Women Count
Security Council Resolution 1325:
Civil Society Monitoring Report
2011

A project of the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders
“All peace and security advocates – both individually and as part of organizational work - should read the 2011 civil society monitoring report on Resolution 1325! It guides us to where we should focus our efforts and resources to ensure women’s equal participation in all peace processes and at all decision-making levels, thereby achieving sustainable peace.” – Ambassador Anwarul K. Chowdhury, Former Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations and President of the Security Council in March 2000

“The 2011 Women Count: Security Council Resolution 1325 Civil Society Monitoring Report uses locally acceptable and applicable indicators to assess progress in the implementation of Resolution 1325 at the country and community levels. The findings and recommendations compel us to reflect on what has been achieved thus far and strategize on making the implementation a reality in places that matters. Congratulations to GNWP-ICAN on this outstanding initiative!” – Leymah Gbowee, 2011 Nobel Peace Prize Laureate

“The civil society monitoring report on Resolution 1325 is an invaluable reference that all peace and security advocates should read. It tells us what have been the gains in implementation; what are the gaps and challenges; and how governments, civil society, the UN and the private sector can work together to achieve long lasting peace. Congratulations to GNWP-ICAN on this project!” – Catherine Mobobo, former Member of Parliament of the Republic of Burundi; Vice Chair of the National Steering Committee on Burundi’s National Action Plan on SCR 1325.

“Hooray to GNWP for bringing us the data, gathered by women on the ground, while so many are saying we need data. Here is the evidence of what happens when SC Res 1325 on Women and Peace and Security is implemented. Here is what is still needed for proper implementation. Here is a beautifully presented, thoroughly documented accounting of what is happening to a resolution that came from the grass roots, was vetted by the grass roots and was lobbied for by women for unanimous adoption by the Security Council. It is the foundational resolution calling for the Participation of women at all levels of decision making. Here is what is still needed for proper implementation: here is the evidence of what happens when SC Res 1325 and Women and Peace and Security is implemented. Here is a beautifully presented, thoroughly documented accounting of what is happening to a resolution that came from the grass roots, was vetted by the grass roots and was lobbied for by women for unanimous adoption by the Security Council. It is the foundational resolution calling for the Participation of women at all levels of decision making; for Protection of women during armed conflict and for the Prevention of violence. Three cheers to the women of the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders for their careful, detailed work. They have done this because of their passionate need to have 1325 fully implemented so they and their families can enjoy a culture of peace.” – Cora Weiss, President, Hague Appeal for Peace

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Acronyms

AIHRC  Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission
AL  Arab League
AU  African Union
AUC  United Self-Defence Forces of Colombia
ASEAN  Association of South East Asian Nations
CEDAW  Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CEWIGO  Centre for Women in Governance (Uganda)
CSO  Civil Society Organisation
DDR  Demobilisation, Disarmament and Reintegration
DFAIT  Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (Government of Canada)
DRC  Democratic Republic of the Congo
DWID  Department of Social Welfare and Development
ELN  National Liberation Army (Colombia)
EU  European Union
FARC  Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia
GNWP  Global Network of Women Peacebuilders
GAPS  Gender Action for Peace and Security (UK)
GRB  Gender responsive budgeting
ICAN  International Civil society Action Network
ICC  International Criminal Court
ISAF  International Stabilisation and Assistance Force in Afghanistan
IWDA  International Women’s Development Agency
MILF  Moro Islamic Liberation Front (Philippines)
MIT  Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MS  Member States (of the United Nations)
NAP  National Action Plan on SCR 1325
NDF  National Democratic Front (Philippines)
NATO  North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NGO  Non Governmental Organisation
OAS  Organisation of American States
OECD  Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OPAPP  Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process (Philippines)
PCW  Philippines Commission on Women
PKF  Peace keeping force
RCMP  Royal Canadian Mounted Police
SCR  Security Council Resolution (United Nations)
SGBV  Sexual and gender based violence
TRC  Truth and reconciliation commission
UN  United Nations

UNFPA  United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF  United Nations Children’s Fund
UNMIL  United Nations Mission in Liberia
UNSCR  United Nations Security Council Resolution
UNSG  United Nations Secretary General
UNW  UN Women
WIGJ  Women's Initiatives for Gender Justice
WPLA  Women Priority Legislative Agenda
WPS  Women and peace and security

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Executive Summary

1. Introduction

A year has passed since the much-celebrated tenth anniversary of the pioneering United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (SCR 1325) on Women and Peace and Security.

As last year’s report concluded, much progress was made in 1325’s first decade, especially in view of how neglected the issue was until then. However, while the rhetoric used at the global policy level, and to some extent below, demonstrated a truly positive turnaround in terms of women and, peace and security issues, there were too many serious implementation gaps to be able to hail the decade as one of unqualified success. One element of the constructive criticisms offered at the many anniversary events was the need to address the identified ‘accountability gap’, which noted that mechanisms to monitor and evaluate implementation of 1325 and its accompanying resolutions SCRs 1820, 1888, 1889 and 1960 at global, regional and national level were still lacking.

As part of a response to this, and in pursuit of its mission to bridge the gap between policy discussions and implementation and action on the ground on women and peace and security issues, the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP) which brings together 55 women’s organisations and networks working on peace and security across the world, initiated a process which would:

- Build capacity amongst civil society, especially women’s civil society, to conduct effective monitoring of policy implementation;
- Support effective implementation of SCR 1325, particularly at the national level;
- Provide a global ‘snapshot’ of the status of SCR 1325 implementation, which would be enriched by being built up over time; and
- Bolster Member State (MS) accountability in a range of ways/fora, and which go beyond the UN’s mandates.

2010 was the first year of this initiative. The 2010 monitoring exercise “Women Count” provided an initial baseline for what is intended as a rolling and expanding effort for civil society to contribute the best of its monitoring and analytical capacity to the global movement to scrutinize the implementation of an international norm which has found no lack of supporters in theory but a series of obstacles in practice. The report is recognized as making a unique contribution to the discourse, bringing fresh data from the field, and using a vivid civil society perspective.

This year’s report covers 12 countries from GNWP’s network, 9 of which participated last year, and 4 of which are participating for the first time this year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2010 report participants</th>
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<th>National Action Plan (NAP) in force in 2011?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Burundi</td>
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<td>Canada</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Colombia</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
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Restraints of time, capacity and resources prevented three of the 2010 contributors from continuing with the project in 2011: Fiji, Rwanda and Sierra Leone. It should be a priority to seek adequate funding for GNWP to support and facilitate all 15 countries which have already been involved in the project to continue their involvement, and ideally to spread the pool further to increase the depth and richness of the evaluation in future years.

a. Research methodology and report structure

Participating countries used a mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches, including primary document review from official and public sources, interview, questionnaire/survey and focus group discussions based on the agreed 16 indicators to establish their data and analysis.

This report offers an overview of emerging trends and data/analysis gaps emerging from the research, followed by more in-depth analysis around each indicator. While the process cannot claim to be comprehensive or fully statistically consistent, it offers a unique global snapshot which enables instructive and often counter-intuitive comparisons between for example, developed nations and those emerging from decades of war. As the second annual civil society reporting on SCR 1325 implementation, positive and negative changes from the baseline established in 2010 start to emerge, and each new country that joins the project enriches the picture.

There are 16 indicators in all (listed below), which were developed by GNWP members as the result of a workshop in February 2010 as the most relevant for identifying strengths and weaknesses in 1325 implementation processes. These indicators reflect those developed by the UN but were developed from a specifically civil society perspective to allow meaningful but practicable data collection across a diverse range of country situations and a broad spectrum of capacity with regards to data gathering and analysis. Participating countries have not provided data on every single indicator either because it does not apply to them (as is the case in non-conflict countries) or because of challenges in data collection; however, these gaps are duly noted and the analysis and recommendations reflect the nature of the data collection across a wide range of contexts.

Burundi and Nepal both contributed data and analysis to a sub-indicator (7a) on access to services for survivors of SGBV, as part of a specific effort to build a more holistic picture of SGBV specific service provision in post-conflict countries.

The final indicator regarding the women’s representation as peace-builders and decision-makers in media content was dropped in 2010 due to lack of data. However, as GNWP member organisations identified this as a major gap in last year’s research, and in women, peace and security research and policy analysis in general it was reinstated for 2011.
2. Implementation of SCR 1325: key findings and recommendations

The findings of 2011 do not differ in large part from those of 2010, revealing limited progress since last year. While many of the 2010 findings and recommendations therefore still stand, the 2011 report offers specific emphases and new insights, shedding fresh light on the implementation challenges.

GNWP proposes the following set of recommendations (detailed at the end of the report), linked to each of the seven general findings from the in-country research:

General Finding 1: Progress is being made in spreading an understanding of the gender dimensions of conflict and peace building at the official levels, national and global, but this progress is slow, uneven and needs more resources and support.

- UN Member States to provide more gender sensitive training which integrates SCR 1325 and the supporting WPS resolutions for key government, military and peacekeeping staff.
- UN Member States to promote and provide leadership on the integration of gender and peace modules into formal and informal training and education curricula, using SCR 1325 and the supporting resolutions.
- The design of assistance in conflict resolution, peace building and reconstruction must be gendered from the outset using SCR 1325 and the supporting resolutions.

General Finding 2: While every inch gained is impressive, institutions still have miles to go in terms of achieving women's meaningful participation in governance and in the institutions of the security sector/rule of law. This has direct knock-on effects on women's participation in formal conflict resolution and peace building structures.

- The UN and other peace making actors must provide visible leadership, and training, finance and other support (e.g. logistical) to enable women to participate, and apply a 'zero tolerance' policy to processes which do not include women or gendered perspectives.
- Member States should support women's participation in the governance and security sectors by continuing to address the obstacles that are already known, dedicating specific funds for these purposes, and ensuring accountability for this is placed at a high level in government.
- Where official peace negotiations cannot be pursued, the UN, Member States and other actors with a role to play (mediation CSOs etc.) should support informal dialogue and mediation processes with the full and equal participation of women, pushing for agreements which integrate women's rights.
- Regional organisations should improve their performance by fully implementing existing WPS policy (EU, AU) or revising it where it is weak or non-existent (AL, OAS, ASEAN).
- Such processes should also be properly documented and disseminated to ensure the knowledge base on CSO and women's inclusion is enhanced and better known to improve practice in the sector.

General Finding 3: There is still an important implementation gap in terms of gender responsive laws and policies, including National Action Plans (NAPs) on SCR 1325. The number of such laws and policies continues to increase, but the rate at which they are implemented does not. The place where the responsibility to implement the NAP is located in the government architecture, and the capacity and political clout of lead implementing agency/ies are as significant as the funding and indicators that it has.

- The Security Council should require mandatory reporting against SCR 1325, 1820 and the supporting WPS resolutions including specific national commitments to enhance accountability.
- Member States should ensure that their NAP (or other WPS policy commitments) are properly resourced and planned, with the mechanisms for their implementation placed at a high level in government with clear accountability mechanisms.
- Member States must work with civil society in developing, implementing and monitoring their NAPs.
- CSOs working on WPS should continue to increase their partnerships with governments, UN and other CSOs, and if possible non-traditional partners (for example private sector actors with an influence in the environment where the CSOs operate) to implement, monitor and evaluate NAPs and other WPS plans.
- The UN SG and Head of UN Women, as well as leaders in Member States should continue to place the highest priority on issues of women's leadership and participation in terms of WPS.

General Finding 4: Rates of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) remain extremely high, especially in areas of conflict and post-conflict; impunity is rampant. Conflict-related SGBV against men is a neglected area.

- The UN SC should ensure the provision of SCR 1325 and the supporting resolutions are implemented in practice and that there is an accountability mechanism which is consistently used.
- Member States should fund and lead efforts to improve the quality of data collected and reinforce the implementation of national and international laws with regard to the prevention and access to justice for SGBV crimes against women, girls, men and boys.
- Member States should fund and lead efforts to provide relevant health care services to survivors of SGBV including training of health care personnel to handle SGBV cases.
- Member States should provide further training for all aspects of the security sector in the handling of SGBV cases.
- Media organisations covering conflict should be extremely careful about the statistic for SGBV that they use and their corresponding analysis and reporting; Member States should look for opportunities to fund media/information CSOs which can support local media, research and SGBV organisations to conduct better reporting, research and analysis on this issue in all its aspects.

- General Finding 5: Major data gaps on women and peace and security (WPS) persist across all areas, but especially on SGBV. Data collection practices are weak, leading to unreliable analysis (again, especially on SGBV); sex-disaggregated data is still the exception rather than the rule.
- Member States should fulfil their Paris Declaration/Accra Agenda for Action commitments to systematize, improve and publish their funding on WPS, including SGBV to all stakeholders.
- Member States, donors and UN agencies should support national level institutions to better data collection for WPS and in particular SGBV.
- Members States, donors and UN agencies should support CSO efforts to support the systematisation and improvement of data collection and dissemination by providing funding and technical support.
• All actors should systematically use and request data of any kind to be sex-disaggregated.

**General Finding 6:** Funding for civil society actors on WPS at all levels remains meagre; donors privilege ‘project or programme’ funding over ‘core’ funding, obliging CSOs to waste energy in scrambling for funds rather than in front line, timely and sustained research, advocacy and programming.

- Member States and donors should increase funding to CSOs including women’s groups on WPS, including reasonable core and institutional development support.
- International CSOs should work more closely with national level partners to create partnerships which allow for greater proportion of available WPS funding to flow both to CSOs, and closer to the ground.
- Member States and donors should increase resources for evaluation, documentation and dissemination for their own programmes and those of CSOs including women’s groups.
- CSOs including women’s groups must make efforts to seek synergies and minimize competition between them to help strengthen advocacy messages and positions; this should be supported by a more open and reasonable funding environment.
- Member States and donors should provide increased funding and technical support to CSOs including women’s groups to produce technical inputs to conflict resolution, peace building and reconstruction processes which are of high quality and technical relevance.
- Members States and donors should fund and support regional networking and cooperation amongst CSOs to strengthen lesson learning and constructive advocacy on WPS.

**General Finding 7:** Funding allocated by donor countries to post conflict countries on WPS is not transparently tracked; donors are not meeting their commitments neither in their assistance, peace and security strategies or NAPs, nor in terms of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness/Accra Agenda for Action in this sector.

