



Ten-year Impact Study on Implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security in Peacekeeping



Final Report to the United Nations
Department of Peacekeeping Operations,
Department of Field Support

The Department of Peacekeeping Operations and the Department of Field Support launched a study in June 2010 to assess the impact of the work of peacekeeping missions to implement Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security. The aim was to produce a comprehensive review of the interventions by peacekeeping missions to advance women's rights and gender equality in line with the provisions of resolution 1325, and to assess the impact of these interventions largely from the perspective of local partners in post-conflict countries. A total of seven thematic areas in line with the provisions of resolution 1325 were selected for review. Ten peacekeeping missions and two Special Political Missions participated in the review process, using a common methodological framework. Interviews were conducted with women's organisations in post-conflict countries, national authorities, peacekeeping personnel and UN partner organisations during the review process. The resulting report provides a balanced summary of the main findings, which point to significant progress in some areas, whilst citing in overall terms, a mixed record on implementation of resolution 1325 in peacekeeping. Rich and diverse examples are presented to illustrate some of the positive initiatives undertaken to date, alongside a solid analysis of the persisting challenges to implementation of resolution 1325. The report concludes with a set of practical recommendations to support ongoing and future implementation of resolution 1325 in peacekeeping.



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A wide view of the Security Council at its meeting marking the 10th anniversary of landmark resolution 1325 on women in peace and security, 26 October 2010, United Nations, New York.
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Women members of the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) observe the International Day of United Nations Peacekeepers, 29 May 2009, United Nations, New York.

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Global Open Day for Women and Peace meeting with the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for the United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH), June 2010, Port-au-Prince, Haiti. © logan Abassi

A female UN police officer jokes with a peacekeeping colleague at the African Union-United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID)'s celebration of the International Day of Peace and the Year of Peace and Security in Africa, 21 September 2010, El Fasher, Sudan. © Olivier Chassot

Women civil society representatives rejoice in Goma at the signing of the peace accord between the Government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and rebel movements, 23 January 2008. © UN Photo/Marie Frechon

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A voter from Zam Zam Internally Displaced Persons Camp, North Darfur, submits her ballot on the first day of Sudan's national elections, 11 April 2010, Zam Zam, Sudan.

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UN Police Adviser Ann-Marie Orler holds a press conference on the need to recruit more female police officers for UN peace-keeping missions around the world, 10 June 2010, United Nations, New York. © UN Photo/Evan Schneider

Women pray outside a mosque in observance of Eid al-Fitr, 1 October 2008, Dili, Timor-Leste. © UN Photo/Martine Perret

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Preface

The tenth anniversary of Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security is an opportune moment to take stock of progress and challenges to date and to assess the impact of our efforts to practically translate this landmark resolution in the implementation of peacekeeping mandates.

In undertaking this review, we sought to draw principally on the viewpoints of our national partners in post-conflict countries, who primarily experience the impact of our peacekeeping interventions. It is our local partners, after all, who must be the ultimate judge of our efforts.

The report reaches a mixed verdict on the implementation of resolution 1325 in peacekeeping. Significant progress has been made in supporting women's participation in electoral processes, in the security sector and in establishing policies and institutional mechanisms to support gender mainstreaming. However, results remain modest in other areas, such as providing physical protection to women against conflict-related sexual violence, increasing the numbers of women serving in peacekeeping and harnessing senior leadership commitment to this agenda.

The resounding message from this report is that all stakeholders - UN, Member States, national authorities in post-conflict countries, and especially local women in mission areas, have to join forces to ensure lasting success in all efforts to promote and restore peace and security. We must draw strength from those areas where we have had success, and strive harder in other areas.

The conclusions and recommendations of this impact review will help shape our future strategy for implementation of resolution 1325 in peacekeeping. It also provides a timely and critical contribution to inform partnership discussions with the recently-established United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) to enhance UN delivery as One.

For our part, DPKO and DFS will redouble our efforts, to drive forward implementation of resolution 1325 as a core peacekeeping priority in the future. The recommendations we have put forward in this report reaffirm our commitment to this agenda and we will hold ourselves and our peacekeeping personnel accountable to their implementation.

Ten years hence, our impact must be assessed by the extent to which we succeed in providing meaningful and sustained support to local women, to enable them to serve as equal partners with men and to define, shape and influence the course of peace in their countries.



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The substantive content of this report would not have been possible without the input of many people, in particular, the many women and men from governments and civil society in the countries included in the study who willingly contributed their time to discuss the many issues put before them. Similarly, the staff of the DPKO missions who organised and recorded the interviews and focus group discussions played a critical role. The product of their commitment

and hard work is the rich array of information now summarized in this report. Special thanks are due to the Gender Units of MONUSCO and UNAMA for assisting the study coordinator in the field-testing of the study data collection tool. The staff in DPKO HQ and in missions who commented on drafts of the report contributed to making it stronger. Finally, special gratitude is due to the Gender Unit of DPKO HQ for initiating and coordinating the study and especially to Comfort Lamptey, Gender Adviser for her vision and energy in guiding the study through all of its stages.

It is hoped that this study will contribute to informing better policies and action to ensure peace and security for women and girls everywhere. ■

Acronyms

BINUB

The United Nations Integrated Office in Burundi

CVR

Community Violence Reduction

DDR

Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration

DFS

Department of Field Support

DIS

Detachement Integre de Securite
(Integrated Security Detachment)

DPKO

United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations

GBV

Gender-based Violence

IDP

Internal Displaced People

JPT

Joint Protection Team

MINURCAT

United Nations Mission in the Central African Republic and Chad

MINUSTAH

United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti

MONUC

United Nations Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo

MONUSCO

United Nations Organisation Stabilisation Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo

NAP

National Action Plan

NGO

Non Governmental Organisation

OCHA

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

ONUCI

United Nations Operation in Côte d'Ivoire

ONUB

United Nations Operation in Burundi

OP

Operational Paragraph

PIO

Public Information Office

SCR 1325

Security Council Resolution 1325

SGBV

Sexual and gender-based violence

SRSG

Special Representative of the Secretary-General

SSR

Security Sector Reform

UNAMA

United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan

UNAMID

African Union/UN Hybrid operation in Darfur

UNAMSIL

United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone

UNCT

United Nations Country Team

UNDP	UNMIT
United Nations Development Programme	United Nations Integrated Mission in East Timor
UNFPA	UNMIK
United Nations Population Fund	United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo
UNHCR	UNMIS
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees	United Nations Mission in the Sudan
UNIFEM	UNOTIL
United Nations Development Fund for Women	United Nations Office in East Timor
UNIFIL	UNPOL
United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon	United Nations Police
UNIOSIL	UNTAET
United Nations Integrated Office in Sierra Leone	United Nations Transitional Administration in East Timor
UNIPSIL	UN Women
United Nations Integrated Peacebuilding Office in Sierra Leone	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNMIL	WAAFG
United Nations Mission in Liberia	Women Associated with Armed Forces and Groups
UNMISET	
United Nations Mission of Support in East Timor	

Executive Summary

The study reported here attempts to review a decade of implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 focusing on seven selected thematic areas, each of them distinct and complex. The review covers 12 UN peacekeeping missions in 11 countries. This executive summary provides just a glimpse of the rich experiences captured through this process.

In October 2000, the Security Council adopted Resolution 1325 (2000) on women, peace and security (SCR 1325) in recognition of the serious impact that armed-conflict has on women and children and the potential of women to contribute to all of the processes which aim to establish and sustain peace.

The tenth anniversary of the adoption of SCR 1325 is an appropriate moment to take stock of the achievements, gaps and challenges experienced in the implementation of this resolution in peacekeeping. This study assesses the impact of peacekeeping operations as regards the advancement of women's rights and the promotion of gender equality in accordance with selected articles of SCR 1325, under seven thematic areas (in the bolded text below). The views of host-country government and civil society stakeholders on these issues were gathered through in-depth interviews and focus-group discussions and form the core of this report. The body of this report describes, for each thematic area, selected activities conducted by the missions, achievements and challenges and the impact of peacekeeping missions, and offers a number of recommendations. The following paragraphs focus on the impact under each thematic area.

Missions have achieved little success in turning around the limited **participation of women in peace negotiations and peace agreements**. Some

women's groups are now better equipped to advocate for women's concerns but women's participation in peace negotiations remains, with few exceptions, below 10% of those formally involved. Women leaders from outside the capital cities in particular, who are often those most directly affected by the conflict, feel excluded.

More progress has been made in **women's participation in politics**. Respondents to this study recognised the crucial contribution made by peacekeeping missions in this area. There has been significant participation of women as voters and as candidates in elections in most countries where they have been held. There has also been a significant increase in the representation of women in legislative bodies in most countries reviewed; this has been greater in countries that adopted quotas or reserved seats for women. More support to elected women is needed in order to translate their increased numbers into greater gender equality in political processes and legislation.

Missions have experienced varying degrees of success, mostly modest, in integrating a gender perspective into **disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration** (DDR) programmes. Generally women have fared better in the reintegration phase than in the disarmament and demobilisation phases where the "traditional" definition of eligibility (One weapon per combatant) has denied access to many women. Liberia was a pioneer in addressing this issue. The introduction of the IDDRS gender guidelines in 2006 has improved the situation but greater consistency is needed in their application. More effort is needed to sensitise and train senior UN and government leaders and DDR programme staff on related gender issues.

The impact of peacekeeping missions in supporting gender-sensitive **sector security sector reforms** has been mixed. The presence of uniformed female peacekeepers has had a positive impact, challenging traditional ideas of gender roles and encouraging many women to enter the security sector. Nevertheless, in only few countries has there been a significant increase in the proportion of women in national security institutions, despite several having adopted gender sensitive recruitment policies. The culture of most national security institutions remains unfriendly to women; discrimination and sexual harassment of female officers are widespread.

Missions have had a positive impact in the implementation of **legal and judicial reforms** by supporting the adoption of gender equality provisions in national constitutions and relevant national laws. Progress is less clear as regards improving gender balance and building capacity across the judicial system. Also, laws that are passed are often not enforced due to a lack of resources and skills, limited legal literacy among the population and limited access to the justice system. Traditional justice systems, which are the only recourse for many, are in most cases male-dominated and discriminatory to women.

Widespread **sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV)** has proven a formidable challenge for peacekeeping missions. There has been success in supporting the adoption of laws to combat SGBV and in training the judiciary and police. Communities, especially women, recognise and appreciate that missions have improved women's security where they support active protection measures, such as joint protection teams. Conflict related sexual violence as a deliberate strategy in areas of conflict still occurs with impunity. A more concerted and robust response from national and international actors is required to fight against SGBV as it remains highly prevalent.

While peacekeeping missions have had some impact in the **protection of women internally displaced (women IDPs) and women refugees**, the coverage and effectiveness of protection measures require improvement. Patrols and escorts have improved security for women and girls in and around IDP and refugee camps but more resources are needed.

Women are still underrepresented in camp management committees and governance bodies and too many still lack access to appropriate livelihood projects.

The study made a number of **common and cross-cutting findings**. The stakeholders consulted recognised the crucial role of mission gender units in implementing SCR 1325 and called for an increase in their staff, both national and international, and for increased financial resources.

The gender balance of UN peacekeeping personnel is far short of the policy goal of 50/50 representation. Senior mission management is not yet held sufficiently accountable for complying with SCR 1325 provisions and DPKO policy on gender balance. More generally, understanding of and support for gender equality by senior DPKO personnel and mission management is variable.

There is need to invest in developing tailored gender training for senior managers, gender advisers and programme/technical staff of other substantive areas to help them to integrate gender perspectives into their work.

The overall number of allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) against DPKO/DFS staff increased in 2009 compared with 2008, with MONUC in DRC accounting for most of the increase. This reversed a downward trend observed since the inclusion of conduct and discipline teams in peacekeeping missions since 2006, which was welcomed by concerned communities. Robust enforcement and unequivocal example by mission leadership is needed in the application of the zero tolerance policy on SEA.

This report ends with a set of recommendations. One overall recommendation is that UN peacekeeping missions collaborate with all partners to ensure the development and implementation of a common strategic framework for gender-related work in each of the thematic areas covered by this report. Other recommendations address selected actions in each of the thematic areas covered by this report. It is hoped that the considerable effort put into this report and its specific recommendations will lead to improved actions in support of SCR 1325 in current and future peacekeeping missions. ■

1 Introduction

In recognition of the serious impact that armed conflict has on women and children, in 2000, the United Nations Security Council adopted Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (SCR 1325). It calls on Member States and all actors in a conflict to protect women's rights, to take account of their specific needs in conflict and post-conflict situations and to involve them in the entire process of re-establishing peace and stability through their participation in peace-making, peacekeeping and peace-building efforts.

SCR 1325 was a landmark mandate in promoting women's rights and gender equality in conflict-affected countries and regions. Since it was passed, gender sensitivity and gender mainstreaming have become core components in the mandates of UN peacekeeping operations and major progress has been made.

Currently there are gender advisers in ten multi-dimensional peacekeeping missions and Gender Focal Points in six traditional peacekeeping missions. Guidelines have been developed to assist the functional areas of peacekeeping missions to integrate gender dimensions in their interventions and DPKO has developed a department-wide action plan for the implementation of the SCR 1325 and established a gender task-force to monitor its implementation. Furthermore, training and capacity building activities have been conducted with peacekeepers and with government and civil society counterparts.

Despite these achievements at an institutional level and calls from the Security Council to respect the equal rights of women in conflict-affected countries, women and children continue to suffer the devastating effects of conflict. They account for the majority of casualties and of displaced people and they have



Security Council members and participants listen to a video message from Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon commemorating the 10th anniversary of Resolution 1325, 26 October 2010, United Nations, New York.
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become targets of sexual violence, including as a weapon of war.¹ In addition, they are still grossly underrepresented in peace negotiations and peace processes.²

The 10th anniversary of the adoption of SCR 1325 is an appropriate time to take stock of the achievements and remaining challenges in the implementation of the resolution and presents an ideal opportunity to inform future action on women, peace and security in peacekeeping. ■

2 Aims of the Impact Study

2.1 Objective

The objective of this study was to assess the impact of peacekeeping operations in the advancement of women's rights and the promotion of gender equality in accordance with SCR 1325. The study was commissioned by the Gender Unit of UN DPKO in New York.

The study reviewed progress made in seven selected areas of SCR 1325 and identified obstacles, gaps and challenges in countries where multi-dimensional peacekeeping operations are in action with a mandate that includes women, peace and security. Views of host-country counterparts from both government and civil society were sought on these issues and on the impact of the peacekeeping missions.

