



Women Count

Security Council Resolution 1325: Civil Society Monitoring Report



A Project of the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders

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Global Civil Society Monitoring Report

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Global Civil Society Monitoring Report

Acronyms

AIHRC	Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DDR	Demobilization, Disarmament and Reintegration
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DSWD	Department of Social Welfare and Development
Fokus	Forum for Women and Development
GAD	Gender and Development
GAPS	Gender Action for Peace and Security (UK)
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgeting
ICAN	International Civil society Action Network
ICC	International Criminal Court
IWDA	International Women's Development Agency
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
NAP	National Action Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OPAPP	Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process
OSAGI	Office of the Special Adviser to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women
PCW	Philippine Commission on Women
RCMP	Royal Canadian Mounted Police
SCR	Security Council Resolution
SGBV	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
TRC	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UN-INSTRAW	United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women
WISSL	Women in Security Sector in Sierra Leone
WPLA	Women Priority Legislative Agenda
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

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Foreword

When in March 2000, the Security Council expressed for the first time in its history the conceptual acceptance that peace is inextricably linked with equality between women and men and affirmed that the equal access and full participation of women in power structures and their full involvement in all efforts for peace and security, the international community was charged with expectation. It was welcomed by one and all with considerable enthusiasm hoping that there would be progress in paying attention and respect to the unrecognized, under-utilized and under-valued contribution by women to preventing war and to building peace.

During ten years since its adoption, we have seen a tremendous enthusiasm among civil society at all levels in raising awareness, engaging in advocacy and building capacity for the meaningful implementation of 1325.

The present Civil Society Monitoring Report by the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP) and its partners being launched on the occasion of the 1325 tenth anniversary is a remarkable example of such a civil society engagement.

The Report, presented in a unique civil society perspective, is based on a synthesis and analysis of the information gleaned from eleven GNWP 1325 in-country reports from Afghanistan to Nepal to Sierra Leone. The Report's identification of the 'accountability gap' as a key implementation challenge pointing out the absence of concrete and effective monitoring mechanisms to track progress is worthy of our immediate attention. The Report is not only a stock-taking exercise, but a move to stimulate concrete action towards the full and effective implementation of 1325.

I would commend this Report as a must-read for all 1325 activists and UN member-states, in particular for the Security Council members and the UN secretariat.

All of us need to remember that adoption of 1325 has opened a much-awaited door of opportunity for women. NGOs should continue persistently to pressure and demand that their governments develop national action plans for the implementation of 1325. As the governments are trying to get their acts together, civil society, on its part, should systematically monitor and evaluate its implementation to hold all sides accountable. The UN Secretary-General needs to take the lead in setting up six-monthly inclusive consultative process for 1325 implementation with the civil society organizations at all levels for all relevant UN entities.

Calling upon all parties to adopt "a gender perspective" and ensure "gender mainstreaming" would sound hollow and be meaningless unless we build women's capacity and provide real opportunity and support for women's equal representation at all levels of decision-making. The GNWP Report has the potential of advancing that objective in a substantive way.



Ambassador Anwarul K. Chowdhury
President of the Security Council (March 2000 & June 2001)
Under-Secretary-General and High Representative of the UN (2002-2007)

Foreword

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2010 is a momentous year as we mark the 10th anniversary of one of the most important measures adopted by the United Nations – UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. Resolution 1325 is groundbreaking because it recognises the differential impact of armed conflict on women and men; and demands the protection of women and girls' rights in conflict and post-conflict situations. But more importantly, it highlights women's role as peacebuilders and agents of change. It calls on the UN, Member States, civil society and the international community to ensure that women sit at the decision-making table and meaningfully participate in conflict prevention, peace negotiations and all peace processes.

Ten years on, our biggest challenge with 1325 continues to be the lack of political will to fully implement the resolution as well as the lack of mechanisms to hold different actors accountable. It is indeed discouraging to note that only 22 countries have adopted national action plans so far. Moreover, many of the existing national action plans do not have corresponding indicators and monitoring and evaluation schemes. Monitoring and evaluation is a critical component of policy implementation. Not only does it help us measure progress and achievements but more importantly, it promotes accountability of all stakeholders by assessing performance and identifying future actions.

The in-country monitoring of SCR 1325 initiated by the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP) is a timely project. The assessment of the progress, gaps and challenges in 1325 implementation in Afghanistan, Burundi, Canada, DRC, Fiji, Nepal, Netherlands, Philippines, Rwanda, Sierra Leone and Uganda from an independent civil society perspective brings to the forefront the broad range of initiatives that have worked to turn the rhetoric of 1325 into realistic actions. At the same time, the project draws attention to persistent challenges that need to be addressed to realise the promise of the resolution.

In addition to the findings and recommendations it presents, GNWP's civil society monitoring 1325 project is notable in its aim to build the capacity of women's organizations to monitor policy implementation. This contribution on how to conduct policy assessment that will inform decision-making and demonstrate accountability should be sustained. I am delighted to note that the project builds on rather than duplicates the work of the United Nations Technical Working Group on Indicators and other monitoring initiatives.

The outcomes of this monitoring project which are presented in this publication are invaluable for all advocates of Resolution 1325, and women, peace and security overall. The findings and recommendations are important contributions towards improving future implementation strategies.

I congratulate the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders for undertaking such a worthwhile project in monitoring 1325 implementation in a variety of countries around the world.



Mary Robinson

President, Realizing Rights: The Ethical Globalization Initiative
Co-Chair, Civil Society Advisory Group to the UN on Women, Peace and Security

Executive Summary

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1. Introduction

The groundbreaking United Nations Security Council Resolution (SCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security has delivered significant advances and achievements since its adoption in 2000, from the policy forums of the United Nations to the policy dialogues in the African Union and European Union to parliamentary caucuses at the national level. Unfortunately, these positive advances are outweighed on every front by shortcomings in the implementation of SCR 1325.

One key implementation challenge is the ‘accountability gap’, which includes the absence of concrete and effective monitoring mechanisms to measure progress. The SCR 1325 10th anniversary is an occasion to propose timely and relevant actions to redress this gap, including the adoption of monitoring mechanisms, indicators and benchmarks to track progress on implementation, as requested by the Security Council through SCR 1889.

This report is based on a project monitoring SCR 1325 at the country level undertaken by the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP). The project has aimed to build the capacity of women’s organizations in monitoring policy implementation, to conduct in-country 1325 monitoring from the perspectives of women’s groups and civil society, and to bring together the in-country monitoring efforts of GNWP members into a global snapshot of the progress and gaps in SCR 1325 implementation. Through a consultative process, a set of 15 indicators was identified, and GNWP members undertook a rapid in-country process of data collection and analysis from March to September 2010.

This global monitoring report comprises a synthesis and broad analysis of the data from eleven GNWP in-country reports, from: Afghanistan, Burundi, Canada, Democratic Republic of Congo, Fiji, Nepal, Netherlands, Philippines, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Uganda. The report addresses achievements and challenges in implementing SCR 1325. It focuses on analysis of issues and findings across the eleven countries, identifying trends and anomalies, and illustrated by cases from the various in-country reports. This report therefore provides a “global snapshot” and “shadow report” of SCR 1325 implementation, from a unique CSO perspective.

2. Implementation of SCR 1325: Achievements, Challenges and Recommendations

GNWP proposes the following set of recommendations, linked to each of the seven general findings from the in-country research:

General Finding 1. There is in general a limited understanding of the gender dimensions of conflict and of the need for a gender perspective in peace and security processes

- Member States should provide funding for gender training for key staff in government administration, to increase understanding of the importance of a gender perspective and to enhance technical capacities in gender analysis of peace and conflict; consider increasing the number of gender advisors in various government bodies for the same reason.
- The United Nations should include a gender component in peacekeeping operation mandates, both in peacekeeping and peacebuilding, and Member States should ensure pre-deployment training for UN peacekeeping troops as well as national security sector institutions is gender-sensitive and includes specific packages on SCR 1325 and 1820.
- Member States should integrate gender and peace modules into formal and informal education curricula, including issues of non-violence and human rights.

- Economic and relief packages provided by the UN, donors and Member States during conflict as well as compensation for survivors should not be solely based on roles during conflict (i.e. combatant, non-combatant) but on specific needs.

General Finding 2. Despite impressive progress in some cases, women are still struggling to participate in conflict prevention, peacebuilding and governance processes, particularly at formal and official levels

- The UN should ensure women’s participation in formal peace negotiations by: strongly urging conflicting parties to have gender balance in their negotiating panels; creating enabling conditions so that women can fully and meaningfully participate in such negotiations; and applying a “zero tolerance policy” to processes that do not consider women’s perspectives and do not involve women’s effective participation.
- Member States should support women’s participation in governance and the security and justice sectors as well as in peace negotiation teams at all levels and in peacekeeping and constitutional reviews, by addressing known barriers and considering implementing or increasing temporary special measures such as quotas.
- Where official peace negotiations are not possible to pursue, the UN and Member States should facilitate informal peace negotiations where women fully and equally participate; and push for the agreements, particularly those that promote and protect women’s rights to be institutionalized and/or officially adopted by parties to the conflict.

General Finding 3. While the development of gender-sensitive policies – especially NAPs on SCR 1325 – and legislation constitute a major achievement, their implementation remains a significant challenge

- The Security Council should make reporting on SCR 1325 a requirement for all Member States, and should put in place accountability provisions and enforcement mechanisms for compliance with SCR 1325 and 1820, including the recognition of high performers, and public scrutiny of underperformers.
- Member States should designate clear responsibility for WPS and SCR 1325 and 1820 at the highest levels of government; and establish an inter-ministerial implementation mechanism.
- Member States should also develop and approve a NAP on SCR 1325 and 1820 with civil society participation, and ensure that NAPs and all other policies on WPS have clear and realistic indicators and benchmarks.
- CSOs working on WPS should form partnerships with government, the UN and other stakeholders to jointly implement, monitor and evaluate NAPs and other WPS plans.
- Member States and CSOs should explore the use of other mechanisms such as NGO shadow reporting on CEDAW or government compliance reports on CEDAW to push for full and effective implementation of SCR 1325 and 1820.

General Finding 4. Rates of SGBV are often extremely high both during and after conflict, and impunity remains

- The UN should develop and implement criteria to determine when sexual violence should trigger action by the Security Council, in line with SCR 1820.
- Member States should fund and implement policies and programmes to prevent SGBV, including by reforming criminal and civil statutes inline with women’s rights, fully implementing SGBV legislation, and addressing harmful social and gender norms.
- In particular, Member States should provide training for the security and justice sectors

to enable them to investigate and prosecute SGBV cases. Judges should be trained on international legal norms and standards that create a legally binding obligation to protect the rights of women. Medical practitioners should also be given proper training and adequate resources and equipment to treat survivors of SGBV and collect forensic evidence.

General Finding 5. Major data gaps on WPS issues persist across all areas, especially with regards to SGBV

- Both Member States and CSOs should systematise and regularize the collection of sex-disaggregated data on WPS (including SGBV) as part of regular monitoring efforts, and make such data accessible for use by all stakeholders.
- Member States and UN entities should support the strengthening of data systems for WPS, including efforts by national statistics offices, gender-responsive budgeting processes, and SGBV data collection and management; this should include adequate financial support.
- Donors and Member States should support NGOs working to systematise and regularize the collection of sex-disaggregated data on WPS by providing funding and technical assistance.

General Finding 6. There is a lack of adequate funding for the implementation of SCR 1325 by governments and more especially by CSOs

- Member States should allocate adequate financial resources for NAPs and WPS programming, including by allocating specific funds to CSOs, and coordinating with statistics offices and ministries of finance to track budget allocations and spending on WPS.
- Member States, donors and multilateral organizations should make funding for SCR 1325 more transparent, to enable other stakeholders to access those funds and to be able to make sound recommendations on priorities for WPS spending.

General Finding 7. Women's civil society organizations play a key role in virtually every aspect of the implementation of SCR 1325, often through informal channels

- CSOs should hold governments to account on addressing women's particular needs and concerns in WPS processes, including the implementation of gender provisions in peace agreements. For example, collect and share data on WPS issues in the community, and conduct independent assessments on how SCR 1325 is implemented in each country.
- CSOs working on WPS should explore partnerships with non-traditional stakeholders such as the private sector to solicit their financial, expert services and in-kind support to promote a business environment that supports peacebuilding and reconstruction processes.
- Strategic partnerships between women's CSOs and women in political parties and government must be cultivated and sustained. Collaboration based on mutual respect and equality between women's CSOs and women politicians should be encouraged and supported to inform the work of women in decision-making positions, to keep the women's agenda on the table and to amplify women's voices in demanding equality and empowerment.
- Member States, multilateral institutions and bilateral donors should partner with women's organizations to provide them with financial and technical assistance on WPS programming.

1. Introduction

1.1 Snapshot of SCR 1325 +10

The groundbreaking United Nations Security Council Resolution (SCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security has delivered significant advances and achievements since its adoption in 2000, from the policy forums of the United Nations to the policy dialogues in the African Union and European Union, to parliamentary caucuses at the national level.

The public image of women in conflict is gradually shifting from that of victim to that of active peacebuilder – even though women have been engaged in peacebuilding and conflict prevention at various levels all along. There has been an ongoing conceptual shift from a state-centered defense policy approach to security, to a human security approach in which factors such as gender and ethnicity, and principles such as equality and empowerment matter.¹ There have been rapid developments in further resolutions from the Security Council, such as SCR 1889 (2009) which further supports women’s active involvement in peace negotiations, post-conflict peacebuilding and reconstruction. Security Council Resolutions 1820 (2008) and 1888 (2009) have focused attention on sexual violence as a peace and security issue with critical implications for conflict prevention and peacebuilding, and many post-conflict countries have passed legislation criminalizing sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV). Many also have passed quotas for women’s political participation.

Throughout the decade, women’s groups and other civil society organizations (CSOs) have worked tirelessly in every country to implement SCR 1325. The range of programs and projects that women’s organizations and CSOs have initiated to advocate for the implementation and “localization” of the resolution is broad, including lobbying governments, running awareness raising projects and capacity building activities, and working actively to protect women from violence and to build peace in communities at the grassroots.