- Member States and Donors should fulfil their Paris Declaration/Accra Agenda for Action commitments and linking it to their NAPs/WPS policies. This should include increasing their contributions on WPS, earmarking, tracking and disseminating their allocations and impacts.
- Member States should devote high level attention and resources to implementing and evaluating their NAPs and other WPS strategies.

1. **Introduction**

1.1 **Snapshot of SCR 1325 + 11**

As the 2010 report concluded, much progress was made in SCR 1325’s first decade, especially in view of how neglected the issue had been up until then. However, while the rhetoric used at the global policy level, and to some extent below, demonstrated a truly positive turnaround in terms of women, peace and security issues, too many implementation gaps remained to be able to hail the decade as one of unqualified success.

There has been considerable bureaucratic progress (for example the appointment of gender advisors and focal points across national ministries and international organisations, a proliferation of gender mainstreaming policies and toolkits, the increasingly commonplace mention of gender issues, issues in peacemaking and peace building mission, missus and operational plans), but less verifiable impact ‘on the ground’. There are still no more women than there were in leadership positions or in the military, or evidence of increasingly gendered perspectives in high level conflict resolution. The persistent prevalence of SGBV, and, worse, related impunity for the vast proportion of such crimes, remains a stain upon our global conscience.

1.1.1 **Selected Events**

The award of the 2011 Nobel Peace Prize to three African women (Ellen Johnson Sirleaf and Leymah Gbowee of Liberia and Tawakkul Karman of Yemen) put SCR 1325 rightfully at centre stage of international affairs. It finally accorded women in general, as well as these three women in particular, the place in the global peacemaking spotlight that they have long been denied. This has further validated the requirements of SCR 1325, and made it even more impossible for Member States (MS) to ignore.

This positive news was timely: throughout the year, women from civil society across the Arab world had played vital roles as activists and strategists in the dramatic democratizing upheavals across that region; but yet they are still struggling to make institutions include them in the vital processes of transition and democratization for the future. For example, there are no women on the commission which is rewriting the Egyptian constitution; and the new Libyan National Transitional Council has but one woman member in a 43-strong council (as Minister for Women). In none of these cases has a dedicated senior female envoy or mediator been deployed by an international or regional organisation.

1.1.2 **Selected Institutional Developments**

In terms of developments in the last year, a further UN resolution has been passed, adding SCR 1960 to 1820, 1888 and 1889. The newly re-endorsed UN Secretary General, the EU High Representative Baroness Ashton and US Secretary of State Hillary Clinton are amongst the high profile public servants who have continued to be vocal on these issues.
The year saw the historic inauguration of the United Nations Entity for Women – UN Women (UNW) – under the leadership of the staunch gender equality champion Michele Bachelet of Chile. UNW produced its first report on women’s access to justice which contains, alongside useful case data and analysis, tables showing countries’ accession to the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the reservations that they have, and domestic legislation on relevant issues such as SGBV, marriage, property, and citizenship. This provides a vital basis for understanding the legislative status of women and their rights for those pursuing the women and peace and security agenda in each country.

In other positive advances:

- The United States has committed to the task of producing its own National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security before the end of 2011;
- September saw the UN General Assembly opened for the first time by a female president, Dilma Rousseff of Brazil;
- The European Union (EU) managed to produce its first monitoring report of its own implementation of 1325 in May 2011, under its own Comprehensive approach to the EU implementation of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 (2008) and using its own set of indicators;
- The first set of three sets of UN indicators is due to be reported on by the end of 2011 in the Secretary General’s Report on women and peace and security;
- UNIFEM also issued in August 2010 the first state-of-the-art reference report on Women’s Participation in Peace Negotiations: Connections between Presence and Influence filling an important reference gap in the field;
- Cordaid and GNWP published a ground-breaking study “Costing and Financing 1325” which highlights the extreme complexity of the funding landscape for women and peace and security issues at all levels. Two of its key recommendations were to recognize the capacity of civil society to facilitate and manage funds for 1325 implementation and explore partnerships with the private sector; and establish a transparent and inclusive financial management platform for 1325 implementation composed of donors, governments, civil society, private sector and multi-lateral organizations including the UN. The second recommendation is now being piloted in Burundi.

All this, even though it is selective, clearly points to the fact that 1325 at 11 years old is more relevant and vital than ever, both as standard setter and tool to create a world that is more peaceful and more equal – for everyone.

1.2 News from the accountability front

Last year’s report documented a number of efforts to increase accountability for 1325, which are all essentially ongoing:

**The UN indicators:**

These were developed at the request of Security Council resolution 1889 (2009, OP 17) by an interagency working group established specifically for this purpose, and presented to the Security Council in April 2010 (S/2010/173) and in October 2010 (S/2010/498). The Security Council, in its presidential statement (S/PRST/2010/22) supported taking forward the indicators and encouraged member states to take the indicators into account, as appropriate, in implementing SC resolution 1325 (2000) and subsequent resolutions on women and peace and security. The set of indicators is currently clustered to enable monitoring of four key women, peace and security goals (prevention, participation, protection, and relief and recovery), aligning therefore with the strategic framework on women peace and security currently under development.

At the UN level, the development of the indicators has been a step towards fostering more concerted and coordinated action, and should improve UN Entities’ accountability on women and peace and security issues.

**UN Indicator 3 Phase Reporting Timeline**

1. The UN will start reporting October 2011 on one third of the indicators, mainly those referring to UN implementation. The intention is to use existing data produced and agreed upon in other inter-governmental forums in order to provide a proper context for each situation in the Council’s agenda.

2. In October 2012, reporting is due on the second tranche of indicators. These are the indicators for which further coordination is needed within the UN, to harmonize reporting systems. This applies for instance to use of a gender budget marker to show amounts allocated to gender equality in peace building or reporting on programmes supported by the UN at the country level on Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR), reparations, temporary employment and economic recovery.

3. There is a final set of indicators for Member State voluntary reporting, including data such as numbers of women in justice, security and foreign sector at the country level. For these, UN Entities will develop guidance (by 2013) and provide technical support on request, at the country level.

**Other regional/international organizations**

Mirroring the request for the indicators by the Security Council in resolution 1889, other international organizations such as the EU and NATO have developed/are developing indicators related to implementation of SCR 1325. During 2011 the EU made its first monitoring report against its indicators. This echoed the trend of showing important bureaucratic progress, but so far less visible impact on the ground. NATO has developed a full policy for the implementation of SCR 1325 in six aspects: 1) mainstreaming UNSCR 1325 in policies, programmes and documentation; 2) cooperating with international organizations, non-governmental organizations and civil society; 3) operations; 4) education and training; 5) public diplomacy; and 6) national initiatives; it has already deployed a number of Gender Advisers and submitted its first 1325 implementation report in 2010 to the NATO 24th Summit in Lisbon. The African Union has strongly committed to SCR 1325 since 2004 through the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (amongst other legal instruments), but no official reporting has been issued, nor any female mediator/special envoy or representative deployed. No progress has been reported from other regional organisations like ASEAN, Organisation of American States (OAS) and the Arab League (AL).

**UN Members States**

At the national level, Member States can, in theory and on a voluntary basis report on relevant indicators to improve their own implementation of women and peace and security resolutions. Member States with National Action Plans on women peace and security may be interested in adapting this set of indicators to their own circumstances and reporting systems. So far no Member State has taken advantage of this opportunity though the Netherlands and Canada are due to produce their first NAP monitoring reports in 2011 and 2012 respectively.

**Non governmental initiatives**

In addition there are a number of well-established organisations working at the local, national, regional and global policy level to provide research, analysis, policy advocacy and training for 1325 implementation, and monitoring and evaluation, many of whom are members of collaborators with GNWP.
GNWP indicators
GNWP members developed and selected their own 16 indicators at a workshop in February 2010. They designed them as the most relevant for identifying strengths and weaknesses in 1325 implementation processes at the national level. These indicators reflect for the large part those developed by the UN but were developed from a specifically civil society perspective in order to allow meaningful but practicable data collection across a very diverse range of country situations and a broad spectrum of capacity with regards to data gathering and analysis.

1.3 GNWP monitoring project

The Global Network of Women Peacebuilders is a programme partner of the International Civil Society Action Network (ICAN), founded in 2009, and already well established as a key advocacy platform on women and peace and security at the global level in New York. Currently it has 55 member organisations (a 20% increase on 2010) comprising women's groups and organisations across Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Europe, Latin America and West Asia. Many members are themselves networks of national or local groups creating a multiplier many-tiered effect to GNWP’s reach. The members are peace activists who understand the vital role that global policies play, and thus are deeply committed to influence policy discussion and decision making in their area of expertise and to ensure the meaningful participation of women in peacekeeping, peacemaking and peacebuilding. Their work is focussed at national, regional and global levels, through research, lobbying, advocacy and campaigning work. They use 1325, 1820, 1889 and 1960, alongside regional and national frameworks based on these resolutions (where they exist), as their policy reference to advocate for:

- Women’s representation and participation at all levels of decision-making on peace and security;
- Protection of the rights of women and girls;
- Prevention of conflict;
- Prevention of sexual and gender based violence;
- Promotion of justice, accountability and adequate service provision for victims in relation to sexual and gender based violence.

GNWP has built up its network and collective advocacy strength and reputation over a short but intense 2.5 year period, and is now regarded as a credible and influential player in global policy spheres on women and peace and security, especially at the UN. A major reason for this is that its work is deeply rooted in constant on-the-ground interactions with women’s organisations in conflict situations. Operating from a commitment to building networks, coalitions and shared platforms in order to strengthen women’s voices on issues of key concern to them, GNWP finds itself powerfully networked amongst the other leading organisations who are working to support implementation, evaluate impact and hold duty bearers to account on their commitments to uphold 1325.

For this reason, GNWP is well placed to lead this in-country and global monitoring exercise. The project is generously supported by the Government of Canada (DFAIT), CORDAID, UNFPA and UN Women.

1.4 GNWP Indicators

Participation
Indicator 1: Index of women’s participation in governance (% of women in senior positions in parliament, cabinet/council of ministers and local governance)
Indicator 2: Percentage of women in peace negotiation teams
Indicator 3: Index of women’s participation in the justice and security sectors (% of women in the military, police and judiciary at all levels)

Indicator 4: Percentage of women in peacekeeping missions, disaggregated at all levels
Indicator 5: Number and percentage of women participating in each type of constitutional or legislative review
Indicator 6: Percentage of civil society organisations in Task Forces on SCRs 1325, 1820 (out of total Task Force members)

Prevention and Protection
Indicator 7: Number of sexual and gender-based violence cases reported, and percentage investigated, referred, prosecuted, and penalized (out of total reported)
Indicator 7a: Access of women and girl survivors of SGBV to relevant health services in select districts/provinces (This is a special ‘snapshot within a snapshot’ indicator included only for Burundi and Nepal)
Indicator 8: Number and quality of gender responsive 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
Indicator 10: Extent to which gender and peace education are integrated in the curriculum of formal and informal education
Indicator 11: Percentage of women (versus men) receiving economic packages as part of conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

Promotion of a gender perspective
Indicator 12: Detailed breakdown of gender issues addressed in peace agreements
Indicator 13: Number and percentage of pre- and post-deployment programmes for military and police incorporating SCRs 1325, 1820, international human rights instruments and international humanitarian law
Indicator 14: Allocated and disbursed funding to civil society organisations (including women’s groups) marked for women, peace and security programmes and projects
Indicator 15: Allocated and disbursed funding to governments marked for women, peace and security programmes and projects
Indicator 16: Percentage of women’s representation as peace-builders and decision-makers in media content
2. Implementation of SCR 1325: achievements and challenges

This section presents the data collected from across the 16 indicators, in so far as they were applicable and the capacity to collect and analyse was available within the timeframe. Thus the data covers the three major categories of participation, prevention and protection, and promotion of a gender perspective. The data is provided in summarized form with key commonalities, differences, insights and recommendations extracted from them.

The data is drawn from the in-country reports unless a specific end-note gives a further reference. For more detail on the data and sources, the country reports in full are presented as the second major part of this publication as In-country Civil Society Monitoring Reports. While GNWP strives for a common approach and format, it also pursues a light editing policy for the country reports in order to preserve the authentic voice and analysis of the civil society organisations which have prepared them.

2.1 Participation indicators

Meaningful participation of women in all the relevant processes and decisions lies at the core of gender-sensitive, sustainable peace building. The six indicators in this section aim to build up a picture of women's representation in decision-making across a range of relevant processes and structures in local, national and international governance, security sector management and international policy implementation.

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

Compel This indicator responds directly to the first paragraph of SCR 1325, addressing the positions women hold in parliament, cabinet and decision-making positions (mostly the highest positions) in local governance. These are taken as critical markers of women's participation in public life, and have particular relevance for peacemaking as it is often from the ranks of such officials that key actors in peace processes are drawn. Moreover, when women are visible as decision-makers, they are less vulnerable to sexual and other forms of violence against women.

Table 2: Summary of women’s participation in government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Cabinet</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>27.5% Wolesi Jirga/ Lower House</td>
<td>5.8% (1 minister)</td>
<td>3% (1 provincial governor of 34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>32% Lower House</td>
<td>42.8%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>24.7% Lower House</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>16% Upper House</td>
<td>9% Town Halls</td>
<td>14.5% Councils (all 2007-2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12% Lower House</td>
<td>30.74%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>10% Lower House</td>
<td>33.3% (cabinet)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>14% Lower House</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>40% Superintendents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>32% Constitutional Assembly</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>0% Chief District Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Lower House 39.3% Upper House</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>30.4% (“high-level positions”)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>31.2%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Lower House 36.6% Upper House 32.3%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>5.3% Presidents of Regional Governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>41.9% Councillors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>34.4%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>1.7% chairpersons of districts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There have not been significant changes since 2010, as this depends entirely on the timing of elections, cabinet reshuffling or other major changes in governments and hence the opportunity for the figures to change.

In the Philippines, where there were national elections in 2010, women made modest gains (increasing their positions by margins of 1-3% across the axes measured). In Burundi which also held elections, change was more markedly positive: UNDP is credited with ensuring women got their ID cards allowing them to vote, and the Independent Election Commission with paying strict attention to implementing the 30% quota. The result is some of the best representation in the world including the largest proportion of women in the Upper House in the world behind Bolivia. Colombia's elections did not result in significant gains for women, and it is listed 91st on the Interparliamentary Union’s listing of female parliamentary representation, lower than most of the countries in this study apart from DRC listed at 102nd place.