2.2 Definition and attribution of impact

What we ultimately wish to see as a result of activities to advance the women, peace and security agenda is a concrete change in realization of women's and a positive transformation in the quality of their lives. To achieve this in most areas requires many steps along multiple paths. In most of the post-conflict countries reviewed for this evaluation these processes are at an early stage and the long-term impact on women's lives is as yet difficult to demonstrate. Nevertheless it would be unfair to conclude that these peacekeeping missions have not had an impact.

The approach taken here is to look for results as far down the chain from inputs to impact as possible. What might, in a more established setting, be considered an "outcome" along the path to achieving

impact may be reported here as an "impact" in recognition of the fact that in complex unstable post-conflict situations achievements are hard-won and take time. Passing of gender-sensitive legislation, for example, is reported here as impact even though it is recognised that true impact for women will come only when the laws are implemented and enforced. Given the early post-conflict nature of the countries under review and the difficulty of getting legislation drafted and adopted in such a context, passing of significant legislation in support of women's equality may reasonably be considered an impact.

Attribution of impact is another challenge. The further down the chain from inputs to impact one goes, the greater the number of factors that come together to produce the impact and the more difficult it is to attribute it to any particular action or group. There are probably few examples of impact that could be attributed solely to the presence of the UN peacekeeping mission. The impact reported here is based on host-country government and civil society respondents' perceptions of the contribution made by the peacekeeping missions. The assessments made are based on comparisons with the pre-mission situation, or in many cases with the respondents speculation on what would have happened if the peacekeeping mission had not existed.

There are many instances where the activities of peacekeeping missions are implemented in conjunction with UN partners. One such example is cooperation with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in the area of Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration. There is also the partnership with the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)/UN Women and UNDP in the conduct of

elections. A further example would be the work of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) in addressing sexual and gender-based violence, or the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) for action related to internally displaced people and refugees and/or with other international and national partners. The integrated nature of many peacekeeping missions requires this kind of collaboration. Attributing impact to the UN peace-keeping mission does not imply that others did not also have an important role; it was simply beyond the purpose and capacity of this study to acknowledge all contributions.

2.3 Scope of the study

Undertaking an assessment of the impact of peace-keeping operations in advancing women's rights and gender equality since the adoption of SCR 1325 ten years ago, was a challenge. The study covered ten peacekeeping missions with different security mandates (all incorporating women, peace and security) operating in nine host-countries, each with distinct cultural and social norms shaping gender roles and relations. The study was not an evaluation of individual missions; such an in-depth exercise would have required much more time and resources. Neither does the study attempt to describe all achievements made by all missions, nor list all of the challenges faced. It aims at a balanced overview based on collection of information through the ten missions. In addition to the ten peacekeeping missions, two special political missions (previously peacekeeping

missions) – UNIPSIL in Sierra Leone and BINUB in Burundi – also contributed to the study. Therefore, in total 12 missions in 11 countries were reviewed.³

Given the many issues affecting women and girls in conflict-affected and post-conflict countries it was not practical to consider all of the areas touched on by SCR 1325. The following areas were selected for the evaluation:

- Women's participation in peace negotiations and peace agreements;
- Women's participation in political processes and governance structures in conflict affected countries;
- Gender sensitivity and women's participation in Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR);
- Gender sensitivity and women's participation in the Security Sector Reform (SSR);
- Legal and judicial sector reforms;
- Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV);
- Protection of women IDPs and refugees

Within each selected area the content of the study was guided by relevant operational paragraphs (OP) of SCR 1325.

The impact evaluation had two main limitations. First, the time frame was short for a study of this complexity. Secondly, having peacekeeping field staff involved in data collection may have influenced or constrained the responses of interviewees or the reporting on them. ■

3 Methodology

Each peacekeeping operation was asked to explore a maximum of five of the chosen thematic areas, according to their specific mandates.⁴ The areas were selected by the UN gender advisers in consultation with key country counterparts and stakeholders and endorsed by the mission leadership. It was emphasised that the study should seek the views of stakeholders both in the capitals and beyond to reflect the realities of urban and rural areas where the mission has a presence.⁵

The study analysed existing data and collected new information through interviews and focus group discussions. A *Data Collection and Interview Guide* was

developed for gender advisers and other mission field staff on how to gather the information on the ground. The guide contained a brief description of each thematic area, example indicators, indicative interview questions, and potential interviewees under each thematic area. It was tested in collaboration with the missions in Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (MONUSCO) and Afghanistan (UNAMA)⁶ and subsequently amended before being sent to the other missions concerned. Due to time constraints the guide was not translated; interpretation was carried out on-the-spot during interviews. Responses were summarised by each mission and synthesised by the study coordinator into this final report.

Using the guide, information was collected through semi-structured individual interviews. Respondents were drawn from national and local governments and civil society organisations, including women's groups. Interviews were also conducted with peacekeepers playing a leading role in the areas of inquiry. In addition, focus group discussions, one per thematic area, were held with women's groups promoting women's rights. Other relevant data was gathered through desk review of existing reports and publications. ■



Women at the Impact Study meeting in Goma, Democratic Republic of the Congo, July 2010. © Karen Blanc

4 Findings

Findings are organised under eight headings: one for each of the seven selected thematic areas and one for general and cross-cutting findings.

4.1 Women's participation in peace negotiations and peace agreements

SCR 1325 OP 8 calls on all actors involved in armed conflict to adopt a gender perspective in the process of peace negotiations and peace agreements to ensure that the specific needs and priorities of women and girls be taken into account. This impact evaluation took stock of the extent to which women have been involved in peace processes, the constraints to their participation and the role of peacekeeping missions in facilitating gender sensitive peace processes.

4.1.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

A variety of activities have been undertaken by peacekeeping missions to ensure gender is mainstreamed in peace negotiations and agreements, some in collaboration with other UN partners. Activities have encompassed: raising awareness on SCR 1325 provisions through workshops and its translation into local languages; coaching and technical assistance to women's groups and delegates to mainstream gender in peace agreements; training women's organisations and potential representatives in negotiation skills, advocacy and in-depth understanding of SRC 1325 provisions; and facilitating fora for women across the political divide to strategise and unify their agendas for peace. Gender units in peacekeeping operations are working to ensure that women are not only rep-

resented in peace negotiations but are informed and able to articulate their concerns. UNIFEM has provided significant support working in synergy with the missions' gender units.

Selected examples from the field illustrate this work. In **Cote d'Ivoire**, the ONUCI Gender Unit gathered 120 women from across the country in a workshop in 2008 on ensuring a gender perspective in implementation of the 2007 peace agreement. A national network of 300 women's organisations is now engaged in the follow-up. In **DRC**, MONUSCO has worked collaboratively with women in the South Kivu, North Kivu and Ituri to ensure the inclusion of gender sensitive provisions in the March 2009 Peace Agreement. In South **Darfur**, the UNAMID Gender Unit set up a gender equality committee to advocate for women's participation in the peace process. This has helped women to overcome cultural barriers to their participation in peace consultations; for example, 15 women participated in the settling of inter-communal conflict among nomads in Darfur/Zalingei in 2010. UNMIL has been supporting peace-building committees in **Liberia** at county and district levels, in which at least a third of members are women. In **Afghanistan**, UNAMA has fought hard, with varying success to ensure that women were included in the peace process. Interviewees acknowledged the key role of UNAMA in ensuring women's representation in key events.

4.1.2 Achievement and challenges

Soon after its adoption SCR 1325 (2000) started to be used by women as a tool to get parties to the conflict to consider their rights in peace negotiations. They mobilised women's groups, organised public demon-

strations and lobbied warlords and political leaders to ensure the inclusion of women's views and issues.

Women consulted in **Afghanistan**, **Darfur** and **DRC** acknowledged the critical role played by the Special Representatives of the Secretary-General (SRSG) who have used their good offices with parties to the conflict to ensure the involvement of women in peace consultations. Some said that without this support women's participation and concerns would have been overlooked.

However, despite some positive examples women have in overall terms, **been underrepresented in peace negotiations both in numbers and in status, where they often constitute "informal" participants.**

The modest progress achieved to date in this area provides a good basis on which to expand women's participation in peace negotiations in future.

In **Timor-Leste**, despite the important role played by women in the diplomatic, armed and civilian fronts in the struggle for independence, they were neither consulted nor invited to negotiations between the governments of Portugal and Indonesia, brokered by the UN, in 1999. Seven years later, during the 2006 political crisis, and after the passing of Resolution 1325, women in senior positions in government and civil society were still not considered as mediators and were involved only in the aftermath to the crisis. This was despite major progress in advancing the role of women in politics and other aspects of society.

In 2005, during the 7th round of **Darfur** Peace negotiation in Abuja, AU/UNIFEM with support from UNMIS sent 20 women to Nigeria to engage in the final stages of the Darfur Peace Agreement negotiations. There are, however, no women among the official negotiators and mediators for the ongoing Doha Peace Negotiations on the **Darfur** Conflict. This is surprising as under UNAMID's auspices women made up a significant proportion (30% and 38%) of participants in each of two 2009 preparatory conferences of the Civil Society Track and more than 440 women had participated in four consultations to consolidate their views on thematic areas of the peace negotiations. In **Darfur**, consultation with women's groups indicated that pro-government women were favoured to take part in the peace processes, with the support of the UN Mission, leaving out many women from other constituencies including IDPs.

In **DRC**, following the 1999 Lusaka Cease Fire Agreement, women pushed for their formal participation in the Inter-Congolese Dialogue (DIC) but their representation increased only slightly from 9% in the first negotiations in Gaborone in 2001 to 10% in the 2002 negotiations in Pretoria.⁷ Nevertheless, their efforts, with support from the MONUC Gender Unit, UNIFEM, and NGOs,⁸ eventually resulted in the official adoption of a women's component in the DIC "Global and Inclusive Agreement".⁹ It includes provisions for gender equality and the full representation of women in all institutions in the post-conflict reconstruction. Similarly, despite low representation of women in recent peace talks in Nairobi (with just two women mediators on either side of the negotiating parties and women's groups accepted only as observers),¹⁰ the March Peace Agreement includes three women out of 14 members of its executive branch and 22 women out of 66 members of the subsidiary organ. This is a huge improvement on the involvement of women in the 2008 Goma agreement which included only 1 woman out of 49 members of its executive board. Gender issues and a call for women's effective participation are included in the STAREC¹¹ stabilization plan for executing the March Peace Agreement in Eastern DRC. In **Côte d'Ivoire** the 2003 peace agreements reached in Lome, Marcoussis, Accra and South Africa saw very limited formal participation of women. The Ouagadougou Peace Agreement of 2007 was signed without their participation.

Two women were among the 25 official participants at the December 2001 signature of the Bonn Agreement¹² following the UN Peace Talks on **Afghanistan**; 35 women attended as observers. This participation was considered by the women consulted for this evaluation as a major milestone, and also an important learning experience. The Bonn Agreement included gender sensitive provisions in the establishment of an interim authority and of an Emergency Loya Jirga,¹³ which took place in 2002 with 13% women's representation.¹⁴ The Ministry of Women's Affairs was set up in 2002 as part of the transitional authority. Following UNAMA's intervention, women's representation in the June 2010 Consultative Peace Jirga increased from the initial 30 women contemplated by the government to 332 (21%). UNAMA advocacy for 25% women's representation (as in the parliament) in the High

Peace Council announced in July 2010 has so far been less successful; only eight women (all appointed by the President) are among its 70 members. Women's rights groups are concerned with this composition, fearing that a power-sharing with the Taliban may undermine what progress has been made for women's rights in the past eight years.

Many challenges remain to ensure adequate representation of women in peace processes. As women are underrepresented or absent in decision making structures of political parties and armed groups they are not automatically invited as delegates to peace talks. When women are included in the process very seldom are they at the negotiating table as mediators or negotiators and often they are only involved after the critical initial agreements have been reached. Women are more likely to participate in peace negotiations as representatives of civil society than as delegates of parties to the conflict. Civil society, however, usually has a smaller representation and may only have informal or observer status. When women do manage to become involved in the peace process it is mostly elite women from the capitals, leaving women from the provinces or rural areas underrepresented.

The capacity of women representatives to participate effectively in peace negotiations is also a challenge. Financial barriers (costs of transport and accommodation) also preclude their participation on occasions. Interviewees pointed out that gender units of peacekeeping missions do not have discretionary funds to support their participation.

4.1.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

Overall, peacekeeping missions have not succeeded in significantly improving women's participation in peace processes. Despite their mandate in this regard they have not been sufficiently effective in convincing parties to the conflict to increase women's representation. It remains, with few exceptions, below 10% and therefore far below the internationally agreed targets. When women have been engaged it has usually been the result of pressure from women's groups and civil society on the SRSG rather than a

strong spontaneous lead from the mission leadership itself. It appears in some instances that UN missions are overly concerned with 'cultural sensitivity' in not wanting to offend male counterparts by requesting an increase in women's participation.

The support provided by peacekeeping missions in this area has been uneven and often lacks a coherent strategy. Where attempts have been made to facilitate women's participation in peace talks they have not always been inclusive and leaders of women directly affected by the conflict, such as IDPs and women from rural areas, have felt left out. Women's organisations are often called on at the last moment to attend consultations, seemingly as an afterthought rather than part of a planned strategy.

Although some women's groups are now better equipped to argue for their inclusion in peace negotiations due to the missions' wide dissemination of SCR 1325 and capacity building around it, the **SCR 1325 remains under-utilised in this area** with senior government officials and other important stakeholders in some countries ignorant of its existence and/or content.

4.2 Women's participation in political processes and governance structures in conflict-affected countries

SCR 1325 OP 1 calls on Member States to increase the representation of women at all decisions making levels. Under this thematic area the evaluation assessed the impact of peacekeeping missions' interventions to facilitate women's participation in political processes and women's inclusion in the country's governance structures.

4.2.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

Peacekeeping missions with a mandate in this area have lobbied actively for the participation of women in the political process, both as candidates and voters. They have sensitised stakeholders to the benefits of

gender sensitive electoral laws, including affirmative action provisions, and have advocated for gender balance on electoral boards and civic education teams. Furthermore, they have improved the gender sensitivity of electoral information campaigns and some missions have also built the capacity of elected women.

