darfur (2007-todate)
Burundi (2004-10)
East Timor (1999-2011)
Ethiopia (2008-10)

Overview of Pakistan's Contributions



Infantry Battalions	Artillery Regiments	Artillery Batteries	Armour Regiments	Engineer Companies	Hospitals	Supply Companies	Signals Companies	Aviation Units
149	4	4	1+1	73	33	18	3	30

UN Peacekeeping – At a Glance

COUNTRIES CONTRIBUTING TO PEACEKEEPING

OVER **128** COUNTRIES CONTRIBUTE TROOPS, POLICE AND CIVILIAN PERSONNEL

WORKING WITH INTERNATIONAL PARTNERS

SUCH AS { AU African Union, EU European Union }

& SUPPORTED BY **193** MEMBER STATES

WHICH PROVIDE PERSONNEL, EQUIPMENT, FUNDS, TECHNOLOGY & TRAINING

PEACEKEEPING INCLUDES

15 MISSIONS ACROSS **4** CONTINENTS

Peacekeeping operations since 1948: **71**

*BUDGET **7.3** BILLION

LESS THAN **0.5%** OF GLOBAL MILITARY EXPENDITURES

LARGEST MISSION IS IN

[MONUSCO] DR Congo

est. 2010

22,461 authorized strength

Troops: 16,215
Military observers: 660
Police: 1,441
Civilian staff: 4,145

OVER **112,000** FIELD PERSONNEL INCLUDING MILITARY, POLICE AND CIVILIANS

A GLOBAL LOGISTICS OPERATION

54	AIRPLANES
158	HELICOPTERS
26	UUAV unarmed, unmanned aerial vehicle
7	SHIPS
14,000	VEHICLES
310	MEDICAL CLINICS

WORKING IN PARTNERSHIP WITH THE HOST COUNTRIES WE HELP PEOPLE AROUND THE WORLD

7 Million TOTAL SQUARE KILOMETRES IN WHICH WE OPERATE

125 Million TOTAL POPULATION OF AREAS IN WHICH WE OPERATE

United Nations Peacekeeping

un.org/peacekeeping

Data used from 2016-2017
*Approved resources for the period from 1 July 2016 to 30 June 2017

Pakistan's Contributions – At a Glance

TROOPS

- 4 INFANTRY BATTALIONS
- 3 ENGINEER COMPANIES
- 3 AVIATION UNITS
- 1 LEVEL II HOSPITAL

FIELD PERSONALS

4509 INCLUDING MILITARY & POLICE

PEACEKEEPING MISSIONS SINCE 1960

46 MISSIONS
28 COUNTRIES

CURRENT DEPLOYMENT

9 MISSIONS
15 ACROSS THE GLOBE

LARGEST CONTINGENT

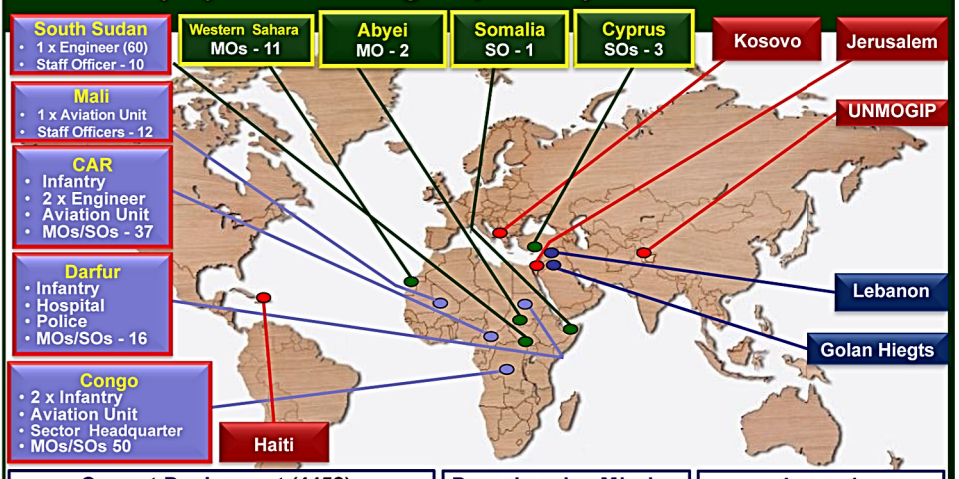
DR Congo 1929

EQUIPMENT FOOTPRINT

- 9 Helicopters
- 896 Vehicles
- 208 Medics

United Nations Peacekeeping

Current Deployment – Contingents, Military Observers & Staff Officers



Current Deployment (4452)

