Implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) in Latin America and the Caribbean

UN WOMEN
United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

Peace Operations Training Institute®

Peace Operations Training Institute®

Implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) in Latin America and the Caribbean

DEVELOPED BY

The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) and the Peace Operations Training Institute (POTI)

IN COLLABORATION WITH

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SERIES EDITOR

Harvey J. Langholtz, Ph.D.

Peace Operations Training Institute®

UN Women is the UN organization dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women. A global champion for women and girls, UN Women was established to accelerate progress on meeting their needs worldwide. UN Women supports UN Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality, and works with governments and civil society to design laws, policies, programmes and services needed to implement these standards. It stands behind women's equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on five priority areas: increasing women's leadership and participation; ending violence against women; engaging women in all aspects of peace and security processes; enhancing women's economic empowerment; and making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting. UN Women also coordinates and promotes the UN system's work in advancing gender equality.

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Foreword

Unanimously adopted by the Security Council in 2000, resolution 1325 is a landmark resolution that provides an essential framework for women's full participation in conflict resolution and gender equality in all aspects of building peace and security. The resolution calls on governments, international and regional institutions as well as civil society to engage women in peace processes and protect women's rights in conflict and post-conflict situations. The core principles of resolution 1325 have traveled beyond the Security Council and have been embraced by Member States and civil society around the world.

The UN's newest institution – UN Women (the Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women) -- is also dedicated to providing continued support and assistance in these processes and to increase awareness and implementation of the resolution at all levels. Real and lasting progress requires building capacities for national and regional implementation of resolution 1325, including through empowering women's peace movements, the development of national and regional strategies or action plans, building alliances with key stakeholders and mobilizing resources.

One of UN Women's contributions in this regard is this e-learning programme. It was developed in partnership with the Peace Operations Training Institute, with sponsorship from the Government of Norway, and in collaboration with the UN's Economic Commissions for Africa (ECA) and Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

The course is a practical tool for policy decision makers, practitioners and civil society to understand the impact of conflict on women, women's role as agents of change in peace and security efforts. It should inspire commitment and innovation and help a wide range of peace and security actors to integrate this perspective in their daily work. This e-learning experience similarly ought to support governments, regional and international stakeholders and civil society in promoting gender-responsive peacebuilding and post-conflict recovery. At UN Women we are committed to a vision where women play an equal role with men in building peace for all.

Without peace for women, there can be no peace. Until women and women's needs, priorities and concerns are identified, addressed and resourced in a timely and systematic way in conflict and post-conflict contexts, peace processes and peacebuilding will continue to fall far short of delivering effective and sustainable peace dividends. It is my sincere hope that this course will galvanize great determination and effective action to engage women in conflict prevention, resolution, and recovery.

Michelle Bachelet
Under-Secretary-General
and Executive Director
UN Women

WATCH:

MICHELLE BACHELET

UNDER-SECRETARY-GENERAL AND EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF UN WOMEN

To view this video introduction by Michelle Bachelet, either click on the image above or go to: https://www.peaceopstraining.org/users/media_page/1159/un-women-executive-director-michelle-bachelet-introduces-scr1325-course/

Acknowledgements

This project was carried out under the overall guidance and supervision of Rachel Mayanja, the former Assistant Secretary-General on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI, now part of UN Women). Natalia Zakharova of UN Women served as project coordinator and a contributor to the work.

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This project was a collective effort and became possible thanks to many people who participated and contributed in various ways. UN Women thanks the following individuals very warmly for their valuable contributions: Amelia Berry, Lauren Butt, Natalie Hudson, Ximena Jimenez, Ilja Luciak, Michelle Minaskanian, Sonia Montano, Laura Myftaraj, Elsie-Bernadette Onubogu, Nicola Popovic, and Ximena Sanchez.

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Method of Study

The following are suggestions for how to proceed with this course. Though the student may have alternate approaches that are effective, the following hints have worked for many.

- Before you begin actual studies, first browse through the overall course material. Notice the lesson outlines, which give you an idea of what will be involved as you proceed.
- The material should be logical and straightforward. Instead of memorizing individual details, strive to understand concepts and overall perspectives in regard to the United Nations system.
- Set up guidelines regarding how you want to schedule your time.
- Study the lesson content and the learning objectives. At the beginning of each lesson, orient yourself to the main points. If you are able to, read the material twice to ensure maximum understanding and retention, and let time elapse between readings.
- When you finish a lesson, take the End-of-Lesson Quiz. For any error, go back to the lesson section and re-read it. Before you go on, be aware of the discrepancy in your understanding that led to the error.
- After you complete all of the lessons, take time to review the main points of each lesson. Then, while the material is fresh in your mind, take the End-of-Course Examination in one sitting.
- Your exam will be scored, and if you acheive a passing grade of 75 per cent or higher, you will be awarded a Certificate of Completion. If you score below 75 per cent, you will be given one opportunity to take a second version of the End-of-Course Examination.
- One note about spelling is in order. This course was written in English as it is used in the United Kingdom.

Key features of your course classroom:

- Access to all of your courses;
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Introduction

Aim

The purpose of this course is to raise awareness about Security Council resolution 1325 (2000); to mobilize governments to mainstream a gender perspective into all areas of peace and security; and to build national capacity within the public sector to develop a national action plan or strategy for the implementation of the resolution.

Scope

The course will provide information about the intergovernmental process, including in the area of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls, that led to the adoption of SCR 1325 (2000). It will describe the efforts of various United Nations entities towards the implementation of the resolution.

The course will also analyse the efforts of Member States, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean, to mainstream a gender perspective into the area of peace and security. It will explain the gender dimensions of armed conflict and peace processes in the region and provide evidence of the important role women play in ensuring a sustainable and lasting peace.

Approach

The course will identify national priorities in Latin America and the Caribbean in the areas of women and peace and security, provide practical information about how to develop a national action plan or strategy for the implementation of SCR 1325 (2000), and provide key elements and tools for such an action plan or strategy.

Audience

This course was designed as a resource for senior government officials, civil servants, and Members of Parliament who are involved in policy development, planning, and programming in the area of peace and security.

LESSON 1
THE UNITED NATIONS AND WOMEN AND PEACE AND SECURITY

LESSON 1

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Overview of the United Nations

1.3 The UN Security Council and Peacekeeping Operations

1.4 Defining Gender and Important Related Concepts

1.5 Navigating the Gender Equality Regime within the United Nations

LESSON OBJECTIVES

This lesson provides a brief history of the United Nations (UN) and an overview of its current work in international peace and security. More specifically, this lesson introduces the ways in which the UN addresses the issues of women and peace and security (WPS) as one component of the broader agenda aimed at achieving gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. The lesson will cover the fundamental documents and decisions that constitute the institutional framework for the UN's work in this arena. Given that many of the WPS policy objectives directly or indirectly address UN peacekeeping operations, this lesson also discusses shifting legal and procedural trends in UN peacekeeping operations, particularly as they relate to women's and gender issues.

