**Blue Bells Model United NATIONS**

**CONFERENCE**



**Blue Bells for World Peace**

**United Nations Human Rights Council**

**BACKGROUND GUIDE**

**AGENDA : Reviewing the mandate of and implementation of human rights in conflict regions by the United Nations Peace Keeping Forces (UNPKF)**

**REVIEWING THE MANDATE OF AND IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN CONFLICT REGIONS BY UN PEACEKEEPING FORCES (UNPKF)**

**Suggestions before you start researching-**

A few aspects that delegates should keep in mind while preparing:

Procedure: The purpose of putting in procedural rules in any committee is to ensure a more organized and efficient debate. The Executive Board shall be mildly strict with the Rules of Procedure, although the discussion of the agenda will be the main priority. So, delegates are advised not to restrict their statements due to hesitation regarding the procedure.

Foreign Policy: Following the foreign policy of one’s country is the most important aspect of a Model UN Conference. This is what essentially differentiates a Model UN from other debating formats.

Role of the Executive Board: The Executive Board is appointed to facilitate debate. The committee shall decide the direction and flow of debate. The delegates are the ones who constitute the committee and hence must be uninhibited while presenting their opinions/stance on any issue. However, the Executive Board may put forward questions and/or ask for clarifications at all points of time to further debate and test participants.

NATURE OF SOURCES/EVIDENCE This Background Guide is meant solely for research purposes and must not be cited as evidence to substantiate statements made during the conference. Evidence or proof for substantiating statements made during the formal debate is acceptable from the following sources:

1. United Nations: Documents and findings by the United Nations or any related UN body are held as credible proof to support a claim or argument.  
     
   Multilateral Organizations: Documents from international organizations like OIC, NAFTA, SAARC, BRICS, EU, ASEAN, the International Criminal Court, etc. may also be presented as a credible source of information.
2. Government Reports: These reports can be used in a similar way as the State Operated News Agencies reports and can, in all circumstances, be denied by another country. However, a nuance is that a report that is being denied by a certain country can still be accepted by the Executive Board as a credible piece of information.
3. News Sources:
   1. Reuters: Any Reuters article that clearly makes mention of the factor is in contradiction to the fact being stated by a delegate in council.
   2. State-operated News Agencies: These reports can be used in the support of or against the State that owns the News Agency. These reports, if credible or substantial enough, can be used in support of or against any country as such but in that situation, may be denied by any other country in the council. Some examples are –RIA Novosti8 (Russian Federation), Xinhua News Agency11 (People’s Republic of China), etc.

Please Note-

* Reports from NGOs working with UNESCO, UNICEF and other UN bodies will be accepted.  
  Under no circumstances will sources like Wikipedia, or newspapers like the Guardian, Times of India etc. be accepted. However, notwithstanding the aforementioned criteria for acceptance of sources and evidence, delegates are still free to quote/cite from any source as they deem fit as a part of their statements.

**About the UNHRC:**

The United Nations Human Rights Council is a United Nations body whose mission is to promote and protect human rights around the world. The UNHRC has 47 members elected for staggered three-year terms on a regional group basis. The headquarters of UNHRC is in Geneva, Switzerland.

The UNHRC investigates allegations of breaches of human rights in UN member states, and addresses important thematic human rights issues such as freedom of association and assembly, freedom of expression, freedom of belief and religion, women's rights, LGBT rights, and the rights of racial and ethnic minorities.

The UNHRC was established by the UN General Assembly on March 15, 2006 (by resolution A/RES/60/251) to replace the UN Commission on Human Rights (UNCHR, herein CHR) that had been strongly criticized for allowing countries with poor human rights records to be members. UN Secretaries General Kofi Annan and Ban Ki-moon, former president of the council Doru Costea, the European Union, Canada, and the United States have accused the UNHRC of focusing disproportionately on the Israeli–Palestinian conflict, and many allege an anti-Israel bias – the Council has resolved more resolutions condemning Israel than the rest of the world combined. The UNHRC works closely with the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and engages the UN's special procedures.

The Council consists of 47 members, elected yearly by the General Assembly for staggered three-year terms. Members are selected via the basis of equitable geographic rotation using the United Nations regional grouping system. Members are eligible for re-election for one additional term, after which they must relinquish their seat.

The seats are distributed along the following lines:

* 13 for the African Group
* 13 for the Asia-Pacific Group
* 6 for the Eastern European Group
* 8 for the Latin American and Caribbean Group
* 7 for the Western European and Others Group

Charter of the United Nations http://www.un.org/en/charter-united-nations/index.html Previous resolutions of the United Nations on various agendas http://www.un.org/en/ga/70/resolutions.shtml

**Position Paper/Policy White Paper**

A Policy White paper, as the name suggests, is a document that outlines a country’s or a bloc’s policy.

A Policy White Paper clearly describes the country’s policy towards a situation. It may be public or private i.e. you may choose to show it to other members in the council or merely to the Executive Board, depending upon the nature of the Policy White Paper. There is no format to it per se, just ensure that it is ordered and in, formal language.

A Policy White Paper contains a wide range of important information. It usually starts off with the objectives that the country has for a situation. This could range from the peaceful settlement of the dispute to capturing of certain territory. Once the objective is clear, it is easier to frame the rest of the Policy Paper to attain that objective. The authors usually insert information about the terms of engagement for various departments of that country in the situation. Is the Army allowed to fire first? Will we have intelligence operatives on the ground in the other country? What sort of collateral damage is permissible? All these considerations are taken into account in writing a Policy Paper. Another function of a Policy Paper is that it serves as a default setting for all actors of that country during a conflict. Whether it's your military or your Foreign Affairs ministry, they need to know the country’s official stance with respect to pertinent issues so that their actions have direction in the event of a crisis.

The link contains an official UK Government White Paper on the Brexit strategy. Ignore the format, merely understand the text. https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/the-united-kingdoms-exit-from-and-new-partnership-with-the-european-union-white-paper

https://zumun.ch/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/Position\_Paper\_Guide\_new.pdf

Please Note: Each delegate will be required to submit a Policy White Paper by the end of Day 1.

\*This is an excerpt derived to give the clearest idea as to what a policy white paper.