In Nepal women’s share of the Cabinet has fallen slightly from 11.6% to 7.6%, although they represent 20% of all ministerial posts and on average 17% in the central committees of the major political parties. While quotas have made space for women in Afghanistan’s lower and upper houses, in-country analysis points out that they are still culturally extremely constrained on the legislative issues they can safely raise and pursue, and lack capacity building support to enhance the quality of their engagement. In DRC the lack of high level female role models was cited as a key problem, alongside the poor image of political parties as compared to, for example civil society. Other constraining factors to
Women have made some significant strides in local government – for example in Canada where the percentage of heads of province went from 8% to 23%. It will be instructive to see if such trends have knock-on effects at higher levels in years to come. By contrast, for all the gains in other areas, women have almost no significant role whatsoever in local governance. A key reason for this may be because traditional beliefs tend to be more deeply entrenched in local areas, than in urban centres.

**A good practice from Sweden:**

According to the Discrimination Act (2008:567), employers have to conduct target-oriented work to actively promote the same rights and opportunities in the work regardless of sex, ethnicity or religion. The employer has, moreover, to establish an equality plan every third year, which also applies to the Government. In Government’s action plan, valid between 2009 and 2011, actions are taken in relation to gender equality, ethnic diversity and access for disabled persons.

Recognizing this, in Afghanistan a group of 20 women’s organisations travelled to each of the 34 provinces to discuss issues of SGBV and women’s participation in decision-making. This resulted in a resolution signed by all provincial governors to take practical steps to involve women in provincial level decision-making; crucially, however, the status and accountability for this mechanism are not yet clear.

**Indicator 2: Percentage of women in peace negotiation teams**

The importance of this indicator is to ensure not only women’s presence at critical peace negotiation tables, but also to help ensure that a gender perspective is reflected in the resulting documents (refer also to Indicator 12 below). This indicator refers to SCR 1325 paragraph 2, and aims to measure the presence of women in formal negotiating teams, sometimes referred to as “Track One” teams.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Formal peace negotiations/bodies</th>
<th>% women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Bonn Agreement (2001)</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Consultative Peace Jirga (2010)</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Peace Council (2011)</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Arusha Peace and Reconciliation Agreement for Burundi (2000)</td>
<td>2% (observers only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Government-FARC (1998-2002)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government-AUC</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government-ELN (2006-2007)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Sun City Agreement 2003</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Accra Comprehensive Peace Agreement (2003)</td>
<td>0% signatories 17% women witnesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Ceasefire Government of Nepal/Maoists (2003)</td>
<td>11% (1 woman)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive Peace Agreement (2006)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Government with Moro Islamic Liberation Front Panels (1996-2008)</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government with National Democratic Front Panels (2001-2010)</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government with Moro Islamic Liberation Front Panels (2011)</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government with National Democratic Front Panels (2011)</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Negotiations with Uganda National Rescue Front II (2002)</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Juba Peace Agreement (2008)</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This data is hard to access, especially while peace negotiations are ongoing or in the offing, making processes highly sensitive and political. Only Afghanistan and the Philippines have had new formal peace initiatives since 2010.

In Afghanistan, research suggests that even when women are present in bodies like the High Peace Council, it may be controversial as to how they were selected and what their credibility/constituency is. Women may be selected for nepotistic reasons, perhaps making their votes/views easier to control. This suggests it would be valuable to track further the kinds of women who make it into peace negotiations and political high positions to understand the extent to which culture, class, caste, clan, ethnicity, religion, level of education, socio-
economic status, and political affiliation etc. affect their chances to emerge in influential positions.

Apart from the challenges of getting across the threshold of positions of power as discussed under Indicator 1, there is also the question of the capacity and ‘space’ to engage meaningfully once women are in place. The Burundi report also points out that women themselves sometimes refuse to take the responsibility even when it is available to them. This can be linked to an observation from the DRC where CSO women said politics has ‘a bad reputation’ and that women choose civil society as a way to express their commitment to the public interest; as a result, there are few positive role models for women’s political leadership in the DRC. This reminds us what a vital, powerful source of leadership women in civil society can be, into which institutions should further tap.

Review of the evidence continues to prove the efficacy of women’s collective lobbying and advocacy for inclusion: in Liberia, successful advocacy resulted in 17% amongst the witnesses to the agreement, and the inclusion of some issues identified by women and civil society. For example, they demanded an immediate ceasefire, a bar on warring faction leadership in the transitional government, and immediate disarmament which takes into account the different needs of male and female combatants; Burundian women lobbied successfully not only to be able to observe the Arusha process, but also for the 30% parliamentary quota which is now in the constitution. It was also the case in Nepal that women’s advocacy led to greater inclusion in peace monitoring and peace building bodies such as the National Monitoring Committee, in which only two of the 31 members were women, and the Interim Constitution Drafting Committee, initially made up of six men and subsequently expanded after a campaign led by women’s organizations to include six women as representatives of the Dalit community.

The Philippines has traditionally seen higher levels of female participation, and the position of Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process is now, as it has been before, held by Teresita ‘Ging’ Deles, an experienced negotiator and mediator. While women’s representation on formal negotiation teams has not remained constant, the in-country report states that “more women are now being tapped to become part of technical panels and to serve as independent observers of on-going negotiations. Most of the members of the Secretariat in government negotiating teams are also women…” There are currently different spaces of engagement for women in the peace process such as network advocacy and local monitoring.

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

This indicator tracks the percentage of women’s participation in the key institutions comprising the rule of law in the state: the military, the police and the judiciary, and also addresses SCR 1325 paragraph 1.

Women’s participation in the military remains extremely low in all countries. The Philippines welcomed its first female general in its 114 years of history as an institution, Brigadier General Ramon Go. Burundi’s military saw the participation of women stay static at 0.5% despite its impressive gains elsewhere. In the DRC, the difficulties of physical living conditions in army camps (facilities, personal security issues) are only one amongst the many clearly gendered obstacles for women entering the military. Another includes increased vulnerability relating to marital status: despite adequate legal protection, women’s status as single or married may be called into question by their ‘dual’ duty to husbands outside the military, and the state to which their professional service is dedicated.

The lack of openness to provide data from the relevant ministries in Afghanistan is disappointing, particularly in view of the considerable, though complex and often doctrinally contested investment in Justice and Security Sector Reform by the donors in the last 10 years. However, it is not surprising in countries of conflict, that matters relating to national defence and security should be considered confidential or sensitive. Data could in future be sought from donors.

It is intriguing to note that female participation in the judicial sector, including in high level positions, continues to be considerably higher than in the other institutions covered, including at higher level positions. In Sweden, for example, 41% of directorial positions are held by women, and 44% of judges are women, or 52% in the Netherlands, and 35% in the Philippines and 20% in Burundi. In Uganda, Justice Julia Ssebutinde, heads the International Criminal Court (ICC) for the trial of former Liberian president Charles Taylor, and women’s enrolment in law school increases year by year. Decision-makers should reflect on what makes the judiciary comparatively more attractive to women, and the factors that enable women to flourish there, to establish if there are strategies or practices that can be used in other key institutions to promote women’s participation and leadership.

### Table 4: Summary of women’s participation in the justice and security sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Military % women</th>
<th>Police % women</th>
<th>Judiciary % women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>0.53% (2007)</td>
<td>1.38% (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>0.97%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>25% Council of State 11% Supreme Court 11% Constitutional Court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>1.32%</td>
<td>6% National Police 3.2% Armed Police</td>
<td>2.4% (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>9% Military 30% Civilian</td>
<td>22% Overall 32% Chief Officer</td>
<td>52% Judges 11.5% Court Presidents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>8.7% (2010)</td>
<td>3.8% Commanding Officers</td>
<td>35.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Data unavailable 6% officers</td>
<td>10.6% (National Police Corps) 48.5 (Civil Guard)</td>
<td>47.95% (total) 12.20% (magistrates of the Supreme Court) 65% (judges) 46% (magistrates).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>&gt;10% (data withheld)</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The government of Liberia has a policy of 20% representation of women in the security sector, which is clearly far from being achieved. It is not clear what specific strategies to achieve this would be, but it is clear that even in the presence of a strongly WPS-oriented head of government such as Ellen Johnson Sirleaf, such changes are not always easy and quick to make.

In police forces there is an increasing sense that women are well suited to specialized policing tasks especially with regard to SGBV: the 6th National Biennial Summit in the Philippines on Women in Policing in October 2010 recognized that female police officers help reduce police brutality, and better handle crimes such as domestic violence and rape.

In the Philippines, the Police Security and Protection Group (PSPG) of the national police force is female General Lina Sarmiento, the second female officer to become a national police general, wrote that "women bring a unique … style to policing due to their … ability to verbally de-escalate volatile situations. (They) have dramatically lower rates of the use of excessive force …and are likewise helpful in lowering the number of complaints from the citizens. Thus, almost all Philippines National Police stations prefer to have a female officer.”

Compared to the other security institutions, penal and other structures are making strikingly good progress. The Liberian Corrections Facilities, for example, has a 17% female staff, and with 30% female staff, the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization has the highest number of women employees in the security sector. Uganda’s figures suggest a potential mini-trend here with 26% of officers in the penal services as women. Perhaps the further women are from the front line of combat, the easier it is for them to progress.

A final note: advocates point out that vacancies are equality opportunities. As well as tracking positions filled, it is important to track vacancies. Where possible, civil society may be able to advocate for appropriate women to be appointed to such positions.

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

Closely linked to Indicator 3, this indicator tracks the percentage of women deployed on peacekeeping missions to third countries. It refers normally to UN peacekeeping activities, though others are included such as AU and EU missions, and responds to paragraph 4 of SCR 1325.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Individual police</th>
<th>Experts</th>
<th>Contingent troops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% women</td>
<td>% women</td>
<td>% women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>50% (1 out of 2 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>20% (2011)</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: percentage of women in peacekeeping missions

The participating countries represent a mix of troop contributors and non-troop contributors, who often play host to large numbers of peacekeeping troops from elsewhere. In general, women are represented at even lower levels than in their national militaries apart from Sweden where the proportion of female peacekeepers is more than twice that in the regular national army.

If Sweden is providing a model for national armies or other peacekeepers, other peacekeeping forces fail to do so. For example, in Liberia, the UN peacekeeping force UNMIL’s troops break down as follows: out of 130 Military Experts, only 3 are female (2%), and 204 of the 7,782 troops are women (2.6%). Out of 445 individual police, 58 are women (13%), and out of 843 staff in formed police units, 127 are women (15%)². In terms of peacekeeping forces providing a ‘model’ for national armies, this is not particularly encouraging.

Liberia also hosts the all-female UN police unit deployed from India, which has received a great deal of international attention since their deployment in 2007. It is difficult to evaluate the full impact of this force as there does not appear to be a formal study available. However, members of the police unit and others believe that it sets a positive example for women who aspire to serve in the security sector or peacekeeping.

Troop contributing countries continue to suggest that ‘traditional’ reasons keep applications from women down – essentially caring responsibilities either for children or the elderly; other reasons given were the need to have high level shooting skills, or to have served already for 10 consecutive years, fear of encountering sexual harassment on deployment, all factors which could serve to rule out aspiring females. In addition, it was noted that the roles of deployed women tended to be designed with a disproportionate focus on SGBV-related work. The Netherlands, in response to some of this, notes that it and Belgium are experimenting with opportunities for part-time work to make it easier for mothers of young children, but again it is hard to see how this could apply in mission deployments.

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

Recognising the vital power role of committees which draft and review legislation and constitutions, this indicator responds to SCR 1325 paragraph 1. Post conflict situations are often rich in such opportunities that have the power to set the course of events and institutions for years to come thereafter, and thus are particularly critical.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Official review type/body</th>
<th>% woman</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Constitutional Loya Jirga (2003)</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reform of Shia Personal Status Law (2009)</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Review of Elimination of Violence Against Women Law (July 2009)</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>National Legislative Directorate</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The two women on the seven-person Constitutional Review Committee in Uganda are credited with ensuring that Uganda’s new constitution is gender sensitive, perhaps one of the most gender sensitive constitutions in the world.

In general it is important to track if women are only included in those bodies which are addressing what are considered as ‘women’s issues’ (their own participation, SGBV), compared to all issues of public importance and in particular, with reference to SCR 1325, peace and security.

The Philippines scores very low on this indicator, despite being known for being one of the earliest champions of gender mainstreaming strategy. An advocacy initiative of the Philippine Commission on Women, together with some parliamentarians, still lobbies for the Women Priority Legislative Agenda (WPLA). WPLA 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 Congress such as the anti-prostitution bill, reproductive health bill, marital infidelity bill, and the local sectoral representation bill among others.

The same issues are relevant to this indicator as to indicator 1 in terms of the axes of identity: i.e. the background of the women included in the bodies will also determine to some extent the kind of inputs they will make, and influence they will have.

The need to research further the influence that women have in legislative bodies vis à vis the drafting and implementation of better, gendered legislation is evident. For example in the 2011 in-country reports Burundi cites the 2005–2010 Parliament, where women parliamentarians influenced the adoption of a law that promotes and protects women’s rights including the 30% quota in all layers of government including local government. Under similar pressure from women parliamentarians, the Burundian Penal Code was revised in 2009 so that violence against women (including sexual violence) and penalties for it are more clearly defined.

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

This is a critical indicator that focuses on the role of civil society organisations in the implementation of SCRs 1325, 1820 et al. The purpose of the indicator is to track the participation of civil society at the highest decision-making levels including but not limited to the development of national action plans. It recognizes that civil society’s role at the more ‘grassroots’ level, sometimes known as “Track Two” has been better tracked and documented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Task Force or similar on 1325/1820 etc</th>
<th>% of CSOs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Data inconclusive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Interdepartmental Working Group on Women, Peace and Security (per NAP)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>No Task Force</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is a qualitative rather than a quantitative indicator that aims to capture the impact of women’s presence or absence. However several of the in-country civil society reports note the influence of civil society or women’s group lobbying on the decisions of such bodies.