After studying the material in this lesson, the student will be able to do the following:

- Understand the work of the United Nations system, especially in the area of peace and security;
- Understand the development of peacekeeping operations, including their goals and challenges;
- Recognize the main concepts related to gender and gender mainstreaming;
- Understand the importance of promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls; and
- Identify the main documents and decisions of the UN system that affirm the equal rights of men and women as they relate to international peace and security.

1.1 Introduction

This lesson consists of four sections. First, to lay a foundation, we must briefly discuss the origins and basic functions of the UN as it relates to the promotion of international peace and security. From this basis, we can turn to the purpose of the UN Security Council and its multidimensional peace operations. The third section outlines a number of concepts critical to understanding WPS and the UN's broader commitment to gender equality. Lastly, numerous legal documents and organizational structures must be explored in order to understand the institutional framework that guides policy-making and programme implementation in this area.

1.2 Overview of the United Nations

Replacing the flawed League of Nations, the UN was established in the aftermath of the death and destruction of World War II. Its primary purpose was, and continues to be, the promotion and protection of international peace and security. By providing a platform for dialogue between states, the UN seeks to end existing wars and prevent future armed conflict between both state and non-state actors.

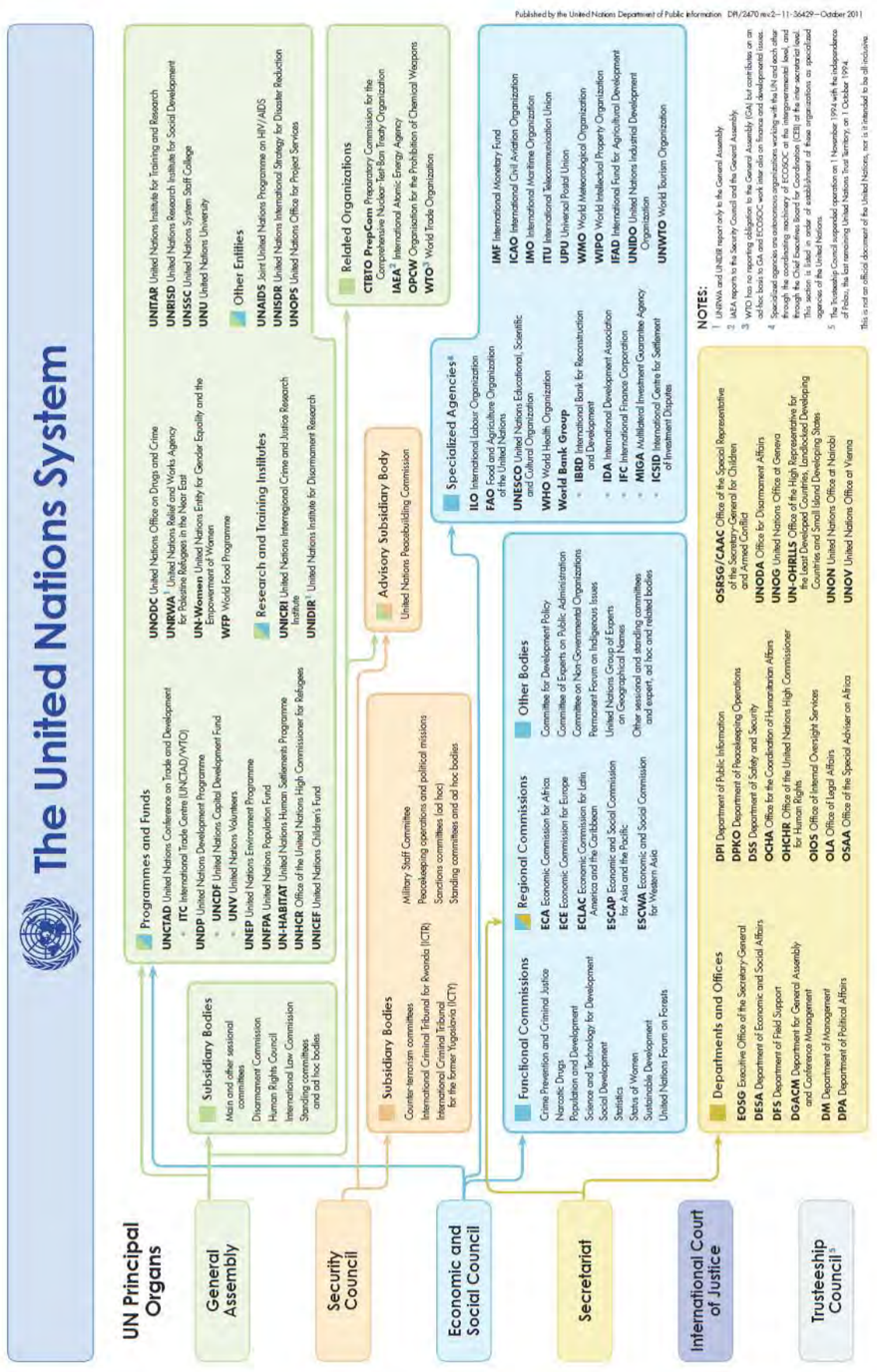
The Charter of the United Nations was unanimously approved by 51 states attending a 1945 conference in San Francisco. Its first article states that the UN's purpose is:

- "To maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace;
- To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;
- To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and
- To be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends."[1]

The Charter defines six main organs within the UN: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice, and the Secretariat. While all six organs are important to the overall mission of the UN, the Security Council is the centre of UN power and acts as the primary decision-making body in the area of international peace and security. Therefore, it is the starting point for addressing these issues from a gender perspective.

United Nations Headquarters in New York City. (Harvey J. Langholtz)

1 *Charter of the United Nations,* Chapter 1: Purposes and Principles, available from *http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/chapter1.shtml*, accessed 9 January 2010.