Unfortunately, these positive advances are outweighed on every front by shortcomings in the implementation of SCR 1325. Ten years after its adoption, only 21 countries have National Action Plans (NAPs) on SCR 1325. SCR 1820 and the ensuing resolutions 1888 and 1889 are scarcely known outside of the UN and international development circle. In 2009, women made up 30 percent of civilian mission staff, but represented only 8 percent of police officers and 2 percent of military personnel in United Nations (UN) peacekeeping operations.² Women’s participation in formal peace negotiations remains minimal and *ad hoc*, averaging less than 8 percent of the 11 peace processes for which such information is available.³ Women’s specific needs in refugee camps and in efforts around demobilization, disarmament and reintegration (DDR) are still largely unmet. And the pandemic of sexual and gender-based violence in conflict continues unabated.

1.2 Closing the accountability gap

The 10th anniversary of SCR 1325 presents a critical opportunity to review and reflect on achievements to date as well as the persistent gaps in implementation. One key implementation challenge is the “accountability gap” manifested in a lack of leadership, a lack of systematic approaches to implementation and the absence of concrete and effective monitoring mechanisms to measure progress.⁴ The SCR 1325 10th anniversary is an occasion to propose timely and relevant actions to redress this gap, including the adoption of monitoring mechanisms, indicators and benchmarks to track progress on implementation.

As a consequence, efforts to develop monitoring mechanisms and indicators have risen high

on the agenda. These are also in response to the request by the Security Council through SCR 1889⁵ for “a set of indicators for use at the global level to track implementation of its resolution 1325”. Some of the current initiatives working to monitor SCR 1325 are outlined in Box 1.

This report is based on a project monitoring SCR 1325 undertaken by the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP). The GNWP project is complementary to the monitoring initiatives in Box 1, in that where possible it builds on the existing work, as well as bringing in a unique approach driven by civil society engagement, as discussed below.

Box 1. Recent initiatives in monitoring the implementation of SCR 1325

- The Secretary General’s Report on Women and Peace and Security⁶ contains a set of indicators developed by the Technical Working Group on Global Indicators for SCR 1325, coordinated by the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI) and with the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) as technical lead. The 26 indicators are grouped under four thematic areas: prevention, participation, protection, and relief and recovery.
- Global Monitoring Checklist on Women, Peace and Security by the Gender Action for Peace and Security UK (GAPS), which monitors implementation in Afghanistan, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Northern Ireland, Nepal and Sri Lanka and how this relates to the United Kingdom’s national action plan.⁷
- The MIT Center for International Studies and the International Civil society Action Network (ICAN) study that examines whether and how efforts have been made to include women and ensure gender sensitivity in peace accords, and the outcomes of such efforts.⁸
- Fokus (Forum for Women and Development) and UN-INSTRAW (United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women) conference in November 2009 that aimed to discuss the development of indicators, data collection processes and effective collaboration and coordination as well as other monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for NAPs.
- Ambassador Anwarul K. Chowdhury’s *Doable Fast-Track Indicators For Turning the 1325 Promise into Reality*, a set of indicators and proposals that are oriented towards engineering global and national policy changes, and that aim to be user-friendly and easily understandable by all concerned. GNWP hopes to integrate these in the next phase of its study (*see below*).⁹

1.3 GNWP 1325 monitoring project

GNWP, a program partner of ICAN, is currently composed of 46 women’s groups and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Europe, Latin America and West Asia. The members of the network are peace activists who believe in the importance of global policies and the need to influence policy discussions and decision-making to ensure women’s meaningful participation and representation in peacekeeping, peacemaking and peacebuilding. They are active in lobbying and advocacy work at the UN and other policy-making bodies at the regional and national levels and use SCR 1325, 1820 and 1888 as policy frameworks in advocating for women’s representation and participation in all levels of decision-making on peace and security; protection of women and girls’ rights; prevention of conflict; prevention of sexual violence; and in seeking justice and adequate services for

survivors of sexual violence. Most GNWP members are in themselves networks, which makes for a significantly broader outreach than the actual number of members.

Because of its strong presence in global policy spaces, particularly the UN, as well as its active engagement in communities affected by conflicts, GNWP brings an added value to the various efforts around effectively assessing progress on SCR 1325 implementation. Moreover, GNWP is well-networked with the different groups conducting SCR 1325 monitoring projects mentioned above. This allows for linkages and cooperation that can lead to a common civil society advocacy position and a stronger call for accountability.

GNWP is thus well placed to lead an in-country and global monitoring project on SCR 1325. This project has aimed to build the capacity of women's organizations in monitoring policy implementation, to conduct in-country 1325 monitoring from the perspectives of women's groups and civil society, and to bring together the in-country monitoring efforts of GNWP members into a global snapshot of the progress and gaps in SCR 1325 implementation.

To this end, a workshop in February 2010 brought together 16 GNWP members to build capacity in indicator development on SCR 1325 with indicators broad enough to be relevant across diverse countries, and simple enough to allow data gathering and analysis in a relatively short period of time¹⁰ (see Table 1). GNWP members undertook a rapid in-country process of data collection and analysis from March to August 2010.

Table 1. GNWP global monitoring indicators for SCR 1325

Participation	
1	Index of women's participation in governance (% women in senior positions in parliament, cabinet, local governance)
2	Percentage of women in peace negotiating teams
3	Index of women's participation in the justice and security sectors (% women in military, police, judiciary, at all levels)
4	Percentage of women in peacekeeping missions, disaggregated at all levels
5	Number and percentage of women participating in each type of constitutional or legislative review
6	Percentage of civil society organizations in Task Forces on SCR 1325 and 1820
Prevention and protection	
7	Number of sexual and gender-based violence cases reported, and percentage of cases investigated, referred, prosecuted, and penalized (out of total reported)
8	Number and quality of gender-responsive laws and policies
9	Number and nature of provisions/recommendations in the Truth and Reconciliation Commission and other transitional justice reports on women's rights
10	Extent to which gender and peace education are integrated in the curriculum of formal and informal education
11	Percentage of women (versus men) who receive economic packages in conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

Promotion of a gender perspective	
12	Detailed breakdown of gender issues addressed in peace agreements
13	Number and percentage of pre-deployment and post-deployment programmes for military and police incorporating SCR 1325, SCR 1820, international human rights instruments and international humanitarian law
14	Allocated and disbursed funding to civil society organizations (including women's groups) marked for women, peace and security projects and programs
15	Allocated and disbursed funding to governments marked for women, peace and security projects and programs

This global monitoring report comprises a synthesis and broad analysis of the data from eleven GNWP in-country reports, from: Afghanistan, Burundi, Canada, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Fiji, Nepal, Netherlands, Philippines, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Uganda. These countries are clearly extremely diverse on many fronts, including, political and socio-economic context, geographic region, and nature of the conflict – including two non-conflict-affected countries, Canada and the Netherlands, for whom not all of the indicators are applicable. The partnerships and methodologies for data collection and analysis varied from country to country, driven by the differing country contexts, levels of insecurity, and funding opportunities, among other factors. Nearly all of them were severely limited by time and resources. Some of these challenges will be addressed and mitigated in 2011, when there are plans to repeat the GNWP monitoring of SCR 1325 as part of a longer-term monitoring process.

As a result of these issues, the data in this report cannot be compared directly, due to the lack of uniformity across countries. Consequently, the following section on the achievements and challenges in implementing SCR 1325 focuses on analysis of issues and findings across the eleven countries, identifying trends and anomalies, and illustrated by cases from the various in-country reports. This report therefore provides a “global snapshot” and “shadow report” of SCR 1325 implementation, from a unique CSO perspective.

2. Implementation of SCR 1325: Achievements and Challenges

This section examines the data from all 15 GNWP indicators across the categories of participation, prevention and protection, and promotion of a gender perspective. As mentioned above, the analysis of achievements and challenges in the implementation of SCR 1325 draws out the commonalities, differences and key messages from the country data. A brief orientation to the nature of each country's experience with conflict, and issues relating to women in conflict, can be found in Annex 1, with further detail in each of the in-country reports.

All data and analysis concerning specific countries is drawn from the relevant in-country monitoring reports, unless detailed with a specific reference.

2.1 Participation

The participation of women is one of the cornerstones of gender-sensitive and sustainable peacebuilding. The six indicators in this section seek to compile a picture of women's representation in decision-making positions across a range of processes and structures, from governance, to UN and national security sectors, from peace talks and legislative reviews, to Task Forces on SCR 1325.

Indicator 1: Index of women's participation in governance (percentage of women in senior positions in cabinet/council of ministers, parliament, local governance)

Table 2. Summary of women's participation in governance¹¹

Country	Parliament (% of women)	Cabinet (% of women)	Local governance (% of women)
Afghanistan	27.3% Wolesi Jirga (Lower House) 22.5% Meshrano Jirga (Upper House)	5.8% (1 woman)	No data
Burundi	32% National Assembly 46.3% Senate	42.8% Ministers	1.7% Provincial Governors
Canada	22.1%	27%	8% Heads of Provinces 24% Municipal Councillors
DRC	10.4% National Assembly 5.8% Senate	9% Ministers	7.3% Provincial Assemblies 0% Governors 5.4% Provincial Administration
Fiji	5.2% (unelected)	5.26% (unelected)	14% Local Councils (before they were dissolved in 2009)
Nepal	33%	11.6%	0% Chief District Officers 1.3% Local Development Officers
Netherlands	42% Lower House 34.7% Senate	35.7%	38% Province level 45.9% Municipality level
Philippines	20.9%	29.2%	16%
Rwanda	56% Lower House 35% Senate	40% Ministers of State	7% District Mayors
Sierra Leone	14.3% (elected) (13.7% with paramount chiefs)	4.76%	18.8% local councilors 0% mayors
Uganda	31%	32%	1.25% Chairpersons of Districts 11% District Speakers

In response to paragraph 1 of SCR 1325, this composite indicator assesses the representation of women in governance structures. It tracks women's participation at three levels: in parliament, in cabinet, and in decision-making positions in local governance.

Women’s participation in parliament is in many cases relatively high – in five out of the eleven countries monitored, women constitute over 30% of parliamentarians. The rates for cabinet members are generally slightly lower. However, in many cases (the Netherlands being a notable exception) **women’s participation in local governance structures of varying types is very low** – this is especially the case in the DRC, Nepal, Rwanda and Uganda.

Many factors inhibit women’s participation in governance, as identified in the in-country reports. In Afghanistan, women in politics face extreme levels of **insecurity and threats** to their safety, as well as a **lack of support** within parliament. Moral and ethical factors influence women’s decision to participate in Fiji, where women’s participation must be balanced with **compliance with core human rights values** in the aftermath of the 2006 coup. **Cultural law** in Sierra Leone and the **electoral system** in the DRC were also cited as factors, as well as the sense that women **must work “twice as hard”** to reach senior positions in Uganda. In Nepal, the poor levels of women’s representation at lower levels of governance were attributed to the **limited gender mainstreaming** efforts within government.

An additional challenge for women is the tendency to be assigned **gender-stereotyped portfolios**. In the Philippines’ cabinet, education, social work and health are typically associated with women, and in Afghanistan the single female cabinet member heads the Ministry of Women. This is also evident at the District level in Rwanda, where women comprise 90% of Deputy Mayors for Social Affairs, and only 13% of Deputy Mayors for Economic Affairs.¹² This was less the case in Nepal, however, where at the cabinet level the “traditionally male” positions of Defense Minister and Deputy Prime Minister have been assigned to women.

Box 2. The Women’s Caucus in Nepal¹³

In January 2009 the Women’s Caucus was established within Parliament. This is an informal mechanism established to promote gender sensitive policies and legislation, with sub-committees addressing Violence Against Women, a Constitutional Committee, and Legislative Parliament. However, the Women’s Caucus faces various institutional and political challenges. While office space is provided within the legislative parliament, the office is yet to be equipped with necessary equipment such as computers or internet access. Furthermore, the political will to guarantee women’s rights remains dubious.

It is also critical to go beyond numbers to examine what **women can actually achieve** once they reach decision-making positions in governance. In the face of death threats and extreme insecurity, women in parliament in Afghanistan are **constrained in terms of which ideas they can support**, and they may retreat from controversial gender issues in order to protect themselves from being labeled culturally or religiously subversive. In Uganda, women’s participation in leadership and politics has not necessarily lead to broader social transformation, where most women in parliament are **removed from their constituents** of women in civil society and in communities; as the in-country report notes, women in parliament need to work more with women in civil society to keep the women’s agenda on the table and to increase women’s voice in demanding equality and empowerment. In Nepal, the ability of women in government to actually voice women’s concerns also remains to

be seen. In the Nepali context, the barriers include the fact that **women’s representation is politically correct**, rather than reflecting a deep-rooted will to realize change, combined with the fact that women’s decision-making power is ambiguous due to stringent party decision-making powers. Nonetheless, women in parliament in Nepal are using various strategies to realize change, including through a Women’s Caucus (see Box 2).

A final key issue concerns **quotas and other affirmative action policies**; do they work for women? The data in this study is too limited to answer this question, however the in-country reports do provide some insights. In Rwanda, for example, it is clear that quotas are working in a

spectacular fashion in parliament, but this has yet to reach lower, local governance structures. In other cases the reverse is true: in Uganda, a 33% quota for women's representation in local councils has seen women occupy one third of all council member positions, however there are very few women in the senior leadership positions of local councils. In Burundi, the minimum quota of 30% is observed when clearly stipulated, but when the Constitution is vague about the quota women remain poorly represented.¹⁴

Indicator 2: Percentage of women in peace negotiating teams

Table 3. Women in peace negotiating teams (since 2000)¹⁵

Country	Peace negotiation teams	% of women
Afghanistan	Bonn Agreement (2001)	9%
	National Consultative Peace Jirga (2010)	20%
Burundi	Arusha Peace & Reconciliation Agreement for Burundi (2000)	2%
Canada	N/A	N/A
DRC	Sun City Agreement (2003)	12%
Fiji	No peace negotiations	
	Political dialogue process	12%
Nepal	Ceasefire between government & Maoists (2003)	11% (1 woman)
	All other peace negotiations	0%
Netherlands	N/A	N/A
Philippines	Government & Moro Islamic Liberation Front Panels (1996-2008)	17.4%
	Government & National Democratic Front Panels (2001-2010)	46.7%
Rwanda	Rome negotiations (2005)	"Little to none"
Sierra Leone	No peace negotiations since 2000	N/A
Uganda	Negotiations with Uganda National Rescue Front II (2002)	3%
	Juba Peace Agreement (2008)	9%

Women's participation in peace negotiations is of critical concern, not only to ensure women's access to decision-making processes but also to help ensure a gender perspective is reflected in the outcome documents (see Indicator 12). This indicator, responsive to paragraph 2 of SCR 1325, focuses on women's representation in formal negotiation processes through their participation in official peace negotiating teams.

