Implementation of the UN Security Council Resolutions on the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda in Asia and the Pacific
IMPLEMENTATION OF THE UN SECURITY COUNCIL RESOLUTIONS ON THE WOMEN, PEACE, AND SECURITY AGENDA IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

DEVELOPED BY
The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women)

IN COLLABORATION WITH
The Peace Operations Training Institute (POTI)

SERIES EDITOR
Harvey J. Langholtz, Ph.D.
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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Cover: UN Women/Chau Doan. Student of Chu Van An high school gives their opinion about safe schools and the role of youth in preventing violence against women and girls at the visit of UN Women Executive Director Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka to Vietnam on Saturday, March 29, 2014. <https://www.flickr.com/photos/unwomen/13541195633/in/photostream/>

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# Implementation of the UN Security Council Resolutions on the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda in Asia and the Pacific

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The historic adoption of UN Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) culminated in one revolutionary idea: that peace is inextricably linked with equality between men and women, and that women are an untapped resource for building peace. It called on national and international actors to fully involve women in preventing, resolving and recovering from conflict, and to ensure that all peacebuilding efforts are consistent with the principles of gender equality. Since its adoption in 2000, the core principles of resolution 1325 have been reinforced by six other resolutions which build on its provisions for protection of women’s rights during and after conflict, and for addressing their needs during and after peacebuilding. These resolutions provide an essential framework for women’s full participation in conflict resolution and gender equality in all aspects of building peace and security.

The faces of armed conflict in Asia vary by region and are driven by diverse factors, such as climate change, poverty, organised crime, unjust political representation, and the insecurities and disparities caused by economic inequality. These are but a few elements that foster conditions conducive to armed conflict in Asia. Depending on the nature and drivers of a conflict, its impact is felt differently by men and women, boys and girls. Yet, in all cases, whether they are direct or indirect victims, women and girls tend to be disproportionately affected by conflict.

Understanding the gender-sensitive dynamics of conflict and developing corresponding gendered responses and policies is essential. Increasing evidence shows that the larger the gender gap between women and men in a society, the more likely that society is to engage in armed conflict and to resort to high levels of violence. Reshaping traditional and cultural norms to place equal value on the role of women in decision-making processes and governance, and empowering women and ensuring their active role in prevention of conflict is therefore crucial for sustainable peace.

UN Women (the Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women) is dedicated to providing continued support and assistance in these processes and to increase awareness and implementation of the UN resolutions on women, peace and security at all levels. One of UN Women’s contributions in this regard is this e-learning programme. The course is a practical tool for policy decision makers, practitioners and civil society to understand the impact of conflict on women, and 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.

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. This course should offer the ingredients for critical thinking on these issues and the guidance to reshape and modernise policies, so as to effectively engage women – in all their roles – in conflict prevention, resolution and recovery. I hope that recipients of this training will feel inspired and determined to strive for what is achievable: peaceful equality between women and men.
Acknowledgements

This project was initiated and carried out under the overall guidance and supervision of Natalia Zakharova, Lead Specialist on women, peace, and security at UN Women headquarters.

UN Women would like to specifically thank and acknowledge the financial support provided by the UN Women’s Training Center and fruitful collaboration with the Peace Operations Training Institute (POTI) in delivery of this course.

This e-learning course for Asia and the Pacific was a collective effort and became possible thanks to many people who participated in the project and contributed in various ways.

UN Women thanks the following individuals very warmly for their valuable contributions: Corey Barr, Natalie Hudson, Nicola Popovich, Judith Large, Swarna Rajapoulan, and Aisling Swaine.

In addition, UN Women would like to express its appreciation to all the participants of the workshop which took place in Bangkok in January 2013 to peer review the Asia and the Pacific modules of this course, and to the UN Women regional office in Bangkok for their valuable assistance in the organization of this event.

WATCH:

United Nations Under-Secretary-General Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OF UN WOMEN

To view this video introduction by Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka, visit <www.peaceopstraining.org/videos/364/un-women-executive-director-phumzile-mlambo-ngcuka-introduces-wps/>
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 achieve 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:

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• A secure testing environment in which to complete your training;

• Access to additional training resources, including Multimedia course supplements; and

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Introduction

Aim

The purposes of this course are to raise awareness about Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) and subsequent resolutions 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013), and 2122 (2013); to mobilize governments and civil society to mainstream a gender perspective into all areas of peace and security; and to build national and regional capacities for mainstreaming the women, peace, and security agenda.

