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1 Introduction

The Fall Class of 2022 of the UNITAR Global Diplomacy Initiative acquired a comprehensive understanding of current global issues and had firsthand exposure to unfolding events. Throughout the program, students actively engaged with accomplished instructors who provided extensive materials covering a wide range of topics such as Globalization and Multilateral Diplomacy, Climate Change, Conflict Resolution, and many more.

As part of their practical training component, students fulfilled a minimum requirement of 15-20 hours of observation in UNITAR Core Diplomatic Training programs. These programs encompassed various areas including ECOSOC work, Financing for Development and the Conflict Resolution series offered by Columbia Law School, among others. Additionally, students were strongly encouraged to attend open sessions of the UN General Assembly and other UN forums to further enhance their knowledge.

Furthermore, students had the opportunity to conduct research and produce papers on relevant subjects with the guidance and consultation of their instructors.

Overall, the UNITAR Global Diplomacy Initiative Fall Class of 2022 provided students with a comprehensive learning experience, combining theoretical knowledge, practical training, and active engagement with global diplomatic processes.

2 Papers



2.1 Paper



The Role Of The United Nation In Promoting Inclusive Democracy, Participatory Development And Civic Engagement

by **Ahlem Arfaoui Tartir, PhD**

Advisor: **Angel Angelov, PhD**

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Introduction

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to determine the role of the United Nations in promoting inclusive democracy, participatory development, and civic engagement.

Keywords: UN, SDGs, democracy, participatory, development, inclusivity, civil society, civic engagement, citizen, institution, political model

Introduction:

Since the adoption of the 2030 Agenda by world leaders in 2015, the concept has not only been rejuvenated but also become an integral part of the global development narrative. Unlike the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which were limited in scope and applied only to low-income countries, the 2030 Agenda encompasses both development and environmental concerns and relate to the whole world. The SDGs have therefore been widely praised for being innovative in providing a broad and appealing framework to closely link “sustainability” with “development” through the principles of “universality”, “integration” and “leave no one behind”. The 2030 Agenda is transformative as it encourages a radical shift in world affairs by encouraging governments in both rich and poor countries to prioritize sustainable development that goes beyond simply focusing on economic growth to embracing a much broader agenda that promotes developmental and environmental concerns.

the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development—those improvements to fundamental freedoms, the rule of law, access to justice, the accountability and transparency of institutions, and responsive, inclusive, participatory, and representative decision-making are essential to achieving the SDGs. Failure to achieve progress in these areas is likely to affect progress on each of the goals. There can be no sustainable development without democratic governance and respect for human rights. The inclusion of people’s voices in monitoring progress towards achieving SDG 16 on peace, justice and strong institutions is as essential as it is for all the SDGs. In other words, democracy is not just a key enabler, it is also of intrinsic value to sustainable development

Formulation of a meaningful strategy through an inclusive and participatory political system is important to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Accountability of the State institutions and strengthening of local governance are practices that are key enablers of democracy. Such democratic practices will help ensure proper implementation of the SDGs and sustain development even beyond 2030.

What then is the relationship between democracy and sustainable development?

What’s the role of the United Nations in promoting inclusive democracy and participatory development and civic engagement?

I Democracy and Sustainable Development

1 Democracy

- **Definition**

Democracy, literally, rule by the people. The term is derived from the Greek *dēmokratia*, which was coined from *dēmos* (“people”) and *kratos* (“rule”) in the middle of the 5th century BCE to denote the political systems then existing in some Greek city-states, notably Athens.

Abraham Lincoln said, “Democracy is a rule of the people, for the people and by the people”. It means that democracy is a form of government in which the rulers are elected by the people. The citizens of the country elect the Government to rule the country and the elected government work for the welfare of the people.

- **Democratic Principles**

While their opinions vary, a consensus of political scientists agree that most democracies are based on six foundational elements:

- **Popular sovereignty:** The principle that the government is created and maintained by the consent of the people through their elected representatives.
- **An Electoral System:** Since according to the principle of popular sovereignty, the people are the source of all political power, a clearly defined system of conducting free and fair elections is essential.
- **Public Participation:** Democracies rarely survive without the active participation of the people. Health democracies enable and encourage the people to take part in their political and civic processes.
- **Separation of Powers:** Based on a suspicion of power concentrated in a single individual—like a king—or group, the constitutions of most democracies provide those political powers be separated and shared among the various governmental entities.
- **Human Rights:** Along with their constitutionally enumerated rights freedoms, democracies protect the human rights of all citizens. In this context, human rights are those rights considered inherent to all human beings, regardless of nationality, sex, national or ethnic origin, color, religion, language, or any other considerations.
- **A Rule of Law:** Also called due process of law, the rule of law is the principle that all citizens are accountable to laws that are publicly created and equitably enforced in a manner consistent with human rights by an independent judicial system.

- **Types of Democracy**

Throughout history, more types of democracy have been identified than there are countries in the world. According to social and political philosopher Jean-Paul Gagnon, more than 2,234 adjectives have been used to describe democracy. While many scholars refer to direct and representative as the most common of these, several other types of democracies can be found around the world today. While direct democracy is unique, most other recognized types of democracy are variants of representative democracy. These various types of democracy are generally descriptive of the values emphasized by the representative democracies that employ them.

- **Direct**

Originated in Ancient Greece during the 5th century BCE, direct democracy, sometimes called “pure democracy,” is considered the oldest non-authoritarian form of government. In a direct democracy, all laws and public policy decisions are made directly by a majority vote of the people, rather than by the votes of their elected representatives.

Functionally possible only in small states, Switzerland is the only example of a direct democracy applied on a national level today. While Switzerland is no longer a true direct democracy, any law passed by the popularly elected national parliament can be vetoed by a direct vote of the public. Citizens can also change the constitution through direct votes on amendments. In the United States, examples of direct democracy can be found in state-level recall elections and lawmaking ballot initiatives.

- **Representative**

Also called indirect democracy, representative democracy is a system of government in which all eligible citizens elect officials to pass laws and formulate public policy on their behalf. These elected officials are expected to represent the needs and viewpoints of the people in deciding the best course of action for the nation, state, or other jurisdiction as a whole.

As the most commonly found type of democracy in use today, almost 60% of all countries employ some form of representative democracy including the United States, the United Kingdom, and France.

- **Participatory**

In a participatory democracy, the people vote directly on policy while their elected representatives are responsible for implementing those policies. Participatory democracies rely on the citizens in setting the direction of the state and the operation of its political systems. While the two forms of government share similar ideals, participatory democracies tend to encourage a higher, more direct form of citizen participation than traditional representative democracies.

While there are no countries specifically classified as participatory democracies, most representative democracies employ citizen participation as a tool for social and political reform. In the United States, for example, so-called “grassroots” citizen participation causes such as the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s have led elected officials to enact laws implementing sweeping social, legal, and political policy changes.

- **Liberal**

Liberal democracy is loosely defined as a form of representative democracy that emphasizes the principles of classical liberalism—an ideology advocating the protection of individual civil liberties and economic freedom by limiting the power of the government. Liberal democracies employ a constitution, either statutorily codified, as in the United States or uncodified, as in the United Kingdom, to define the powers of the government, provide for a separation of those powers, and enshrine the social contract.

Liberal democracies may take the form of a constitutional republic, like the United States, or a constitutional monarchy, such as the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia.

- **Parliamentary**

In a parliamentary democracy, the people directly elect representatives to a legislative parliament. Similar to the U.S. Congress, the parliament directly represents the people in making necessary laws and policy decisions for the country.

In parliamentary democracies such as the United Kingdom, Canada, and Japan, the head of government is a prime minister, who is first elected to parliament by the people, then elected prime minister by a vote of the parliament. However, the prime minister remains a member of the parliament and thus plays an active role in the legislative process of creating and passing laws. Parliamentary democracies are typically a feature of a constitutional monarch, a system of government in which the head of state is a queen or king whose power is limited by a constitution.

- **Pluralist**

In a pluralist democracy, no single group dominates politics. Instead, organized groups within the people compete to influence public policy. In political science, the term pluralism expresses the ideology that influence should be spread among different interest groups, rather than held by a single elite group as in an aristocracy. Compared to participatory democracies, in which individuals take part in influencing political decisions, in a pluralist democracy, individuals work through groups formed around common causes hoping to win the support of elected leaders.

In this context, the pluralist democracy assumes that the government and the society as a whole benefit from a diversity of viewpoints.

- **Constitutional**

While the exact definition continues to be debated by political scientists, constitutional democracy is generally defined as a system of government based on popular sovereignty and a rule of law in which the structures, powers, and limits of government are established by a constitution. Constitutions are intended to restrict the power of the government, typically by separating those powers between the various branches of government, as in the United States' constitution's system of federalism. In a constitutional democracy, the constitution is considered to be the "supreme law of the land."

- **Socialist**

Democratic socialism is broadly defined as a system of government based on a socialist economy, in which most property and means of production are collectively, rather than individually, controlled by a constitutionally established political hierarchy—the government. Social democracy embraces government regulation of business and industry as a means of furthering economic growth while preventing income inequality.

While there are no purely socialist governments in the world today, elements of democratic socialism can be seen in Sweden’s provision of free universal health care, education, and sweeping social welfare programs.

- **Democracy in the founding documents of the United Nations**

When the founders of the United Nations drafted the United Nations Charter, they did not mention the word democracy. In 1945, many of the UN Member States did not endorse democracy as a system or didn’t practice it. Yet, the opening words of the Charter, “We the Peoples”, reflect the fundamental principle of democracy - that the will of the people is the source of legitimacy of sovereign states and, therefore, of the United Nations as a whole.

The UN does not advocate for a specific model of government but promotes democratic governance as a set of values and principles that should be followed for greater participation, equality, security, and human development. Democracy provides an environment that respects human rights and fundamental freedoms, and in which the freely expressed will of people is exercised. People have a say in decisions and can hold decision-makers to account. Women and men have equal rights, and all people are free from discrimination.

These values are embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. It projects the concept of democracy by stating “the will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government”. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights develops them even further and lays down the legal basis for the principles of democracy in international law. It covers, for instance, freedom of expression, the right of peaceful assembly, and the right to freedom of association with others. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women stipulates that its 189 contracting parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that women can vote and stand for elections, and participate in public life and decision-making, including at the international level.

Since 1988, the General Assembly has adopted at least one resolution annually dealing with some aspect of democracy. In 2015, world leaders committed in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development to a world in which “democracy, good governance and the rule of law as well as an enabling environment at national and international levels, are essential for sustainable development”. The Agenda reaffirmed commitments that were made earlier at the World Summit in 2005 and in the Millennium Declaration

The United Nations Democracy Agenda is a critical, conceptual-historical analysis of democracy at the United Nations, detailed in four ‘visions’ of democracy: civilization, elections, governance, and developmental democracy.

The UN promotes their values through many of their actions, some of these actions include:

- assisting parliaments to improve the checks and balances that allow democracy to thrive
- by helping to strengthen the effectiveness of national human rights institutions and justice/security systems
- by providing electoral assistance and long-term support for electoral management bodies
- by promoting the participation of women within the political and public life

- **Women and Democracy**

Democracy needs women to be truly democratic, and women need democracy if they are to change the systems and laws that exclude them. The role of women in democratic processes is emphasized in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and in the 2011 General Assembly resolution on Women's Political Participation. Despite these normative advances, and as universal as these goals are, they nevertheless remain elusive for many women. Progress has been too slow in increasing numbers of women in representative. In 2021, just 25 per cent of national parliamentarians were women, a slow increase from 14 per cent in 2000. Women are also poorly represented in local decision-making bodies, whether as mayors or local council members. Political parties and electoral commissions often lack the capacity to ensure that women's interests are articulated and addressed. The UN supports women's political participation. In July 2010, the UN General Assembly created UN Women, mandated to coordinate the gender mainstreaming work of the UN System. In doing so, UN Member States took a historic step in accelerating the Organization's goals on gender equality and the empowerment of women. The UN's approach to support women's effective political participation is to make local and national elections free and fair for women, to support women's civil society organizations, to build accountability for women's rights in public institutions, and to support women political leaders

- **Democracy and Youth**

More than forty percent of the global population is younger than 25. The youth face huge challenges, such as climate change, unemployment, inequalities, and exclusion. Many migrate in response. Meanwhile, young people connect and give voice to issues that matter. They use new media to fight injustice, discrimination, and human rights abuses; and act for what they believe in. Young people also have an eloquent voice that resonates deeply with their own generation – from Malala Yousafzai on the universal right to education, to Greta Thunberg on leading the fight against climate change.

The Secretary-General made working with and for young people one of his top priorities. He appointed the first Secretary-General's Envoy on Youth, mandated with the task of developing a UN Youth Strategy. The UN General Assembly in March 2015 adopted Education for Democracy, a resolution encouraging all UN entities to use education to promote peace, human rights, and democracy. The resolution encourages Member States to integrate education for democracy into their education standards.

DESA's World Youth Report addresses key areas of youth development around the world. Another platform for the youth is the ECOSOC Youth Forum, where young people can voice their needs and concerns through informal dialogue with other stakeholders. The Forum represents the most institutionalized venue for youth participation in UN deliberations and is an important vehicle to mobilize young people for implementing the 2030 Agenda.

- **Democracy and Elections**

The UN is a trusted impartial actor providing electoral assistance to approximately 60 countries each year, either at the request of Member States or based on a Security Council or General Assembly mandate. The assistance includes advisory services, logistics, training, civic education, computer applications and short-term observation. The UN also strives to build capacity regarding the overall political environment. This involves working with voters, the media, political parties, civil society, as well as the parliament and the judiciary.

The electoral assistance helps Member States to hold periodic, inclusive, transparent and credible elections and to establish nationally sustainable electoral processes. UN electoral assistance has been a crucial and successful component in peacekeeping, peacebuilding, and in establishing and deepening democratic governance.

The electoral assistance involves several programs, funds, agencies and departments. The Under-Secretary-General for Political and Peacebuilding Affairs is the UN Focal Point for Electoral Assistance. The Electoral Assistance Division within the Department of Political and Peacebuilding Affairs (DPPA) assesses electoral needs, develops electoral policy, and maintains institutional memory. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) provides technical assistance, and fosters the participation of women, the youth, and other underrepresented groups in elections. It also coordinates donor support. In peacekeeping or post-conflict environments, military and police components of peacekeeping missions support national law enforcement agencies in securing elections. The UN also partners with other regional, intergovernmental, and non-governmental

2 Sustainable Development

• **Definition**

Sustainable development can be defined as an approach to the economic development of a country without compromising with the quality of the environment for future generations. In the name of economic development, the price of environmental damage is paid in the form of land degradation, soil erosion, air and water pollution, deforestation, etc. This damage may surpass the advantages of having more quality output of goods and services

Sustainable development is a concept that appeared for the first time in 1987 with the publication of the Brundtland Report, warning of the negative environmental consequences of economic growth and globalization, which tried to find possible solutions to the problems caused by industrialization and population growth

- **Pillars of Sustainability**
 - **Environmental Sustainability**
 - Protecting and enhancing our natural and developed environment—our water quality, air quality, and reduction of environmental stressors, like greenhouse gas emissions.
 - Improving biodiversity
 - Using natural resources wisely
 - Minimizing waste and pollution
 - Adapting to and helping to decrease climate change
 - **Social Sustainability**
 - Fostering a good quality of life and ensuring basic needs are met for all members of society at the individual, group, and community level (health, housing, education, employment, resource security, and safety)
 - Providing equitable opportunities and outcomes for all members
 - Implementing and maintaining democratic processes, in addition to open and accountable structures of governance
 - Promoting and encouraging diversity
 - Creating systems and structures that support connectedness within and outside the community
 - **Economic Sustainability**
 - Inventing better and more useful products for the population that, rather than having little-to-no negative impact on the environment, have a positive one
 - Aligning lending and investment policies with sustainability goals
 - Quantifying ecosystem services—measuring the value of natural environments and the benefits they provide—and incorporating them into value chain indexes
 - Nature and its bounty and beauty are priceless. However, when we don't price resources because they seem incalculable, we have a tendency to disregard trade-offs and think of them as "free."
 - **Cultural Sustainability**
 - This concerns human culture, assets, and resources.
 - Investments in health services, welfare, safety, and education can maintain and improve a society's well-being
 - Businesses need to consider themselves a member of society. They need to learn about the customs and heritage of the people they reside around. With this information, they can promote and appreciate the values of their customers in a way that shows that they respect the local cultures

- **Sustainable Development Goals**

- 1 No poverty
- 2 Zero hunger
- 3 Good health and wellbeing
- 4 Quality education
- 5 Gender equality
- 6 Clean water and sanitation
- 7 Affordable and clean energy
- 8 Decent work and economic growth
- 9 Industry, innovation and infrastructure
- 10 Reduced inequalities
- 11 Sustainable cities and communities
- 12 Responsible consumption and production
- 13 Climate action
- 14 Life below water
- 15 Life on land
- 16 Peace, justice and strong institutions
- 17 Partnerships for the goals



II The role of the United Nation in improving inclusive democracy and participatory development

1 UN Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 16—importance of participatory institutions & policymaking

The UN adopted 17 Sustainable Development Goals at the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit in New York in September 2015.

These Goals replaced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) from the beginning of 2016. Whilst they continue the focus on eradicating poverty, they also include universal goals of addressing unsustainable patterns of consumption and production and protecting environmental resources.



The Goals, particularly through SDG 16, tackle another omission of the MDGs, that of governance, inclusion, participation, rights, and security. The Goal's aim is to “Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels”.

The different sub-goals that make up SDG 16 are set out below. Because of our focus on participatory democracy and governance, we are particularly interested in two of these, namely:

16.6 Develop effective, accountable, and transparent institutions at all levels

16.7 Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory, and representative decision-making at all levels

Much of the discussion of this highly controversial SDG has focused on reducing violence, security, the rule of law, and creating strong, inclusive, and effective institutions to deliver justice and public services, alongside the difficulty of creating appropriate targets and metrics.

SDG 16 is both an end in itself, and a crucial part of delivering sustainable development in all countries. It has in fact been seen by many commentators as being the transformational goal and key to ensuring that the agenda can be accomplished.

There is a danger though that a focus on the fundamental underpinnings of a safe and inclusive society, which are critical, may mean that 16.6 and 16.7 are not recognized and developed appropriately to truly enable delivery of the SDGs across all countries.

The critical role of effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions in implementing the Sustainable Development Goals, alongside widespread participation, in being able to address the complex issues thrown up by sustainable development, such as climate change, inequality or security. It may be argued that SDG 17 – the Means of Implementation – addresses this challenge through its focus on policy coherence and delivery through multi-stakeholder partnerships (17.14 and 17.17). However, it does not fully address the needs for widespread participation and accountability in monitoring, design, implementation, and scrutiny, as well as in addressing the ‘crisis of democracy’ in many countries.

Other relevant and reinforcing sub-goals are 16.10 on public access to information, 12.8 on public awareness and education on sustainable development, and broader Agenda calls for transparency, appropriate data, and participation in design and review of goal implementation.

SDG 16 Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions at all levels

16.1 Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere

16.2 End abuse, exploitation, trafficking, and all forms of violence against and torture of children

16.3 Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all

16.4 By 2030, significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organized crime

16.5 Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms

16.6 Develop effective, accountable, and transparent institutions at all levels

16.7 Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory, and representative decision-making at all levels

16.8 Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance

16.9 By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

16.10 Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements

16.a Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international cooperation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime

16.b Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development

2 The UN Institutions, Frameworks and Charter

The Role of the UN in Democracy Building and Development The international normative framework, as anchored in the UN Charter and developed through the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and related instruments, guides the UN's role in democracy building and development. Regarding democracy, some regional normative frameworks, such as the Inter-American Democratic Charter (IADC), are even more explicit: the IADC refers to a 'right to democracy' in its first article. Other frameworks, such as the African Union's (AU) Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance, commit AU member states to advance democracy. A resolution adopted by the United Nations Human Rights Council in April 2012, argues that human rights and development are 'mutually reinforcing' and invites 'States members of intergovernmental regional organizations and agreements to include or reinforce provisions of the constitutive acts of their organizations and arrangements that aim at promoting democratic values and principles and at protecting and consolidating democracy in their respective societies.'³ Article 21 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights features the right to vote, and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), especially Article 25, more clearly defines the right to participate in elections and in political life. In 2000, the UN Millennium Declaration asserted that Member States 'would spare no effort to promote democracy.' In 2005, the World Summit outcome document described democracy, rule of law and human rights as belonging to 'the universal and indivisible core values and principles of the United Nations', and as such, were 'interlinked and mutually reinforcing'. In turn, these broad normative statements have been manifested in direct guidance to the system from the UN Secretary-General on the principles and practices underlying the UN's democracy work. In 1986, the UN General Assembly adopted the landmark Declaration on the Right to Development (A/RES/41/128 4 December 1986). Twenty-five years later, the Declaration continues to be a touchstone to emphasize that deep and chronic poverty, food insecurity, unemployment and systematic exclusion and discrimination are violations of human rights and thus also present serious obstacles to the realization of democracy. The underpinnings of the UN normative frameworks on democracy and development share a common concern with 3 Human Rights Council Resolution 19/36, "Human Rights, Democracy, and the Rule of Law," 19 April 2012, A/HRC/RES/19/36, article 20. United Nations – International IDEA 14 equality, participation, non-discrimination (particularly of women and vulnerable populations), accountability, transparency, and justice. The interrelationship between these two goals is increasingly being recognized, with efforts, for example, to articulate the concept of development as a human right being taken up by entities such as the Intergovernmental Working Group on the Right to Development, which is administered by the United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (UN OHCHR). The UN's roles in democracy and development are multiple and varied. At the highest levels, the UN is today engaged – often together with regional organizations – in responding directly to the challenges of non-constitutional transfers of power within countries and in mandating direct support for reform during transitions to democracy. At the operational level, UN country teams worldwide are directly involved in facilitating the development process, from supporting the formulation of national development planning to direct contributions for strengthening government capacities related to development in the critical areas of education, health, jobs, and security. The UN through its country teams has direct poverty reduction programs in nearly 80 countries, and often this work is conducted in direct coordination with UN specialized agencies such as the World Health Organization (WHO) or the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP). UN

country teams are also engaged in coordinating, facilitating, or managing multilateral aid flows to support governance institutions and processes. UNDP, particularly, has evolved as a central organization in supporting public administration reform, in working with other partner organizations (such as International IDEA) to professionalize electoral processes, and in supporting key state institutions such as the judicial sector or providing new avenues for access to justice. The United Nations Democracy Fund (UNDEF) is an important instrument in promoting and supporting civil society organizations and participation as a key element of democracy strengthening.

The UN has adopted several resolutions highlighting the interdependent and mutually reinforcing relationship between democracy, good governance, human rights, justice and law.

- Addressing democracy deficits

Democracy deficits, weak institutions and poor governance impose persistent challenges. The OHCHR and UNDP address these challenges through their advisory services and programs. In transitional democracies and countries emerging from conflict, OHCHR assists to build strong and independent judiciary systems, parliaments, human rights institutions, and vibrant civil societies. UNDP assists governments in strengthening their public institutions, to help countries fight corruption and support inclusive participation to ensure that no one is left behind. Every year, UNDP invests, on average, US\$565 million to support inclusive governance and development at the local level.

- Supporting transitional democracies

OHCHR collaborates with national governments and other actors to rebuild public confidence and restore peace and the rule of law in post-conflict nations and transitional democracies. OHCHR has actively supported transitional justice programs in more than 20 countries around the world over the past 15 years. OHCHR tries to ensure that human rights and transitional justice considerations are reflected in peace agreements, and it supports the establishment of truth-seeking processes, judicial accountability mechanisms, and reparations programs.

- Guiding national and regional efforts

OHCHR works to guide national and regional efforts and to facilitate the discussion on democracy and human rights. In 2012, the Human Rights Council adopted a resolution titled “Human rights, democracy and the rule of law,” which reaffirmed that democracy, development and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms were interdependent and mutually reinforcing. Further, OHCHR published a study on challenges, lessons learned and best practices in securing democracy and the rule of law from a human rights perspective, and also organized a panel discussion on these issues.

In 2015, the Human Rights Council adopted resolution 28/14, which established a forum on human rights, democracy and the rule of law, to provide a platform for promoting dialogue and cooperation on issues pertaining to these areas. OHCHR also works to underline the close relationship between human rights and democracy within the United Nations system and partners with democracy-promoting organizations such as l’organization Internationale de la Francophonie, the Inter-Parliamentary Union, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe.

3 The International Day of Democracy

The International Day of Democracy provides an opportunity to review the state of democracy in the world. Democracy is as much a process as a goal, and only with the full participation of and support by the international community, national governing bodies, civil society, and individuals, can the ideal of democracy be made into a reality to be enjoyed by everyone, everywhere.

Freedom of expression is a fundamental human right, enshrined in Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. But around the world, there are governments and those wielding power who find many ways to obstruct it. Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states, “Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.” The link between democracy and press freedom is also enshrined in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights

4 UN Democracy Fund (UNDEF)

UNDEF funds projects that empower civil society, promote human rights, and encourage the participation of all groups in democratic processes. The large majority of UNDEF funds go to local civil society organizations -- both in the transition and consolidation phases of democratization. In this way, UNDEF plays a novel and unique role in complementing the UN’s other, more traditional work -- the work with Governments -- to strengthen democratic governance around the world.



UN PHOTO/MARK GARTEN

III Democracy contributions to Development

- 1 Core attributes of democracy are essential to the notion of good governance and to best practices in development planning and implementation: participation in policy formulation and implementation, electoral competition over visions of development strategies, and accountability for ruling elites through parliamentary, civil society and media oversight. The same attributes of democratic governance are also critical to the management of contemporary economic crises, environmental scarcity and degradation, energy, food security and migration related stresses.
- 2 Democratic governments may be more legitimate in terms of providing public goods such as education, health care, job training, environmental protection and the rule of law that allows for sanctity of contracts and predictability in regulatory environments and overall economic management.
- 3 Democratic space allows people at the local level to self-organize and to create their own local public goods – such as regulation of local markets or cooperatives for credit – that in turn create the conditions for local level democracy and democratic values and structures from the ‘bottom up’.
- 4 Democracy and direct participation support the principle of democratic national ownership of development planning. In this way, democracy can contribute to compromise-oriented and consensus seeking forms of policy making and implementation and the sustainability of economic reforms over time that involve at the outset all the principal stakeholders on a given issue and that, in turn, reconcile competing interests and priorities through dialogue, compromise and joint implementation.