In **Timor-Leste** in 2000, the SRSG Sérgio Vieira de Mello, established a 30% quota for women's representation in the National Legislative Council (NLC) of the First Transitional Administration. Later, following the rejection by the NLC of a 30% quota for the 2001 Constituent Assembly elections, he lobbied political parties to include women candidates in winnable positions in their party lists, provided incentives to parties with women candidates, and arranged training in political leadership for 145 potential women candidates.¹⁵ Civic education teams comprised 40% women, targeted women separately and used gender sensitive materials.¹⁶ This precedent has been followed over a decade of UN peacekeeping in Timor-Leste.¹⁷

In **Afghanistan**, in 2004, UNAMA supported the drafting of a constitution that includes a 25% quota for women's representation in the parliament. In **DRC**, the 2006 UN-led elections were overseen by an Independent Electoral Commission of which 30% of staff was women. In **Sudan**, UNMIS has provided logistical support and advice on gender issues to the State High Committee on Elections. In **Liberia**, developments brokered by UNMIL in 2008 led to all political parties committing to support legislation for a 30% quota for women in all elected and appointed positions. In **Haiti**, MINUSTAH support to the Ministry in charge of women's affairs and women's organisations, led to the inclusion of a quota for women in both the Executive and the Legislature in the proposal for constitutional reform. A minimum of 30% women's representation in decision-making is now being used as the localised target for all MDGs indicators.

Peacekeeping missions have worked with other UN agencies to set up task forces to coordinate activities among key stakeholders to improve women's participation in the electoral process. In **Afghanistan** in 2004 such a task force monitored progress on women voters' registration and contributed to increasing the number of female voters. In **Côte d'Ivoire** since 2007, ONUCI, other UN agencies, national government

partners and NGOs have worked for a 30% quota for women in the electoral law and to strengthen the capacity of women candidates. A Women and Elections core group was set up in **Sierra Leone** to strategise for the 2008 elections. The integrated nature of UNIOSIL facilitated the creation of a coordinated and well-funded effort in collaboration with UN and bilateral development agencies and other stakeholders to promote the participation of women as candidates and voters in national and local elections. In **DRC**, collaboration between MONUC/MONUSCO, UNCT and the women's movement started in 2004, targeting political parties and voters to make the electoral process more gender sensitive. Nevertheless, UN staff interviewed highlighted a lack of synergy between the agencies; the overall approach was reportedly weakened by some competition for leadership and visibility. It is anticipated that the revival of the Gender Thematic Group within the UNCT will facilitate coordination, avoid duplication and enhance coherence in preparing women for the 2011 elections.

UNMIL in **Liberia** is one of the missions that have taken innovative steps to improving female voter registration and turnout. In partnership with local NGOs, mission staff arranged to mind the stalls of micro-vendors in the markets, for example, to allow them time to register or to vote during the 2005 elections. In South **Sudan**, the UNMIS Gender Unit simplified the voter education materials to improve women's understanding of the electoral process while in **Afghanistan** and **Darfur** separate booths for women were set up on election day, staffed by female police officers. In **Timor-Leste** on the advice of UNMIT, women's participation in the 2007 elections was facilitated by giving priority to pregnant women and those with infants at polling booths.

Building the capacity of female candidates to contest elections is another undertaking of peacekeeping missions, often in cooperation with UNIFEM and UNDP, as well as women's organisations and political parties. In **Haiti**, since 2007, MINUSTAH has trained and coached women in gender sensitive leadership and political participation and worked with other partners to build the capacity of elected members in constitutional reform. In **Timor-Leste** the mission gender unit, UNDP and UNIFEM are working together to improve the capacity of women MPs to fulfill their role in the legislature.

Some peacekeeping missions have provided technical assistance and mentoring for the establishment and functioning of national machineries for the advancement of women. They have often provided a senior adviser to the national officer or minister heading women's affairs and/or gender equality in the government. UNTAET in **Timor-Leste** in 2001 and UNMIK in **Kosovo** in 2005 were instrumental in setting up government offices for the promotion of gender equality.

4.2.2 Achievements and challenges

Respondents from government and civil society consulted for this evaluation acknowledged the role of UN peacekeeping missions in organising and providing a secure environment for elections and in promoting women's involvement in the political process.

In a number of the countries under review the number of women voting in elections has increased, as has the number of women elected. In many

countries improved security around elections, due to the efforts of UNPOL and national police, has enabled more women to vote. Women consulted in **DRC**, for example, highlighted the fact that MONUC police had ensured their safety to participate in the 2006/2007 elections. In **Afghanistan**, despite the threats of the Taliban and other constraints, the turnout of women voters was high in both the 2004 presidential elections (42%) and the 2005 national parliamentary elections (44%). There was one female candidate in the 2004 presidential election, and in 2009 the two women presidential candidates finished in the top 15 of 42 candidates.¹⁸ In **DRC**, in the 2006 elections, the first in the 46 years since independence, women were successfully mobilised as voters (60% of registered voters and 51% of votes cast) and as candidates (12% of presidential candidates and 10% of those running for governor). Women make up 8% of the parliament, 5% of the senate and 12% of the government.¹⁹ In **Sierra Leone** the proportion of women in parliament increased from 1% in 1982 to



Afghan citizens wait in line to exercise their constitutional right to vote in presidential and provincial council elections, 20 August 2009, Kabul, Afghanistan.
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15% following the first post-war parliamentary election in 2002.²⁰ It jumped further to 23% following the 2008 elections, without a quota being adopted. In 2005 **Liberia** became the first African country to elect a woman as president. Fifty percent of registered voters were women, as were 113 out of 762 candidates for the general elections. Women gained 15% of the seats in the legislature despite political parties' non-compliance with a 30% quota. In **Haiti** the number of female candidates for parliamentary elections has increased from 22 in 2000 to 41 in 2010. Women's participation in elections appears to be even higher when it comes to lower levels of office (e.g. mayors and city councilors). Women won 26% of the seats allocated for **Darfur** in the 2010 Sudan National Assembly and obtained 31% of the seats in the State Legislative Council.²¹

Women's success in politics has been greater in the countries where quotas or reserved seats for women have been adopted in the constitution, electoral law and/or the rules governing political parties. In **Burundi** the representation of women in parliament almost doubled, from 18.5% in the previous parliament to 30.5% in 2005 after the introduction of a 30% quota in the Constitution in 2004.²² The proportion of women in the senate has increased from 35% in 2005 to 46% in 2010 and in government from 32% to 42%.²³ In **Sudan**, this year women constitute 28% of the National Legislative Assembly as a result of the 25% electoral quota for women introduced in the National Election Act (2008). There are now 118 women MPs compared to 87 during the period 2005–2009. In **Timor-Leste** a 25% quota was introduced in the electoral law for the 2007 parliamentarian elections²⁴ and women won 29% of the 65 seats, the highest proportion in Southeast Asia.

The existence of quotas is not, however, a guarantee of increased women's representation. Careful planning is needed to ensure there are enough female candidates to fill the seats²⁵ and quotas must be enforced and respected. In **Liberia** the 2005 electoral guidelines called for 30% representation of women in political party lists but no legal sanctions were contemplated for non-compliance. In **DRC**, the Electoral Law calls on political parties to give parity to men and women candidates but it is not compulsory; women candidates are few and/or are not placed in winning positions on party lists.

Cultural barriers to women's participation in politics remain strong. In most of the countries reviewed positions of power are considered the 'natural' domain of men and both male and female voters are more likely to vote for men. Male leaders were reported often to resist the entry of women into politics and the promotion of gender equality because they do not want to share the benefits of power and/or expose corruption in the system to the scrutiny of women. In some cases women have been threatened in order to discourage them from engaging in politics. In **Afghanistan** some women candidates in the 2005 and 2010 elections received threats from anti-government elements, which forced some to avoid campaigning in public places.²⁶ In **Liberia** women reported that historically they have been prevented from participating in political processes by violence and intimidation, which was exacerbated during the war.

The capacity of elected women generally remains under-developed, including their understanding of the functioning of parliament and of government, the role of the constitution and legislation, the effective use of gender frameworks (including SCR 1325, CEDAW and BFPA) and the need for alliances with CSOs. In most countries respondents reported that elected women lack skills in leadership, negotiation and public speaking. Stakeholder consultation in **Afghanistan**, for example, indicated that although the 25% quota had increased women's representation in legislative bodies, their presence has not always led to substantive action, with many female MPs remaining silent on key issues.

In the countries under review the **national machineries for the advancement of women are still in an early stage of development**, although progress has been made. Personnel and financial resources and the general capacity of the national machineries are inadequate to fulfill their mandates. In **DRC**, for example, the ministry responsible for gender affairs (as well as the family and children) receives just 0.02% of the national budget. Likewise in **Afghanistan** the Ministry of Women's Affairs is under resourced and lacks capacity to influence other ministries to implement the national action plan for women. Although the missions' gender units have provided technical support in the development of key policies and in strengthening the capacity of national machineries,

their impact has often been limited; long-term multi-faceted support is needed.

4.2.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

There has been significant, and in most cases increased, participation of women as voters and as candidates in elections as a result of the efforts of peacekeeping missions to integrate a gender dimension into electoral processes and to ensure the safety of female voters and candidates. In some cases the UN mission oversaw the first elections for many years and/or the first elections in which women have voted. In others the pre-existing participation of women has increased.

As a result, **there has been a significant increase in the representation of women in legislative bodies in most of the countries reviewed** since the deployment of the UN missions. **This increase is even higher in those countries where quotas or reserved seats for women have been adopted either in the constitution and/or electoral law**, often due to the support of the mission. Despite this progress, fair representation of women in parliament and government remains far from achieved. **Women are still under-represented in elected positions and most countries reviewed are far from reaching the 30% critical mass proposed by the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action.**

Peacekeeping missions have had **a positive impact on the adoption of gender equality provisions in national constitutions** in countries where they have been drafted during the time of the mission. This has created a legal framework to enhance the status of women and girls in society and the protection of their rights.

Success in increasing the number of women elected to government has in most cases not been matched by strengthening of their leadership and political skills. Some women candidates and politicians have been trained and supported. Most elected women have not, however, received the support needed to empower them in their role of delivering change for women. Comprehensive capacity building and supportive coaching have been

limited and only in a few of the countries under review has the capacity of women politicians been systematically built through support provided by the UN.

As a result of the training and support provided by the UN, **women's rights organisations actively engaged in the political process are better equipped to undertake lobbying and advocacy for political equality.**

4.3 Gender sensitivity and women's participation in disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR)

The evaluation reviewed the extent to which peacekeeping missions have been able to mainstream gender concerns into DDR processes in line with SCR 1325 OP 13 and whether women ex-combatants and those in supportive roles in the conflict have benefited equally with men from DDR programmes. It should be noted that DDR processes are led by national authorities with the peacekeeping mission usually providing support to disarmament and demobilisation while reintegration is supported by UNDP and DDR or children by UNICEF.

4.3.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

In a number of peacekeeping missions DDR programmes were launched soon after the adoption of SCR 1325 and they have, with different levels of success, worked to integrate a gender perspective into DDR processes. Activities have included: ensuring the presence of female civilian and military staff; lobbying key stakeholders to include women ex-combatants and other women associated with armed forces and groups (WAAFG) in all phases of DDR programmes; ensuring the specific needs of women are taken into account in cantonment camps; and supporting gender sensitive reinsertion and reintegration programmes.²⁷

Gender units in **Burundi, Cote d'Ivoire, DRC, Haiti, Liberia and Sudan** have lobbied for a more gender

sensitive approach to DDR that includes female ex-combatants as well as other WAAFG, whether their association was voluntary or forced. A strong campaign by UNMIL in **Liberia** in 2004 led to the inclusion of WAAFG in the DDR eligibility criteria.²⁸ UNMIL and UNDP integrated a gender perspective throughout the reintegration phase of the DDR programme from 2004 to 2009.

MONUC in **DRC** identified shortcomings in the disarmament and demobilisation phases of the DDR programme in South Kivu that started in 2004. Women and girls associated with fighting forces had been separated from their husbands and excluded from the benefits of the first two phases of DDR. MONUC ensured that women and girls were included in the reintegration phase.²⁹

UN Mission public information offices (PIO), DDR units and gender units have worked together, often in partnership with women's organisations, to sensitise communities and inform women about the DDR programme, for example in Southern **Sudan** and **DRC** where the UN missions have effectively used radio for this purpose.

The review identified a marked change in the integration of a gender perspective in DDR after 2006 following the launch of the Integrated DDR Standards (IDDRS). The standards are gender mainstreamed and also include a module on Women, Gender and DDR. This UN-wide guidance has been followed, at least to some extent, by missions that started DDR after 2006, such as **Haiti**, **Sudan**, and **Burundi** (in its second phase of DDR).

In the 2005 DDR programme in **Haiti** women were largely excluded as primary beneficiaries as the programme targeted armed elements as a priority. By contrast, MINUSTAH's Community Violence Reduction activities (CVR), which started in 2007,³⁰ have incorporated gender in all aspects of their programming and approach. For example, a minimum of 30% has been set for women's participation in labour-intense projects. Projects specifically designed for women and girls are also implemented in areas such as women's economic empowerment and access to justice. In **Sudan**, IDDRS guidance on gender was incorporated in the National DDR Strategic Plan and influenced the verification and processing of WAAFG

during the demobilisation phase. The **Sudan** DDR Programme³¹ has prioritized the demobilisation and reintegration of "special needs groups" including WAAFG. Local communities, in particular in the South, including women, will also be targeted by the reintegration projects.

4.3.2 Achievements and challenges

The implementation of gender sensitive provisions in DDR processes has achieved mixed results. **Greater numbers of women have been included in DDR programmes as a result of lobbying and specific measures.** Nevertheless, many eligible women are still missing out on DDR programmes.

The persistent efforts of UNMIL in **Liberia** to broaden DDR eligibility criteria to incorporate WAAFG led to the inclusion of 22,370 women and 2,240 girls out of 101,145 people³² as compared to the initial estimates of 2,000 female ex-combatants.³³ The appropriateness of the broader entry criteria for women is illustrated by a 2004 study of a group of 2,507 women registered in the DDR programme. It indicated that 68% were forced into joining the conflict (46.5% abducted, 21.5% coerced) and a further 25% joined for self-protection, to feed themselves and their families.³⁴ Most of them were aged between 19 and 26. Women have made up around 20% of the beneficiaries of reintegration phase skills training and of the emergency employment programme set up in 2006 by UNMIL.