**UN LAYOUT BRIEF**

**Mainstreaming Gender in PKOs**

**Introduction**

Since the inception of United Nations (UN) peacekeeping in 1948, peacekeeping operations have grown to include over 110,000 active personnel from 120 Member States, including police, military, and civilian personnel. However as of January 2017, women only comprised 22% of civilian personnel, 10% of police, and 3% of military personnel in these peacekeeping field operations, as per by UN Department of Peacekeeping (DPKO) statistics. According to DPKO these statistics have “remained largely unchanged over the past few years,” despite DPKO’s operational imperative to recruit and retain female peacekeeping staff. In some estimates, experts evaluate that at its current rate, UN peacekeeping will only hit its gender parity goal in the year 2352. The Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations (C-34), as the body in charge of setting high-level best practices for peacekeeping operations (PKOs), has been particularly criticized for having weak recommendations on gender mainstreaming and inclusion of female peacekeepers in the past. In particular, the sexual abuse and exploitation of civilians by peacekeepers has received substantial public attention and has reflected the overall need to revise and update high-level peacekeeping policies with regards to gender. As established in the pivotal Security Council resolution 1325 (2000), UN peacekeeping missions have also been recommended to expand their understanding of gender and peacekeeping in order to recognize women as negotiators, peacekeepers, and advisors, not only victims; however women still continue to be particularly underrepresented at the upper levels of the UN peacekeeping infrastructure. It will be up to C-34 to realize and mitigate those obstacles which stand in the way of fully gender mainstreaming UN peacekeeping operations (PKOs). In

order to fully mainstream gender and expand women’s participation in this, it will be paramount to understand the role of women in peacekeeping operations, and how the UN can work with Troop-Contributing Countries (TCCs) to ensure their contributions are more gender inclusive.

International & Legal Framework

The basis of gender mainstreaming can be traced back to the Charter of the United Nations (1945), which established the right of all individuals, regardless of sex, to have higher living standards and full employment. In 1948 the Universal Declaration of Human Rights recognized equal rights for all individuals without exception, including equality of employment and right to participate in society, adding further to the framework of gender mainstreaming. In 1979 the General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), one of the first international framework documents on gender equality, which laid out specific provisions for the equal representation of women and for equal rights of employment in the profession of their choice. In 1995, the General Assembly adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (Beijing Declaration), which was at the time the most progressive international framework for advancing women’s rights. The Beijing Declaration made comprehensive commitments in twelve key areas of concern and provided a central political map for the UN to affirm women’s rights internationally. In 1997 the UN officially established the policy of “gender mainstreaming,” which the UN defined in the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) “Agreed Conclusions” (1997) as the inclusion of women’s and men’s concerns in all levels of policy making, policy evaluation, and any planned action to be taken by the UN, with the ultimate goal of benefitting men and women equally. In 1997 ECOSOC adopted the “Agreed Conclusions 1997/2” as part of its annual report, which called for gender mainstreaming to play a role in all levels of UN decision-making. The Agreed Conclusions also recommended that the UN partner with Member States to achieve gender mainstreaming in all aspects of the international system. In 1999, C-34 aligned with the new goals of UN gender mainstreaming by publishing a report outlining the need for more gender-sensitive approaches in field operations and DPKO, titled the Comprehensive review of the whole question of peacekeeping operations in all their aspects, Report of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations (1999), which aimed to strengthen the overall best practices regarding gender equality in peacekeeping. The Namibia Plan of Action on Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Multidimensional Peace Support Operations developed by DPKO and the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women in May 2000, focuses specifically on the role of gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping operations. The Plan of Action states that women must have an equal role in peace and ceasefire negotiations, and that gender issues should be fully addressed in any post-conflict negotiations that occur. Additionally, the Plan of Action provides guidelines for recruiting women to high-ranking decision-making positions and suggests DPKO use the same gender mainstreaming procedures that are in use by other UN agencies. In October 2000, the Security Council adopted the pivotal resolution 1325 on “Women and Peace and Security,” which was the first official document calling for the increased participation of women in decision-making during conflict resolution and peace processes. The resolution also calls for incorporating more gender perspectives into peacekeeping operations, expanding the role of women in peacekeeping operations, and requiring that special attention be given to the needs of women and girls in conflict areas. Furthermore, resolution 1325 calls upon the Secretary-General to appoint more women to special advisor roles in peacekeeping while expanding the role of women on the ground in field operations. The adoption of resolution 1325 marked the beginning of the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) agenda at the UN, inspiring future WPS-focused resolutions, including UN Security Council resolutions 1820 (2009), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2010), 1960 (2011), 2106 (2013), 2122 (2013), and 2242 (2015), documents, and programs which focus on bringing women into leadership roles both during and after conflict.

**Role of the International System**

C-34 was formed to produce annual reports aimed at evaluating peacekeeping operations in all their aspects and making recommendations for their improvement. The 2018 report of C-34 notes the operational need for women in peacekeeping operations to serve in roles ranging from police personnel and troops, to high-ranking administrative officials. In the report, C-34 stressed the importance of having gender perspectives and expertise in areas including economic recovery and disarmament discussions at the UN level, but also on local, regional, and national levels regarding conflict resolution. The report noted that including such perspectives can build resilience in communities and ensure that specific gender-based concerns such as the involvement of women in post-conflict society are considered. Further, the 2018 report noted that the deployment of women peacekeepers is important to assist national security institutions, as the gender perspectives of women can help those institutions achieve greater gender-balanced approaches to security, which can assure that they are overall more responsive to the needs of women. The C-34 committee requested the Secretariat create a system of gender-targets and accountability designed to promote women to leadership positions through methods such as mentoring and focusing on the hiring of additional female personnel, specifically in the police sector. Another major point from C-34 in the 2018 report is the need to support survivors of conflict-related sexual violence and to provide training modules at all levels to ensure all members of UN Peacekeeping are able to work sensitively with survivors. C-34 further acknowledged the decision of the Secretary-General, stating that countries that were involved in acts pertaining to sexual abuse and exploitation were to remain prohibited from participating in UN peacekeeping, while also urging those countries to cooperate with a Special Representative to prevent those issues from occurring further. In 2014, DPKO and the Department of Field Support (DFS) adopted the DPKO/DFS Gender Forward Looking Strategy 2014-2018, which is focused on ensuring that gender mainstreaming becomes more of an integral part of UN peacekeeping that extends beyond the hiring of more women. This policy is also focused on training peacekeepers and their host countries in mainstreaming gender through security reforms, which can help to further engage the participation of women at all levels by developing gender focused policies. Since the release of this report, DPKO has focused on implementing policy changes addressing gender through measures that target gender-based discrimination, utilizing gender perspectives in internal policymaking, and mandating gender training for all personnel. DPKO also utilizes a Gender Task Force to ensure the full inclusion of the Gender Strategy within all its policies, while also providing a forum to

ensure that the various peacekeeping missions are also integrating the Gender Strategy within their missions and policies. Echoing this action, in 2017, a report from the Secretary-General noted that gender perspectives were being integrated within analysis and mission planning and stressed the importance of inter-agency cooperation between UN bodies. The report also called for accountability measures to ensure that various UN agencies are integrating gender mainstreaming policies, particularly within the peace and security sectors of the UN. On a regional level, the European Union (EU) has worked to implement similar gender mainstreaming strategies for their peacekeeping missions as well, particularly a strategy called