Scope

The course provides information about intergovernmental processes, including in the area of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls, that led to the adoption of Security Council resolutions 1325 (2000), 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), and 2106 (2013). It will describe the efforts of various United Nations entities towards the implementation of the resolutions.

The course will analyse the efforts of Member States, civil society, and the UN system in general with a focus on Asia and the Pacific, 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 and regional priorities and challenges in Asia and the Pacific in the areas of women, peace, and security and will provide practical information about how to address them, including through the development of national/regional action plans and strategies for the implementation of SCRs on women, peace, and security.

Audience

This course was designed as an accessible resource for decision makers, government officials, civil servants and Members of Parliament, practitioners, and civil society who are involved in policy development, planning, and programming in the area of peace and security.
LESSON 1
THE UNITED NATIONS AND WOMEN, PEACE, AND SECURITY AGENDA
LESSON OBJECTIVES

This lesson provides a brief history of the United Nations (UN) and an overview of its current work on international peace and security. More specifically, this lesson introduces the ways in which the UN addresses the issues of women, 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 framework for the UN’s work in this arena. This lesson also discusses key developments in legal and procedural trends in UN peacekeeping operations, particularly as they relate to women’s and gender issues with increasing focus on civilian protection and conflict prevention.

By the end of Lesson 1, the student should be able to meet the following objectives:

- Have a working knowledge of the United Nations system, especially in the area of peace and security;
- Understand how approaches to peace and security are adapting over time in response to critical changes in contemporary conflict: the shift from “conventional” military battles to complex internal and cross-border wars with high levels of civilian casualties;
- Understand how peacekeeping operations have changed, including their goals and challenges;
- Understand the importance of promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls and fully grasp key concepts related to gender and gender mainstreaming; 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:

• An introduction to the origins and basic functions of the UN in relation to the promotion of international peace and security.
• An overview of the purpose of the UN Security Council and its multidimensional peace operations.
• An introduction to concepts critical to understanding WPS and the UN’s broader commitment to gender equality.
• An overview of legal documents and organizational structures as part of the institutional framework that guides policymaking and programme implementation in this area.

1.2 Overview of the United Nations

Replacing the League of Nations, the UN was established in 1945, in the aftermath of the death and destruction of World War II. Its primary purpose was, and continues to be, conflict prevention and 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 is the foundational treaty of the organization that was unanimously approved by 51 states attending a 1945 conference in San Francisco. Its first article states that the UN’s purposes are as follows:

1. 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;

2. 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;

3. 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

4. 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.

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. 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 decisions of the Security Council are passed through resolutions that should be formally adopted by the Member States.

The activity of the Security Council is influenced greatly by its members. Currently, it consists of 15 members, of which five are permanent. The 10 non-permanent members are elected by the General Assembly and reflect the regional diversity of the world. They serve for two years. The five permanent members, which have the power to veto Security Council resolutions unilaterally, are China, France, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, and the United States. They represent the great powers which emerged as victors in the Second World War and were central to the founding of the UN.

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. Preventive and provisional measures, such as requesting a ceasefire or sending observers to supervise a truce, take place under Chapter VI of the UN Charter. Coercive measures (with or without the use of force), such as an economic blockade or military intervention, occur under Chapter VII. Chapter VII on 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. In addition, as a result of the way that peacekeeping missions have been evolving, and because they have begun to address both
preventive and coercive approaches, Chapter Six and a Half came into existence.

The United Nations Charter and the Resolution of Disputes

Chapter 6, “Pacific Settlement of Disputes,” stipulates that parties to a dispute should use peaceful methods such as mediation and negotiation for resolving disputes and authorizes the Security Council to make recommendations which are generally advisory and not binding.

Chapter 7, “Action with Respect to Threats to the Peace, Breaches of the Peace, and Acts of Aggression,” authorizes more direct influence through measures such as economic coercion (sanctions) and severance of diplomatic relations. In extreme cases the Security Council may “take such action by air, sea, or land forces as may be necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security.”

Informally, the term “Chapter 6 and a Half” refers to UN peacekeeping that falls between the two.

Chapter 8 deals with regional arrangements and authorizes regional organizations such as the AU or NATO to seek dispute resolution through their good offices and application prior to intervention by the Security Council for the maintenance of international peace and security.

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 with the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) in 1948 and along the border between India and Pakistan with the United Nations Military Observer Group (UNMOGIP) in 1949. As the nature of armed conflict has changed since then, so too has the response of the UN.