IV Development's Contribution to Democracy

- 1 Development challenges such as widespread poverty, high unemployment, disease, and food insecurity place enormous strains on the effective operation of democracy. Participants argued that such social and development challenges provide the underpinnings for social violence, xenophobia, radical political agendas and distrust in the political system and its ability to deliver meaningful change. Rapid rises in basic commodity prices, particularly for energy and food, are widening inequality gaps in many countries and undermining the basis for social tolerance and trust on which democracy is ultimately based.
- 2 Development gaps such as the systematic exclusion of women from economic opportunity, starting with unequal education and opportunities in job markets, creates an excluded underclass of citizens who are economically (and often physically) vulnerable. In the case of women, these underlying conditions often inhibit their participation in democratic politics, and this means that their concerns, in turn, are not frequently addressed by the political system.
- 3 In countries with high dependence on primary commodity exports – particularly oil, precious minerals, or essential primary agricultural commodities – the international political economy may undermine democracy through the incentives for political elites to be more responsive to external economic relations (from where government revenue arises through export earnings) than to their own people. Absent national and international regulatory frameworks that ensure accountability and transparency, global economic dependency can prevent the successful functioning of state-society relations that are a core feature of democratic systems.
- 4 An important consideration is the need to create opportunities through which the poor can participate – which often involve community level processes or support to local level democracy – for example, in natural resource management. The most sustainable approach to encouraging the state to deliver resources is to create the conditions under which mobilization by the poor yields constructive policy and implementation results that address basic human needs (e.g., health, education, and housing).
- 5 Gains in health, education, and income – especially for women and girls – provide a basis in the family, neighborhood, and locality, and for society as a whole, to channel energies towards people's own formulation of preferences and goals and to collectively organize.
- 6 An essential element for development and indeed for a functioning democracy is a system of human and community security. In situations where security is absent, the underlying basis for development is absent. In turn, democracy itself requires a secure environment and the freedom to organize and to mobilize without fear.

V CIVIC ENGAGEMENT

1 Definition

“Civic engagement means working to make a difference in the civic life of our communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values, and motivation to make that difference. It means promoting the quality of life in a community, through both political and non-political processes....

A morally and civically responsible individual recognizes himself or herself as a member of a larger social fabric and therefore considers social problems to be at least partly his or her own; such an individual is willing to see the moral and civic dimensions of issues, to make and justify informed moral and civic judgments, and to take action when appropriate.”

There are numerous paths for civic engagement:

- Political participation through voting, voter registration, or being an election judge.
- Educating Americans on government and history.
- Volunteering with organizations that build community well-being or participating in community service projects.
- Advocating for legislation and models.
- Representing fellow citizens by appointment or election, such as on a city council or school board.

You can see a broader spectrum of civic engagement here. All of these actions demonstrate how civic engagement is about engaging people in a process of self-governance. Values associated with fostering civic engagement are:

- Trusting and respecting how a community wants to take action for itself.
- Creating agency and power in people, particularly those most affected by an issue.
- Nurturing or fostering healthier, stronger, happier places to live.
- Engaging community members in a process that affect them and their communities.
- Promoting transparency and participation

2 Types of Civic Engagement

Activism/Advocacy:

Involves organizing to bring about political or social change or to show support for, bring awareness to, or promote a particular cause or policy.

Civic Learning:

Acquiring knowledge of community, government, social issues, or political issues with or without the application of the knowledge.

Community Service/Volunteerism:

Engaging in activities to benefit others or one's community; such activities may or may not involve structured training and reflection.

Service Learning:

Involves intentionally linking service activities with student learning objectives to mutually benefit the recipient (community organization) and the provider (student) by addressing real community needs while students apply what they have learned and advance that learning through active engagement and reflection.

Community Engaged Internship:

Provides students with hands-on experiences that enhance their learning or understanding of social or political issues relevant to a particular area of study. Course is denoted as "Professional Practice" in the university catalog.

Philanthropy/Fundraising:

Collection of resources (e.g., money, food, clothing, etc.) to benefit charitable organizations or agencies.

Political Engagement:

Developing one's own political understandings and views that may be expressed by challenging political ideas of others and/or influencing policies or political positions.

Community Engaged Research:

Creation of new knowledge in collaboration with or on behalf of a community partner that contributes to student learning within the academic discipline while also strengthening the well-being of the community by working to solve or understand an issue of public concern.

Social Entrepreneurship/Social Innovation:

Combining innovation, resourcefulness, and opportunity to address critical social and environmental challenges through the development of business models, products, or services.

3 Role of the United Nations in protecting and promoting civic space

“The UN depends on the active engagement of civil society actors. They are critical to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals and addressing climate change. [...] Where parts of civil society are considered a threat, we need a principled mindset and to engage constructively.”

António Guterres, Secretary-General of the United Nations
24 February 2020

UN entities, at the global, regional and national levels, have long been working in partnership with civil society to implement programs and projects, e.g., to deliver life-saving services, to support mediation and post-conflict activities, to monitor political and social developments.

The UN has also sought to promote and protect civic space in a multitude of ways, e.g., through rule of law programming, capacity development, advocacy in support of open space, including through the work of UN human rights bodies and mechanisms. The UN therefore committed to enhancing internal coordination with a view to engaging more strategically to promote and protect civic space.

OHCHR, together with UN Women, has been leading the resulting UN initiative to take promotion and protection of civic space and civil society to the next level. As part of this initiative, in January 2020, OHCHR and UN Women co-organized a global online consultation with civil society. Please see the consultations summary.



UN PHOTO/VIOLAINE MARTIN

Conclusion

The United Nations' vision for reinvigorated, inclusive, networked, and effective multilateralism to address contemporary challenges in the areas of development, peace and security, climate change, democracy, and human rights. The Common Agenda calls for a new equitable and inclusive social contract, built on trust between institutions and the peoples, and to do so, calls for full implementation of the Secretary-General's Call to Action for Human Rights and the UN Guidance Note on Protecting and Promoting Civic Space.

The United Nations system thus committed to:

- Supporting States in renewing the social contract particularly focusing on trust, addressing discrimination and exclusion, and measuring what matters.
- Building on recent innovations in listening to, consulting and engaging with people around the world, and put people at the center of all its actions and take into account the impact of intersecting personal characteristics such as age, gender and diversity.
- Promoting inclusive participation of various stakeholders, in particular women and youth.
- Addressing frontier issues and prevent harms in the digital or technology spaces, including in relation to freedom of speech, hate speech and harassment, and privacy.
- Establishing dedicated focal points for civil society in each entity to create proactively the space necessary for civil society actors to contribute to the work of the United Nations at the country and global levels; and
- Developing new agendas for peace and for protection.

“People wish to be heard and to participate in the decisions that affect them. Institutions could establish better ways of listening to people whom they are meant to serve and taking their views into account, especially groups that are frequently overlooked, such as women, young people, minority groups or persons with disabilities.”

António Guterres, Secretary-General of the United Nations

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2.2 Paper



Democracy and how it's perceived in Sub-Saharan Africa countries: Nigeria and Seychelles

by Daniel Pontes

Advisor: Jelena Pia-Comella

Democracy is popular sovereignty – “government of the people, by the people, for the people”

Abraham Lincoln's

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Summary

During the last decades of the past century, we faced a historic change in democracy. Many countries have taken steps towards democratization. We perceived the overthrow of authoritarian single-party regimes and the introduction of multiparty elections. Democracy strides forward.

Over the next few pages, I will talk about what is democracy and which are the most important types of “contemporary democracy”. I will present how democracy is perceived in Sub-Saharan Africa countries, especially in the biggest African democracy, Nigeria; and the smallest, Seychelles.

It is important to notice that despite all the problems that those regions still facing, they show us that they are managing to overcome the devastating legacy of colonialism and the disputes between the great powers of the Cold War. Sub-Saharan Africa is being consolidated more and more like a continent of peace and progress.

Essay

The idea of democracy is not recent. The democracy concept dates back from late 16th century and has its origin from the Greek: *dēmokratía*, which stands for the rule of the people.

In a simple definition democracy is a system of government formed by the whole population or all the eligible members of a state. Democracy is government by the people in which the supreme power is vested and exercised directly by them or by their elected agents under a free electoral system. We can say that democracy is a form of government in which all eligible citizens have an equal say in the social, cultural and economic decisions; where citizens vote to choose representatives. In a democracy, every person should be treated equally and have the right to work to support themselves with the purpose of having a better life.

When talking about democracy we cannot forget the concept of freedom, i.e., democracy is a set of ideas and principles about freedom, but it also consists on a set of practices and procedures that have been molded through a long history. In brief, democracy is the institutionalization of freedom that promotes and supports the idea of freedom, freedom of speech, among equal rights for the citizens. Everyone is equal in the eyes of the law and government. It allows eligible citizens to have an equal say in the decisions, including proposal, development, and creation of laws, that affects their lives.

Today, there are several types of democracy but the “most important” types are the direct democracies and the representative democracies. In direct democracies¹ citizens have direct and active participation in the decisions making of the government. Made by general public determines the laws and policies through which the people will be governed. Each citizen can vote in favor or against laws and every citizen plays a direct and active role in a direct democracy.

On the other hand, representative democracy is a form of government based on the election of decision-makers by people. In representative democracy, representatives typically act in a chamber such as a senate, parliament or House of Representatives. Citizens elect officials to make political decisions, formulate laws and administer programs for public good. In the name of the people, those officials can deliberate on

¹ Direct democracy is sometimes called “pure democracy,” as it is the purest form of democracy, in which people have the right to decide their laws and government.

complex public issues in a thoughtful and systematic manner that requires an investment of time.

Representative democracy is, in my opinion, more advantageous than direct democracy because it is not as restrictive as direct democracy. In our days, as we are always talking about globalization, representative democracy allows us to work on a bigger scale. As an European, I would like to highlight that in the 10th article of the Maastricht Treaty it is stated that “the operation of the European Union is based on the representative democracy”.

In developing countries, democracy is viewed as a higher order that comes after the basic needs (such as food, health, shelter...)². Although in most of the developing countries, what comes after the basic needs are the material needs. Some theorists argue that a modern democratic state can exist only in a society that has solved the problems of material well-being. That is why it is believed that this need for material conditions helps countries to develop their economies. Economic development not only leads to democracy but also is essential for democracy to come into being³.

We can ask the question: Does democracy help development? It is not an easy question to answer. In the last decades this question has entered the discussion as well as the meaning of development itself has undergone a transformation. Trying to answer the question clearly, there are two opposing theses, at the theoretical level. In one hand, there are those who believe that democracy does not help development due to the fact that democracy encourages ethnic and other cleavages and creates instability that endangers development. In the other hand, democracy puts pressure on the rulers to redistribute ahead of growth. What is required for development is more savings and less consumption⁴. On the contrary, there are those who argue that democracy promotes civil and political rights, property rights, free information flows and the rule of law, all of which are seen as preconditions to development.

Despite these two theses, there is no specific answer in favor of either of them. Several studies conclude that “politics do matter, but regimes do not capture the relevant differences”. For example, some years ago in a report of the World Bank about world development the conclusion was similar, successful economic development has occurred under both democratic as well as nondemocratic regimes. For example, Pakistan which has been under military rule since independence in the same year has had relatively better economic growth rates but poor results in human welfare. Most Sub-Saharan Africa countries have already experienced low or negative economic growth usually under non-democratic regimes. It does not follow that Sub-Saharan African countries would necessarily do better economically under democratic regimes.

Africa typically economic conditions have worsened in the short run following political liberalization because of government neglect of economic matters. However, the economic difficulties may not necessarily be due to political liberalization causing economic neglect. Furthermore, when democratic governments are established, the expectations of the people are also very high. In such way, especially in the short-term, governments may tend to undertake expenditure programs that are fiscally not very prudent or sustainable. In general, while the evidence is far from conclusive, it is probably correct to assert that the democracy-development choice is a false one⁵.

² The idea of Maslow's pyramid.

³ There are many political leaders who subscribe to the view that basic material needs must be met before their societies can practice democracy.

⁴ That is easier to achieve under an authoritarian regime that can take unpopular decisions.

⁵ S.W.R. de A. Samarasinghe, *Democracy and Democratization in Developing Countries*, Washington, The American University & Institute for International Research, July 1994.

It is also important to clarify the misconception that developing countries are not ready for democracy. All countries should be working to be ready for democracy and the best way to democracy is through democracy. Although it is true that democracy is more sustainable in developed countries, it is seen that, in the last decades of the twentieth century, many developing countries still sustain democracy. Proof is the fact that, some developing countries are using the democratic political institutions to rebuild their economies and states after civil war. According to Professor Larry Diamond⁶: “the new popular embrace of democracy is particularly striking in sub-Saharan Africa [...]. In 2008, an average of 70 percent of Africans expressed support for democracy as always, the best form of government. But only 59 percent perceived that they had in their country a full or almost full democracy and only 49 percent were satisfied with how democracy was working in their country. [...] In Africa, people have learned through bitter experience that without democracy they will have neither freedom nor bread”. And today we know that most remaining authoritarian regimes in Africa are extremely fragile⁷.

The number of African countries that have adopted democratic systems of government has grown since decolonization, the collapse of communism and the ending of a number of civil wars. African states and societies are grappling with the dual complex challenges of democratizing and developing their economies – in the context of the most diverse continent in the world with some of its least developed countries. Some argue that democracy should not be prioritized over development and poverty reduction. However, demand for democracy and political freedoms in Africa remains high, if often disappointed⁸.

The case of Nigeria and Seychelles

Federal Republic of Nigeria is the Africa’s largest democracy with more than 206 million people⁹. It’s journey to democracy has been arduous, fragile and fluctuating since independence. Having a democratic constitution with a federal system modelled on the US, the executive is headed by the president, the legislature is formed by the National Assembly of Senate and House of Representatives, and the judiciary is headed by a supreme court.

Prior to the promulgation of its Constitution, 1999, attempts to democratize the country, date back to the colonial era, were hampered by regimes of military autocracy. After suffering decades of repression, oppression and human rights abuses, the return to civilian democratic rule in 1999 was a major victory for Nigerians.

Successive governments struggled to create a sense of national unity in a such a big country whose borders were drawn by British colonialists (Nigeria officially became a democracy on its independence from Britain in October 1960), incorporating more than 200 ethnic groups. Democratization and development have progressed at different speeds in the country’s disparate regions. Nigeria’s democracy has also a long and troubled relationship with its military. For more than half of its existence as an independent state, Nigeria has been under military rule instead of civilian administration. Since independence, heightened ethnic consciousness has led to exclusion in the division of power and resources among the units of the

⁶ American political sociologist and leading contemporary scholar in the field of democracy studies.

⁷ Although, if democracy is not well worked, it can become fragile.

⁸ As Afrobarometer data show.

⁹ As per the World Bank in 2020.

Nigerian federation¹⁰. Indeed, seven years after independence, ethnic tensions led to the persecution and marginalization of the Igbo people of south-eastern Nigeria, resulting in a 30-month civil war between the Nigerian government and the secessionist Republic of Biafra.

According to several authors the Nigeria model of federalism is responsible to led the feelings of alienation and calls for secession by various separatist movements such as the Oduduwa Republic of the Yoruba ethnic group, the Arewa Republic in Northern Nigeria, the Niger Delta Republic and the Indigenous Peoples of Biafra (IPOB), all of which are calling for independent states because of marginalization, injustice and inequality in the distribution and management of the resources. Thus, posing a clear and imminent danger to peace and security, these agitations undermine the country's participatory democracy. Of course all this will compound by socio-economic problems. The socio-economic development is crucial to the emergence and maintenance of democracy, the Nigerian constitution, in proclaiming the country as a democratic state, declares the welfare and security of the people as the primary objective of government. The basic expectation of the people is therefore that democratic governance will provide them with the material conditions for their development. In reality, however, Nigeria's socio-economic profile is characterized by high unemployment, inflation, widespread poverty and economic stagnation. These problems have had far-reaching implications for Nigerian democracy and have affected, significantly, the participation in the democratic process.

Democracy must be able to survive challenges without compromising civil rights and political freedoms. But many structural factors, from political to cultural, affect the consolidation of democracy. In the case of Nigeria, the most pressing of these factors are relate to socio-economic issues, constitutional arrangements and institutional choices. For Nigeria's system of governance to be inclusive and truly democratic, it must be restructured to give sovereignty of power to the grassroots, that is, the people. Improved socio-economic conditions will ensure political power to the people. When people are freed from the shackles of poverty, they will be empowered to claim a role in governance and participate in the democratic process.

But, in fact, what are, nowadays, the challenges for democracy in Nigeria? As per Chatham House the are 3 main challenges: Freedom of speech, Justice and Elections. In terms of Freedom of speech, Nigeria as a vibrant media industry but, for the last years, the government has been cracking down on the free press as evidenced by its actions during the #EndSARS¹¹ protests of 2020. After those protest, Twitter was banned for more than a year. In parallel, big media houses closed and journalists fled, diminishing open debate. Security incidents go unreported or misrepresented for fear of reprisals by the government. With regard to Nigeria's Justice, the constitution guarantees Nigerians freedom of religion, expression, movement, and assembly and protects them from discrimination based on sex, religion, origin, or political opinions. However, basic rights are continually challenged in a "failing justice environment". Nigerian police have a bad reputation, known for its brutality (which led directly to the #EndSARS protests of 2020). The Sharial Law¹² has been reintroduced in 12 northern Nigerian estates, directly challenging the constitution and civil liberties of non-Muslim residents. In April 2022 a man was sentenced to 24 years in jail by a Sharia court in Kano on a charge of blasphemy for declaring himself an atheist. The judicial system seems to be

¹⁰ The Nigerian model of federalism is a highly centralized system of governance, with excessive powers placed in the hands of its federal government to the detriment of its federal and local governments. The provisions of the constitution guarantee the federal government total control over fundamental issues such as trade unions, labor, trade and commerce. The centralization of power has thus produced a highly inefficient federal government that is unable to meet popular expectations.

¹¹ Social movement, and series of mass protests against police brutality in Nigeria. The slogan calls for the disbanding of the Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS), a notorious unit of the Nigerian Police with a long record of abuse on Nigerian citizens.

¹² Sharia is Islam's legal system, derived from the Quran (Islam's holy book), aims to help Muslims understand how they should lead every aspect of their lives according to God's wishes. The 5 major goals of the Sharia are: the protection of sound religious practice, life, sanity, the family, and personal and communal wealth.

weak and compromised to step in and enforce civil liberties - this reflects the current state of art on the northern Nigeria politics and the absence of mechanisms to defend constitutional democracy. Concerning the Elections, most of them have been regular, credible and generally free, however this varies considerably by region and election cycle. It is heard some violence's episodes during election periods in Nigeria. Voter turnout has steadily decreased as voters have become disillusioned by the recycling of political candidates, the lack of internal democracy in political parties, and the failure of government to deliver real progress.

Notwithstanding what Nigeria needs? It is urgent that young people engage with politics, offering new ideas and run for office on issues which affect all Nigerians, from employment and security to climate and energy policy. Nigeria needs its youth committed to the kind of long-term civic activism and community organizing which expands the narrow focus on electoral cycles, strengthens democratic institutions, and delivers long-term change. A revolutionized political system with better quality political parties, more independent and diversified media, a stronger electoral management body and well-resourced judiciary is "mandatory" to strengthened Nigeria's democracy.

Lastly, democracy is essential for the survival of nations, especially for the Africa's most populated country. In Nigeria it is clear that democracy has not yet delivered a considerable uplift in living standards for most Nigerians, it remains the only system of government which can offer the hope of reconciling the extraordinary plurality of religions, ethnicities, and political traditions of its large population. It is the only system of government which can create a fair society without resorting to oppression or the exclusion of considerable parts of the population.

On the other hand, the Republic of the Seychelles is the smallest democracy in Africa with almost 98 thousand people¹³. Classified as a high-income country since 2015 (USD 13,306 per capita in 2021, the highest in Africa), it is the only African representative in this category. In recent years, this small country with 115 islands in a total of 459 km² has seen an increase in political pluralism, with an opposition coalition winning a parliamentary majority in 2016 and an opposition presidential candidate winning the post in 2020. However, and in line with what is happening in most sub-Saharan African countries, government corruption remains a problem, as does lengthy pretrial detention.

Independent since 1976, the Seychelles archipelago suffered a coup d'état in 1977, leading to the establishment of a Marxist-inspired single-party, being several years in the power, succeeded in consolidating Seychelles' transition to a pluralist democracy and a liberal economy, highly dependent on tourism and fisheries (Victoria is one of the busiest tuna ports in the world) - climate change are posing risks to the sustainability of its economy at long-term.

The Seychelles is relatively new to democracy. It held its first multiparty presidential and legislative elections in 1993 where the transition to a multiparty democracy was entrenched by the 1993 constitution. Since then, it has built up a fairly good reputation for well-functioning, democratic governance. Barring some allegations of corruption in the electoral process, it has shown rapid improvement, thanks to a strengthened anti-corruption legislative framework. We can say Seychelles is an electoral democracy, committing itself to hold free, fair, and regular elections in accordance with its constitution. Its elections are managed by an objective, credible and responsible electoral institution (although it has been accused of inefficiency in the past) - the country is also a signatory to the African Union's 2002 Declaration on the Principles Governing Democratic Elections in Africa as well as the 2007 African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance.

¹³ As per the World Bank in 2020.

Despite being a country with such a small population, the youth vote has not been actively sought. Campaigns promising to include young people in matters of governance have been in place however, with a low success rate. In all democracies, the youth must be considered as the “most important and dynamic segment of the population”, especially in Seychelles that are becoming an increasingly influential demographic. Nowadays, young Seychellean have shown relatively little interest in exercising their right to vote (the must be encouraged to do so). As the same time, women are not as active in the country’s politics as they could be. Women’s representation in the Seychellois parliament dropped from 43.75% in 2011 to 21% in 2019. This is below the 23% world average. Moreover, in the history of the Seychelles, only one woman – Alexia Amesbury¹⁴ – has contested a presidential election. The absence of women representation is a worrying trend: it means less participation across all levels of decision-making. This has dire consequences for attempts to achieve equality and sustainable development for everyone. It is mandatory to have more discussions on the role of women in democracy and leadership. “Despite the Seychelles’ general appearance as a matrifocal society, when it comes to political leadership, women are often perceived as having been promoted through the benevolence of a male presidency”, say Amesbury.

Away from the limited representation of women and the youth, there is nothing to suggest that democracy in Seychelles might fail. It is also very important to add that press freedom violations are very rare in the Seychelles, the environment is quite favorable for the exercise of journalism- media no longer hesitate to criticize the government or address issues such as corruption and nepotism (however, several publications remain aligned to political parties).

Therefore, concludes Seychelles has a good track record of upholding human rights and democracy. The country occupies third position in the 2020 Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance. The holding of credible, inclusive and transparent 2020 presidential and legislative elections confirmed Seychelles’ democratic transition and consolidation process. As confirmed by the incumbent president in his first address, Seychelles remains committed to advance on the path of democracy, good governance and rule of law. Reforms in the area of human rights continued in 2020. The Truth, Reconciliation and National Unity Commission remains operational and its discussions are public.

To conclude, I believe that democratic values are essential for successful development. In an independent, democratic and with a free press country, there is no such thing as substantial famine and people will be able to take part at the country’s politics, country’s democracy (the example of Seychelles). This understanding of a link between democracy and development ebbed and flowed over the last century as communism rose and fell and the world’s economic balance shifted from West to East. Sometimes the idea that democracy and economic success go together might me thrown into doubt (example of China) however, in the case of sub-Saharan countries I doubt. The socio-economic development in Nigeria is crucial to the emergence and maintenance of democracy, improving their socio-economic conditions will ensure political power to the people and, unavoidably, awakening Nigerians to their civic duty to participate in the country’s democracy by exercising their right to vote - people freed from the shackles of poverty, will be empowered to claim a role in governance and participate in the democratic process. In the case of Seychelles the question arise is more related to encouraging the young population and the female population to take an active role in the country’s democracy.

¹⁴ Well-known Seychellois lawyer.



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Security Council Considers Cooperation between UN and Regional Organizations 12/6/2018

UN PHOTO/ESKINDER DEBEBE

2.3 Paper



Regional Organizations and Conflict Resolution

by **Dominique D. Finley**

Advisor: **Dr. Angel Angelov**

Abstract

This research paper will discuss conflict resolution among organizations. For international professionals and researchers in the field, there are agencies and organizations that can benefit from understanding cross-cultural issues and dynamics related to conflict resolution. Using relevant literature and articles, possible impacts and conflict solutions will be explored. This research paper will also discuss practical examples, and specifically explore cross-cultural issues and possible recommendations and interventions within organizations. A primary goal is to examine the goals of international work and recognize potential bias in practice.

Keywords: international, organization, corporation, conflict, cultural, research, resolution

Regional Organizations and Conflict Resolution

In 2018, the United Nations' Secretary General published a press release discussing the reduction in inequalities and stronger economic growth, when intercultural relationships are studied in diverse settings (United Nations, 2018). International experts and professionals, business experts, and researchers can all be stakeholders with a vested interest in seeing effective conflict prevention and reduction. It is significant to discuss macro and group level factors which include cultural, demographic, political, and economic adaptations impacting organizational dynamics (Berry et al., 2011). One of the primary goals can be to review research and literature for possible resolutions and recommendations to address conflict within organizations. This paper will examine some practical examples paying close attention to cross-cultural issues and reducing bias. It can be important to refer to existing organizational dynamics to generate applicable interventions and recommendations to address conflict.

Cultural Issues and Organizational Dynamics

It can be helpful to first discuss how culture can impact organizational dynamics and potential conflict. Berry et al. (2011) defined culture as the shared social institutions, communications, and internal and external way of life for a group of individuals. Organizational dynamics and conflict could be impacted by the social, political, and historical significance of culture, and that context can matter when working towards conflict resolution (UNFPA, 2016). People and groups coming from different and diverse cultures can also encounter challenges when trying to work together, discuss priorities or goals, and resolve conflict between regional organizations. Culture can be studied as culture-blind which ignores the role of culture on human development, and on the other hand, culture-bound limits findings and concepts to the scope of culture (Berry, 2013). Culture-bound and culture-blind forces in practice can contribute to misunderstandings in the execution of interventions, practices, and planning for conflict resolution.

Culture also plays a role in cross-cultural issues and practice. Cross-cultural issues like war, lack of education or healthcare, and poverty have impact on an international scale, with differences and similarities across culture. International professionals use different methods and strategies to effectively influence changes and outcomes in international issues, therefore, a level of competence and awareness of different cultural contexts is important (Wessells & Dawes, 2007). As professionals continue to work on conflict resolution through regional and international organizations, it will involve expanding the scope of practice and understanding of different cultures.

Potential Issues with Organizational Conflict Resolution

One of the issues that can be explored is the potential for bias in the process of addressing conflict. For example, Western approaches historically have heavily shaped theoretical orientations and processes, and the work of conflict resolution among organizations can emerge as an opportunity there address western bias (Arnett, 2008; Berry, 2013; UNFPA, 2016; Stevens, 2007). There can be a tendency for Western experts and professionals to ignore or not incorporate cultural context or significance in their approach, and this can contribute to the resolution only focusing on Western approaches and perspectives.