Infantry	4	Hosp	1
Engineer	3	Police	1
Aviation	3	Military Observers / Staff Officers	147

Peacekeeping Missions

- Current Missions - 15
- Pak Represent (5+4) - 9
- Without Pak - 6

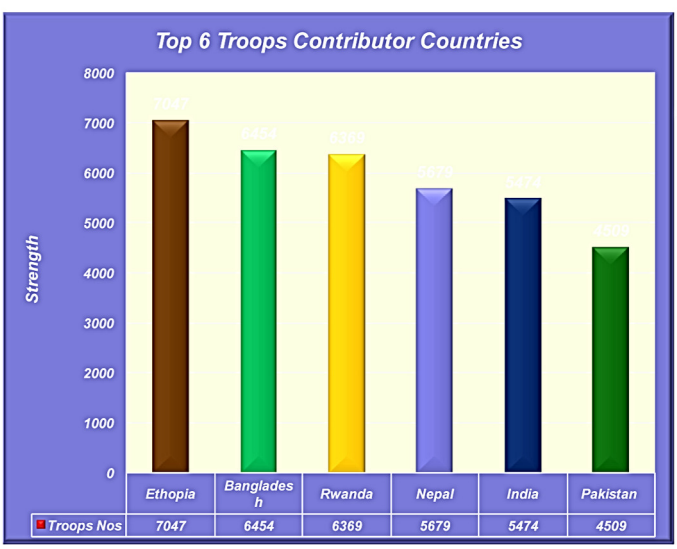
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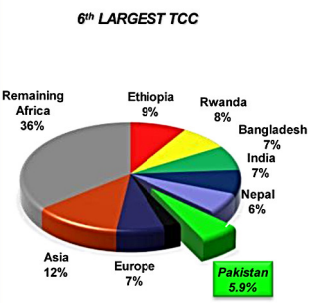
- Pak Contingent
- Pak Observers
- Contingent Missions
- Observer Missions

UN Deployment Summary

Mission	Contingent		Military Observers	Staff Officers		Total	
	Male	Female		Male	Female	Male	Female
MONUSCO (Congo)	1894	32	18	24	8	1936	40
MINUSCA (Central African Republic)	1195	16	10	23	4	1228	20
UNAMID (Darfur)	883	12	6	6	4	895	16
MINURSO (Weston Sahara)	-	-	11	-	0	11	-
UNMISS (South Sudan)	-	-	-	5	5	65	5
UNSOS (Somalia)	-	-	-	1	-	1	-
MINUSMA (Mali)	130	-	-	12	-	142	-
UNFICYP (Cyprus)	-	-	-	1	2	1	2
UNISFA (Abyei)	-	-	1	1	-	2	-
UNOAU (Ethiopia)	-	-	-	1	-	1	-
Department of Peacekeeping Operations / Military Advisor	-	-	-	4	-	4	-
Total	4162	60	46	78	23	4286	83
Grand Total	4222		45	102		4369	
Police	140		-	-		140	
G/Total	4362		46	101		4509	

Pakistan 6th Largest Troops Contributing Country (TCC)





Pakistani Peacekeepers

- Military Contingent - 4222
- Military Observers - 46
- Staff Officer - 101
- Police - 140

Total - 4509

Future Planned Deployment

South Sudan
(UNMISS)

- **1 x Military Engineers Task Force**
  - Strength - 274
  - Advance Party - **9 Sep 2020**
  - Main Body - **Dec 2020** (tentative)

Mali
(MINUSMA)

- **1 x Light Armed Heli Unit (3 x Bell - 412)**
  - Strength - 135 (under negotiations)
  - **Deployment** - Jan 2021 (tentative)
- **1 x Field Hospital Level – II**
  - Strength - 63
  - **Deployment** - Feb 2021 (tentative)

Sacrifices for Peace





157 Pakistani Peacekeepers including 24 Officers Martyred

Nk Naeem Raza (Shaheed), 21 Baloch Regiment (Congo) received **Dag Hammarskjold Medal** on **24 May 19**

Achievements

98 x Pakistani peacekeepers have been awarded Dag Hammarskjold Medal

- **Dag Hammarskjold Medal** is named after Dag Hammarskjold, the **2nd Secretary General of UN**
- Commissioned in **Oct 1998**
- Awarded to **blue helmets** for their supreme sacrifice in the line of duty