1.3 The UN Security Council and Peacekeeping Operations

According to the UN Charter, the mandate of the Security Council is to "maintain international peace and security." Thus, it is the UN organ committed specifically to the central mission of the UN. Its mandate is also the most challenging to implement, given that the second article in the UN Charter affirms that "the Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its Members." Tension can thus emerge between the obligation of UN Member States to take collective measures, including the use of force, to defend international peace and security, on the one hand, and the sovereign rights of state actors on the other. Still, the UN Charter grants the Security Council significant power by stating that "in order to ensure prompt and effective action by the United Nations, its Members confer on the Security Council primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, and agree that in carrying out its duties under this responsibility the Security Council acts on their behalf" (Article 24). In other words, the Security Council is in charge of these responsibilities and acting consequently. Further, according to Article 25, UN Member States are legally obligated to "accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council in accordance with the present Charter."

The activity of the Security Council is influenced greatly by its members. Currently, it consists of 15 members, of which five are permanent. The non-permanent members serve for two years and are distributed by geographic area, with two representatives from Latin America, two from Asia, three from Africa, three from Western Europe, and one from Eastern Europe. The five permanent members, which have the power to unilaterally veto Security Council resolutions, are China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

To maintain international peace and security in conformity with the purposes and principles of the United Nations, the Security Council does the following:

- Investigates any dispute or situation that may cause international tension or conflict;
- Recommends methods or conditions for settlement of disputes;
- Formulates plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments;
- Determines whether there is a threat to the peace or an act of aggression, and recommends which measures should be taken;
- Encourages Members to apply economic sanctions and other measures that do not involve the use of force in order to prevent or stop aggression;
- Employs military action against aggressors;
- Recommends the incorporation of new Members;
- Exercises United Nations trusteeship functions in "strategic zones"; and
- Recommends to the General Assembly the appointment of the Secretary-General and, in conjunction with the Assembly, appoints the magistrates of the International Court of Justice.

Although this is not an exhaustive list, it is clear that in fulfilling its mission, the Security Council engages in a range of actions – from preventive and provisional measures, such as requesting a ceasefire or sending observers to supervise a truce, to coercive measures (with or without the use of force), such as an economic blockade or military intervention. The former actions occur in the context of Chapter VI of the UN Charter, while the latter generally adhere to Chapter VII. Chapter VII peacekeeping operations not only allow but require peacekeepers to use all necessary means to protect civilians, prevent violence against UN staff and personnel, and deter armed elements from ignoring peace agreements. Chapter VII provisions have also led the Security Council to establish ad hoc war crimes tribunals in the aftermath of certain horrific instances of armed conflict, such as those in Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia.

Despite these mandated functions and activities, the term *peacekeeping* does not appear in the UN Charter. This is not surprising given that the Charter was designed to provide mechanisms that could prevent the sort of border aggression and violence between nations that triggered the Second World War. The concept of peacekeeping did not emerge until the late 1940s, in a series of ad hoc interventions that began in the Middle East (UNTSO in 1948) and along the border between India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP in 1949).

As the nature of armed conflict has shifted since then, so too has the response of the UN. Very few peacekeeping operations occurred during the UN's first four decades. The Security Council was often split along the ideological lines of the Cold War, and the veto power of the five permanent members proved to be a major obstacle to action.[2] The peacekeeping missions that did occur during the Cold War have been defined as traditional peacekeeping missions, in which the purpose of UN peacekeepers was to monitor and assist an agreed-upon ceasefire while diplomats sought a more permanent political solution. Such peacekeeping missions were intended to be temporary interventions that depended on the consent of the warring parties, and their mandates tended to fall somewhere between Chapters VI and VII of the UN Charter. While Chapter VI discusses the peaceful settlement of disputes through negotiation, mediation, and arbitration, Chapter VII discusses the use of coercive means, including force. Peacekeeping missions developed in a way that blurred the line between the two, and thus, the colloquially identified *Chapter Six and a Half* came into existence. UN Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld coined this phrase and worked with the former prime minister of Canada, Lester B. Pearson, to develop and implement peacekeeping missions that went far beyond the parameters of more traditional missions.

The end of the Cold War created new opportunities for cooperation within the Security Council, and the complicated and violent conflicts that emerged during the 1990s pushed the Security Council to think and act in new ways in terms of peacekeeping. In response to these shifting realities, Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali formulated *An Agenda for Peace* (1992), which called for the UN to play a more proactive role in peace missions by going beyond simply peacekeeping and to engage in both peacebuilding and peace enforcement over the long term. He asserted that "the sources of conflict and war are pervasive and deep" and asked that peace missions be enhanced in size, scope and complexity[3] to better address the needs of the changing world. Thus, peacekeeping operations expanded in terms of nature, scope, and frequency; this evolution is often referred to as second- and third-generation peacekeeping. The functions of these multidimensional missions go far beyond simply monitoring a ceasefire to include:

- Truce supervision and military observation;
- Disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR);
- Humanitarian aid;
- Electoral assistance;
- Human rights (HR);
- Mine action;
- Use of UN Police (UNPOL); and
- Cooperation with local and regional organizations, as well as non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

2 Global Policy Forum, *The Power of the Veto*. Available from *http://www.globalpolicy.org/security-council/security-council-as-an-institution/the-power-of-the-veto-0-40.html*

3 *An Agenda for Peace*, written by Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali, served as a blueprint for post-Cold War peacekeeping missions. People who study this document all recognize that it called for "an expansion in the size, scope, and complexity of UN peacekeeping missions" although those specific words never appear together in the document. For the full text, see *http://www.un.org/Docs/SG/agpeace.html*

A Summary of Peacekeeping Operations[4]

Type	Action	Examples
First Generation: Traditional Peacekeeping	• Observation and monitoring • Separation of combat forces • Limited use of force • (Only with military personnel under the UN mandate)	• First UN Emergency Fund, Suez Canal (UNEF I), 1956–1967 • UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP), 1964–present • UN Disengagement Observer Force, Syrian Golan Heights (UNDOF), 1974–present
Second Generation: Complex Peacebuilding	• Humanitarian assistance • Institution-building • Encouragement of political parties • Protection of human rights • Support of democratic elections • (Military and civilian UN personnel plus NGOs)	• UN Transition Assistance Group, Namibia (UNTAG), 1989–1990 • UN Observer Mission in El Salvador (ONUSAL), 1991–1995 • UN Transition Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC), 1992–199
Third Generation: Peace Enforcement[5]	• Use of air, navy, and land forces to restore peace • Creation of safe havens • Humanitarian assistance • (Military and civilian UN personnel plus NGOs)	• UN Protection Force, Former Yugoslavia (UNPROFOR), 1992–1995 • UN Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC), 1999–2010 • UN Mission in Support of East Timor (UNMISET), 2002–2005

UN peacekeeping missions expanded not only in size, scope, and complexity but also in frequency. Of the 64 operations that had been deployed as of October 2010, 13 were established between 1948 and 1989, while 51 were established from 1990 to 2010. The table below provides a summary of the shifting trends in UN peacekeeping activity.