Another issue that could be addressed is the promotion of international professional peer-to-peer collaboration in conflict resolution efforts. The fields of psychology, anthropology, history, and political science can overlap in practice and in cross-cultural studies, and this is relevant when discussing interprofessional/interdisciplinary collaboration (Berry et al., 2011). Conflict resolution in international settings that utilizes a cross-cultural approach can be more well-rounded if experts and professionals are a part of creating and sharing the findings (UNFPA, 2016). Understanding human beings through a more detailed and comprehensive approach can be achieved through interdisciplinary teams working to promote collaboration and representative conflict resolution efforts. For this paper, conflict resolution is being examined, also with possible recommendations and interventions for the United Nations and regional organizations.

Interventions to Address Conflict between the UN and Regional Organizations

One recommendation to address conflict within and between organizations is by adapting practices and processes to account for cultural similarities and differences. As mentioned early, Berry et al. (2011) culture is a study of shared elements within a group of individuals, and the way culture is studied can be understood in different ways. Human interactions can have common presentations and themes across cultures, and adjustments can be made to account for culture in the resolution process (Berry et al., 2011; UNFPA, 2016). There should be modifications and adaptations that recognize cultural context, and these changes can benefit the organizations and the efficacy of process. As this relates to organizational conflict, within and between groups, it can be beneficial to acknowledge and respect the diverse cultural backgrounds of team members. Multiple perspectives can serve as an additional review and reflection process. Respecting and understanding individual team members cultural backgrounds can support organization cohesion and efficiency, which ultimately can support productivity and combat some of the conflict.

Next, the United Nations charter discusses partnership and cooperation between the UN council and regional organizations in upholding international security and peace (UNFPA, 2016). As Article 52 (3) states, the council “shall encourage the peaceful settlement of local disputes through...regional arrangements or through regional agencies either on the initiative of the states concerned or by reference from the security council” (UNFPA, 2016). Further, this article denotes that the council can use regional provisions for enforcement efforts under its authority and with the council's authorization. It can be argued there is more recognition of the opportunities for a more effective partnership between the UN council and regional organizations. For example, the European Union has an established relationship with the UN security council, in terms of peacekeeping as a principal part of their official collaboration (Insert, year). In Europe, regional organizations including the EU and the Organization for Security and Co-operation (OSCE) perform strategic roles in conflict resolution and post-conflict settings. The OSCE carefully monitors the situation in Ukraine and serves as a significant information source for developments that are shared with the council (Hera, 2021). Additionally, can briefings take place on the interactions with different organizations and the council's overall program of work. Another example of a resolution would be the World Health Organization Rapid Access Expansion Initiative (RACe). Over six years, this program sought to train and supervise community health workers to provide preventative and lifesaving medical care to children, when previously of health workers was limited (Hera, 2021). At the conclusion of the project, an evaluation was done to review project impacts in conjunction with the UN council; and this evaluation included recommendations for a more effective community engagement, a health management information system, a supply of medicine, and a human recourse for health workers (Hera, 2021). Additionally, the United Nations Population Fund developed and implemented the UNFPA Innovation Initiative to improve the program's performance moving forward. Consultations were had with evaluators and program staff to adjust and support the UN's objective of sustainable and ethical business innovation (UNFPA, 2016). Conflict resolution between the council and regional organizations involves examining different levels of an organization's structure, planning strategies to address needs, and then periodic evaluation throughout the process. Also, general policies and basic guidelines of conduct should be practiced and accepted by the members of an organization (Ovreeide & Matjan, 2012). It should be established from the very top of the company, with parameters of what is and what is not acceptable in a professional interaction and partnership. All members should have a part in the

discussion and implementation of the code of conduct. Without this baseline and early parameters, there may only be a continuation of conflict between team members (Ovreeide & Matjan, 2012). The process of establishing such guidelines may not necessarily look the same for every situation, and this is a factor to consider. Another underlying issue is ongoing efforts to promote confidence-building processes to avoid and resolve conflicts. For example, statements from the UN council can be a viable option that aims to highlight the importance of confidence-building efforts in supporting conflict resolution and mediation; encouraging the mediation work of United Nations' envoys, and special reports from the Secretary-General on ways the council and regional organizations can work together to promote dialogue and best practices among disputing parties (Insert, year). Such comprehensive reports and summaries could examine situations and the role of cooperation and confidence-building could be examined. Going forward, council members can also consider organizing opportunities for informal and collaborative conferences between the UN officials and representatives from different regional organizations to discuss methods to build connections between conflict mediation in both regional organizations and the UN. Meetings would allow for an exchange of theories, ideas, and sharing useful information between organizations (United Nations, 2018). Both the UN and regional organizations should consider lack of capacity across areas including inadequate institutions, limited human, material and financial resources, and procedural difficulties (Insert, year). Such capacity limitations can make it difficult to implement decisions and collaboratively resolve conflicts. Certain regional organizations and coalitions that do not face such limitations or challenges can have advantages including rapid response capabilities, accurate information, enhanced communication, capacity for peace enforcement and security, and more sustainable financial resources (United Nations, 2018). All these factors are important to consider and continually assess as the partnership continues between organizations and the council. The final intervention to suggest would be the use of Industrial Psychology approaches and techniques. Industrial or Organizational Psychology is psychological principles being applied to all levels of an organizational environment including screenings, group training sessions, development planning, and policy planning (Prieto, Chacon, & Marin, 2012). The focus of this theoretical orientation is what can be learned psychologically in professional environments, and this information can communicate needs for change or reform within an organization and its partners. Features of Industrial or Organizational Psychology can include assessments and trainings to promote workplace productivity through improving the well-being of individuals, building morale, and active problem solving (Berry et al, 2011; Prieto et al., 2012). Both the council and regional organizations can play a role in mandating and implementing such trainings and assessments to gauge how the partnership is developing and how conflicts are being addressed. A working culture with conflict can effect on the productivity and reaching goals, so it could be beneficial to support meaningful conflict resolution.

Types of Bias to Avoid

One major source of bias to be aware of and recognize is the judgments and knowledge professionals bring into new country and culture perspectives differ in professional education and practice. One example is that Western or U.S. concepts and theories of functioning dominate research and journal publications across the world (Arnett, 2008; Stevens, 2007). U.S. professionals must be careful to not be blinded by biases they have coming into a new country, when conducting research and working with professional peers, because such bias can create a culture blind spot. A great deal can be learned and shared if the working group is truly collaborative and representative, and this can support the creation of effective organizational and national goals moving forward.

The other bias to be aware of is differences in training and education between professionals working together. Professionals can practice and research in various cultural settings, but their role and what the individual does can vary across cultures. Also, there could be regulatory and licensing boards to consider in the home and host countries, and professionals should be an awareness of the differences and similarities. The differences and similarities in titles, credentials, and licensing should be a part of the group learning process to inform collective work experience. Addressing the biases can be another way to promote problem-solving and mitigate group conflict within organizations.

Conclusion

It is helpful to review practical examples when studying potential conflict interventions and recommendations within organizations. This paper sought to propose potential interventions and recommendations, and to address bias when addressing conflict at the organizational level. International researchers and professionals can experience varying levels of influence when working in new cultural environment, and it is significant to discuss the macro-level factors in group development process. The ongoing research on conflict resolution across diverse settings can inform what interventions will be most beneficial in the future.

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2.4 Paper



United Nations (UN), Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), The United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR), Zonta International, and Global Diplomacy

by Donna Sroka

Advisors: Larisa Schelkin & Jelena Pia-Comella

UNITAR Global Diplomacy – Zonta International Working Together to Build a Better World for Women and Girls

Abstract

A brief overview of the interaction and impact of the United Nations (UN), Sustainable Developmental Goals (SDGs), United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR), and Zonta International (ZI). The focus of this paper is to provide an overview and general understanding of multilateral impact on Women, Peace and Security goals. The author will share her story of meeting women from Ukraine displaced from the conflict of war. A description of Zonta International, and UNITAR's Global Diplomacy course and further elaboration of shared resources including recommended books, films and infographic links on world conflicts along with progress on gender equality across the SDGs are made available to educate others. The author will illustrate the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda and the National Action Plans (NAPs) to implement and monitor the agreed upon indicators. Links to the UN Global Database Violence against Women and NAPs for each country is available with specific links to US, Canada, and Ukraine. Progress and gaps along with critiques of progress are included for further evaluation and analysis.

Keywords: Zonta International, UNITAR, UNSCR 1325, WPS, Women, Peace, and Security; Sustainable Developmental Goals



DONNA SROKA

United Nations (UN), Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), The United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR), Zonta International, and Global Diplomacy

The hope is to share my learnings and integrate this knowledge with activism as I learn more about the UN Resolution 1325 and Responsibility to Protect effect on change for women globally. I want to share what I was learning with others who like me might be intimidated with the overwhelming amount of information of injustice and become immobilized by the sheer volume and intensity of the reality. Sharing individual stories, books, and films helping to grasp various women's experiences. Infographics of data details and links to additional resources are included to allow the reader to delve in at their own interest as their time permits. Defining organizations and concepts in sections.



Photos taken at UNITAR invitation to view Peace Education and Dialogue Event 9/26/2020

DONNA SROKA

Story Telling

– My personal introduction to the reality of the war in Ukraine

I attended the Zonta International Convention in Hamburg, Germany in June of 2022. It was the first travel after two years of Covid hibernation. The war curtailed our original plans to extend our travel to Poland. The convention was full of speakers and 1200 in person participants. I had many duties assigned as a newly elected governor of one of the international districts. On the third day, exhausted from travel, and long days interacting with women from around the world, I longed for a quiet solitary break with a cup of tea to give my brain time to settle and rest from all the stimulation. I noticed a tall table had a small picture of milk that I desired for my tea. Two women were there talking together, I smiled, they asked where I was from, I showed them my badge easier to read than speak. I returned the polite question as I poured some milk into my tea. As I read their badges, "Ukraine" I realized my desire for a few minutes of a solo break was over. There were women from three of the Zonta clubs from Ukraine presenting at the convention and I found myself in a conversation that has stayed with me since. One woman told me she was living in London, but that it was not home. She repeated that "it was not home" to make sure I understood her English. She said she had to leave her apartment quickly and took only her key to get back in, but now that was all she had, her key to her apartment. She showed me the remnant of her past life, a key to a home that was no longer there, bombed in this war.



DONNA SROKA

Who is Zonta International?¹

Zonta International, founded in 1919, is a global organization of more than 27,000 individuals in 1,133 Zonta clubs in 62 countries. Zonta is a non-governmental organization with General Consultative Status* (since 1969) with the United Nations Economic and Social Council and participatory status with the Council of Europe. Zonta is able to issue its own statements and collaborate with other like-minded organizations to make joint statements and advocate for policies to promote and protect the rights of women and girls.

Zonta International's most recent statements:

Open letter calls on the UN, Security Council and Member States to take action to defend peace, human rights and gender equality. 2022 Open Letter to Permanent Representatives to the United Nations in advance of the annual Open Debate on Women, Peace and Security was sent to all UN Member States on behalf of 481 civil society organizations across 92 countries in advance of the Security Council Open Debate on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) in October 2022.

Zonta International Statement on Women's Rights in Armed Conflict and Post-Conflict Settings | PDF

(Statement by Zonta International calls for governments to take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to protect women during and after conflict settings, while including women and women's groups within the peacebuilding process; approved May 2022, published June 2022)

Zonta International Statement on Women Migrants and Refugees | PDF

(Statement by Zonta International calls for governments to ensure at all stages, the human rights, safety and dignity of all migrants and refugees; approved May 2022)

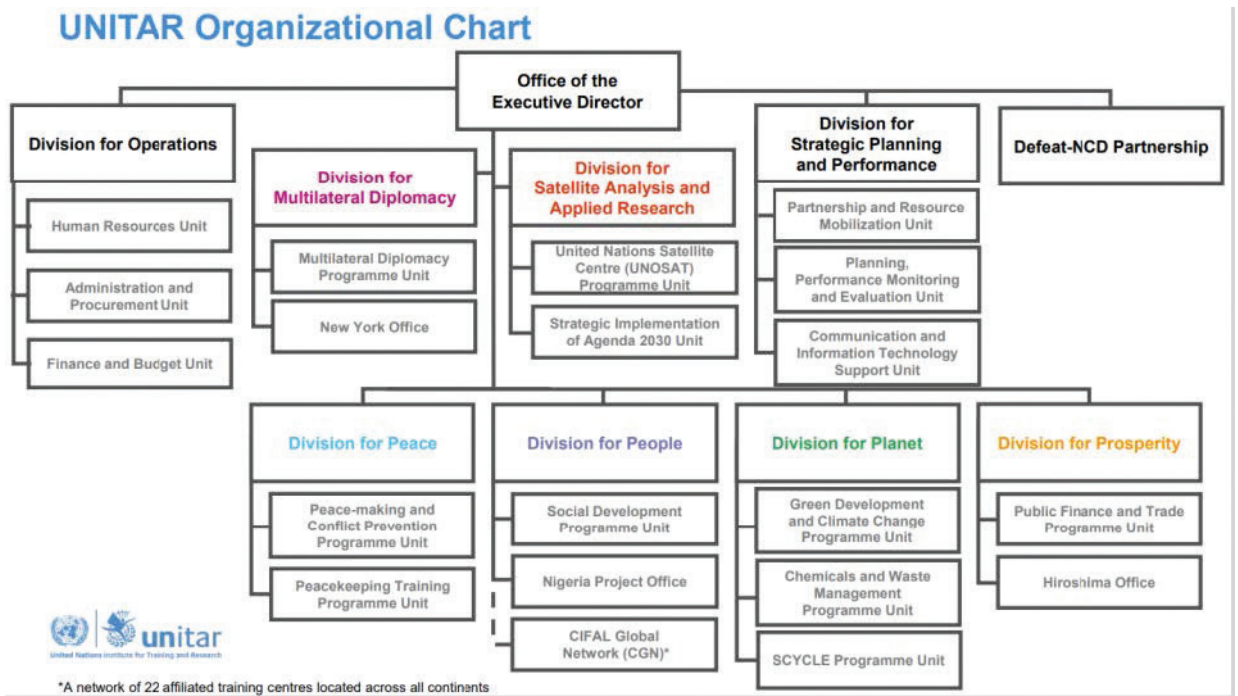
Draw up and enforce legal and moral redlines on crimes against the environment | LINK

(Statement by Zonta International and 45 other non-governmental organizations to assert the imperative for the international community to strengthen the international legal framework and international cooperation in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice, May 2022) Zonta International statement on International Day for the Elimination of Sexual Violence in Conflict 2022

- * *General Consultative Status* (formerly Consultative Status 1), the highest level, which may be granted to organizations that are concerned with most of the activities of the council, that are making substantive and sustained contributions in many fields, with a considerable membership, and that are broadly representative of major segments of society in a large number of countries. These organizations are entitled to deliver oral presentations during the council's meetings.

Who is UNITAR? The United Nations Institute for Training and Research.

UNITAR is an autonomous body within the United Nations that was established in 1965 pursuant to a UN General Assembly resolution. UNITAR’s mission is to develop the individual, institutional and organizational capacities of countries and other United Nations stakeholders through high quality learning solutions and related knowledge products and services to enhance decision-making and to support country-level action for overcoming global challenges. One of the eight divisions of UNITAR, the Division for Multilateral Diplomacy, delivers training and support workshops to address the needs of diplomats, government officials, international civil servants and students to meet complex, global challenges.



Global Diplomacy Initiative Fall 2022 Course Brochure



This semester course introduced me to the UN structure, history and current actions. I was able to visit the UN in person and watched live and past events on UNTV. Weekly interactive zoom classes met with ambassadors, professors and international classmates on topics ranging from Conflict Resolution; The Sustainable Development Goals and the 2030 Agenda; International Criminal Justice and Diplomacy; Global Environmental Outlook and Science Diplomacy; Press Freedom and Human Rights; Women, Peace and Security and Responsibility to Protect to name a few.

Resources to share – books, films, infographics.

Books

Here are a few books of memoirs that came recommended of US Ambassadors' perspective of their time in history:

Education of an Idealist: Samantha Power

Tough Love: Susan Rice

With all Due Respect: Nikki Haley

Madame Secretary: Madeleine K. Albright

Films

The following films also provided insight into the tragic experiences of women in conflict areas:

Pray the Devil Back to Hell by Gini Reticker and produced by Abigail Disney. The film documents a peace movement called Women of Liberia Mass Action for Peace. Leymah Gbowee organized the Christian and Muslim women of Monrovia, Liberia to pray for peace and to organize nonviolent protests. Dressed in white to symbolize peace, and numbering in the thousands, the women became a political force encircling the building where peace talks were stalled, refusing to leave until an agreement was signed.

Taking Root: tells the dramatic story of Kenyan Nobel Peace Prize Laureate Wangari Maathai whose simple act of planting trees grew into a nationwide movement to safeguard the environment, protect human rights, and defend democracy—a movement for which this charismatic woman became an iconic inspiration.

The Greatest Silence: Rape in the Congo: Lisa Jackson a sexual-assault victim in the US travels to the Congo and interviews rape survivors and soldiers who rape. Rape is explained as a weapon of war as women and men are traumatized and communities are destabilized as a means of stealing valuable minerals from the land.

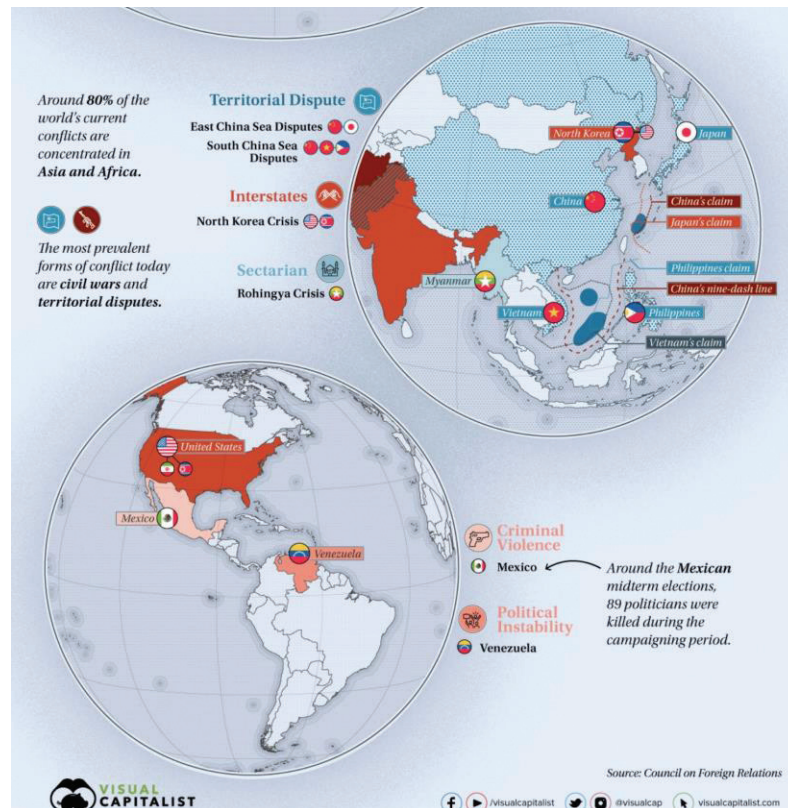
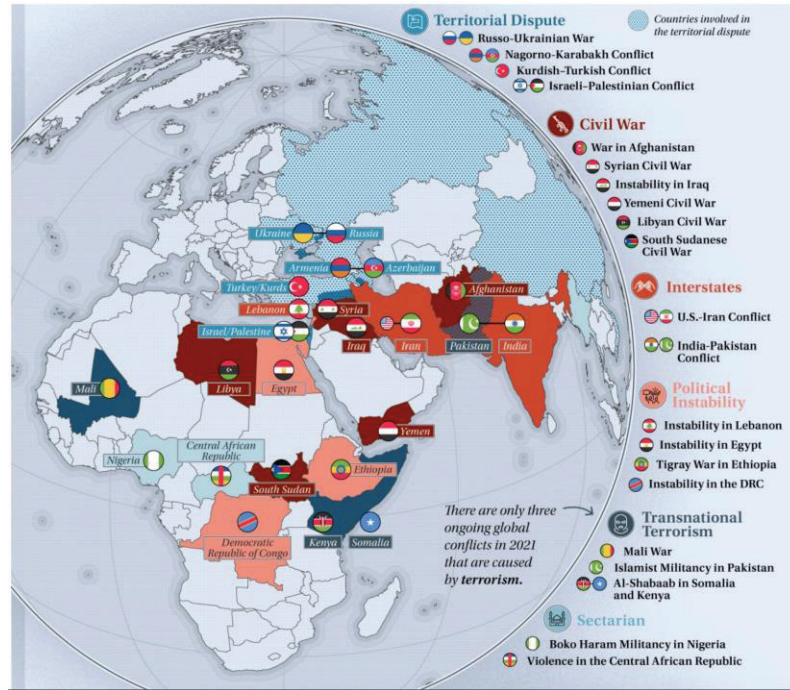
Not Anymore: A Story of Revolution: Matthew VanDyke's documentary film about the ongoing war in Syria.

Infographics

Infographics also help in sharing the story:

Where are the World's Ongoing Conflicts Today?

Mapped: Where are the World's Ongoing Conflicts ? (visualcapitalist.com)



Progress on Gender Equality across the Sustainable Development Goals



UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace, Security

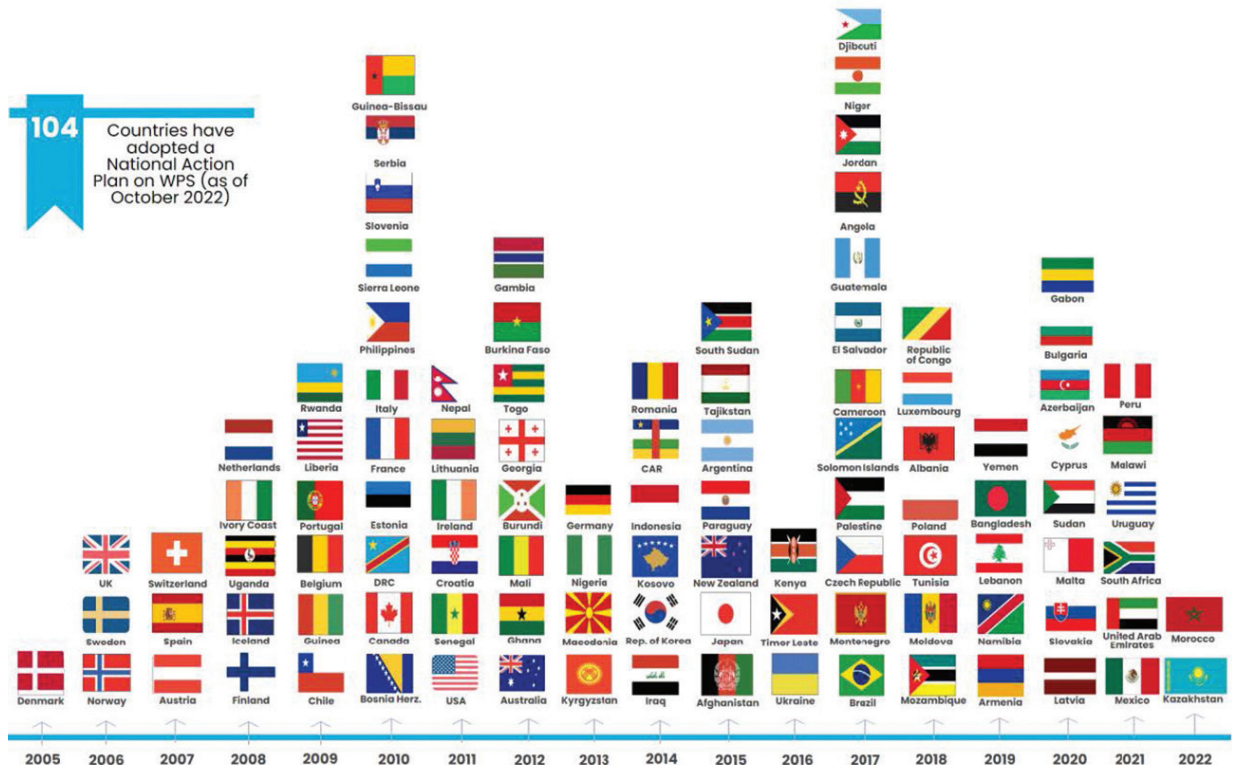
Twenty two years ago!

United Nations Security Council (UNSC) encouraged national-level implementation of UNSCR 1325, the landmark resolution of the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) Agenda, in 2000 including through National Action Plans (NAP) to implement the four pillars (Participation, Prevention, Accountability, and Relief & Recovering) of the resolution. These documents outline objectives (measurable indicators) and activities that countries take, both on a domestic and international level, to secure the human rights of women and girls in conflict settings; prevent armed conflict and violence against women and girls; and ensure the meaningful participation of women in peace and security.

Timeline: 20 Years of Women, Peace and Security (unwomen.org)

In the first 20 years since its adoption, the women, peace and security agenda started important advancements for women and girls around the world. This timeline showcases the major moments. The last two years 2020-2022 has illustrated the vulnerabilities with the impact of Covid and the war in Ukraine.

104 Countries have adopted a National Action Plan on WPS (as of October 2022)



Women’s meaningful participation builds peace | UN Women – Headquarters

Since UNSCR 1325 passed in 2002 there have been several additional resolutions recognizing sexual violence as a tactic of war, criminalizing rape as a war crime as opposed to “collateral”; identifying gaps, creating Informal Experts Groups to review financing and institutional reforms, a List of Shame and Victim/Survivor reparation consideration to list a few. The Rome Statute created a system to record rape, forced pregnancy and sterilization to bring to perpetrators to court. These laws are essential, if there is no law, there is no crime. The results have been frustratingly slow but there have been slight improvements in women’s representation in elections, police and military. The above infographic details the small number of women involved in peace agreements although studies have shown that peace agreements with women’s involvement lead to a more sustainable peace. Women not only need to be at the table but women are needed to be active actors in this transformation. NAPs need budgets to evaluate progress on the plans.

From: Infographic: Women’s meaningful participation builds peace | UN Women – Headquarters

Women’s Meaningful Participation Builds Peace

Women’s full and equal participation at all levels of society is a fundamental human right. During times of conflict, women’s participation in resolving conflict and negotiating peace is especially important to ensure that women’s rights are protected, experiences are recognized, and that peace lasts.

Women’s Representation

Women remain under-represented and unrecognized for their efforts and successes in peace and political processes at all levels.

WOMEN’S REPRESENTATION IN MAJOR PEACE PROCESSES between 1992 and 2019



SIGNED PEACE AGREEMENTS



Meaningful Participation

Women’s meaningful participation in peace processes goes beyond a right to participation. It means ensuring women’s multiple interests are fully reflected. Evidence shows:

Peace agreements with women signatories are associated with durable peace.