Implementation of UNSCR 1325 as reinforced by UNSCR 1820 in the context of ESDP. Using this

implementation strategy, the EU has primarily focused on preventative policies with troop contributing countries, particularly in regard to preventing sexual exploitation and abuse. The Second Report on the EU indicators for the Comprehensive Approach to the EU Implementation of the UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 &1820 on Women, Peace, and Security (2014) notes that the EU made progress in appointing gender advisors to Common Security and Defense Policy missions, but also showed that the EU was not as successful in other areas such as having partner states adopt national gender policies. The Council of the European Union noted that 16 of their Member States adopted the protocols outlined in their reports for implementing Security Council resolution 1325, but also noted that more Member States needed to commit to these efforts, especially in regards to the creation of their own national action plans (NAPs) on implementation of resolution 1325. The African Union (AU) adopted the Continental Results Framework for Monitoring and Reporting on the Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa (2018), which took note of serious issues

pertaining to sexual violence in African conflict zones and the significant underrepresentation of women in peace processes, such as in AU Peace Support Operations where women comprise only 2.9% of troops, and as little as .08% of troops, depending on the contributing Member State. The AU’s Implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda in Africa (2016) has also been a primary focus, including implementing policies focused on bringing women into the security sector, allowing women the ability to take part in conflict resolution and peacebuilding, and achieving better gender diversity in representation and leadership. The same AU implementation strategy indicated that women in police and military roles in peacekeeping operations were still at significantly low rates at all military and administrative levels and needed increased support from AU Member States through methods such as national and regional peace platforms with a gender mainstreaming focus. Civil society has also played a significant role in focusing on the issue of gender mainstreaming in peacekeeping, particularly

the non-governmental organization (NGO) NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security, which is comprised of various stakeholders including Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch. The NGO Working Group regularly lobbies the Security Council on WPS-related policy advocacy. An example of this comes through their Monthly Action Points (MAPs), which make direct policy observations and recommendations to the Security Council, and also provide tailored recommendations to Member States. Their August 2018 publication focuses on gender issues that are persistent across all UN peacekeeping missions, specifically the need for greater accountability in sexual exploitation and abuse by peacekeepers, while also improving the process for women who have been detained.

**Successes in Gender Inclusive UN Peacekeeping**

In Security Council resolution 2122 of 2018 on “Women, Peace and Security,” the Security Council noted the significant role that women can play at all levels of PKOs, from in-field operations to the policymaking level. Emphasis on the important support of local women by female peacekeepers has become particularly important in recent years, with a number of recent studies indicating that women continue to be disproportionately impacted by violent conflict and that women are differentially affected by post conflict processes. A 2017 report from the UN Coordinating Action on Small Arms showed that in addition to conflict-related violence, women in conflict areas showed repeated patterns of being particularly vulnerable to continued domestic violence, sexual violence, and the use of illicit small arms and light weapons (SALWs). According to this report, female refugees most often cite sexual violence by men armed with SALW as the primary reason for fleeing their home and community in conflict. Additionally, violence from conflict generally results in more female-headed households due to conflict related casualties of men. UN Coordinating Action on Small Arms noted in their original report The Role of Women in United Nations Peacekeeping (1995) that women were more likely to feel comfortable discussing issues of violence and marginalization with other women, research that continues to be reiterated in PKO best practices today. Female peacekeepers can therefore help women who have suffered gender-related violence, sexual violence, marginalization, and resulting poverty by providing confidential survivor assistance, psycho-social support, guidance on economic reintegration, and ensuring that the UN provides gender-responsive support to these communities. A higher number of female peacekeepers is also associated with fewer allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse against UN peacekeepers. In addition to supporting local women and providing needed gender-responsive support to victims of violence, female peacekeepers also play an important role at the negotiating table. Currently, women only comprise 2% of Chief Mediators and 3% of UN military peacekeepers, yet a joint-study completed by UN-Women and the Council on Foreign Relations shows that when women are involved in peace negotiations the agreements are 36% more likely to succeed. Additionally, when women are involved in peace negotiations, agreements are 35% more likely to last 15 years or longer. In a post-conflict setting, women are often excluded from the disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR) process, which works to disarm combatant groups and to allow ex-combatants to resettle their lives. However because civilian women rarely identify as ex-combatants, women are often prevented from taking advantage of essential programs that comprise the DDR processes. Having more women at the negotiating table for peace processes and be involved in programming DDR processes can ensure that in the post-conflict peacebuilding, women are not neglected in key resettlement, economic reintegration, and post-conflict legislative processes, thereby ensuring more enduring peace.

**Engaging TCCs to increase uniformed female personnel**

A 2008 UN internal study showed that at the time, women only comprised 2% of uniformed peacekeeping personnel. A series of 2017 statistics from the UN Coordinating Action on Small Arms showed only a 1% increase in the number of women serving as military personnel in peacekeeping operations since the 2008 internal study. Part of the existing obstacle to full

gender equity in peacekeeping is that current troop contributions for UN peacekeeping operations come from Member States, called TCCs, and thus responsibility for recruitment of women falls mainly on the respective TCCs. TCCs are often reluctant to send in female peacekeepers due to a number of reasons, including cost factors stemming from the additional facilities needed for women, security issues in conflict-zones, and existing social stigma facing women in uniform. Security factors are a primary concern of TCCs, and many are often reluctant to send female troops to areas with high-risk or a higher likelihood for sexual abuse and exploitation. However, despite these barriers, having female peacekeepers and applying a gendered perspective to peacekeeping enhances PKO effectiveness and operationalization. For example, understanding how men and women use demined agricultural land differently, by talking to both local men and women, change demining approaches to provide a better understanding of the population that the PKO serves. This means that the UN is currently working with TCCs to find a way to mitigate barriers and increase the presence of female peacekeepers in order to improve overall mission success. According to the UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (UNINSTRAW), a partnership with UN Peacekeeping and TCCs focused on finding incentives to encourage more women to join the armed forces could result in more women moving onto peacekeeping missions, if successful. DPKO and DFS have also recommended increased pre-deployment training and evaluation to ensure that Member States are aware of the need for women in deployment areas, and cognizant of the UN mandates to improve gender mainstreaming implementation, as outlined in the DPKO/DFS’s report Integrating a Gender Perspective Into the Work of the United Nations Military in Peacekeeping Operations (2010). DPKO and DFS have also proposed broad-level gender-focused security sector reform (SSR). The proposed reforms would support national security institutions while simultaneously promoting gender sensitive policies so that women are better recruited and promoted in the areas of security. One method of implementing SSR would be to include women in the reform process itself, which can ensure that gender perspectives and women’s rights are being adequately considered in program development. In 2010, the NGO the Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces released a report titled Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform (2014), which provides further recommendations for gender-based SSR. Recommendations include recognizing that SSR would need for institutional policies to eliminate formal barriers preventing women from achieving high military rankings; a promotion agenda that includes the evaluation of the skills women bring with them into their military positions; and increased representation of women at decision making levels within peacekeeping. The report also included tools and recommendations for creating gender-responsive SSR and DDR by requiring TCCs to develop national-level plans on gender-inclusive troop hiring processes, code of conducts for accountability with allegations of sexual abuse and exploitation and demonstrating troop accountability when gender-inclusivity is not affirmed.