In short, peacekeeping missions have become a vital UN instrument. Because their mandates are established by Security Council resolutions, they obligate UN Member States to act. These missions are managed and coordinated by the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) and operate on a separate budget from the UN system. The UN peacekeeping budget for July 2010–June 2011 was set at $7.26 billion.

4 Information in the table is drawn from *International Organization* by Margaret P. Karns and Karen A. Mingst (Boulder, Lynne Rienner, 2004)

5 In some cases, peace enforcement operations have been replaced with successor missions, e.g., MONUSCO (2010–present) in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and UNMIT (2006–present) in East Timor.

Status of UN Peacekeeping Operations[6]

Statistics	
Peacekeeping operations since 1948	66
Current peacekeeping operations	15
Current peace operations directed and supported by DPKO	16
Personnel	
Uniformed personnel* (82,153 troops, 14,421 police and 2,033 military observers)	98,607
Countries contributing uniformed personnel	117
International civilian personnel* (31 December 2011)	5,468
Local civilian personnel* (31 December 2011)	12,290
UN Volunteers*	2,421
Total number of personnel serving in 15 peacekeeping operations*	118,786
Total number of personnel serving in 16 DPKO-led peace operations**	121,046
Total number of fatalities in peace operations since 1948***	2,989
Financial Aspects	
Approved budgets for the period from 1 July 2011 to 30 June 2012	About 7.84 billion
Estimated total cost of operations from 1948 to 30 June 2010	About $69 billion
Outstanding contributions to peacekeeping	About 2.18 billion

* Numbers include 14 peacekeeping operations only. Statistics for UNAMA, a special political mission directed and supported by DPKO, can be found at *www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/ppbm.pdf*

** This figure includes the total number of uniformed and civilian personnel serving in 14 peacekeeping operations and one DPKO-led special political mission—UNAMA

*** Includes fatalities for all UN peace operations

1.4 Defining Gender and Important Related Concepts

Before we can begin to understand the UN's approach to WPS and the many obstacles and challenges it faces, it is important to define several key gender-related terms.[6]

Although often used interchangeably, the words *sex* and *gender* do not mean the same thing. They refer to two different, albeit interconnected, aspects of our world. Sex has an exclusively biological connotation, whereas gender refers to socially constructed notions about masculinity and femininity that may or may not exactly coincide with notions of a person's sex.

Distinction between Sex and Gender

- A person's sex is biologically determined.
- A person's gender is socially constructed, reflecting learned rather than innate behaviours. It is specific to time and space, which means it can change over time and within and between cultures.

More specifically, gender refers to the social attributes, roles, and responsibilities associated with being male or female and to the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relationships between women and those between men. It also includes expectations about the characteristics, aptitudes, and likely or appropriate behaviours of both women and men, including what it means to be masculine or feminine. Gender roles and expectations are learned; therefore, they are temporally bound and context-specific. Gender often intersects with other systems of social differentiation, such as political status, class, ethnicity, physical and mental disability, age, and other factors that can modify its meaning in particular contexts. Within these broader socio-cultural contexts, gender determines what is expected, allowed, and valued in a women or a man. In most societies, there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, and access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities.

The concept of gender is vital because it reveals systems of subordination and domination, as well as how such systems are socially constructed. Gender roles, responsibilities, norms, expectations, and stereotypes that are accorded to men and women in different ways directly affect power relationships in society, such as division of labour and decision-making structures. Gender is relational in that it does not exclusively refer to women or to men but rather to relations between them. Gender defines certain roles that men and women play in society; socialization and stereotypes teach and reinforce these ideas and expectations.

Gender mainstreaming, which begins by taking the distinction between sex and gender seriously, is the central overarching concept in addressing issues of WPS. Gender mainstreaming is a process rather than a goal; it entails bringing the perceptions, experience, knowledge, and interests of women and men to bear on policy-making, planning, and decision-making. Mainstreaming does not replace the need for targeted, women-specific policies, programmes, and positive legislation, nor does it do away with the need for gender units or focal points.

Gender Mainstreaming

Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.

Source: UN Economic and Social Council, Agreed Conclusions 1997/2, 18 July 1997, 1997/2, available from http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4652c9fc2.html, accessed 25 January 2010

According to the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), gender mainstreaming "must be institutionalized through concrete steps, mechanisms and processes in all parts of the United Nations system".[7] This means that putting gender mainstreaming into practice requires system-wide change at the highest levels. Beyond broadening women's participation at all levels of decision-making, gender mainstreaming also requires that issues across all areas of activity should be defined in such a manner that the objective for gender mainstreaming will be reached: to design and implement development projects, programmes, and policies that do not reinforce existing gender inequalities (are not gender negative or gender neutral), that attempt to redress existing gender inequalities between men and women (are gender sensitive); and that attempt to redefine women's and men's gender roles and relations (are gender positive or gender transformative). The degree of integration of a gender perspective in any given project can be conceptualized as a continuum, as shown in the following table.

6 United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, UN Peacekeeping Operations Fact Sheet, *www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/bnote010101.pdf*, accessed 22 May 2012.

7 UN Economic and Social Council, *Agreed Conclusions 1997/2, 18 July 1997, 1997/2*. Available from *http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4652c9fc2.html,* accessed 25 January 2010.

Gender Negative →	Gender Neutral →	Gender Sensitive →	Gender Positive →	Gender Transformative
Involves the intentional use of gender norms, roles, and stereotypes to reinforce gender inequalities in order to achieve desired outcomes in terms of peace, security, and order.	Does not consider gender roles and norms relevant to desired outcomes; thus, often unintentionally reinforces gender inequalities in rebuilding a society.	Recognizes that gender roles and relations affect all aspects of society and, therefore, have implications for achieving desired goals. Addresses gender inequalities insofar as raising awareness about how such issues affect mission goals.	Sees addressing gender relations and inequalities as central to achieving desired outcomes. Project outcomes specifically address changing gender roles and expectations, from a practical and largely immediate or short-term perspective.	Sees addressing gender relations and inequalities as central to achieving desired outcomes. Approach tends to be more strategic and long-term in terms of transforming unequal gender relations to promote shared power, control of resources, decision-making, and support for women's and girls' empowerment.

Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies, or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making both women's and men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic, and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. This definition, which is drawn from the ECOSOC document cited above, points to five areas in which such gender mainstreaming efforts are critical:

- The intergovernmental processes of the UN;
- Institutional requirements for gender mainstreaming in all policies and programmes;
- The role of gender units and focal points in gender mainstreaming;
- Capacity-building for gender mainstreaming; and
- Gender mainstreaming in the integrated follow-up to global United Nations conferences.