UN peacekeeping operations between 1945 and 1988 involved the “inter-positioning” of forces between formerly warring parties, with their consent, to monitor ceasefire agreements. The close of the Cold War in 1989 witnessed the emergence of more complexity and a need for multidimensional peace operations. The Security Council authorized missions with a mandate to reduce armed tensions, implement peace accords, and prevent atrocities against civilians in states ravaged by conflict.

The transition away from two dominant “power blocks” (led by the Soviet Union and United States) opened up new challenges for international peace and security. In response to these changes, UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali formulated An Agenda for Peace (1992),\(^2\) 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 to better address the needs of the changing world. As a result, 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 the following:

- Truce supervision and military observation;
- Disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR);
- Humanitarian aid;
- Electoral assistance;
- Human rights (HR) protection;

\(^2\) 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>.
**Summary of Peacekeeping Operations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Generation: Traditional</td>
<td>Observation and monitoring</td>
<td>Military personnel under the UN mandate only</td>
<td>First UN Emergency Fund, Suez Canal (UNEF I), 1956–1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peacekeeping</td>
<td>Separation of combat forces</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP), 1964–present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limited use of force</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN Disengagement Observer Force, Syrian Golan Heights (UNDOF), 1974–present</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second Generation: Complex</td>
<td>Humanitarian assistance</td>
<td>Military and civilian UN personnel plus NGOs</td>
<td>UN Transition Assistance Group, Namibia (UNTAG), 1989–1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encouragement of political parties</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN Transition Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC), 1992–1995</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Protection of human rights</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Support of democratic elections</td>
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<tr>
<td>Third Generation: Peace Enforcement*</td>
<td>Use of air, navy, and land forces to restore peace</td>
<td>Military and civilian UN personnel plus NGOs</td>
<td>UN Protection Force, Former Yugoslavia (UNPROFOR), 1992–1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creation of safe havens</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC), 1999–2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humanitarian assistance</td>
<td></td>
<td>UN Mission in Support of East Timor 2002–2005 (UNMISET)</td>
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</table>

*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.

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.

---

3 Information in the table is drawn from *International Organization* by Margaret P. Karns and Karen A. Mingst (Boulder, Lynne Rienner, 2004).
system. See the table below for details about current peacekeeping missions.\(^4\) include the consent of the main parties to the conflict to have a mission there.

### Status of UN Peacekeeping Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peacekeeping operations since 1948</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current peacekeeping operations</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current peace operations directed and supported by DPKO</td>
<td>16</td>
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### Personnel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uniformed personnel*</th>
<th>93,305</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(81,974 troops, 14,373 police, and 2,235 military observers)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries contributing uniformed personnel</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International civilian personnel* (31 July 2012)</td>
<td>5,392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local civilian personnel* (31 July 2012)</td>
<td>12,573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN Volunteers*</td>
<td>2,245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of personnel serving in 14 peacekeeping operations*</td>
<td>116,515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of personnel serving in 15 DPKO-led peace operations**</td>
<td>118,488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of fatalities in peace operations since 1948***</td>
<td>3,025</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Financial Aspects

| Approved budgets for the period from 1 July 2012 to 30 June 2013 | About $7.23 billion |
| Estimated total cost of operations from 1948 to 30 June 2010 | About $69 billion |
| Outstanding contributions to peacekeeping | About $3.09 billion |

* Numbers include 15 peacekeeping operations only. Statistics for UNAMA, a special political mission directed and supported by DPKO, can be found at http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/ppbm.pdf

** This figure includes the total number of uniformed and civilian personnel serving in 15 peacekeeping operations and DPKO-led special political mission—UNAMA

*** Includes fatalities for all UN peace operations

The profound effects of armed conflict on civilian populations necessitated changes in response from the UN system. The protection of civilians became increasingly highlighted. For example, the Security Council first used the wording “to afford protection to civilians under imminent threat of physical violence” in October 1999 in Resolution 1270, which established the UN Mission in Sierra Leone. Peacekeeping operations are meant to operate impartially, with a proportionate and minimum use of force. This is in part a legacy from origins based in “inter-positioning” between hostile parties to assist in stabilizing situations and holding (keeping) the peace. Conditions necessary for peacekeeping

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The Three Pillars of the Responsibility to Protect

1. The State carries the primary responsibility for protecting populations from genocide, war crimes, crimes against humanity and ethnic cleansing, and their incitement;

2. The international community has a responsibility to encourage and assist States in fulfilling this responsibility; and

3. The international community has a responsibility to use appropriate diplomatic, humanitarian, and other means to protect populations from these crimes. If a State is manifestly failing to protect its populations, the international community must be prepared to take collective action to protect populations, in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations.