For example, an interesting new observation comes from Uganda on the development of citizen scrutiny to government budget allocations:

There has been public approbation of the stated intent of the 9th Parliament in Uganda to reject budget estimates of Ministries that are insensitive to public outcry in response to them, for example the budget for the Ministry of Education which was rejected because it did not include salary increments for teachers across the board; or the budget of the Ministry of Health which was rejected for not allocating funds meant for maternal health appropriately and for not including salary increments for medical workers across the board. Those are all Ministries headed by women. This kind of analysis, scrutiny and sensitivity to the needs of citizens is a new trend. But it remains to be seen if it will extend to the often sensitive issues of women and peace and security.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Task Force or similar on 1325/1820 etc</th>
<th>% of CSOs</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>No Task Force</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the 21

WOMEN COUNT

The level at which the mechanism is placed in government and who chairs it is significant; themselves, ensuring a reality check institutions cannot access elsewhere.

In addition, the plurality of CSO 'voices' provides a vital echo of the complexity of societies like SCR 1325, accountability.

The purpose of having mixed groups is to increase the capacity round the table to identify strategies, gaps and solutions for implementing NAPs, and to increase transparency and resources it is likely to have.

2.2 Prevention and protection indicators

The second core pillar of indicators addresses the need to ensure a gender equitable process of preventing both armed conflict and sexual and gender-based violence. This includes protecting the rights of women and girls, in terms of SGBV and comprehensively beyond. In this section we find 5 indicators designed to track the prevention of SGBV, the promotion of peace, the protection of women and girls’ rights, in line with the relevant SCRs.

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

This vital indicator tracks the impact of efforts to protect women and girls from sexual and gender-based violence, responding to paragraphs 8 and 11 of SCRs 1325 and 1820, and those that reinforce them in 1888, 1889 and 1960. The intention is to review the whole spectrum of report, investigation, prosecution and penalization to have the most complete possible picture of women's access to justice and accountability as well access to health care and other services that survivors of SGBV need in line with national legislation and international standards.

Table 9: Summary of available SGBV data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Source &amp; year</th>
<th>SGBV data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Ministry of Interior (2010)</td>
<td>Total SGBV cases reported: 2113; 47.4% physical violence; 3.1% forced marriage; 4.7% non-support by husband; 4.1% murder; 3.2% abuse; 1.5% sexual abuse or rape; 1.1% kidnapping; 9.6% denial of property by in-laws</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Interim Report on Sexual &amp; Gender-Based Violence, Ministry of National Solidarity, Human Rights &amp; Gender (2010) Seruka Centre (a national SGBV/health NGO)</td>
<td>Cases reported: 3,715 Cases investigated: 823 (22%) Cases referred: 298 (8%) Cases prosecuted: 60 (1.6 %) Cases penalized: 53 (1.4%) An average of 20 SGBV cases reported a day; almost twice the rate suggested by the national statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Police Data (2007-8)</td>
<td>22,862 sexual assault cases (4 categories) reported, 33% referred/prosecuted, 16% penalized/convicted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Office of the Attorney General (2010)</td>
<td>“Ordinary Law” 269 cases of SGBV reported 205 (76.2%) are in preliminary investigation 17 (6.3%) are under investigation 19 cases (7%) are on trial 4 (1.5%) have final judgements 14 cases (5.2%) are archived “Transitional Justice” 716 ‘victims of sexual crime’ reported No comprehensive data on follow up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data from the in-country reports remains mixed. There are highly developed, and reputationally progressive, countries such as Canada, Spain and Sweden, where the CSO representation on 1325 related task forces is either existent or informal. For example in Canada, the NGO Peacebuild organised a Peace Building and Conflict Prevention consultation series from March to July 2011 to feed into the evaluation of the Canadian NAP; but it has not been institutionalized. On the other hand the Netherlands has over 90% on a government-coordinated body, or Liberia has a strong CSO representation. In the Philippines the government body has no CSO membership, even though there were 85.7% CSOs in the NAP Preparatory Committee. The government body states it will “partner with civil society organizations particularly with women and peace groups in the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the National Action Plan,” a statement which civil society should monitor.

In Liberia, in addition to a strong governmental mechanism with high CSO representation, there are further mechanisms to monitor the implementation of the NAP: National and County Steering Committees that are entirely staffed by government. There is also a Technical Working Group comprised of both civil society and government. In Afghanistan, there are very initial discussions on the development of a NAP on SCR 1325 between the Ministries of Women’s Affairs and Foreign Affairs with civil society groups; however it is still very early to determine the percentage of CSOs who will continue to participate in the NAP process and whether or not such space for CSO participation will remain.

The purpose of having mixed groups is to increase the capacity round the table to identify strategies, gaps and solutions for implementing NAPs, and to increase transparency and accountability. CSOs have traditionally played a strong role in raising awareness of norms like SCR 1325, and can be used as ‘force multipliers’ by government bodies in that sense. In addition, the plurality of CSO ‘voices’ provides a vital echo of the complexity of societies themselves, ensuring a reality check institutions cannot access elsewhere.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ministry of Gender and Development (MoGD) convenes “1325 Observatory”</th>
<th>17 CSO members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>National Steering Committee, chaired by Minister for Foreign Affairs and co-chaired by Minister for Peace and Reconstruction</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>National Action Plan 1325 Working Group consists of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Defense and Civil Society</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>National Steering Committee in Women, Peace and Security, chaired by the Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process (OPAPP) Preparatory Committee to Formulate the NAP (2007-2010)</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85.7% CSOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Interministerial Group</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Consultative Group on 1325 (informal)</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>SGBV reference group (under Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development) National Women’s Task Force for a Gender Responsive Peace Recovery and Development Plan (PDRP) UN Joint Programming on Gender</td>
<td>&lt;45% Not known 8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The level at which the mechanism is placed in government and who chairs it is significant;
In addition the poor data remains extremely limited and challenging to compare (brought to court). Assault 372 (investigated), 0 (brought to court); Indecent Assault 372 (investigated), 252 (brought to court); Defilement: 7,564 (investigated), 3,401 (brought to court); rape 709 (investigated), 252 (brought to court); Indecent Assault 372 (investigated), 0 (brought to court); Child related offences 4,781 (investigated) 452 (brought to court).

As in the previous report, the data remains extremely limited and challenging to compare, even in developed countries which have not suffered conflict. There is a constant refrain of consistent and massive under-reporting. There is also considerable concern about the difficulties faced for cultural and other reasons around reporting and bringing such cases to court.

The different categories of abuse given under different countries’ legal regimes are not always easy to understand or compare. In addition there are often complex arrangements and varying standards for collecting and recording statistics with mandates held by different governmental departments. This can prevent the straightforward tracking of cases through the spectrum from start to finish.

The close correlation with spikes in SGBV and locations of conflict or post conflict is stark, such as in Eastern DRC or the Karamoja region of Uganda. In such situations, the DRC report notes, the situation is exacerbated by factors like chronic poverty, lack of water and electricity. It is instructive to note that Colombia records SGBV crimes related to the conflict separately from ‘ordinary’ SGBV crimes. This seems a useful practice for other countries affected by conflict to use.

Problems which persist in developing countries include lack of resources for victim support, including transport, medical examination and care facilities, slow judicial processes, stigmatization and shame, plus attitudes which can privilege “amicable solutions” or “reparations” over justice, even when relevant legislation is in force. In addition the poor quality of prison infrastructure and staff capacity can also exacerbate these problems (DRC). Nepali report participants are concerned about the loss of evidence, since most victims come only after the evidence gets erased and after the statute of limitation of 35 days for filing case is over. Furthermore, inadequate knowledge and sensitivity on SGBV among legal service providers, lack of women lawyers in law implementing agencies, and frequent change in statements due to family pressure are other major reasons why cases fail to get pursued. In Burundi, victims/accusers are required to provide food for those they accuse all the time they are in prison until a sentence has been pronounced, something which is far beyond the means of the average Burundian victim of SGBV.

SGBV, especially as a weapon of war, was ignored for years. In the last ten years, with the Rome Statute (establishing the International Criminal Court) and the set of SCRs starting with 1325, the issue finally received on paper at least, the attention it deserves. However, this has not yet translated into an end to impunity that the SCRs demand. But with the enormous difficulty and sensitivity around reporting, case handling and data gathering, the international community remains ineffective. While frequently transected by the particular horror of SGBV cases, it gets lost in the forest of unverifiable data and extrapolations and fails to act effectively. For example, in Liberia, it has been suggested that up to 75% of Liberian women suffered rape during war, while other surveys have suggested numbers more like 20% (which are of course still shocking). Meanwhile, concerns are being raised that SGBV against men in wartime situations is being flagrantly ignored ‘in favour of’ the same issue against women (e.g. in Uganda). Despite the difficulties, better data must be sought, and outreach improved to increase awareness, access to justice, and health care and other services for survivors.

It is important that impunity against any form of SGBV against women or men is pursued to its rightful end; but also that these processes themselves, including the way they are handled in the media, do not serve to revictimize or retrumatize those who are already victims several times over. The data presented here suggests that impunity remains a
A potential good practice from Liberia: the Norwegian Refugee Council has recently partnered with the Women in Peacebuilding Network (WIPNET) programme of the West Africa Network for Peacebuilding (WANEP) to engage in court monitoring to follow up on sexual and gender-based violence, first in 5 and it is hoped eventually in all 15 counties. Liberia’s SGBV Task Force also has an Endowment Fund intended to provide financial support for survivors, but the details are not yet known.

But even in this challenging area we can see positive results emerging from the advocacy of women’s groups: in Uganda, women’s groups lobbied against having only medical officers able to testify on SGBV cases: the major new progressive provision authorizes midwives and clinical officers to examine a survivor, document evidence and testify in court.

**Rape in Afghanistan: failing to walk the talk at the very top.** In August 2008, President Karzai showed how the highest office in Afghanistan views violence against women and illustrated the inadequate effort by authorities. After the Supreme Court convicted and sent to prison three men for the rape of a woman in the northern province of Samangan, Karzai quietly pardoned them. Often, the burden of proof rests on the victim and both the attitude of authorities and society forces women to keep silent or receive no justice. Cases of rape are often hard to prove since in Afghanistan, a victim needs four witnesses to the crime. Often, women are accused of zina, or adultery, when they lodge complaints of rape, or they are ignored or abused by authorities.

**Indicator 7a: Access of women and girl survivors of SGBV to relevant health services in select districts/provinces**

This additional indicator was used this year in Burundi and Nepal, in conjunction with support from UNFPA. The 2010 report analysis suggested that understanding what services are available to the women and girls surviving SGBV is a vital but neglected area of research. Taken alongside the data about reporting of SGBV crimes, and how they are handled after that in the justice system, this new analysis fills out our understanding of the gaps in support provided to SGBV survivors.

**Burundi and Nepal**

The two post conflict countries show striking similarities in the problems that they face.

Women and girl survivors of SGBV have limited access to relevant health services because of a number of factors:

- Medical services do not take into account the sensitivity of their cases or their specific needs.
- Users' faith in the health service system and the service providers' ability to understand and support SGBV survivors is low.
- There is a limited number of health centers that could adequately treat illnesses that result from sexual violence and require high surgical expertise such as obstetric fistula.
- Specialized training of relevant health staff is almost non-existent.
- Family pressure is powerful. Even if the survivor has already gone for treatment, the treatment is interrupted because family members do not wish the news of the violation to spread, or simply because they require the caring services of the victim back at the household.
- The cost of treatment as well as the fees for securing the medical certificate required as court evidence discourages the survivor from seeking health services because many of them do not have money.
- Data collection is weak.

**Burundi: examples of services available and prevalent attitudes**

- The Ministry of National Solidarity, Human Rights and Gender and its Family Development Centres emphasizes in their awareness campaigns that SGBV victims must go to the hospital within 72 hours, in practice hospitals do not treat such cases urgently. One public hospital in Burundi responded that “the victims of sexual violence are treated like other patients, we have many other emergencies.”
- International NGOs provide services for specific issues: Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) supports the treatment of obstetric fistula at the Urumuri Centre in Gitega. MSF notes that fistula caused by SGBV is not recorded separately as such. Since it started operating in July 2010, the Centre has performed 300 surgical operations resulting from 500 consultations providing high quality, multi-disciplinary and free services for women with fistula.
The SERUKA Centre, a local NGO, receives 20 cases of SGBV per day for medical and psychological care as well as legal aid. Survivors say they prefer this centre for reasons of confidentiality and the special care available. But as the centre is only located in the capital, Bujumbura, it cannot serve the whole country.

**Nepal: examples of services available and prevalent attitudes**

This snapshot comes from the Terai region, and underlines the fact that the patriarchal structure of the Nepali society and the sensitive nature of such cases continue to compel women survivors to bear the burden of such heinous crimes.

- A UNFPA/Saathi 2008 Study in Surkhet and Dang Districts of Nepal, two of the most conflict-affected districts, revealed very low levels of treatment access. “Of those survivors who reported an injury, 27 percent accessed treatment [...]. The highest percent, thinking that it was irrelevant or that nothing would happen (20 percent), fear of accusations (16 percent), embarrassment and/or did not know where to go (7 percent).”

There is some progress in awareness at the national level where SGBV is now recognized as a health concern. Training is underway for government doctors and nurses on SGBV, while training of psycho-social counsellors has been initiated with support of UNFPA. Some of these counsellors are being deployed to the local government Women and Children’s Office at the district level. The government has supported the establishment of safe houses in some districts. On the non-governmental side, women from cooperatives and paralegal committees are working together to prevent and support SGBV survivors. However, none of this is pulled together by a coordinated, resourced and adequately implemented national strategy for SGBV.

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

Gender-sensitive legislation and policies are fundamental to anchoring women’s rights and equality in any society. This is particularly important in post-conflict, reconstruction and transition phases where a rare chance is given to set standards which will guide the way ahead, perhaps for many decades. This indicator seeks to assess the number and, to some extent, quality of gender-responsive laws and policies in response to paragraph 7 of SCR 1325. The trend to produce NAPs is slow but positive: the global total as of September 2011 is 31. All of the countries in this survey apart from Afghanistan, Burundi (which is on the point of being approved by the Cabinet) and Colombia have a National Action Plan on 1325. This makes it hard to comment on comparative WPS progress between NAP and non-NAP countries. This is an important area for study, to understand the full suite of factors which drive governments to make genuine progress on WPS.

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**Gender responsive laws on land, property and inheritance**, which are without exception major issues in post-conflict situations, seem to be a particular gap in the countries represented in this report.

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

This indicator refers to paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 4 of SCR 1820, and takes a broad interpretation of a transitional justice mechanism covering everything from special courts, to truth and reconciliation commissions, and other truth telling mechanisms.