**Improving the use of Technology in PKOs**

**Introduction**

Technology, the “application of scientific knowledge for practical purposes,” is rapidly changing the lives of people globally. According to a report of the International Telecommunications Union at the end of 2015, 3.2 billion people were using the internet, which is 47% of the global population. Within the United Nations (UN), new technological developments not only pose new and more efficient means of enacting global diplomacy, but also benefit in-field work such as UN peacekeeping. In particular, the field of information and communications technology (ICTs) which is “the combination of informatics technology with other, related technologies, specifically communication technology” is especially important for UN peacekeeping, because it allows for more efficient exchange of important information between different actors. As the Under-Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations stated in 2017 in a meeting of the Working Group on Peacekeeping operations, “innovation and technology in peacekeeping [is] not a luxury but a necessity” to meet mission challenges arising from emerging and multifaceted threats. Through ongoing review of its actions, the UN has definitively established that the usage of modern technology, such as renewable energy production or surveillance through drones in its peacekeeping operations (PKOs), can better help missions fulfill their current mandates and meet challenges in the evolving field of peacekeeping. Enabling PKOs to function better through technology is often referred to as “Smart Peacekeeping,” based on the fact that utilizing technology can make much of the in-field processes, such as energy production, surveillance, and water supplies, easier for peacekeeping personnel, thereby improving overall mission operationalization. Evaluating the current state of technology in peacekeeping operations, and looking at a variety of technological options that might help peacekeeping to keep up with current challenges will be important to understanding how UN missions can better operationalize through the use of new technology.

**International & Regional Framework**

As the topic of utilizing technology in peacekeeping operations is relatively new within the larger historical legacy of peacekeeping, detailed guidance and frameworks are still being developed. The topic has largely been dealt with on an ad hoc basis through committee discussions and through some key reports. The foundation for the UN’s work on peacekeeping is established in the Charter of the United Nations (1945); article VII allows the Security Council to use force to “maintain or restore international peace and security.” While peacekeeping as a term is not specified, in the Charter it has become a very powerful tool to aiding the UN in achieving its mandate. The General Assembly reviews the work on peacekeeping every year and adopts a resolution on the issue, with the most recent one adopted in 2017 on the “Comprehensive review of the whole question of peacekeeping operations in all their aspects.” The annual resolution always includes recognition of the key annual report submitted by the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations (C-34), urging the implementation of the suggested measures. The necessity of bringing the technological standard of UN PKOs to a higher level was first established in the Report of the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations (Brahimi Report) in 2000. The report evaluated the current situation of UN peacekeeping and gave specific recommendations for improvement. The aspects discussed include the need for changes to peacekeeping strategies, realistic mandates, improved leadership, and utilizing information technology. The need for continued development was recently reiterated in a 2017

study by Lieutenant General Carlos Alberto dos Santos Cruz, Improving Security of United Nations Peacekeepers: We need to change the way we are doing business (Cruz Report), which evaluated the reasons for a rising amount of fatalities in UN peacekeeping operations. The report was an important guideline for the work of C-34 in 2018, as it provided a recent study on the operational challenges that PKOs face throughout all aspects of these operations. Besides determining several key areas that the UN needs to address in order to improve mission operationalization, such as better pre-deployment training, administration, updating the principles of peacekeeping, and improving tactical intelligence, the report noted the need to equip peacekeepers with basic technology to improve their security. The Secretary-General also addressed the need for technology to overcome new operational challenges in his 2016 report on “Implementation of the recommendations of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations” (A/70/579) and emphasized the importance of continuous development toward increased use of relevant technology in missions. The Department of Peacekeeping operations (DPKO) and the Department of Field Support (DFS) established an Expert Panel on Technology and Innovation in UN Peacekeeping (Expert Panel) in 2014 in order to find suitable ways to utilize the opportunities presented by new technology. Finding diverse potential for new technology, the expert panel evaluated a number of these applications and submitted a comprehensive final report, Performance Peacekeeping: Final Report of the Expert Panel on Technology and Innovation in UN Peacekeeping (2014), which will help the UN become more efficient in PKOs. The report discusses several different areas where technology can help PKOs, including improving shelter, water supply, communications, energy, and health services. Evenly more importantly are the operational imperatives given by the report, providing suggestions on how to implement technology, demonstrating ready-to-use technology application. Another key framework guiding the work of the UN on this topic is the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015) and the resulting Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Goal 16 on peace, justice and strong institutions is important for peacekeeping as a whole, while other goals address different areas on the use of technology in PKOs. SDGs 6 and 7, focusing on water and energy respectively, address two aspects needed in every peacekeeping mission. Furthermore SDG 9 on infrastructure and fostering innovation is also relevant for peacekeeping, as technology is one of the key means through which innovation can be brought to the field.

**Role of the International System**

While the analysis and evaluation of new technological possibilities is conducted by a variety of UN bodies, a key leader in driving progress toward implementation is the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations (C-34). In its 2018 annual report, the Committee stresses the need to increase the use of technology in peacekeeping missions, and tasks the relevant executing bodies, including DPKO, to act upon this recommendation. While C-34 does not directly implement the changes to PKOs, its recommendations serve as the high-level guidelines for the UN’s peacekeeping work. However, one major challenge for the committee is responding to the speed at which technology is being developed and the resulting evaluations of technology for peacekeeping. In its latest report, C34 repeatedly emphasized the need for the UN to implement more technology in PKOs to make them safer and better-suited to facing key