(stipulated in the Outcome Document of the 2005 United Nations World Summit)

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.

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 masculine and feminine roles that may or may not exactly coincide with notions of a person’s sex.

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 attributed to being male or female are learned. Gender is a broad social and political issue that determines men’s and women’s rights, participation, access to power, and social and political status.

The concept of gender is vital to examine 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 because 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 roles are not fixed but can and do change over time.

Distinction between Sex and Gender

A person’s sex is a biological category.

A person’s gender is socially constructed, reflecting learned behaviours. It can change over time and within and between cultures.
Gender Equality

Gender equality refers to the equal rights and opportunities of women and men and of 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.*

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 Mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is the central overarching concept in addressing issues of WPS. Gender mainstreaming is both a strategy to achieve gender equality and a goal in itself. It means bringing the perceptions, experience, knowledge, and interests of women and men to bear on policymaking, 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.

According to the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC, 1997/2), 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:

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

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

Gender mainstreaming “must be institutionalized through concrete steps, mechanisms and processes in all parts of the United Nations system.” This means that putting gender mainstreaming into practice requires system-wide change at the highest levels.

The degree of mainstreaming a gender perspective in any given project can be seen as a continuum, as shown in the following table. The table is useful as an approach to practical programming and implementation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Negative →</th>
<th>Gender Neutral →</th>
<th>Gender Sensitive →</th>
<th>Gender Positive →</th>
<th>Gender Transformative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Involves the intentional use of gender norms, roles, and stereotypes to reinforce gender inequalities in order to achieve desired outcomes.</td>
<td>Does not consider gender roles and norms relevant to desired outcomes; thus, often unintentionally reinforces gender inequalities in a society.</td>
<td>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.</td>
<td>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.</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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EXAMPLES OF MAINSTREAMING

In Burundi, significant progress was made when the traditional judicial institution for conflict resolution, the Bashingantahe, amended its Charter to allow for the effective involvement of women. For the first time, women were admitted to participate in judicial decisions and to sit as judges. Women felt more able to come forward with cases affecting them and to feel more trust in seeking assistance.

In Colombia, mainstreaming approaches were used to ensure that policing services were receptive to women’s concerns and needs. A special police station for family issues was established, gender sensitization for public employees was undertaken, and steps to increase police capacities to identify risks and respond to gender-based violence were also taken. This came about as a result of the UN Trust Fund to End Violence Against Women support to the Centro de Apoyo Popular (CENTRAP), a national women’s group which establishes safe spaces in which to talk about violent experiences. The risks women faced in the city were mapped and used to persuade the municipal government to incorporate these changes in its municipal development plan.

In Hungary, participation of women in the armed forces was raised from 4.3 per cent in 2005 to 17.56 per cent in 2006 – not through a quota but by using strategies to increase the recruitment, retention, and deployment of women, including a new military service law that upheld equal rights and guaranteed non-discrimination, a standing committee to identify problem areas and action plans to remedy them, and a network of women focal points and improved resting and hygienic conditions in the bases.


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.

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 fulfill those roles effectively.

Gender Analysis

Gender analysis is a detailed examination 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 are 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 policymakers 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.

**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 concerns are not an “add-on” but central to effective work for peace and security. This is because they go to the heart of issues concerning both power relations and the well-being of society in general.

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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.” 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 are 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.

In fact, the United Nations’ commitment to gender equality was also visible in the establishment of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) in 1946. This is a functional commission of the ECOSOC, dedicated exclusively to the promotion of gender equality and the advancement of women’s rights. Established originally with 15 members, CSW now has 45 members elected by ECOSOC for a period of four years and meeting each year to evaluate and debate progress on achieving gender equality and the empowerment of women.

There is no doubt that CSW both set the scene and contributed to momentum for the first legally binding document specifically devoted to the rights of women and girls as part of the gender equality regime. The UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, the first international human rights instrument to define explicitly all forms of discrimination against women.

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10 For a full account of CSW see <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/CSW60YRS/CSWbriefhistory.pdf>. 


women as fundamental human rights violations. Much of the text of this convention was drafted by the CSW.

As of March 2011, 187 of 194 countries (over 90 per cent of UN members) have ratified the CEDAW. The 7 countries that have not ratified CEDAW include the United States, Iran, Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, and two small Pacific island nations, Palau and Tonga.

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.”