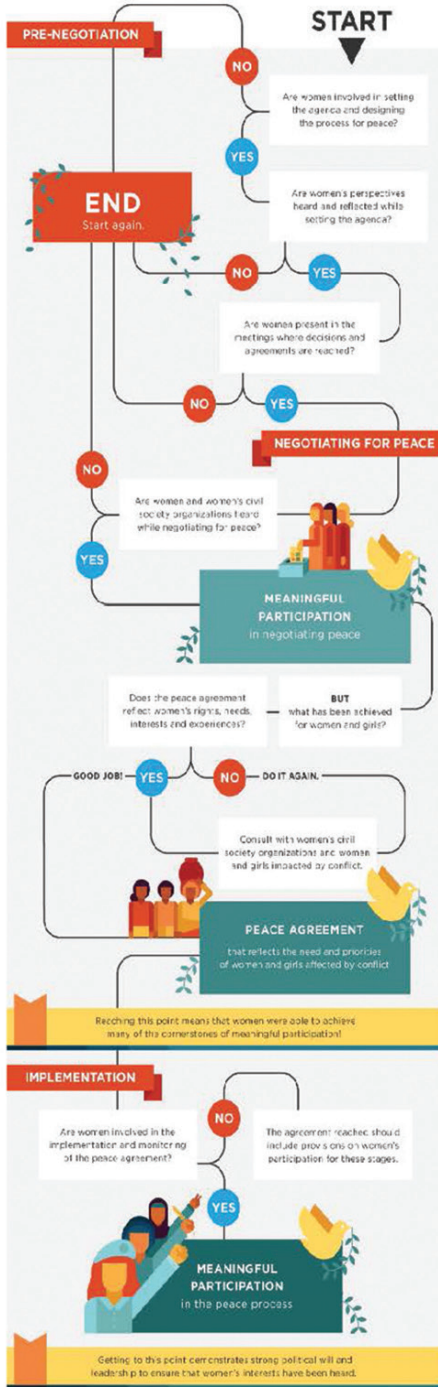
The Building Blocks

Creating a space for women to enter, remain and contribute effectively in peace processes requires an enabling environment. This includes:



Where are the women in peace processes?

Follow the flowchart below to get a glimpse of what women's meaningful participation can entail along every stage of negotiating agreements for peace.



Infographic: Women and armed conflict

Date: 08 October 2015

Women and girls bear the brunt of many of the harmful consequences of armed violence. In the last two decades, the use of violence against women and girls during conflicts, and especially sexual violence, has become more visible. But aside from increased sexual violence, conflict exacerbates many inequalities that can last well after a war ends. Here are just a few examples. Print options: 11x17

WOMEN & ARMED CONFLICT

“Women are the best drivers of growth, the best hope for reconciliation in conflict and the best buffer against the radicalization of youth and the repetition of cycles of violence.”

— Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka, UN Women Executive Director



The destructive effects of conflict on women and girls: A snapshot



Women and girls bear the brunt of many of the harmful consequences of armed violence.

In the last two decades, the use of violence against women and girls during conflicts, and especially sexual violence, has become more visible. But aside from increased sexual violence, conflict exacerbates many inequalities that can last well after a war ends.

Here are just a few examples.

MATERNAL MORTALITY

Deaths per 100,000 live births, 2013



LAND RIGHTS

Percentage of women with legal titles to land, 2014

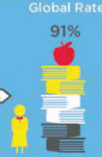


Aggregate figure for 7 conflict and post-conflict countries

Aggregate figure for 74 developed and developing countries

EDUCATION

Adjusted net enrolment ratio in primary school for girls, 2013



CHILD MARRIAGE

Child marriage rates are among the world's highest in many conflict countries.

Percentage of women aged 20-24 who were married before age 18, 2014



Powerful women, powerful peace

Sustainable peace needs women's leadership and representation at all levels of decision-making.



Women must be full participants in:

- Peace negotiations
- Monitoring & implementation of peace agreements
- Post-conflict planning
- Peacekeeping missions
- Recovery programmes
- Governments & parliaments
- Security & justice sectors
- Administration of public services
- Transitional justice

“Protecting and empowering women during and after conflicts is one of the most important challenges of our time.”

— Ban Ki-moon, UN Secretary-General



Source: UN Maternal Mortality Reduction Inter-agency Group (IAG), Population Division's World Family Data, International Labour Organization (ILO), Land Rights Database (LRD), UNICEF Institute for Statistical Calculation (as of June 2015), Monitoring the Situation of Children and Women (MS-CW) Project (with UN Women), UNICEF, United Nations World Programme of Action (UNWPA), 2015

Quote: See for example, Women, Peace and Security, video (Ban Ki-moon)

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A gap remains between words and action in the participation of women in decision making. Below are additional resources to review the current status of Violence against Women by Country and the specific National Action Plans. Each countries NAPs are specific to their country, links to three example countries (Ukraine, Canada and the US) are listed for comparison to see the strategic and operational goals, and main tasks, to ensuring the achievement of the strategic goals. Policy are words and commitment to actions are dependent on funding and political will both of which have been severely lacking.

1. UN Women Global Database Violence against Women by country

- a. Canada
- b. Ukraine
- c. US (note: data not updated since 2014)

2. 1325 National Action Plans (NAPS) from Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom (WILF) Monitoring and Analysis

- a. Canadas-National-Action-Plan-2017-2022.pdf (peacewomen.org)
- b. Ukraine-NAP2.pdf (peacewomen.org)
- c. US-WPS-Strategy-FINAL-PDF-6.11.19.pdf (peacewomen.org)

Two reviews and critique of the progress and lack of progress toward the goals of UNSCR 1325 can be found in this paper from the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom and the UN Press. Details of the key challenges from to WPS implementations are helpful in understanding the cultural and political will needed to further move forward in women’s peace and security.

1. WILPF_UNSCR-1325-at-20-Years_Web.pdf
2. Speakers Call for Expedited Action to Empower, Protect Women in Conflict Zones, as Security Council Marks 20 Years since Adoption of Landmark Resolution | UN Press

Zonta

Zonta’s Call to Action is involved with Advocacy local and global, Educational Awards, and Funding International Projects:

The USA Advocacy Action Center is a tool of resources to take action to improve the lives of women and girls, here are specific links

- Track specific causes and legislation: Action Center (votervoice.net)
- Bills in Congress: Action Center (votervoice.net)
- Join us in saying NO (zontasaysno.com) Zonta says No to Violence against Women is an international campaign.

Zonta International is supporting four major projects during the 2022-2024 Biennium. Three of the projects address gender-based violence within the communities and evaluate and act on the best way to educate and protect women and girls against violence.:

1. Adolescent Girls' Health and Protection in Peru: a project in cooperation with UNICEF USA.
 - The program aims to achieve two primary outcomes:
 - Health sector provides quality and comprehensive adolescent care with an emphasis on strengthening resilience and violence prevention and develops pilot program to support adolescent parents and prevent a second pregnancy.
 - Protection and education sectors have improved their abilities to promote health and prevent violence in schools.
2. Her Health and Dignity, Our Priority, a project in cooperation with UNFPA.
 - Specific objectives include:
 - Women and girls who experience violence use quality essential services, including for long-term recovery from violence, in Papua New Guinea and Timor-Leste.
3. Ending Child Marriage, a project in cooperation with UNFPA and UNICEF via UNICEF USA.
 - Specific objectives include:
 - Elevate the voice and agency of adolescent girls
 - Increase resources and opportunities for adolescent girls and their families
 - Enhance legal and political action to prevent child marriage and to support married, divorced or widowed adolescent girls

Zonta at the Council of Europe Read more key facts on the CoE.

The committee especially highlights the Istanbul Convention (CoE Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence) and the Anti-Trafficking Convention (CoE Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings), which are also accessible by non-European countries. It underlines the global dimension and relevance of the CoE and creates advocacy tools for the Zonta Says NO to Violence against Women campaign.

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2.5 Paper



Critical Evaluation of the United Nation's Management of Global Peace and Security

by Elisa Versetto

Advisor: Dr. Yuriy Sergeyev



Second Global Summit on Religion Peace and Security in Geneva
4/29/2019

UN PHOTO/ELMA OKIC

Introduction

In the aftermath of two world wars, in 1945 the United Nations (UN) was created to ensure that humanity would not again have to suffer the catastrophic devastation of global war. Rather the United Nations represents the world's obligation to cooperation instead of antagonism, interdependence instead of isolationism, and peace instead of conflict. Further, the UN exemplifies the objective to "reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small" (UN.org). The upkeep of these purposes is a multilateral responsibility that demands continuous obligation and dedication to "unite our strength to maintain international peace and security" (UN.org). Peace itself is a complex concept that has different faces and thus its maintenance is arguably the most arduous responsibility of the UN. However, peace is more than just the absence of conflict, it's very fabric must be continuously built and built upon. The UN has demonstrated several times its limits and gaps in its peacekeeping conduct and thus calls for improvements in the management of global peace and security.

Conflict Prevention

A key element of the success of global peace and security is in fact the prevention of conflict itself. The concept of conflict prevention has long been a theoretical one with minimal practical applications, until 1992 when UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali in his *An Agenda for Peace* announced it as an official policy. In Boutros-Ghali's (1992) report he described preventative diplomacy as "action to prevent disputes from arising between parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflicts and to limit the spread of the latter when they occur." He stressed the importance of trust and confidence building as well as active methods such as fact-finding missions, early warning systems, and preventative deployment. The important role of member states is critical to the success of conflict prevention as well the UN's focus on the "field", the locations where economic, social, and political decisions take effect" (Boutros-Ghali, 1992). In 2001, UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan in his report *Prevention of Armed Conflict*, expressed that "effective preventive strategy requires a comprehensive approach that encompasses both short-term and long-term political, diplomatic, humanitarian, human rights, developmental, institutional and other measures taken by the international community, in cooperation with national and regional actors." The obligation of member states to engage in conflict prevention must go beyond political will but requires a moral responsibility and timely intervention. Further, the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon demonstrated in his 2015 report the need for a "collective recommitment" to conflict prevention. He notes "the primary responsibility for conflict prevention lies with Member States; Article 33 of the Charter of the United Nations is very clear on this point. Experience has taught us that conflict prevention efforts must be nationally driven and nationally owned if they are to have a lasting impact" (Ki-Moon, 2015).

Despite the cost of conflict such as diminishing a country's economic capabilities, millions spent on refugee and humanitarian aid, and the cost of peacekeeping, conflict is often still the choice. A 2015 World Bank report *The Economic Cost of Conflict* suggests that violent conflict results in a country's loss of 2% to 8.4% in annual GDP growth, which is illustrated by the stalemate of Afghanistan's per capita income since 1970. Despite the resolve of the UN to prevent war, in reality the immediate results of conflict have shown to be all too alluring. The benefits of conflict prevention are often intangible and require invested time, "the costs of prevention have to be paid in the present, while its benefits lie in the distant future" (Annan, 2001). The habitual acknowledgement that the international community needs to reprioritize its conflict prevention efforts though stirring, does not translate to effective action.

The UN has been charged with a central role in the prevention of conflict through its pillars of peace and security, development, and human rights. There are several approaches to preventative action that the UN may take including operational and structural prevention which UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan described as being the elements of short term and long-term measures. While operational prevention involves immediate action taken in the face of urgent conflict such military options to deescalate the violence, structural prevention targets the heart of the problem and involves developmental or economic means (Rubin & Jones, 2007). Additional approaches can be realized such as systemic prevention and promotional prevention. Systemic prevention involves a global commitment to reducing violence using collective means so that the responsibility does not fall on just one state (Rubin & Jones, 2007). Promotional prevention by all international actors not limited to UN and its member states but regional, local, and non-governmental groups to promote behavior and training that aligns with the prevention of conflict.

Limitations and Failures

In practice, the responsibility of the United Nations to prevent conflict has many times been unfulfilled. The Security Council does have the authority to intervene and prevent armed conflicts, under Chapter VI and Chapter VII, however these situations often only involve non-Council members and are only addressed once they have reached the threshold of crisis and large-scale violence. Internal conflicts bring further controversy because it invokes the appearance of the Security Council impeding on a state's sovereignty. The inaction of the Security Council hinders the process of preventative diplomacy in which the only measures that can be taken such as mediation and negotiation hold limited weight. For example, in 2000 when Israel disengaged from southern Lebanon, preventative diplomats including the UN Secretary General were able to get the Security Council to actively uphold its resolutions which raised the political costs of conflict between Israel and Hezbollah. In other cases of interstate wars such as the Ethiopia-Eritrea war, or Kashmir, or Iraq, the UN failed to prevent conflict. In addition, when a great power is involved the UN, specifically the Security Council, is more reserved in its preventative action and thus fail to avert conflict. For example, the Security Council painted the US activity in Afghanistan with a broad brush of self-defense (Rubin & Jones, 2007).

The contemporary wars of internal and transnational conflict have shown to provoke even less preventative action by the UN. In order for the UN to intervene, they would have to have some presence or activity related to that region or group, which for example it does not have in places like Chechnya or the Uyghur rebel group in China. Mediation methods by the UN in internal conflict are extremely difficult to get governments to agree to because they give a touch of legitimacy to the opposition groups by making them equal parties to the conflict. The issue of sovereignty is always relevant and often used to inhibit UN use of good offices and preventative diplomacy because the consent of the state is required. Even when mediation efforts are allowed to proceed, whether they are given any real power is to be considered. For example, in 2000 the Colombian government accepted a UN appointed special advisor, however he had "no overt political role" and Colombia continued "prioritizing a military solution to the conflict" (Rubin & Jones, 2007). Prevention efforts by the UN in internal conflict have often been obstructed by other states who are involved to maintain their self-interest. For example, UN Secretary General was ineffective in his preventative diplomacy in Libya in 2019 due to the conflicting governments of Libya being proxies to outside powers which in turn escalated the violence (Ramcharan & Ramcharan, 2020).

While preventative diplomacy is a key responsibility of the UN, often it is the most egregious crimes that the UN fails to prevent. For example, the non-intervention pattern of the 1990s such as the genocide in Rwanda and the ethnic cleansing in the former Yugoslavia illustrate the grave cost of inaction and that when the UN Security Council (UNSC) fails, the UN fails. Crimes of aggression, war crimes, and crimes against humanity along with other major conflicts happen on the UN's watch and preventative measures are ineffective. The main problem for the decision making in the UN Security Council is the usage of veto power in the situations of evident mass atrocities and aggressions. It is not clear if the initiative of France in 2015 to limit usage of veto power in cases of genocide and other mass atrocities will work as only two permanent Council members, France and the UK, have supported this initiative, not to mention even the "mere threat of veto use can serve to block a Council decision and is nowhere recorded or explained" (*Security Council Report, 2022*).

In addition, the very definition of a war crime in international law is limiting because it only includes a "contention between two or more states" and "armed forces" (UN.org). But this fails to consider the frequency of internal conflicts, the use of technology, or hybrid forms of war. Crimes of aggression are also

evolving into the contemporary style of hybrid war and technological wars. While crimes of aggression are included in the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, it is not universal. A convention that's binding and could bolster norms, is something that is nonexistent for crimes of aggression. The ambiguity of crimes of aggression has so often been exploited by states such as Russia with their aggression towards Ukraine leading into a full invasion. The UN charter calls for expulsion of states who commit crimes of aggression, yet because it requires the UN Security Council, Russia and the like get to remain. In many of these cases, threats were underestimated by the UN and were not seen as what they were, intention. Despite the fact that the convention on prohibition of chemical weapons contains provisions on verification mechanisms, it does not include punishment standards. In the case of Syria, in the midst of a civil war the Assad regime attacked its citizens with chemical weapons on multiple occasions and has continued a streak of violence that has consumed the state and region. The UN failed to prevent the death of thousands and the destruction and destabilization of the region, also efforts to stop or stoke the violence by various member states interferes with the authority and duty to act of the UNSC. Even though Syria joined the Chemical Weapons Convention in 2013, they still attempt to mislead the UN by neglecting and ignoring proper oversight measures, in fact since joining the convention it is estimated that the Assad regime has used chemical weapons at least 50 times (Wood, 2022).

Despite the outlawing of war in the form of several legal institutions and even stipulated in the founding Charter of the UN, war and conflict endure. In response, an adjacent path to peace beyond just legal obligation but a moral responsibility has been emphasized through bolstering of norms. The Sustainable Development Goal 16 to promote peace, justice, and strong institutions is a strong start because it allows the international community to visualize peace. By being more than a goal, it casts a light on what specifically needs to change and what the individual problems are that all member states face that block the path to sustainable peace (*The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, 2015). It further illustrates the need for positive peace, which is the very fabric of a functioning free society, to prevent conflict. Positive peace is an ingredient of a society that contributes to its potential to prevent conflict. Some key elements of positive peace include: “well-functioning government, equitable distribution of resources, free flow of information, good relations with neighbors, high levels of human capital, acceptance of the rights of others, low levels of corruption, and sound business environment” (Poplewell, 2018). These elements are interrelated and therefore interdependent, the progress of one element effects the progress of others. Investing in these elements of positive peace has shown to be beneficial in preventing conflicting or restoring peace to conflict areas. For example, Nepal suffered years of internal conflict but when a peace deal was signed and an investment in positive peace was made, specifically the free flow of information, Nepal was able to sustain peace. By increasing their radio stations from 1 to 515 and phone subscription rate up 59 percent, the community was able to freely access information and thus be “afforded a chance at resilience to crisis” (Poplewell, 2018).

The initiative of the UN Secretary General, “Action for Peacekeeping” (A4P) presented in 2018 and later adopted as a declaration, on the surface portrays a good way to embrace all nations in the maintenance peace. Yet, it is missing a clear structure for the whole process of maintaining peace, such as from building positive peace to prevent crisis then if crisis appeared to mechanisms of peaceful settlement reflected in Chapter VI of the UN Charter, then if crises turned into military conflict to implement peace-enforcement measures. The UN only sends its peacekeepers when peace is already restored, i.e., for the UN Security Council if there is no peace, nothing to keep. This “Action for Peacekeeping” still neglects the crucial principles of aftermath peacebuilding.

SDG 16 & Responsibility to Protect

In addition, as a further sign of indignation of non-intervention failures of the past such as the Rwanda genocides and the ethnic cleansing in the former Yugoslavia, an additional tool of prevention was established. The Responsibility to Protect (R2P) norm was endorsed at the 2005 World Summit by all member states to accept their global political commitment to prevent genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing, and crimes against humanity. This principle involves an obligation on both the national and international level to prevent these crimes. The state has a responsibility to protect its own populations, if the state is unable to or unwilling to then through collective action the responsibility to protect falls to the international community who shall respond timely and decisively through “appropriate and necessary means” with authorization of the UNSC (2005 World Summit). The responsibility to protect involves first to prevent, then to react, then to intervene but also to rebuild. Prevention involves peaceful means such as preventative diplomacy and humanitarian measures to protect global populations from atrocity crimes, however if peaceful means prove ineffective the international community has responsibility and authority through Chapter VII of the UN Charter to react to and stop crisis. This reaction and intervention can take forms of mediation or peacekeeping or authorized use of force. The aftermath of this accomplished peace is just as important, for the responsibility to rebuild is necessary to sustain positive peace, which in turn will help prevent future conflict. This principle is not meant to challenge sovereignty but respect it by allowing states to attend to their own issues first before involving assistance from the international community. In addition, R2P is not coercive intervention, something that many member states loath, as it requires UNSC authorization to intervene and use of force if all other measured were exhausted, would have to be measured responsibly as well (Tarp, 2016). Yet, sovereignty breaches are still a concern, coupled with the influence of geopolitical interests affecting vetoes on intervention in the UNSC, which have disastrous results as was seen in Syria. While R2P is supposed represent a victim centered approach rather than geopolitical interest, its mandate includes crucial compromises, such as narrowing its application to only four crimes and not granting the General Assembly or regional organizations authorization powers of use of force if the UNSC would not (Morris, 2013). In the case of Libya where with the crucial support of regional organizations the UNSC authorized intervention, R2P was used for the first time in a Chapter VII scenario. However, R2P was rarely mentioned when claiming their justifications, if at all member states cited the first element that called on the responsibility of the state to protect its own rather than international obligations. This demonstrated the use of R2P as more of a thematic concept rather than a clear operational norm (Morris, 2013). Further, the call on R2P is ineffective if it is not given any proper operational capabilities to do what it promises to do, much of which is linked to the political will of member states.

Restoring Peace & Stability

In the rise of conflict, through Chapter VI of the UN Charter: Pacific Settlements of Dispute, the UN initiates several mechanisms to find a solution for the parties and aid in the rediscovering of peace. These mechanisms include “negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice” (UN.org). The UN Secretary General will help facilitate this through diplomatic means such as good will ambassadors or offices. As gatekeepers of international peace and security, the UNSC makes the decision of what qualifies and how to proceed. If mediation efforts fail to peacefully settle disputes, enforcement of peace is needed. Enforcement measures can vary to include economic sanctions, UN Peacekeeping Operations and Special Political Missions, and even international military force.

Peace-enforcement has been applied in terms of humanitarian intervention. While R2P is used as a preventative tool, humanitarian intervention can apply military force. This was seen in the US led intervention in Iraq and NATO military campaign in Kosovo, both of which overrode the UNSC authority to authorize use of force and claimed humanitarian intervention as justification. Some could argue that the humanitarian concerns though valid, do not “override the Charter’s norms on the use of force” and that those so-called concerns disguise Western hegemonic aspirations (Dunoff & Ratner, 2015). That also emanates the concern of when the UNSC is unwilling or unable to act due to veto fatigue, should other organs acquire the responsibility and legitimacy to act. Many in the diplomatic community, mostly African states, do not take well to the R2P theory, perceiving it as nothing more than a disguised extension of geopolitical interests of states. It is apparent that the essential peace maintenance elements such as R2P, Humanitarian Intervention, Peace-enforcement, and Peacebuilding should no longer be neglected in the UN Charter.

A crucial element of the UN’s peace-enforcement are its peacekeepers, who have evolved since their inception in 1948. Originally entitled the United Nations Truce Supervision Organization (UNTSO) in 1948, the first peacekeeping force, which included a UN mediator and small armed observational force, was called in to supervise a truce in Palestine that ended a conflict. Traditional applications involved assisting in ceasefires and maintaining stability long enough so more political elements could start the real foundation for peace (Peacekeeping.un.org). These earlier operations took time to progress and treated the “symptoms rather than sources of conflict” (Brahimi, 2000). As result, peace operations such as The United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) whose purpose was to supervise and maintain a disentanglement between Israeli and Syria Forces, have been there since 1974. In addition, the United Nations Interim Force In Lebanon (UNIFIL) whose purpose was to aid the Israeli withdrawal from Lebanon, have been there since 1978, or the United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan (UNMOGIP) have been there since 1949, a year after the first peacekeeping mission. Further, the peacekeeping operation in Cyprus in 1964 failed to bring lasting peace between the Greek and Turkish Cypriots who continue to engage in longstanding conflict rather than peace. Contemporary peacekeeping operations have evolved to include peacebuilding and other duties such as “to facilitate the political processes, protect civilians, disarm combatants, support elections, protect and promote human rights and restore the rule of law” (Peacekeeping.un.org) In addition, as the world evolves so does conflict and so must the peacekeeping forces charged with meeting it. Peacekeepers, by definition serve the purpose of keeping the peace. However, that simple yet revealing definition demonstrates one of the major limitations of peacekeepers, that is if there is no peace then there is nothing to keep. While peacekeepers are not meant to nor should they go everywhere,

when they are sent to uphold peace, “they must be prepared to confront the lingering forces of war and violence, with the ability and determination to defeat them” (Brahimi, 2000). Moreover, there are several operation gaps and mandate limits that undermine the fulfillment of the core duties of peacekeepers in context of internal and transnational conflicts today. The impartiality mandate is unproductive in that it allows the recognition of parties who continue to violate peace agreements and the UN does not adjust its treatment to those parties accordingly. As Brahimi (2000) describes, “no failure did more to damage the standing and credibility of United Nations peacekeeping in the 1990s than its reluctance to distinguish victim from aggressor.” The mandate that peacekeepers can only use force in self-defense, drastically limits operational capabilities and safety of peacekeepers and those they are charged to protect. The context has changed and so must the rules of engagement so that the UN does not “cede the initiative to their attackers” (Brahimi, 2000). In addition, the standards of timely response can no longer afford to lag behind due to lack of political will or technological capabilities, as the most pivotal opportunities for lasting peace are the initial 6 to 12 weeks after an armistice. Though peacekeeping is core responsibility of the UN, the resources and support for such crucial operations do not reflect that. Though the specific operations may in fact be momentary, the need to sustain peace is eternal.

Recommendations

The United Nations management of global peace and security can be improved in several additional ways. The preventative methods can be enhanced by revitalizing the Department of Political Affairs (DPA) whose mandate is to identify conflict. They have eyes on multiple regions and countries and observe their political, social, and economic patterns, so they are one of the first to notice when something has the potential to reach the threshold of crisis. The DPA can greatly contribute to the early warning systems, fact finding missions, and timely response that several Secretary Generals have stressed for successful conflict prevention (Annan, 2001).

Other prevention tools such as the R2P, can be renovated to be the responsibility to prevent in which prevention measures would be initiated at the foundation of conflict before it rises to a violent stage and thus targeting “root causes and potential triggers of conflict” (Tarp, 2016). As demonstrated by the World Bank’s *Economic Cost to Conflict (2018)* report, prevention is significantly more cost effective than conflict. Just as the Sustainable Development Goal 16 outlines the potential roots causes and potential areas to start growing sustainable peace, R2P needs to reflect that through local/regional/international acknowledgement and respect. This can be done by using the responsibility to prevent as a gateway for the General Assembly to take a more active role and to bring concerns to UNSC agenda before any geopolitical interests of the permanent members begin to dominate (Tarp, 2016). To further strengthen preventative measures, they should be codified and reflect the current conflict context, that way when potential conflict does arise there is no ambiguity of what is expected to happen next. To that extent, especially for atrocity crimes, the threat should be taken just as seriously as the act itself, because often by the time the act is committed it is too late to deeply consider the legitimacy of the threat. In the current conflict context, the new forms of war, specifically hybrid wars and cyber wars, need to be depicted more clearly in international law so that response to them is equally clear. The ‘legal asymmetry’ characteristic of these forms of war should not allow their perpetrators further impunity (Council of Europe, 2018).