Pak Women in Blue Helmet

Over 400 Pakistani Female Peacekeepers served under UN Flag



Proud member of UN led Integrated Training Services (ITS) Team

Pak Women in Blue Helmet

- **Gender mainstreaming** was core agenda of **London Ministerial Summit** in 2016
- Secretary General directed to **appoint more women** in **senior leadership positions** and to **double the number of women** in UN peace keeping operations by **Year 2020**
- UN mandated **7% representation** of females in **Jan 2019**
- **Milestone - 2020**. 83 Female Officers have been deployed so far
  - **Military Observers / Staff Officers - 23 x Ladies**
  - **Contingent Members - 60 x Ladies**
- **Training of Female Officers**
  - **23 x Lady Officers** trained at International Peacekeeping Training Institutes
  - **94 x Lady Officers** trained at Centre for International Peace & Stability, Islamabad
- **Deployment of Female Engagement Team (FET)**
  - 1st FET deployed with Infantry Battalion in Congo in May 2019
  - Currently 3 **FETs (47 x Lady Officers)** are deployed in different contingents



Pak Women in Blue Helmet



Pak Women in Blue Helmet



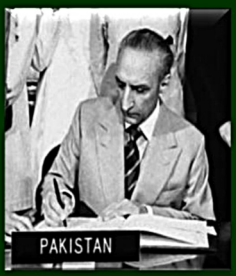




Important Positions Held by Pakistan in UN Missions (Current Employment)

- Maj Gen Zia Ur Rehman, **Force Commander Western Sahara**
- Brig Muhammad Atif Mujtaba, **Sector Commander /Contigent Comd Congo**
- Brig Syed nadir Hussain Shah, **Sector Commander /Contigent Comd Congo**
- Col Ijaz Ahmed, **Senior Pakistan Army Officer Mali**
- Col Imran Safdar, **Senior Pakistan Army Officer S Sudan**

Important Positions Held by Pakistan in UN (Past Employment)



Sahibzada Yaqub Ali Khan

SRSG Western Sahara
1992 - 97



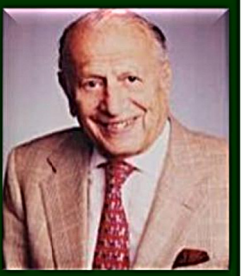
Sheharyar Khan

SRSG Rwanda
1994 - 96



Syed Iqbal Riza

SRSG Bosnia
1996 - 97



Jamsheed Kaikobad

SRSG Iraq 2004-07
SRSG Sudan 2007-10

Senior Representatives of Secretary Generals (SRSGs)

Important Positions Held by Pakistan in UN (Past Employment)



Ashraf Jahangir

Special Envoy/ Advisor
to UNSG 1997-99



Lieutenant General
Maqsood Ahmad
Military Advisor to
UNSG 2013-16

Special Envoys and Military Advisors

Important Positions Held by Pakistan in UN (Past Employment)



Force / Deputy Force Commanders & Chief Military Observers

RECEIPENTS OF DAG HAMMARSKJOLD MEDAL

Rank and Name	Date of Death
ONUB (Burundi)	
Naik Muhammad Hayat	6 Sep 2004
Lance Naik Inzar Ahmed Khan	17 Jan 2005
Sepoy Muhammad Amir	22 Feb 2005
2825349 Ziarat Hussain	17 Dec 2004
UNMIS (Sudan)	
Brigadier Moin Ud Din Ahmed	22 Aug 2009
Sub Noor Ul Samad	20 Sep 2006
Havildar Clerk Nazir Ahmed	18 Oct 2006
Naik Muhammad Saleem Akhtar	24 Oct 2010
Naik Itbar Khan	9 Jan 2011
UNMIL (Liberia)	
Captain Muhammad Tahir Khan	25 Oct 2010
Lieutenant Shahab Hamid Bajwa	29 Nov 2010
Major Kamran Khalil	10 Aug 2013
Khateeb Abdul Latif Chishti	27 Sep 2005
Havildar / Vehicle Mechanic Zafar Iqbal	7 Sep 2006
Havildar Gul Munir	27 Jul 2009