While the data on this indicator is relatively limited and/or static (with the notable exception of Uganda) and while these data are somewhat general (more detailed data can be found in the UN Women report *In Pursuit of Justice*) they serve to confirm last year’s firm trend that a critical mass of gender responsive legislation and policy now exists. SCR 1325 has clearly had most impact on the recent post-conflict situations where civil society has repeatedly used it to organize and lobby for improvements in legislation. Developed countries which have not suffered conflict have tended, on the whole, to enact the relevant laws and frameworks prior to 1325’s initiation in 2000; however implementation remains challenging across the board for a number of reasons.

There must be a link between Uganda’s gender-sensitive peace agreement and its recent positive legal developments: Uganda was able to pass several landmark acts in 2010 including its first Domestic Violence Act, an act on Female Genital Mutilation and on Anti-Trafficking, and the Uganda International Criminal Court Act 2010, while a bill on HIV/AIDS was also tabled. However the Domestic Violence Act has been criticized for gaps and inappropriate definitions, indicating that while SCR 1325 advocates can welcome the presence of laws and frameworks, they must remain alert to gaps and problems which may need addressing in the legislation that exists.

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of Liberia and Uganda), it does provide a picture of the kinds of mechanisms which are in use and the ways in which gender provisions can be built in to them. As in all other aspects of policy and legislation, there is often an implementation gap.

Table 11: Summary of transitional justice/truth/reconciliation provisions on women’s rights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Transitional Justice Mechanism</th>
<th>Provisions on Women’s Rights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>None in place</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Burundi | 2009 Tripartite Commission on the National Consultation on Transitional Justice Mechanisms | • 40% commissioners were women.  
• Overwhelming majority of the consultation participants think the victims of serious violence including SGBV should be high priority for a future mechanism.  
• Data is inconclusive on whether women or men should be in the majority on a Truth and Reconciliation Commission.  
• The majority of the consultation participants want a special tribunal for Burundi and believe it should have a majority of men sitting on it. |
| Canada | N/A | N/A |
| Colombia | Report of the Historical Memory Group | • Of 9 reports produced, 1 mentions SGBV against women. |
| DRC | No data | No data |
| Liberia | Truth and Reconciliation Commission | TRC has its own Gender Policy; provisions include e.g. commitment to international conventions and protocols relating to the rights and protections of women and children, specific measures for women and children, a minimum 4 of 9 commissioners to be women; requirement for TRC to be sensitive to issues of gender and gender-based violence (GBV). |
| Nepal | Bill on the Truth and Reconciliation Commission tabled in Parliament on 15 April 2010 still pending consideration by the Legislative Parliament. | Bill does not reflect the essence of international human rights mechanisms that Nepal is party to including CEDAW, UNSCR 1325 etc. |
| Netherlands | N/A | N/A |
| Philippines | PAMANA: the development framework to strengthen peace building and address reconstruction and development in conflict affected areas. | Interventions on the micro-level address the different needs of men and women in the community but there is no specific provision in the program that underlines the protection of women and their rights in times of armed conflict. |
| Spain | N/A | N/A |
| Sweden | N/A | N/A |
| Uganda | Commission of Inquiry into violations of human rights 1962-1986 | • The report recommends reparations for victims of sexual violence but has never been implemented.  
• Women were taken as part of ‘vulnerable group’ whose security and protection were provided for during the peace and reconciliation process.  
• Article 5 provides for gender equality in access to opportunities; Article 12 provides for special assistance to vulnerable groups through special assistance programs, in particular, to protect, resettle and promote the advancement of child-headed households, widows, traumatized children, persons with disabilities and persons with HIV/AIDS. |

Nepal is the most pressing case in point with an inadequate bill pending for a Truth and Reconciliation Commission. Civil society offers a detailed critique in the in-country report, including the fact that there is no mention of atrocities and violence inflicted upon women during the armed conflict nor is there acknowledgment of differential and severe impacts of the conflict on women; in addition there is no mention of the Nepal NAP which is in force, or requirement for women’s representation on commissions set up to implement the Bill.

As a remedial measure, however, the World Vision Advocacy Forum in close coordination with the Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction (supported by the UN Peace Fund for Nepal and the UN Human Rights Office in Nepal) has recently established a Transitional Justice (TJ) Resource Centre – the first of its kind in Nepal. The centre intends to promote TJ mechanisms as well as serve as a platform for bringing all segments of society together to interact actively on human rights situation of the country, marginalized people’s access to justice, peace building initiatives and seek reconciliation for victims of violence to help effective implementation of the TJ Mechanism.

Another example of a valuable civil society mechanism to optimize and improve international justice mechanisms comes from the Netherlands. The Netherlands plays host to key instruments for international justice including previously the International Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia and, since the Rome Statute, the International Criminal Court itself. Due to this, important civil society organizations have emerged in The Hague such as The Women’s Initiatives for Gender Justice (WIGJ) which advocates for gender-inclusive justice and an effective and independent International Criminal Court (ICC). Nationally based organisations can use the WIGJ as a platform and resource to help channel data and advocacy to and on the ICC.

The Afghan story is indicative of how often and easily the transitional justice issue, together with gendered perspectives, can fall prey to politics: the Karzai cabinet adopted the Action Plan of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan for Peace, Justice, and Reconciliation in late 2005. Not only did this particular action plan expire with a refusal by President Karzai to extend it, it has been contradicted and ignored by the formalization of the National Reconciliation, General Amnesty and Stability Law which forgives crimes committed during the conflict period by those currently in government. This bill, known as the Amnesty law, was introduced and approved by the Afghan Parliament and signed by Karzai in 2009.
On the positive side, as stated in its NAP and related policies, Sweden aims to be involved in a large number of missions guided by resolution 1325, especially within transitional justice in post-conflict states where impunity and SGBV are major factors. Between 2008 and 2010, programs related to gender equality in conflict and post-conflict countries received the largest amount of funding, making gender equality and women’s rights the most prioritized area. Sweden raises the issue of mainstreaming gender intersectionally in this regard, noting how women’s realities are affected by other forms of discrimination such as sexuality, disability or ethnicity. This is an important point as women are often treated as a coherent, single group, denying the diversities within women. This could risk reproducing other forms of discrimination.

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

This indicator was developed to respond to civil society’s understanding of the need to change and develop cultures of peace and gender equality. It also highlights the need for peace activists and gender equality activists to work together since it would be impossible to achieve lasting peace without gender equality. Moreover, more equal societies tend to have less or lower levels of conflict. It attempts to capture the extent to which governments and civil society have chosen to integrate education regarding peace/conflict resolution and prevention and gender within their curricula.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Gender, Peace and SCR Integration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>- Peace topics included in civic education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>- National gender policy should be mainstreamed into education but is not yet implemented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- At tertiary level there is some integration of the two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- NGOs: a number of NGOs like the Forum for African Women Educators are active on both topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Elementary &amp; high school curricula include rights and interpersonal conflict resolution not peace and gender; (tertiary includes conflict, peace and gender programmes (2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>2006-2015 education plan has a chapter on peace education and mentions gender inclusion but this aspect is not yet developed/implemented.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Integration of gender into school text books (2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Peace and gender at lower secondary; soon at secondary level including reference to the SCRs; also at higher secondary level with reference to SCRs, at tertiary (bachelors) without specific reference to the SCRs; and masters, with reference to the SCRs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td></td>
<td>Peace and Gender not formally integrated; some master’s programmes include peace and gender elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>- Peace building is mainstreamed by governmental order at all levels, but gender is not.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Teachers at all levels receive an array of gender awareness and Gender and Development Awareness and Training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Technical Education and Skills Development Authority is finalizing its gender sensitivity training curriculum to be instituted in all training centres.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicator intends to track the extent to which the culture of peace and respect for women are built into curricula both of informal and formal education at all levels. Clearly the indicator is broad and does not distinguish between educational levels; but the intention is to reveal the extent to which these concerns are fundamental to the education and training broadly provided or available to citizens of any of these countries.

This indicator proved challenging for data collection as the terms were hard to define. However, one country that must be singled out is Nepal, which offers the most advanced integration of the two at most levels (although data on what was available informally was not available). The other countries usually offer one or the other but not integrated.

The best integration of both issues can be generally found at tertiary level. While the in-country reports suggest a range of NGO/think tank/informal academic training activities on both themes, the data is too varied and inconsistent to draw any other conclusion than that in post conflict countries there tends to be a prevalence of informal peace and conflict prevention education activity, and that its integration with gender cannot be predicted but is sometimes present.
Indicator 11: Percentage of women receiving economic packages as part of conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

It is now accepted that women and men experience armed conflict in different ways. Paragraph 13 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 10 of 1820, which this indicator specifically addresses, was designed to ensure that the provision of specific assistance post conflict (for example economic or in kind support, vocational training and employment opportunities, the provision of shelter or other basic needs including psycho-social support) meet the needs of both women and men.

Table 13: Summary of gender dimensions of economic packages in conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Programme</th>
<th>Gender sensitive data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>• Transitional Reintegration and Demobilization Programme 2009-2011</td>
<td>• Of 15,547 recipients, 3% were women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Returnee economic packages from 2004-2011</td>
<td>• Of 164,304 recipients, 51% were women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Administrative Repairs by the Technical Secretariat of Administrative Repairs</td>
<td>9%. Only 30 of these cases (0.5%) were for crimes against sexual freedom and integrity and of these 27 reparations were made to women (0.4% of total reparations made).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>UN supported government DDR programme (2005)</td>
<td>Of 101,495 formally disarmed combatants, 22,370 of them were women (22%), 8,523 (8%) were boys and 2,440 were girls (2%). Each received $150 from UNMIL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Interim Relief and Reparation programme (since 2007)</td>
<td>16% recipients of the package were women, in different categories (the most female recipients were in the category of &quot;killed family head&quot;).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Department of Social Welfare and Development: for victims of armed conflict CCCM:</td>
<td>Both programmes covered 39,522 beneficiaries of which 60% were women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While comprehensive data was not available, it is still clear that in general women receive a disproportionately small amount of the packages available. It was difficult to access data which described how the programmes were designed, and in particular what their targeting strategies were.

In Burundi, efforts were made with the economic packages for returnees to develop a gender action plan, and monitoring showed that women managed their packages more effectively than male recipients. In other cases (Colombia, Nepal, Liberia) the suggestion seems to be that distribution was done on the basis of a ‘traditional’ analysis of women’s needs as victims rather than a gendered consideration of their roles and needs.

Returnees from Makemba, Burundi suggest the following recommendations for returnees: involving beneficiaries in action planning; involving beneficiaries in the registration of returnees; coaching and supporting repatriated women to support their families; supporting repatriated women’s groups; making women returnees participate in decision-making bodies (at the local level); establishing an equal employment policy; supporting widows and other vulnerable women; capacity building for women returnees especially in regard to reproductive health.

2.3 Promotion of gender perspective indicators

Promoting a gender perspective means that ensuring actors take account of the different needs, concerns and capacities of women and men, including the different contributions they thus make to policy making, and the different impacts policy implementation will have on them. The four indicators covered below track how gender perspectives have been captured in peace agreements and in terms of funding allocations by donors and governments to CSOs and governments to implement WPS programmes, and finally the image of women and WPS issues in the media.

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

Paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 highlights the need to adopt a gender perspective when negotiating and implementing peace agreements. Indicator 12 attempts to unpack the substance of the agreements themselves, as opposed to the presence of women in the teams negotiating them which is covered in Indicator 1. The kinds of issues to look for include considering the different impacts of conflict on women, girls, men and boys, and designing post conflict mechanisms which take into account their different experiences and needs. This could include adapted DDR packages, specific transitional justice mechanisms and mechanisms for the protection and respect of rights.

Table 14: Summary of gender issues in peace agreements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Peace Agreement</th>
<th>Gender issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Arusha Peace Agreement (200)</td>
<td>Mentions women’s empowerment and gender equality but there is no specific provisions on women/gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Data not available</td>
<td>Data not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>• Sun City Agreement (2003)</td>
<td>• Mentions women’s representation in decision-making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Dar es Salaam Declaration (2004)</td>
<td>• SGBV protocol; women’s participation in monitoring implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Goma Declaration (2008)</td>
<td>• Mentions representation of women</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The kinds of issues to look for include considering the different impacts of conflict on women, girls, men and boys, and designing post conflict mechanisms which take into account their different experiences and needs. This could include adapted DDR packages, specific transitional justice mechanisms and mechanisms for the protection and respect of rights.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Women's participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Accra Comprehensive Peace Agreement</td>
<td>mandated (quotas not given)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive Peace Accord (2006)</td>
<td>Women's rights addressed as issue alongside e.g. caste, class, ethnic group to be 'considered'; article 7.6 mentions the special protection of women and children from violence including SGBV, trafficking and forced labour; establishes local peace committees with 30% female participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Comprehensive Agreement on Respect for Human Rights and International Humanitarian Law (CARHRIHL) (Government of the Philippines (GPH) and the National Democratic Front) (1998)</td>
<td>&quot;The CARHRIHL is based on the interests, aspirations and concrete conditions of the Filipino people, especially those of the workers, peasants, urban poor, women, youth, fisher folk, ethnic minorities and other oppressed sectors in Philippine society. The CARHRIHL is a response to their demand for justice against the continuing violations of their rights.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tripoli Agreement (GPH-Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) (2001)</td>
<td>Rehabilitation aspect: &quot;The observance of international humanitarian law and respect for internationally recognized human rights instruments and the protection of evacuees and displaced persons in the conduct of their relations reinforce the Bangsamoro people's fundamental right to determine their own future and political status.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Civilian Protection (between GPH and MILF) (2009)</td>
<td>Article 1 of the agreement is about basic undertakings with both the GRP and MILF panels to &quot;reconfirm their obligations under humanitarian law and human rights law to take constant care to protect the civilian population and civilian properties against the dangers arising in armed conflict situations.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The issue of how to include a gender perspective in peace agreements has been challenging. With little evidence of good practice to draw on, advocates are hard pressed to provide guidance which is concrete, rather than aspirational. Decision-makers have not changed their behaviour significantly. For example, the most recent and comprehensive study of gendered language in peace agreements (a total of 585 peace agreements signed between 1 January 1990 and 1 May 2010) did not show significant improvements in the first ten years of 2010: only 16 per cent of peace agreements contain references to women; but of that 16%, the references to women increased significantly since the passing of SCR 1325, from 11% prior to SCR 1325, to 27% of agreements after it). The next important step is to evaluate the implementation of those, still few, examples like Uganda, where a gender perspective was indeed applied.