The sensitivities around peace processes mean that data is often inconsistent or difficult to access. Nonetheless, the data presented here indicates an **extremely low level of women's official participation** as members of peace negotiating teams. However, in two cases (Afghanistan and the Philippines), women's participation would appear to have increased over time; in the Philippines, this was attributed to the government's awareness of the provisions of SCR 1325, and the appointment of a female Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process who is known for consistently advocating for women's equal representation and participation in peace processes.

One key reason cited for the low numbers of women involved in peace negotiation teams is the corresponding **lack of women in senior positions** in the political parties, armies and rebel groups, at least at the time of the negotiations (Rwanda, Burundi). As the participation of women is increasing in senior government positions in many cases (as discussed in Indicator 1), if not in the security sector (see Indicator 3), this factor can only be part of the explanation. Canada, as a non-conflict-affected country, addresses this issue by attempting to increase the participation of women in negotiating processes in which Canada is involved, for example in the Sudan, calling on Member States to nominate qualified women candidates for senior mediation posts.¹⁶ In the case of Fiji, women's absence from related peacebuilding processes

was a deliberate political action; women’s human rights-based organisations chose not to serve as members of the National Council for Building a Better Fiji, despite the invitation from the state, as many felt that such a process should not be organised through an undemocratic process.¹⁷

What has been the **impact of women’s participation** in peace negotiations? In selected cases, women’s presence at the table enabled them to **raise a specific set of demands**, as in Afghanistan. This is supported by broader research which suggests that “where women have been involved, even as non-speaking observers, in peace processes, they have been able to ensure that matters of importance to them are included in peace accords”.¹⁸ However, this is not always the case. In the Philippines, the in-country report noted that women tended to raise the same kinds of issues as men, and did not address women’s rights or gender issues. In Burundi, women’s role was “largely symbolic and limited to private meetings with delegation heads”.¹⁹

Women’s participation may also alter the **character of the negotiations**. In the Philippines in-country report it was noted that “women’s participation in the peace talks created a more personal and livelier environment despite the formality of issues being tackled. The women introduced a lighter way of engaging, that gradually reduced the machoism (intimidation) and girian (rivalry) between the groups”.

However, women’s contribution to peace negotiations is not limited to participation in official delegations, but can also be seen in informal processes. Research has suggested that women’s engagement as **informal observers** has resulted in peace accords that address issues of significance to women.²⁰ An example of the impact of women from civil society on negotiations in Uganda is described in Box 3.

Indicator 3: Index of Women’s Participation in the Justice and Security Sector (% women in military, police, judiciary, at all levels)

Women’s representation in the security and justice sectors is tracked in Indicator 3, a composite indicator that addresses the percentage of women’s participation in the police, military and judiciary – disaggregated wherever possible. Indicator 3 addresses paragraph 1 of SCR 1325.

Women’s **participation in the military is very low** across all countries. In eight of the nine countries for which data was provided, the rates of women’s participation were less than 9%. There were even fewer women in senior decision-making levels within the military, with no women in decision-making positions in Burundi, and women accounting for 2% of those with a rank of colonel or higher in the Netherlands. In Canada, disaggregated data revealed that women continue to be **concentrated in “traditional” support areas**, such as administration, logistics and intelligence.²²

Box 3. The impact of women’s ‘unofficial’ contributions to negotiations in Uganda²¹

Although there were limited numbers of women in the official delegations of the Juba peace talks in 2006-2007, the Ugandan women’s peace coalition worked behind the scenes to provide information and data to the negotiating team. They provided evidence of the sexual violence perpetrated against women by both the rebels and government soldiers. They brought to the attention of the government delegation the need for medical interventions for women who had suffered multiple gang rapes and had fistula and other medical conditions. They ensured that the agreement was cognizant of women’s need to ensure that issues relating to SCRs 1325 and 1820 were integrated into the peace protocol.

Table 4. Summary of women's participation in the justice and security sectors²³

Country	Military (% of women)	Police (% of women)	Judiciary (% of women)
Afghanistan	No data	0.53% (2007)	1.38% (2009)
Burundi	0.46% (no date)	2.4% (2010)	14.3% (2010)
Canada	15.1% (2009)	19.1% (2009)	25.6% federal court 32.5% prov. court (2010)
DRC	2.7% (no date)	5.3% (no date)	11% (no date)
Fiji	<2% (no date)	17% (graduates, in 2008)	23% (2006)
Nepal	6.34% officers (no date)	5.74% (no date)	2.4% (2010)
Netherlands	9% (2007)	<40% (lower levels, 2009)	47% (2004)
Philippines	8.7% (2010)	9.6% (2010)	35.5% (2004)
Rwanda	0.8% (estimate) (no date)	10% (estimate) (no date)	42% supreme court 70% high court (no date)
Sierra Leone	3.7% (2010)	16.5% (2010)	47% high, appeal & supreme courts (2010)
Uganda	Data withheld. 1%-11% at selected levels (no date)	14% (no date)	33% supreme court 33% court of appeal 24% high court (no date)

One key explanation for this low level of representation is that in many cases women only began entering military institutions relatively recently – in 1994, in the case of Rwanda – and **as promotions follow the chain of command**, women are still working their way up the ranks. Another issue concerns the perception that women are “weak” (Philippines) as well as **family commitments**, where women cannot be deployed when pregnant or when they have no access to childcare (Uganda). Data from the Uganda in-country report also revealed that women in the military are forced to cohabit to protect themselves from **sexual harassment**, and experience **unplanned pregnancies** with male soldiers. A final disturbing story from Uganda notes that when troops are deployed in combat operations, male combatants **use their female colleagues for sex**, referring to them as *dry rations*, “like beans and soap”.²⁴

There is, however, cause for hope. **Gender policies**, including gender training and the establishment of “gender desks”, within the military in Rwanda are helping to raise awareness about gender issues. In the Philippines, efforts are underway to increase the number of female personnel in the military, inline with the government’s Gender and Development model, and women are being promoted as platoon leaders to enhance their leadership skills. In Sierra Leone, too, the implementation of a gender policy has contributed to a significant increase in the percentage of females in senior ranks in the military, and Sierra Leone also boasts the first female brigadier in West Africa.

A very similar picture emerges with regards to the police. While women’s participation is generally slightly higher in the police than in the military, rates are still very low, and again there are few women in senior decision-making positions (for example in Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Philippines, Nepal). Interestingly, in Uganda women comprise 16% of Assistant Inspectors, the highest rank in the Uganda police, a rate higher than women’s overall participation of 14%.

The reasons given for the low levels of women’s representation in the police reflect those for the military, including **low levels of education** among women, as well as **stereotypes in career and training choices**. In Sierra Leone, for example, women are concentrated in support staff roles with little decision-making power, such as in nursing, administrative and clerical roles. In Fiji, it was noted that with the increasing militarization of the police force, the ensuing values of entrenched masculine philosophies have seen the police force become unrepresentative and less accountable to the community.

Box 4. Association of Women in Security Sector in Sierra Leone²⁵

In Sierra Leone, an association of Women in Security Sector in Sierra Leone (WISSL) has been established, with membership from women in Security Sector Institutions including the Military, Police, Prisons, Immigration, Customs and Private Security Agencies. WISSL's aim is to create a platform for women in security sector institutions to collaborate and mutually support each other in ensuring that women's issues, concerns, aspirations and priorities are effectively mainstreamed into the security sector agenda. The current president of WISSL is a Lieutenant in the military.

Again, **gender policies within the police force** are having a positive impact on the recruitment and promotion of women, as for example in the case of Rwanda. Another key positive development is seen in Sierra Leone, where women have formed an association for colleagues across all security sector institutions to support each other (see Box 4).

In all ten countries with relevant data, **women's participation in the judiciary was significantly higher** than in the military and police institutions. In the Netherlands, Rwanda and Sierra Leone, women's representation is approaching 50%. These higher levels are attributed to the increasing numbers of women in the legal profession in the Philippines, and in both the Philippines and Sierra Leone they are attributed to the preference of most senior male lawyers to go into the more lucrative private practice, in contrast to women who remain in government employment.

Indicator 4: Percentage of women in peacekeeping missions, disaggregated at all levels

Table 5. Percentage of women in peacekeeping missions, June 2010²⁶

Country	Individual police (% of women)	Experts on mission (% of women)	Contingent troops (% of women)
Afghanistan	No personnel	No personnel	No personnel
Burundi	5.8%	25% (1 woman)	50% (1 woman)
Canada	11.18%	10.81%	23.07%
DRC	12.5% (1 woman)	No personnel	No personnel
Fiji	0%	0%	0%
Nepal	4.78%	0%	1.3%
Netherlands	25%	8.69%	33.3%
Philippines	10.65%	4.35%	4.5%
Rwanda	7.8%	4.35%	1.49%
Sierra Leone	19%	0%	5%
Uganda	20.1%	28.57%	0%

This indicator tracks another element of women's contribution to peacebuilding and conflict prevention and their role in the security sector, through assessing the participation of women in United Nations peacekeeping operations, including as individual police, experts on mission and contingent troops. It responds to paragraph 4 of SCR 1325.

The data shows generally **very low levels of female representation in UN peacekeeping operations**. In Fiji, a major troop-contributing country, there are no women in the contingents. As with the national security forces discussed in Indicator 3, most women who do participate in peacekeeping missions do so in **non-leadership roles** (for example Philippines, Rwanda, Nepal).

There are multiple reasons for these low levels of female participation. Firstly, women's low representation in UN peacekeeping forces **reflects their low levels in national military and police forces**, as pointed out by the Canada in-country report: "While it is generally recognized

that more women in peace operations would be both useful for relating to women in conflict zones and in keeping with international commitments, the pool of candidates for such missions has been limited by the low proportion of women in the [Canadian Forces] and police".²⁷ Other barriers include **family obligations** preventing deployment (Canada and Uganda), women's **lower educational attainment** and **stereotyped** attitudes framing women as not strong enough for combat (Uganda), as well as **domestic career interests** (Canada). Interviews with female police officers in Uganda revealed the view that international deployment was more financially lucrative, and therefore very **competitive**.

A number of actions to redress the low levels of female participation in peacekeeping forces and **recruit more women** were presented in the in-country reports, particularly in those countries not experiencing conflict. Such actions include adjusting application procedures (Netherlands), and having an intake comprising an all-female application process (Canada).

Despite these constraints, there are **positive expectations** for increased participation in the future. Even the low numbers of women serving in UN peacekeeping missions are encouraging, given the almost total absence of women in the national security sectors in many countries until relatively recent times. The inclusion of women in peace support operations from Sierra Leone is attributed in part to the existence and implementation of **gender policies** within the national police and military institutions. In Rwanda, it is hoped that the **raised gender awareness due to gender training** and the establishment of gender desks in the armed forces will open the way to greater representation of women in peacekeeping missions. Canada's police contributions also seek to act as **role models for women** in unstable countries (see Box 5).

Box 5. Canada's contribution to gender-sensitizing UN police operations²⁸

For the police contributions to peace operations, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) is making an active effort to recruit professional women police officers from the different police services across Canada for deployment. The RCMP tries to promote the benefits of integrating women into the fledgling police organizations in conflict and post-conflict countries through their executive, coaching, mentoring, training, and advisory civilian police roles. They use their own national police model, where women have equal status to their male counterparts, as a showcase of modern democratic policing. As such, the RCMP claims that "virtually every mission we undertake has as a primary objective the promotion of gender equality and balance within the context of security sector reform. Female officers provide a positive role model for women living in unstable countries. They also help international police organizations such as the UN Police to reflect the mixed composition of the communities they serve."

Indicator 5: Number and percentage of women participating in each type of constitutional or legislative review

Indicator 5 responds to paragraph 1 of SCR 1325, by tracking the extent of women's participation at decision-making levels in constitutional and legislative review processes. This is a particularly critical issue in a post-conflict scenario, when there is often an opportunity to shape the legislative landscape and advocate for a gender-sensitive constitution and legislation.

This indicator was not applicable to many of the countries included in this report, as four countries had no relevant review processes, and data was not available in three other cases. Of the countries with relevant processes, women participated in reviews at rates higher than 33% in Uganda, Sierra Leone and Afghanistan – with the Chairperson of the Sierra Leone Law Reform Commission also a woman. In Afghanistan, women's participation was high, although

only in **reviews of legislation that relate to women**, namely the Elimination of Violence Against Women Law and the Shia Personal Status Law. This was not the case in Uganda, where women constituted a significant proportion of those in **legislative reviews of non-stereotypical sectors**, such as the Comprehensive Defense Review.