challenges in peacekeeping. Furthermore, modern technology can enhance situational awareness and the protection of civilians, which is one of the central goals of a PKO. C-34 call for newer operational technology was also emphasized by the Working Group on Peacekeeping Operations, which was established by the Security Council in 2001 to foster discussion and dialogue on current peacekeeping issues between troop-contributing countries (TCCs) and the Security Council. In 2016, the Working Group held a meeting on the “Use of Technology in Peacekeeping Operations” to discuss how technology can enhance the safety and security of peacekeepers while also improving communication, situational awareness, and other aspects of PKO operationalization. One particularly important aspect discussed at this 2016 meeting is the “need to develop a policy framework […] governing the use of technology in peacekeeping,” which has yet to be created. Furthermore, the working group emphasized the necessity of providing suitable training for peacekeeping personnel to successfully use new technology as well as technology that is already in place. The results of the working group led to the creation of the High-Level Independent Panel on Peace Operations (HIPPO), which was tasked with reviewing UN peace operations as a whole in 2014. Its report emphasizes the need to start the process with “enabling” technologies, such as larger bandwidth or improved latency for communications, which can then lead to other technologies being brought into PKOs. The Panel concluded that technology can help UN peacekeeping, but will not solve political problems on its own. Continued efforts to solve conflicts on a basis of negotiations will always be necessary for sustainable peace. DPKO and DFS, and in particular its Information and Communications Technology Division, are the main actors within the UN to implement the recommendations by C-34 and decisions by the Security Council on PKOs. In 2014, DPKO and DFS established the Expert Panel on Technology and Innovation in UN Peacekeeping in order to find suitable ways to utilize the opportunities presented by new technology. The expert panel submitted their report in December of 2014, and this report served as an important basis for the discussions of the Working Group on Peacekeeping Operations. DFS also established the Partnership for Technology in Peacekeeping in 2014. The goal of the partnership is to improve cooperation between Member States, private companies, and non-governmental organizations, and DPKO and DFS, to utilize technological and innovative capacities. Holding regular symposiums to foster this intensive cooperation and exchange of knowledge has already led to several important options to improve peacekeeping. Topics include utilizing situational awareness and geospatial information services; improving the use of ICTs; and increasing the involvement of academic and research institutions. The field of ICT involves private and non-governmental organizations, and this ongoing ICT development gives opportunities to use this knowledge for peacekeeping. For example, the ICT4Peace project, which is a non-profit foundation under supervision of the Swiss government, develops strategies and makes recommendations for the use of ICTs for peaceful purposes. ICT4Peace has contributed largely to the Secretary-General’s ICT strategy and has also already impacted PKOs. For example it has made contributions to the Crisis Information Management Strategy in supporting crisis management and evaluating possible technological options to solve key challenges. Similarly. the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) started working on technology in peace and security with a project called Science for Peace and Security (SPS) in 1958. The project, which fosters dialogue and cooperation on scientific research and technological innovation, has been cooperating with the UN and other international organizations to help improve peacekeeping worldwide. Another

particularly fruitful and well established project is the cooperation between SPS and the United Nations Mine Action Service (UNMAS) focusing on training security forces to deal with destruction of explosive devices.

Case Studies of Emerging Technology in Peacekeeping Operations

With the PKO improvement potential offered by technology, it is necessary to take an in-depth look at several of these opportunities to evaluate their feasibility. With the broad analysis of the Expert Panel of 2014, many of these options have already been examined to an extent, but the panel also emphasized that emerging work must continue and that other possible applications of technology need to be evaluated as well. Furthermore, the logistical challenges that emerge with implementing new technologies in the field, such as equipment costs, effective technical support, and access to energy supply, will also have to be considered. While the specific issues may differ depending on the type of technology utilized, these are consistent challenges to implementation and require innovative solutions by the international community.

**Communication**

With PKOs becoming more complex in recent years due to the increased presence of evolving threats, having fast and reliable in-field communication is becoming increasingly important to successfully running these operations. The main challenge for communication in the field is often based on different TCCs using different equipment that is incompatible. Barrier-free communication is needed at tactical, operational, and strategic levels. However, since a single UN mission is always made up of troops deployed from a number of different TCCs, finding solutions to create interoperability between different systems will be key to better communication within PKOs. While there are different technical options to reach this level of interoperability and new innovations such as IP-based communication will likely help to solve the issue, taking measures to link existing systems is a more efficient solution. Additionally, while there is commercially available technology already used by a majority of the world’s militaries that could be used for mission command and control, the cost of such equipment and the need for specially trained personnel to operate it is a significant barrier to implementation. A possible solution suggested by the Expert Panel is MUTALINK, which allows to connect a variety of radio, video, and data sharing systems to communicate with each other without having to replace the systems in use, but similar financial and training challenges complicate implementation of such a system.

**Unmanned Aerial Vehicles**

The advancements made in the field of unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), often referred to colloquially as “drones,” have been highly publicized. The possibilities UAVs offer to PKO are immense, as seen in tactical successes by the United Nations Organization Stabilization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUSCO) peacekeeping mission; however, the costs of UAVs can be an obstacle to implementation. While there are different applications for drones, the main function they currently provide for the UN is surveillance. Being able to reach remote locations without endangering peacekeeping personnel and having heat-signature and night-vision equipment allows the mission to easily monitor their surroundings, improve their

security, and make personnel missions more reliable. While MONUSCO mainly uses larger long-endurance drones to gain situational awareness, miniature UAVs, which are substantially cheaper and allow for quick operational- and tactical-level information on a smaller area, can provide significant benefits in nearly every PKO. Advancements in this sector are also supported by civil society organizations like UAViators, which is working on developing much needed standards for the use of UAVs, as well as best practices and information on UAV training. Their goal is to create a better understanding of the advantages and dangers of UAVs, while educating operators, coordinating learning activities, and promoting active exchange on current developments in this field.

**Energy Supply**

While the overall level of renewable energy production worldwide is increasing, it still only plays a very small role in UN peacekeeping. While 15 missions use solar energy, only 0.1% of the total energy consumed in PKOs is generated from renewable sources. Most of the energy produced for the missions still comes from diesel generators; these generators not only need to be supplied with sufficient fuel, which must be transported to remote locations, but also produces greenhouse gas emissions. Reducing these emissions is an important step toward reaching the SDGs, in this case specifically goal 13 on action to combat climate change and will make overall mission operationalization more sustainable. One central challenge to ensuring renewable energies in PKOs is that the production is often dependent on outside factors such as the right weather conditions for wind and solar energy generation. It is also difficult to make energy available on call, because while storing energy is possible, it is technologically difficult and costly. However, as has been recommended by DFS in its Environmental Strategy, an increased usage of tools such as solar/diesel hybrid systems would provide a feasible interim option and also help to generally prepare missions for future technological advancements. Additionally, utilizing commercially available systems that combine renewable energy with diesel generators, would reduce the mission’s fossil fuel usage. DFS has also started to improve existing energy systems by utilizing tools like generator synchronization. For instance, the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) in particular has been using this tool, which allows generators to always run at the highest achievable efficiency depending on the energy needed, and thereby also helps to reduce the amount of fossil fuel needed to provide enough energy for the mission. Consulting with experts on these technological options at the next C-34 meeting could help the body in recommending further alternative energy sources and finding new ways to utilize the technology already in use to a higher extent.