Often, human rights treaties are followed by “Optional Protocols” which may either provide for procedures with regard to the treaty or address a particular issue related to the treaty. Optional Protocols to human rights treaties are treaties in their own right and are open to signature, accession, or ratification by countries who are party to the main treaty. 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:

1. 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.

2. 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, which means they agree to be legally bound to it.

The United Nations human rights machinery has as a central element the mechanism of Special Procedures, which covers all human rights: civil, cultural, economic, political, and social. Independent human rights experts who are working within the scope of that mechanism are called Special Rapporteurs. (“Rapporteur” is a French-derived word for an investigator who reports to a deliberative body.) Their mandate is to report and advise on human rights from a thematic or country-specific perspective. As of 1 April 2013 there were 36 thematic and 13 country mandates.

With the support of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), special rapporteurs undertake country visits; act on individual cases and concerns of a broader, structural nature by sending communications to States and others concerned with alleged violations or abuses; conduct thematic studies and convene expert consultations; contribute to the development of international human rights standards; engage in advocacy; raise public awareness; and provide advice for technical cooperation. Special

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11 For more information, see <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/>.  

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**LESSON 1: THE UNITED NATIONS AND WOMEN, PEACE, AND SECURITY | 27**
Procedures, such as rapporteurs, report annually to the Human Rights Council; the majority of the mandate holders also report to the General Assembly. Their tasks are defined in the resolutions creating or extending their mandates.

In 1994 through resolution 1994/45, the UN (former Human Rights Commission and now) Human Rights Council appointed a “Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, its causes and consequences” for an initial period of three years (which was subsequently extended). This special rapporteur has a mandate to seek and receive information from state parties, treaty bodies, other special rapporteurs, and civil society and to respond to this information with recommendations to eliminate all forms of violence against women in comprehensive ways. She undertakes fact-finding country visits with reports of her findings on issues of violence against women in these contexts and also issues thematic reports to the UN Human Rights Council annually.13

In 2004 another special rapporteur was appointed to deal with issues of trafficking in persons, especially in women and children.14

World Conferences on Women

International discussion on gender equality norms was taken further 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. To this end, the General Assembly identified three key objectives that would become the basis for UN work on gender equality:

1. Full gender equality and the elimination of gender discrimination;
2. The integration and full participation of women in development; and
3. 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.

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 the following: “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.

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.
Institutional Development on Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

To promote and advance progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women, a new entity, the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), was formed and became operational in 2011. This organization is dedicated to streamlining the work on gender equality. 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 the Advancement of Women (OSAGI), and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) – have been brought together under the UN Women umbrella. The first appointed Under-Secretary-General and Executive Director of UN Women was Ms. Michelle Bachelet, former President of Chile.

Among its goals, UN Women aims to do the following:

• Support inter-governmental bodies, such as the Commission on the Status of Women, in their formulation of policies, global standards, and norms;
• 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; and
• Hold the UN system accountable for its own commitments on gender equality, including regular monitoring of system-wide progress.

Gender Regime Relating to Peace and Security

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. It was in this context that SCR 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace, and Security, the focus of this course, was adopted. 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 specifically emphasized the importance of gender mainstreaming in the armed conflict and security side of the UN.

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. 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

15 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), see Appendix C.
16 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1820 (2008), see Appendix D.
17 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1888 (2009), see Appendix E.
appointment of a Special Representative to the Secretary-General (SRSG) on sexual violence and conflict.

In October 2009, the Security Council adopted SCR 1889 (2009).18 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 the effective implementation and monitoring of SCR 1325 (2000). Both SCR 1888 (2009) and SCR 1889 (2009) emphasize the need for accountability to their predecessor resolutions.

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.”19 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.

UNSCR 1820 resulted in the appointment of a Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Sexual Violence in Conflict (SRSG SVC). The mandate of the SRSG, who serves as the United Nation’s lead advocate on conflict-related sexual violence, is to address the priority areas of ending impunity for sexual violence, empowering women to seek redress, mobilizing political ownership of the issues, increasing recognition of rape, and harmonizing the UN’s response. SCR 1888 (2009) further requested that the Secretary-General rapidly deploy teams of experts to situations of concern and that this issue area be included in reports from UN peacekeeping missions to the Security Council. This resolution specified the appointment of women protection advisers and cross-cutting attention to sexual violence in political participation.