In effect, gender mainstreaming seeks to eliminate all forms of gender-based discrimination. Gender discrimination has detrimental consequences not only for women and girls but also for an entire society – socially, economically, and politically. As of March 2011, 187 countries (over 90 per cent of UN members) have committed themselves to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). This international treaty, often referred to as the international bill of rights for women, defines *discrimination* against women as "any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field." By accepting CEDAW, states commit themselves to undertake a series of measures to end discrimination against women in all forms, including the following:

- "To incorporate the principle of equality of men and women in their legal system, abolish all discriminatory laws and adopt appropriate ones prohibiting discrimination against women;
- To establish tribunals and other public institutions to ensure the effective protection of women against discrimination; and
- To ensure elimination of all acts of discrimination against women by persons, organizations or enterprises."[8]

Gender mainstreaming, however, goes beyond a discussion of ending discrimination against women. It is a much more radical approach that takes into account a number of other gender-relevant concepts as part of the process. Therefore, it is critical to briefly define such concepts, as they can enhance our understanding of the nature and scope of gender mainstreaming.

Gender Equality

Gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities of women and men, and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities, and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs, and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women's issue; it should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development and security.

Gender equality is not gender equity.

> *Gender equity goes further than equality of opportunity to look at outcomes. Treating women and men, or girls and boys, equally does not automatically ensure that they obtain equal outcomes and benefits, since there are many structural factors that may militate against this. Work towards gender equity therefore looks at structural power relations in society as well as material resources, and may include taking positive or affirmative action to ensure that policies and programmes benefit women/girls and men/boys equally.*[9]

Liberian refugees in a transit camp in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire. These girls were taught "feminine" activities during this conflict, which reinforced gender stereotypes regarding domestic chores reserved for women. (UN Photo #32504 by Eskinder Debebe, August 2004)

Within the UN system, gender equity is often associated with notions of justice and fairness and, therefore, requires a value judgment. Such judgments can, of course, be subjective, since factors like tradition, custom, religion, and culture weigh into what constitutes fairness. From a gender perspective, these factors can certainly be detrimental to women and girls, particularly in societies in which gender relations have historically been asymmetrical and biased against women and girls. From this perspective, it is necessary to first achieve gender equality before trying to define what gender-equitable policies and practices might look like in a society.

Gender Balance

Gender balance refers to the equal representation of women and men at all levels of an organization. Efforts that increase the number of women in decision-making positions constitute gender balancing. The UN's goal is to achieve a 50-50 gender balance in all professional posts. While achieving a gender balance is certainly an important part of gender mainstreaming, it is only one component of a larger process.

8 For more information, see *http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/.*

9 Commonwealth Secretariat, The Commonwealth Plan of Action for Gender Equality 2005–2015 (Commonwealth Secretariat: London, 2005), p. 18. Available from *http://www.thecommonwealth.org/shared_asp_files/GFSR.asp?NodeID=142576*, accessed 1 April 2011.

Sex-Disaggregated Data

Effective gender mainstreaming requires the availability and use of sex-disaggregated data because such empirical evidence is critical to determining the differentiated impact of policies on women and men. Sex-disaggregated data are statistics that are usually collected and presented separately for men and women. Such data are extremely valuable because they provide insight into how given gender roles lead to distinct needs being met in order to fulfil those roles effectively.

HIV-positive women work in an open-air embroidery workshop they started to boost income, as well as confidence, which helps in the empowerment of women in Honduras. (UN Photo #138811 by Mark Garten, June 2006)

Gender Analysis

Gender analysis refers to a variety of methods used to understand the relationships between men and women, their access to resources, their activities, and the constraints they face relative to each other. It recognizes that gender and its intersection with race, ethnicity, culture, class, age, disability, or any other status is important in understanding the different patterns of involvement, behaviour, and activities that women and men have in economic, social, political, and legal structures.

At the local level, gender analysis makes visible the varied roles women, men, girls, and boys play in the family, in the community, and in social, economic, legal, and political structures. An analysis of gender relations can tell us who has access, who has control, who is likely to benefit from a new initiative, and who is likely to lose. Gender analysis asks questions about why a situation has developed the way it has. It explores assumptions about issues such as the distribution of resources and the impact of culture and tradition. It can provide information on the potential direct or indirect benefit of a development initiative on women and men, on some appropriate entry points for measures that promote equality in a particular context, and on how a particular development initiative may challenge or maintain the existing gender division of labour. Implementing an effective gender analysis requires skilled professionals with adequate resources, as well as the use of local expertise. The findings from a gender analysis must be used to shape the design of policies, programmes, and projects.

Gender Impact Assessment

Gender impact assessment refers to the differential impact – intentional or unintentional – of various policy decisions on women, men, girls, and boys. It enables policy-makers to picture the effects of a given policy more accurately and to compare and assess the current situation and trends with the expected results of the proposed policy. Gender impact assessment can be applied to legislation, policy plans and programmes, budgets, reports, and existing policies. However, it is most successful when carried out at an early stage in the decision-making process so that changes and even the redirecting of policies can take place.

Empowerment

Empowerment is about men and women taking control of their lives: setting their own agendas, gaining skills (or having existing skills and knowledge recognized), building self-confidence, solving problems, and developing self-reliance. Empowerment is sometimes described as being about the ability to make choices, but it must also involve being able to shape what choices are available or seen as possibilities. The process of empowerment is as important as the goal. Empowerment should not be seen as a zero-sum game in which gains for women automatically imply losses for men. In empowerment strategies, increasing women's power does not refer to power over others, or controlling forms of power, but rather to alternative forms of power – power to, power with, and power from within – all of which focus on utilizing individual and collective strengths to work towards common goals without coercion or domination.[10]

Misunderstandings about the Meaning of Gender

It is important to understand some typical misconceptions about gender and its place in discussions of international peace and security.

First, even though in many languages there is little or no linguistic distinction between the terms, gender and sex are not the same, and the difference is critical. Second, addressing gender is not the same as addressing women's issues. Women's issues are a part of gender issues, but gender also involves the relationship between men and women and boys and girls, as well as the impact of ideas about masculinity and femininity within a given society. Third, gender is not a marginal issue in the UN's work in peace and security. Gender – being male or female – is integral to our being: how we face the world, how it perceives us, how we are expected to behave, the tasks we undertake, and how we relate to other females or males. It encompasses all aspects of societal structures, from the family level to state institutions. Thus, gender roles have far-reaching implications, and their consideration should be central to peace and security work.