**Water Supply**

DFS estimates that 84 liters of water per person per day are needed in peacekeeping environments but providing this amount of water is often a difficult task. Moreover, ensuring that these large volumes of water are available is not only logistically difficult, but also is often a significantly larger allocation than what is available to local inhabitants, presenting additional ethical dilemmas. In many cases it is necessary to drill boreholes to provide the necessary, but without information on where exactly groundwater is available, it can take several attempts to find a water-producing borehole. Because it can be necessary to drill several hundred meters deep to find water, these attempts are not only expensive, but also take a significant amount of

time, which can be crucial in a peacekeeping operation. Technology such as ground-penetrating radar and advanced geospatial imaging can help PKOs find areas where boreholes will be more likely to be water-producing.

In environments where no or only limited fresh water is available, and therefore needs to be transported to from other locations, water purification technology and utilizing non-potable recycled water can reduce the amount of fresh water needed. In 2014-2015, the United Nations–African Union Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID) was able to meet 40% of the water needs with recycled water, thereby decreasing the amount of fresh water needed and reducing operation costs by over $ 1.6 million in 2014-2015.

**UN Mine Action**

The UNMAS was established in 1997 with the goal of addressing the problem of landmines and explosive remnants of war (ERW). According to Landmine Monitor, more than 8000 people were killed or injured by mines or ERW in 2016, posing a significant threat to civilians as well as UN personnel. UNMAS supports more than 10 PKOs with knowledge and expertise on dealing with explosive threats. Technology can help to detect landmines and allow for a controlled disarmament by specialized personnel. Ground-penetrating radar can be used to detect sub-surface mines, which otherwise pose a substantial risk to peacekeepers in conflict areas. With technology available to deactivate the mines, this safe detection method can replace human detection procedures and increase safety for peacekeeping personnel as well as local inhabitants. Technology can also be used to raise public awareness and thereby increase the safety of civilians as well. The UNMAS Landmine & ERW Safety app released in 2013 made progress in helping the public identify and understanding the threats of landmines by utilizing existing technology.

Furthering the Involvement of Technology Contributing Countries

While there are numerous technological innovations that can help the UN develop their peacekeeping work, more often than not, financing the available technology is a major obstacle to in-field implementation. A new concept to address this is the idea of TechCCs or technology-contributing countries, such as the United States of America, Singapore, or Germany, among others. Instead of providing uniformed peacekeepers to UN PKOs, which are often developing or middle-income countries, TechCCs are developed states which have the financial capacity and technical expertise to provide new technology to missions. Contributions from TechCCs are not limited to providing equipment, but can also include technological concepts, expertise, and oversight. The expertise available in developed countries to provide this technology can improve PKOs in the field; these efforts can also improve the work of the UN in the headquarters, by spreading knowledge on new technologies. Many of the tools that would help PKOs are already commercially available and are being used by militaries around the world. Bringing this existing equipment into the UN’s missions not only reduces the mission cost, but because the equipment does not have to be bought by the UN, it allows for better training of peacekeeping personnel as they can learn from others that have already worked with the respective equipment. Initial success with this approach has been demonstrated by the Netherlands and Sweden, who have provided well-trained personnel in addition to intelligence

and surveillance support to the United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali (MINUSMA). This contribution was referred to as the All-Sources Information Fusion Unit and their role consisted of analyzing available intelligence to support different activities of the mission such as ensuring the correct delivery of humanitarian aid and combating illegal trafficking. This contribution helped the overall mission operationalization, and it also demonstrated the importance of creating a successful collaboration between the TCCs and TechCCs to reach the best results for the mission. This will be one of the aspects where C-34 can support this initiative, by developing best practices for how TechCCs should collaborate with other parts of PKOs. Having C-34 establish consistent procedures and standards across all missions will help to fully utilize the resources of TechCCs.

**Accountability, Conduct, & Discipline in PKOs**

**Introduction**

United Nations (UN) Peacekeeping has faced a wave of scrutiny following allegations of peacekeeper misconduct, as well as for their own reluctance to hold accused peacekeepers accountable. Misconduct is any action that violates UN principles, human rights laws, or other rules and regulations, including sexual exploitation and abuse, financial fraud, and theft. Allegations of peacekeeper misconduct increased sharply in 2016 and have fallen since, but misconduct remains a pressing issue, with more than 500 allegations in 2018. Misconduct by peacekeepers damages UN Peacekeeping’s credibility, making it difficult for the UN to maintain the moral authority necessary to advise governments on human rights. Peacekeepers are often deployed to deescalate conflicts, protect civilians and uphold human rights, but a lack of accountability for perpetrators of abuse may undermine these ideals. In recent years the UN has begun to take more action to address misconduct and take measure to increase accountability and discipline. In 2015, after peacekeepers in the Central African Republic were accused of sexual violence against children, former Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon dismissed the Head of Mission in a move that his representative called “unprecedented.” As there is no international framework which outlines the human rights protections peacekeepers must adhere to, peacekeepers exist in a legal limbo, making it difficult to hold them criminally accountable. The complexities of this topic call for a multi-pronged approach to make lasting change. Better prevention and field training for peacekeeping personnel may reduce incidences of violence and abuse in the field and improve overall conduct. In cases where abuse still takes place, enacting clear and effective accountability mechanisms that hold perpetrators responsible will require the support of the UN system and all Member States engaged in peacekeeping.

**International & Regional Framework**

Peacekeeping is not directly included in the Charter of the United Nations (1945). However, parts of the Charter are applicable to peacekeeping, such as Article 101 paragraph 3, which states that one of the most important considerations when hiring UN staff is the employee’s moral integrity. The Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations (General Convention) (1946) is a companion document to the Charter of the United Nations. The General Convention grants the UN and UN personnel immunity from legal accountability,