In **Burundi**, by August 2005, almost 16,500 ex-combatants had gone through the national demobilisation process, including 2,909 child soldiers and 485 female combatants. Concerns were raised at the time that the needs of women were not well taken into account. According to information from BINUB, the 2009 DDR process identified 913 women and girls as ex-combatants and 1052 who served in support roles. The Mission reports that 516 women, or "57%", have been the beneficiaries of support through revenue generating activities under the DDR programme. These statistics imply that only ex-combatants were eligible for this assistance despite the larger number of other WAAFG. A strategy adopted by BINUB and other actors led to the reintegration of 1,052 women associated with the rebel movement. In **Côte d'Ivoire** collaboration between the ONUCI

Gender Unit and women from the *Forces nouvelles* has led to the identification of 569 WAAFG; the mission is working to have them included in the reintegration component of DDR. In 2009, the ONUCI DDR Section assessed all 1,027 demobilised women and 45 women who volunteered to join the new national army. The section also identified women eligible for the reintegration programme, allowing 877 women to benefit from the 1000 income micro-projects sponsored by UNDP/UNOCI.

Statistics from the DDR programme in the Kivus in **DRC** show that of 2,732 Rwandese combatants demobilised from 2002 to June 2010, only 18 were women.³⁵ The tiny proportion of women reflects the restrictive operational definition of eligibility. In a major effort undertaken in 2007 led by the World Bank, only 2,610 women were among 102,148 people demobilised.³⁶ It can be deduced from these statistics that female ex-combatants and WAAFG were under served by the DDR programme.³⁷ Interviews with DDR staff in Goma suggested that the World Bank used the rule of 'one firearm, one eligible person' for entry to the DDR programme, which proved too restrictive in the context and denied many women access to the programme. Corrective action has been taken to involve more women and girls in the reintegration phase but more still needs to be done during the screening and verification processes. One positive dimension of the DDR programme was MONUC's approach of separate sensitisation sessions with women. This reportedly led to many women being able to convince their husbands to give up their arms. Another advantage is that female ex-combatants and WAAFG have greater freedom to decide on their own future; those who wish to follow their male partners are required to give informed consent.³⁸

Since 2003, the DDR process in **Afghanistan**, supported by UNDP, has demobilised around 94,000 ex-combatants, disbanded hundreds of illegal armed groups and brought over 120,000 weapons under government control.³⁹ It is reported not to have included wives and dependents of former combatants, even in the reintegration phase. The physical security of women and girls has nevertheless improved as a result of reduced armed conflict.⁴⁰

UN mission activities have also improved security for women in and around cantonment camps. Promotion of gender sensitive standards for the layout camps in accordance with the IDDRS has resulted in separate facilities for women, men and families. This has taken place, for example, in **Burundi, Cote d'Ivoire, DRC, Liberia** and **Southern Sudan**. In **Burundi**, in 2007, the Mission assigned female staff to camps and demobilisation centres to improve security for women. In **Cote d'Ivoire**, the UNOCI Gender Unit, since its outset in 2005, was engaged in improving security at DDR cantonment sites.



Ex-combatants participate in skills training at the Booker Washington Institute, as part of the rehabilitation and re-integration process in Kakata.
© UN Photo/Eric Kanalstein

A major remaining challenge for most DDR programmes is the preparation of local communities for the reintegration of ex-combatants. They are usually already overstretched by efforts to recover from the conflict and issues of reconciliation among factions may still be sensitive. Demobilised women in particular may face rejection if communities are not well prepared. In **Burundi**, in 2006, demobilised women experienced mistrust and ill treatment from hosting communities. It was reported that they lacked means of subsistence and social support, with some of their partners misusing the demobilisation stipend. In **Haiti**, MINUSTAH's CVR programme is targeting not only former gang members and youth-at-risk, but also the entire community, providing short-term employment opportunities to vulnerable individuals, including women. Compared to other community members, women are reported to be strategic in using these opportunities to establish longer-term small commercial activities. There are also income generation activities specifically targeting women.

4.3.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

The task of disarming male combatants has usually been the first priority of DDR programmes. The introduction of a gender perspective in DDR has faced many challenges and **although there has been improvement, most missions have been unable to ensure the fair treatment of women and girls in all phases of DDR programmes.**

Although many women have benefited from DDR programmes, **the operational DDR eligibility criteria have been a major obstacle for women.** Large numbers of eligible women (ex-combatants and other WAAFG) have been excluded from DDR programmes, or at least from their early phases. The former rule of 'one firearm, one eligible person' to define combatants, for example, worked against women combatants who are more likely to share arms than men and may not possess one at the time of screening. **Criteria have been updated and are better understood since the introduction of the IDDRS in 2006 but the standards are not applied consistently by all missions.**

It was reported to this evaluation that **some senior UN DDR staff remain reticent about gender sensitive approaches to DDR**, and in some instances have failed to support them. For example, in DRC it was reported that a DDR gender unit that existed in 2003 and 2004 was closed down despite the continuing need for its support.

UN missions also improved security for women in cantonment camps. One major indirect benefit for women of the disarmament and demobilisation of combatants and illegal armed groups has been **an improvement in women's personal security** due to a reduction in the quantity of arms in circulation and the cessation of the conflict, in which women and children were the most common civilian victims.

4.4 Gender sensitivity and women's participation in security sector reform

Under this thematic area the study explored the extent to which peacekeeping missions with a mandate to assist the host-country with security sector reform (SSR) have facilitated the incorporation of a gender perspective in line with SCR 1325 OP 1. The study looked at changes over time in the numbers of females in security forces and the gender sensitivity of state security institutions.

4.4.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

Peacekeeping missions' activities to promote gender sensitivity in SSR have included support to national security institutions to increase the number of female staff, to promote gender sensitive policies in institutional reform and to train personnel on human rights, gender sensitivity and sexual and gender-based violence.

In **Burundi**, BINUB has supported campaigns to encourage educated women to join the national security forces, for example, through the National Academy of Military Officers. It has also promoted the adaptation of security institutions' infrastructure

to meet the needs of women. UNMIT has worked with security institutions. In **Timor-Leste**, UNPOL, as part of UNMIT, has had an executive mandate since 2006 to work on reform of the national police service including support to increase the recruitment of women and ensure that they are trained and promoted.

In **Liberia**, UNMIL has assisted the national police to develop a gender policy, which includes a 20% target for women and special measures to improve their recruitment and retention, training materials and a gender unit within the service.

Several missions have supported gender training in the national security forces. Missions in **Timor-Leste** have provided such training to the national police since 2000; it is now routine in the police academy training, for district police and since 2009 for the defense forces. In **Burundi**, gender training modules provided by BINUB are an integral part of the curricula of the national defense forces; UN Police has trained female police officers within the Burundi National Police to empower them in their roles. In **Côte d'Ivoire**, the ONUCI Gender Unit has worked with UNPOL and the Ministry of Security and Defense on gender training workshops for the police. A current UN training programme for 7200 officers of the police, military, fire services and prisons in **Sierra Leone**, which aims to improve their collaboration, contains a module on the role of women in the sector. In **Sudan**, the UNMIS Gender Unit has been providing gender training for the Joint Integrated Units, prisons and police officers, and community groups involved in policing work. In **DRC** MONUSCO undertook comprehensive gender training for 3000 members of the national police in four provinces in 2009–2010.

UN missions have promoted the implementation of 'zero tolerance' policies in relation to sexual exploitation and abuse within host-country security institutions in **DRC**, **Sierra Leone**, and **Timor-Leste**. Specialised police units to address sexual gender-based violence in the population have been established in a number of countries with mission support (see Section 4.6).

4.4.2 Achievement and challenges

In a few of the countries under review, women's employment in security institutions has increased.

In **Timor-Leste**, women in the national police have increased from less than 100 in 2000 to 577 (20%) in 2010, largely as a result of UN mission support, and women constitute 8% of the national defense forces. The first female district police commissioner was appointed in September 2010 to lead a force of 100 police, including 24 women. Recently, demobilised women ex-combatants have been given the option to join the security institutions. The proportion of police officers in the **Liberia** national police has risen from 11% in 2006 to 15% in 2010 and a target of 20% has been set. Girls who dropped out of school during the conflict have been offered fast-track training to meet the educational requirements to enter the police academy. Women constitute 30% of immigration officers and 15% of staff in corrections but only 4% of both officers and soldiers in the armed forces. In southern **Sudan** the proportion of female senior police officers has increased recently from none to 20% through promotion of SCR 1325 and the application of a 25% quota.

In most of the countries under review, however, representation of women in the security sector remains low. In **Afghanistan** there are only 512 women (<1%) out of 86,000 in the national police; a 10-year target of 20% has been set. In **Burundi**, women constitute less than 3% of the police and less than 1% of the defense forces but a relatively high 18% of the intelligence services; they are mostly in administrative positions. BINUB has helped to integrate 215 former female ex-combatants into the national security forces. In May 2010 the number of women in the national police of **DRC** was 6074, or 6% of the total number. According to MONUSCO UNPOL, however, 15% of new recruits to the national police are women. Despite the fact that MINUSTAH has helped to recruit and train 21 intakes of police officers in **Haiti** the number of female officers remains low. Currently women represent only 8% of the 9,409 police officers; the current intake has 6% women among its 907 cadets. In **Chad**, MINURCAT's Gender Unit helped the UNPOL gender focal points to develop and implement a quick impact project in 2009 to increase the number of women within the national police service. As a result 250 additional women were recruited increasing the proportion of women within the service from 4% to 8.6%.

With the support of the UN Missions several national police services and armed forces have adopted gender policies. In **Sierra Leone**, both institutions initiated such policies with the assistance of UNIOSIL; the police service was the first in West Africa to adopt policies on sexual exploitation, abuse and harassment and gender mainstreaming. Two of the highest-ranking police officers are female, as is one brigadier in the military. A national umbrella organisation, Women in the Security Sector in Sierra Leone, has been formed.

In most of the countries reviewed the nature of national security institutions and societal attitudes serve as deterrents to women joining the security forces. Most security institutions have patriarchal organisational cultures and few incentives for women to join them. In **Afghanistan**, strong cultural resistance to women's participation in public life is compounded by lack of trust in the police forces. In some conservative areas a woman in uniform is

considered to bring shame to her family. In Kandahar in 2009 the highest ranked female police officer was killed, allegedly because she was leading a unit of 10 female police and dealing with domestic violence. In **DRC**, the police service is not regarded as an honourable profession. Women police are often considered 'of dubious reputation' and not deserving of respect. In both countries the role of female police is not well understood and is undervalued by society. Other missions such as **Burundi**, **Sierra Leone**, and **Timor-Leste** highlighted cultural gender stereotypes as a constraining factor for women joining the security sector.

For women who do join the security forces life is often not easy. Interviews in **Afghanistan**, **DRC**, and **Haiti** with women serving in the security forces and with civil society groups involved in the SSR process revealed that women in the police and the military are discriminated against by their institutions and their male colleagues. They are often relegated



Pranee Inseawong (left), United Nations Police (UNPOL) community officer, visits internally displaced persons living in the Jardim Camp, 7 December 2007, Dili, Timor-Leste. © UN Photo/Martine Perret

to minor tasks, are undervalued by their male colleagues, lack opportunities for promotion, lack adequate facilities for their personal security and suffer from sexual harassment and abuse. The absence of facilities for women was identified in **Timor-Leste** as a factor impeding gender balance in the security forces, particularly in the districts. In **Sierra Leone** a lack of commitment of the leadership of security institutions to implement the adopted gender policies was reported.

In most countries **mechanisms for lodging complaints about inappropriate behaviour towards women by men in the police or the army are absent or as yet ineffective**. This was reported by women, both in the community and in the security forces. In **Burundi**, for example, some senior members of security institutions are said to minimise the importance of sexual harassment and violence against female colleagues in solidarity with accused male colleagues. In **DRC**, group discussions with female police revealed that although there is a zero tolerance policy they fear denouncing their superiors for fear of losing their jobs. The national police in **Sierra Leone** has developed an internal complaints mechanism and created a Family Support Unit to respond to sexual and gender based violence claims internally and from the civilian population.

The deployment of female uniformed peace-keepers is generally very well received by conflict-affected communities, especially by women.

In **DRC**, for example, female peacekeepers are considered to be playing a positive and supportive role and are seen by local women as the best interlocutors for addressing sexual and gender based violence. The Indian female Formed Police Unit (FPU) in the UN Mission in **Liberia** has been acknowledged by the President as providing a good model and proving that women can effectively perform roles traditionally reserved for men. Visits by the FPU and Nigerian female peacekeepers to high schools and colleges have reportedly contributed to an increased registration of girls and women in the security sector. In **Sierra Leone**, UNAMSIL female police peacekeepers have played a critical role in enhancing the skills of national female police and influenced the recruitment of more women into the police forces.⁴¹

4.4.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

Attempts to introduce gender sensitive reforms in the national security sectors have had mixed results. Although a number of national security institutions have adopted policies related to increasing the number of women in their ranks **only in a few countries has there been a significant increase in the proportion of women in the security institutions**. In almost all countries their numbers remain low.

A few countries have introduced gender policies in their security forces but the environment of most is still far from women-friendly. Discrimination against women is widespread, with their contributions being undervalued, and sexual harassment, sexual abuse and exploitation rife. The code of conduct and discipline against sexual harassment, sexual abuse and exploitation are rarely properly implemented and enforced. The UN has largely failed to generate political will for change and to develop effective male gender champions in the security sector.

The UN has been somewhat effective in overcoming challenges to women's participation in the security components of peacekeeping missions. More uniformed women are being deployed to a wider range of duties and their conditions of service have been improved. A mechanism to combat sexual harassment and sexual exploitation has been put in place and has yielded results (see Section 4.8).

Deployment of more female UN police and military personnel has generally been viewed very positively by host countries, including for their influence as role models. Their presence has challenged traditional ideas of gender roles, encouraged women and girls to enter the security sector and improved women's perception of their security. Requests have been made by communities to increase the number of uniformed female officers. It should be noted here that the DPKO Police Division has set a target of 20% representation of women among UN Police by 2014.

4.5 Legal and judicial reforms

Legal and judicial sector reforms in peacekeeping operations should promote the participation of

women in the judiciary and advance gender sensitive justice, ensuring that the differentiated needs and priorities of women, men, girls and boys are taken into consideration and that discriminatory laws and practices are eliminated (SRC 1325, OP 9). In addition, reforms should ensure that women and girls are protected from SGBV and perpetrators brought to justice (SRC 1325 OP 10 and 11).

4.5.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

Missions assisting countries with legal and judiciary reform have provided technical support in: revision of discriminatory laws and the drafting and/or amendment of legislation; assessment and recruitment of justice sector personnel including provisions to bring more women into the judiciary; and training of the national police, judiciary and corrections personnel in gender, SGBV, criminal investigation and human rights (see also Sections 4.4 and 4.6).