WATCH:

SIDE BY SIDE – WOMEN, PEACE AND SECURITY

This 30-minute documentary, which was jointly developed by the Australian Government's Australian Civil-Military Centre and UN Women, explores the ways in which the international community have met – and can continue to meet – its commitments on women, peace, and security. To view the video, either click on the image above or go to:
http://www.peaceopstraining.org/e-learning/course_media_page/1154/side-by-side-women-peace-and-security/

10 IDRC 1998; see *http://archive.idrc.ca/library/document/annual/ar9899/*. For additional information, see Z. Oxaal and S. Baden, "Gender and Empowerment: Definitions, Approaches and Implications for Policy", *BRIDGE (development – gender)* (Brighton: Institute for Development Studies, 1997), available from *http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/go/home&id=23334&type=Document*; and S. Longwe, *Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment*, paper presented at a working seminar on methods for measuring women's empowerment in a Southern African Context, 17–18 October 2001, Windhoek, Namibia.

1.5 Navigating the Gender Equality Regime within the United Nations

When trying to understand the many institutions and complex legal frameworks that seek to promote gender equality within the UN system, thinking in terms of an "international regime of gender equality" is a useful starting point. The term *regime* refers to agreed-upon "principles, norms, rules, and decision-making procedures around which actors' expectations converge in a given issue area".[11] Such rules and procedures may be explicit, such as the codification of international law in the form of treaties, or they may be implicit or less formally binding. Whether or not these principles are formalized in a treaty or more informally part of international agencies and conferences, they constitute a regime because they come together in a way that can influence state action. The gender equality regime, like other regimes, includes a web of organizations – from the global to the local, including governmental and non-governmental organizations. Many actors, organizations, and pieces of legislation make up the gender equality regime even beyond the UN. The following section highlights some of the key institutions, principles, and rules that contribute to the establishment of global normative standards for gender equality in the context of the UN system.

The UN's contribution to the international regime of gender equality begins with the UN Charter. This founding document commits the organization to ensuring and protecting equal rights for men and women. Specifically, the Preamble to the Charter reaffirms "faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and…to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom." It also places special emphasis on non-discrimination against women and girls and the promotion of equality, balance, and gender equity in Chapters I, III, IX, and XII. However, a number of other key principles that emerge in the Charter, including sovereign equality of states, maintenance of peace and security, and non-intervention in the domestic affairs of states, often operate in direct opposition to such gender-related goals and can ultimately override them.

Gender equality as a human-rights issue received institutional reaffirmation within the UN in what is informally known as the International Bill of Human Rights: the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966). While these foundational documents were important in establishing a normative legal framework as substantial components of international law, their implementation often falls short. From a gender equality perspective, this declaration and two subsequent treaties' approach to gender equality is fairly narrow, often excluding certain issues from the human rights agenda, such as those that occur in the private realm. In this sense, their mandates are often criticized for not taking women's and girls' human rights seriously.

Thus, the UN was in need of a legally binding document specifically devoted to the rights of women and girls as part of the gender equality regime. In 1979, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which is the first international human rights instrument to explicitly define all forms of discrimination against women as fundamental human rights violations. Much of the text of this convention was drafted by the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), another important element of the gender equality regime within the UN system. This intergovernmental body was established in 1946 with 15 members and now has 45 members, elected by ECOSOC for a period of four years. Every year, representatives of Member States gather at United Nations Headquarters in New York to evaluate progress on gender equality, identify challenges, set global standards, formulate policies, and promote gender equality and the advancement of women and girls worldwide.

11 Stephen D. Krasner, "Structural causes and regime consequences: Regimes as intervening variables", *International Organization,* vol. 36, No. 2 (Spring 1982), p. 186.

The Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, which entered into force in 2000, further enhanced the gender equality regime by putting procedures and mechanisms in place that hold states accountable to the Convention. By ratifying the Optional Protocol, a state recognizes the competence of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women – the body that monitors states parties' compliance with the Convention – to receive and consider complaints from individuals or groups within its jurisdiction. More specifically, the Protocol contains two procedures:

- A communications procedure allows individual women, or groups of women, to submit claims of violations of rights protected under the Convention to the Committee. In order for individual communications to be admitted for consideration by the Committee, a number of criteria must be met; for example, domestic remedies must have been exhausted.
- Another procedure enables the Committee to initiate inquiries into situations of grave or systematic violations of women's rights.

In either case, states must be party to the Convention and the Protocol.[12]

The global discourse on gender equality norms further evolved at four world conferences on women held between 1975 and 1995 in Mexico, Copenhagen, Nairobi, and Beijing. These conferences provided platforms for intergovernmental negotiations and gave women's organizations an international arena for making their claims and for networking. The first was convened in Mexico City to coincide with the 1975 International Women's Year, observed to remind the international community that discrimination against women and girls continued to be a persistent problem in much of the world. The UN General Assembly called for this first conference to focus international attention on the need to develop goals, effective strategies, and plans of action for the advancement of women and girls.

12 See: *http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/protocol/*

To this end, the General Assembly identified three key objectives that would become the basis for UN work on gender equality:

- Full gender equality and the elimination of gender discrimination;
- The integration and full participation of women in development; and
- An increased contribution by women in the strengthening of world peace.

The conference, along with the United Nations Decade for Women (1976–1985), proclaimed by the General Assembly five months later at the urging of the conference, launched a new era in global efforts to promote the advancement of women by opening a worldwide dialogue on gender equality. A process of learning was set in motion that would involve deliberation, negotiation, setting objectives, identifying obstacles, and reviewing progress.

The second World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985) took place in Copenhagen in 1980. In this photo, Lucille Mair, Secretary-General of the Conference, addresses the delegates at the opening ceremony. (UN Photo #66207 by Per Jacobsen)

This process continued with the second world conference for women in Copenhagen in 1980, building upon the objectives laid out five years earlier. In terms of the UN's work on peace and security, the report from this second conference specified: "In accordance with their obligations under the Charter to maintain peace and security and to achieve international cooperation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, bearing in

mind, in this respect, the right to live in peace, States should help women to participate in promoting international cooperation for the sake of the preparation of societies for a life in peace" (paragraph 33). In this way, the UN began to frame women's rights and gender equality as important components of their peace and security work.