including UN peacekeepers, if they are acting in their official capacity. This includes immunity from arrest and “from legal process of every kind.” This immunity essentially grants peacekeepers impunity from punishment for crimes committed in their role as peacekeepers. The 2003 General Assembly resolution 57/306 on “Investigation into sexual exploitation of refugees by aid workers in West Africa” provides definitions for sexual exploitation and abuse and creates rules for UN peacekeepers regarding this abuse. It also includes extending the same consequences levied against people who assault refugees to peacekeepers found responsible for similar violations and mandating that the Secretary-General establish procedures for reporting and investigating allegations. In addition, the resolution encourages UN bodies to establish codes of conduct for humanitarian aid workers and develop appropriate procedures for disciplinary action. In response to General Assembly resolution 57/306, in 2003 the UN Secretary-General released the Secretary-General’s Bulletin 2003/13, “Special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse,” and has since written another bulletin with this same title every year. This annual bulletin clarifies the standards by which UN forces must operate by prohibiting them from committing sexual exploitation and abuse. This document is used as their basis for UN Staff Regulations and Rules, obliging UN staff to create an atmosphere where sexual exploitation is considered unacceptable. The Report of the Secretary-General’s Special Adviser, Prince Zeid Ra’ad Zeid Al-Hussein, on a Comprehensive Strategy to Eliminate Future Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in United Nations Peacekeeping Operations (Zeid Report) (2005) was a response to the 2004 Peacekeeping misconduct in the Congo. Its creation was mandated by the Special Committee on Peacekeeping operations (C-34) in its 2005 “Report of the Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations and its Working Group.” The Zeid Report outlined the extent of sexual misconduct by peacekeepers and included recommendations for its mitigation. Some accountability-specific recommendations include firing peacekeepers found guilty of serious misconduct, imposing fines, and changing mission Memorandum of Understandings (MoUs) between the troop-contributing state and the host state to make peacekeepers subject to the criminal jurisdiction of the host state. General Assembly resolution 62/63 (2008) addresses the criminal accountability of UN officials and experts on peacekeeping missions, which is a separate issue from accountability for personnel belonging to contingents from Member States. This is because there are five different classifications of UN Peacekeepers depending on who employs them and their role in the mission. This resolution states hat appropriate measures should be taken to hold these experts and officials accountable to international law, without violating the Charter of the United Nations. In 2016, the UN Security Council adopted resolution 2272 (2016) on “United Nations Peacekeeping Operations,” which discussed the recent efforts of the Secretary-General against sexual abuse by peacekeepers. Security Council resolution 2272 (2016) was adopted in support of the Secretary-General’s policy to withdraw peacekeeping personnel that are accused of sexual misconduct. It asks the Secretary-General to continue this policy in the future, to investigate whether troop-contributing states are holding its offending forces accountable, and, if not, to replace the unit accused of misconduct. The UN enters into status of forces agreements (SOFAs) with Member States that host peace operation and troop-contributing states for peacekeeping operations. SOFAs define the parameters of the peacekeeping operation and outline the privileges and immunities of the peacekeepers on that mission. Individuals can receive immunity from international criminal proceedings if they are military

personnel from a country with a SOFA between the UN and the host state. Each peacekeeper falls under the criminal jurisdiction of their state of nationality, and that state can choose whether to grant that peacekeeper immunity. The UN creates MoU agreements with states that contribute troops to peacekeeping operations. These MoUs outline the standard of conduct to which the troop-contributing state intends to hold its troops. Since it is often unclear what laws apply to peacekeepers while they are abroad, the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) has asked each troop-contributing Member State to submit a document explaining the legal framework for its contingent of peacekeepers. However, the majority of countries have not submitted these documents.

**Role of the International System**

The Special Committee on Peacekeeping Operations (C-34) requested the creation of the Zeid Report in its 2005 annual report. In this report, C-34 expressed its grave concerns at the allegations of sexual misconduct stemming from the peacekeeping mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. In 2018, C-34 asked to be notified of peacekeeping investigations except for investigations of misconduct, where MOUs apply. C-34 has recommended that the UN add more female peacekeepers, and make a greater effort to communicate with both local populations and the host country, both of which have been statistically proven to reduce instances of sexual misconduct. On the training side, C-34 has urged Member States to pursue in-field training and conduct pre-deployment seminars and e-learning on misconduct. DPKO and the Department of Field Support (DFS) are primarily responsible for enforcing UN policies on conduct in peacekeeping. DPKO is responsible for transmitting information about misconduct and the outcomes of investigations to troop-contributing states, meaning it plays a vital role in facilitating accountability. DFS maintains the day-to-day operations, provides essential services, budgeting, and human resources to peacekeeping missions, while DPKO is responsible for the logistics of peacekeeping, strategy, and policy. In July 2008, DFS launched the Misconduct Tracking System, a global database and confidential tracking system for allegations against peacekeepers. The database facilitates information-sharing between DFS and field missions, but relies heavily on Head of Missions accurately reporting allegations of misconduct. To assist with DPKO’s ongoing mission to increase discipline and accountability in peace operations, the DFS Conduct and Discipline Unit (CDU) was founded in 2007. CDU is responsible for providing strategic direction to ensure accountability and discipline, including the formulation of policy for and oversight of investigations. The CDU is also responsible for liaising with Member States about allegations of misconduct against their troops and advising the Secretariat on implementing their strategy to address misconduct. Many peacekeeping missions have Conduct and Discipline Teams (CDT), which are responsible for training peacekeepers on UN rules, implementing strategies to encourage adherence to local laws, and assessing allegations of misconduct. CDTs record allegations of misconduct in the Misconduct Tracking System. The Policy on Accountability for Conduct and Discipline in Field Missions (2015) is a collaborative document between DPKO, DFS, and the Department for Political Affairs. It specifies roles and responsibilities in the accountability process, including the duties of Heads of Mission and senior officers. Commanding officers must report instances of misconduct to the head of unit, which then goes to the Head of Mission and then to the mission’s CDT liaison, who then reports it to the CDT. The Ten Rules: Code of Personal Conduct

for Blue Helmets (1999) is a reference guide for peacekeepers outlining basic expectations. The ten rules center around the following principles: to respect local laws; to respect human rights; and to be cautious when handling confidential information, which may damage the image of the UN. Although the Ten Rules are not legally binding, troop-contributing states have accepted them as a general code of conduct. Other UN partners include the Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS). The OIOS is an accountability body assisting the Secretary-General in his mandate to assess and direct the UN. OIOS has made a number of reports on peacekeeping to UN bodies over the years that evaluate peacekeeping operations and responses to allegations of misconduct. OIOS also has the power to carry out investigations into UN peacekeepers when allegations of misconduct are made. DFS has delegated human resources responsibilities to the UN Office of Human Resources Management (OHRM), including hiring and firing personnel. If an investigation against a civilian peacekeeper accused of misconduct finds the claims to be substantiated, the OHRM and the Department of Management decide on disciplinary measures. For military and police personnel, the only option available to UN Heads of Mission is repatriation and passing the case on to the peacekeeper’s Member State, where the peacekeeper can be held to the jurisdiction of their state of origin.