Table 6. Summary of women participating in constitutional and legislative reviews (since 2000)²⁹

Country	Official review type or body	% of women
Afghanistan	Reform of Shia Personal Status Law	61%
	Review of EAW Law	64%
Burundi	Reform of Penal Code (2009)	Women participated, but no specific data
	Reform of Electoral Code (2009)	
Canada	None	N/A
DRC	Senate	5.8%
	National Assembly	10.4%
Fiji	None	N/A
Nepal	Legislative Parliament Committees	29%
	Constituent Assembly Committees	28%
Netherlands	None	N/A
Philippines	None	N/A
Rwanda	All reviews	Women included as a matter of policy; % not specified
	Review of Constitution	25%
Sierra Leone	Constitutional Review Commission	35%
Uganda	Law Reform Commission	40%
	Constitutional Review Commission	25%
	Comprehensive Defense Review	38%
	Uganda Police Review	15%

While the **impact of women’s participation** in these reviews is not assessed in this indicator, the in-country report from Rwanda notes the important ramifications of the gender-sensitive Constitutional Review, as well as the importance of the **participation of civil society** (see Box 6). In Burundi, women’s advocacy in the review process resulted in criminalization of SGBV in the Penal Code, and a 30% quota for women in the Electoral Code. The in-country report from Nepal noted that while women are represented on review committees, “the voice of a large majority of these women is yet to be substantially heard, as many possess neither the experience nor the capacity to put forth their views and ideas, especially from the women’s perspectives”³⁰

There is also room for women to **influence legislation even in the absence of official review processes**. For example, the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW) has introduced the Women Priority Legislative Agenda (WPLA), a sustained legislative advocacy process that

Box 6. Impacts of women’s participation in Rwanda’s Constitutional Review³¹

Women have been involved in all legislative reviews in Rwanda as a matter of policy, including the 2003 Rwanda Constitution. The committee steering the constitutional process included 25% women, and the process was consultative nationwide, including input at every level from specific groups such as women, youth, and disabled people. Women’s civil society organizations were consulted under the umbrella organization Profemme the National Women’s Council. The outcome of women’s input into the review process was the current gender-responsive Constitution, which has laid the foundation for the government’s policy on women’s inclusion across all sectors, as illustrated in the governance and judicial sectors in Indicators 1 and 3.

seeks to “repeal the discriminatory provisions of existing laws and formulate and adopt new legislations that promote women’s empowerment and gender equality.” WPLA aims to pass pro-women bills in the congress such as the anti-prostitution bill, reproductive health bill, and the marital infidelity bill, among others. Currently, PCW is reviewing the Magna Carta for Women for any discriminatory provisions.

A final crucial point recalls the fact that women are not a homogenous group – and as such, it is important to consider not just numbers of women, but to ask **which women are participating, and whose interests do they support?** In Uganda’s Defense Review Commission, three women were included out of a team of eight - one was a senior officer in the Army, while the other two were civilian, making women in uniform feel that they were not adequately represented on the team. As a result, issues affecting women in the military were not specifically addressed in the resulting policy, pointing to a need for women’s increased collaboration and engagement across sectors.

Indicator 6: Percentage of CSOs in Task Forces on SCR 1325 and 1820 (out of total Task Force members)

Table 7. Summary of CSO representation in Task Forces on SCR 1325 and 1820³²

Country	Task Force or similar on 1325 and 1820	% of CSOs
Afghanistan	There is no 1325 Task Force in Afghanistan	N/A
Burundi	Steering Committee for the Implementation of 1325	30%
Canada	No current mechanism. Govt-civil society Canadian Committee on WPS, now discontinued for lack of funding	N/A
DRC	No data	No data
Fiji	None. Women’s organizations have stopped/limited engagement with the state due to their collective position on the political situation post-2006 coup	N/A
Nepal	High Level Steering Committee on 1325	33% CSOs 44% women
Netherlands	No current mechanism. Women, Security and Conflict Task Force 2003-2006	N/A
Philippines	Preparatory Committee to Formulate the NAP	85.7%
Rwanda	Task Force on 1325	74%
Sierra Leone	Government-Civil Society National Taskforce on 1325	40%
Uganda	SGBV Reference Group CSO Task Force on 1325	44% 100%

This indicator focuses on the critical role of civil society organizations in the implementation of SCRs 1325 and 1820. By tracking the proportion of CSO members in Task Forces (or other similar bodies) on 1325 and 1820, it values civil society’s participation at the highest decision-making levels in addition to the more widely-discussed role in building peace and preventing SGBV in communities.

The data from the in-country reports is mixed. In several cases, CSOs represented a majority of Task Force members, such as in the Philippines and in Rwanda. In Burundi, while CSOs comprised three out of the 10 of members of the Steering Committee for the Implementation of 1325, those three organizations represented 200 smaller associations. **CSOs have made valuable contributions** to 1325 Task Forces and related processes. For example, in Uganda, CSOs took an innovative step and formed their own Task Force with the explicit aim of **monitoring implementation of the NAP** on 1325 and 1820, as well as the regional Goma Declaration. In Rwanda, CSOs were instrumental in **identifying gaps and proposing solutions** during the development of the NAP.

CSOs have consistently played a key role alongside more formal processes in **raising awareness** about SCR 1325 and advocating for its implementation, as in the Philippines, Burundi and Canada. In Burundi, women’s organizations established a CSO coordinating body, which advocated and provided **technical advice for the inclusion of a gender perspective** in the Peacebuilding Fund’s work, developing gender-sensitive indicators for each project and setting up local women’s groups across the country to monitor implementation and impact.³³

In other cases, **there were no such taskforces and/or no participation of CSOs**. Both the Canadian Committee on Women, Peace and Security and the Netherlands’ Women, Security and Conflict Task Force have been discontinued – in Canada, this was due to lack of funding. The importance of civil society engagement in 1325 Task Forces is highlighted by this discontinuation; the Canada in-country report notes that now, “without an institutional mechanism linking CSOs and government counterparts, the participation of civil society in discussions on the implementation of the resolutions has been very limited in scope, frequency and impact.”³⁵ In Fiji, since the military coup in 2006, women’s human rights based organizations have been cautious about their engagement with the state, due to their collective position on the political situation. There are in any case no Task Forces on SCR 1325 or 1820. However, in the absence of a national level Task Force, a women’s NGO has established a grassroots network on SCR 1325 (see Box 7).

Box 7. Fiji’s innovative approach to CSO engagement on SCR 1325³⁴

In 2010, the Fijian women’s organization FemLINKPACIFIC is assisting local women to convene “1325 network meetings” to support the development and implementation of community level action plans on SCR 1325 to improve women’s human security. It is envisaged that this initiative will also assist women at community level to have access to relevant peace and security information to enhance their status and decision making capacities, as well as ensure that women’s perspectives inform dialogue and peacebuilding processes.

2.2 Prevention and protection

Beyond the representation and participation of women in institutions and processes, it is crucial to ensure a gender equitable process of preventing both armed conflict and sexual and gender-based violence, as well as in the protection of women’s rights, including protecting women and girls from SGBV. In this section, five indicators track efforts to prevent SGBV, promote peace, and protect women’s human rights in line with SCR 1325 and 1820.

Indicator 7: Number of SGBV cases reported, and percentage of those investigated, referred, prosecuted, and penalized

This indicator assesses the impact of efforts to protect women and girls from sexual and gender-based violence, and is responsive to paragraphs 8 and 11 of SCR 1325 and paragraphs 3, 4 and 13 of SCR 1820. By attempting to examine not only the cases reported, but the proportion of those that are investigated by police, referred to the courts and penalized in court, Indicator 7 addresses women’s access to justice, and “accountability, in line with national legislation and international standards.”³⁷

The data collated in the in-country reports reconfirms that, on the one hand, the **data on sexual violence is extremely limited**; some countries do not have official police data (Burundi, DRC, Fiji and Nepal), and beyond numbers of cases reported, few countries have more in-depth data involving rates of prosecution and conviction.

Table 8. Summary of available SGBV data³⁶

Country	Source and year	SGBV data
Afghanistan	Ministry of Interior data 2009	979 SGBV cases reported - 41% <i>zina</i> (adultery), 23% murder. 'All' cases investigated & referred to court
Burundi	No official data; NGO data 2006	912 SGBV cases reported - 75.2% rape; rates of rape are increasing
Canada	Police data 2007-2008	22,862 sexual assault cases (of 4 categories) reported, 33% referred/prosecuted, 16% penalised/convicted
DRC	No official data; UNFPA data 2009	17,507 SGBV cases reported
Fiji	No police data; NGO data 2009	763 cases of SGBV - 49% domestic violence
Nepal	No police data; NGO data 2008 UNFPA data 2008	200 cases of rape in Terai region 80% of women surveyed in Surkhet & Dang districts had experienced domestic violence
Netherlands	Police data 2004	6668 cases of SGBV reported, 24% penalised
Philippines	Philippine Commission on Women data 2001-2008	58,388 SGBV cases reported - 52% physical violence, 16% rape
Rwanda	Police data Jan-June 2010 NGO data 2001-2009	1,500 SGBV cases reported 126,000 SGBV cases reported, approx 0.5% concluded
Sierra Leone	Police data 2009	2,922 SGBV cases reported - 56% domestic violence, 34% sexual abuse; 46.9% investigated, 8.4% resolved/withdrawn, 19.9% prosecuted
Uganda	Police data 2009	8529 SGBV cases reported (not including domestic violence) - 86% defilement; 100% investigated, 57% prosecuted, 6.5% penalized

Nonetheless, despite the limited data, it is clear that women and girls continue to experience **staggeringly high rates of SGBV**, and that protection from such violence is still a dire need for women's security. Domestic violence, rape, and physical violence were all major types of SGBV reported. Rape of girls was particularly concerning, with 86% of SGBV cases reported to police in Uganda concerning defilement (although this figure includes sexual intercourse with or without consent with minors under 18 years of age). In both Sierra Leone and Burundi it was noted that **rates of SGBV had increased since the cessation of conflict**.

Rates of reporting are however an ambiguous indicator, as an increase in reporting often signifies an increase in awareness of women's rights, trust in a police force and judiciary which is adequately trained to handle SGBV cases, as pointed out in the DRC in-country report. In the Philippines, for example, an increase in reporting could be attributed to a variety of factors including awareness campaigns, legislation on violence against women, the establishment of women's desks in the police, and NGOs working on women's rights and protection.³⁸

However, data on **reporting vastly understates actual numbers of SGBV cases**. In Canada, for example, a country not in conflict but with sophisticated data collection systems, a survey found that 91% of sexual assaults are not reported to the police.³⁹ The reasons for this are complex, and vary from country to country. Fear and shame prevents women from reporting SGBV in many countries, as does an attitude in society and in the security sectors that SGBV is a family matter which should be settled in private (Philippines, Sierra Leone, and see Box 8 on Afghanistan). In both the Philippines and Sierra Leone, women may be pressured to marry the perpetrator to "heal" the conflict between families. Other factors are lack of effective legislation, lack of legal literacy and awareness of existing SGBV legislation by the public, as well as "gender-insensitive investigation, sensational media reporting and social stigmatization".⁴⁰

Box 8. The handling of rape cases in Afghanistan⁴¹

The official rates of reporting on rape in Afghanistan are particularly low, at only 7% of the already meager number of SGBV cases reported in 2009. This data is reflective of the way rape cases are viewed and handled in Afghanistan. Not only is it difficult to prove rape, where four witnesses are required in court, but women and girls also fear speaking out due to the cultural taboo on extra marital sex. When rape cases cannot be proven, women may be punished for zina, or adultery, instead. The available data shows adultery to be the most prevalent type of reported, investigated, and punished cases of SGBV.

Even when a rape case is prosecuted and convicted, the victim may not receive justice. In August 2008, following the Supreme Court's conviction of three men for the rape of a woman in the northern province of Samangan, the three men were pardoned.

Where data on prosecutions and penalization is available, it is apparent that **few SGBV cases result in the perpetrator's conviction**. Again, there are many factors at play, as identified in the in-country reports. These include the complexities of providing evidence and the standard of proof required, and the long and costly court process. Women who have reported SGBV cases may be pressured to drop the charges, either by police who in Fiji promote family reconciliation despite a "no-drop" policy for domestic violence, or by perpetrators bribing families to drop the charges, fueled by the poverty which makes such offers appealing (Uganda, Sierra Leone). In some contexts, police fail to take SGBV seriously (Burundi), but in others they are hindered in following up SGBV cases by simple yet crucial barriers such as a lack of transport, personnel, and office supplies (Uganda). The lack of convictions contributes to a culture of impunity for SGBV, which in turn has wider repercussions for peacebuilding and reconstruction, because as Deputy Secretary-General Asha-Rose Migiro has stated, "impunity for sexual violence committed during conflict perpetuates a tolerance of abuse against women and girls and leaves a damaging legacy by hindering national reconciliation."⁴²

Indicator 8: Number and quality of gender-responsive laws and policies

Table 9. Summary of gender-responsive laws and policies (since 2000)⁴³

Gender-responsive law or policy type	Country
SGBV (rape, trafficking, child violence) laws	Afghanistan, Burundi, DRC, Fiji, Nepal, Philippines, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda
National Action Plans & policies on women	Afghanistan, Netherlands, Philippines, Sierra Leone, Uganda
National Action Plans on 1325	DRC, Philippines, Netherlands, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda
Constitution	Afghanistan, DRC, Nepal, Rwanda, Uganda
National Development & Poverty Reduction Strategies	Afghanistan, Fiji, Netherlands (Strategy on Security & Development in Fragile States) Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda
Property / inheritance laws	Nepal, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Uganda

A key element of the architecture underpinning the rights of women is the existence of legislation and policies that are gender-responsive. This is particularly relevant in post-conflict reconstruction and transition phases, where new and reviewed policies and laws set the standard for the way ahead. This indicator seeks to assess the number and quality of gender-responsive laws and policies, in response to paragraph 7 of SCR 1325.

While it was not possible to quantify the numbers, the data reveals a **promising proliferation of relevant laws and policies**. (It should be noted that the data is somewhat unrepresentative of the situation in the Netherlands and especially in Canada, where gender-sensitive legislation

generally pre-dates 2000). All nine of the conflict-affected countries have enacted legislation relating to gender-based violence of varying types. Five countries have specific national policies or action plans relating to women, and six have National Action Plans on SCR 1325. In various countries gender and women's rights are also integrated into the Constitution, national development or poverty reduction strategies, and legislation relating to property rights and inheritance. Further selected examples of gender-responsive legislation are provided in Box 9.

A number of **enabling factors** are cited in the in-country reports as facilitating a gender-responsive legislative and policy environment. In Sierra Leone, the issue of the need to enact gender responsive laws and policies gained ground through the **recommendations on women in the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) report** (see Indicator 9), which explicitly linked the perpetration of rape and other forms of sexual violence, particularly during the civil war, to discrimination against women; the report called for the repeal of all laws that were discriminatory towards women. In Rwanda, an array of gender-sensitive policies and legislation is facilitated by the **gender architecture** of government, with all national institutions and departments having gender focal points at central and decentralized levels, tasked with ensuring gender mainstreaming.