The issues faced remain the same, that gender issues are not seen as a priority by those, almost entirely men, who attend peace talks as negotiators or mediators, but as a ‘soft’, ‘social development’ issue more suitable for a ‘development’ than ‘post conflict’ phase. Clearly the need is as great as ever for civil society to monitor and organise around ongoing peace negotiations, such as the Philippines or Afghanistan.

As we have seen in indicators above, the presence of women's organisations and civil society organisations lobbying for the inclusion of women's perspectives can be effective, although not to date in a holistic way.

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

Paragraph 6 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 6 of SCR 1820 underline the importance that military and civilian police whether national or international undergo comprehensive training on the rights, needs and protection of women and how to implement national and international legislation and policy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Security Force</th>
<th>Gender Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Police</td>
<td>Trainings &quot;incorporate international commitments, human rights principles, and gender&quot; (Ministry of Interior)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>National military</td>
<td>Training &quot;helps develop themes related to Human Rights, International Humanitarian Law, Armed Conflicts, Mission Mandate, Code of Conduct as well as rules of engagement. In general, some aspects of SCR 1325 and SCR 1820 are part of training programs even if some military personnel are not deployed to peacekeeping missions&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the 2010 report, leading to the question of whether the individual soldiers have enough

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Force Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>National military</td>
<td>Training developed by Peace Support Training Centre (PSTC) at the Royal Military College includes Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Law of Armed Conflict, ethics, individual conduct and responsibilities, and the appropriate Rules of Engagement and UNSCRs 1325 and 1820. Specific emphasis is placed on human rights violations, the impact of conflict on vulnerable groups, gender differences and culture, gender and conflict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>UN Civilian Police</td>
<td>Gender training (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>National Police</td>
<td>• Gender-sensitive training has been incorporated into the Police Training Academy’s curriculum. Specialized courses have been crafted for all supervisors, staff of Gender Affairs Section, staff of Women and Children Protection Section, and Academy training staff. As part of the 2011 Academy training schedule, the Norwegian Refugee Council has held a workshop every month and the UNDP has begun a review of all Academy curricula including SGBV treatment. As of March of this year, 620 women have been trained at the Academy. To incorporate more women recruits, the Ministry of Education has introduced an Accelerated Learning Program for young women who are currently enrolled in school and wishing to join the police force.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>National military</td>
<td>• 3 month comprehensive course incorporating 7 day module on relevant SCRs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• 1.5 month course, with ‘guest’ lectures on SCRs 1325 and 1820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>National Army, UN peacekeepers</td>
<td>&quot;Gender force&quot; project as part of equality measures taken by government as a whole; peacekeepers receive specific training in which they are informed but not provided in depth training on SCR 1325 and 1820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Peacekeeping military forces</td>
<td>Training integrates SCR 1325, 1820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>National Military and Police</td>
<td>• Undertake UN training prior to UN deployment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development is responsible to provide training under SCR 1325 NAP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>National army, UN peacekeepers</td>
<td>• Pre-Deployment Training, since 2002, review on subjects taken during the Peacekeeping Operations Training (PKOT): individual enhancement, unit enhancement and UN modules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Global Peace Operations Initiative-sponsored training; since 2010 UN Military Observers Course, UN Peacekeeping Staff Officers Course, UN Logistics Officers Course, Training of the Trainers Training, UN Civil Military Coordination Course, and Peace Support Operations Instructors;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• From 2011 WE ACT (CSO) 1325 Pre-Deployment Training on Women, Peace and Security incorporating UNSCRs 1325 and 1820, Challenging Prejudice, Conflict Resolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• 2004-2007 Genderforce project aimed to assess gender awareness and promote gender perspectives at various stages of international missions, plus Gender Advisors, Gender Focal Points and Gender Field Advisors with training responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• NORDEFCO is developing a 1325-focussed training module within its &quot;Center for Gender in Military Operations&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• 1325, 1820 integrated in all police peace support training, and Swedish police training was used as the basis for UN mission police training.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, **gradual progress is seen on this indicator over last year**. In the 2010 report, it was noted that most countries do include some elements of gender training for troops and police, and that the trend is increasingly for the SCRs to be integrated. Burundi and the Netherlands were singled out for being exceptions to this; in 2011, both countries have clearly addressed this to some extent (the resolutions are explained but training is not given on how security sector staff should implement them). A **good practice is noted in the Philippines where a civil society organisation focussed on WPS/SCR 1325 – WeAct 1325 is providing relevant training to Philippine troops**.

While Afghanistan was singled out last year for offering what appeared to be a comprehensive training on SCR 1325 and 1820, the same data was not available this year so it was not possible to verify if it has in fact been implemented. Nepal also continues to score high marks on the training which is provided, but the **quality of implementation and follow up thereafter has not yet been verified, and impact needs to be studied**.

Even Sweden, which stands out for its efforts in this regard, maintains that problems remain: the **training that specifically concerns resolution 1325, 1820 and related resolutions is limited to 3-4 hours**, leading to the question of whether the individual soldiers have enough time to gain an understanding of the actual value of the resolutions as well as how it is translated into concrete operations such as patrolling and civil-military cooperation.
Indicator 14: Allocated and disbursed funding to civil society organisations (including women’s groups) marked for women, peace and security programmes and projects

Inclusive peace building must include civil society organisations, and within those, women’s groups. For these organisations to operate and thrive they need access to reliable funding to pursue their activities, either through national governments, international organisations or from private sources. It is increasingly recognized that tracking budgets allocated in any sphere is one of the most reliable indicators of whether or not decision-makers are "walking their talk". This indicator responds to paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 and paragraph 13 of SCR 1820.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Funding for CSOs on WPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>No summary data available, but funding to women’s organisations and projects for local NGOs such as Seruka Centre and Fontaine ISOKO, amongst at least 8 others is mentioned in the research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada (Donor)</td>
<td>No exact data on funding to CSOs; Funds categorised as WPS in 2010-11: $3,906,654.00 CAD the bulk of which is used for training police (UNPOL or national police) and military officers (UN Military Observers or national military) from Africa and Latin America on SGBV. In addition, funds which include a WPS component: $7,257,568.00 CAD. Most of the money is transferred to multilateral organisations. CIDA: of current Afghanistan programme (2008-2011), $3.5 million is dedicated to a local responsive fund for the advancement of women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>A line item in the Ministry of Gender and Development budget for the Liberian fiscal year of 2009-2010 indicated a recommended $10,000 be transferred to non-specific ‘women’s organizations’. The allocated budget for the 2008-2009 fiscal year revealed that $0 went to women’s organizations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands (Donor)</td>
<td>No exact data: In 2010 all signatories of the Dutch NAP 1325 spent together USD 38.8m. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Defence spent in 2010 a total of USD 18.2m that can be allocated to the implementation of UNSCR 1325. The larger CSOs have a total expenditure of USD18.2m in 2010. Migrant and Diaspora organisations working in the Netherlands for their country of origin have spent USD 130, 000 together and network organizations USD 233, 381 in 2010. These figures are specified by neither receiving actor (CSOs or governments) nor whether they are specifically on WPS. In addition there is the MDG3 fund which has EUR 70m in allocations between 2008 and 2011, but the focus on CSOs and/or WPS is not possible to determine. Its successor – Funding Leadership and Opportunities for Women (FLOW) will have the same amount over 4 years and will focus on security, political participation and economic empowerment of women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>No exact data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The complexity of tracking such aid flows is notorious. Several countries alluded to distrust or unwillingness for CSOs to reveal funding sources and budgets, which suggests amongst other things that funding and support to CSOs in WPS is neither sufficient, nor serving to build strong coalitions. Rather, it seems to exacerbate competitions and turfing which is unlikely to lead to the strong, collective advocacy that tends to be most successful with international organisations at the global level. Maintaining strong, open relationships across all actors, as close to the ground as possible was mentioned several times by CSOs in DRC as being a key recommendation. In addition, this would respond to the demands of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and Accra Agenda of Action whose calls include for more ownership at country level, better mutual accountability, and increasing support for CSOs.

In Burundi, CSOs point out there has been no collective evaluation of the impact of the extensive work of civil society on women, peace and security, which would be highly instructive.

From the donor perspective, tracking of contributions on WPS specifically, and to CSOs in general, does not appear to be normally or consistently applied. An interesting comparison comes from the European Commission’s review of its own spending on crisis management, conflict prevention and peace building from 2001-2008 which showed that 63% went to international agencies (mostly the UN) and 3% to civil society. Economies of scale and understandable efforts at bureaucratic streamlining may underlie this, but it is important to develop mechanisms which ensure that money earmarked for WPS, and more broadly conflict prevention and peace building, reaches the civil society organisations on the ground so often hailed in donor strategies as key to building and maintaining cultures of rule of law and peace.

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

The Secretary General’s report on SCR 1325 indicators calls for action to track funds spent on WPS, especially in conflict-affected countries. This indicator responds to paragraph 8 of SCR 1325 and to paragraph 13 of SCR 1820 and tried to track the allocation of funds for women, peace and security to governments as distinct from international organisations and civil society organisations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Description of funding to WPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>The Office of the Presidential Adviser on the Peace Process allocates specific funds for NAP implementation; data suggests USD1.4m was channelled to CSOs for a variety of WPS activities in 2010-11.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain (Donor)</td>
<td>No exact data: 2007-2011 the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional para el Desarrollo (AECID)) supported CSO initiatives that aimed to increase women’s equal participation in decision-making on peace and security issues; including the prevention and resolution of conflicts; however figures are not available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden (Donor)</td>
<td>The only government authority with a marked budget for funding WPS projects and programmes is the Folke Bernadotte Academy (FBA). The budget for 2011 is 1,026,744 USD. The Swedish Government budget has a category marked for CSOs. In 2011 4.1m USD is ear marked for women's organizations but there is no WPS category. In 2010 out of the total 4m USD allocated to women's organizations, the funding disbursed was 1.75m USD.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Gender and Development Ministry is leaving them as little more than sensitive to be shared. In some cases the data sets are not complete, and in others actors consider the information too

As with Indicator 14 on funding to CSOs, comprehensive and comparable data is not available. In some cases the data sets are not complete, and in others actors consider the information too sensitive to be shared. The requirements of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) landmark Paris Agreement on Aid Effectiveness (2005) and the Accra Agenda for Action (2008)**, are thus not being met. These agreements intended to increase the transparency, effectiveness, coherence and accountability of aid flows – and, notably, to deepen engagement with civil society. On a more positive note, the OECD Development Assistance Committee has produced a study on aid on gender to fragile/conflict states** (although the focus is not specifically on WPS but aid more generally on gendered topics) which shows how low and poorly track this kind of aid remains.

One area where it should be easier to track what is happening is in the financing and implementation of NAPs. As noted in last year’s report, most NAPs were originally framed with no timelines, indicators or allocated budget, leaving them as little more than aspirational policy documents. Following recommendations from GNWP amongst others, this trend is slowly being reversed and now several countries have dedicated (if often insufficient resources), though currently the Netherlands notes it is launching its second NAP “with no clear budget available.”

Several of the participating countries contributed data on their own governments’ WPS spending, which demonstrated the same trend that as a theme, even with a NAP in place, this spending is not planned, marked and tracked as such.

Indicator 16: Percentage women’s representation as peace-builders and decision-makers in media content

This indicator analyzes to what extent the transformative potential of SCR 1325 –i.e., recognizing women as change agents, peace builders and decision-makers rather than as mere victims of armed conflict, is reflected in media content. It also recognizes the fundamental power and importance of the media both as a subliminal and superficial carrier of messages but also one that has a deep influence on how its audiences perceive images and issues.

It remains challenging to gather information on this indicator. In several countries, such as Afghanistan, the general finding was that even when CSOs sought statistics from government, media agencies, or media-focussed civil society organisations, the answer was that it did not exist. Significant evidence has in fact been gathered by the Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP)** of the World Association for Christian communication, which shows that the general findings of the in-country civil society reports are in line with existing research.

For example: Liberia held a Conference for Advancing Women in the Media in November 2010 which found the media to under or misrepresent women, and to have too few women in positions of decision making power – but WPS was not a focus of the conference. However, International Alert has produced a simplified version of Resolution 1325 and started radio programs using rural radio stations for creating awareness on the resolution and what it means to the daily life of rural women in Liberia. The Gender and Development Ministry is currently working to increase national awareness on 1325 and the four pillars of the National Action Plan through a nationwide campaign in radio broadcast, newspapers and outdoor media.

The Philippines has made significant efforts to address peace education through media; but the data does not suggest a strong integration with gender or specific linkages to SCR 1325. One positive example cited is the Gender in Peace Project of the Women in Enterprise Development which has linked with fifteen community radio stations in Mindanao and the Tambuli Project of UNICEF; however it is not clear that SCR 1325 and/or the NAP are used in these community broadcasts.

Sweden collects specific data relevant to this indicator and the in-country report concludes that only 7% of media broadcasting can be described as challenging gender stereotypes, whereas 63% reinforces them. In addition they note that peace and security stories are almost always accompanied by battlefield images where women, if included at all, are portrayed as victims.

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**CIFAR and the Accra Agenda for Action (2008)

**GMMP

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Table 17: Summary of funding to governments for WPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Funding to governments for WPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Extensive support to the government on peace building, though WPS not tracked; no reliable summary data available but examples include USD35m from the Peace Building Fund of which 15% is earmarked for promotion of a gender perspective (period of funding not specified).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>“The % of aid disbursed by the donor community for gender equality and empowerment of women, ranges from 1% to 11% of the total ODA... Since humanitarian aid in 2007 amounted to almost 11% of total ODA, the National Humanitarian Plenary should define performance frameworks and gender assessment for all organizations and institutions; no data on peace and security funding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender and Development budget (34% total government budget) contains no line items relating to WPS or CSOs specifically.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No exact data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>No exact data; significant financial flows have been disbursed through the MDG3 and FLOW Funds, to the UN Peace building Fund (EUR 46.5m in 2010) for the NAP, and through its strategy for security and development in fragile states, but earmarking for WPS is not done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>No exact data: Through the General Appropriations Act, 5% of all government agency and unit budgets are allocated solely through Gender and Development. Women, Peace and Security projects are incorporated in this budget. In addition 20% of Official Development Assistance are also allotted for Gender and Development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>No exact data: bilateral assistance has gone to: e.g. Iraq, Colombia, Kosovo (Serbia), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sierra-Leone, Guinea Conakry, Liberia, the Ivory Coast, and Palestinian Territories; also to regional governments and local entities working on the empowerment of women in peace-building processes; but no figures available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>No exact data: extensive funding to fragile states, but no WPS earmarking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>No data; For the current financial year (2011/2012) the budget for Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MLSD) is 0.4% of the total budget of the country, a decrease from 0.5% for the last financial year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Conclusions and Recommendations

3.1 Overall findings

While readers are encouraged to review the country reports for richer detail of data and analysis, the 2011 GNWP Civil Society Monitoring of SCR 1325 global snapshot report is able to highlight the following key findings, based also on the findings of the 2010 report. Overall, the trends are positive but extremely slow paced, and some gaps require urgent remedial action (SGBV, funding):

General Finding 1: Progress is being made in spreading an understanding of the gender dimensions of conflict and peace building at the official levels, national and global, but this progress is slow, uneven and needs more resources and support.