In **Afghanistan** the Justice Sector Strategy developed with the support of UNAMA has led to the review of criminal and civil laws under the lens of CEDAW and work has started on their revision. In **DRC**, the MONUSCO Gender Unit has facilitated a series of workshops from 2005 to 2010 for magistrates, lawyers and judiciary auxiliaries⁴² on the gender sensitivity of existing legislation and the need for its reform while in **Sierra Leone** the UN is supporting the revision of the Local Courts Act. In **Timor-Leste** the UN has supported a draft bill on customary law and community justice that aims to limit the application of customs that are detrimental to women.

Assistance for census, assessment and recruitment of the judiciary was reported by missions in **DRC**, **Timor-Leste**, and **Côte d'Ivoire**; they are also active in advocating with the judiciary and the public for the participation of women throughout the justice system. MINUSTAH in **Haiti** provides support for the strengthening of judicial institutions, legal reform and the establishment of free legal aid to vulnerable populations, including women.

The missions in **Chad**, **Côte d'Ivoire**, and **DRC** are currently working with host-countries to address the often severe conditions in corrections institutions

where overcrowding and lack of segregation put women prisoners at high risk. In **Chad**, in 2009, MINURCAT organised training for 40 prison directors from across the country focused on the treatment of women and children in detention.

4.5.2 Achievements and challenges

Across the countries reviewed a number of laws that discriminated against women and girls have been, or are in the process of being, revised and new legislation in line with international human rights standards put in place. CEDAW has been ratified in some countries during the time of the UN Missions (e.g. in Timor-Leste, Afghanistan). Consultations undertaken with stakeholders in **Afghanistan**, **Burundi**, **DRC**, **Liberia**, **Sierra Leone**, **Sudan** and **Timor-Leste** acknowledged the substantial contribution of peacekeeping missions to the achievement of these outcomes. In **Burundi**, where SGBV is a major problem, provisions to combat it have been introduced in the Penal and Criminal Procedure Codes. In **Sierra Leone** a major turning point in the legal protection of women and girls has been the adoption between 2007 and 2009 of four new laws addressing domestic violence, women's inheritance of their husband's property, women's marriage rights under customary and civil law (and attempting to end early and forced marriages) and children's rights. In **Sudan** UNMIS support has resulted in the promulgation and/or amendment of legislation between 2007 and 2009 addressing women's rights, women's participation in political parties, a 25% quota for women in elections, women's access to legal aid, and children's rights. However, lawmakers rejected legal provisions on female genital mutilation. Revision of the 1991 Criminal Act introduced new definitions for crimes against humanity and war crimes including rape and other sexual crimes.

Progress has been achieved in increasing the number of women in the legal and judiciary sector in a few of the countries under review. **Timor-Leste** has made considerable progress: five of 19 national judges (26%) are now women as are five of 14 national prosecutors (36%) and three of 16 public defenders (19%). Women also hold key positions such as Minister for Justice, Prosecutor General, Director of Prison Services and Director of the Legal Training

Centre. There has been a decrease, however, in the number of female law students, which has led to quotas and scholarships for women being putting in place. In **Sierra Leone**, too, the number of women in the legal sector has substantially increased in the recent years; women now make up 38% of judges, 60% of the police prosecution team; 30% of senior lawyers (including the Chief Justice) and 14% of all active lawyers. In **Sudan**, 53% of the 15,000 registered lawyers in the north are reported to be women while in Southern Sudan only 10% of the 200 judges and 17% of the 300 legal counsels are female.

Women's participation in the judiciary remains low, however, in most of the countries reviewed. Despite considerable effort to increase the numbers, in **Afghanistan** women account for only 5% of judges, 6% of attorneys and 6% of prosecutors.⁴³ In **DRC** in 2005, there was only one woman in the Supreme Court out of 20 members and one woman out of 26 at the national bar.⁴⁴ In 2010 there is reported to be no representation of women in the higher levels of the judiciary. Following strong lobbying by women since 2008, the Government agreed that one quarter of 2000 magistrates to be recruited in 2010 would be women; this has indeed been accomplished, with 500 women recruited by the Ministry of Justice in June 2010. In **Haiti** as of October 2010, 8% of the 650 judges were women. Of 18 courts, only two have female deans and the public prosecutors are all male. The first competitive examination for trainee judges this year had 21 women among the 150 candidates; of the 40 short listed only 4 were women.

The situation for women and the situation in general in correction institutions in most countries is deplorable and investments made to improve conditions are clearly insufficient. In **DRC** there are 207 prisons, mostly overcrowded, some up to four times their official capacity, with women, men and juveniles, including serious crimes offenders, sharing the same spaces often without basic facilities such as separate toilets. There are few prisons especially for women. Under these conditions the reported rape of women by inmates is not surprising. In **Afghanistan** many women in prison are there as a consequence of them fleeing domestic violence, rejecting forced marriage or eloping, which often lead to charges of 'adultery'. In **Sudan** separate cell-

blocks for female and male prisoners exist but juveniles share cells with the adults. In **Cote d'Ivoire** women are separated from men in all but two prisons, however, they are often guarded by men due to lack of female personnel. Substantial improvements have been made in prisons in Eastern **Chad** where inmates of all ages and both sexes used to share the same facilities; through the work of MINURCAT women, men and minors are now separated. A building has been constructed for women's activities and social workers hired to address women's issues.

Though significant progress has been achieved in most of the countries in enacting legislation to protect the rights of women and girls, implementation of the laws faces many challenges. Access to the formal justice system is limited in many countries, in particular, in rural areas and especially for women (e.g. in **Afghanistan, DRC, Cote d'Ivoire, Sudan** and **Timor-Leste**). Justice for women is hampered by the absence of legal aid, financial and transport barriers, culturally imposed restrictions on their mobility and lack of awareness of legal rights and of the justice system. In some countries formal and customary justice systems coexist, and in Afghanistan and Sudan, Islamic justice is also practiced. The customary and Islamic systems are usually male-dominated and discriminate against women. In **Timor-Leste** most cases of GBV continue to be addressed through customary justice mechanisms with perpetrators mostly risking only a fine or 'the anger of the ancestors';⁴⁵ In **Cote d'Ivoire** although there is a statutory law against female genital mutilation, the customary justice system fails to protect women and girls. In Southern **Sudan** forced marriages and early marriage are not offenses under customary law, although the formal law prohibits them. Rape, if reported and determined to have occurred, is settled with compensation to the family and not the victim. Women do not inherit family assets under customary law.

An encouraging experience in this regard comes from **Sierra Leone**. Although customary laws do not protect the rights of women changes are occurring with chiefs in many areas responding positively to sensitisation and taking action to harmonise customary and statutory law. Personnel in local courts are aware that when there is a conflict between customary laws and national laws the latter apply.

4.5.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

Peacekeeping missions have had a positive impact on the revision of legislation discriminatory to women and the adoption of gender-sensitive legislative frameworks such as provisions for gender equality in national constitutions and CEDAW. As a result of UN technical assistance more gender sensitive legislation is now in place in most countries, which should, eventually, have a positive impact on lives of the women and girls.

With a few exceptions missions have experienced less success in increasing the number of women in the legal and justice system and improving the enforcement of laws that address issues of gender equality. Challenges include the lack of resources and skills in the system, limited legal understanding among the population, limited access to formal justice and a failure to involve traditional justice in legal and judiciary reform.

Despite the efforts made by the missions, with a few exceptions, **there has been only modest impact on the conditions for women in correction centres.** These institutions are typically extremely under-funded and understaffed.

It is recognised that national governments are primarily responsible for bringing about legal and judiciary reforms and that they may lack the will or resources to do so. Nevertheless, UN missions have a mandate to promote reform and guide countries through the necessary steps.

4.6 Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV)

SCR 1325 OPs 10 and 11 (and UNSCR 1820) call on peacekeeping operations to act to combat SGBV, particularly against women and children and to prosecute perpetrators. This area of the review explored the extent to which the activities of peacekeeping missions have led to measures to prevent, protect against and respond to SGBV. It also looked at misconduct by peacekeepers and national security forces.

4.6.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

Missions have assisted host countries with the drafting and passing of legislation related to SGBV, the development of national strategies to combat SGBV, training judiciary actors – particularly the police in the prevention and the response to SGBV – and setting up specials units within the national police to deal with cases of SGBV.

Over a period of almost 10 years peacekeeping missions in **Timor-Leste** have supported the government in revising laws to protect women's rights. The revised penal code adopted in 2009 makes domestic violence a crime and a specific law on domestic violence was enacted in 2010 after a 7-year process. The mission and UN agencies have also assisted in the development of a national action plan on domestic violence and a gender policy for the Ministry of Justice and supported the socialisation of new legislation through public outreach and training. In **Liberia** the mission has assisted the country to draft laws against sexual violence with a law against rape passed in 2006. In **Afghanistan** the UN has supported development of the law on the elimination of violence against women adopted in 2009. Currently, the UN is providing technical support in the drafting of a law to regulate informal dispute resolution mechanisms, which are the most commonly used in cases of violence against women. UNIFEM and UNAMA are also currently working on a system and database for the reporting of any form of violence against women.

In **DRC** a sexual violence law was enacted in 2006 with the support of MONUC. Under the lead of the UN the government is addressing sexual violence through a national strategy on gender-based violence passed in late 2009. A sexual violence trust fund set up in 2010 in Eastern Congo is managed by the MONUSCO Sexual Violence Unit. The unit coordinates and guides a holistic approach to combating SGBV by working with committees that include representatives of the government, donor community and MONUSCO senior management.

UN missions have assisted national police forces to establish special units for prevention of and response to SGBV. In **Timor-Leste**, UNTAET established the first Vulnerable Persons Unit (VPU) in the national

police in 2001. Subsequent UN Missions have continued to support their establishment across the country. The units receive reports of SGBV, investigate them and prosecute where indicated. In **Liberia**, the national police force has set up a women's and children's protection section, which investigates rape and other gender-based violence, protects victims and aims to improve the prosecution of perpetrators. Currently the section has 48 functional offices among the 149 police stations across the country. In **Sierra Leone** UN training and sensitisation of family support units has improved the capacity of the police to process cases under the 2007 law on domestic violence and to help victims to obtain support. In **Chad** the setting up of special protection cells for women and children has contributed to increasing the sense of security of victims.

Missions are also supporting training programmes for judges, lawyers, courtroom and security sector personnel handling cases of SGBV. In **Chad**, training modules on SGBV have been developed for all those involved in the response to SGBV in the judiciary, security, counseling and medical sectors. In **Liberia**, a hand book on sexual assault and abuse prosecution was developed for county attorneys and prosecutors of the SGBV Crimes Unit in 2008, and in 2009 a similar handbook was developed for investigators of the Women and Children Protection Section of the national police. MINUSTAH in **Haiti** is preparing lawyers and providing initial and continuing education to prosecutors and judges to better respond to SGBV. A training programme has been conducted with the national police Women's Coordination Unit and Child Protection Brigade. The MINUSTAH Gender Unit in collaboration with the office of the Force Commander, UNFPA, Human Rights section and UNPOL has supported a successful pilot of a space in the police commissariat for the reception of women victims of SGBV; the concept will now be replicated across the country.

In **Timor-Leste**, 43 national police officers were trained as trainers on SGBV investigations in 2008 and 2009. In **DRC**, the MONUSCO Rule of Law and Gender Units have trained military investigators and civilian police inspectors on gender awareness and SGBV, including investigation of cases. One thousand judiciary staff in the two Kasai provinces were trained

in gender sensitivity to improve their skills in assisting female victims of SGBV. The Rule of Law Section of UNOCI in **Cote d'Ivoire** is developing training modules on SGBV to be included in the initial training for the penitentiary staff, police officers and magistrates.

Gender Units in all missions are active in raising awareness of local populations through advocacy and sensitisation campaigns, including the 16-days of activism against gender-based violence, in partnership with women's organisations and the national machineries for the advancement of women.

4.6.2 Achievements and challenges

Peacekeeping missions have provided technical support to the drafting and enactment of major pieces of legislation aimed at combating SGBV in Afghanistan, DRC, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Timor-Leste. They have also trained large numbers of personnel from the judiciary, police and other relevant groups in how to receive, investigate and prosecute cases of SGBV and how to support victims. With the assistance of UNPOL, specialised police units to address sexual and gender-based violence have been established in the national police services in **Burundi, Chad, Dafur, DRC, Haiti, Liberia, Kosovo, Sierra Leone, Sudan, and Timor Leste**. In **Liberia**, a special prosecutor's office specifically dedicated to SGBV was created with UNMIL support.

Achievements have also been made in more direct protection of civilian populations from SGBV. In **DRC**, from February 2009 to July 2010 around 60 Joint Protection Teams (JPT) were set up and deployed by MONUSCO to conflict-affected areas to make assessments and provide better protection to local populations. The JPTs involve civilian, police and military peacekeepers of whom, to date, 40% have been women. Local populations, particularly women, report that JPTs have reduced the number of attacks on women when they go to the fields, markets and wells. Missions in **Chad, Darfur** and **Haiti** have set up security measures in IDP and refugee camps which have improved women's security and reduced SGBV (see Section 4.7). One indication that the measures in eastern **Chad** are working is that refugee women are lodging complaints against their husbands. It is estimated that previously 70% of

cases went unreported while now half of cases are reported; of the reported cases over 60% are now being brought to trial.

In **DRC**, where the risk of contracting HIV from sexual attack is high, post-emergency prophylaxis (PEP) kits (and emergency contraception) are now available in all MONUSCO clinics. CSOs working on SGVB in Kinshasa and Eastern Congo highlighted this as a very important intervention and suggested that the programme be extended to health centres run by the government and NGOs. In **Darfur** the increased availability of such services is reported to have had a positive impact in reducing the spread of HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases and unwanted pregnancies. The Mission in **Southern Sudan** has also assured increased access to PEP kits.

Respondents in **DRC** and **Afghanistan** expressed their appreciation for UN efforts to enhance the capacity of female police to respond to SGVB; they are considered more sensitive than men in dealing

with these cases. In **Timor-Leste**, the vulnerable persons units are now operating in all districts and have trained female police staff to deal with cases of SGVB.