Unsurprisingly, despite the many gender-responsive laws and policies that have been enacted since 2000, there remain significant **challenges in their implementation**, as noted in the in-country reports from the Philippines, Sierra Leone, Afghanistan, Nepal, Uganda and Fiji. **Lack of awareness** around the available laws, exacerbated at times through high levels of illiteracy among women, was one barrier to effective implementation in Nepal, Sierra Leone and the Philippines. The **application of gender-sensitive laws in the court system** was also cited as a potential challenge in Fiji and Nepal. In Afghanistan, it was noted that while women have rights on paper, they are denied them through the lack of mechanisms to implement those rights, hindered by the lack of support for women's rights by officials in government, parliament and the formal justice system, as well as cultural biases. A similar set of concerns was raised in Sierra Leone, where lack of implementation was attributed to a lack of resources for the gender ministry, adherence to customary laws, high levels of illiteracy among women, and non-acceptance of gender equality principles among men. Nonetheless, despite not being fully implemented, the gender-responsive laws and policies in Sierra Leone were valuable as a reference material for gender activists.

In addition, the lack of certain gender-sensitive policy frameworks does not necessarily indicate a lack of substantive work on WPS. For example, as mentioned above, out of the 11 countries monitored, only six have NAPs on SCR 1325; however, this does not mean that there have been no initiatives relating to the implementation of SCR 1325 or other WPS processes in countries without NAPs. Canada, for example, does not have a NAP and yet has made many contributions to other governments as well as NGOs' work on SCR 1325 in other countries, including work on NAPs.

Major **gaps for women's rights in policy and legislation** still abound. Discriminatory laws

Box 9. Specific examples of progressive gender-responsive legislation⁴⁴

Progressive gender-responsive legislation has been applied to many other specific areas, for example:

- In Burundi, legislation stipulates the gender balance of national defense personnel.
- Uganda's Karamoja Disarmament and Development Plan was one of few policies in this study to address the issue of small arms proliferation, which has such a critical impact on women's physical security.
- The crucial issue of funding for gender equality is handled in the Philippines' General Appropriations Act that earmarks a proportion of government agencies' funds for gender and development.

still exist, such as the Shia Personal Status law in Afghanistan. There are weaknesses in gender-related laws and policies, such as gaps in the provisions of the Domestic Violence Decree and the Crimes Decree with regard to sexual offences, and a lack of indicators to monitor gender equality in the national plan in Fiji.⁴⁵ There is also an absence of specific laws and policies to protect women's rights, such as the poor attention to legislation protecting women from small arms violence.

Indicator 9: Number and nature of provisions/recommendations in TRC and other transitional justice reports on women's rights

Table 10. Summary of TRC provisions on women's rights⁴⁶

Country	Transitional justice mechanism	Provisions on women's rights
Afghanistan	Action Plan for Peace, Justice, & Reconciliation	Not implemented. Amnesty bill for crimes committed during the conflict introduced, in contradiction of the Action Plan for Peace; no data on gender
Burundi	N/A	N/A
Canada	N/A	N/A
DRC	No data	No data
Fiji	Reconciliation, Tolerance & Unity Bill (proposed 2005)	Widely criticized; National Council of Women Fiji called for compliance with SCR 1325
Nepal	Bill on the Truth & Reconciliation Commission (pending)	Concerns over granting amnesty to perpetrators of gross human rights violations & violations of international humanitarian law
Netherlands	N/A	N/A
Philippines	N/A	N/A
Rwanda	International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda	Rape & sexual violence codified as recognizable & independent crime
Sierra Leone	TRC	Imperative: ratify African Union Protocol on rights of women; 30% quota for women in politics; repeal provision linking SGBV to moral character; end customary law compelling rape victims to marry perpetrators Work Towards: enact laws on sexual violence crimes in line with Rome Statute; free education policy for girls in senior secondary school
Uganda	West Nile Peace Process	Women part of 'vulnerable group' provided security & protection during peace process
	Agreement on Comprehensive Solutions btw Govt of Uganda & Lord's Resistance Army	Provides for gender equality in access to opportunities; special assistance to vulnerable groups through special assistance programmes

It is crucial for the successful implementation of SCR 1325, as well as for long-lasting and inclusive peace, that the rights of women and girls are "addressed early in the transition to peace."⁴⁷ Indicator 9, responsive to paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 4 of SCR 1820, examines the extent to which TRCs and other formal transitional justice mechanisms acknowledge and address the rights of women in their provisions and recommendations. This indicator takes a relatively broad interpretation of what constitutes a transitional justice mechanism.

The data for Indicator 9 is limited, in part because transitional justice mechanisms are not in place in all of the countries included in this research. There are however a number of positive examples of provisions on women's rights being included TRC or other transitional justice

mechanism reports. In Uganda's West Nile peace process, women were identified as a vulnerable group whose security and protection were provided during the process of peace, and in the Agreement on Comprehensive Solutions between the Government of Uganda and the Lord's Resistance Army/Movement, provisions were made for **gender equality in access to opportunities and special assistance programmes** for vulnerable groups. In another example, **rape and sexual violence were specifically codified for the first time as a recognizable and independent crime** within the statute of the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda; this reinforced the legal basis for arguing that rape and sexual violence are individual crimes against humanity, and also constitute violations of the laws and customs of war.⁴⁸

However, even where provisions are made for women's rights, this **does not guarantee implementation** of those provisions. The TRC report in Sierra Leone contains many recommendations relating to women's rights and gender equality. For example, the "Imperative Category" includes provisions on women's representation in political decision-making, ratifying the African Union Protocol on the rights of women, and actions regarding rape and sexual offences, while the "Work Towards Category" stipulates the enactment of laws on sexual violence crimes and a free education policy for girls at senior secondary school level. However, while efforts have been made to implement the TRC recommendations on women's rights, much of the implementation is pending – especially regarding recommendations linked to governance issues. A number of reasons for this have been identified, including the absence of a fully fledged follow-up committee to monitor the implementation of the recommendations of the TRC, patriarchy, and discriminatory customs that have contributed to the low status of women in the country.⁵⁰

In several cases, transitional justice mechanisms have not yet been established, but planning processes are underway. **Women's participation in these preparatory processes is mixed.** In Fiji, political dialogue processes with state-selected participants do not represent a diverse range of viewpoints from women's human rights and peace activists; in Burundi, the Tripartite Commission established to conduct public consultations on a TRC included 33% women, although the extent to which they represent women's concerns, and the outcomes of the consultations, are not yet known.

Concerns regarding the **granting of amnesty to perpetrators of crimes during the conflict** were raised. In Nepal, while the TRC bill waiting to be passed contains provisions on reconciliation, healing and reparations, there are concerns that it will grant amnesty to perpetrators of human rights violations. In Fiji, there were concerns that a proposed Reconciliation, Tolerance and Unity Bill would give amnesty to coup leaders, thus legalizing a "coup culture". In Afghanistan, the National Reconciliation, General Amnesty and Stability Law provides amnesty for crimes committed during the conflict period, in contradiction to the (unimplemented) Action Plan for Peace, Justice, and Reconciliation. As Donald Steinberg

Box 10. Women's Initiatives for Gender Justice, targeting the ICC⁴⁹

The Netherlands also plays a role in promoting women's rights in transitional justice processes, as host to the Women's Initiatives for Gender Justice, an international women's human rights organization advocating for gender-inclusive justice within the International Criminal Court (ICC) in the Hague. The organization has supported local women's groups and advocated for gender based crimes to be included in the ICC investigations on conflicts in Uganda and in the DRC in order to promote the rights of women victims/survivors of armed conflict throughout the justice process. They have also conducted gender training for decision-makers in the ICC, and produced resources on victims' rights under the Rome Statute.

from the International Crisis Group points out, the granting of such amnesties is “tantamount to men with guns forgiving other men with guns for atrocities taken against women.”⁵¹

Indicator 10: Extent to which gender and peace education are integrated in the curriculum of formal and informal education

Table 11. Summary of gender and peace in education⁵²

Country	Sector	Gender and peace integration
Afghanistan	Formal Informal	Gender in grades 1-6 Peace, conflict & SGBV training for women & girls
Burundi	Formal Informal	Peace, citizenship & human rights included, not gender; gender curriculum review completed; Masters in Gender is planned Peace & gender included in informal education
Canada	Formal	Elementary & high school curricula include rights & interpersonal conflict resolution, not peace & gender; tertiary includes conflict, peace & gender programs
DRC	Formal	Textbooks integrating gender in school curricula
Fiji	Formal Informal	Gender & peace not integrated Manuals available on gender-inclusive peace education
Nepal	Formal Informal	Gender & peace not integrated; masters in women’s studies, & post grad. security management Gender & peace not integrated; some peace education through NGOs
Netherlands	Formal	Peace & gender not formally integrated; masters programs include gender, peace & security
Philippines	Formal Informal	Peace education mainstreamed, including teacher training; gender not institutionalised Gender and peace in curricula of academic NGOs
Rwanda	Formal Informal	Gender and peace not integrated Peace building & reconciliation in solidarity camps
Sierra Leone	Formal	Peace & conflict in curricula; gender, peace & development in teacher training
Uganda	Formal	Gender & peace not integrated in curricula; functional literacy manuals include gender & conflict resolution

Conflict prevention, as well as understanding and respect for gender equality and the rights of women, must be instilled in children and youth to create a culture of sustainable peace. This indicator tracks the extent to which peace education and gender issues are integrated in educational processes. Data from all 11 countries suggests that there is still **a long way to go, especially concerning gender in formal education.**

In formal education systems, data from the in-country reports suggests that six out of 11 countries did not formally integrate either gender or peace education into the curriculum. In a further analysis of two countries, peace education was institutionalized, but gender was not (Burundi and the Philippines). Afghanistan was the only country demonstrating the reverse: peace education is not integrated in formal education, but gender is, for grades 1-6. In the Philippines, peace education is actually mandated to be mainstreamed into the basic formal education curriculum, and gender issues have been integrated into school textbooks in the DRC.

Both **gender and peace issues appear to be given greater focus at the tertiary level.** Peace and conflict studies are available at university in Sierra Leone, and a Masters degree in women’s studies and postgraduate degree in security management are available in Nepal. Both Canada and the Netherlands have a range of Masters programs on gender and women’s studies, as well as peace, conflict and security. Teacher training programs also include peace education (in the Philippines) and gender, peace and development (in Sierra Leone).

Box 11. Steps towards gender and peace education in Burundi⁵³

In Burundi, gender and peace education form part of the informal education process. Peace, citizenship and human rights education all form part of the formal education curriculum, and a recently completed gender analysis of school textbooks should enable future textbooks to incorporate a gender perspective. At the tertiary level, UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) and the Government of Burundi have plans to establish a Masters Program in Gender at the University of Burundi.

peace education, although these informal processes also remain **largely ad hoc** and are not institutionalized. In Afghanistan, literacy classes for women and girls address empowerment and basic rights, while gender and conflict resolution are included in functional literacy manuals in Uganda. Manuals had also been developed in Fiji, where gender-inclusive peace education materials include a manual for peacebuilders and study material on the church and violence against women. Peacebuilding and reconciliation are taught in “solidarity camps” in Rwanda, while peace and gender are included in informal education in Burundi (see Box 11) and in Nepal, where gender and peace are partially integrated into textbooks in 75 districts.

The wealth of such informal activities highlights the **important role of civil society organizations in developing materials and**

processes for gender and peace education in the informal education sector, in the absence of integration in formal education curricula. NGOs and other civil society groups have been active in this area in Uganda, Fiji, the Philippines and Afghanistan. Nonetheless, as pointed out in the case of Nepal, there is still a strong need to Ministries of Education to prioritize mainstreaming of these issues to create clarity and continuity on the subject matter.

Indicator 11: Percentage of women (versus men) who receive economic packages in conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

Table 12. Summary of gender dimensions of economic packages⁵⁴

Country	Programme	Gender-sensitive data
Afghanistan	No data	No data
Burundi	UNHCR, Ministry of National Solidarity % Refugee Repatriation	'Distribution process generally gender-sensitive' & took into account women's needs; no specific data
Canada	N/A	N/A
DRC	Not specified	Special assistance to 1,000 women & girls on income generation & micro credit; demobilization criteria disadvantaged women
Fiji	No relevant programmes	N/A
Nepal	Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction	Women recipients of financial assistance, by type: family of the dead 84.35%; handicapped 6.56%; property loss 9.37%; women-specific needs not addressed
Netherlands	N/A	N/A
Philippines	Department of Social Welfare & Development (DSWD) Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process (OPAPP)	Food assistance & cash exchanges mostly received by women No sex-disaggregated data or targeting
Rwanda	Fund to Assist Genocide Survivors Rwanda Demobilization and Reintegration Commission	Majority beneficiaries are women & orphans Economic & resettlement package of US\$320 for men, US\$600 for women; women 0.6% of beneficiaries
Sierra Leone	Sierra Leone Reparations Programme	Women 61% of total beneficiaries, receiving medical, psychological, financial support
Uganda	Amnesty Commission	Women 22.5% of beneficiaries, receiving food & non-food items & cash allowance

While armed conflict affects men and women in different ways, women's specific needs are often not considered in terms of the impact that conflict has had on them, and in terms of their role in conflict resolution and reconstruction processes. This indicator addresses paragraph 13 of SCR 1325, and paragraph 10 of SCR 1820, by examining the extent to which women are targeted in and/or benefit from disarmament, demobilization and reintegration programmes, reparations, and economic assistance packages.

While specific sex-disaggregated data on beneficiaries was not comprehensive, the available data in the in-country reports showed that women comprised **fewer overall beneficiaries of economic packages for ex-combatants** in Rwanda and in Uganda, presumably reflecting the gender make up of combat forces involved. Women also comprised a **greater proportion than men of recipients of compensation and reparations**, as family of the dead (in Nepal) and as victims of SGBV and as war widows (in Sierra Leone).

In five out of the seven countries with available data, there was some kind of effort made to **specifically target women or take into account their needs** (Burundi, DRC, Rwanda, Sierra Leone and Uganda). This targeting often **reflected their particular burdens in the aftermath of war**, where for example many genocide survivors in Rwanda were female, where women were victims of sexual and gender-based violence during the conflict (Sierra Leone), where female ex-combatants face stigma which prevents them reintegrating and marrying (also Rwanda), and where women who are widowed must support their children, often in addition to other war orphans.