Rank and Name	Date of Death
UNMIL (Liberia)	
Havildar Riaz Muhammad	8 Oct 2011
Havildar Muhammad Ashraf	9 Aug 2009
Naik Nusrat Mehmood	18 Feb 2006
Sepoy Amir Mukhtar	7 Feb 2006
Naik Abdul Qadir Shah	16 Oct 2008
Naik Ansar Mehmood	18 Jul 2009
Sepoy Syed Fakhar Hassan Shah	13 Aug 2009
Lance Havildar Kashif Khan	9 Aug 2009
Sepoy Karim Khan	22 Jun 2010
Subedar Inspector Zafar Iqbal	13 Jan 2011
Sepoy Muhammad Jurial	14 Jun 2011
Sepoy Sajid Hussain	19 Apr 2011
Naik Muhammad Farooq	9 Nov 2011
Lance Havildar Ghulam Nabi	16 Mar 2014
Mess Waiter Nazar Abbas	22 Apr 2014

RECEIPENTS OF DAG HAMMARSKJOLD MEDAL

Rank and Name	Date of Death
UNAMSIL (Sierra Leone)	
Lieutenant Colonel Riaz Ahmed Khokhar	29 Jun 2004
Zia Ud Din	29 Jun 2004
Lieutenant Colonel Faiz Ullah Cheema	29 Jun 2004
Major Hasnain Anwar	29 Jun 2004
Captain Murtaza Khalil Siddique	29 Jun 2004
Captain Waqas Ahmed Mirza	29 Jun 2004
Captain Abrar Ahmed	4 May 2002
Naib Khateeb Nisar Ahmed	28 Jan 2003
Naib Subedar Iftikhar Ahmed	5 Aug 2004
Havildari Muhammad Iqbal	29 Jun 2004
Lance Havildar Muhammad Jahangir	29 Jun 2004
Naik Muhammad Amir	29 Jun 2004
Naik Mehboob Hussain	3 Aug 2001
Naik Muhammad Safdar	8 Jan 2004
Lance Naik Sajid Mehmood	3 Aug 2001
Lance Naik Muhammad Jamil	29 Jun 2004
Signal (Operator) Iftikhar Ahmed	29 Jun 2004
Sepoy Tariq Mehmood	27 Oct 2001

Rank and Name	Date of Death
UNAMSIL (Sierra Leone)	
Sepoy Liaqat Ali	2 Apr 2003
Sepoy Mumtaz Khan	11 Jan 2004
Sepoy Muhammad Zulfiqar	29 Jun 2004
Sepoy Nazir Muhammad	29 Jun 2004
Sepoy Ahmed Khan	29 Jun 2004
Sepoy Afzaal Ahmad	29 Oct 2004
MONUC / MONUSCO (Congo)	
Havildar Muhammad Sadiq	1 Jun 2006
Havildar Hafiz Muhammad Khan	7 Jun 2006
Lance Naik Noor Jamal	28 Jan 2005
Naik Zagham Hussain	16 Jun 2005
Sepoy Munir Ahmed	23 Sep 2005
Havildar Sher Afzal Khan	28 Oct 2008
Sepoy Jamil Akhtar	13 Jul 2009
Subedar Tanveer Hussain	7 May 13
Sepoy Driver Azhar Aziz	1 Jun 2006
Sepoy Jamil Akhtar	13 Jul 2009
Havildar Muhammad Javed	18 Oct 2009

RECEIPENTS OF DAG HAMMARSKJOLD MEDAL

Rank and Name	Date of Death
MONUC / MONUSCO (Congo)	
Lance Naik Waqar Ullah Shah	7 Oct 09
Naib Subedar Muhammad Iqbal, EME	19 Oct 2010
Sepoy Alam Hussain	18 May 2011
Sepoy Habib Ullah	9 May 2012
Havildar Cook Ali Khan	16 Nov 12
Havilda Abdul Majeed Khan	18 Mar 2016
Havildar Zishan Ahmed	2 Sep 2016
Sepoy Muhammad Ishtiaq Abbasi	16 Jun 2017
Sepoy Tariq Javed	17 Jun 2017
Naik/ Welder, Atta Ur Rehman (EME)	14 Nov 2017
Naik Muhammad Naeem Raza	27 Jan 2018
Sepoy Amir Aslam	13 Dec 2019
ONUCI (Ivory Coast)	
Sepoy Abdul Zafran	23 Jan 2005
Sepoy Hayat Ullah Khan	13 Nov 2006
Captain Pervaiz Mehdi	23 Feb 2007
Major Ahmar Raza	13 May 2008
Lance Naik Muhammad Sarwar	15 Jan 2009
Havildar Abdul Majeed	20 Sep 2009