Overall, **sexual and gender-based violence remain overwhelming problems in the countries under review**. Despite efforts to decrease SGVB in **Liberia**, rape (including gang rape) is the number one crime reported to the police. Victims as young as 10 years old, and increasingly juvenile perpetrators are reported. In **Burundi** the only type of gender-based violence reported to the police is rape; there were 1306 cases reported in 2008 and 2009. In **Afghanistan**, women and girls who run away from gender-based violence at home are often punished with more violence and oppression. They are likely to be accused of adultery and incarcerated. Suicide and self-immolation in such circumstances have been reported by human rights activists.⁴⁶ In **Timor-Leste** domestic violence is widespread (an estimated one third of all prosecution cases relate to SGVB). **Female genital mutilation remains a serious concern in Côte d'Ivoire, Chad,**



Liberian men attending one of the 16 Days of Activism events at the Samuel Kanyan Doe Sports Complex in Monrovia, 25 November 2010, Monrovia, Liberia.
© UN Photo/Olga De Biagio

Darfur, Northern Sudan and Sierra Leone, as does **SGBV associated with forced and early marriage**, which is also common in these countries as well as in **Afghanistan and Liberia**.

Sexual violence is used as a strategy in situations of conflict to demoralise and intimidate local communities. This is frequent in the on-going conflict in the eastern **DRC**, with the targets being mainly civilian women and girls.⁴⁷ As was widely reported by the international media in September 2010, a major incident of mass rape occurred late July 2010 in North Kivu just 30 km from a UN peacekeeping base. According to MONUSCO reports, 242 women were raped, allegedly by members of illegal armed groups.⁴⁸ A 2008 UNMIL study in **Liberia** among 1,216 women indicated that 74% of them had been raped during the conflict (and a further 13% since). In **Darfur**, actors in the conflict on both sides, the insurgency forces, the military and the police, are reported to be perpetrators of sexual violence against women. From July 2008 to June 2010, the UNAMID Human Rights Unit recorded 166 incidents of sexual violence directly related to the conflict, including 132 alleged rapes. In many cases, women victims of rape are stigmatised by their own families and communities. They may also suffer from fistulae as a result of the violence, the long-term consequences of which often lead to rejection by their husbands and their communities.

In many settings sexual and domestic violence are taboo and a culture of silence prevails, which further limits recourse to any form of justice. In **DRC** impunity is flagrant despite the existence of sexual violence legislation. In **Afghanistan, Sierra Leone and Southern Sudan** it was reported that victims of sexual violence abstain from reporting it for fear of stigmatisation. The absence of female police officers in most police stations and abusive behaviour of male police officers were mentioned as additional reasons for not reporting. When victims try to use traditional justice mechanisms, such as in **Afghanistan, DRC, Sierra Leone, Sudan, and Timor-Leste**, these often rule against them and send them home to further abuse, and stigmatisation.

Lack of accurate sexual and gender-based violence statistics was reported as a major constraint in

all countries under review as well as the lack of a coordinated strategy and referral system between the different actors involved in the response to SGBV. It was also reported that most interventions are focused on women while very few target or involve men.

4.6.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

Peacekeeping missions have contributed to preventing and responding to SGBV in host-countries with different degrees of success. SGBV remains highly prevalent in mission areas and progress in addressing it is slow.

The impact of peacekeeping missions in fighting SGBV has been evident in some areas, such as **support for the adoption of laws to combat SGBV and training the judiciary, police and other actors to better respond to cases**. Undoubtedly, as a result of the work undertaken by the UN, there has been **an increase in awareness of SGBV** and of harmful traditional practices, and some evidence of attitudinal change, particularly in urban and semi-urban areas in some countries. **Legal support to combat and punish SGBV is now available in some countries** but access to it remains a constraint.

The perception of communities, especially women, is that their security has improved in conflict-affected areas where the UN supports active protection measures, such as Joint Protection Teams, patrols and escorts. Women peacekeepers are considered a particular asset in addressing SGBV and in facilitating good communication and flow of security information with local populations, particularly women.

SGBV remains widespread and common in the countries reviewed, especially in Burundi, Chad, Darfur, DRC and Liberia. While national authorities have the main responsibility for changing this situation, **the role of peacekeepers in supporting the protection of women and girls from SGBV is not yet adequate**. Commanders of illegal armed forces do not understand or do not care that sexual violence against civilians constitutes a crime against humanity for which they can be held accountable.

4.7 Protection of women IDPs and refugees

SCR 1325 OP 12 calls on all parties involved in armed conflict to respect the civilian nature of refugee camps and to involve women and girls in designing the camps to ensure their needs are met, including for security and protection. Peacekeepers are mandated to protect civilians under threat of physical violence, including in refugee and IDP camps, and, in some cases, to guarantee the secure and orderly delivery of humanitarian aid. This area of the study looked at the protection of women IDPs and refugees and the gender sensitivity of humanitarian assistance provided to them.

The scale of the challenge is enormous. In **Darfur**, for example, in January 2009 there were 2.7 million IDPs or 36% of Darfur's total population, 70% of them women and children.⁴⁹ As of mid-2010, in **DRC** there were 626,000 IDPs in South Kivu Province⁵⁰ and 784,000 in North Kivu Province.⁵¹

4.7.1 Activities of peacekeeping missions

Mission and humanitarian agency personnel in **Burundi**, **Chad**, **Darfur** and **DRC** are ensuring that women are taken into account in the registration of IDPs and refugees, camp governance structures and provision of food and non-food items. Missions in **Burundi** and **Darfur** reported offering vocational training and economic recovery opportunities to women camp dwellers. Reproductive and health services are provided with the support of UNFPA and NGOs. In all four countries awareness raising and training on gender concepts and gender-based violence are provided to staff and camp populations. In **Sudan**, special desks have been set up within camps for refugees and IDPs to deal with gender issues. Female police peacekeepers played an important role in getting tribal leaders' approval for these and in sensitising the communities.

Peacekeeping missions in **Chad**, **DRC**, **Darfur** and **Haiti** are supporting the humanitarian assistance activities of UNHCR and OCHA in IDP and refugee camps. Peacekeepers are collaborating with national

police to provide patrols and escorts and are supporting the establishment of camp security committees. In Eastern **Chad**, an integrated security detachment (known by its French acronym: DIS⁵²), established with the support of MINURCAT and overseen by UNPOL, has improved security in refugee camps and IDP sites through routine foot and motorbike patrols. In IDP camps in **Darfur**, patrols are conducted day and night and a reduction in attacks on women is attributed to the presence of UNAMID peacekeepers, including as escorts for women collecting firewood and farming. In **DRC**, MONUSCO is ensuring gender-balanced and gender sensitive Joint Protection Teams and carrying out research on the protection needs of women and girls in high-risk conflict zones. To respond to the worsening of the security situation in the **Haiti** IDP camps after the January 2010 earthquake UNPOL, military peacekeepers and the national police set up an around-the-clock security mechanism in the six major camps. Mobile security and gender patrols are operating in an additional 70 camps. These mechanisms have been effective, particularly in protecting women against sexual aggression. In **Haiti** a UNPOL IDP Gender Unit was set up to prevent and respond to SGBV in IDP camps. Specific mechanisms to protect women in camps are also reported from **Burundi**.

4.7.2 Achievements and challenges

Respondents to this study reported that **the protection of IDPs and refugees in their camps has improved as a result of the presence of peacekeepers**. In **Darfur**, UNAMID patrols and escorts were considered to have improved security for women and curbed the incidence of SGBV. In **DRC** MONUSCO's JPTs were reported to have increased security among IDPs in North Kivu;⁵³ the peacekeepers' presence is perceived to deter armed groups. Local security committees liaise with the peacekeepers; these include women, although not without resistance. In **Burundi** police units and refugee security committees that conduct night patrols have improved security for women in the refugee camps of Gasorwe and Musasa. The security of women refugees in camps in **Chad** is now assured by the DIS with MINURCAT/UNPOL support. Refugee women leaders

consulted commented that they are reassured by having women in the DIS (there are now more than 150 women) and feel safer collecting wood or working in the fields. Security of women in camps has been further improved by attention to the camps' physical layout, the availability of separate facilities for women and better lighting.

Despite improvements in the protection of female IDPs and refugees, many challenges remain. In **Darfur** there is still insufficient protection for women undertaking livelihood activities outside the IDP camps. They are still frequently raped, otherwise sexually abused and physically injured. It was reported that the mission has not been able to organise secure alternative livelihood activities for women and in some instances has failed to provide them with protection when violence has broken out in the camps. Women's groups consulted in Goma, **DRC**, raised the following issues about security for women IDPs: lack of facilities for women in some camps, crowded conditions increasing the vulnerability of women to sexual

violence, and lack of escorts during food distribution leaving women open to attack and robbery. The late-July, early-August 2010 episode of mass rape in Eastern **DRC** proved that keeping well informed and providing protection quickly over a wide area remains a major challenge for peacekeepers.

The involvement of women in camp governance and activities has been variable. Women headed, and according to OCHA effectively managed, three of 100 IDP camp management committees in **Burundi** in 2001; others had at least one woman among their five members. UNHCR was reported to have achieved gender balance in camp management committees through enforcement of a gender parity policy. Female IDPs and refugees were reported to have received the same benefits as males. In the economic recovery programmes they constituted 18% of the beneficiaries of labour intensive construction schemes, 60% of those receiving vocational training and 64% of those in income generating activities. Women were said to be inadequately represented in IDP camp



Kosovar refugees fleeing their homeland, 1 March 1999, Blace area, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. © UN Photo/LeMoine

governance bodies in **Darfur** with men rejecting them as incompetent or untrustworthy in the management of camps. In **DRC** also, women reported that they were not always consulted on the functioning of the camps or the return of IDPs. One reported consequence of not involving women was that food tokens were given to men, who in some cases traded them for beer and other non-food items and in polygamous relationships neglected less-favoured wives. Women were felt to fare worse when there were limited numbers of female humanitarian staff working in camp.

4.7.3 Impact of peacekeeping missions

The security for women and girl IDPs and refugees has improved greatly in some settings through the presence of patrols and escorts. The impact of the DIS in **Chad** is one example that is particularly appreciated by the concerned refugee population.

The coverage, consistency and effectiveness of protection measures still require improvement. In some settings there are insufficient resources available to peacekeepers to assure the protection of civilians in overcrowded camps. The security of women and girls is put at risk by insufficient attention to large numbers of disenfranchised male youth.

Failures in protection can in some cases be attributed to inadequate communication between peacekeepers and populations, including male elders and camp community leaders, but also women's groups.

The impact of the peacekeeping missions in empowering women IDPs and refugees has been limited. Although there are some accounts of women being actively involved in camp management committees, the overall picture is one of inadequate involvement.

The inclusion of women among UN security and humanitarian staff in camps is very positively viewed by IDP and refugee women but their numbers are still inadequate.

4.8 Common and cross-cutting themes

This section reports on areas of work that cut across, or are common to, many or all of the themes reported on in Sections 4.1 to 4.7. In particular, it covers activities of the missions broadly designed to support gender mainstreaming, efforts to improve gender balance in peacekeeping missions, the commitment of the missions' leadership to gender mainstreaming, the implementation of the Zero Tolerance Policy on sexual exploitation and abuse and the missions' role in collaborating with UN agencies and other development partners.

4.8.1 Broad support provided through the missions' gender components

Part of the overall approach of DPKO to ensuring the implementation of SCR 1325 in multidimensional peacekeeping operations is to include a gender component in each mission as called for in SCR 1325 OP 5. The appointment of gender advisers and the establishment of gender units are part of the implementation of this gender mainstreaming mandate. They aim to ensure **a broad range of activities on gender both within the mission and with host populations**. Within the mission these include systematic training of all peacekeeping personnel on the gender dimensions of their operations, the integration of gender perspectives in all standard operating procedures and the planning, implementation and evaluation of gender activities in all functional areas. In addition to the activities outlined in Sections 4.1 to 4.7, missions have conducted activities that cut across thematic areas. These include:

- lobbying for gender sensitivity with leaders at all levels and in all appropriate fora, including for the adoption of affirmative action measures;
- translating SRC 1325 into local languages and disseminating and promoting it widely;
- improving lobbying strategies and capacity of women's groups, sharing information with them and facilitating their contact with government officials, including through the SRSG;

- supporting the establishment and building the capacity of national machineries for the advancement of women;
- supporting host country stakeholders in the development of SCR 1325 National Action Plans (NAP);⁵⁴ and
- coordinating key initiatives on gender mainstreaming with the UNCT and other international stakeholders.

These activities have been carried out to varying degrees in all missions but in most cases require expansion. Knowledge of SCR 1325 among government officials and women's organisations, for example, still remains inadequate.

Mission gender units have been assisting the government and women's civil society organisations in the development and implementation of NAPs in several countries. **Liberia** developed a NAP in 2008 with the support of UNMIL. The **Sierra Leone** NAP was launched in June 2010 with support from the mission. During the same month in **DRC** an "Acte d'Engagement" was signed in support of the NAP. In the last two countries the missions have ensured that the NAPs are budgeted and include specific monitoring indicators and in **DRC** the mission is working to ensure that national and donor funds will be allocated to it.⁵⁵ UNAMA is currently working with the government of **Afghanistan** on its NAP on SCR 1325.

Given the prevailing gender inequality in all the post-conflict countries under review and the broad range of activities outlined above, the technical expertise available within missions to support implementation of its mandate in relation to SCR 1325 is inadequate. Gender units in **missions are generally understaffed⁵⁶ and under resourced relative to the tasks they are expected to accomplish.** Stakeholders interviewed for this study recognised the crucial role of gender units and consistently called for an increase in their staffing and for the allocation of discretionary financial resources to support their work. The work of gender units would be facilitated by greater dissemination of SCR 1325 among all UN staff as some were reportedly not knowledgeable of its provisions and therefore not very supportive.

4.8.2 The representation of women in peacekeeping missions

DPKO Policy Directive (2006) Principle III focuses on setting standards with peacekeeping missions serving as role models for the institutional commitment to gender balance and equal participation of women in decision making. Point 25 highlights the accountability of mission managers for the compliance of their personnel with the gender policy.⁵⁷ SCR 1325 OP 4 calls for increasing the number of women in field operations.

As reflected in several places in Sections 4.1 to 4.7 above, **the presence of women peacekeepers is very positively viewed by host countries, especially by women.** They are perceived to have ensured greater recognition of gender issues, worked to improve attention to these in policy and legislative reforms and diverse programmes and activities and to have improved the security of women in settings where they are operating.