Programmes were targeted to benefit women in a variety of ways. In Rwanda, women received a higher value package of US\$600, as opposed to US\$320 for men. In Uganda, food and non-food economic packages are allocated per household, with women taken as representative of the household; ex-combat women, especially those with children, receive their packages first. The reparation programme in Sierra Leone, which includes grants and services, targets specific vulnerable categories, including war widows and victims of sexual violence (see Box 12). In the DRC, women and girls receive special assistance, comprising training in income generation as well as micro credit.

Some of the economic assistance packages mentioned did **not specifically target women**, or take into account their needs. In Nepal, for example, while sex-disaggregated data of recipients of economic packages is available and various vulnerable groups are targeted, the procedures for allocating compensation do not consider the specific needs of women. In the Philippines, the OPAPP programme did not consider women as a separate group, and the DSWD programme distributed food assistance and cash exchanges predominantly to women, by default, primarily because women were more likely to be present in relocation sites with their children. While the resettlement package for West Nile, in Uganda, did not target women, lessons were drawn from this experience to improve subsequent packages.

Box 12. Recognition of SGBV through reparations in Sierra Leone⁵⁵

A crucial step towards the recognition of SGBV as an impact of war has been made through targeting victims of SGBV as a specific category of beneficiaries of the reparations programme in Sierra Leone. The programme, which provides micro-grants, education and psychosocial support and medical assistance including screening for and repair of fistula, targets children, amputees, war wounded and war widows, in addition to victims of SGBV. As a consequence of targeting war widows and SGBV victims, where women make up 100% of beneficiaries, women comprised 61% of total beneficiaries of the reparations programme between December 2008 and December 2009.

2.3 Promotion of a gender perspective

The promotion of a gender perspective can be regarded as a progression from the participation of women and the protection of their rights, towards efforts to mainstream gender and to implement the provisions of SCR 1325 and 1820. The four indicators in this section track the incorporation of a gender perspective in peace agreements and in training for the security sector, as well as assessing funding contributions to government and CSOs for the implementation of women, peace and security policies and programmes.

Indicator 12: Detailed breakdown of gender issues addressed in peace agreements

Paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 emphasizes the importance of adopting a gender perspective when negotiating and implementing peace agreements. Indicator 12 moves beyond the participation of women in the negotiations themselves, and addresses the extent to which gender issues are actually addressed in the outcome documents, including issues such as attention to the special needs of women and girls during resettlement and post-conflict reconstruction, measures that support local women's peace initiatives and indigenous processes for conflict resolution, and that ensure the protection of and respect for human rights of women and girls.⁵⁶

Table 13. Summary of gender issues in peace agreements (since 2000)⁵⁷

Country	Peace agreement	Gender issues
Afghanistan	National Consultative Peace Jirga (2010)	Not adequately addressed
Burundi	Arusha Peace Agreement (2000)	Mentions gender equality, & women's empowerment
Canada	N/A	N/A
DRC	Sun City Agreement (2003) Dar es Salaam Declaration (2004) Goma Declaration (2008)	Mentions women's representation in decision-making SGBV protocol; women's participation in monitoring implementation Mentions representation of women
Fiji	No peace agreements	N/A
Nepal	12 Point Agreement (2005) 8 Point Agreement (2006) 25 Point Agreement (2006) Comprehensive Peace Accord (2006)	Not addressed Not addressed Not addressed Women as a "problem"; protection of women's rights against SGBV
Netherlands	N/A	N/A
Philippines	Proposed establishment of Joint Civilian Protection Authority for consideration by GRP & MILF (2009)	Proposed 70% women's membership
Rwanda	Rome Agreement (2005)	Not addressed
Sierra Leone	No peace agreements since 2000	N/A
Uganda	Government of Uganda & Uganda National Rescue Front II Agreement (2002) Juba Peace Agreements (2008)	Not addressed Comprehensive recognition of gender issues, the needs of women, & 1325

The data from the GNWP in-country reports suggests that **gender issues have not been adequately addressed in peace agreements**, a finding reflected in earlier research focusing on SGBV, which found that of 300 peace agreements from 1989 to 2008, only 18 mention SGBV.⁵⁸ There was no attention to gender in agreements in Burundi, Rwanda, the DRC, in three out of four agreements in Nepal and in the 2002 Peace agreement between Government of Uganda

and Uganda National Rescue Front II in Uganda, and gender was not adequately addressed in Afghanistan and Nepal. There were positive exceptions to this trend, with Uganda's Juba Peace Agreements taking into account gender issues and women's rights in a variety of ways.⁵⁹

Many factors contribute to the neglect of gender issues in peace agreements. In Rwanda, negotiators were dealing with issues such as ceasefire and power-sharing, in which context **gender issues were not regarded as pressing concerns.**⁶⁰ This echoes a point about the compromises required by peace made in the Afghanistan report: "many fear that these compromises will include the sacrifice of ... the rights of women and girls."⁶¹ A different barrier was noted in Nepal and Burundi, where the fact that women were not present at the negotiating table resulted in their concerns and gender issues not being included in the agreements.

This is a critical point that validates the issues raised in Indicator 2 on women's participation in negotiations, suggesting that the **absence of women at times impacts negatively on the adoption of gender concerns** in the resulting agreements. However, the reverse does not necessarily hold; in Afghanistan, gender issues were not adequately addressed despite women comprising 20% of the participants in the Peace Jirga, despite women raising their concerns (see Indicator 2). Gender issues were not included in the Ugandan Peace agreement between the government and the Uganda National Rescue Front II, which does not reflect the strong presence and role of women lobbying behind the scenes. This in turn leads to an important point, namely that **women's civil society organizations play an important role in the development of peace agreements**, regardless of whether or not their participation is formal. For example, in the Philippines, a large group of women and peace organizations submitted on September 2009 a Mindanao Women's Framework for Civilian Protection,

invoking SCR 1325 and proposing, among other strategies, the establishment of a Joint Civilian Protection Authority with 70% female membership (see also Box 13).

Box 13. Challenges in implementing SGBV commitments in DRC⁶²

In the DRC, statements of commitment (actes d'engagement) were signed by 22 armed groups in the Kivus during the Goma Peace Conference on 23 January 2008. Signatories committed themselves to, inter alia, end all acts of violence against the civilian population, especially women and children. The Nairobi communiqué, which focused on foreign armed groups in DRC, also contained a reference to preventing acts of sexual violence. However, significant progress has yet to be observed in the parties either honoring their commitments or protecting civilians, in particular from sexual violence.

A further issue which this indicator does not specifically examine is the impact of the adoption of a gender perspective – does it make a difference, or does it remain merely words on paper? The Sierra Leone in-country report notes that while the needs and potential of women were included in the Lome Peace Accord of 1999, the provisions have not been well implemented in subsequent DDR and other programmes. Box 13 provides a similar example from the DRC. In Uganda, however, the gender-sensitive Juba Peace Agreement is being implemented, with some of the gender issues being included in the Peace, Recovery and Development Plan 2007-2010.

Indicator 13: Number and percentage of pre-deployment and post-deployment programmes for military and police incorporating SCR 1325, SCR 1820, international human rights instruments and international humanitarian law

The importance of providing training programmes for military and civilian police personnel on the protection, rights and specific needs of women is stated in paragraph 6 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 6 of SCR 1820. The critical importance of UN peacekeeping personnel in the

protection of women against sexual and gender-based violence in conflict was brought into focus most recently in the mass rape of women and children in North Kivu, DRC, in July and August of 2010.⁶³

While GNWP partners were unable to obtain concrete quantitative data for this indicator, a qualitative analysis of the in-country reports suggests that **most troops to be deployed in UN peacekeeping missions receive comprehensive gender training** covering international human rights instruments, humanitarian law, and specific treatment of SCRs 1325 and 1820. This is good news, especially given that the “majority of UN peacekeeping personnel come from developing countries with limited resources and capacity to train their troops.”⁶⁴ However, there was no specific mention of SCR 1325 or 1820 in such training in Burundi or in the Netherlands.

Table 14. Summary of gender training for security forces⁶⁵

Country	Security force	Gender training
Afghanistan	National police & military	Seminars on human rights & humanitarian law, 1325 & 1820
Burundi	UN peacekeepers	Human rights & international humanitarian law; no mention of 1325 or 1820
Canada	National military (CF)	Training on human rights, ethics, humanitarian law, 1325 related to inappropriate behavior for troops; no further 1325 training
DRC	UN civilian police	Gender training
Fiji	National military	Counselling to combat domestic violence prior to 2006; no other data
Nepal	National police National army	Training on gender, SEA, international human rights & humanitarian law; no specific syllabus on 1325 or 1820 Special training package on 1325 and 1820
Netherlands	UN peacekeepers	Context-specific training on roles & position of women in peace processes; checklist on gender in operational planning processes; no other specific data on 1325
Philippines	National military UN peacekeepers	Seminars on gender and HR, no official training on 1325 and 1820
Rwanda	National military	Forthcoming 1325 training
Sierra Leone	National police & military UN peacekeepers	Gender training, international humanitarian laws & human rights-based approach Trained in 1325, 1820, international human rights & international humanitarian law
Uganda	No data	No data

With regards to training for the **national security sector**, most countries include varying degrees of attention to gender, human rights and humanitarian law, but **few appear to provide specific and comprehensive training covering SCR 1325 and 1820** – with notable exceptions in the cases of Afghanistan (see Box 14) and Nepal.

The specific reasons for this oversight remain unclear. In several cases, such as in Rwanda and Uganda, provisions on training in SCR 1325 and 1820 for military and police are **included in the NAP, however these actions have yet to be implemented** – or have not been monitored and hence lack data. In Burundi, the lack of training on the two resolutions is not due to a lack of political will, but to a **lack of technical knowledge** and skills at the national level.

At the same time, the existence of quality gender training **incorporating SCR 1325 does not necessarily reflect strong political will** on the issues, or a change in operating practices. In Nepal, where the army has been including SCR 1325 and 1820 in training packages for its personnel for the last four years, “it is necessary to look beyond training and orientations

Box 14. Gender training for the security sector in Afghanistan⁶⁶

The Afghan National Police and Afghan National Army train officers and soldiers with a curriculum that includes seminars and workshops with the Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission (AIHRC) and the Ministry of Interior. Curricula include information and training on international human rights, international humanitarian law, and SCR 1325 and 1820. This training is extended to police academy units in provinces. A department on gender and human rights has been created in the police academy, but this has not yet been implemented.

and assess the political will of the Nepal Army to put into practice all the trainings provided. The Nepal Army still faces severe criticism from Human Rights and Civil Society Organizations over a number of SGBV cases for which it has not appropriately prosecuted the guilty party.”⁶⁷

Once again, it is important to note the **role of women’s organizations in informal training for the security sector**. For example, in Afghanistan, legal aid programs undertaken by NGO trainers, police

and lawyers, teach about rights and responsibilities towards civilians, the rights ensured for the accused, and women in conflict with the law. In Fiji, prior to the military coup of December 2006, women’s human rights organisations such as the Fiji Women’s Crisis Centre and the Peace Programme of the Ecumenical Centre for Research Education and Advocacy provided training particularly for the military to address the lack of trauma counselling services for returning soldiers and police officers, which had resulted in a higher incidence of domestic violence in these households. However, due to the political situation in the country, many of these services and partnerships have been discontinued.

Indicator 14: Allocated and disbursed funding to CSOs (including women’s groups) marked for Women, Peace and Security (WPS) projects and programs

Table 15. Summary of funding to CSOs for WPS⁶⁸

Country	CSO funding for WPS
<i>Recipients</i>	
Afghanistan	No exact data
Burundi	No exact data
DRC	No exact data
Fiji	No exact data; CSO WPS funding sources include UNIFEM, AusAID, IWDA
Nepal	No exact data
Philippines	In 2010, approx US\$194,000 approx for WPS projects under Projects for Peace programme; 11 recipients are peace & women’s CSOs
Rwanda	No exact data; in 2010, US\$1,314,000 for 3 key CSOs working on WPS
Sierra Leone	No exact data; in 2008-2009, approx US\$34,063 for selected groups & activities
Uganda	No exact data; in 2010, US\$342,936 for the Centre for Women in Governance
<i>Donors</i>	
Canada	No exact data; in 1998-2006, approx US\$17,024,840 on post/conflict gender (unclear how much for CSOs); funding for many more WPS initiatives, but unclear on total amounts and whether for CSOs.
Netherlands	No exact data; in 2008-2011, approx US\$90,139,382 to the MDG3 Fund (unclear how much for WPS)

Women’s groups and civil society organizations are key to inclusive peacebuilding, and as such it is vital that they have access to funding through national government mechanisms or through international organizations.⁶⁹ This indicator tracks allocated and disbursed funding to CSOs specifically for WPS programming, in line with paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 13 of SCR 1820.

Tracking where funds come from, where they are directed towards, and in what sector they are used is an extremely complex process, as examined in detail in a costing and financing SCR 1325 study commissioned by Cordaid and GNWP.⁷⁰ **Comprehensive data on this indicator was not available in any country**, according to the in-country reports. In many cases figures were available on selected organizations and for selected projects, but it was not clear what proportion of WPS funding went to CSOs, or what proportion of CSO funding went to WPS projects. The figures above are specific examples only and it is unclear what proportion of total funds these represent; as such, the figures here do not in any way present a picture that is comparable across countries. Nonetheless, this does not negate the importance of the many CSOs being funded in this area (see for example Box 15, and the in-country reports for additional detail).