On 24 June 2013, the UN Security Council unanimously adopted a sixth resolution under its women, peace, and security agenda item. Resolution 2106 focuses on sexual violence in armed conflict, reiterating commitments to prevent and respond to this issue as a matter of international peace and security.20 The resolution sets out many provisions in this regard, including the following:

- A focus on efforts to end impunity for sexual violence affecting not only large numbers of women and girls, but also men and boys, while emphasizing the need for consistent and rigorous investigation and prosecution of sexual violence crimes as the main point of concern in prevention efforts;
- Further deployment of Women Protection Advisers (WPAs) in accordance with UNSCR 1888 and the strengthening of data collection on sexual violence;
- The need to ensure women’s participation in all aspects of mediation, post-conflict recovery, and peacebuilding; and
- The need to address sexual violence in conflict in the establishment of mandates, missions, and other relevant work of the Security Council.

On 18 October 2013, the Security Council unanimously passed resolution 2122 that sets in place stronger measures to enable women to participate in conflict resolution and recovery. It also seeks to strengthen the Council’s working methods on this agenda: to bring women, peace, and security issues into other thematic areas such as terrorism, non-proliferation, conflict prevention in Africa, and rule of law.

These resolutions will be discussed further in Lesson 3. A full matrix of the first four resolutions, showing more details on the content and application, may be found in Annex A.

18 For the full text of Security Council resolution 1889 (2009), see Appendix F.
19 Security Council resolution 1960 (2010). See Appendix G.
20 For the full text of Security Council resolution 2106 (2013), see Appendix H.
Summary and Key Learning

- The origins of the United Nations, grounded in the commitment to maintaining international peace and security, shaped the emergence and development of international peacekeeping operations which originally helped to supervise agreements and positioning between adversaries.

- The UN system has sought to adapt its peace and security capabilities in response to changes in conflict patterns which emerged in the past decades, leading to greater focus on the protection of civilians in peacekeeping, peacemaking, and peacebuilding.

- For social transformation (relevant to both conflict dynamics and building the peace) it is vital to understand and work with 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.

- The key components of the international regime of gender equality include the UN Charter, human rights treaties – in particular CEDAW, the outcome documents of the four world conferences on women, and selected General Assembly declarations and Security Council resolutions. SCR 1325 (2000) is the most comprehensive work to date on linking the issues of gender equality with peace and security and has been further substantiated through sister resolutions 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013), and 2122 (2013).
Annex A: UNSCRs on Women, Peace, and Security

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### 1325 (2000)

**Women’s leadership in peacemaking and conflict prevention**

**DESCRIPTION**

First Security Council resolution to link women’s experiences of conflict to the maintenance of international peace and security. Asserts women’s leadership and role in conflict resolution, peace talks and recovery, requires build-up of gender response capability in peacekeeping missions and gender training for all involved in the maintenance of peace and security.

Presented by Namibia, 2000

**ACTORS**

**UN Secretary-General (SG) must:**
- Increase numbers of women in UN decision-making on peace and security.
- Ensure women participate in peace talks.
- Provide information on women and conflict in country reports to the Security Council.

**States must:**
- Provide training on gender and conflict.
- Address gender in Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration programmes.

**Parties to armed conflict must:**
- Protect women from sexual and gender based violence (SGBV).
- Respect civilian character of refugee and IDP (Internally Displaced Persons) camps.
- Prevent impunity and avoid amnesty for war crimes against women.

**Security Council must:**
- Take into account impact of its actions on women and girls.
- Meet with women’s groups on its missions.

**FOCAL POINT/LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE UN**

UN women leads in ensuring coordination and coherence in programming on women and girls in relation to peace and security (Presidential Statement S/PRST/2010/22).

**MONITORING AND REPORTING MECHANISM**


Informal reviews: Open Debate every October, and informal Council meetings on the subject.

Periodic briefings of the Council by the Under-Secretary-General, UN Women.

**ACCOUNTABILITY MECHANISM**

(Consequences for violating the resolution)

None. No reference to sanctions for perpetrators.

Tentative on amnesty—parties urged to avoid giving amnesty for war crimes against women “where feasible” [OP 11].

**RESOURCES**

[www.unwomen.org/1325plus10](http://www.unwomen.org/1325plus10)
Women's leadership in peacemaking and conflict prevention

DESCRIPTION
Addresses women’s exclusion from early recovery and peacebuilding and lack of adequate planning and funding for their needs. Asks for a strategy to increase numbers of women in conflict-resolution decisionmaking, and asks for tools to improve implementation: indicators and proposals for a monitoring mechanism.

Presented by Viet Nam, 2009

ACTORS

UN Secretary-General must:
• Produce a strategy to increase numbers of female peacemaking and peacekeeping decision-makers.
• Produce a global report on women’s participation in peacebuilding
• Enable UN entities to collect data on women’s post-conflict situation.
• Place gender advisors and/or women protection advisors in peacekeeping missions.
• Produce a global set of indicators of implementation of 1325.
• Propose a Council mechanism for monitoring 1325.