In line with these directives, **efforts have been undertaken by some peacekeeping missions to improve the representation of women.** For example, in **Burundi** the mission leadership supported by the Gender Unit in 2005 adopted a proactive policy toward filling vacancies in all sections at all levels with female candidates. As a result women accounted for 51% of all staff in ONUB in February 2005; the proportion has since slipped back to 38% in mid-2010, which is still a relatively high level. In **Darfur**, UNAMID has ensured that vacancy advertisements encourage women to apply and that 40% of short listed candidates are women. As a result there is 50/50 gender balance in Political Affairs and in the Humanitarian Liaison Office. Special measures have been taken to overcome cultural constraints and lower educational levels that hinder the employability of local women. UNAMID has had good results recruiting local women and having senior staff support them to improve their performance and to move up the ranks.

In **Lebanon**, UNIFIL senior management has been proactive in the last 18 months in the increased recruitment of women, including at P5 and D1 levels. As a result of special recruitment measures (e.g. qualified women are given priority in the long and

short listing of candidates) the proportion of women has risen to about one-third of both international and national staff from around 15% in 2002. This is an achievement given that UNIFIL is perceived as a military mission. In **Haiti**, the mission has put in place an action plan to increase its gender balance. From 2008 to 2009 the civilian female representation increased from 32% to 34% for international staff; 26% to 28% for UNVs, and 12% to 18% for national staff. Recent efforts to increase the number of female police officers resulted in the deployment of a 150-woman police unit from Bangladesh, in June 2010.

Despite these encouraging examples, peace-keeping missions are far from reaching the policy goal of 50/50 female/male representation among civilian personnel. Currently there are three female SRSGs and three Deputy SRSGs, out of 17 and 18 respectively. Overall, women represent approximately 30% of civilian staff at headquarters and 30% of international civilian staff and 20% of national staff in peacekeeping missions. There has been a substantial decrease in the proportion of women in managerial levels in field missions and the apparent glass ceiling for most women staff in headquarters is P-3.

The proportion of female military and police personnel in most peacekeeping missions remains low. Women make up less than 3% of military personnel and 8% of UN police personnel, far below the UNPOL 2014 target of 20%. Some of the reported barriers to bringing more uniformed women into peacekeeping practice are: the low number of females in the national forces of police- and troop-contributing countries; women not being aware of the option to serve on peacekeeping operations or not being selected; and women candidates failing necessary entry tests (e.g. physical, driving, shooting or language). Some of these constraints could be addressed by specific training.⁵⁸

Among **the main reported challenges to increasing the number of women in field missions** is the non-family nature of most peacekeeping missions and the consequent long absences from family. Another constraint mentioned is the demand for specific language proficiency in addition to other multiple competencies for international staff. For example, in **Darfur** there is a new requirement that applicants should speak Arabic when it is already

difficult to find competent women willing to work in such an environment. The foremost reported challenge to the recruitment of qualified national female staff is the general lower level of education among females in most host countries (e.g. in **Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Darfur and Sierra Leone**). The initiative of UNAMID in **Darfur** could be emulated to counter this constraint.

4.8.3 Commitment to gender mainstreaming of senior management of peacekeeping missions

The commitment of senior managers to gender mainstreaming varies across peacekeeping missions. Although the DPKO Gender Policy stipulates that the responsibility for gender mainstreaming lies with all staff members, male and female, under the vision, guidance and commitment of senior management,⁵⁹ it cannot be said that this responsibility has been embraced across the board.⁶⁰ Respondents to this study stressed that the integration of gender dimensions in the programming of functional areas depends on the commitment of the senior leadership to ensure their managers do so. In **Burundi** the mission leadership showed strong commitment to integrating gender across the board from the outset. BINUB has adopted a planning process which includes gender analysis and defines gender sensitive indicators. In **DRC** the integration of gender in substantive areas has been strengthened in the last few years due to the unconditional support of the mission leadership, particularly following the arrival of a female DSRSG with a human rights protection background.

Under the initiative of the gender adviser, most missions have established a system of gender focal points (GFP) in substantive functional areas but the degree of commitment to gender mainstreaming varies from one mission to another. In most cases GFP are not fully dedicated to the task, sharing their time with other responsibilities. Gender mainstreaming is often perceived within the missions as the sole responsibility of gender units. Some missions did not have a gender adviser at their outset. For example in **Lebanon** the Gender Unit opened last year, three years after the mission was expanded.

4.8.4 Zero Tolerance Policy on sexual exploitation and abuse

Conduct and Discipline Teams (CDT) were established in all peacekeeping missions in response to a large number of cases of sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) by UN and related personnel reported in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Since their inception CDTs have been working to ensure that the standards of behaviour of all UN personnel are upheld, with managers and commanders being responsible for their implementation as stated in the Secretary-General bulletins 2003/13 and 2008/5.⁶¹

CDTs and the Gender Units provide induction training to uniformed and civilian peacekeepers when they arrive in-country, to raise awareness on the UN code of conduct and the Zero Tolerance Policy on SEA, and on the gender issues within the cultural context of the country. They aim to ensure that the protection of civilians, particularly women and children, is performed according to UN standards of conduct. UN missions in collaboration with women's groups are sensitising the community, through UN radio and other means, to report cases of SEA to the police and on mechanisms to lodge complaints of SEA committed by peacekeepers.

The number of allegations of SEA against DPKO/DFS personnel, as reported to OIOS,⁶² increased to 112 in 2009, compared with 83 in 2008.⁶³ Most of this increase is attributed to MONUC in **DRC** with 59 allegations in 2009 compared to 40 in 2008; this increase may be partly due to better reporting as a result of three CDT sub-offices being opened in eastern Congo, and by an increase in troop numbers. Despite the increased number of allegations, women's groups consulted for this study perceived that inci-

dents of SEA by peacekeepers had decreased as result of the establishment of the CDTs; they considered this to be one concrete benefit of the implementation of SCR 1325. According to UN statistics, MINUSTAH in **Haiti** and UNMIS in **Sudan** also reported increased numbers of allegations of SEA in 2009 compared with 2008 while UNMIL in **Liberia** reported an overall increase in allegations but a decrease in the number involving non-consensual sex. UNOCI in **Côte d'Ivoire** reported a decrease; few allegations (1–3 in each country) were reported in 2009 by BINUB in **Burundi**, MINURCAT in **Chad**, UNAMID in **Darfur** and UNMIT in **Timor Leste**; and UNIFIL in **Lebanon** reported none.⁶⁴ UNIPSIL in **Sierra Leone** also reported to this study that there are currently few allegations of SEA by peacekeepers. An issue of great concern is that 46% of the allegations of SEA by peacekeepers in 2009 involved minors.

4.8.5 Collaboration of peacekeeping mission with UN agencies and other development partners

From the review of the different thematic areas it appears that **there is often a lack of a clear strategy across the UN System and development partners with respect to gender mainstreaming in each particular area**. This applies, for example, to women's participation in peace negotiations and peace agreements, women's participation in electoral processes, security sector reform and SGBV. The duplication and fragmentation of efforts in these areas has meant less efficient use of the scarce resources available in some countries. Failure to collaborate effectively is driven partly by competition for resources and a related desire for visibility by individual agencies. ■

5 DPKO Headquarters Activities

Since the adoption of SCR 1325 (2000) DPKO has made considerable efforts to mainstream gender in peacekeeping practice and to implement the Resolution. In 2000, gender components were established in UNTAET (Timor-Leste) and UNMIK (Kosovo), being the first peacekeeping missions with dedicated gender staff, followed by MONUC (DRC) and UNAMA (Afghanistan) in 2003. Following the approval of Member States, in 2004 a DPKO Gender Adviser was appointed to support and provide policy guidance to gender advisers in the field, and to facilitate the integration of a gender perspective in policy processes at headquarters. Currently the DPKO Gender Unit in New York counts six staff members (four regularized and two temporary posts). As of October 2010 there were ten DPKO-led multidimensional peacekeeping missions with full time gender components (around 120 international and national personnel) and six traditional peacekeeping missions with Gender Focal Points. In addition, the gender capacity of DPKO was strengthened in 2006 with the nomination of gender focal points in other DPKO components such as the UN Police, Judicial, Human Rights, Rule of Law and Elections. The UN Police for example has UN Police gender focal points in 13 field missions and one full time gender officer located in the Strategic Policy and Development Section in DPKO.

At policy level, in 2006 a DPKO Policy Directive on Gender Equality in Peacekeeping was adopted to guide the implementation of SRC 1325 both at headquarters and field operations. The same year, an Action Plan was elaborated by DPKO/DFS to implement the policy in all functional areas of peacekeeping at Headquar-

ters, and a Gender Task Force with representatives from all DPKO components established to monitor its progress. This Action Plan was updated following a 2008 progress review. To assist peacekeeping missions with the implementation of the Resolution in specific functional areas of work, a series of guidelines have been developed between 2006 and 2010 for use by political affairs, electoral, gender, senior management, police and military components.⁶⁵ In addition, during 2006–2007 DPKO undertook two policy dialogues with troop- and police-contributing countries to unite efforts to increase the deployment of female peacekeepers and to improve the gender content of pre-deployment training curricula.

Since 2008 the training capacity of the DPKO Gender Team has been enhanced by the presence of a dedicated gender trainer ensuring a gender perspective in all training policies and tools. Since 2006 a Gender Community of Practice has facilitated the exchange of knowledge and information between gender components in the field and headquarters and the documentation of good practices.

To further enhance knowledge management on implementation of SCR 1325, at least one review mission has been undertaken to five peacekeeping missions in the last four years. Specific evaluations have also been undertaken during the transitioning of peacekeeping missions in Sierra Leone, Timor-Leste and Kosovo in recent years. The outcomes of these reviews have subsequently informed the development and revisions of policies and guidance to assist field missions in the implementation of resolution 1325. ■

6 Recommendations

General recommendation

- **UN peacekeeping missions should collaborate with host-governments, UN, multilateral and bilateral partners and other stakeholders to ensure the development and implementation of a common strategic framework for gender-related work in each of the thematic area covered by this report.** Senior management of peacekeeping missions should use their good offices to secure the collaboration of all relevant partners in order to maximise results, avoid fragmentation and ensure UN delivery as One.

not only in discussions but also in decision-making, and also how to lobby and strategise to ensure women's issues are addressed and how to monitor the implementation of agreements.

Women's participation in peace negotiations

- **SRSGs should use their good offices to persuade parties to conflict to actively involve a broad-based representation of women from the very outset, and throughout all stages of peace negotiations.** Women, including representatives of those directly affected by the conflict, should be given formal status in negotiations, and should not only be invited in the capacity of observers.
- Peacekeeping missions should work to ensure that peace agreements are informed by, and compatible with, international standards and instruments on women's rights.
- **Peacekeeping missions should undertake a systematic effort to prepare and support women representatives participating in peace negotiations.** They should have a clear understanding of why women need to be represented,

Women's participation in political processes

- **Peacekeeping missions should build on successful efforts to date to facilitate increased participation of women as candidates and voters in elections at all levels. A gender-sensitive approach should inform the entire electoral process** including through ensuring gender balance in electoral bodies, gender sensitivity of civic education campaigns and electoral procedures, and in legislation governing elections and political parties.
- Peacekeeping missions should strongly advocate for the inclusion of compulsory quotas for women in legislative and executive bodies during the drafting of constitutions and legislation governing electoral processes and political parties whenever possible.
- **UN and other agencies should put greater focus on building the capacity of, and supporting, elected women to ensure that an increase in their numbers leads to a genuinely strong political voice and positive change for women.** Linkages between women political leaders, women civil society organisations and the national machinery for the advancement of women need to be better facilitated and strengthened.

- SRSGs should use their good offices to persuade political leaders that affirmative action to ensure women's representation at all levels of public office is of benefit to all. In particular, more effort is required to engage male political party leaders and traditional power-holders on gender issues and action.
- DPKO/DFS should intensify advocacy with troop- and police-contributing countries to increase the number of women within their national security institutions and among those sent on peacekeeping missions. The UN should set targets for the proportion of women within contributing country contingents and systematically address barriers to women's deployment.

Disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration

- DPKO/DFS should invest more effort in sensitising and training UN technical staff and government counterparts on gender issues related to DDR programmes.
- **Mission management should be held accountable for implementation of the IDDRS gender guidelines.** This includes consistent application of standard criteria for eligibility of women for DDR to ensure the inclusion of female ex-combatants and WAAFG.
- In DDR programmes women should be processed separately from men and by female peacekeepers. Benefits for women should be provided to them directly not through their male partners.
- **Peacekeeping missions should give more attention to preparing communities for the (re)integration of ex-combatants and WAAFG.** Support for the more vulnerable people in the communities may need to be considered to avoid creating resentment towards the ex-combatants and WAAFG who are the primary beneficiaries of DDR programmes.

Security sector reform

- **Peacekeeping missions should increase their engagement with national security institutions to promote and support gender-sensitive reform of the security sector.** This includes sensitising their leadership and male staff and supporting the adoption of policies for the recruitment, retention and promotion of women. Codes of conduct and discipline as well as the establishment of positive and secure working environments for women should be prioritised.

- **DPKO/DFS should intensify advocacy with troop- and police-contributing countries to increase the number of women within their national security institutions and among those sent on peacekeeping missions.** The UN should set targets for the proportion of women within contributing country contingents and systematically address barriers to women's deployment.
- **Peacekeeping missions should increase support to host countries to address the negative attitude towards women serving in the police and army that prevail in many countries.** The use of highly ranked women in national security forces as role models and advocates could be a powerful tool in awareness raising campaigns.

Legal and judiciary reforms

- **Peacekeeping missions should increase their assistance to post-conflict countries to ensure that gender sensitivity principles are incorporated in legal and judiciary reforms and that legislation is in line with agreed international legal frameworks and effectively implemented.** The UN and other partners should support efforts to improve access to justice for all and ensure that women are not disadvantaged in this regard.
- The UN system should work with authorities of traditional justice systems, including at local levels, to sensitise them to basic human rights and women's rights and to work towards harmonising customary laws with relevant national laws where the latter better protect women's rights.

Sexual and gender-based violence

- **A more robust and coordinated response from the UN, international and national partners should be employed to fight against SGBV and conflict-related sexual violence**
- **Peacekeeping missions should deploy mixed teams to settings where SGBV is prevalent and train and support them in measures to prevent and respond to SGBV, whilst also ensuring their own security in these situations.** Peacekeepers should have skills to develop relationships of trust

with host communities, particularly with women's groups, to facilitate better information flows between them and the UN.