There are multiple factors contributing to the opacity regarding funding for CSOs for WPS programming. One issue is that, following the 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, **new aid modalities are “reducing the ability of women’s rights CSOs to access funding”**.⁷² The move towards direct budget support has seen increasing amounts of aid resources being channelled through national governments, reducing the ability of donors to direct funding towards civil society.⁷³ At the same time, the increasing tendency for donors to direct funds through multilateral institutions and international organizations makes it more difficult to track, according to the in-country report from Canada. In addition, “although this practice increases harmonization and decreases transactional costs, it also leaves very little venue for Canadian civil society to influence policy and programming priorities”.⁷⁴

Technical difficulties in tracking funding flows are another barrier here. In Rwanda it was found that a lack of consistency in basic terms, and missing data from donors with no in-country mission, or who disburse through multiple agencies, hindered efforts to track funding flows.⁷⁵ Even where donors contribute significant funds to such work, as in Canada and the Netherlands, it is difficult to track and quantify precisely. In Canada, spending is categorized either as gender-related or as peace/conflict/fragile states related, but not both, making it difficult to track spending specifically for women, peace and security.

Competition among CSOs for scarce resources is another key issue. Donor allocation policies in a context of extremely limited resources for grassroots and civil society organizations can at times contribute “to fragmentation instead of cooperation between CSOs”.⁷⁶ This sense of competition can also contribute to organizations being reluctant to reveal their budgets, as was the case in Uganda.

Overall, however, despite the lack of consistent data, it is clear that **civil society organizations working on women, peace and security issues are severely under-funded**, which hinders their efforts to build sustainable peace, address SGBV, and hold their governments to account.

Box 15. Funding for Projects for Peace in the Philippines⁷¹

In the Philippines, as of September 2010, the Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process (OPAPP) had released a total of approximately US\$194,000 for Women, Peace and Security Projects under their Projects for Peace. Projects for Peace promote collaboration among government agencies, local government units, and civil society organizations by strengthening partnerships in project implementation. Projects to be funded fall under different categories such as social justice, civilian protection in armed conflict, promotion of a culture of peace, peace, conflict and the environment, and women, peace and security. Eleven peace and women CSOs with WPS projects have been, to date, recipients of this funding.

Indicator 15: Allocated and disbursed funding to governments marked for WPS projects and programs

The Secretary-General's report on SCR 1325 indicators emphasises the urgent need to track how much is being spent on addressing gender issues in conflict-affected countries.⁷⁷ Responding to both paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 13 of SCR 1820, Indicator 15 attempts to track the allocation and disbursement of funds for women, peace and security specifically to governments.

Table 16. Summary of funding to governments for WPS⁷⁸

Country	Government funding for WPS
<i>Recipients</i>	
Afghanistan	No exact data
Burundi	No exact data; in 2009, US\$ 70,000 to Ministry of Gender & HR for GBV; Peacebuilding Commission US\$ 28,800, 8% of which is WPS projects
DRC	No exact data; the NAP is yet to be budgeted
Fiji	No exact data
Nepal	No exact data; GRB shows 53.7% of total budget to gender; no specific WPS projects under the NPTF; Ministry of Peace & Reconciliation received US\$ 119,015 from various donors to develop a NAP on 1325 and 1820
Philippines	5% of total government budget goes to Gender & Development (GAD) in each govt agency; US\$ 112,726 plus funds from GAD budget for NAP implementation
Rwanda	No exact data; "suggested" budget for NAP 2009-2012 was US\$9 million
Sierra Leone	No exact data; \$802,000 in 2008 allocated to gender ministry for a project
Uganda	No exact data; 2010/2011 gender ministry budget is 0.5% of national budget – partly to fund NAP; the PRDP for three years comes to \$606,519,297 – gender audit to be undertaken
<i>Donors</i>	
Canada	No exact data; extensive funding marked for WPS mostly for CSOs or multilateral institutions
Netherlands	No exact data; government & civil society investment in the NAP of approx US\$ 30 million. Extensive funding to fragile states, but no data on WPS

As with the previous indicator on funding to CSOs, there was **little comprehensive data on funding to governments for WPS programming**. In most cases, data was not available or was incomplete. In some cases, such as in the DRC, the data was regarded as sensitive, and therefore it was not publically available. While it was sometimes possible to determine funds allocated to government spending on gender equality, it was not possible to identify what proportion of that funding was marked for WPS projects and programmes, as in the case with the Philippines, Burundi, Sierra Leone and Nepal. In Nepal, the absence of information about WPS programmes was attributed to the limited focus on women's issues in peace and recovery programming. In Uganda, a gender audit of the Peace, Recovery and Development Plan is being undertaken, which should reveal the financial resources available to WPS projects. Similar gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) initiatives would be beneficial for other countries.

One of the key areas of government funding to WPS concerns **budgets for NAPs**. It has been recognised that "One of the greatest obstacles for the successful implementation of action plans has been the allocation of sufficient resources, including realistic planning and investing of these resources. Objectives and activities cannot be put into practice without a realistic and comprehensive planning of resources and time frames".⁷⁹ In both Rwanda and the Philippines, plans for NAP budgets are in place, however it is still too soon to assess the actual financial resources allocated and disbursed for their implementation. Recent studies have also found that the implementation of WPS provisions is impeded by marginalization of the ministries through which SCR 1325 and 1820 are usually implemented, since Gender

and Women's ministries tend to be under-funded, particularly when compared with those of Defence or Finance.⁸⁰

From the donor side, the lack of comprehensive data on this indicator points to an important opportunity to promote transparency in funding and reporting as integral to bilateral and multilateral agreements, and for **donors to track the funds donors invest in WPS** programming in conflict-affected and fragile states.⁸¹ The challenges here include financial tracking systems that capture peace and security allocations, but not gender contributions within that sector. For example, in the Netherlands funding was marked for peace building, DDR, and security and development, but not for women, peace and security. Another challenge for donors relates to "the discrepancies between what is reported to donors and what actually happens on the ground".⁸²

3. Conclusions and Recommendations

3.1 Overall findings

Overall, the GNWP monitoring of SCR 1325 has highlighted the following very broad issues:

- There remains a limited understanding of the gender dimensions of conflict and of the need for a gender perspective in peace and security processes.⁸³
- Despite impressive progress in some cases, women are still struggling to participate in conflict prevention, peacebuilding and governance processes, particularly at formal and official levels.
- While the development of gender-sensitive policies – especially NAPs on SCR 1325 – as well as legislation, peace agreements and TRC reports constitute a major achievement, their implementation remains a significant challenge.
- Rates of SGBV are often extremely high both during and after conflict, and impunity remains.
- Major data gaps on WPS issues persist across all areas, especially with regards to SGBV, due to a lack of effective reporting and monitoring systems.
- There is a lack of adequate funding for the implementation of SCR 1325 by governments and more especially by CSOs.
- Women’s civil society organizations play a key role in virtually every aspect of the implementation of SCR 1325, often through informal channels.

More specific indicator-by-indicator recommendations from the GNWP SCR 1325 monitoring project include the following:

Participation

Indicator 1: Index of women’s participation in governance (% women in senior positions in parliament, cabinet, local governance)

- There has been some progress in women’s participation in parliament, in part supported by quota systems. However, women’s representation is often poor at lower levels of governance. Women are limited by security threats and reprisals, cultural attitudes and lack of political will for gender equality.

Indicator 2: Percentage of women in peace negotiating teams

- There are extremely low levels of women’s representation in official peace negotiation teams. Where women do play a role, they can influence the inclusion of women’s concerns in peace agreements. Women can also contribute through informal channels, which may be more likely to be open to civil society.

Indicator 3: Index of women’s participation in the justice and security sectors (% women in military, police, judiciary)

- The participation of women in the police and especially the military is low; very few women are found in senior decision-making levels in these institutions, although gender policies including training and awareness raising are beginning to change this. Women are generally much better represented in the judiciary.

Indicator 4: Percentage of women in peacekeeping missions, disaggregated at all levels

- A similar situation is found in the UN peacekeeping personnel, with generally low representation of women, especially in senior ranks and in “non-traditional” roles.

Indicator 5: Number and percentage of women participating in each type of constitutional or legislative review

- Women are playing a role in influencing constitutional and legislative reform, helping to create a gender-sensitive legal environment; CSOs also play a key role here.

Indicator 6: Percentage of civil society organizations in Task Forces on SCR 1325 and 1820

- CSOs are strategically involved in Task Forces and other bodies in the development, implementation and monitoring of SCR 1325 NAPs and related processes. These efforts are hampered by a lack of funding.

Prevention and Protection

Indicator 7: Number of sexual and gender-based violence cases reported, and percentage of cases investigated, referred, prosecuted, and penalized (out of total reported)

- Data on SGBV remains extremely limited, with cases significantly underreported, and reporting rarely resulting in a conviction. It is nonetheless clear that women and girls continue to experience staggeringly high rates of SGBV, and that in some cases these rates have increased since the cessation of hostilities.

Indicator 8: Number and quality of gender-responsive laws and policies

- There has been a proliferation of gender-responsive legislation and policies, including on issues of specific concern to women such as SGBV and SCR 1325, as well as gender mainstreaming into key documents such as the Constitution and national development plans. The development of NAPs are a particular achievement. However, there are significant challenges with the implementation of these laws and policies.

Indicator 9: Number and nature of provisions/recommendations in the Truth and Reconciliation Commission and other transitional justice reports on women’s rights

- While some transitional justice mechanisms such as TRC processes do address women’s rights, there remain challenges with implementation, a mixed record of women’s participation in the processes, and concerns around amnesty for perpetrators of sexual violence.

Indicator 10: Extent to which gender and peace education are integrated in the curriculum of formal and informal education

- There is still a long way to go in integrating gender and peace into educational processes, especially concerning gender in formal education. The issues appear to be given greater focus at the tertiary level, and among CSOs implementing informal educational activities.

Indicator 11: Percentage of women (versus men) who receive economic packages in conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

- In many cases, women comprise fewer overall beneficiaries of economic packages for ex-combatants, reflecting the fewer numbers of female combatants, but in other cases women represent a greater proportion of recipients of other types of compensation and reparations.

Promotion of a Gender Perspective

Indicator 12: Detailed breakdown of gender issues addressed in peace agreements

- For the most part, gender issues have not been adequately addressed in peace agreements, in part due to the absence of women in peace talks. CSOs have made important contributions to the gender-sensitivity of peace accords.

Indicator 13: Number and percentage of pre-deployment and post-deployment programmes for military and police incorporating SCR 1325, SCR 1820, international human rights instruments and international humanitarian law

- Most troops to be deployed in UN peacekeeping missions receive comprehensive training covering international human rights instruments, humanitarian law, and specific treatment of SCRs 1325 and 1820, although the national security sectors are less likely to be trained in SCR 1325 and 1820. Women's NGOs at times provide gender training for the security sector.

Indicator 14: Allocated and disbursed funding to civil society organizations (including women's groups) marked for women, peace and security projects and programs

- CSOs working on WPS issues, from NGOs to local women's organizations, are severely under-funded, which hinders their efforts to build sustainable peace, address SGBV, and hold their governments to account. This lack of funding exists despite the impact CSOs have had on the implementation of SCR 1325.

Indicator 15: Allocated and disbursed funding to governments marked for women, peace and security projects and programs

- Funding to governments for WPS policies and programmes is difficult to track, due to data sensitivities and technical complexities in measuring funding flows. It is particularly critical that sufficient budgets are allocated to the implementation of NAPs.

3.2 Recommendations

GNWP proposes the following set of recommendations, linked to each of the seven general findings from the in-country research:

General Finding 1. There is in general a limited understanding of the gender dimensions of conflict and of the need for a gender perspective in peace and security processes

- Member States should provide funding for gender training for key staff in government administration, to increase understanding of the importance of a gender perspective and to enhance technical capacities in gender analysis of peace and conflict; consider increasing the number of gender advisors in various government bodies for the same reason.

- The United Nations should include a gender component in peacekeeping operation mandates, both in peacekeeping and peacebuilding, and Member States should ensure pre-deployment training for UN peacekeeping troops as well as national security sector institutions is gender-sensitive and includes specific packages on SCR 1325 and 1820.
- Member States should integrate gender and peace modules into formal and informal education curricula, including issues of non-violence and human rights.
- Economic and relief packages provided by the UN, donors and Member States during conflict as well as compensation for survivors should not be solely based on roles during conflict (i.e. combatant, non-combatant) but on specific needs.

General Finding 2. Women are still struggling to participate in conflict prevention, peacebuilding and governance processes, particularly at the highest levels

- The UN should ensure women’s participation in formal peace negotiations by: strongly urging conflicting parties to have gender balance in their negotiating panels; creating enabling conditions so that women can fully and meaningfully participate in such negotiations; and applying a “zero tolerance policy” to processes that do not consider women’s perspectives and do not involve women’s effective participation.
- Member States should support women’s participation in governance and the security and justice sectors as well as in peace negotiation teams at all levels and in peacekeeping and constitutional reviews, by addressing known barriers and considering implementing or increasing temporary special measures such as quotas.
- Where official peace negotiations are not possible to pursue, the UN and Member States should facilitate informal peace negotiations where women fully and equally participate; and push for the agreements, particularly those that promote and protect women’s rights to be institutionalized and/or officially adopted by parties to the conflict.

General Finding 3. The implementation of gender-sensitive policies and legislation remains a significant challenge

- The Security Council should make reporting on SCR 1325 a requirement for Member States, and should put in place accountability provisions and enforcement mechanisms for compliance with SCR 1325 and 1820, including the recognition of high performers, and public scrutiny of underperformers.
- Member States should designate clear responsibility for WPS and SCR 1325 and 1820 at the highest levels of government; and establish an inter-ministerial implementation mechanism.
- Member States should also develop and approve a NAP on SCR 1325 and 1820 with civil society participation, and ensure that NAPs and all other policies on WPS have clear and realistic indicators and benchmarks.
- CSOs working on WPS should form partnerships with government, the UN and other stakeholders to jointly implement, monitor and evaluate NAPs and other WPS plans.
- Member States and CSOs should explore the use of other mechanisms such as NGO shadow reporting on CEDAW or government compliance reports on CEDAW to push for full and effective implementation of SCR 1325 and 1820.
- The UN should provide senior level effective attention to the implementation of 1325 within their respective jurisdictions and to support national, regional and global efforts in this regard.