General Finding 2: While every inch gained is impressive, institutions still have miles to go in terms of achieving women's meaningful participation in governance and in the institutions of the security sector/rule of law. This has direct knock-on effects on women's participation in formal conflict resolution and peace building structures.

General Finding 3: There is still an important implementation gap in terms of gender responsive laws and policies, including National Action Plans (NAP) on SCR 1325. The number of such laws and policies continues to increase, but the rate at which they are implemented does not. The place where the responsibility to implement the NAP is located in the government architecture, and the capacity and political clout of lead implementing agency/ies are as significant as the funding and indicators that it has.

General Finding 4: Rates of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) remain extremely high, especially in areas of conflict and post conflict; impunity is rampant. Conflict-related SGBV against men is a neglected area.

General Finding 5: Major data gaps on women and peace and security (WPS) persist across all areas, but especially on SGBV. Data collection practices are weak, leading to unreliable analysis (again, especially on SGBV); sex-disaggregated data is still the exception rather than the rule.

General Finding 6: Funding for civil society actors on WPS at all levels remains meagre; donors privilege ‘project or programme’ funding over ‘core’ funding, obliging CSOs to waste energy is wasted in scrambling for funds rather than in front line, timely and sustained research, advocacy and programming.

General Finding 7: Funding allocated by donor countries to post conflict countries on WPS is too difficult to track; donors are not meeting their commitments neither in their assistance, peace and security strategies or NAPs, nor in terms of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in this sector.

More specific findings by indicator follow:

3.2 Specific findings by indicator

Participation

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

The year has shown small gains for women across the board; the best results are seen either in the progressive countries of the Global North or the post conflict countries of the Global South where they have usually been driven by quota requirements and CSO advocacy. But at lower levels of governance (the feeding ground for higher levels), women's participation is persistently lower. Women remain constrained by cultural issues, lack of role models, the bad image of politics, lack of access to funds, media and information, poor infrastructure, family and caring responsibilities and persistent lack of political will for gender equality and lack of sanction for failure to implement legal or policy commitments on equality.

Indicator 2: Percentage of women in peace negotiation teams

The year has shown no significant changes on the previous analysis, which underline women's participation in peace negotiations as extremely low. Examples continue to be documented of successful women's CSO advocacy to insert their perspectives into formal and informal process, but the need for their demands to be ever more strategi and concrete, and to make the case for "why now" rather than "later", is ever more clear.

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

Women's participation is at its lowest in national militaries. In national police, the numbers are slowly improving though still very low, as evidence grows women are being single out by police force to work in specialist areas such as SGBV. In the judiciary, women continue to take a larger share of the positions and at higher levels than in other security sector institutions, perhaps because legal/judicial work is easier to balance with their other responsibilities. It was also notable that in other service such as the penal service, women were also better represented. There is increasing evidence of gender policies and related training in the main security sector institutions, but their quality and impact has not been evaluated.

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

Women's representation in peacekeeping missions is as low as in their national sources, with ‘traditional’ reasons of family and personal security being cited as reasons why women are not keen either to apply, nor the institutions to deploy them. The higher up in the hierarchy, the less likely are women to be found.

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

Women and CSOs are increasingly present in or around such bodies, and the growing evidence suggests a link between this and the emergence of more gender-responsive laws and policies. Given women's already stronger presence in the judiciary, this is perhaps the greatest current opportunity for women to influence peace building and state building in a gender-sensitive way.

Indicator 6: Percentage of civil society organisations in Task Forces on SCRs 1325, 1820 (out of total Task Force members)

While the trend is more that CSOs should be included in official task forces, this is by no means always the case. In cases where there are official and civil society task forces working in parallel, they do not always have a liaison mechanism. Even in developed countries these groups tend to have minimal funding and in conflict/post conflict situations, often none at all.
Prevention and Protection

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

Data on SGBV remains severely limited, and can further be compromised by attitudes which exacerbate victimisation, traumatization and block the development of effective strategies to improve the situation. Under-reporting is still an enormous problem and prosecution and conviction levels remain troublingly low. Rates of SGBV, especially in conflict and post conflict areas, remain extremely high. At the global level, the ‘forgotten’ subject of conflict SGBV against male victims starts to become an issue though this is not mentioned in the in-country reports.

Indicator 7a: (Burundi and Nepal only) Access of women and girl survivors of SGBV to relevant health services in select districts/provinces

The data gathered suggests that access to appropriate services for the victims of SGBV remains highly problematic in post-conflict situations. It is exacerbated by cultural issues, lack of awareness, resources, training and facilities at the service provider level, and lack of resources on the part of survivors.

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

The collective body of gender sensitive legislation and policy continues to grow, especially on issues of concern to women such as SGBV, and SCRs 1325, 1820 and the supporting resolutions. The number of NAPs continues to rise, and with it the ongoing challenge to ensure implementation and evaluate impact.

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

The picture on transitional justice mechanisms is very mixed and hard to draw clear conclusions from. Clearly some mechanisms do directly address women’s rights, but even those that do, do not always do so in an optimal way. Women’s participation in the mechanisms is also very varied, and the problem of actual or potential amnesties for victims of conflict related SGBV remains very real.

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

This indicator is difficult to apply, but even from the data gathered, it is evident that it is the exception rather than the rule that finds gender and peace integrated in any meaningful way into formal curricula. The informal sphere is harder to evaluate; while there tends to be a proliferation of CSO-led training activities around conflict resolution, peace building and gender in a post conflict period, evaluation which tracks their collective impact is lacking.

Indicator 11: Percentage of women receiving economic packages as part of conflict resolution and reconstruction processes

The data on this indicator is quite varied and inconclusive, suggesting that women are often primary beneficiary often for ‘traditional’ reasons associated with their status as victims in wartime; but sometimes they are also under-represented, often in packages relating to the demobilisation of armed actors. There are examples of specific gender policies used in such package design and distribution, and examples of impact evaluation which demonstrates the comparative success women have had in converting the packages they have received into more sustainable and positive support for themselves and their families.

Promotion of a Gender Perspective

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

It is overwhelmingly the case that peace agreements do not adequately address gender issues. However, when women and CSOs have found an opportunity to contribute or become involved, they have been able to push forward some measures to redress this. There is also a need to understand that no peace accord can be solely about gender issues, hence the need for women peace activists to make sure that demands for representation and participation in peace processes are backed up with strong, concrete suggestions and language on relevant technical and political topics.

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

It is now the norm, with exceptions, that UN peacekeepers are deployed with basic grounding in international humanitarian and human rights law principals, including the requirements of SCRs 1325, 1820 and the supporting WPS resolutions. There are also efforts to integrate SCR 1325 and 1820 training into the standard training of national security sectors –i.e., even those who are not being deployed to foreign peacekeeping missions. Some national armies are better at providing this than others. So far no evaluation has been done of the impact of the trainings, or what follow up is done to ensure they are implemented when the troops are on mission.

Indicator 14: Allocated and disbursed funding to civil society organisations (including women’s groups) marked for women, peace and security programmes and projects

CSOs working on WPS issues, from official NGOs to more informal women’s or community-based organisations are struggling for funds, and in particular to support core activities alongside projects and programme-specific activities. Inevitably there is competition between organisations which can lead to a dilution of their collective voice for advocacy purposes. Larger donor institutions don’t have the mechanisms to channel smaller funds to smaller organisations. There is an insufficient synergy between donors, international CSOs and national CSOs to help develop consortia or other joint mechanisms to channel more of the available funds to field-level activities and field-level CSO institutional support.

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

Funding to conflict-affected/post conflict countries on WPS from donor countries is not clearly earmarked or tracked. This suggests donors are not meeting the requirements of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness/Accra Agenda for Action on accountability, transparency and effectiveness. In addition, even in developed countries, little and often no funding is attached to the NAP. In the same way that a Minister for Women’s Affairs who has minimal budget and no cabinet status has no power, thus a NAP does not become integral to the peace, security – and defence – work of the relevant government.

Indicator 16: Percentage of women’s representation in media as peace-builders and decision-makers
There is too little data on this important indicator to draw very strong conclusions. The suggestion is, however, that women are still represented more as victims in the media; that WPS issues are not covered per se, but more as defence/security issues involving images of combat etc. It also seems that women do not have a meaningful stake in decision making in media organisations.

3.3 Recommendations

Given the rate of progress, the recommendations of the 2010 Civil Society Monitoring Report on SCR 1325 are all highly relevant. What is presented here are broadly the same recommendations updated some fresh suggestions from civil society. For country-specific recommendations, readers are encouraged to review the country reports which follow.

General Finding 1: Progress is being made in spreading an understanding of the gender dimensions of conflict and peace building at the official levels, national and global, but this progress is slow, uneven and needs more resources and support.

- UN Member States should continue to provide gender training for key staff in their own governments; to enhance capacities to undertake gender sensitive conflict analysis, strategy and programme design; and to model gender sensitive behaviour from the highest levels.
- Pre and post deployment training for all mission staff, military, police and civilian must be gender sensitive and include modules on SCRs 1325, 1820 and the relevant supporting resolutions; follow up and evaluation should be integrated to ensure the training is useful and is applied on the ground, and to see if it can be adapted to make it more effective.
- UN Member States should promote and provide leadership on the integration of gender and peace modules into formal and informal training and education curricula, using the principles provided by SCRs 1325, 1820 and the supporting resolutions.
- The design of assistance in conflict resolution, peace building and reconstruction must be gendered from the outset (for example the design of DDR packages, or electoral support programmes). Many tools exist to undertake this and should be used. Joined up national defence, development, diplomacy strategies should be gender-mainstreamed using the SCRs on WPS.

General Finding 2: While every inch gained is impressive, institutions still have miles to go in terms of achieving women’s meaningful participation in governance and in the institutions of the security sector/rule of law. This has direct knock-on effects on women’s participation in formal conflict resolution and peace building structures.

- The UN and other peace making actors must increase pressure to ensure women’s participation in peace negotiations by providing visible leadership (e.g. fielding female mediators, or male mediators who have the knowledge and capacity to provide leadership on gender mainstreaming approaches); providing training, finance and other support (e.g. logistical) to enable women to enter or make the most of the ‘spaces’ that exist; apply a ‘zero tolerance’ policy to processes which do not include women or gendered perspectives, using carrots and sticks in terms of political and financial support.
- Member States should increase their efforts to support women’s participation in the governance and security sectors, as well as in all other key bodies, by continuing to address the obstacles that are already known, dedicating specific funds for these purposes, and ensuring accountability for this is placed at a high level in government.
- Regional organisations should improve their performance by fully implementing existing WPS policy (EU, AU) or revising it where it is weak or non existent (AL, OAS, ASEAN).
- Where official peace negotiations cannot be pursued, the UN, Member States and other actors with a role to play (mediation CSOs etc.) should support informal dialogue and mediation processes with the full and equal participation of women, pushing for agreements which integrate women’s rights. Such processes should also be properly documented and disseminated to ensure the knowledge base on CSO and women’s inclusion is enhanced and better known to improve practice in the sector.

General Finding 3: There is still an important implementation gap in terms of gender responsive laws and policies, including National Action Plans (NAP) on SCR 1325. The number of such laws and policies continues to increase, but the rate at which they are implemented does not. The place where the responsibility to implement the NAP is located in the government architecture, and the capacity and political clout of lead implementing agency/ies are as significant as the funding and indicators that it has.

- The Security Council should require mandatory reporting against SCR 1325, 1820 and the supporting WPS resolutions including specific national commitments to enhance accountability. This should include mechanisms to reward or profile high achievers, and ensuring disclosure (for public accountability) and providing concrete suggestions to support improved performance for underperformers.
- Member States should ensure that their NAP (or other WPS policy commitments) are properly resourced and planned, with the mechanisms for their implementation placed at a high level in government with clear accountability mechanisms.
- Member States must work with civil society in developing, implementing and monitoring their NAPs.
- Member States must ensure NAPs have indicators, timelines and decent budgets.
- Member States must provide decent budgets and levels of responsibility to their Ministries of Gender/Women’s Affairs; for example giving the Minister Vice Prime Ministerial responsibility in the Cabinet, placing the NAP steering committee within the PM’s office. In situations where Ministries of Gender or Women’s Affairs are being established, relevant Member States, donors and civil society should advocate for them not always to have ‘other’ social issues tacked on to them.
- CSOs working on WPS should continue to increase their partnerships with governments, UN and other CSOs, and if possible non-traditional partners (for example private sector actors with an influence in the environment where the CSOs operate) to implement, monitor and evaluate NAPs and other WPS plans.
- The UN SG and Head of UN Women, as well as leaders in Member States should continue to place the highest priority on issues of women’s leadership and participation in terms of WPS.

General Finding 4: Rates of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) remain extremely high, especially in areas of conflict and post conflict; impunity is rampant. Conflict-related SGBV against men is a neglected area.

- The UN SC should ensure the provision of SCRs 1325, 1820, 1888, 1889 and 1960 are implemented in practice and that there is an accountability mechanism which is consistently used.
- Member States should fund and lead efforts which improve the quality of data collected, to reinforce the implementation of national and international laws with regard to the prevention and access to justice for SGBV crimes against women, girls, men and boys.
• Member States should fund and lead efforts to provide relevant health care services to survivors of SGBV including training of health care personnel to handle SGBV cases.

• Member States should provide further training for all aspects of the security sector in the handling of SGBV cases. One objective of the training is to address the specific problems identified and effect change over time cultures of shame and silence relating to SGBV whether committed against women, girls, men or boys.