In addition, the consequential intention of peacebuilding and positive peace is crucial to bringing peace and keeping it. As mentioned earlier, peace is more than just the absence of conflict, something that the Brahimi (2000) report reiterated in defining the building of peace as “activities undertaken on the far side of conflict to reassemble the foundations of peace and provide the tools for building on those foundations something that is more than just the absence of war.” The rebuilding process is arguably more significant than the cessation of conflict in that it helps prevent the conflict from reoccurring by strengthening political, social, and economic structures and services. The heart of the building of peace is ensuring that positive peace rather than negative peace takes root and societal resilience grows (Positivepeace.org). The focus is on enhancing national capacity so that not only is the prevention of conflict “nationally driven and nationally owned” but that once the international assistance inevitably withdraws, the state can stand on its own (Ki-Moon, 2015). Beyond capacity building, the building of trust whether that’s through social cohesion among groups or legitimacy of governments is significant because trust and peace go hand in hand. Without trust, it is easy to backslide into the respond with violence first mentality. In the process of moving from conflict to peace, there must be transitional justice mechanisms that reflect that context, uphold international legal norms, and promote democracy. This is also tied to trust in that the building of trust between state and citizen is reflective of whether the government and justice system will hold the perpetrators of violence accountable. Further, the building of peace in one state is affected by the stability of its neighbors. Therefore, regional support is crucial to prevent a ripple effect of violence and can even fill the gaps international peacebuilders cannot.

UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon (2015) was right when he said, “there is no linear path to peace.” It is clear however, that the path to peace is not drawn on sovereignty lines. Therefore, the habitual call to recommitment is a false promise if member states do not overcome their political unwillingness and put peace first. While the United Nations and its member states face many obstacles in their pursuit of peace, the UN Charter itself should not be one of them. The UN Charter though provides a foundational guideline for the maintenance of international peace and security, it does not reflect the realities of conflict today, and thus calls for modification. The new forms of war such as hybrid wars and cyber wars were not pertinent when the Charter was created, yet today they are the reality and their ‘legal asymmetry’ is exploited by states such as Russia, giving a new face to the crime of aggression (*Council of Europe, 2018*). The critical mechanism of sustainable peace, peacebuilding, is also nowhere reflected in the UN Charter which undermines its significance and application. Thus, while international peace and security remain the core mission of the United Nations, the additional focus of human security to the mission would go a long way to the sustainment of peace.

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2.6 Paper



In Defense of Women Environmentalists: The Climate-Conflict-Gender Nexus and the United Nations

by **Emily Kenward**

Advisor: **Jelena Pia-Comella**

I. INTRODUCTION

Armed conflicts exert consequential and long-lasting impacts on the environment, leading to the pollution of land and water resources, the destruction of ecosystems, the population decline of wildlife, and the acceleration of climate change (Duerr, 2019). Additionally, the deterioration of socioeconomic conditions as a result of the progression of climate change has the ability to compound existing drivers of violence by exacerbating inequalities, creating new grievances, and fueling tensions between communities (Sarfati, 2022). Climate-related security risks are most pronounced where fragility and conflicts have weakened coping mechanisms, where people depend on natural resources for their livelihoods, and where women do not enjoy equal rights (Albrecht, 2021). As a result, the climate-conflict nexus erodes global peace and security (Smith et al., 2021).

Environmental degradation caused by climate change, armed conflict, or the illegal exploitation of natural resources can be a catalyst for violence against civilians and competition over land and other natural resources (Sarfati, 2022). It is important to note that the impacts of climate change and armed conflict are not gender neutral (Chiu & Smith, 2022). In many parts of the world, women and girls are disproportionately burdened by the compounding effects of climate change and conflict due to societal expectations based on gender (Smith, 2020). Within the gender-conflict nexus, gender-based violence against women increases during conflict. Conflict-related sexual violence in the Balkans, Rwanda, the DRC, and elsewhere in the 1990s was the impetus for the women-led movement that influenced the adoption of ten UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace, and security (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022).

UN Security Council Resolution 1325, adopted in 2000, was landmark in formalizing the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda, affirming the critical role of women in addressing security threats through equal participation in conflict prevention, conflict resolution, and peacebuilding (Chiu & Smith, 2022). UN Security Council Resolution 1325 both recognizes the vulnerability of women in conflict and argues that they

should be included in peacebuilding efforts (Kronsell, 2018). The WPS agenda's four pillars—protection, prevention, participation, and relief and recovery—made violence against women in war visible (Abdenur et al., 2021). This led to the establishment of the Office of the UN Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Conflict and increased the level of awareness among states, organizations, and individuals on the importance of viewing peace and security through a gendered lens (Duerr, 2019).

Unfortunately, intersecting connections between gender issues, climate change, and conflict have not received enough attention from scholars and policymakers (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). According to the UN Development Programme (UNDP), only 0.01% of funding worldwide supports projects that address both climate change mitigation efforts and women's rights (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Policy responses that fall short of considering the climate-conflict-gender nexus have serious implications on the promotion of gender equality, the mitigation of climate change, and the advancement of global peace and security (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Additionally, women environmental defenders are vital to promoting global sustainability, and there exists a need to protect them against violence and suppression within conflict zones (Scheidel et al., 2020).

This paper seeks to explain the climate-conflict-gender nexus and the bodies and mechanisms that exist within the United Nations system to promote global peace and security. The scope of the WPS agenda and other UN bodies and mechanisms must be expanded to address the structural barriers to women's full and equal participation in order to enhance global stability.

ii. CLIMATE-CONFLICT NEXUS AND THE ABSENCE OF GENDER

Environmental degradation is a process through which the natural environment is compromised, resulting in the reduction of biological diversity and the general health of ecosystems. Environmental degradation can be natural in origin or accelerated by human activities, such as climate change, the exploitation of natural resources, pollution, and armed conflict (Sarfati, 2022). Climate change has relevance for global peace and security often in indirect ways (Kronsell, 2018). It is important to note that climate change is rarely the direct cause of conflict, but rather it challenges the stability of states and societies (Landgren et al.,

2021). An increasing number of individuals and institutions now recognize climate change as a security threat and driver of instability (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Security experts and policymakers in particular see climate change as a powerful risk multiplier with the ability to compound the drivers of social unrest and violent conflict (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). This includes political instability, population displacements, poverty, and hunger (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Climate-related security risks are greatest where the impacts of climate change intersect with weak governance and low capacity to manage growing societal tensions (Lacroix, 2019).

Competition over increasingly scarce natural resources can accelerate tensions into conflict, especially in contexts with deep-seated political and economic instability (Smith et al., 2021). Resource governance—how people in power manage access to land, water, and natural resources amid climate change—can increase or reduce the risk of violence (Landgren et al., 2021). In some cases, armed groups directly take control over diminishing natural resources to finance their activities, act as service providers, and boost legitimacy among local populations (Sarfati, 2022). Environmental degradation through climate change can make young people more vulnerable to recruitment by armed groups and insurgent organizations, which exploit a community’s climate-related grievances to gain support for their political agenda (Smith et al., 2021). Environmental degradation can also be a catalyst for violence against civilians. In some cases, armed groups and governments deliberately target the environment in acts of ecocide in order to impact the outcome of particular military operations (Sarfati, 2022).

The phenomena of climate change and armed conflict are mutually reinforcing—climate change can exacerbate drivers of armed conflict (i.e., political, social, economic), while armed conflict can intensify environmental degradation that exacerbates climate change (Sarfati, 2022). Exploitation of the environment also occurs in peacetime as humans strive for progress, modernization, and industrialization. For example, in the production and sales of military weapons, climate change is a symptom of carbon emissions and extractive practices (Kronsell, 2018). Additionally, conflict diminishes people’s ability to cope with future climate shocks and natural disasters (Smith et al., 2021). Climate change and increased global temperatures have already led to droughts, forest fires, floods, rising sea levels, extreme heat, and unpredictable weather patterns and storms that impact human livelihoods and even lead to death (Kronsell, 2018).

The climate-conflict nexus outlined above is well-established. It is clear that climate change undermines peace and security by exacerbating pre-existing social, political, economic, and environmental dynamics that must remain in equilibrium in order for societies to be stable. These stabilizing factors are often gendered and disproportionately impact women when human

security is at risk (Smith et al., 2021). Gender inequality is strongly associated with instability and conflict, both within and between countries (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Pre-existing patterns of discrimination rooted in structural inequalities create compounded consequences for women, girls, and other marginalized groups (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Social norms and barriers also largely inhibit women’s meaningful participation in male-dominated natural resource management and conflict mediation spaces (Smith et al., 2021). This means that gender is often absent from the climate-conflict nexus.

iii. CLIMATE-CONFLICT-GENDER NEXUS

The linkages between climate change and conflict, as well as women and conflict or climate, have been studied more in recent years, however gender as it relates to security and climate have been neglected by many policymakers due to siloes in research (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Climate change and armed conflict are closely interlinked in a feedback loop, further impacted by gender dynamics (Smith et al., 2021). The gendered impact of conflict is well-documented, and there is increasing evidence suggesting

that the ways in which climate change is driving conflict also has a disproportionate effect on women (Abdenur et al., 2021). In many places, women already face greater environmental risks and dangers, such as water and food scarcity, and they generally have fewer economic and political assets available to deal with these dangers (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Deep socio-political inequalities mean women are more vulnerable to climate shocks, less able to rely on economic resources and technical assistance for adaptation and disaster resilience, and thus more deeply impacted by the climate-conflict nexus (Abdenur et al., 2021).

Climate change tends to affect conflict risks via its impacts on human security, such as loss of livelihoods, human displacement, natural disasters, and depleted agricultural productivity and resources (Abdenur et al., 2021). Violence against both women and the environment are largely seen as collateral damage and an inevitable consequence of war (Duerr, 2019). For example, climate change, armed conflicts, and the population movements that accompany both climate change and conflict increase the dangers for gender-based violence against women (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Gendered disparities and discriminatory norms put women at a disadvantage in situations of conflict and environmental crisis (Smith et al., 2021). The linkage between climate change and violence is highly contextual based on the specific climate impact present, as well as the exposure, vulnerability, and coping capacity of the affected population (Sarfati, 2022). The impacts of climate change on women can be further exacerbated at the intersection of gender with class, race, and ethnicity, which impacts the lives of indigenous and other marginalized women differently (Smith et al., 2021).

A gendered perspective on climate change and conflict recognizes that the possibility and capability of individuals to adapt to climate change is shaped by power relations that determine access to resources (Kronsell, 2018). Interactions in power structures—patriarchy, capitalism, militarism, and the exploitation of nature—lead to climate change and conflicts that overtly impact women (Kronsell, 2018). Gender is a cross-cutting issue that not only effects women, but also men and individuals who live outside of this binary (Smith et al., 2021). Gender inequality is strongly correlated with social and political instability, inter- and intra-state conflicts, and violent extremism. The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) has shown that countries with high scores of gender inequality also have higher propensities for instability and conflict as well as greater climate vulnerabilities (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Despite these challenges, women are often the primary leaders in protecting the environment from the drivers of climate change and conflict not because they have some special essentialist link to it but because they are affected the most by political instability (Cirefice & Sullivan, 2019).

iv. PREDATORY EXTRACTIVISM AND WOMEN ENVIRONMENTALISTS

The illegal exploitation of natural resources can fuel structural violence by harming the health of local communities and the environment (Sarfati, 2022). Social inequality often results from government-backed transnational corporations pursuing a capitalist model of economic development, seeking rapid profit through the large-scale overexploitation of natural resources, and shifting the burdens of climate change to

those with less power (Tran et al., 2020). Predatory extractivism is both a driver of conflict and a contributor towards climate change through greenhouse gas emissions and unregulated extractive activities (Abdenur et al., 2021). Organized environmental crime (i.e., illegal logging and mining) is also a major source of revenue for many non-state armed groups, allowing them to sustain and prolong their engagement in conflict (Sarfati, 2022).

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) made note in early scholarship that women in developing countries are among the groups most vulnerable to predatory extractivism (Kronsell, 2018). Women in these societies do not have the same opportunities as men, experience different living conditions, and have more restricted societal norms than men due to structural differences in social, political, and economic conditions (Kronsell, 2018). While women are underrepresented in official governmental and intergovernmental institutions, women—particularly young women—find space in nongovernmental organizations and civil society discourse surrounding gender, environmentalism, and security (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Women at the local level are well suited to find solutions to prevent environmental degradation and adapt to a changing climate because of their dependence and proximity to natural resources for sustenance and income (Smith et al., 2021).

Women environmentalists bring attention to the lived experiences of everyday women navigating the challenges of climate change and conflict, the barriers to gender equality, and the strategies women have developed to address issues of peace and security in their communities (Smith et al., 2021). Women remain at the forefront of efforts to resist environmental destruction and conflicts by mediating disputes and driving community adaptation efforts (Abdenur et al., 2021). However, these women regularly face threats of violence and have even been attacked or killed because of their leadership (Tejedoras de Vida, 2022). In 2019, the UN Human Rights Council unanimously recognized the vital role of environmental defenders in promoting community protection and sustainability. Environmental defenders are frequently members of vulnerable groups who employ largely non-violent protest forms (Scheidel et al., 2020). Women in particular are leading the resistance to extractivism and stepping outside of traditional gender roles to be leaders of environmental movements, demanding systematic change to the paradigms of capitalism, colonialism, and patriarchy (Cirefice & Sullivan, 2019).

As a consequence, women engaged in political activism globally face systemic sexism, misogyny, harassment, and violence (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Women who resist predatory extractivism and stand up for their communities, lands, and ecosystems are often the targets of gender-specific violence by challenging not only corporate power, but also patriarchal structures and gender norms (Cirefice & Sullivan, 2019). Women environmentalists acting within specific conflict contexts assume a greater risk as

they are oftentimes committed to a territory that is strategically significant to many armed actors (Tejedoras de Vida, 2022). They are often raped, beaten, shot, forcibly displaced, threatened, or killed to prevent them from exposing and shutting down state, corporate, and criminal enterprises that facilitate environmental degradation and sustain conflict (Tran et al., 2020). Nevertheless, women environmentalists work to establish alternative economic and social models based on the stewardship of land and common resources, highlighting the agency of women in their resistance to political injustice (Cirefice & Sullivan, 2019). Women are essential to advancing global peace and security within the climate-conflict-gender nexus (Tran et al., 2020).

At the grassroots level, women are on the frontlines of environmental and security issues (Smith et al., 2021). Women often lead campaigns that raise awareness of the gravity of environmental crimes, the scarcity of natural resources, and the long-term impact of resource exploitation on the physical integrity and lives of civilian populations (Sarfati, 2022). Furthermore, environmental defenders belong frequently to vulnerable segments of society that are disproportionately threatened by armed conflict and resource exploitation (Scheidel et al., 2020). Nearly 80% of the world's biodiversity is under the guardianship of rural and indigenous communities (Smith et al., 2021). Rural and indigenous communities are highly impacted by mining and other extractive industries, as well as armed conflict, with severe negative consequences on local livelihoods, community cohesion, and the environment (Cirefice & Sullivan, 2019). Many are exposed to intersectional discrimination based on areas of class, ethnicity, or gender that generate both risk and inequality (Scheidel et al., 2020). However, across diverse contexts, local women are able to provide effective solutions to climate change-impacted conflicts, from managing natural resources sustainably to resolving disputes and leading restoration and reconciliation efforts (Smith et al., 2021).

v. UN BODIES AND MECHANISMS

Counteracting climate-related security risks requires a holistic approach that avoids framing women as victims, as well as acknowledges and addresses structural barriers within institutions that may inhibit women's meaningful participation (Smith, 2020). The following section seeks to outline several UN bodies and mechanisms that currently exist in order to address the climate-conflict-gender nexus. Unfortunately, many of the UN bodies and mechanisms remain siloed in terms of areas of interest or expertise. These include UNSCR 1325 and the WPS agenda, WPS NAPs, CEDAW, the CSM, and the UN Security Council and peacekeepers.

Following the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995, momentum to advance gender equality globally grew exponentially. Activists and civil society actors were able to leverage the political commitments made in the Platform for Action to call on the UN Security Council to consider the experiences

of women in all aspects of peace and security (Smith et al., 2021). UNSCR 1325 addresses the impact of war on women and the importance of women's participation in conflict resolution, peacebuilding, peacekeeping, humanitarian response, and post-conflict reconstruction (Ensor et al., 2022). The Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda is the amalgamation of ten UN Security Council resolutions working to address four pillars: (1) women's participation in governance, peace and security fields; (2) preventing conflict and violence; (3) protecting women's and girls' rights in conflict; (4) assuring appropriate and just relief and recovery for survivors of conflict (Smith, 2020). The UN Security Council formally added climate change to the WPS agenda in 2015 (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). UNSCR 2242—the eighth resolution in the WPS agenda—represents the first- and only-time climate change is referenced as having compounding consequences on violent extremism and public health (Smith, 2020).

Only states party to the WPS agenda have an obligation to take steps to fulfill its objectives by creating national action plans (NAPs). NAPs are important mechanisms for integrating the goals of multiple agendas relevant to global peace and security, including the establishment of concrete steps to support women's participation in addressing climate change and conflict (Smith, 2020). As of 2021, 51% of UN Member States (98 countries) have developed WPS NAPs. However, many governments have not yet integrated their WPS NAPs into their national security policies (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Only one in four WPS NAPs makes a direct reference to climate change (Chiu & Smith, 2022). As of 2020, only 17 out of 80 WPS NAPs address gender, climate, and conflict linkages, and only three plans (Finland, Ireland, and the US) include specific objectives at this nexus (Smith et al., 2021). The Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) sought to fill in some gaps within the WPS agenda, such as lowering emissions and regulating extractive industries, rather than externalizing climate action as a protective foreign policy objective (Papworth, 2021). CEDAW became the first UN body to address the linkages between human rights and the gendered impacts of climate change through its General Recommendation No. 37 in 2018 (Abdenur et al., 2021). General Recommendation No. 37 on the gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction in the context of climate change emphasizes state obligations to limit fossil fuels, carbon emissions, and natural resource extraction in order to reduce harm to women and girls (Papworth, 2021).

UN Women, the UN Development Programme (UNDP), and the UN Environment Programme (UNEP) have called for multidisciplinary research networks to strengthen knowledge on the linkages between gender, climate, and security (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). In 2018, the UN Department of Political and Peacebuilding Affairs (DPPA), UNDP, and UNEP jointly established the Climate Security Mechanism (CSM) (Landgren et al., 2021). In December 2021, the UN Department of Peace Operations (DPO) joined the

CSM (Sarfati, 2022). The CSM was created to strengthen the capacity of the UN system to analyze and address the adverse impacts of climate change on peace and security. Priority areas include supporting risk analysis and response in the field, enhancing knowledge management and co-creation, and strengthening partnerships and advocacy (Albrecht, 2021). Another important aspect of the CSM is building the capacity of special missions through a “climate security toolbox” to better incorporate environmental and climate-related factors into UN-mandated work (Sarfati, 2022).

The UN Security Council was conferred under Article 24 of the UN Charter with the primary responsibility over the maintenance of international peace and security (Landgren et al., 2021). Addressing the challenges of climate change and gender does not fit neatly into conventional notions of peace and security, which tend to focus on the absence of violent conflict rather than systemic societal changes (Landgren et al., 2021). UN Peacekeeping is an important part of the international community’s response to peace and security (Lacroix, 2019). UN peacekeepers are often deployed in regions that suffer from both armed conflict and environmental degradation, including degradation caused by climate change and the illegal exploitation of natural resources (Sarfati, 2022). Some experts have called for the UN Security Council to deploy peacekeepers to protect natural resources or provide more support to national authorities, including park rangers, in order to build local capacity over resource governance (Sarfati, 2022). Since 2018, the UN Security Council has held five thematic meetings specifically focused on climate change and security, however gender dimensions are still largely missing (Landgren et al., 2021). In the 2019 UN Security Council debate on climate and security, only 5 out of the 75 Member States that spoke at the session recognized gender as an important factor in climate-related security risks (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022).

vi. RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

In a 2021 report that explored correlations between military spending and gender equality, UN Secretary-General Antonio Guterres observed, “Gender equality is a question of power. But power will not redistribute itself equally in a male-dominated world” (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Despite the diversity of women environmental defenders and their movements around the world, there are near-universal patterns of violence threatening their success and survival (Tran et al., 2020). It is clear that the climate-conflict-gender nexus is critical to both peacebuilding efforts and developing strong communities resilient to the consequences of climate change. However, action at the global level does not currently meet the urgency and complexity of the climate-conflict-gender nexus (Smith et al., 2021).

The WPS agenda is the most prominent global framework seeking to advance women’s participation in peacebuilding (Ensor et al., 2022). States must leverage frameworks such as the WPS agenda to recognize the disproportionate impacts of climate change on women and girls, as well as the security threats they pose (Chiu & Smith, 2022). The WPS agenda is lacking in terms of explicitly recognizing climate change as a security risk for women and girls (Smith, 2020). While the WPS agenda calls for the inclusion of women in peace negotiation processes, this should be extended to efforts at building climate resilience and human security in their own communities (Kronsell, 2018). Integrating climate resilience into the WPS agenda is a critical step to successfully address the security threats posed by climate change and to bolster women’s meaningful participation in finding solutions (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Additionally, a human security focus

provides a more inclusive way to connect the aspirations for peace with climate concerns and is already an important element of the United Nations (Kronsell, 2018). Efforts to address the climate crisis and the forms of insecurity it creates will not reach their full potential without women (Chiu & Smith, 2022). National action plans are an effective tool for advocacy and the development of policies that include women's empowerment (Duerr, 2019). WPS NAPs should support the participation of women and girls to define and address climate-related security risks as experienced in their own contexts, especially with risks of imminent danger and conflict escalation (Smith, 2020). The UN Security Council should monitor and encourage NAPs to encompass a rights-based, inclusive approach that goes beyond vulnerability frameworks and addresses structural violence (Papworth, 2021). Mechanisms must also be put in place within WPS NAPs to ensure development resources reach women and communities most affected by climate change and armed conflict (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Climate change and security institutions remain overwhelmingly male-dominated, framing most issues in gender-neutral terms which are inherently masculine (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Investing in women can accelerate progress globally on both climate security and gender equality as well as conflict resolution (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Building the capacity of women and women's organizations on the linkages between gender, climate change, and conflict is important to transforming structural inequalities. Women-led grassroots initiatives must be brought to scale, especially in communities emerging from or at risk of violent conflict (Abdenur et al., 2021). Emphasis should also be placed on women's leadership and participation in responding to climate change and predatory extractivism, along with an intersectional lens that prioritizes indigenous knowledge (Papworth, 2021).

Gender equality is still routinely ignored by the security and climate communities in the absence of women scholars, analysts, and policymakers. As a result, the gender dimensions of security and climate issues are usually not understood, prioritized, integrated, or considered relevant (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Gender-inclusive climate and conflict interventions can serve as a "benefit multiplier" that can increase women's empowerment and role in decision making (Chiu & Smith, 2022). Women civil society stakeholders should be invited to UN Security Council meetings on climate change to discuss their efforts to overcome climate-related security risks (Abdenur et al., 2021). It is important to note that simply adding more women is insufficient to address the greater structural challenges at play. Facilitating women's meaningful participation requires deeper institutional change and efforts to address harmful gender norms that suppress women (Smith et al., 2021).

Gender is not just about the vulnerabilities of women, but also about the proclivities of men. More attention should be paid to how ideas about masculinity and male behavior shape gender relations, the environment, and security concerns (de Jonge Oudraat & Brown, 2022). Prevention measures that fail to account for broader violent institutions, such as extractive industries and the military as a driver of climate change, and their gendered implications are doomed to fail (Abdenur et al., 2021). Environmental peacebuilding aims to foster environmental cooperation with the objective of peacefully resolving disputes and preventing violence. Mutual benefits can arise from the shared management of natural resources and collective responses to climate change (Sarfati, 2022). When women meaningfully participate in peacebuilding, they offer perspectives and solutions that include more comprehensive approaches to issues that are often overlooked by their male counterparts, including environmental protections and gender equality (Ensor et al., 2022). In order for the UN Security Council to serve its purpose of maintaining global peace and security, it must recognize and seek out a greater understanding of the intricacies within the climate-conflict-gender nexus. Through bodies and mechanisms that uphold multidisciplinary functions, acknowledge intersectionality, and

are committed to protecting women and making space for their leadership, the international community can find stability and anticipate climate-related security risks.

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2.7 Paper



Femicide and Organized Crime in Latin America

by **Erica Cuji Guartazaca**

John Jay College of Criminal Justice

Advisor: **Jelena Pia-Comella**

INTRODUCTION

Femicide is defined as gender-related killings or as acts of violence against women. In other words, femicide is the term used when a female is the victim of a homicide due to their gender. The term femicide is unique as it implies some type of gender-related motivation behind the homicide of a female. According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes, violence against females stems from “gender inequality, discrimination, unequal power relations, and societal norms (2021). For too long Latin American females have been targeted and many can feel identified when Benito Antonio Martínez Ocasio’s said, “Como si ser mujer fuera un pecado.” In his song Andrea, he sheds light on the many difficulties women in Latin America face which include the lack of access to reproductive rights. He states that today’s society treat women as if they were abominations or sins. Today women in Latin America are being executed and constantly have a target on their backs for being a woman. The UNODC reports that at least “45,000 women and girls worldwide were killed by intimate partners or other family members” which hints at a global issue that can have a bearing on every nation in the world (2021). The United Nations asserts that violence against women is highly prevalent in Latin America. Violence against women is prevalent in countries such as Chile, Ecuador, Peru, and Uruguay, and so on (UNODC, 2019).

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Over the years, various explanations have been used to explain the nature of femicides and why they occur. There has been a generalization that femicides are a result of a homicide triggered by a male spouse; however, there are many females who are executed by men that are not their spouses. In 2017, only 34% of worldwide femicide cases were caused by intimate partners (UNODC, 2019). The UNODC reported that 42% of the femicides were triggered by offenders outside of the family. More females are killed by unknown criminals than by intimate partners or family members. Therefore, it is crucial to examine the culprits behind the 42% of femicides that occurred in 2017. We need to look at the other possible factors that also increase femicide rates. This research will explore the relationship between violence against women and organized transnational crime while analyzing the role that organized criminal groups in locations where femicide rates are excessive. Moreover, I will analyze how the rise of human trafficking, drug trafficking, and sex trafficking has contributed to the rise of femicides in Latin American countries, and why.

TRANSNATIONAL ORGANIZED CRIMES

In Latin America, many femicides have been found to have a connection with organized crime, specifically in countries like Peru. In Peru, regions rife with drug trafficking and human trafficking (Nuñovero Cisneros, 2017). Reforma del Código Penal (artículo 107) Ley n.o 29819 published in December 2011 criminalized violence against women in Peru (Freire & Rodríguez, 2018). According to the Organización Mundial de la Salud, femicide cases with a connection to organized crime in Peru continue to surge even after being criminalized (Nuñovero Cisneros, 2017). Madre de Dios is a region associated with human trafficking and the region reports 9,336 femicides in 2015. Meanwhile, Tumbes, a border between Ecuador and Peru is a common drug route reported 4,278 femicides in the same year. Nuñovero Cisneros overall reports the regions such as Madre de Dios and Tumbes of Peru are where organized crime is prevalent and where the homicide rates of women have also increased throughout the years. Mexico has published the Reforma del Código Penal Federal (artículo 325) to tackle femicides as well. Unfortunately, according to *La Jornada*, a newspaper, reported that in Ciudad Juarez, Mexico there were a total of 800 femicides associated with organized crime from October 2016 to March 2017 (Tiscareño-García et al, 2020). Meaning, femicides associated with organized crime are still heavily present in Mexico as well (Freire & Rodríguez, 2018).