The third world conference in 1985 adopted the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, with the goals of equality, development, and peace as a blueprint for action until 2000. This document clearly linked the promotion and maintenance of peace to the eradication of violence against women at all levels of society. Paragraph 13 states that the full and effective promotion of women's rights can best occur in conditions of international peace and security. Peace includes not only the absence of war, violence, and hostilities at the national and international levels, but also the enjoyment of economic and social justice, equality, and the entire range of human rights and fundamental freedoms within society. Peace cannot be realized under conditions of economic and sexual inequality, denial of basic human rights and fundamental freedoms, deliberate exploitation of large sectors of the population, unequal development of countries, and exploitative economic relations. The document urges Member States to take constitutional and legal steps to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women, as well as to tailor national strategies to facilitate the participation of women in efforts to promote peace and development. At the same time, it contains specific recommendations for women's empowerment in regard to health, education, and employment.

On 3 December 2009, the 30th anniversary of CEDAW was celebrated in New York. (UN Photo #422063 by Eskinder Debebe, December 2009)

The fourth world conference on women, held in Beijing in 1995, produced the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. The Declaration committed governments to implement the strategies agreed to in Nairobi in 1985 before the end of the twentieth century and to mobilize resources for the implementation of the Platform for Action. The Platform is the most complete document produced by a UN conference on women's rights, since it incorporates achievements from earlier conferences and treaties, such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, CEDAW, and the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, which was produced at a global human rights conference in 1993. In terms of WPS, the Beijing Platform for Action was critical, because it identified women and armed conflict as one of 12 critical areas of concern. Within this area, six strategic objectives were identified:

1. Increase the participation of women in conflict resolution at decision-making levels, and protect women living in situations of armed and other conflicts or under foreign occupation;
2. Reduce excessive military expenditures and control the availability of armaments;
3. Promote non-violent forms of conflict resolution, and reduce the incidence of human rights abuse in conflict situations;
4. Promote women's contributions to fostering a culture of peace;
5. Provide protection, assistance, and training to refugee women, internally displaced women, and other displaced women in need of international protection; and
6. Provide assistance to the women of colonies and non-self-governing territories.

As will be seen in Lesson 3, some of these strategic objectives were very influential in the development of the UN's approach to the issues of women and peace and security.

In addition to these global conferences, international treaties, and the various international bodies in place, several UN General Assembly Declarations are worth noting here. Although declarations are by definition non-enforceable, they still make important contributions, particularly to the ideational development of gender equality and its impact on the UN's mission of maintaining international peace and security. First is the 1966 General Assembly Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, which paved the way for CEDAW. In 1974, the General Assembly passed the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergencies and Armed Conflict, which laid the groundwork for the protection framework within the gender equality regime. In reaffirming CEDAW and these previous declarations, the General Assembly then adopted resolution 3521 (1975), calling on UN Member States to ratify international conventions and other instruments concerning the protection of women's rights. According to this resolution, women, enjoying fully the rights provided for in the relevant international instruments, should play an equal role with men in all spheres of life, including the ensuring of peace and the strengthening of international security, and should fully participate in political life. Lastly, in 1993, the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women recognized the urgent need for the universal application to women of rights and principles with regard to the equality, security, liberty, integrity, and dignity of all human beings, and expressed concern that violence against women is an obstacle to the achievement of equality, development, and peace. It noted that this violence could be perpetrated by assailants of either sex, within the family and the state itself. These General Assembly declarations and resolutions, among others, are central to understanding the development and trajectory of the UN's work to promote gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls.

Beyond these efforts specifically focused on gender issues, other areas within the UN system have shifted, creating space for gender issues to appear in new contexts, particularly that of international peace and security. For example, in the late 1990s in the context of the horrific violence in Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia, the Security Council undertook a series of meetings to address the issue of responsibility to protect civilian populations during times of war. Part of this shift in thinking was related to developments in international law, which for the first time codified rape and sexual violence as war crimes, crimes against humanity, and acts of genocide. This important legal categorization began with the International Criminal Tribunals for the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda and was made permanent in the 1998 Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, which defines rape and sexual violence in its "elements of crime" section. These historic international instruments were part of what pushed the Security Council to expand its understanding of what constitutes a threat to international security, establishing jurisdiction beyond actual or imminent international armed conflict.

From 1999 to 2000, the Security Council adopted a number of SC resolutions (SCRs) on thematic issues, in addition to traditional resolutions on country-specific conflicts, reflecting a broader view of security and subsequently an enlarged agenda for the Security Council. These include resolutions on the protection of civilians in armed conflict (SCR 1265 and 1296), children and armed conflict (SCR 1261 and 1314), the importance of democracy and human rights in establishing peace (SCR 1327), and the threats HIV/AIDS poses to international peace and security (SCR 1308).

It was in this context that SCR 1325 (2000) on Women and Peace and Security, the focus of this course, was adopted.[13] As will be discussed in Lesson 3, SCR 1325 (2000) was passed unanimously on 31 October 2000. It was the first resolution ever passed by the Security Council that specifically addressed the impact of war on women and girls, as well as women's contributions to conflict resolution and the maintenance of peace and security. Although gender mainstreaming has been official UN policy since 1997, this resolution represents the first time that gender had been mainstreamed in the armed conflict and security side of the UN. Lesson 6 will discuss the regional priorities that have emerged with regard to the implementation of SCR 1325 (2000) at the national level, and Lesson 7 will examine the development of national action plans.

13 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), see Appendix C.

Since adopting SCR 1325 (2000), the Security Council has adopted several additional resolutions related to WPS. On 19 June 2008, the Council held an open debate on "Women, Peace and Security: Sexual Violence in Situations of Armed Conflict" and unanimously passed SCR 1820 (2008), which recognizes that sexual violence as a tactic of warfare is a matter of international peace and security. This resolution states that widespread and systematic sexual violence can exacerbate armed conflict, can pose a threat to the restoration of international peace and security, and has an impact on durable peace, reconciliation, and development.[14] Sexual violence not only has grave physical, psychological, and health consequences for its victims but also has direct social consequences for communities and entire societies. SCR 1820 (2008) reinforces and complements SCR 1325 (2000) by urging all actors to incorporate gender perspectives in all United Nations peace and security efforts.

Two further resolutions were adopted the next year. In September 2009, SCR 1888 (2009) was introduced, further enhancing SCR 1820 (2008) by not only highlighting the grave threat of sexual violence during armed conflict but also calling for the rapid deployment of gender advisers and experts to monitor such situations and work with UN personnel, as well as calling for the appointment of a Special Representative to the Secretary-General (SRSG) on sexual violence and conflict.[15] In October 2009, the Security Council adopted SCR 1889 (2009). This resolution reinforces the goals of SCR 1325 (2000), much in the same way that SCR 1888 (2009) continues the aims of SCR 1820 (2008). SCR 1889 (2009) calls for greater participation of women in all areas of peacebuilding, specifically citing the need for monitors to ensure that this inclusion happens and that indicators will be developed to ensure effective implementation and monitoring of SCR 1325 (2000).[16] Both SCR 1888 (2009) and SCR 1889 (2009) call for the need for accountability to their predecessor resolutions.