• Media organisations covering conflict should be extremely careful about the statistic for SGBV that they use and their corresponding analysis and reporting; Member States should look for opportunities to fund media/information CSOs which can support local media, research and SGBV organisations to conduct better reporting, research and analysis on this issue in all its aspects.

General Finding 5: Major data gaps on women and peace and security (WPS) persist across all areas, but especially on SGBV. Data collection practices are weak, leading to unreliable analysis (again, especially on SGBV); sex-disaggregated data is still the exception rather than the rule.

• Member States should fulfil their Paris Declaration commitments to systematize, improve and publish their funding on WPS, including SGBV to all stakeholders.

• Member States, donors and UN agencies should support national level institutions to enable the gathering, consolidation and dissemination of better quality data and statistics relating to WPS and in particular SGBV. Sex disaggregation of all data should be considered a basic norm.

• Members States, donors and UN agencies should support CSO efforts to support the systematisation and improvement of data collection and dissemination by providing funding and technical support.

• All actors should systematically use and request data of any kind to be sex-disaggregated.

General Finding 6: Funding for civil society actors on WPS at all levels remains meagre; donors privilege ‘project or programme’ funding over ‘core’ funding, obliging CSO’s to waste energy is wasted in scrambling for funds rather than in front line, timely and sustained research, advocacy and programming.

• Member States and donors should increase funding to CSOs including women’s groups on WPS, including reasonable core and institutional development support.

• International CSOs should work more closely together and with national level partners to create partnerships and consortia which allow for greater proportion of available WPS funding to flow both to CSOs, and closer to the ground.

• Member States and donors should recognize the value of proper evaluation and dissemination of results, to enhance learning and direct better future investments. This means increasing resources for evaluation, documentation and dissemination for their own programmes and those of CSOs including women’s groups.

• CSOs including women’s groups must make efforts to seek synergies and minimize competition between them to help strengthen advocacy messages and positions; this should be supported by a more open and reasonable funding environment.

• Member States and donors should provide funding and technical support to CSOs including women’s groups to produce technical inputs to conflict resolution, peace building and reconstruction processes which are of high quality and technical relevance.

• Members States and donors should fund and support regional networking and cooperation amongst CSOs to strengthen lesson learning and constructive advocacy on WPS.

General Finding 7: Funding allocated by donor countries to post conflict countries on WPS is not transparently tracked; donors are not meeting their commitments neither in their assistance, peace and security strategies or NAPs, nor in terms of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in this sector.

• Member States and Donors should fulfil their Paris Declaration/Accra Agenda for Action commitments and linking it to their NAPs/WPS policies. This should include increasing their contributions on WPS, earmarking, tracking and disseminating their allocations and impacts.

• Member States should devote high level attention and resources to implementing and evaluating their NAPs and other WPS strategies.
Annex 1

Brief summary of international norms on women, peace and security†


Often referred to as the international bill of rights for women, this Convention or CEDAW comprises a single, comprehensive and internationally binding instrument to eliminate discrimination against women. Developed by the UN Commission on the Status of Women, the Convention addresses the advancement of women, describes the meaning of equality and sets forth guidelines on how to achieve it. It also provides an agenda for action as those countries that ratify it agree to take concrete steps to improve the status of women and end discrimination and violence against women. It focuses on three main areas: civil rights and the legal status of women, reproductive rights and cultural factors influencing gender relations. CEDAW is the only human rights treaty which affirms the reproductive rights of women and targets culture and tradition as influential forces shaping gender roles and family relations. It affirms women's rights to acquire, change or retain their nationality and the nationality of their children. States parties also agree to take appropriate measures against all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of women. Currently 186 states are party to the Convention.


This document is known as the most comprehensive global policy framework to achieve the goals of gender equality, development and peace. Adopted by governments at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, this document sets forth governments' commitments to enhance women's rights. The aim of the conference was to assess progress since the Nairobi World Conference on Women in 1985 and to adopt a platform for action, concentrating on significant issues identified as obstacles to the advancement of women in the world.

It identified 12 significant issues: poverty; education and training; health; violence against women; armed conflict; economy; power and decision-making; institutional mechanisms; human rights; media; environment; and girls.

The Platform for Action has been reviewed under the auspices of the Commission on the Status of Women at 5 year intervals. In addition to below, summaries of these processes and their outcomes can be accessed at www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/index.html.

Beijing +5 review (2000):
In addition to further action on the 12 critical areas of concern the +5 review in 2000 addressed areas which had gained importance since the Beijing Conference. Emphasis was placed on women's access to decision-making particularly in peacekeeping processes; gender-sensitive approaches to HIV/AIDS and humanitarian crises; changing patterns of migratory flows; new technologies; violence against women, including trafficking and in armed conflict; and the realisation of women's full enjoyment of economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights. Actions also addressed the challenges presented by globalisation to the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. See www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/beijing+5.htm

Beijing +10 review (2005):
As with the +5 review, the +10 review showed progress, but of a patchy nature, and emphasised some critical areas for attention including poverty reduction; women in decision-making roles in the public and private sectors; employment inequality; and unequal access to social and economic resources. In addition the review considered how efforts to meet Millennium Development Goal 3 (see below) on the promotion and empowerment of women could be used to channel and focus efforts to meet the commitments of the Platform for Action.

• The review highlighted some cross cutting themes for more progress on women’s rights:
• The need to improve the availability, quality and use of sex-disaggregated data and gender statistics.
• The importance of increased efforts to involve men and boys.
• The potential for effective collaboration between governments and women's organisations and activists.
• The need to recognise and act on the specific needs of particular groups of women.

Beijing +15 review (2010):
Whilst registering significant progress in education and the development of gender-sensitive legislation and policies, the +15 review in 2010 noted that progress remained uneven, and disparities (for example, in relation to location, economic status, ethnicity, age and disability) remain, hampering a clearer picture of obstacles and impediments both at regional and global level.

The review again highlighted cross-cutting themes in need of action to advance women's rights:
• Under representation of women in decision-making positions in all sectors.
• Violence against women.
• The limited involvement of men and boys.
• Women's disproportionate domestic and care burden.
• Persistent prevalence of negative gender stereotyping.

It also emphasised the need to move beyond policy and legislation to implementation, and highlighted the critical role of political will and leadership.

See www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing15/outcomes.html and www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing15/media/Beijing15_Backgrounder_FINAL.pdf


SCR 1325 was adopted in 2000 by the UN Security Council to set out policy objectives relating to the impact of violent conflict and post-war recovery on women and girls. It calls on all actors (state and non-state) involved in violent conflict and its resolution to take into account a range of issues: measures to end gender-based violence and impunity for perpetrators of gender and sexual violence; the inclusion of women in decision-making related to peace building; as well as integrating gender perspectives in peacekeeping missions. It also outlines the importance of training on gender and women's rights among military observers, police, human rights and humanitarian personnel. It particularly calls for peace negotiations to include women at all levels of decision-making.

SCR 1820 urges UN Member States to recognise the use of sexual violence as a ‘tool’ of war and to prosecute perpetrators of such violence during armed conflict, treating them as war crimes and crimes against humanity. It also stresses the need to exclude sexual violence crimes from amnesty provisions in peace agreements and any peace building measures which follow from those agreements. It also urges the UN to train military and humanitarian personnel to prevent, recognise and respond to sexual violence against civilians. States are called upon to strengthen their capacities, including in health and other sectors, to prevent and respond to sexual violence in conflict situations.


SCR 1888 urges the Secretary General to appoint a Special Rapporteur to provide leadership, co-ordination and advocacy to implement SCR 1325 and 1820 and to work through the existing inter-agency initiative, the ‘United Nations Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict’. This was advanced in February 2010 with the appointment of Margot Wallström as the Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Conflict. The resolution urges states to pursue legal and judicial reform to bring perpetrators of sexual violence to account and facilitate appropriate redress by victims and survivors. Women’s protection advisers are called for among the UN cohort of gender advisers and within human rights protection units. The UN is called upon to strengthen existing mechanisms for monitoring, and reporting on, the protection of women and children from sexual and gender-based violence.


SCR 1889 aims to strengthen the implementation and monitoring of SCR 1325. It reiterates its mandate for increasing women’s participation and reinforces calls for mainstreaming gender perspectives in all decision-making processes, especially in the early stages of post-war peace building. In particular, SCR 1889 calls for the development of indicators and reporting, increasing women’s participation, and strengthening law enforcement and ending impunity.


This resolution was passed at the tenth anniversary of SCR 1325 because of Security Council concern on the slow progress on the issue of sexual violence in situations of armed conflict, in particular against women and children. Among many re-affirmations of points in previous resolutions, it also mandated the creation of a monitoring and reporting mechanism for sexual violence during conflict which compiles data and lists of perpetrators.

Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 3
www.undp.org/mdg/goal3.shtml

MDG 3 is the third of the eight Millennium Development Goals adopted by world leaders in the year 2000 to be achieved by 2015. The MDGs provide concrete, numerical benchmarks for tackling extreme poverty in its many dimensions. The MDGs also provide a framework for the entire international community to work together towards a common end – making sure that human development reaches everyone, everywhere. The eight MDGs break down into 21 quantifiable targets that are measured by 60 indicators.

MDG 3 seeks to promote gender equality and empower women, with a specific target to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015. The indicators it uses are:

- Share of women in waged employment in the non-agricultural sector.
- Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments.
- Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education.
- To review progress, see www.undp.org/mdg/progress.shtml

UN Indicators on women, peace and security (2010)
www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Indicators/sg_report_on_1889-op17.pdf

In 2010 the Secretary General released a set of 26 indicators covering a range of scenarios and issues relating to women, gender, peace and security. Using these indicators to set and measure progress is one way to contribute to building information and evidence for future policymaking and operational activities.

Background and other documents on these indicators can be found at www.peacewomen.org/security_council_monitor/indicators
The contribution of the CSOs in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) was limited to 3 indicators (1, 3 and 7) due to resource and time constraints and the need to thus select the most relevant indicators to follow up after the base line data collection achieved in 2010.

www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Indicators/sg_report_on_1889-op17.pdf

see the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom's www.peacewomen.org site

For a concise summary of the content and difference between these key resolutions, see Annex 1, p.51


The set was originally presented to the Security Council in April 2010 (S/2010/173); the Security Council, in its presidential statement (S/PRST/2010/8) noted that the indicators would need technical and conceptual development before becoming operational and requested a inclusion of a reviewed comprehensive set of indicators in the next report to the Council on women and peace and security due in October 2010.

Presentation by UNW Brussels Liaison Office to EPLO CSDN meeting on the implementation of SCR 1325-related EU policy frameworks in EU Common Security and Defence Policy Missions, June 2010

http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natolive/topics_56984.htm

E.g. the Constitutive Act of the AU (2000); the Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of women in Africa (2003); It has endorsed an AU Gender Policy (2009) and the Fund for African Women, while its Assembly declared 2010-2020 the African Women's Decade.

www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Indicators/sg_report_on_1889-op17.pdf

ICAN provides resources and networking on women's participation in peace, justice and reconciliation efforts www.icanpeacework.org

Interparliamentary Union: http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm

Due to time and resource constraints, the Canadian team chose to focus on indicators 4, 6, 8, 13, 14 and 15, as those most relevant to their NAP. This also includes a specific focus on Afghanistan.

Interparliamentary Union: http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm


http://canadaonline.about.com/od/premiers/Provincial_Premiers_in_Canada.htm

http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm

Interparliamentary Union: http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm; Afghan Women's Network/GNWP, Afghanistan UNSCR 1325 in-country civil society monitoring report 2011

New data for 2011 impossible to obtain, in particular after the April 2011 attack on the Ministry of Defence

http://www.ssrnetwork.net/ssrbulletin/afghanista.php

This data has been reconfirmed against DPKO data at http://www.un.org/Depts/dpko/dpko/contributors/index.htm; where there are discrepancies, DPKO data has been used. Hence it only refers to UN peacekeeping missions.

NB this figure does not include e.g. contributions to ISAF (Afghanistan) or EU missions such as EUPOR-Althea (Bosnia & Herzegovina) and EUPOL COPPS (Palestine), EUPOL (Afghanistan), UE MM (Georgia).

This figure is an average taken from the three different types of experts referred to in Sweden's in-country civil society monitoring report for GNWP 2011: Swedish Civil and Contingencies Agency (CCA); Swedish Prison and Probation Service (PPS) and Folke Bernadotte Academy (FBA).

Department of Peacekeeping, “Statistics by Mission: For the Month of July 2011.”

For additional reading on women's participation in peace building, feel free to visit http://www.peacebuilding.no/eng/Themes/Women-peace-and-security/Publications/Women-s-participation-in-UN-peacekeeping-operations-agents-of-change-or-stranded-symbols

E.g. see contributions from CSOs to recent GPPAC dialogue on implementing 1325 at http://www.peaceportal.org/

Data from 2010

Daily Monitor, Tuesday 16th August, 2011, story by a reporter on Parliamentary issues. 35


Peterman, Amber et al, Foreign Affairs op. cit.


Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2010 monitoring and evaluation of Dutch NAP 1325 (not public available)

Costing and Financing 1325: examining the resources needed to implement Security Council Resolution 1325 at the National Level as well as the Gains Gaps and Glitches on
Financing the Women, Peace and Security Agenda, GNWP, 2010

http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/11/41/34428351.pdf: in March 2005 the members of the OECD signed up to the principles of ownership, harmonisation, alignment, results and mutual Accountability with the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. Concerned by slow progress, they boosted this with the Accra Agenda for Action in 2008, calling for more country ownership, more effective and inclusive partnerships, focus on achieving development results and openly accounting for them, reducing the fragmentation of aid, deeper engagement with civil society, improving predictability of aid, and changing the conditionality of aid.

http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/how/evaluation/evaluation_reports/reports/2009/1266_pst_vol1_en.pdf (Figure 4.10 on p. 46)

See footnote 54 above


There was significant outcry from civil society that this resolution had been passed without adequate consultation with women, that it still treats women only as victims and does not recognise the roles their agency and increased participation can, and could, play in reducing their vulnerability to this phenomenon. See, Global Network of Women Peacebuilders, "Letter: UNSCR 1960 and The Need for Focus on Full Implementation of UNSCR 1325 Open Letter to Member of the Security Council, Re: Res. 1960 (Appeals & Demonstrations)", 7 January, (2011). www.peacewomen.org/portal_initiative_initiative.php?id=829