Rank and Name	Date of Death
ONUCI (Ivory Coast)	
Lance Naik Inayat Khan	8 Sep 2009
Sapper Gul Sher	19 Jun 10
Sepoy Niaz Ahmed	22 Jul 12
Sub Mukhtiar Ahmed	18 Dec 12
Lieutenant Colonel Muhammad Ashraf	28 Nov 16
UNOMIG (Georgia)	
Lieutenant Colonel Javed Akbar Anjum	8 Oct 2001
UNMIT (East Timor)	
Naik (Med) Kamran	13 Jan 2011
Central African Republic (CAR)	
Sep Fahad Iftikhar	9 Oct 2014
Naik Qaiser Abbas	22 Sep 2016
Sep Hazrat Bilal	15 Jun 2017
Naik Dvr Rec Muhammad Ali	22 Aug 2017
Naik/ VM AFV Abdul Ghafoor	3 Sep 2017
Darfur	
Naib Subedar Saleem Akhtar	27 Jan 14
Lance Naik Ibrar Mehmood	22 Jul 14
Sep Yasir Abbas	25 Aug 2017

Chapter 5

RECCOMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

RECCOMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Effective gender mainstreaming of UN peacekeeping missions holds the promise of affording countless advantages to the DPKO's cause of multidimensional peacebuilding. Ever since the adoption of UNSCR 1325, the organization has taken numerous steps to promote and implement the WPS agenda on the ground in post-conflict societies. There are however, a substantial number of gaps within the current framework which hinder a full and effective shift towards gender balancing and gender sensitivity.

The previous sections have identified and analyzed various aspects of UN peacebuilding which should help implement effective gender mainstreaming, but nevertheless do not comprehensively enough do so. This final section aims to fills the identified gaps by recommending methods to more effectively and efficiently fulfil the DPKO's promulgated commitment to the inclusion of gender perspectives in its peacekeeping operations.

Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping Operations

1. The inclusion of women at the local level is a crucial pillar for effective gender mainstreaming. Too often, local women and women's networks on the ground are not engaged with strongly enough, which only results in their marginalization in the post-conflict reconstruction process. It is crucial for in mission gender units to engage with local women and women' organizations to build trust and gain genuine first-hand insight into the hardships they face, in order to more effectively cater to their needs.
2. Moreover, local engagement also holds the potential of empowering female populations on the ground, thereby advancing gender equality in local communities. If missions are structured using a truly gender mainstreamed framework, then this can facilitate the capacity building of local women's rights NGOs whilst also leading local communities towards a gender balanced model of governance. With increased women's participation at the peacekeeping and local levels, more attention is also drawn towards gender sensitive social issues which may otherwise be overlooked.
3. Strong political commitment is required to enhance female participation and combat pre-existing edgier hierarchies effectively. The inclusion of women's quotas in peacekeeping missions as well as in local institutions established with the help of gender units should be made mandatory to facilitate a shift towards gender balancing. If such quotas are made compulsory within troop contributions, this will help eradicate the pervasive principal-agent problem faced by the DPKO, which is otherwise at the mercy of TCC preferences and priorities with respect to female peacekeepers' inclusion. Moreover, quotas implemented at the local level, especially in leadership positions, will allow the restructuring of gender hierarchies and place more women in powerful decision making roles.

Training

4. Effective gender mainstreaming requires the efficient and comprehensive gender training of all mission staff. For this purpose, the UN must ensure the presence and working of gender units and gender focal points in the operations. While the majority of DPKO missions do in fact include such units, some do not; the missions which do not have gender units are those of developing nations, which need these facilities the most. The DPKO must make the inclusion of gender units and advisors mandatory, to ensure sufficient training and oversight on the ground.
5. One of the major gaps found is a lack of monitoring and oversight. All gender mainstreamed policies from training to the activities of gender units must be monitored by senior leadership; the introduction of routine reports on gender mainstreaming implementation is essential to evaluate results and may help inculcate a sense of accountability from the bottom up.
6. Because the UN is unwilling and unable to infringe on the sovereignty of TCCs with respect to peacekeepers' pre-deployment training, it may be helpful for mission gender units to deliver at least a concise brush up of the pre-deployment training material before beginning in-mission training. Because the DPKO can never be sure of the extent to which TCCs have followed gender sensitive guidelines, even a brief delivery of pre-deployment material will alleviate problems of monitoring TCC training activity and allow the DPKO to take more control over the gender-sensitivity they wish to inculcate within peacekeepers' sensibilities. Although this may be more costly in terms of both time and resources, not only will it facilitate the UN regaining some of its agency, it will also highlight a much stronger commitment to the cause of gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping.