Authors, such as Maria de la Luz Estrada, have established that femicides can include forced disappearances and human trafficking. Women in Mexico often go missing after boarding public transportation such as the bus and using taxis like Cabify (De la Luz Estrada, 2018). The Observatorio Ciudadano Nacional del Femicidio or OCNF reported a total of 10,157 forced disappearances in Estado de México, Tlaxcala, San Luis Potosí, Sonora, Oaxaca, Jalisco, Quintana Roo, Veracruz, Campeche, Morelos, Nuevo León y Guanajuato from June 2014 to June 2017 (OCNF). Once the bodies were found, they were often traced back to the drivers who sexually assaulted and killed the female. Valeria Teresa Gutiérrez Ortiz and Mara Castilla were essentially victims of human trafficking that resulted in femicide. Human trafficking includes the recruitment, transportation, exploitation, and disposal of the victim (Aronowitz, 2019). The number of deaths helps establish that femicides do in fact have a connection to organized crime, like human trafficking. In their cases, taking the bus and a cab led to their deaths.

From my research, I have learned that femicides are not only the result of intimate partner violence. In Guatemala, the National Civil police found that 9 percent of femicide cases were related to drug trafficking, and 5 percent were killed after being trafficked and raped (Sanford, 2008). Sanford explains who else can be held responsible for the increase in femicide rates among Latin American countries. Recently in 2008, researchers noted that gangs, serial killers, and drug traffickers are perpetrators of femicides (Sanford, 2008). In other words, those involved in transnational organized crime like gangs and traffickers are killing the women in Guatemala.

Females are no longer being killed by their husbands, instead they are killed by exploitative criminals who only keep women alive to profit from them.

Several members of organized crime groups are using women as mules in order to transport their drugs. In other words, drug lords have access to cheap labor by abducting females and forcing them to become involved in drug trafficking. Some men can be labeled human traffickers because they only abduct women in order to satisfy their sexual needs. The bus driver and cab driver who killed Valeria and Mara in Mexico had a similar intent, to exploit and sexually harass their victims (De la Luz Estrada, 2018). Once they have exploited the vulnerable female these criminal members often dispose of the body like trash. As you can see, there are many reasons as to why femicides have become wrapped with transnational organized crimes. In Guatemala, congressional deputies believe that organized crime and drug traffickers commit femicide to cause a distraction in society (Sanford, 2018). Essentially, the Guatemalan government visualizes femicides as a threat to safety that serves to destabilize Guatemalan society.

CONCLUSION

The many crimes against women also occur due to a lack of enforcement of policies. Peru, Mexico, and Guatemala all have penal codes criminalizing femicides, however, they lack enforcement. In Peru, law No 29819 was implemented. In Mexico, Article 325 was published to deter femicides. In Guatemala, the government has established the Ley contra el femicidio y otras formas de violencia contra la Mujer in Decreto 22 (Freire & Rodriguez, 2018). Unfortunately, many courts have failed to imprison criminals behind femicides. As previously mentioned in Honduras, 96% of femicides go unpunished (IACHR, 2011). Regardless of these laws and reforms, the human rights of several females continue to be neglected and allow femicides to prevail. The UNODC does not have many statistics regarding femicide and its connection to organized crime, because this is an emerging phenomenon. There is a lot of interesting sources regarding femicides throughout the entire world that need to be studied. This phenomenon requires attention and more in-depth research. It is a topic not well studied, but once it is researched it would be much easier to create prevention and intervention policies.

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2.8 Paper



Transformative Opportunities: COILs, Critical Peace Studies, and the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals

by **Gerald Maki**

Professor of English – Ivy Tech Community College

Advisor: **Larisa Schelkin**

“How can educational projects that resist larger social, political and economic inequalities offer understandings about how we learn, teach, and act for peace in diverse settings?” (154). So asks educational philosopher Monisha Bajaj as a challenge to teachers everywhere about how we should imagine the role of the contemporary classroom. The question represents a balance and synthesis of two frameworks. On the one hand, Bajaj channels the impulses of critical theory in deconstructing power and how it manifests in language and culture, including institutions of learning. The critical drive encourages radical self-reflexivity on behalf of students and educators alike to recognize the current dynamics of power which undergird and maintain devastating global and local inequities. Additionally, Bajaj sees an opportunity in applying critical theory towards the promotion of peace. Traditional peace studies root themselves in the notion that violence in all of its forms limits human flourishing - one of the fundamental tenets of the United Nations as found in the opening lines of its preamble “We the peoples of the United Nations determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war...”. Critical peace studies, as articulated by Bajaj, strive to avoid universalisms and instead have “been developed from a multiplicity of political, theoretical, and methodological positions” (156). In doing so, Bajaj sees critical peace education as a melding of these two frameworks, yet one that remains contextualized and “engaged in constant and meaningful conversations with other fields and traditions of critical inquiries,” including “pedagogies of resistance” (156).

As efforts to consider peace education from the perspective of critical theory flourish, two other recent movements in American higher education have seen tremendous growth: 1) The use of the United Nations' 2030 Sustainable Development Goals as an anchoring force in curriculum development, and 2) The dramatic rise of Collaborative Online International Learning (COILs). Much of the Sustainable Development Goals themselves are centered on questions of global inequality. Beginning with SDG #1: Ending poverty in all of its forms everywhere, the United Nations ambitiously places economics at the forefront of shared global challenges. According to its 2022 report, approximately 676 million people worldwide find themselves ensnared by extreme poverty, here defined as living on less than \$1.90 a day (26). These inequities pose an immediate challenge for educators looking to sensitively and ethically direct others into a greater

understanding of the contemporary world. As an additional layer of complexity, those who find themselves in a college classroom - a luxury inaccessible to many - must grapple with their own relative privilege, as well as the challenges that exist in trying to speak for and about those who are most disadvantaged. As educators, we find ourselves within the very systems and cultural dynamics we are seeking to unpack.

In writing about concerns with representation and marginalization, postcolonial theorist Gayatri Spivak famously developed the concept of the 'subaltern.' Originally focused specifically on colonial subjects who find themselves lacking in political agency, Spivak sought to highlight the larger structures of oppression that make it impossible for the subaltern – as a result of their position – to be heard or recognized by society at large. The term represented a horizon of invisibility, one where discursive spaces are denied and made impossible for many. By reasons of power, or lack thereof, the concept of the 'subaltern' gestures towards the larger hegemonic, often Western/Euro-centric influence derived in part from a long history of colonial exploitation which has resulted in the shape of many deformed global relationships today. Spivak argues, "I define the subaltern as the person 'removed from all lines of social mobility' ...the subaltern is barred from access to all public resources that would allow for upward movement, out of dire poverty and into political invisibility" (427). Multiple scholars have sought to counter the forces of extreme marginalization by highlighting the previously underrepresented – such as the ideas, voices, and cultures of the Global South, as well as efforts to indigenize education to recognize and celebrate non-Western forms of knowing and knowledge production. Bajaj invites and encourages us to expand our incorporation of and engagement with postcolonial theorists such as Spivak in the formulation of critical peace education (157).

The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals mark a step towards a shared understanding of pressing global challenges and an effort to urgently expand the cross-cultural dialogue. Numerous colleges and universities across the globe have taken seriously the UN's call for sustainable development and have sought ways to create meaningful educational projects geared towards SDG progress. As of 2018, at least seventeen universities have been named "SDG Hub for their commitment to addressing SDGs and educating future generations about the biggest global challenges." Additionally, researchers in discussing the potential of an SDG-based focus for higher education echo the language of Paulo Freire in their discussion of the liberatory potential. The SDG-focused curriculum provides "...a powerful space that can help individuals realize their human rights and capabilities to pursue freedoms that they value, to liberate their minds and bodies, leading to the liberation of entire societies" (Chankseliani and McCowan).

The SDGs speak to nearly every field and subject matter. They provide educators and institutions with specific issues that require academic leadership and higher education problem-solving.

The second, parallel movement in higher education internationalization has been the increased use of Collaborative Online International Learning (or COILs). COILs allow faculty from colleges and universities around the globe to design courses and collaborative projects for their students to engage in together. Using live virtual sessions via Zoom, in addition to asynchronous forms of communication such as Google classrooms and texting apps, students from different parts of the world are encouraged to work together to address global needs. While various practitioners and educational innovators have been engaged in COILs for years, one of the side effects of the pandemic was the widespread shift to virtual learning. While the challenges of computer and internet accessibility have generated a global digital divide, many students and educators on the more advantageous side have quickly become fluent in Zoom as a space for virtual learning.

COIL projects provide students the opportunities to increase their awareness of global inequalities and, if done sensitively and ethically enough, to become empowered in their own process of self-reflection and the power dynamics behind the subjectivities they have created for themselves. It also allows students to engage in and collaborate with others far removed and to build authentic relationships that work against the ‘othering’ of individuals outside of one’s own nation. In a “Foreward” to the recently published *The Guide to COIL Virtual Exchange*, Hans De Wit from the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College writes “...COIL Virtual Exchange has become the leading dimension in new internationalization, making it inclusive, innovative, interactive, and ethical.”

Efforts to internationalize the curriculum and provide educational opportunities outside of one’s home country are not new. Traditional study abroad programs, for example, have existed for years with the promise of learning more about the world via a several week or several month stay in another country. However, these opportunities to fly, travel, lodge, and dine across the globe are inaccessible for large numbers of students who lack the financial means for such an endeavor. COILs, however, mark a significant shift in global learning opportunities while greatly expanding their reach. John Rubin makes this his first and central point with respect to COILs “...while there have been many successful efforts to integrate internationalization into the curriculum and co-curriculum through internationalization at home strategies, it has not been easy to create meaningful experiential learning activities without physical mobility” (22). Harnessing the rapid changes in technology and telecommunication, an exciting realm of pedagogical possibility is now erupting. It is important that we stand ready to critically explore the transformative educational potentials COILs provide.

For many of the under-resourced students at the community college I teach at, students are often struggling to navigate the more immediate, more local inequalities felt within the world’s wealthiest nation. Traditional study abroad programs and international travel are simply unaffordable. But through COILs, students can now develop meaningful and lasting relationships with other students from across the globe. In short, they can learn with – and from – each other. Many first-year community college students report that in their own K-12 experiences they frequently felt invisible and overlooked by their teachers. Additionally, if teachers did engage them, it was often in an authoritative way as a form of correction or punishment. But in COILs, these same students – their lives, their histories, their identities, their struggles, and their dreams – become a source of empathetic curiosity for their international partners. Suddenly, there is a listening ear, one in which their individual narratives reside in the spotlight. This type of student-centering educational experience is often unlike anything my community college students have encountered previously, and it provides a tremendous opportunity for authentic learning.

If the teaching of SDGs can be sensitively approached from the perspectives of critical theory and its intersections with critical peace studies, transformative approaches to education and student agency can be fostered. Expanding the use of COILs via faculty development programs also provides colleges and universities with the opportunity to engage with critical theory and critical peace studies as a wider educational philosophy and practice. It represents a chance to engage in dialogue among educators about what Spivak meant about by the ‘subaltern’ and consider questions such as who is invisible and who is marginalized within the world views we hold. These crossroads contain an opportunity to reflect upon Achille Mbembe’s notion of “Necropolitics” and how borders represent life and death. It marks a venue for considering a wide array of other critical voices encouraging us to radically rethink what is meant by “the

world' and our relation to it. It poses a near-infinite horizon of the process of self, one encouraging radical empathy and contextualizing our experiences in local particulars. It requires faculty to sharpen their own critical awareness while being careful not to replicate structures of dominance and subjugation that keep the voiceless unheard. COILs can ignite the process of pushing past ourselves, both for students and faculty, as we survey the landscape of life's possibilities. It helps students to critically consider not only their positions of relative privilege – but also the possibilities of becoming leaders and problem solvers in the face of existential global problems. It also provides our institutions of higher learning with a chance to grow and reflect, to engage “in the deep intercultural re-examination of why and how each class does what it does, can be a potentially radical and revealing intervention for students, instructors and staff” (Rubin 34). There is a fundamental need to drastically expand our global connectedness and global connections. In the words of cultural critic Henry Giroux, “The language of critique, compassion and hope must be collective, embracing our connections as human beings and respecting our deeply interrelated relationship to the planet.” New opportunities are emerging at this intersection of COILs, Critical Peace Studies, and the United Nations drive to reach Sustainable Development Goals.

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2.9 Paper



Domestic violence and the role of women in breaking this cycle: a process safety discussion

by **Gisella Rossana Lamas Samanamud**

Advisor: **Jelena Pia-Comella**



Deputy Secretary-General Visits Papua New Guinea 3/8/2020
International Women's Day 2020 Walk for Life with gender equality activists

UN PHOTO/ANDREW HAU

Summary

Domestic violence is a pervasive and serious health issue. In the United States, domestic violence victims walk through the workplace doors every single day. Victims lose hours of work (nearly 8 million days of paid work per year), productivity (\$1.8 billion loss). In addition, the short- and long-term effects of domestic violence are passed on the next generation and the cycle of violence is never broken. Domestic violence victims are mostly women with a total of 85% of the population who reports any abusive behavior. Because of the importance of bringing awareness and an open discussion in this matter, this paper focuses on the tools to address the lack of understanding of the importance of the topic of domestic violence in STEM related fields and the incorporation of the topic in Social Responsibility in an engineering setting. This topic was selected by its importance and relevance and how it could address the United Nations Sustainable Development goals 4, 5 and 16 (quality education, gender equality, peace, justice and strong institutions, respectively). The following contents are discussed in this paper in the following order: 1) the definition of domestic violence, 2) the different types of abuse, 3) the cycle of violence, 4) the domestic violence narrative and cultural acceptance of this behavior in Brazil and in the US, 5) the importance of women and the support women can have to break this cycle, 6) the effect and workplace cultural changes in addressing domestic violence and 7) how all of this content could be covered in a process safety course when discussing personal safety. Everyone deserves a healthy relationship, and they should be given this opportunity.

1. Domestic violence

Domestic violence: these two words are commonly associated with extreme episodes of violence towards women. Although the statistics behind the number of domestic violence cases will be presented later in this paper, domestic violence cases are common and very few are acknowledged as one of these cases. Victims are not discriminated by their age, race, religion, sexual orientation, or gender. Domestic violence also affects people from all education levels and socioeconomic backgrounds. It can occur to intimate partners who are dating, living together, married, or share a child. In fact, some of the numbers associated with domestic violence neglect the fact that most people do not report their own domestic situations. This could happen for fear of retaliation, emotional abuse or not being aware of their situation. It is important to note that most people under a domestic violence situation are not necessarily experiencing episodes of extreme physical violence, but the consequences of the abuse cause major emotional and psychological distress.

It can be a single incident, but in most cases, there is a pattern of abusive behavior, a more intrinsic relationship in which one of the parties maintains power and control over another [1]. There is no oppressor without the oppressed and, no oppressor without the oppressed. This relationship is extremely important in this paper as someone who has been abused can also become an abuser. It is worth noting that abusive behavior can also happen in the workplace [2]. However, the focus of this work is on the effect that domestic violence has in the workplace rather than other forms of abuse which can also happen at work. The intent of this paper is to bring this topic to an open discussion and offer alternatives and resources to those who have been abused, to the abuser, but more importantly to those who would like to break the cycle of domestic violence.

2. Types of abuse

Domestic violence is referred to coercive behavior in an intimate relationship that affects one of the parties of such a relationship. The pattern of abusive behavior includes blame, fright, humiliation, hurt, injury, intimidation, isolation, manipulation, terror, threat, or wound. The abusive behavior can be expressed - as defined by [1] - by threats that could be economic, emotional, physical, psychological, sexual, or technological.

In the case of **economic** abuse, there is a control or restraint to acquire, maintain, and use any type of economic resource. In this type of abuse, the pattern of behavior includes coercion, fraud or manipulation and they aim to restrict a person's access to assets, credit, financial information, or money. The pattern can be exacerbated by the unfair use of a person's personal economic resources, influencing their economic behavior or decisions, and forcing joint accounts or obligations. Some other common examples of economic abuse exploit powers of attorney, conservatorship [3], guardianship, or any other form of failing or neglecting a person's financial best interest. Although economic abuse is common, it has had a constant presence in the media due to high-profile conservatorship legal battles [4]. In a conservatorship, an incapacitated individual or person with special needs, which include elderly people or people with temporary or permanent mental or physical disabilities, has an individual or party appointed by a judge to oversee the finances and overall well-being of those under a conservatorship.

In the case of **emotional** abuse, the target is the individual's self-esteem and self-worth. It also affects or damages the relationship with their children. The pattern of behavior includes, but it is not limited to, constant accusing, bullying, criticism, diminishing, insulting, and patronizing one's abilities. The victim, if a child, can grow with low self-esteem, lack of confidence and with a sense that they are never good enough. The problems associated with this type of abuse can be long-lasting. The following website has several articles on emotional and other abuses of children and adults compiled by Natasha Tracy with resources which include statistics, definitions, and preventative measures [5].

The following are some short-term effects of emotional abuse:

anxiety	defensive behavior	manipulated
avoidance	feeling of "walking on eggshells"	powerless
compliance	feeling undesirable	questioning one's memory
confusion	frequent crying	shame
controlled guilt		

The following are long-term effects of emotional abuse:

depression	low self-esteem/worth	suicidal thoughts
emotional instability	physical pain (psychosomatic)	trouble concentrating
extreme dependence	post-traumatic stress disorder	trust issues
feeling trapped	sleep disturbances	underachievement
loneliness	substance abuse	withdrawal

In long-term emotionally abusive relationships, the person starts believing the terrible things said which makes it harder for them leave the abuser [6]. This is because they have such low self-esteem and they do not see themselves worthy of a better relationship, or they do not see themselves in a different type of relationship. If they grew up in this type of environment, they would not be aware of healthy relationships and chances are they will fall in the same cycle in another relationship. Another example of a long-term emotionally abusive relationship is The Stockholm Syndrome. This is a coping mechanism that instead of feelings of fear, terror and hostility for the abuser, the person develops compassion and bonds with the abuser in an attempt to stop the abuse [6], [7]. Originally attributed to the location of a bank robbery-hostage situation, the Stockholm syndrome can also be present in child, coach-athlete, human sex trafficking [8] and any situation in which the person under emotional abuse is in a similar hostage situation. Therefore, the saying "at least they didn't hit me" which aims to minimizing the abuse must be addressed for the seriousness and the severity of the short-term and long-term effects it has on someone's life.

In the case of **psychological** abuse, the pattern of behavior includes bullying, control, coercion, gaslighting, harassment, humiliation, infantilization, intimidation, isolation, manipulation, name-calling, ridicule, threats, silence. Psychological abuse can happen in all forms of relationships: friendship,

working relationships, intimate or familial relationships. It is considered a serious public health issue. Elements of the abuse include – but are not limited to – destruction (property), fear, injury (pets), isolation (family, friends, school, work), threat physical harm (children, family or friends, partner, self). [9]

Some examples of psychological child abuse are:

allow to witness abuse and/or violence at home	humiliation
constantly criticizing	threatening to abandon
fail to create a healthy, safe, and stable environment	threatening to hurt
punishing the child for adults' problems	neglect
refusing help for the child	yelling

Effects on abused children:

Behavioral issues	physical health issues
difficulties in school	trouble sleeping
eating disorder	tendency to substance abuse
mental health issues	risky behaviors

Psychological abuse can be just as damaging as physical or sexual abuse; however, it can be harder to detect. For children who have grown up with psychological abusive caregivers, they might recognize the behavior as normal and behave abusively or seek relationships with abusers in their adult lives [10].

Some examples of psychological partner abuse are:

monitoring whereabouts/spending habits	constantly criticizing
detering from getting medical help	digital tracking
threatening to sue or call the police	swearing and yelling
jealousy and frequently accusing of cheating on them	discouraging from working
making decisions without consulting	threatening to hurt

Effects on adults:

Anxiety	feelings of being unwanted
depression	feelings of being manipulated
chronic pain	feelings of being hopeless/overwhelmed
constant fear	sleep disturbances
difficulty focusing	no joy in work or hobbies

In adult relationships, the saying “If I can’t have you, no one can” is a typical sign of psychological abuse and as mentioned above is as damaging as physical or sexual abuse and a public health issue.

People with Narcissistic Personality Disorder (NPD) are more common perpetrators of psychological abuse (17% of the population is narcissist) [11]. Their ease in manipulating the situation and people around them allow them to change their toxic behavior at will and live normal lives without being exposed. The main trait of a narcissist person is the lack of concern of others. NPD is a mental health condition in which the individual may lack the ability to understand or care about other people’s feelings. Despite their unreasonably sense of importance, NPD struggle with very low self-esteem. The disorder affects more males (50 – 75%) than females and often begins in their teens or early adulthood. Although the cause of the disorder is unknown, it is more common in children with overprotective or neglectful adult caregivers. People with NPD become very impatient or angry, react with rage and have difficulty managing their emotions when they view anything as criticism [12]. These reactions are extremely concerning when there is a relationship in which they are in control or have power of their loved ones.

Although some of the reasons people have abusive behavior are linked to mental health issues and disorders, this by far, do not justify or exempt them from avoiding the abuse. Another discussion in mental health is imperative but it is not the focus of this paper. Resources should be available to abusers, but they should take responsibility on their actions and seek help when their mental health disorder prevents them from identifying the constant pattern of abusive behavior they inflicted on others. It is expected that those who see themselves as abusers after reading this paper would be able to have a better understanding of their pattern and find healthier ways to maintain their current or future relationships.

It is also understandable that the position of abuser/abused could interchangeably happen due to circumstances [10]. It is imperative that everyone recognizes the signs and contribute to break the cycle of domestic violence once and for all.

2.1 What is the difference between emotional abuse and psychological abuse?

The main difference between emotional abuse and psychological abuse is the effect on their mental health. While emotional abuse affects how people feel, the psychological abuse is more intense and affect how people think, take, and express their decisions. Because both forms can occur simultaneously and in any type of relationship, it is harder to detect them. They both have short and long-term effects on a person and lead to symptoms similar to PTSD. To clarify both terms, in the emotional abuse the purpose is to make the abused person to feel inferior. In the psychological abuse, the abuser convinces and blames other people for their actions and cause chaos and confusion for not taking responsibility of such actions. Psychological abuse is strongly related to power & control causing frustration and enjoying the negative reactions to their tactics.

2.2 Reflection: How healthy is my relationship?

After reading these three forms of abuse, answer the following questions from Spin Cycle's article [13]

Does your significant other/parent/child:

- “accuse you of being unfaithful without basis?”*
- Call you names?*
- Ignore you?*
- Not introduce you to people?*
- Repeatedly show up late or not at all?*
- Demand to know where you are every minute?*
- Treat you as inferior?*
- Purposefully embarrass you, often times in front of others?*
- Now allow you to make decisions?*
- Rarely validate your opinions?*
- Threaten you? belittle your accomplishments, aspirations, or plans?*
- Forbid you from talking to or seeing your friends, family, or coworkers?*
- Act possessively jealous?*
- Cheat on you and then blame you for his or her behavior?*
- Tell you that you will never find anyone better?*
- Repeatedly point out your mistakes?*
- Attempt to control what you wear or how you spend money?”*

In the case of **physical** abuse, a person uses their body or any other means which can include weapons in order to inflict intentional harm or injury and put another person in danger [1, 14, 15]. The pattern of behavior includes, but is not limited to, biting, burning, choking, grabbing, hair pulling, hitting, kicking, pinching, punching, scratching, shaking, slapping, spitting, suffocating, and throwing objects. It can also include forcing alcohol and/or drug upon another person or even denying medical care. Not all types of physical abuse are at direct contact with each other, but they have the intent to inflict harm upon another person [14]. Movies and series show people slapping each other as a means of defense and in a certain way, it normalizes the behavior. Slapping is a form of physical abuse, and no one has to the right to physically abuse another person.

It is everyone's job to prevent physical abuse. Although physical abuse can happen inside or outside a relationship, the focus of this paper is on physical abuse within the domestic violence scope. First and foremost, physical abuse is a crime, and the police has the power and authority

to protect anyone from physical attack. Despite the claim of the abuser that it was a single episode and that it will never happen again, the abuse is likely to continue. It is important to emphasize that once physical abuse happens, the abused person can and should report it. There are ways to do this, and they do not need to be alone. Some important websites that will help someone who has suffered any type of physical abuse can be found here: [Get help!](#) [16]. If in immediate danger or physically hurt, call the police immediately. If the abused has no access to the internet, there are specific organizations in their own region who can provide all the support they need. Here is where the role of a friend, colleague or a family member is extremely important because they are the abused person's group of support. They will be the ones seeing the signs of the physical abuse. Victims of physical abuse also have short- and long-term effects of the abuse but they are at higher risk for injuries and death.

It is also important to highlight law enforcement and how they assess any calls or complains from victims of physical abuse. The abuser might convince the victim to remove the complaint or convince the authorities that it was a misunderstanding. There was a great commotion last year from the Gaby Petito's case and her interaction with Utah police after an episode of domestic violence witnessed by bystanders [17]. A proper training of law enforcement will emphasize that if a person is capable of domestic violence towards a loved one, they are willing to hurt anybody else. This is a dangerous situation which must be addressed as any other crime. There is at least one call related to domestic violence every single day of a law enforcer [18].

Women are generally at higher risk of being in a physical abuse situation. However, as discussed above, everyone can be a victim of physical abuse. Therefore, this paper will present the effects of physical abuse on children, LGBT community, men, elderly, and women.

Children

Everyone should have an active stance to avoid children's physical abuse. However, it is paramount to distinguish accidental injuries from cases of suspected physical abuse. The location of the injury is a great indicator of physical abuse. Children tend to be active and in the process of learning things, they could potentially accidentally injure themselves such as bruises on forehead, knees, shin. Physical abuse is more common on protected areas such as ears, neck, upper lip, and padded areas.

Patterned injuries such as loop marks, slap marks, grab marks are also strong indicators but physical indicators can be bruises, internal injuries, head injuries, abrasions, bite marks, abusive head trauma, burns, fractures. Other signs, which can be visible or not, include child's statement, unusual injury based on age group, unexplained injuries, fail to seek appropriate care. Children victim of abuse tend to exhibit new or concerning behaviors such as destructive and aggressive behaviors, depression, or suicidal thoughts.

Because the effects are long-lasting, anyone should be the voice against child maltreatment, including the abusive caregiver [19]. The following articles compiled on this website reveal that caretakers with the highest risk factor to physically abuse children are those with history of being abused as a child or who live in a domestic violence situation [20, 10]. The [parenting toolkit](#) for children aged 0 to 5 was developed to equip parents, teachers and caregivers to break the abusive cycle [21]. Positive parenting is possible.