States must:
• Promote women’s participation in political and economic decision-making from the earliest stage of peacebuilding.
• Track money spent on women in postconflict and recovery planning, invest in women’s physical and economic security, health, education, justice, and participation in politics.

Security Council must:
• Add provisions for women’s empowerment to mandate renewals for UN missions.

Peacebuilding commission must:
• Address women’s engagement in peacebuilding.

FOCAL POINT/LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE UN
The 2010 SG report on Women’s Participation in Peacebuilding (S/2010/466) sets out a 7 – point plan for gender-responsive peacebuilding.

The Peacebuilding Support Office and UN women are co-coordinators.

MONITORING AND REPORTING MECHANISM
Global indicators on 1325 are the foundation for monitoring. The indicators are presented in the SG report to the Council (S/2010/498).

ACCOUNTABILITY MECHANISM
(consequences for violating the resolution)
None—but calls for recommendations in 2010 on how Council will receive, analyze, and act upon information on 1325 [OP 18].

RESOURCES
www.unwomen.org/1325plus10
### Description

First Security Council resolution to recognize conflict-related sexual violence as a tactic of warfare and a matter of international peace and security, requiring a peacekeeping, justice, services and peace negotiation response. Presented by the USA, 2008.

### Actors

**UN Secretary-General (SG) must:**
- Ensure sexual violence is addressed in conflict resolution as well as post-conflict recovery efforts.
- Raise the issue of sexual violence in dialogue with parties to armed conflict.
- Ensure women are represented in peacebuilding institutions.
- Ensure sexual violence is addressed in UN-assisted Demobilization, Disarmament, and Reintegration processes, justice and security sector reform.

**Parties to armed conflict must:**
- Stop sexual violence, enforce command responsibility, and protect civilians from sexual violence including by vetting suspected perpetrators from armed forces and by evacuating civilians at risk.
- Categorically prohibit amnesty for war crimes of sexual violence.

**States must:**
- Build awareness of and take steps to prevent sexual violence including through contributing women peacekeeping personnel.
- Provide training to troops on prevention of sexual violence.
- Apply policy of zero tolerance to acts of sexual exploitation and abuse committed by UN peacekeepers.
- Develop measures to improve protection and assistance, particularly in relation to justice and health systems.

**Security Council must:**
- Address root causes of sexual violence to expose myths about the inevitability and non-preventability of sexual violence in war.
- Include sexual violence as criteria in country-specific sanctions regimes if relevant.

**Peacebuilding Commission must:**
- Advise on ways to address sexual violence.

### Focal Point/Leadership within the UN

Department of Peacekeeping Operations best practices unit produced 1820 + 1 report in 2009.

UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict (a network of 13 UN entities) supports coordination.

### Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism

Annual report (but no clear monitoring and reporting parameters).

Monthly consideration by the Security Council expert group on Protection of Civilians [briefed by the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs].

### Accountability Mechanism

(Consequences for violating the resolution)

Sexual violence relevant to country-specific sanctions regimes [OP 5].

SG to develop a strategy for addressing SV in dialogue with parties to armed conflict [OP 3].

Categorical exclusion of sexual violence crimes from amnesty provisions [OP 4].

### Resources

www.stoprapenow.org
**Description**

Prevention of and response to conflict-related sexual violence

Strengthens tools for implementing 1820 through assigning high-level leadership, building judicial response expertise, strengthening service provision, and building reporting mechanisms.

Presented by the USA, 2009

**Actors**

**UN Secretary-General must:**
- Appoint Special Representative of the Secretary-General on UN response to Sexual Violence (SRSG-SVC) in Conflict.
- Appoint women protection advisors to UN peacekeeping missions in contexts with high levels of sexual violence.
- Establish a rapid response team of judicial experts.
- Ensure that peace talks address sexual violence.
- Appoint more women as mediators.
- Propose ways the Security Council can improve monitoring and reporting on conflict-related sexual violence.
- Make improvements in data on trends and patterns of sexual violence.
- Provide details to the Security Council on parties to armed conflict credibly suspected of perpetrating patterns of rape.

**UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict (a network composed of 13 UN entities) must:**
- Improve coherence in the UN’s response.

**States must:**
- Improve national legal frameworks and judicial systems to prevent impunity.
- Improve support services for sexual violence survivors.
- Ensure traditional leaders prevent stigmatization of victims.
- Support comprehensive national/UN strategies to stop sexual violence.