14 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1820 (2008), see Appendix D.
15 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1888 (2009), see Appendix E.
16 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1889 (2009), see Appendix F.

Despite these accountability efforts, the Security Council remains "deeply concerned over the slow progress on the issue of sexual violence in armed conflict in particular against women and children."[17] On 16 December 2010, the Security Council adopted SCR 1960 (2010). While reaffirming the previously mentioned resolutions, SCR 1960 (2010) most closely strengthens SCR 1888 (2009) in working to protect women and children from sexual violence by deploying gender experts and by reminding states to prosecute those who commit sexual violence.

To further the goals of these Security Council resolutions, the United Nations formed a new entity, the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), which officially became operational on 1 January 2011. This organization is dedicated to streamlining the work on the protection and promotion of women and girls. Four previously separate UN agencies – the Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW), the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI), and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) – have been brought together under the UN Women umbrella. The Under-Secretary-General and Executive Director of UN Women is Ms. Michelle Bachelet, former President of Chile. The three key goals of UN Women are:

- "To support inter-governmental bodies, such as the Commission on the Status of Women, in their formulation of policies, global standards and norms.
- To help Member States to implement these standards, standing ready to provide suitable technical and financial support to those countries that request it, and to forge effective partnerships with civil society.
- To hold the UN system accountable for its own commitments on gender equality, including regular monitoring of system-wide progress."[18]

17 Security Council resolution 1960 (2010). See Appendix G.
18 For more information on UN Women, see *http://www.unwomen.org/about-us/about-un-women*

While SCR 1820 (2008), SCR 1888 (2009), SCR 1889 (2009), SCR 1960 (2010), and UN Women were all adopted or created after SCR 1325 (2000), this course is focused on the role SCR 1325 (2000) has taken in shaping WPS issues in the twenty-first century. Without this important resolution, the subsequent developments would not have been possible.

Before we turn to the details of SCR 1325 (2000) and its implementation since 2000, however, it is important to understand the gender dimensions at work during armed conflict and post-conflict reconstruction, which is the focus of Lesson 2.

As this lesson demonstrates, the United Nations work on WPS issues did not occur overnight. It is built upon a long-developing commitment within the UN system to gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. This commitment has roots in the founding document of the UN – its Charter – and has been linked to its most important mission – the maintenance of international peace and security.

Lesson Summary

Having studied this lesson, the student should be able to understand and discuss the following:

- The origins of the United Nations and how its commitment to maintaining international peace and security has shaped the emergence and development of international peacekeeping operations, particularly since the end of the Cold War;
- The difference between gender and sex, the process of gender mainstreaming, and the meanings of gender equality, gender balance, sex-disaggregated data, gender analysis, gender impact analysis, and gender empowerment; and
- The key components of the international regime of gender equality, including the UN Charter, several human rights treaties, protocols, conventions, and other documents, the four world conferences on women, CEDAW, and selected General Assembly declarations and Security Council resolutions.

End-of-Lesson Quiz

1. The concept of peacekeeping began as:

A. An addendum to Article 24 of the Charter of the United Nations;

B. An alternative to military peace enforcement along the border between India and Pakistan in 1949;

C. A series of ad hoc interventions at the end of the 1940s, beginning with missions in the Middle East;

D. A phrase in An Agenda for Peace, written by UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali.

2. Which of the following attributes CANNOT be used to describe gender?

A. It is a social construction, reflecting learned rather than innate behaviours;

B. It is biologically determined;

C. It is specific to time and space, meaning that it can change over time and within and between cultures;

D. It includes roles and relationships between men and women that are learned and transmitted by family, society, and culture.

3. How is traditional peacekeeping different from complex peacebuilding?

A. Traditional peacekeeping allows the use of armed force, while complex peacebuilding employs only diplomacy and humanitarian assistance;

B. Traditional peacekeeping involves public opinion and protection of human rights, while complex peacebuilding deals only with the heads of nations and factions;

C. Traditional peacekeeping requires the separation of combat forces, while complex peacebuilding employs air, navy, and land forces to keep the peace;

D. Traditional peacekeeping emphasizes observation and monitoring, while complex peacebuilding involves protection of human rights and institution building.

4. What is the goal of gender mainstreaming?

A. To replace targeted, women-specific policies and programmes and positive legislation;

B. To reinforce gender norms, roles, and stereotypes in order to achieve desired outcomes in terms of peace, security, and order;

C. To promote the concerns and experiences of women in political, economic, and social spheres so that women benefit more than men;

D. It is a process rather than a goal, and entails bringing the perception, experience, knowledge, and interests of women and men to bear on policy-making, planning, and decision-making.

5. The Commission on the Status of Women was established in:

A. 1945

B. 1946

C. 1956

D. 1992

6. Why did peace missions change in nature and expand to encompass electoral assistance, protection of human rights, and disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration, among other functions?

A. The number of overall deaths related to conflicts increased;

B. The beginning of the Cold War brought a new environment of international diplomacy and cooperation, facilitating this expansion;

C. The end of the Cold War and the complicated and violent conflicts that emerged during the 1990s necessitated new ways to carry out peacekeeping;

D. The traditional methods of peacekeeping were invalidated by a new interpretation of Chapter IV of the UN Charter.

7. Which of the following documents is considered the first international treaty focused specifically on protecting and promoting women's human rights?

A. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights;

B. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights;

C. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women;

D. Security Council resolution 1325 (2000).

8. Systematic rape and sexual violence during armed conflict:

A. Are crimes that are not covered by international law;

B. Constitute war crimes and crimes against humanity;

C. Are not related to the Security Council's work in international peace and security;

D. Only affect women during war.

9. Which of the following is a function of the UN Security Council?

A. To determine whether there is a threat to the peace or an act of aggression and recommend which measures should be taken;

B. To encourage Member States to apply all necessary measures in order to prevent or stop aggression, including the employment of force;

C. To consider and approve the United Nations' budget and establish the financial assessments of Member States;

D. To establish UN-sanctioned governments in unstable states.

10. Gender equality:

A. Refers to the equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities of women and men where the interests, needs, and priorities of both are taken into consideration;

B. Is an issue that affects only women;

C. Is the same as gender equity;

D. Necessitates a special emphasis on non-discrimination against both men and women, with the exception of nations with a historical culture of prescribed and clearly delineated gender roles.

ANSWER KEY

1C, 2B, 3D, 4D, 5B, 6C, 7C, 8B, 9A, 10A