- **Peacekeeping missions and UN partners should work more closely with traditional and religious leaders, including those responsible for customary justice systems, on SGBV and traditional practices that are harmful to women.** Men and male youth from affected communities should be involved in the prevention and response to SGBV.
- **DPKO/DFS should support troop- and police-contributing countries to conduct pre-deployment training of peacekeepers on the UN code of conduct, gender dimensions of conflict and post-conflict settings (including SGBV) and their role in protecting civilians.**
- DPKO/DFS should ensure that all contingents operating under the UN flag implement a zero tolerance policy on sexual exploitation and abuse and contingent commanders should be held accountable for its enforcement.

Protection of women IDPs and refugees

- **The UN system should devote more resources to the protection of women IDPs and refugees, with the support of international partners.** The lead role of national authorities in ensuring protection for women and girls, including from conflict-related sexual violence should be better communicated to local communities and partners.
- **Peacekeeping missions should ensure the deployment of mixed teams to settings with IDPs and refugees to help increase the security of IDP and refugee women.** Special facilities must be provided for their deployment and security.
- **Peacekeeping missions and UN partners should ensure that women IDPs and refugees are given more opportunities to participate in camp governance mechanisms and in training programmes to improve their livelihood possibilities.** Livelihood opportunities for male



With the assistance of two colleagues, Angela Ama Agyeman Sesime (centre) of Ghana, Police Adviser for the African Union-United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID), writes her report following a patrol through a camp for internally displaced persons in north Darfur, 20 October 2010, Zam Zam, Sudan.
© UN Photo/Olivier Chassot

youth should also be given attention to ensure a more creative use of their free time to offset their frustration and potential aggressiveness.

- **Peacekeeping missions should establish more effective communication channels with women's groups to ensure the early detection of security risk factors and better protection of women.** Contact between peacekeepers and male community leaders should also be enhanced to ensure two-way communication on security issues.

Common and cross-cutting themes

- **DPKO/DFS should strengthen mission gender units by increasing deployment of international and national staff with appropriate skills and experience, to enhance outreach to all operational areas.** Greater priority should be given to hiring and training local staff to ensure the future continuity of the work to promote gender equality. The recent establishment of UN Women provides an opportunity to enhance co-ordination and improve UN delivery as One, and will also complement the role of gender advisers in peacekeeping missions, who provide technical expertise to facilitate the integration of a gender perspective in the implementation of mission mandates.
- **Specific modules of gender training should be developed for peacekeeping personnel operating at different levels.** Staff working on gender affairs should receive intensive training of at least one week covering all gender aspects of the multidimensional peacekeeping mandate. Programme/technical staff in other substantive
- areas should be trained on how to integrate gender perspectives into their work. In-mission gender induction training should include some national gender officers who will ensure the continuity of the missions' gender work (particularly during transitioning from peacekeeping to peace-building missions) and all training should draw on practical examples from the field. A carefully tailored course on gender and peacekeeping should also be designed for senior managers.
- **Senior management of peacekeeping missions (SRSG, DSRSG, Force Commanders and Police Commissioners, and Heads of Sections) should be held to a higher level of accountability for compliance with SCR 1325 OP 4 and DPKO/DFS Gender Policy,** with benchmarks set and monitoring mechanisms put in place to ensure implementation.
- **Proactive measures on the recruitment of female staff in peacekeeping missions should be prioritised by mission leadership,** along with efforts to create working environments that attract and retain women, whilst also facilitating their career advancement.
- **All missions must rigorously apply the UN Zero Tolerance policy on sexual exploitation and abuse as allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse of women by peacekeepers continue to occur. Senior mission management must emphatically support the policy and set an unequivocal example.** Further support from the UN System (HR and Legal) to speed up the processing of cases under investigation would be proof of genuine commitment and help to dissuade those who might breach the norms of conduct and discipline. ■

Endnotes

- 1 Report of the Secretary-General on Women, Peace and Security 2008, paragraphs 4 and 5.
- 2 Report of the Secretary-General on Women Peace and Security 2009, paragraph 21.
- 3 UNAMA (Afghanistan), BINUB/ONUB (Burundi), MINURCAT (Chad), ONUCI (Cote d'Ivoire), UNAMID (Darfur- Sudan), MONUSCO/MONUC (DRC), MINUSTAH (Haiti), UNIFIL (Lebanon), UNMIL (Liberia), UNIPSIL/UNIOSIL/UNAMSIL (Sierra Leone) UNMIS (Sudan), and UNMIT/UNOTIL/UNMISET/UNTAET (Timor-Leste). Please note where two peacekeeping mission names are mentioned for a country the first mentioned is the latest mission, the others are preceding missions. Note that in Sudan there are two separate missions (UNMIS and UNAMID) currently operating simultaneously. UNMIK in Kosovo was not included in this study but is mentioned in several places in this report.
- 4 In DRC all seven areas were selected by MONUSCO leadership. This was accepted given that the tool was in the process of being tested in that mission.
- 5 One or two missions did not strictly adhere to the methodology proposed due to lack of resources to conduct the study.
- 6 The author wishes to express special thanks to Ms Elsie Effange-Mbella, MONUSCO Gender Adviser and her team for their support during the fieldwork in DRC, and to Angela Rossini, Stella Makanya and Ghizal Adalat of UNAMA's Gender Unit in Kabul for facilitating the fieldwork in Afghanistan.
- 7 Irene Esambo Diata, 2008, *Participation des femmes congolaises au processus de paix et sécurité: la résolution 1325 et la résolution 1820 dans le contexte de la RD Congo*, pp. 13–17, Centre d'études sur la justice et la résolution 1325 (CJR 1325).
- 8 UNIFEM, 2005, Securing the Peace, p. 16.
- 9 Of the 8 parties signing the agreement in Pretoria only the political opposition and the civil society had official female representation (1 woman out of 27; and 8 women out of 19, respectively). Source as for endnote 7.
- 10 Women were included as observers in acknowledgement of their efforts in advocating for the end of the war in Congo, including with the President of Rwanda and international community in Kigali. Source: Group discussion with women's groups in Goma, 24 July 2010.
- 11 Programme de Pacification, Stabilisation et de Reconstruction du Nord et Sud Kivu.
- 12 Agreement on Provisional Arrangements in Afghanistan pending the Re-establishment of Permanent Government Institutions known as Bonn Agreement. Accessed through www.afghan-web.com
- 13 The Emergency Loya Jirga was to decide on the composition of a Transitional Authority to lead Afghanistan until Afghan people through free and fair elections were able to elect a representative government. Communiqué on "Afghanistan: The London Conference".
- 14 DPKO, 2005, Gender Mainstreaming in Peace Keeping Operations, Progress Report, p. 23.
- 15 De Mello (killed in the attack to the UN HQ in Bagdad in 2003) became one of the first peacekeepers gender champions as result of his work supporting the UNTAET Gender Unit, the first to be established in a peacekeeping mission.
- 16 Sofi Ospina, 2006, A Review and Evaluation of Gender-Related Activities of UN Peacekeeping Operations and their Impact on Gender Relations in Timor-Leste.
- 17 The National Election Commission (CNE) currently is composed of 27% female commissioners and 45% of its staff during the 2009 community elections were women. The government Technical Secretariat for Electoral Administration responsible for administering the 2009 local elections had a 26% female staff.
- 18 Group discussion with government representatives, 2 August 2010.
- 19 Bureau Genre MONUC-CAPCO, (2008), *La problématique de la participation des femmes congolaises au processus électoral*, p. 13.
- 20 Inter-parliamentary Union, "Women in Parliament 2005: the year in perspective"
- 21 Source: www.nec.org.sd.
- 22 Idem.
- 23 The electoral law was amended in 2010 to extend the 30% quota for women to the commune level; the lists of candidates proposed by political parties had to include at least a woman on four.
- 24 The Law on Election of the National Parliament (Law 6/2006) has two affirmative action clauses. Article 12 stipulates that in each group of four candidates in a political party list one has to be a woman with the list being rejected if there is non-compliance. Art. 13 states that the substitution of any elected woman after elections has to be with the next women in the party list. The 2005 electoral law for local authorities, and the 2009 electoral law for community leaders, both included three reserved seats for women in village councils.
- 25 In Afghanistan for example there are 124 seats reserved for women in the provincial council but in the 2004 elections there were not enough female candidates to fill the quota

- (women hold 121 out 420 seats), therefore the rest of the seats were given to men. Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, 2010, Country Report, on Implementation of Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995), p. 29.
- 26 Interview with Afhgan Independent Human Rights Commissioner, Herat, 1 August 2010.
- 27 In most countries, e.g. Liberia, WAAFG were called WAFF (Women Associated with Fighting Forces) prior to 2006.
- 28 When the disarmament demobilization process began in Liberia in 2003 there was a rule of 'no weapon, no entry' for the eligibility of combatants.
- 29 DPKO, 2006, Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping Operations: Progress Report, p. 28.
- 30 The development of Community Violence Reduction (CVR) programme made MINUSTAH a unique mission in the area of second generation DDR programmes as it addressed illegal gangs in a country without ongoing armed conflict in the usual sense.
- 31 DDR programme in North and South Sudan is supported by UNMIS (demobilization), UNDP (reintegration) and UNICEF (child DDR), as well as others such as WFP, UNFPA and WHO.
- 32 The male ex-combatants comprised 68,162 men and 8,523 boys.
- 33 UNDP, DDRR Report.
- 34 International Rescue Committee project report on the support to Women Associated with Fighting Forces during the demobilization, June 2004.
- 35 In DRC there are two DDR programmes referred to as DDR for Congolese combatants and DDRRR, for the disarmament, demobilization, repatriation, reintegration and resettlement of foreign combatants. In this report the term DDR is used for both.
- 36 Cathy Kabula, 2009, *Etude de Base sur la Resolution 1325 (200 du Conseil de Securite des Nations Unies*, p. 58.
- 37 Idem.
- 38 According to MONUSCO DDR staff many Congolese women married to Ugandan ex-combatants decided to stay in their communities in Kasai Oriental Province and did not follow their partners.
- 39 DIAG Fast Fact updated 7 September, www.anbp.af.undp.org
- 40 In the first semester of 2010 UNAMA Human Rights Unit documented 3,268 civilian casualties 76% of them committed by AGEs. During this period women casualties increased by 6% and child casualties by 55%; both women and children made a higher proportion of those killed and injured as compare to 2009 casualties. UNAMA, Afghanistan Mid-Year Report on the Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict, August 2010, p. i.
- 41 Intervention of Ms Kadi Fakondo, Assistant Inspector General of Sierra Leone Police, at the Police Dialogue to Review Strategies for Enhancing Gender Balance Among Uniformed Personnel in Peacekeeping Missions, New York, 28–29 March 2006.
- 42 Between July and August 2010 the gender unit trained more than 500 judiciary auxiliaries.
- 43 Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, 2010, Country Report, on Implementation of Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995), 2004–2009, p. 22
- 44 Gender and Justice Seminar 2005–2006 for Justice Actors, MONUC Gender Unit, 2006.
- 45 Sofi Ospina, 2009, Cultural Attitudes and Practices in Timor-Leste under the Lens of Selected CEDAW Articles, a report prepared for UNIFEM Regional Office Bangkok (unpublished).
- 46 Amnesty International reported 644 cases of girls and women self-immolation in Herat between 22 September 2003 and 22 December 2004 documented by AIHRC Herat. 80% of cases were the result of an episode of violence by a family member. Afghanistan: Women still under attack – A systematic failure to protect, AI-11/007/2005, pp. 23–25.
- 47 Data collected from the different actors working on sexual violence in the Province of Sud Kivu indicates a peak of sexual violence in 2004 with 40,513 episodes; the lowest annual figure was in 2009 at 15,617. Around seventy percent of sexual violence committed from early 2004 to 2006 was attributed to armed groups. Interview with MONUSCO Gender Officer, South Kivu, 25 July 2010.
- 48 Sexual violence is in general highly prevalent in eastern DRC. For example, UNFPA reports that 286 incidents of sexual violence were recorded in North Kivu and 360 in South Kivu in December 2009.
- 49 Population of Darfur: 7,477,583. Bureau of Statistics, Republic of Sudan, 2010.
- 50 UNHCR, Situation Humanitaire, Sud Kivu, Juillet 2010.
- 51 UNCHR Internal Displaced People Fact Sheet DR Congo, 13 May 2010.
- 52 In French: *Détachement Intégré de Sécurité*
- 53 JPTs' accompany uniformed peacekeepers and help them to better understand the situation in the field and to set up protection mechanisms in consultation with local communities.
- 54 In the 2004 report of the UN Secretary-General on Women, Peace and Security Member States were called on to develop National Action Plans for the implementation of SCR 1325.
- 55 So far, over USD 3 million have been pledged for implementation of the NAP, there are plans for a Trust Fund for crediting pledged funds and the establishment of a NAP Coordinating and Executing Committee is underway.
- 56 As an example MONUSCO Gender Unit has a total of 10 staff (four professionals, two UNVs, and four local staff) operating from three locations (Kinshasa, Goma and Bukavu) to cover a vast territory and a huge population.
- 57 DPKO Policy Directive, November 2006, Gender Equality in UN Peacekeeping Operations.
- 58 Review of Strategies for Enhancing Gender Balance Among Uniformed Personnel in Peacekeeping Missions, New York, 28–29 March 2006, Final Report.
- 59 Gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping activities, Report of the Secretary-General, A/57/731, 13 February 2003
- 60 Several missions reported that UN staff above D1 level do not often attend the pre-deployment training conducted at Brindisi and other gender sensitisation training, including on SCR 1325, organised for all peacekeeping personal (as required in DPKO Policy Directive, Point 14).
- 61 Secretary-General's Bulletin 2003/13 on sexual abuse and exploitation, and the Secretary-General Bulletin 2008/5 prohibiting discrimination, harassment, including sexual harassment, and abuse of authority.
- 62 United Nations Office of Internal Oversight Services accessed through <http://cdi.unlb.org>.

- 63 UN General Assembly. Special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. Report of the Secretary-General. February 2010.
- 64 Idem.
- 65 Gender Guidelines for Political Affairs Officers (2006); Guidelines on Enhancing the Role of Women in Post-Conflict Electoral Processes (2007); Guidelines for Integrating a Gender Perspective in the Work of United Nations Police in Peacekeeping Missions (2008); Guidelines for Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points in United Nations Peacekeeping Operations (2008); Gender Checklist for Senior Managers (2008) and Guidelines for Integrating a Gender Perspective in the Work of the United Nations Military in Peacekeeping Operations (2010).

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