Implementation od DDR Strategies

7. Within the DDR framework, it should be mandatory that the demobilisation phase considers the varying needs of women. To this end, it must be compulsory for there to be separate containment and assembly sites for women and girls.
8. Given the premise of multidimensional peacekeeping, the inclusion of women in the reintegration phase becomes much more important in the aftermath of conflict. It is impossible to facilitate a societal transition into peacetime without including the needs of such a large portion of the local population. The reintegration phase includes both social and economic reintegration — both of which must include women's perspectives to ensure an enduring framework of stability.
9. Reintegration packages should be made keeping in mind the specific needs of women and girls — both short term and long term - and in collaboration with agencies such as UNIFEM, UNDP, UNICEF and local women's organisations on the ground in host countries; this combination will ensure a comprehensive understanding of the plight of the most marginalised sections of society, and thereby facilitate the creation of more adequate reintegration packages.

10. Women are often left to bear the burden of dealing with broken families in post-conflict societies; wounded relatives and traumatized children make for a precarious environment which local women do not necessarily know how to handle. It is crucial for reintegration packages to be made bearing in mind the emotional and psychological challenges women face given the plethora of ways in which conflicts affect their lives and families — for instance through the inclusion of family counselling services.
11. There is an urgent need for reintegration policies to facilitate the sensitization of the realities of SEA in conflict, and to recognise and cater to the experiences of women. In the case of Liberia, the DDR action plan created in collaboration with UNIFEM, UNDP, UNHCR, WHO exemplified this recognition. Female ex-combatants were to receive special assistance relating to matters of reproductive health, counselling on sexual trauma, and training on women's rights. Such services should be made mandatory in all mission DDR frameworks. Moreover, local women should be made aware of their right to access such services, not only so that they actively seek them out, but also so that missions can be held accountable if they do not provide them.

Implementing SEA Deterrence

12. For the effective reduction and ultimate removal of SEA, it is clear that deterrence needs to be established within the DPKO and at the national level as well. Because the UN has little control of national cultures, laws and jurisdiction, it must encourage stringent punishments and systems of transparency and justice in all TCCs. A system of high level deterrence must be urgently built and constantly updated, drawing upon a combination of different TCC joint good practices, so that UN CDU teams can negotiate for this same minimum level of deterrence to be implemented in each of its key TCCs. This will help facilitate the transferal of these characteristics into peacekeeping missions.
13. Investigative efficacy is hindered due to a plethora of factors, most importantly however, is the CDU's inadequate investigating capacity. This does not have a credible enough deterrent effect. To this end, investment in funding better CDU teams must be encouraged as this would have a profound effect on reducing the rates of SEA. There is a strong relationship between deterrence and SEA rates in UN peacekeeping missions; by strengthening monitoring functions and regulating investigative and reporting missions, the credibility of punishment i greatly enhanced. Therefore, CDU investigative capacity must be improved and minimum requirements and routine checks must be established to deter potential perpetrators.
14. Local populations must be empowered and barriers to reporting incidents of SEA must be broken down to facilitate the investigative process and strengthen deterrence. Women on the ground must be made aware of their rights through the gender unit's information dissemination activities; hotlines and complaint centers must be made mandatory components of all peacekeeping missions; and female peacekeepers must actively engage with local communities to build trust and facilitate SEA reporting. If local women are more likely to report SEA incidents, perpetrators are more likely to be

held accountable, thereby having a stronger deterrent effect.

Implementing Zero Tolerance Policy

15. The only way to effectively implement the UN's zero tolerance policy is by ensuring the commitment of all stakeholders to the cause — these include member states, TCCs, host states, victims and local communities. Individual zero tolerance policy implementation will not result in a substantial enough reduction in SEA; all actors must demonstrate the same zero tolerance and exhaust all options possible within their jurisdiction to implement it. It may be helpful for all MOUs with TCCs to specify a commitment to zero tolerance with clear guidelines, expectations and requirements, any breach of which will result in harsh penalties.

Implementing Increased Female Participation

16. Increased female inclusion in peacekeeping operations is beneficial because they tend to be more effective in handling investigations of SEA cases. Their commitment to upholding respect for women's rights coupled with the increased access they provide to local women makes for a more thorough investigative process. However, this in itself should not be considered a substitute for correcting behavioural norms within male masculinity since many female peacekeepers are also reluctant to report SEA. There should therefore, be minimum quotas for female staff on the ground, as well as suitable penalties if malpractice is concealed or overlooked.