General Finding 4. Rates of SGBV are often extremely high both during and after conflict, and impunity remains

- The UN should develop and implement criteria to determine when sexual violence should trigger action by the Security Council, in line with SCR 1820.
- Member States should fund and implement policies and programmes to prevent SGBV, including by reforming criminal and civil statutes inline with women's rights, fully implementing SGBV legislation, and addressing harmful social and gender norms.
- In particular, Member States should provide training for the security and justice sectors to enable them to investigate and prosecute SGBV cases. Judges should be trained on international legal norms and standards that create a legally binding obligation to protect the rights of women. Medical practitioners should also be given proper training and adequate resources and equipment to treat survivors of SGBV and collect forensic evidence.

General Finding 5. Major data gaps on WPS issues persist across all areas, especially with regards to SGBV

- Both Member States and CSOs should systematise and regularize the collection of sex-disaggregated data on WPS (including SGBV) as part of regular monitoring efforts, and make such data accessible for use by all stakeholders.
- Member States and UN entities should support the strengthening of data systems for WPS, including efforts by national statistics offices, gender-responsive budgeting processes, and SGBV data collection and management; this should include adequate financial support.
- Donors and Member States should support NGOs working to systematise and regularize the collection of sex-disaggregated data on WPS by providing funding and technical assistance.

General Finding 6. There is a lack of adequate funding for the implementation of SCR 1325 by governments and more especially by CSOs

- Member States should allocate adequate financial resources for NAPs and WPS programming, including by allocating specific funds to CSOs, and coordinating with statistics offices and ministries of finance to track budget allocations and spending on WPS.
- Member States, donors and multilateral organizations should make funding for SCR 1325 more transparent, to enable other stakeholders to access those funds and to be able to make sound recommendations on priorities for WPS spending.

General Finding 7. Women's civil society organizations play a key role in virtually every aspect of the implementation of SCR 1325, often through informal channels

- CSOs should hold governments to account on addressing women's particular needs and concerns in WPS processes, including the implementation of gender provisions in peace agreements. For example, collect and share data on WPS issues in the community, and conduct independent assessments on how SCR 1325 is implemented in each country.
- CSOs working on WPS should explore partnerships with non-traditional stakeholders such as the private sector to solicit their financial, expert services and in-kind support

to promote a business environment that supports peacebuilding and reconstruction processes.

- Strategic partnerships between women's CSOs and women in political parties and government must be cultivated and sustained. Collaboration based on mutual respect and equality between women's CSOs and women politicians should be encouraged and supported to inform the work of women in decision-making positions, to keep the women's agenda on the table and to amplify women's voices in demanding equality and empowerment.
- Member States, multilateral institutions and bilateral donors should partner with women's organizations to provide them with financial and technical assistance on WPS programming.

Annex 1. Micro Country Profiles: Women and Conflict⁸⁴



Afghanistan

Violent conflict in Afghanistan has been ongoing for over thirty years, and can be viewed as either a continuing internal clash of interests and values, or the central crux of a regional and international war of ideas, values and economic and security needs; it remains to be seen on what terms the warring parties will come to an agreement on the terms for peace. Taliban activities continue to harm and threaten civilians, as does the government's lack of resolve on protecting civilians from criminals and human rights violators. Insecurity, lack of jobs, and violence continue to promote a paradigm of life in Afghanistan that serves to keep the social fabric of the country weak.

Despite recent improvements, women still experience a lack of economic power, violence due to war and SGBV, inadequate access to education, and discriminatory cultural practices and attitudes. Women continue to face social or family restrictions on their right to work, to choose their spouses, or to continue their education. Women who do work face the threat of violence against themselves or their families.



Burundi

The history of Burundi is scarred by its long-term political conflict, with important ethnic dimensions. Tensions between the Hutu and the Tutsi gave way to massive killings particularly in 1965, 1972, 1988, and 1993; the crisis stemming from the assassination of the first democratically elected Hutu President in October 1993 lasted for over a decade with fighting among the transition government and multiple rebel groups. The Arusha Agreement for Peace and Reconciliation was signed in 2000, beginning Burundi's post-conflict phase. However, following the June 2010 re-election President Pierre Nkurunziza, a coalition of 12 opposition candidates contested the result, bringing a possibility of renewed conflict.

Rape during the war in Burundi was widespread, including child rape, and gang rape with intent to transmit HIV/AIDS, and including other forms of SGBV, such as forcing a widow to marry her brother-in-law. Women and girls were forced to participate in the conflict either as combatants, wives of combatants, cooks, or bearers of water and firewood. The war also forced many households to abandon their land to live in IDP camps, while others went into exile in neighboring countries, leading to continued food insecurity. The conflict shattered many stereotypes regarding men and women, and women have invested themselves strongly into peacebuilding activities.



Canada

Canada does not have a recent history of internal armed conflict. Matters of peace and security are dealt with as matters of foreign affairs, development assistance and defence, requiring a whole-of-government response coordinated by the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade. Canada is currently making modest contributions to United Nations Peace Operations and is maintaining a significant military presence in Afghanistan as part of the International Security Assistance Force.

Women in Canada have been involved in peacebuilding as part of numerous organizations for

peace, mediation, and non-violence at the national level, as well as internationally-oriented development and advocacy non-governmental organizations. Many peacebuilding NGOs are members of Peacebuild, the Canadian peacebuilding network, which has a Gender and Peacebuilding Working Group active in promoting the implementation of SCR 1325 and related resolutions. However, the recent de-funding of the Canadian Council for International Co-operation and of numerous women's organizations will make their continued engagement in conflict and peace issues more difficult. Canada also leads the international "Friends of Women, Peace and Security" group of country missions to the UN advocating for implementation of SCR 1325 and 1820 and the supporting resolutions 1888 and 1889.



The DRC has undergone multiple conflicts since 1960, stemming from economic conflicts over mining, land-related conflicts, political leadership struggles and legitimacy crises. Following 'Operation Turquoise' which the UN initiated as a humanitarian corridor after the 1994 Rwandan genocide, human rights violations were committed including sexual violence as a weapon of war. These conflicts have taken the lives of more than 5 million Congolese men, women and children and caused massive displacement of

the population. Despite numerous peace agreements (Lusaka 1999, Sun City 2002, Nairobi 2007, Goma 2009), the DRC has never experienced true peace. Today, the DRC is making attempts to restore peace in the Eastern part of the country where militias perpetrate violence against civilians, mainly women and children.

During the conflicts, women have been dehumanized, their bodies used as a battlefield and sexual violence has been systematically used as a weapon of war. Consequently, women have been excluded, stigmatized and traumatized, deprived of their livelihoods and of access to health care and education – as evidenced by the increased female illiteracy rate, and increased infant and maternal mortality rate. Women have found themselves in new roles as household heads due to the conflict, which has fueled their ambitions for increased participation in public and political spheres.



Since 1987, Fiji's racial and political tensions have been a constant source of instability and international isolation. Fiji has witnessed four coups since its independence in 1970, resulting mainly from tensions and power struggles. The most recent coup was in 2006, where the government was ousted by the military due to deadlock between the coup leader Commodore Frank Bainimarama and Prime Minister Laisenia Qarase.

Fiji's history of coups, unelected government and the current illegal regime have added a layer of complexity to the issue of women's participation in processes relating to the state. Since 1987, following each military or civilian coup women have responded actively, calling for respect for the rule of law and human rights. Women were detained in 1987 and women human rights activists in particular were detained and suffered at the hands of the military following the takeover in 2006. The more vulnerable members of society have been subjected to extreme degrading treatment and torture, including of a sexual nature. Women have documented events, spoken out on human rights abuses and have also been involved in ongoing lobbying and advocacy especially for a formal and mediated dialogue process.



Nepal

The ten-year insurgency in Nepal, launched in 1996, reached formal conclusion when the Government of Nepal and the Maoists signed the Comprehensive Peace Accord (CPA) in 2006. Structural inequality, exclusion and discrimination, concentration and abuse of power and poverty were key factors behind the insurgency. The damage to life, and infrastructure was unparalleled, with more than 13,000 men, women and children estimated to have died. Many of the expectations following the CPA have not been fulfilled, including power sharing, security sector restructuring, peace dividends, and addressing root causes of conflict and transitional security and justice. These combined with deteriorating rule of law and increasing impunity mean that Nepal is currently in a fragile transition phase.

The armed conflict was deeply gendered. Girls and women were overburdened with responsibilities, as they became household heads and took up work traditionally restricted to men. Their health was threatened by inequitable food distribution, educational opportunities for girls diminished, and abduction, torture, and SGBV by both warring sides became widespread. To date, there is no accountability for the thousands of crimes of SGBV and other human rights abuses committed during the insurgency, which continues in localized areas. Nevertheless, the changing roles of women's empowerment have been accelerated by conflict, such as involvement in non-traditional roles and increased decision-making power.



The Netherlands

On a national level, the Netherlands has not been involved in armed conflict since 1945. The Netherlands takes part in UN, NATO and EU missions in international conflicts, such as facilitating reconstruction in Afghanistan. The Netherlands also engages in Security Sector reform and is a core donor of the Multi-Country Demobilization and Reintegration Programme in the African Great Lakes region. Various ministries deal with peace and security issues, including, as signatories to the NAP, the ministries of Defence, Education, Culture and Science, the Interior and Kingdom Relations and of Foreign Affairs.

The NAP 1325 Working Group advocates for women to be involved at all phases of peacebuilding and for all policies relating to conflict-prevention, resolution and post-conflict development to include a gender perspective – as well as contributing to the implementation of the NAP within their own work. The Dutch gender platform WO=MEN also has an NGO Working Group on SCR 1325, an achievement of which was the signing of resolution 'Motie Diks', requesting the government to include a paragraph on the situation of women's security, health, education and rights in the reported country in all relevant 'state-of-affairs' letters to Parliament. The group also encourages more countries to develop NAPs and to improve the implementation of existing NAPs.



The Philippines

Armed conflicts have persisted in the Philippines since the 1960s, including conflict between the government and the Communist Party of the Philippines, and the Bangsamoro armed struggle in Southern Philippines. More than 40,000 people have died and millions of people have been displaced. Many of the conflicts have been resource-based, with other causal factors including political rivalry rooted in powerful political dynasties, poverty, lack of education and lack of basic social services. Armed conflicts are also fueled by experiences of discrimination

and marginalization by minority groups including indigenous peoples, the Moros and women. In some regions, clan wars, syndicated armed groups and youth gangs are aggravating the situation of violence, exacerbated by the widespread availability of weapons.

Women have experienced violence including harassment and rape. The breakdown of law and order has also resulted in increased SGBV due to the culture of impunity. Women have been active in addressing peace and conflict issues in the Philippines. They serve as negotiators and mediators between and among parties in conflict, and play diverse roles as healers, reconcilers, evacuation center managers, and relief operations coordinators. Such roles if recognized and expanded can make a significant impact in the building of a culture of peace in larger areas of human interaction beyond the local community.



Having emerged from the 1994 genocide and its devastating effects, Rwanda has since moved on as a progressive post-conflict country with notable development initiatives that have played a leading role in peacebuilding and reconciliation. The country however remains stalked by threat of conflict by the rebel Democratic Liberation Forces of Rwanda (FDLR) composed of militia and elements of the former regime's Forces Armees Rwandaises operating from eastern DRC. These tensions led to conflict in 1996-1998, resulting in the Lusaka Peace Agreement of 1999. Within Rwanda, however, the most defining issue of conflict currently is the continued perception of difference between Rwandans (Hutu, Tutsi and Twa), which remain a source of potential conflict in Rwanda given their history and negative psychosocial entrenchment. Ensuring unity and reconciliation therefore remains key to the national agenda.

The Rwandan genocide saw many women raped, in addition to a large number of them being left widowed. The women had to contend with negative traditional customs in the aftermath of the genocide, in addition to having little or no means to earn an income. Rates of SGBV remain high. Women have been involved in not only in ending the conflict with insurgents beginning 1997, but also in peacebuilding initiatives and reconciliation programs run by the National Unity and Reconciliation Commission.



Armed conflict erupted in Sierra Leone in 1991, and raged until 1999 when the Lome peace talks achieved a ceasefire agreement between then rebel Revolutionary United Front of Sierra Leone and the Government of Sierra Leone. The causes of the civil war are embedded in governance policies that promoted land disputes, encouraged corruption, non-accountability, inequality and discrimination especially against women, in addition to the geopolitical maneuvers for diamond wealth. Since the 1999 Lome Peace

Accord and the symbolic burning of arms in the 2002 DDR process, Sierra Leone has been in a post conflict and developmental phase, working towards sustainable peace consolidation.

Civilians, especially women and children, bore the brunt of the violent conflict resulting in physical, social, psychological and economic harm. Women were subjected to all forms of brutality, especially SGBV, which continues today against women and girls as young as a few months old. The justice system has failed to address these concerns by failing to punish perpetrators. The women's movement is advocating for legal and policy frameworks that can more effectively engender the peace consolidation and peacebuilding process. Since the

adoption of SCR 1325, women's civil society groups have focused on policy advocacy, awareness raising and community mobilization, to lobby and advocate for its full implementation.



Since independence in 1962, Uganda has experienced civil strife through political instability and military coups. The longest and most devastating conflict is the insurgency that started in 1988 in northern Uganda, mounted by the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) against the National Resistance Movement (NRM) Government. Although combat ceased following the 2006 Juba peace talks, rebel leader Joseph Kony refused to sign the Peace Agreement; hence while the current phase is "post-conflict", the likelihood of hostilities erupting again is always present. Western Uganda also experienced armed conflict from 2002 to 2007 as a result of activities by Ugandan and Congolese rebel forces. The root causes of the conflicts include regional and ethnic discrimination, lack of national identity, a culture of violence, and insecurity.

These conflicts resulted in the destruction of Uganda's social, cultural, economic and political infrastructure. The absence of security impacted primarily on women and girls, who were subjected to rape, torture, and sex slavery, and continue to suffer trauma and stigma as they are shunned by their spouses and communities. It was nonetheless the women that kept the communities together, and worked tirelessly for peace, including through the influential Women's Peace Coalition; through such organizing, women have worked to counteract barriers to their participation in leadership, in peacebuilding and in conflict transformation.

Notes

¹ Beetham, Gwendolyn and Nicola Popovic (2009) 'Putting policy into practice: Monitoring the implementation of UN Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security - A FOKUS and UN-INSTRAW Background Paper', Fokus and UN-INSTRAW, p. 7.

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