**Security Council must:**
- Raise sexual violence in designation criteria for sanctions committees.

**Focal Point/Leadership within the UN**

SRSG to build coherence and coordination in the UN’s response to conflict-related SV.

Linked to UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict for coordination.

**Monitoring and Reporting Mechanism**

Invites a proposal on monitoring and reporting mechanism.

Annual report to provide details on patterns and perpetrators.

**Accountability Mechanism**

(Consequences for violating the resolution)

Sanctions committees must add criteria pertaining to acts of rape and other forms of sexual violence [OP 10].

National and local leaders, including traditional/religious authorities, to combat marginalization and stigmatization of survivors [OP 15].

**Resources**

www.stoprapenow.org
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>1960 (2010)</strong></th>
<th>Prevention of and response to conflict-related sexual violence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>DESCRIPTION</strong></td>
<td>Provides an accountability system for addressing conflict-related sexual violence, including by listing perpetrators and establishing monitoring, analysis, and reporting arrangements.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Presented by the USA, 2010</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ACTORS</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>UN Secretary-General (SG) must:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• List in Annex to annual reports parties credibly suspected of committing or being responsible for patterns of sexual violence in situations on the Council’s agenda.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Establish monitoring, analysis, and reporting arrangements on conflict-related sexual violence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Submit annual reports – including a strategic and coordinated plan for timely and ethical collection of information.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>SRSG-SVC must:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Provide briefings to the Council.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Brief Sanctions Committees and groups of experts.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>States must:</strong></td>
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<td>• Dialogue with parties to armed conflict to secure/track protection commitments.</td>
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<td>• Provide all military and police personnel deployed in peace operations with adequate training on sexual and gender-based violence, sexual exploitation and abuse.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Deploy more female military and police personnel in peace operations.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Parties to armed conflict must:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Implement specific and time-bound commitments to combat sexual violence, which should include, inter alia, issuance of clear orders to prohibit sexual violence through chains of command and Codes of Conduct, military field manuals, or equivalent, and the timely investigations of alleged abuses in order to hold perpetrators accountable.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Security Council must:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Provide systematic consideration of SV in mandate authorizations and renewals.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Consider the use of sanctions against parties.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>FOCAL POINT/LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE UN</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the SRSG on Sexual Violence in Conflict, with the support of UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>MONITORING AND REPORTING MECHANISM</strong></td>
<td>Requests the SG to establish monitoring, analysis and reporting arrangements (MARA) on conflict-related sexual violence, including rape in situations of armed conflict, postconflict and other situations of concern [OP 8].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACCOUNTABILITY MECHANISM</strong></td>
<td>(consequences for violating the resolution)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calls for time-bound commitments to end sexual violence by parties to the conflict and inclusion of sexual violence in criteria considered by sanctions committees [OPs 3, 5, 7].</td>
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<tr>
<td>Report listing perpetrators to be reviewed in Council [OP 18].</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>RESOURCES</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.stoprapenow.org">www.stoprapenow.org</a></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
End-of-Lesson Quiz

1. 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.

2. The concept of peacekeeping has changed over the years because:
   A. Member states have devised new weapons and standing armies;
   B. A series of ad hoc interventions needed further steps for mission effectiveness to be mandated by the Security Council;
   C. The nature of war has radically changed, from national armies conducting battles between states to devastating violent conflicts within states that can also spill across borders;
   D. An Agenda for Peace was written by UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali.

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. 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. Complex and violent conflicts emerged during the 1990s which have necessitated new responses and forms or engagement;
   D. The traditional methods of peacekeeping were invalidated by a new interpretation of Chapter IV of the UN Charter.

5. Which of the following attributes can be used to describe sex?
   A. It is a social construction, reflecting learned rather than instinctive behaviours;
   B. It is biologically determined;
   C. 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.
6. 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.

7. 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 both a process and a goal, bringing the perception, experience, knowledge, and interests of women and men to bear on policy-making, planning, and decision-making.

8. 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;

9. 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.

10. Since adopting SCR 1325 (2000), the Security Council has adopted several additional resolutions related to WPS. UNSCRs 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013), and 2122 (2013) are:
A. Each bringing a totally new theme to the debate;
B. Waiting to be formally ratified;
C. Exploratory documents;
D. Sister resolutions to UNSCR 1325 which build on its provisions for protection of women’s rights during and after conflict and for addressing their needs during and after peacebuilding.

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