LGBTQ community

The statistics in domestic violence in the LGBTQ community are the following for those who reported the abuse: one in every four lesbian or gay are victims of domestic abuse. To those who identify themselves as bi-sexual, the statistics is 1 in 3 while transgender has 1 in 2 who are in abusive relationships. Physical abuse (15.5%) is the 3rd highest type of domestic violence experienced by the LGBTQ community in a year. The 1st type is emotional abuse with 30% and the emotional & physical intertwined at 20% in 2nd [22].

In the LGBTQ community, the disempowerment theory might be reason why some are more prone to be abused. They include personality traits, self-esteem, family of origin, insecure attachment, mental health, and substance misuse. Although these indicators are not necessarily the reason why domestic violence happens in heterosexual couples, it certainly is aggravated by the stigma and discrimination that the LGBTQ community experience. The external homophobia and prejudice could be the barrier that prevents the LGBTQ community to seek help and break the cycle of domestic violence. To help the community, campaigns and materials about domestic violence should be made available and specifically address the concerns and needs of the LGBTQ community. The efforts must be year-round and not just during pride events.

There is also the need of collaboration of criminal justice agencies with LGBTQ communities to create more inclusive services and include group programs. One thing in common with heterosexual couples is the lack of domestic abuse perpetrator programs. In all communities, support to identify, acknowledge abusive behavior is more effective when done in group. Some professionals have little understanding of domestic abuse within the LGBTQ community and their responses can be inappropriate as they result in prejudice and stereotyping. To provide a better perspective on the unique LGBTQ relationship, the following are common struggles to this community [22]:

- Sexual orientation and gender identity has to be disclosed to the family, friends and colleagues.
- Isolation is increased – lack of family or safe support
- Low self-worth due to internalized negative beliefs
- Sense of no help available and lack of trust to support services and criminal justice system from previous homo/bi/transphobia experiences

Men

Domestic violence towards men often goes unnoticed but it is also severe and with long-lasting effects. The gender stereotype contributes to men's feelings of loneliness, isolation, and shame in an abusive relationship. At least, 1 in 4 men experiences some form of physical abuse. Men are perceived as physically dominant and more aggressive, but their abuse is overlooked and kept in secret. This is because men who are abused deny the abuse, or they do not want to be seen as weak or easily manipulated or even not seen as a real man. Physical abuse is also experienced by men although women are more likely to be experiencing it. In some cases, physical abuse by a woman is a response to the physical abuse they experience

by their partner. It is more common for men to experience emotional/verbal, psychological, sexual, and technological abuse.

- Emotional and verbal abuse

For instance, in the emotional abuse of a man, there is the understanding that physically attacking a woman is morally wrong. Women can take advantage of the situation by knowing that they can complain about men's behavior, even if wrongly accusing them as society will immediately believe her claim. Even if there is no visible (or invisible) proof of men's abuse, the gender stereotype and the feel of shame is long-lasting on men's emotions. It leaves men unsure of what to do other than accept it and live with this situation without complaining about it. It is a lot easier to try to forget and move on with their lives. The only issue is that they remain in this domestic violence cycle.

- Psychological abuse

The psychological abuse happens by alienating children against their father or negatively manipulating a man's children. This is detrimental to both men and their children who are being used. Some psychological abuse can include undermining man's confidence by preventing them from keeping contact with friends, family and normal activities or even using any flaws against him.

- Sexual abuse

Although this paper will focus on sexual abuse in the following section, it is important to explain how both men and women deal with sexual coercion. In men's case, women use sex as a weapon to control men by withholding sex, promising sexual acts, using sexual flirtation and covert sexual acts. It is important to explain that these forms of sexual abuse have the intention of controlling and hurting men. Because men are responsive to sexual acts, they find it hard to recognize the manipulation behind sexual abuse.

- Technological abuse

Another type of abuse which will be discussed later relies on the control or the manipulation using any form of technology. In the technological abuse, the abuser is constantly texting or calling. Sometimes, they call during odd times and are frustrated when the victim is not picking up their calls. When the opposite happens, the abuser has several excuses that must be understood such as busy working or sleeping. The abuser demands pictures to prove they are in a certain location or an explanation for seeing a man's car in a specific location. As men see this as a flattering form of love and attention, it is hard for them to distinguish the abuse. However, they are constantly checking their technological means to avoid upsetting the abuser.

The biggest challenge in men's abuse is for them to recognize that they are under an abusive relationship. For their family and group of support, some signs of the abuse can be visible. The best they could do is identifying them and offering all the support they need to leave the abusive relationship. Some of the signs include changes in personality, anxious or fearful to their partner, overly apologetic, need to check in with their partner constantly, depression, alcohol or substance abuse, frequent illness, low self-esteem. Men are notorious for not expressing feelings and the signs described previously are not all the possible signs of abuse.

For men, it is extremely difficult to stop or leave an abusive relationship and they cannot do it alone. In addition to family support, mental health support is extremely important. The hardest step is admitting that the abuse exists [23].

Elder

The types of physical violence inflicted in the elder can be grabbing, kicking, punching, pushing, threatening with any objects (weapons as well), physically or chemically restraining or even being rough while bathing or toileting. There are some common traits on the abuser which include mental health or substance abuse, caretaker stress and retaliation to dementia-related behavioral problems. As mentioned previously, there are many reasons as to why the abuser demonstrates violence and they need to seek help themselves. However, lack of awareness and mental health issues are no excuse to the abuse and pain inflicted upon a loved one. It is important to reflect about one's relationships and constantly check to see if the relationship is healthy and everybody is respecting and appreciating each other's individuality. External factors such as stress are quite common and an open and understanding communication must be maintained. When dealing with older loved ones and communication is a barrier, a constant check on the wellbeing of the caretaker and the elder is crucial to a healthy relationship. The effects of elder physical abuse can be serious in any form. Even small injuries can lead to poor health. Among physical injuries are fractures, lacerations, bruising, organ damages, motion, and communication loss. The sense of independence can be hindered severely by the injury.

It is important to recognize the signs of the abuse. Because older people are more prone to aging physiological factors, a bruise could be mistaken by blood thinning medicines and a fracture can be mistaken by osteoporosis. The best approach once the physical abuse is identified is to separate the abuser from the abused. The abuser needs treatment, education, and relief of the caregiving role. The abused is at that point at an imminent danger and will be safer with someone who can provide better care and treatment. The antagonist behavior can escalate significantly in a short period of time. Therefore, swift action is imperative. This does not mean it is easy. The abuser might be a family member and the victim would refuse to seek legal services or call law enforcement. Community services and social workers could be great allies in this process and mediate the situation for the benefit of both parties [24].

Women

Women are - by far - the ones who suffer more physical abuse. This sad statistic is not just due to the fact that women report more cases of abuse, as it is morally unacceptable to be physically abused. On the other hand, the same societal norms conform to a very patriarchal system in which women must endure the abuse and expose their children to it in the process because their outmost role as a good wife is to obey and limit their voice in their homes. This guarantees a natural system of control by their husband at home. The system that is meant to protect women against domestic violence is also the one that favors domestic violence to happen in households.

Physical abuse is most of the times related to sexual abuse and, therefore, the effects of both will be discussed in this section. The short-term effects of this type of violence include minor and serious injuries. Some of them do not leave bruises or fractures which cannot be identified by scans, x-rays or other tests. In the sexual abuse, there is vaginal bleeding, pelvic pain,

unwanted pregnancy, sexually transmitted infections, trouble sleeping. If pregnant, a woman can injure or lose the unborn child when she experiences physical abuse.

The long-term effects include arthritis, asthma, chronic pain, digestive problems, heart problems, irritable bowel syndrome, nightmares, migraine, sexual pain, stress, immune system problems. In addition, traumatic brain injuries (TBI) in which the victim is hit on the head or falls on her head can lead to confusion, dizziness, headache, loss of consciousness, memory loss, nausea and vomiting, sleep loss, slurred speech. Untreated TBI can lead to depression and anxiety. Because the impact is in the head, it can affect women's perception and ability to make plans which makes it harder for women to leave the abusive relationship.

Any victim of physical or sexual assault should know that it is not their fault. Many emotions might be present under these circumstances such as anger, confusion, fear, numbness, shame. Long-mental health effects can be: post-traumatic stress disorder (easily startled, tense, be on the edge, difficulty sleeping, angry outburst, memory loss and negative thoughts), depression, anxiety, isolation, lack of trust, low self-esteem. To cope with the long-term effects of mental health issues caused by physical or sexual abuse, women can engage in alcohol and drug abuse, risky behaviors, eating disorders. About 90% of women with addictions, eating disorders or substance abuse have experienced physical or sexual violence [25].

In the case of **sexual abuse**, there is a coercion of any sexual content without consent. What is consent? An agreement without coercion by both parties with decision-making capacity, knowledge, understanding, and autonomy. Consent applies to all forms of interaction in which there is healthy communication and informed boundaries. In addition to have the autonomy of giving an honest answer, it is also a responsibility to accept that answer [26].

The pattern of abusive behavior includes – but is not limited to – rape, attacks on sexual parts of the body, forcing sex after physical violence, treating one in a sexually demeaning manner. Sexual abusive is a pervasive issue and although the #MeToo movement [27] and current discussions address sexual harassment and assault, personal, societal, and legal hurdles prevent the cultural change and the end of sexual violence.

The effects of sexual abuse are similar to post-traumatic stress disorder. At least 90% of survivors recover naturally with time if removed from the abusive relationship and this percentage can be higher with the help of mental health professionals. About 80% of sexual is committed by someone familiar to the victim. Cases of incest are not only traumatic but also intensify the fear of retaliation and the difficulty in reporting the abuse (reliving it). Unfortunately, there is no single profile on people who commit sexual abuse. It is, however, a current pattern to those who grew up in a similar environment.

The objectification of bodies and the glorification of violence are common societal trends that are aggravated in times of war. This societal norm is also an influential factor on why men sexually abuse women. This does not mean that men are not victims of sexual abuse. Cultural norms such as “men always want to have sex” prevent men and boys from speaking out about their abuse. One in six men will experience sexual violence. This statistic is only for those who actually report the abuse. Reports revealed that 94% of male victims experience sexual abuse before the age of 18.

As previously mentioned, the #MeToo movement [27] addressed the discussion in sexual abuse, but men felt left out of the national discussion. This is because the movement did not address the widespread awareness of abuses in Catholic Church [28], Boy scouts [29] and college sport teams. As seen in the media about the US gymnastic team and sexual abuse by their doctors, coaches and other staff members for over 20 years [30], all victims of sexual abuse manage their shame and humiliation when they report the abuses. In addition to shame and humiliation, men add another factor which is to have their masculinity in question. The believe that every perpetrator must be inherently evil generates a bias when allegations of sexual abuse are done to people who are perceived as good people. If this cycle must be broken for boys and girls, men and women, LGBTQ community, societal norms must address each own's individuality, wellbeing, be against violence towards others to prevent sexual abuse [1, 31, 32]

If it is harder for an adult to come forward with instances of sexual abuse, it is even harder for a child. Children of all ages, abilities might not be able to talk about their trauma. Sexual abuse in children can include both touching and non-touching behaviors. However, there are signs that could indicate the abuse such as angry outbursts, anxiety around certain adults, excessive fear, genital injuries, inappropriate sexual behavior, new fear or removing clothes, new fear of being alone, nightmares, regressing to past habits (bed-wetting), sexually transmitted infections, substance abuse, unexpected pregnancy, withdrawal. Some children might not show behavioral changes which is why it is important to focus on prevention and communication. It is important to keep and open communication about body safety and healthy boundaries. If there is a suspicion of a sexual abuse, prevent the child from encountering the abuser or in an unsupervised situation with an adult. If the incident is confirmed, the immediate approach is to report it and seek help and support for the child.

Because of long-term effects of the abuse, it can severely influence someone's health, career and future relationships. Dissociative identity disorder can emerge especially in children.

For children, therapy helps processing the abuse. For women, four steps are considered necessary: confront reality, reclaim self-esteem, accept support, and reach a transition point. For everyone, trauma-focused therapies or even art therapy could also help to process the trauma. The support of family and friends is paramount in the process and in validating their emotions and providing resources. Some signs can be indicators that an adult is experiencing sexual abuse:

- Anxiety about specific situations
- Avoiding specific people or places
- Disturbed sleep
- Depression
- Low self-esteem
- Self-harming behavior
- Suicidal thoughts
- Sexually transmitted infections [1, 31, 32]

In the case of **technological** abuse, the abuse is technology-facilitated, and the pattern of behavior is intended to control, exploit, extort, harass, harm, impersonate, monitor another person using any forms of current and emerging technologies, threaten, stalk. Some technologies include apps, cameras, computer, internet enabled devices, location tracking devices, mobile devices, online platforms among others. Some specific examples of this abuse are checking text messages, social media or internet activity, cyberbullying, forbidding or limiting someone's contact to phones or internet, making continuous controlling or threatening calls, sending photos of their location, sending abusive texts, spying or using a tracking system, sharing intimate photos without their consent. This type of abuse affects someone's sense of safety in addition to feeling powerless. As the abuser limits the use of technology, it is harder for the victim to leave the relationship or contact support services. Due to the nature of technology, the abuser can track or monitor the victim even after they left the relationship. As the abuse tends to escalate when the abuser loses control of the victim, leaving a violent situation can be dangerous and some measurements can be taken to guarantee the safety of the victim and their family. Any type of technology abuse must be reported to the police. There are laws against some of the technology-facilitated abuse and surveillance without consent. Police officers should be equipped to detect spyware or other devices on phones, car, or homes [1, 33].

Technology-based abuse is particularly common in dating relationships. Stalking is one of those abuses that are not easily acknowledged or reported. It can be purely technology-based but it can also intertwine with other types of abuse. It occurs when someone repeatedly harasses or threatens somebody's wellbeing and safety. Most stalking cases occur by someone the victim knows or with who they had an intimate relationship. In some cases, mental health illnesses contribute to the fantasy that the stalker has a relationship with someone who is being stalked. In some cases, the stalking is the only way for the stalker to maintain a relationship with the abused person. There is a discussion on whether or not stalking is a recurring pattern because most stalkers when they leave their previous victims tend to stalk their next victims. The laws involving stalking differ from state to state in the United States where millions of women and men are under stalking effects. The best approach if someone suspects they are being stalked is to report to law enforcement, talk to friends and family about the behavior (stalked could potentially target them as well) and legal services.

According to the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS), 1 in 6 women and 1 in 17 men have experienced stalking. The effects of stalking include depression and symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder. About 68% of female and 70% of male victims experienced threats of physical harm as well. Here are the signs that you are being stalked:

- Approaching a victim or showing up unwanted or at the time that they know the victim is in their home, gym, school, workplace. A stalker would know all the places they can find the victim.
- Leaving strange or potentially threatening items for the victim
- Sneaking into the victim's car or home and doing things to scare the victim
- Unwanted emails, text messages
- Unwanted phone calls at random times

- Watching, following or tracking a victim making remarks that they went to a certain location, and they did not see them there and they ask for proof or indicating they saw their car in a specific location, or they claim to know where the victim is.
- Wrongfully accusing someone of stalking or harassing behavior when they are the perpetrators

Because a stalker is someone known to the victim and the abusive behavior is difficult to address, most abused people prefer to stay quiet about it and try to avoid any type of confrontation. Some of them wait until the stalker moves to another victim. However, everyone should have the responsibility to stop stalking by helping each other recognize stalking behaviors, mobilize men and boys as allies, create a safe environment and promote healthy relationships. The Stalking Prevention, Awareness, and Resource Center provides great resource and other technical assistance to develop policy and protocols as well [34].

For victims:

- Trust your instincts, stalking poses a real threat
- Call the police
- Keep a record or log of every contact with the stalker ([use this log](#))
- Save evidence when possible: save all emails, text messages, photos and posts. Stalkers use technology to contact their victims
- Get connected with a local victim service provider [1, 33, 34, 35]

2.3 Reflection: Create a Safety Plan

The [Safety Plan](#) [36] helps in the process of leaving or thinking about leaving an abusive relationship [15].

- Identify a safe friend or a safe place to go
- Keep an alternate cellphone
- Memorize the phone number of friends, family, and shelters
- Make a list of things to take if leaving quickly
- Hide an extra set of keys if possible
- Ask the doctor to get extra medically necessary items
- Contact family court and familiarize with restraining orders [37]
- Use a computer at a public library
- Try to gather evidence of the abuse or violence
- Keep copies of all hard and soft copies

Because domestic violence is a cycle of power and control over another, breaking the cycle is still the only way to stop it [38]. The following section will explain and discuss this cycle.

3. The cycle – culturally acceptable

Domestic violence not only affects those who are abused, but also has a substantial effect on family members, friends, co-workers, other witnesses and the community at large. Children, who grow up witnessing domestic violence, are among those seriously affected by this crime. Frequent exposure to violence in the home not only predisposes children to numerous social and physical problems, but also teaches them that violence is a normal way of life – therefore, increasing the risk of becoming society’s next generation of victims and abusers [1, 10].

This discussion of domestic violence is intended to educate the public about the dynamics of abuse in intimate partner relationships as well as to help victims understand their experience and family and friends of victims to recognize signs of abuse in the relationships of their loved ones. The cycle of domestic violence itself prevents the victim from leaving and most relationships have a Tensions Building Phase, Incident Phase and Honeymoon Phase as shown in the Figure below:

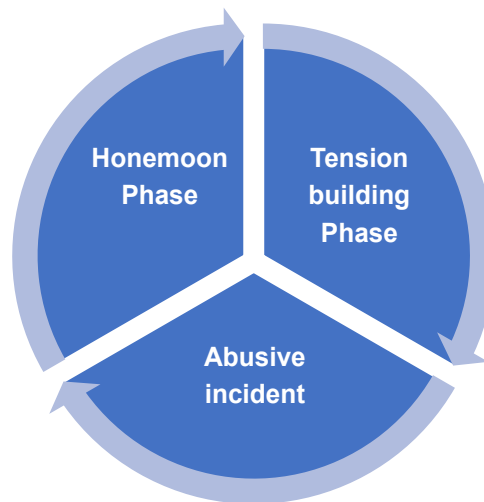


Figure 1 – The domestic violence cycle [39]

In the tension building phase, or “walking on eggshells”, which lasts anything from a few hours to a few months, the victim is close to an inevitable outburst without knowing what will cause it.

In the abusive incident, the tension finally breaks and the abuser’s action will be based on one (or several) of the cases that were mentioned in this paper: economic, emotional, psychological, physical, sexual or technological.

In the honeymoon phase, promises, gifts and apologies are used to keep the victim in the relationship. It is important to notice that despite the good times, the bad times are really bad and that should be enough to alert someone victim of the abuse that is best to seek help and find safer ways to deal with it. Unfortunately, some relationships do not have a honeymoon phase and the cycle of abusive incident is followed immediately by the tension building phase.

As explained earlier, other factors play an important role in continuing the cycle because of the level of dependence of the victim towards their abuser [39]. There are some reasons that contribute to this cycle of domestic violence, and they are: *alcoholism, cultural factors, education, historical factors, mental problems, poverty, relationship retention behavior, self-defense and young parents*. None of these factors justify the fact that they are inflicting pain to a loved one but they are presented as a red flag within a relationship. The best course of action if a person is living one of these situations is to communicate openly with their loved ones and seek external and professional help if there is no type of communicating with their potential abuser. Of all factors mentioned above, ***cultural and historical factors*** will be highlighted in this section. Unfortunately, there are entrenched behavior on every single nation and within different regions of the world which lingers this cycle of domestic violence, especially towards women.

A person is not, and they do not need to be fully aware of someone else's ***cultural*** difference when they decide to be wedded. Even if they are aware, cultural shock is a strong factor which can cause a tension building situation in a couple. What might seem appropriate to one culture is not acceptable or not appreciated by another. The lack of conscious approach when adopting cultural differences in a home leads to issues in raising kids, ideological differences and even be the last straw in a tension building situation due to cultural compatibility of the lack thereof. The environment also plays a role in a couple's cultural compatibility when two people of different cultural backgrounds live in another culturally different place. In terms of historical factors, gender equality and freedom for women is still a debatable and one of the Sustainable Development goals from United Nations. The change of mindset to a historically patriarchal and male dominant society cannot be eradicated all at once although being one of the biggest causes of domestic violence worldwide. As mentioned earlier, the glorification of violence and the superiority complex pose a threat to break the cycle of one of the major causes of domestic violence [40].

This paper is an iterative work that could be adapted to every nation but for the purpose of real awareness and conciseness of this paper – and the author's experience, it will focus on two countries: Brazil and United States.

3.1 The Brazilian narrative

The Institute Patricia Galvão and Institute Beja partnered up for a study in domestic violence and their findings were disclosed to the public in 2022 [41]. Half of Brazilians know a woman victim of domestic violence but 94% of men who were interviewed by Ipec said never committed any physical abuse. 55% of the victims left their abusive relationship and only 1 in 5 reported the abuser to law enforcement and/or told family and friends. After acknowledging the cases of domestic violence, Brazilians helped the victims and focused in giving support and a safe space to women. They also encouraged reporting to local authorities and leaving the abusive relationship. However, 8% recommended going back to church – an advice given mostly by women, 7% recommended changing their behavior so they do not upset their abuser and 6% encouraged them to reconsider the episode and make up with their abuser – an advice given mostly by men.

Of a total of 800 women, 36% revealed suffering any type of domestic abuse. Of all abuses listed in the survey, 27% of those who suffered domestic violence consider the abuse to be psychological, 17% physical, 13% emotional, 10% sexual and 7% economic. One in 10 women revealed to be or to have been exposed to sexual abuse. All men interviewed in this survey denied any type of sexual abuse. 72% of law enforcement interviewed for this survey believe the reports were not cases of domestic violence. The question remains: where are these abusers? The answer to that is simple, around us, inside and outside our homes [41]. To understand the Brazilian narrative, several series and documentaries have been telling the tales of domestic violence victims throughout Brazil. They were coerced to believe in their abuser due to societal standards, beliefs and faith.

The Maria da Penha Act is 16 years old, and it is the greatest feature in the defense of women victims of domestic violence. It is considered one of the most advanced laws in regards to domestic violence and well known by Brazilians. To celebrate “Lei Maria da Penha”, Purple August campaign, the awareness month against all forms of domestic violence towards women was launched [42]. In the first semester of 2022, over 31,000 police reports and 169,000 violations of domestic violence against women were reported in Brazil. It is estimated that 70% of women victims of genocide have never been through a support, help or rescue channel. The state with more reports of domestic abuse is São Paulo, followed by Rio de Janeiro and Minas Gerais. The best way to seek help and avoid more genocide towards women is calling 180 or WhatsApp 61-99656-5008, a service available 24/7 for all victims of domestic violence [43].

Some series and podcasts have been produced addressing domestic violence towards women and the impact of women supporting each other to break the cycle of domestic violence. Some of these great productions are [Praia dos Ossos](#) –podcast in Portuguese, [Girls from Ipanema](#) (Coisa Mais Linda), [Good Morning Veronica](#) (Bom Dia Veronica), [Pacto Brutal](#) – docuseries in Portuguese, among others.

3.2 The United States narrative

Domestic violence remains an underreported issue. Many survivors prefer to remain silent about it because of shame, guilt or fear or retaliation [1]. Nonetheless, 1 in 3 women, and 1 in 10 men – these numbers could be 1 in 4 for men experience domestic violence and 1500 of these people die every year [31]. There are some unique challenges for US residents such as immigrants who would be reluctant to seek help with fear of deportation, older women who have grown up in a time when domestic violence was not discussed, disabled women who are perceived as ungrateful and told that they should be happy they have someone who pities them to be in a relationship with them [44], among others.

Femicide is the fourth leading cause of death to girls and women from 1 – 19 years old and the fifth to women between 20 to 44. Those deaths are caused by current or former intimate partners. More precisely, in 2018, the FBI stated that 92% of cases the killer was a man these women knew and 63% were killed by current or former partner. This means 3 women are killed every day in the US. Men, on the other hand, are killed mostly by other man (3/4 of the cases) and by strangers (>1/4). The genocide of women, femicide or *fémicide*, the French word for the epidemic of women killed by men, more women is killed on a single day in the US than in France. In fact, the rate is 10 times higher in the US than in France where the discussion of domestic violence is gaining popularity. In Turkey, where the practice of “honor killings” are still present, 474 women were killed in 2019 while 2991 women were killed in the US in that same year.

Most Americans will often think that femicide is a problem happening in other countries and marginalized communities. The data reveals that the homicide of Indigenous women is 6 times higher than white women in the US. Of those cases, 94% are attributed to former or current partners. Another issue found by minorities in the US is that less effort is put into finding them. White women are found in 81% of the cases and 61% of Indigenous women are found. Indigenous laws might be a factor that complicates the matter as the distribution of power among federal, state and tribal land might impact the progress of the case [45]. As a matter of fact, laws and regulations also vary from state to state. Although domestic violence is presented in several cases of abusive behavior and some legal terms are common in the US, policies related to each case of abusive behavior can vary from state to state. Some of these terms are defined below:

- *Coercion* – using force or intimidation to ensure compliance
- *Endangerment* – wrongful or reckless conduct which could result in harm or death
- *Emotional distress* – negative emotional reaction from the conduct of another individual
- *False imprisonment* – unlawful restraint of a person and applies to private individuals
- *Preponderance of evidence* – jury or judge believe that evidence presented by one party is more convincing than the opposing party in a civil lawsuit.
- *Stalking* – pursuing a person or the act of harassing individual in an aggressive, threatening, wrongful or illegal manner [46].

The numbers of 2020 and 2021 have to be released but the news about missing women and domestic violence have not changed. October is Domestic Violence Awareness Month in the US [38].

4. The role of women in breaking this cycle

If the numbers are not addressing the need of an open discussion about the matter, some amazing, talented, women and survivors are telling their own stories, breaking the cycle and seeking justice for themselves, their children and other women. Every country research in this paper has at least one of these stories and they can be found worldwide. They are inspiring and they are seeking other brave women to continue on this journey. It is extremely important to highlight the effect women have in movements which address their own needs and voice their own voices. Movements such as the #MeToo movement [27] led to several women in the world using the hashtag. That was an eye-opening experience to know that your mother, your sister, your best friend and so on were once victims of sexual abuse if not other types of domestic abuse. For women to voice their opinion and be agents of change, they must seek leadership roles and be given that opportunity or at least the discussion on how they can be better support women's resilience [47, 48]. Gender perspective is an important aspect of breaking the cycle of domestic violence because an established society in which the actions of a man who is also the abuser are seen by accepted and tolerable are not the ones from the victim. In the book, *Sex and World Peace* [49] the authors call "attention to discrepancies between national laws protecting women and the enforcement of those laws, and they note the adverse effects on state security of abnormal sex ratios favoring males, the practice of polygamy, and inequitable realities in family law, among other gendered aggressions". There is strong evidence that women's participation contributes to longer and more resilient results after conflict. Yet, women remain largely invisible and excluded from peace processes and negotiations [50].