**Prevention & Field Training**

Although the success of UN peacekeeping efforts relies on accountability, prevention must also be a key area of focus to minimize the occurrence of these abuses. UN military and police peacekeepers are trained on the UN Standards of Conduct before and after deployment by individual Member States and regional bodies. Civilian peacekeepers are trained by the DPKO’s Integrated Training Service in Entebbe, Uganda. Individual peacekeepers are screened for any previous misconduct on UN missions by their home Member States, and they must also attest that they have no instances of misconduct on their record. This screening was mandated in the Policy on Human Rights Screening of United Nations Personnel (2012), but Member States apply the screening process inconsistently, limiting the utility and veracity of these screenings. Additional preventive measures in the field include limiting peacekeepers’ freedom of movement, enforcing curfews, requiring uniforms to be worn at all times, no-contact policies with the local population, and banning travel to certain areas. The UN has a zero-tolerance policy on sexual exploitation. Most missions have non-fraternization policies as well, since any sexual conduct with civilians would likely have a large power differential, making free and full consent difficult to obtain. Victims of misconduct often choose not to report; this can be due to their ignorance of reporting methods, fear of stigma, and concerns that the allegation will be ignored. Shifting the reporting burden to peacekeepers is one strategy the UN is using the close the gap. UN personnel, including peacekeepers, are given No Excuse cards, which detail policies on sexual misconduct. UN personnel are required to report misconduct, or risk being considered complicit in the misconduct themselves. Peacekeepers are trained in reporting methods, which include an e-mail address, a hotline, a locked complaint box, in-person complaint to the CDT, or a complaint to OIOS. All personnel undergo an online course in preventing and reporting sexual misconduct.

**Discipline & Enforcement**

Accountability for UN peacekeepers differs depending on if they are military or civilian personnel, with troop-contributing states having jurisdiction over military staff and the host state or third parties having jurisdiction over civilians. Although UN staff have immunity under the General Convention, they are held accountable to the Staff Regulations and Rules and orders from the Secretary-General through the previously described misconduct process. UN Volunteers are granted General Convention immunity under SOFAs, while UN contractors are bound both by local law and the organization’s rules for contractors. Policy and military observers are covered by the General Convention, but they also sign an undertaking, which binds them to the policies and rules of the peacekeeping mission. DPKO has outlined guidelines for both military and police observers in Directives for Disciplinary Matters Involving Civilian Police Officers and Military Observers, which explains the standards of conduct and explains the application of immunity does extend to this particular category. There are five categories of discipline for misconduct: internal disciplinary actions including warnings or formal reprimands; retraining; repatriation; criminal proceedings; or financial liability for damages. The investigative procedures for police, military observers, and peacekeepers from troop-contributing states are identical. Each Head of Mission is required to appoint someone to handle reports of abuse by peacekeepers. If the Head of Mission finds that there is substance to the allegations, a board of inquiry meets to discuss the subject and the Head of Mission notifies DPKO, which notifies the troop-contributing state. After the board of inquiry has completed its fact-finding mission, it reports back to the Head of Mission, who makes a decision regarding penalties. The Head of Mission then has the option to recommend firing the peacekeeper(s) from the mission, at which point the troop-contributing Member State’s permanent mission would be notified. If a peacekeeper is accused of sexual misconduct, their paychecks are suspended until the investigation is complete. If an investigation finds that sexual misconduct occurred and the Head of Mission repatriates the peacekeeper, all withheld paychecks are put into a trust fund for supporting victims. While Member States are encouraged to collect DNA samples from peacekeepers accused of sexual misconduct, they are not required to do so, which makes it more difficult to link peacekeepers to crimes and potentially hold them criminally accountable. UN investigative entities like OIOS are required to complete investigations into misconduct within six months, and troop-contributing states are expected to do the same. In urgent cases, the time frame may be shortened to 90 days. UN peacekeeping missions are required to make quarterly reports on allegations of sexual misconduct, which are compiled and delivered to the press by the UN Deputy Spokesperson. There are also annual quality assurance exercises which take inventory of all current open cases of misconduct, including sexual assault allegations. One of these exercises found that between 2016-2017, 574 allegations were filed against peacekeepers, 459 of which were allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse; of these cases, only 30 individuals have been jailed. Since 2007, Member States that enter into an MoU with the UN and send peacekeepers must pursue action in cases where one of their peacekeepers is charged. Member States are required to notify their national authorities and the Secretary-General of any accusation of misconduct against peacekeepers raised by the UN, but there is no enforcement mechanism in place if Member States fail to comply. In 2012, OIOS found that only 50% of Member States in these

circumstances notified their national authorities as outlined in the MoU, and few prosecutions have taken place.

**Strengthening & Implementing Accountability Mechanisms**

In response to recent discussions about the conduct of UN peacekeeping personnel, various actors within the UN system are seeking ways to strengthen accountability mechanisms. One approach being taken by the Under-Secretary-General for Peacekeeping Operations is to conduct pre-deployment evaluations on military units to ensure that they understand conduct requirements and have basic military competency. A database of troop-contributing states’ legal frameworks is being created at the behest of the Secretary-General. Recently, DFS added quarterly and annual accountability reporting tools and made a website dedicated to conduct and discipline which shares information on case matters and on new initiatives. In addition, Secretary-General Antonio Guterres created a High-Level Task Force on improving the UN’s response to sexual exploitation and abuse. This task force is composed of high ranking members of the UN system and is mandated to create a comprehensive strategy to improve the UN’s response to sexual misconduct. A 2017 Secretary-General report outlines the UN’s plan to improve the response to sexual abuse committed by peacekeepers. The strategy rests on four pillars: centering survivors in the process, ending impunity, creating partnerships with civil society and third parties, and developing more transparent communication. The report identifies patriarchal structures and gender inequality as the root causes of sexual abuse, which the report considers to be gendered violence. Actions to implement the strategy include: appointing Field Victims’ Rights Advocates in high-misconduct missions, requiring all agency heads to certify that they have reported all allegations, developing a policy on balancing confidentiality with disclosing information to national authorities, creating a tool to screen UN personnel that have been dismissed due to allegations of sexual violence, developing a compendium of national laws on sexual exploitation, and creating a new policy requiring all staff to find an affidavit annually to confirm they understand UN standards of conduct and the consequences for violating them. In 2018, the Secretary-General announced Action for Peacekeeping in which UN peacekeeping partners will be brought together to develop a set of principles and commitments to improve peacekeeping policies and processes. Additionally, on the invitation of the Secretary-General, 90 Member States have joined the Compact on Preventing Sexual Exploitation and Abuse as part of the Action for Peace initiative. It includes commitments from the Secretary-General and Member States to vet potential peacekeepers for past misconduct, facilitate investigations, collect and test DNA samples, and otherwise hold peacekeepers accountable.

**Conclusion**

Due to immunity under the General Convention and the limited action taken by some Member States in prosecuting their own peacekeepers, accountability for misconduct has been unreliable and inconsistent. The few rules that exist are poorly enforced and carry little heft. All of these things must be accounted for when attempting to reform conduct, discipline, and accountability mechanisms in peacekeeping. By understanding the current international bodies involved, the international documents that frame the issue, the status quo of training and

discipline, and suggestions of what should be changed, C- 34 make support the UN in operating peacekeeping missions that act with integrity and justice.

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