Implementing the Protection of Rights of Peacekeeping Babies

17. The comprehensive strategy presented by the UNGA should review the points that were previously removed from the final strategy; for instance, those which explain that UN staff possess particular duties of care to the people they serve, to support cases that are being pursued in the alleged perpetrators' own countries and the authorisation of deductions from the staff member's salary and emoluments, etc. Such points which emphasise the responsibility and accountability of the peacekeepers should be revised so that peacekeeping babies are not abandoned by their biological fathers.
18. While the comprehensive strategy can be credited to address the issue of peacekeeping babies, in addition, support should also be provided to the Victim Support Facilitators for its implementation. The UN must ensure that all claims regarding the biological peacekeeper fathers are accompanied by conclusive evidence such as DNA testing. This provision must be specifically included in TCC's MOUs, because without TCC support such claims cannot be adequately investigated.

Preventing Spread of HIV

19. HIV testing of the peacekeeping troops, counselling regarding the use of

contraceptives or precautions and awareness training sessions should be made less technical and more culture specific to avoid the reluctance of the peacekeepers and the host countries to comply to such regulations; as well as to avoid any potential blowback from conservative local agents.

Providing Rational Immunity to Peacekeepers

20. Better training programs, zero tolerance policy, increased recreational facilities, family hotlines, sensitivity to SEA and human trafficking can afford the UN a better hold over misconduct facilitated by the immunity granted to its personnel. Also, better evidence gathering, enforced off limits areas, aggressive patrolling, and the addition of legal advisors will increase pressure on peacekeeping personnel, thereby facilitating compliance even if they are immune to local laws.
21. Irrespective of peacekeepers' immunity to local laws however, a culture of impunity within missions must not be condoned. To this end, peacekeeper activity must be adequately monitored and supervised at all times. Reporting of incidents of SEA by staff who are aware of it must be made mandatory and accompanied by the promise of strict penalties if incidents are concealed.

Date Management

22. There is a need to develop a poverty scorecard to track a household's level of poverty especially from a gender perspective. It is crucial that this data be available in real time, so that potential changes in the status of the household are duly recorded and all stakeholders using the database are informed and updated at all times.

Promoting Women Empowered Legislative Agendas

23. Gender Advisors must collaborate with the UNSGA for Financial Inclusion such as the IMF, World Bank and regional development banks to encourage legislation which mandates financial inclusion for the most vulnerable sections of post-conflict societies.
24. Low cost Climate Smart Agricultural technologies should be built into the legislative frameworks of post-conflict states to facilitate an enabling environment whereby markets are created to ensure demand and supply for such products. Peacekeeping missions, specifically the gender units within them, must have designated staff identifying and catering to the different needs of small famers; spreading information and conducting training on climate smart agricultural methods; and creating new livelihood opportunities for women.
25. Gender units must facilitate coordination and collaboration between the legislatures of post-conflict societies and countries in the Global North which also experience femicide, in order to develop policies in accordance with the highest forms of international human rights law. GAUs must also take their own legal support from international human rights conventions in order to take comprehensive action against

any violations. Routine reports and evaluation on instances of femicide may help create a sense of accountability if policies are not in accordance with international laws. It is imperative that GAUs on the ground coordinate their activities with international bodies and in accordance with international conventions in order to equalize standards of post-conflict societies, TCCs and international bodies

26. Ensuring adequate protection of victims of GBV and their families must be a mandatory responsibility of the GAU. This can be done in collaboration with local women's rights organisations and networks to afford the victims a sense of reliability and comfort, as well as to obtain a more thorough understanding of societal and cultural understandings, perceptions and behaviours.
27. GAU coordination with local institutions, governments and ministries must be made an essential part of the post-conflict reconstruction process to ensure that these operate within a gender-sensitive framework. When rebuilding state institutions there should be minimum requirements of gender-sensitivity and responsiveness which must be implemented.
28. GAUs should focus on disseminating information related to the health hazards of early marriages in order to effectively mitigate societies' tendencies to practice them. Local women must also be made aware of their rights to refuse such practices and ensured protection if needed.
29. GAUs must collaborate with local governments and women's organisations to spread reproductive health awareness among the marginalised populations in post-conflict societies. Specific medical centres must be established to attend to patients requiring such services.
30. GAUs must undertake some form of household income survey on the ground ensure equal pay for work given to DDR communities.

Strengthening Conflict-Stricken Health Systems

31. The establishment, protection and maintenance of adequate healthcare systems must be made mandatory for all peacekeeping missions. If this is not attended to, cycles of violence persist and poverty levels worsen.
32. Six useful benchmarks should be used to evaluate the health systems in post-conflict states: health system governance, health service deliveries, human resources, health information systems, health financing for gender, and medical products and technology. These evaluations must be made a mandatory part of GAU responsibilities in every peacekeeping mission.
33. The rebuilding of healthcare systems in the aftermath of conflict must account for the specific needs of women and girls. This must be done by coordinating and collaborating with various international and local institutions to ensure adequate expertise. Where possible, designated health centres should be established catering to the specific health needs of women and girls.
34. The protection of hospitals, their staff and patients must be a priority for peacekeeping missions. It is essential that such facilities remain safe spaces for the wounded. To this end, it may be helpful to designate a set number of peacekeeping

military and police personnel on the ground in the vicinity of these facilities.

35. It is crucial for the DPKO to emphasise the need to recognise and understand the systems financing healthcare in their territories to facilitate the identification of potentially divergent health priorities than those espoused by the DPKO. It must be ensured that all healthcare funding is distributed in a gender-sensitive and gender-responsive manner. To this end, the establishment of set quotas, based on the specific needs of women in different local communities may help ensure adequate monetary distribution.
36. For this reason, health information systems which are disaggregated on the basis of sex must be made a mandatory responsibility of GAUs, so that gendered data is readily available, and equal and equitable health services can be more efficiently and effectively provided.
37. To ensure equitable health service delivery, peacekeeping missions must strategically reduce barriers to access for women and simultaneously increase healthcare worker motivation to enable better and more gender-sensitive healthcare delivery. To facilitate the former, more female doctors and hospital staff, couples with medical centres geared towards women alone may be helpful. Moreover, disability cards should be distributed for the poorest women in society, who have little to no access to basic facilities in conflict ridden territories, especially amidst the COVID-19 pandemic. To facilitate the latter, GAUs must include either specific medical training or provide a set quota of its own gender-trained medical staff to disseminate gender-sensitive and gender-responsive information and practices to local medical staff.
38. Community financing schemes called Mutual Health Insurance could also prove to be useful against the backdrop of COVID-19.
39. There should be more livelihood opportunities for women in economic sectors and areas which may not receive financial subsidies as part of COVID-19 response mechanisms.

Poverty Alleviation and Peacekeeping

40. To establish social safety net policies in post-conflict societies, it is crucial to organize household registries, financial inclusion systems, graduation strategies, and ensure engagement with the media. Peacekeeping mission mandates must not only emphasize the need for such policies, but also make them mandatory especially given the UN's promotion of multidimensional peacebuilding. GAUs must help facilitate the transferal of such policies into communities on the ground through local legislation.

Gendered Elections and Peacekeeping

41. Female voter participation as well as women's representation in the parliament must be encouraged and enhanced in post-conflict states. This political responsibility must be a mandatory aspect of the DPKO's activities on the ground, as it is crucial for the creation of a sustainable peace. This must be facilitated by keeping women safe; providing them with adequate political training and capacity building; strengthening

coordination amongst national gender management mechanisms; including traditional/religious leaders in the process to avoid any potential blowback; and by reviewing the legal framework for temporary seats in governmental bodies.

The fact is that peacekeeping, especially the UN's notion of holistic peacebuilding, has always been a complex feat; because it goes beyond simply putting an end to conflict it sits at the intersection of numerous fields and therefore requires expertise from politicians, economists, health and social workers, women's rights organisations, government and military leaders and other relevant ministry officials to name but a few. Using the above recommendations, it may be possible for the DPKO to more fully delivery on its WPS agenda; and to more genuinely and comprehensively make gender mainstreaming a cornerstone of its multidimensional peacekeeping framework. For gender mainstreaming to be genuinely internalized the process needs to take place in a top-down, as well as a bottom-up fashion. It will likewise require considerable time and resources to overwrite years of deeply rooted gender perceptions. All in all, it is no easy task, but if the DPKO and TCCs can facilitate a true shift from theory to practice, the fruits of its labour will have a profound effect in helping establish more lasting and sustainable peace in conflict ridden zones the world over.

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