"He for she". It is paramount that men also voice their concern for women. For instance, Cote d'Ivoire initiative has been removed from the so-called "list of shame" of conflict-related sexual violence. This initiative was successfully planned from higher up military forces (women are only 2% of the armed forces in such country) to abolish rape violence. Mr. Bakari Diaby is the General coordinator of the African Coordination of Human Rights for Armies which prevents conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence among armed forces [51, 52].

Some initiatives can have long-lasting positive effects on women victims of domestic violence. UN women supports women's full and equal representation and participation which makes up the broader women, peace, and security (WPS) agenda [47]. UN women leads on implementing the WPS agenda and provides knowledge and guidance to ensure women's inclusion in all aspects of peace processes [50].

Other types of literature available aim to empowering women by sharing their stories so that every girl in the world can be inspired by someone that looks like them. An example can be seen in the *Female Lead* which is already in its second volume [53]. Another organization that is worth mentioning and which empowers women and celebrates women's achievement in a male-dominant environment is the Society of Women Engineers (SWE). SWE has given women engineers a unique place and voice within the engineering industry and continues to evolve with the challenges and opportunities women face in today's engineering and technology specialties [54]. Due to the nature of an engineering environment, a discussion of domestic violence and its impact in the workplace must also be discussed.

5. The effect of domestic violence in the performance of a chemical engineer

5.1 Students

Most people experience domestic violence for the first time before age 25 and in some cases, this also corresponds to their college life experience. Even when domestic violence is reported to authorities of school officials, students do not get the support or resources they need to continue their education. It results in a poor response that harms students even more, decreases retention and denies victims their rights to equal access to education. Students who experience abuse struggle to complete assignments, miss classes and exams. Some would drop classes and hinder their chances of success. Lower grades can affect their GPA and scholarships which are based on academic performance. Add a STEM degree [55] and the success of these students is even more reduced without proper support [56].

Title IX in higher education is the most common name for the federal civil rights law in the United States that prohibits sex-based discrimination in any education program that receives federal funding. In the late 1970's, a group of students and one faculty member sued Yale University for the impunity of cases of sexual harassment on campus. This cases was the first to use Title IX to establish that sexual harassment of female students can be considered illegal sex discrimination. The Final Title IX regulation includes sexual harassment in dating violence, domestic violence and stalking, as they too impact a student's academic performance.

The procedures of Title IX on campus are the following:

“The regulation provides students with a right to written notice of allegations, the right to an advocate, and the right to submit, examine, and challenge evidence.

*All **students have the right to a live hearing** where advisors conduct cross-examination.*

*All **students have the right to an impartial finding based on evidence** using a standard of evidence — either the preponderance of evidence standard or the clear and convincing standard — that applies to all members of the school community, including faculty.*

*Schools must offer **both parties an equal opportunity to appeal** the finding.*

*The regulation gives schools flexibility to **conduct Title IX investigations and hearings remotely.**”*
[57]

Title IX protects survivors as follows:

*“Survivors are in the **position of control** to decide what happens after an incident of sexual harassment, including sexual assault, occurs.*

*Schools must respect **a survivor's decision** to file, or not to file, a formal complaint and must offer supportive measures either way.*

***Schools must respond promptly in every instance by offering to provide supportive measures** like dorm reassignments or class schedule adjustments*

Schools are forbidden from pressuring a survivor into filing or not filing a formal complaint or participating in a grievance process.

*To protect younger students, **K-12 schools must respond promptly when any school employee has notice of sexual harassment, including sexual assault.***

*The regulation extends to all aspects of a school's education program or activity and applies to **any building owned or controlled by a student organization** recognized by a college or university.*

*If a survivor chooses to participate in a grievance process, the regulation protects survivors from inappropriately being asked about prior sexual history (also known as **"rape shield" protections**), and the survivor must not be required to divulge any medical, psychological, or similarly privileged records.*

A survivor never has to come face-to-face with the accused during a hearing, and an accused is never allowed to personally ask questions of a survivor.

Survivors are protected against retaliation when they choose to report sexual misconduct or not, file a formal complaint or not, participate in a grievance process or not.

Survivors are protected against bullying or harassment throughout the grievance process."
[57]

Title IX works and it should be conducted in its integrity to protect the victim from an abusive relationship and its effect in their academic performance. However, it is not uncommon to face a wrongful accusation. The outcome of a Title IX case can lead to expulsion, suspension, mandatory counseling and to immigrant students, to lose their duration of status and deportation. If a guilty verdict is reached, the student is labeled as sex offender. These results should not, in any way, discourage a victim from pursuing a Title IX investigation. The abuse must be stopped. The following strategies below can be used to dispute Title IX in cases in which the "false victim" wants to ruin a former boyfriend or to punish someone they strongly dislike.

- Obtain supportive witness testimony – never establish a relationship in total secrecy. The legitimacy of eyewitnesses can be crucial to ensure the version of events of the accused party.
- Undermine legitimacy of complaint – never erase any data, social media posts that could undermine the legitimacy of the complainant. If it is shown that the accusation has no evidence of past sexual misconduct, this will undermine the prosecution.
- Secure conflicting evidence on social media – social media posts can provide ample evidence that conflicts with the narrative of events. For instance, the sexual misconduct indicates a certain date and the accused person is out of state.
- Negotiate with the school or complainant – it is best done with an advocate present to avoid any type of further accusations of coercion or retaliation. If known that the accused party has a strong defense, they can negotiate with the Title IX investigator or the complainant directly to avoid any proper Title IX dispute [58]

If wrongfully accused and the Title IX investigation is completed in favor of the accused party, the now victim can sue the complainant for defamation as the investigation itself has caused emotional distress. To be successful in a defamation process, some criteria have to be met:

- The information or communication about the complaint has been published to a third person
- clearly identifies the person
- is defamatory and lowers the person's integrity or reputation [59]

5.2 Professionals/Workplace

Domestic violence and its short- and long-term effects affect someone's ability to work. If the victim works in a specialty chemical plant in which their performance is also puts in jeopardy the lives of all the other employees, then domestic violence and its effects could not be taken lightly. Victims of domestic violence lose an average of 137 hours of work a year and an equivalent of over 32000 full-time jobs each year. The absences can be due to medical attention, restraining order or a safe place to stay. Some victims might be facing some form of false imprisonment. No federal law explicitly protects victims of domestic violence in the workplace or includes any time of leaves to deal with this situation. Some states, however, in the United States have passed domestic violence leave laws and they can be found for reference in [Domestic Violence and Workplace](#) [60].

The sad truth in the United States is that domestic violence does not stay at home. It actually walk in the doors of each workplace every single day. In addition to losing hours of work, it also affects victims' dignity, health and performance. The severity of cases of domestic violence and its pervasiveness should demand the attention of employers, managers and human resources to provide guidance and conduct policy reviews within their workplaces. The Department of Labor reports that victims of domestic violence result in a \$1.8 billion loss in productivity for employers. Ignorance of this issue is no longer a family matter issue or even best left to law enforcement. Family and law enforcement need to address incidents, social services and counselor should address the effects caused by the incidents. Employers should provide the flexibility to deal with these issues by changing its work culture. According to [61] here are the changes that can be done in the workplace:

- Build awareness
- Remove obstacles to awareness
- Create effective workplace domestic violence programs
- Organize a team (HR, legal, security, community outreach, medical, etc.)
- Develop a compliant policy

6. Curriculum development – case studies

Day 1

- a. Introduction to Domestic Violence with charts and statistics about the cycle of violence,
- b. addressing signs of domestic violence and checking on others in their workplace

Day 2 – Case study (anonymous at first)

- a. The following case study shows a case of technology-enabled violence. The couple had a good life until the birth of their third child. Financial hurdles affected one of the partner's wellbeing and the added stress to provide for their family led to a tension-building phase which resulted in an abusive incident. The victim was constantly followed by the abuser by any type of technology-based means. Finally, the victim seeks help from their parents which helped the victim with a new phone and a location only them know.
 - 1) What suggestions would you give the victim?
 - 2) What suggestions would you give the abuser?
 - 3) What if the abuser is a woman and the victim is a man?
 - 4) What if the victim is an engineer? How would that affect their performance at work if they: work at a plant, manage a team, work odd shifts?
- b. Case study revealed:

Students watch Rosie's story – a case study of technology-enabled violence against a woman and her children, providing strategies to help women identify and manage the risk of technology-enabled violence [33, 62].

Video can be found here: <https://vimeo.com/160811541>
- c. Final discussion: how would your answers change after watching the video?

7. Conclusions

Everyone's individuality is important. Relationships are hard and an open communication is necessary to deal with conflicts. People can have different tastes, personalities and backgrounds and still thrive together. The difference is when this individuality is respected and encouraged. It is about maintaining a healthy relationship, achieving goals and dreams rather than impressing societal norms. The cycle of domestic violence can be broken when everyone 1) understands the definition of domestic violence, 2) is aware of possible triggers to abuser and provide resources and help, 3) validate victim's emotions, 4) provide a group of support to their loved ones, 5) employers provide flexibility and awareness, and 6) women are empowered to protect each other

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2.10 Paper



Advancing Gender Equity through Intellectual Property (IP) Rights

CLOSING THE GENDER GAP IN INNOVATION

by **Ms. Hang K im Loi**

Advisor: **Ms. Larisa K. Schelkin**

“Human innovation and creativity are the engines of progress. Since the beginning of time, female and male innovators and creators from all walks of life have transformed our world through the power of their imagination and ingenuity. However, some groups remain severely under-represented in many areas of intellectual property (IP) use. Their innovative potential is underutilized at a time when we need the widest possible range of talents to solve the pressing problems facing humanity.”

The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)

Content Overview

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IP Rights Support the Innovation and Creativity That Shape our World

Innovation and creativity are the bedrock of humanity and of human progress. It is how we solve the world's most pressing challenges and find new ways to improve our lives, express ourselves, and advance societies for the betterment of all. Innovation and creativity unfold through science, engineering, art, films, songs, and other creative media. Humans of all genders and identities have been involved in this process throughout our evolution, transforming our world with imagination, new creations, and ingenuity at an increasingly rapid pace. Our lives today enjoy products, services and arts that are the results of years of research, development, experimentation, and the will to push boundaries and challenge the status quo. The [1] World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) describes in economic terms that “modern manufacturing intangible assets like inventions, designs and specialist knowledge are worth nearly twice as much as tangible assets such as raw materials.” Additionally, creative works such as in films, music, and the visual arts add essential value to our lives by expressing stories that connect societies and generations with one another.



METAMORWORKS/ISTOCK/GETTYIMAGES PLUS

Figure 1.
Image from WIPO article at https://www.wipo.int/about-ip/en/ip_innovation_economics/gender_innovation_gap/gender_by_fields.html

To put it simply, our world cannot advance without innovation and creativity. To encourage this process, the intellectual property (IP) system seeks to protect the rights of inventors, designers, and creators by making sure they are compensated fairly for their work. The IP system has impacted our society by creating a sustained and supportive environment where new ideas flourish. IP rights enable holders to have agency over the use of their inventions and ideas. They can decide to grant or remove access to their idea and preserve and dictate its economic value by preventing copyright infringement. The protection afforded by IP rights encourage people and businesses to invest in novel ideas and solutions. To strike a balance between the interests of the innovators and the public, IP rights are granted only for certain amount of time and must meet specified conditions. This limitation is important for a free-market economy that benefits consumers and enables the protection of future novel ideas that arise from earlier patents.

Economic growth depends on the protection of intellectual property rights. This principle is so important it is enshrined in the United Nations' Article 27 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 [2] which states "everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author." Yet in many parts of the world and across industries and academic institutions, women do not take part in the patenting and copyright process at equal rates as men. Without equal access to IP rights, women's participation in innovation and creation is hindered. This loss in human potential has profound impact on our society and should concern us all.

The Gender Gap – What the Data Says

At the 2022 World Economic Forum in Davos, the report on gender equality describes the gender gap in patenting [7] with the chart in Figure 2 from WIPO IP Statistics Data Center. As of 2021 just one of every three patents granted internationally includes at least one woman, and the share of women inventors overall is only 17%. Though there are encourage signs in all parts of the world that participation by women in innovation is rising, progress is slow. Parity is not expected until 2058.

For International Women's Day 2022 WIPO highlighted in [8] that the Latin America and the Caribbean region in 2021 continues to register the highest share of women inventors at 22.9% with a 3.8% increase in the last decade. Asia made the biggest improvement with a 6.7% increase, bringing their rate to 17.7%. China is the origin of the most women applicants, followed by France, U.S, Netherlands, Republic of Korea, Italy, U.K, Germany, India, and Japan. [8]

Women's small share of patents is just one sign of the problem. The gender gap in innovation actually rises as women progress in their careers. An article in the World Trademark Review in March 2021 [9] points out that despite increasing number of women entering STEM careers, "the higher up the ladder you look, the less women you find. We are losing out on a huge amount of talent and value; guaranteeing equitable participation of women in the sector from the start to ensure that they remain engaged and progress in seniority is crucial."

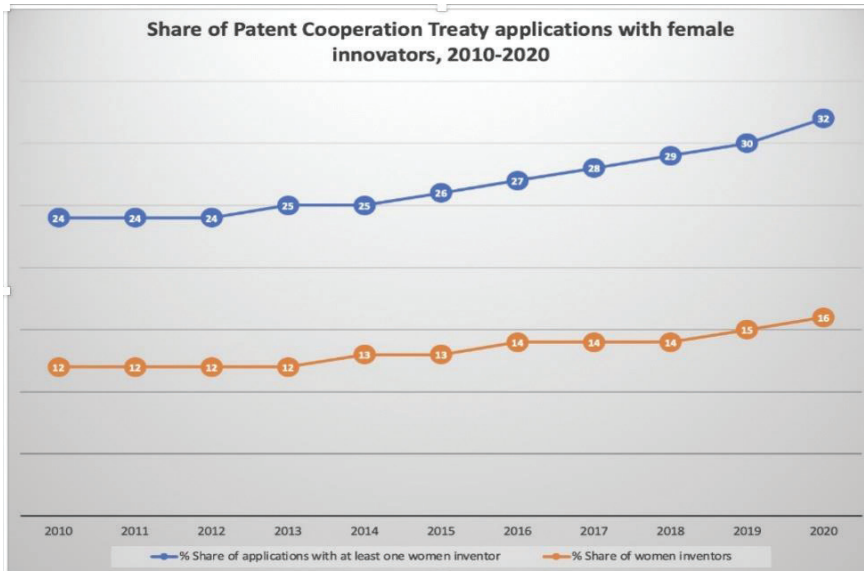


Figure 2.
WIPO IP Statistics Data Center. Source: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2022/01/how-female-inventors-can-fix-stem-gender-gap/>

The gap is pervasive in all countries including developed high-income nations such as the US. Although there are more women than men earning bachelor and master's degrees, their numbers decline as they advance further into their fields as shown in [8]:

- Fewer women graduate from Ph.D. programs
- Fewer women get positions as researchers or professors. This is supported by [11].
- Fewer women researchers earn, publish, or patent their work. See [6] for example study.
- The Gender Gap in patenting is worse than in scientific papers.

It is not lower quality work that hinders women's advancement in academic institutions and corporations. Studies after studies have shown that women and men are equally productive in innovation and creativity. Even when women patent less than men, the quality and impact of their patents are often higher than those of their male counterparts. A study [13] published by the National Center for Women and Information Technology found that IT patents with mixed-gender teams are cited more often than those of either only men or only women, suggesting that diverse teams deliver patents that are more useful and valued.

It is noteworthy to point out that the gender gap varies across industries and institutions. Women have found more opportunities in the life sciences and biotech fields. They also have higher representation in academia than in corporate settings. They are rarely the "primary inventor" on a patent unless in fields that are related to traditional female roles such as jewelry and apparel. That said, when women invent, their contributions cross a greater variety of patent classes, such as chemistry, biotechnology, edible materials, travel goods, packaging technology, apparel, furnishing, and equipment for food preparation. [13]

Indicators of The Gender Gap in Innovation

The discussion about the gender gap in innovation would be incomplete without describing a few key indicators used by WIPO [12] and other countries around the world. How the indicators are used depends on the objective. The two highlighted below have their advantages and limitations.

- **The percentage of patent applications with at least one female inventor**

This convenient indicator is often used and allows for comparisons between studies. Its limitation is in setting a meaningful target. A 50% target can be misleading when accounting for the disparity in patents that name one or more female inventors. Instead, a compelling target for parity is 100%.

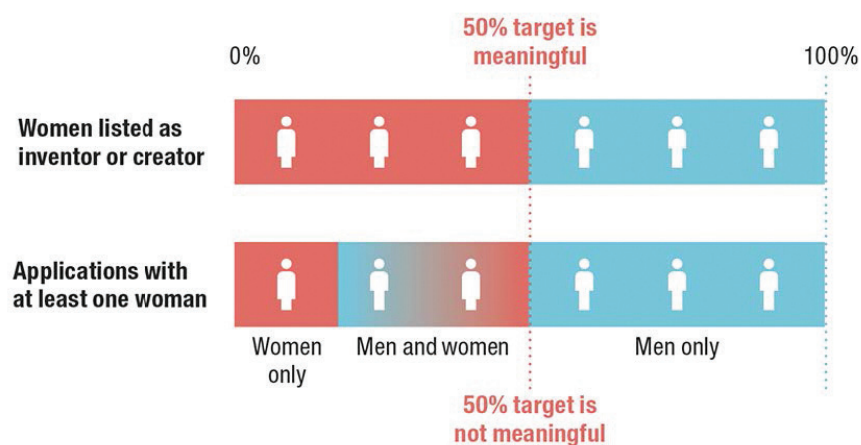


Figure 3. Using an inappropriate indicator risk understating gender imbalance. Read the full recommendations in the guidelines for producing gender analysis from innovation and IP data at wipo.int

- **The percentage of women inventors**

This indicates women's use of IP in an organization or a geographic region and can inform gender policies with clear targets such as 50%. However, since women's participation varies with industries and organizations (higher in life sciences and academia), the target should be level set per the industry that an organization belongs.

Closing the Gender Gap – Why It Matters

The underrepresentation of women in patenting is a huge loss and impedes our progress.

The protection of IP rights restores the financial incentive to create and innovate, giving owners and content creators exclusive power over their creations. For women, this is of huge importance. Statistics have shown that countries with stronger IP rights tend to have stronger measures of **gender equality**. In a Forbes' 2018 article How IP Rights Empower Women [3], Prof. Walter G. Park of American University and author of the Patent Index says: "Women in the economy are a powerful force for change and leadership. Intellectual property rights when used correctly can advance entrepreneurship by enabling women who develop innovative ideas and products to secure financing, signal their innovation, and negotiate access to the IPRs held by others. IP systems should recognize and protect creativity in all its forms, including contributions from traditional and Indigenous knowledge developed by women."

The **global economy** thrives with strong IP rights. IP-intensive firms account for 45.5 million jobs and 38% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the United States, and in the European Union it accounts for 82 million jobs and 42% of the GDP. These industries not only support jobs, but high-paying jobs. In the EU and U.S., workers earn 46% more in IP-intensive sectors than workers in other sectors. Imagine the benefits to the world if women inventors have greater access to participate in patenting, and the difference it would make in the lives of women with higher earning power.

That said, it is about much more than the economy. At the heart, it is about **human lives, women's lives**. A 2021 study [4] in Science that examined US biomedical patents found that teams of all-female inventors are 35% more likely than all-male teams to come up with ideas and products that focus on women's health. This effect holds across research areas and over decades. The study found that with men significantly outnumbering women as patent holders, there are far more inventions addressing men's health. If there were parity in women's participation during the period studied, an estimated 6500 inventions focused on women's health would have been patented. Further remarkable is the finding that while women inventors are more likely to innovate for female consumers than male inventors, they generate products for male consumers at similar rates as the male teams. This suggests that women are more inclusive in their thinking. In [6], Waverly Ding, Associate Professor at the University of Maryland who studies gender issues in entrepreneurship and science points out the consequences in her 2006 Science study: "If we have a more diverse innovation workforce, then we are going to have better results in terms of the quality and the type of patents we are getting. But we have never really looked into this assumption, and no one had tried to quantify what it means to have women's representation."

The gender gap in Science Technology Engineering and Math (STEM) fields are well documented. In patenting, the disparity is even greater. The Davos Agenda at the 2022 World Economic Forum [7] discussed the need to increase women's participation in patenting to retain **women in STEM** careers, increase wages, and open more opportunities for advancement. Patents are linked to promotions in industries and tenure in academia. With greater access, support, and inclusion in the patent process, women will benefit from expanded job opportunities and extended careers on the technical stage. Inventors on average consistently earn higher income even when controlled for occupation, migrant status, and other factors. Closing the gender wage gap brings greater equity to women, increases job satisfaction, and raises retention rates in the STEM workforce. With more advancement opportunities, the gender gap in leadership ranks would also be reduced.

The Barriers – Why So Few Women?

Women and men are inherently equal in abilities to be innovative and creative. We can thank women inventors for countless products and technologies we use every day, from life rafts to disposable diapers to rocket fuel, from the GPS in our cell phones to the windshield wipers when we drive in the rain. So why is there such significant gender disparity in the use of the IP system? Let us consider these barriers faced by women all over the world as described by WIPO [1]:

- **STEM participation and the leaky pipeline**

The IP gender gap reflects widespread gender inequality in social and economic life. For example, in most countries far fewer girls study scientific, technical, engineering, and medical (STEM) subjects. As a result, a low proportion of women work in the fields that produce most technical innovation.

- **Negative bias**

Wider inequalities reflect prejudices, preconceptions and stereotypes about girls and women, limiting them to certain traditional roles rather than encouraging them to be potential leaders in science, technology, business, and the arts. If the world does not challenge stereotypes, inequality self-perpetuates as girls and young women lack role models to inspire them to fulfil their potential.

- **“Glass Ceiling”**

Even in advanced economies, women face the proverbial “glass ceiling” that limit opportunities for advancement. They are paid lower and are less recognized for their contribution and included less often in discussions where innovative ideas are exchanged and grown. Additionally, motherhood often adds challenges that cause the workplace to unfairly penalize women’s career progress.

- **Lack of access to networks**

Research has shown that industry contacts is the most influential factor in patenting involvement for women. The studies find that women have smaller and lower-level professional networks than men. We need concerted efforts from employers, supervisors, and mentors to open high-level networks to women and encourage them to invest time and energy in cultivating these contacts.

- **Lack of resources and IP expertise**

The patenting process is challenging for anyone and especially for those who have limited contacts and know how. The fees associated with patent filing can pose a substantial barrier. Education, mentorship, and funding are all necessary assistance to bridge the knowledge gap. Commercial success often requires venture capital funding. For women, their low rates of patenting hinder fundraising efforts. A 2008 study [14] found that 76% of venture capital investors use patents in funding determination. Patent applications indicate high quality ideas and potentials for commercial exclusivity and help investors make decisions toward a project.



Accelerating Change – What is Being Done?

In the face of challenges impeding progress for women inventors and creators, the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), amongst others, are leading the charge to close the gender gap. Amongst the initiatives are international campaigns as well as targeted programs to encourage, educate, and support girls and women to take part in the IP process and realize the potentials of their ideas.

WIPO's adoption of the Policy on Gender Equality in 2014 [15] demonstrates the organization's commitment to eliminate the disparity. It is a forefront consideration in all of WIPO's work: ensuring equal access to WIPO's services by adding capacities and providing technical support to women inventors, and striving for gender equity in its staff and among member states. WIPO is also expanding its research into the barriers women face in the IP system and seeking ways to highlight and celebrate women's contribution to innovation and creativity.

Below are a few examples of global and regional initiatives to close the gender gap in IP:

- “Closing the Gender Gap in Intellectual Property – Mapping and Addressing Barriers” – **World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)** hosted this virtual workshop to a diverse global audience in the spring of 2021. Watch the webcast here <https://webcast.wipo.int/home>
- “International exchange: Promoting the Inclusion of Women in Intellectual Property” – **United States Patent and Trademark Office® (USPTO)** hosted this virtual event on 16 November 2021. This event included presentations by representatives of IP offices from around the world. They exchanged knowledge and practices that show success in raising women's participation in the IP system.
- The **Society of Women Engineers (SWE)** [16] is a non-governmental organization based in the United States whose mission for more than seven decades is to give women engineers a unique place and voice within the engineering industry. In 2020 SWE established the Patent Recognition Awards as an annual program to honor women granted with patent(s) on the national or international stage.
- **Invent Together** [17] is a non-profit organization dedicated to understanding the diversity gaps in the patenting process to better support public policies and private initiatives to enable equity. Stated on its landing page: “More Inventors. More Problems Solved. A Brighter Future.” Its Facts page [18] shares that only 2% of venture capital funding goes to women. Imagine a world with four times more inventors that fully represent the diversity of all global citizens and delivers a \$1trillion economic boost.
- The **Inventor's Patent Academy** [19] is a free, one-of-a-kind, e-learning course that aims to help people understand the patenting process and get them ready to apply for their own patent. It was created by a collaboration between Invent Together and **Qualcomm**, one of America's most innovative companies with a portfolio of more than 140,000 patents.



“Nobody believed that computers [can] talk ... They told me computers could only do arithmetic ... The most important thing I’ve accomplished, other than building the compiler, is training young people ... I keep track of them as they get older and I stir ‘em up at intervals so they don’t forget to take chances.”

Grace Hopper (1906-1992), a programming pioneer who invented the first compiler to teach computers to talk and co-invented the COBOL computer language that was the first universal programming language used in business and government. She was also a mathematician who reached the rank of Rear Admiral of the US Navy and was nicknamed “Amazing Grace.” [20]



“The ability to restore sight is the ultimate reward.”

Patricia Bath (b. 1942), an ophthalmologist, first Black person to serve as an ophthalmology resident at New York University, first woman on staff at the Jules Stein Eye Institute, first African American female doctor to receive a patent for medical purposes. She invented the Laserphaco Probe in 1981, a medical device that quickly and painlessly uses a laser to dissolve cataracts in the eye, then irrigates and cleans the eye to make inserting a replacement lens quick and easy. The Laserphaco Probe is now used internationally as a quick and safe way to prevent blindness due to cataracts. She is also the inventor of a new discipline, community ophthalmology, which is dedicated to ensuring that all members of the population have access to eye and vision care, even if people can’t afford an operation. [20]



Conclusion

To solve the world's most pressing challenges we need talents from all corners of the globe to fully participate in innovation and creativity. Women's involvement in this process through IP rights is critical, but women remain underrepresented at just 17% of the world's patent holders. Closing this gap through IP rights means unleashing women's power and contribution and advances the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal 5 "Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls." [21] Let work together and accelerate!

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2.13 Paper



Strengthening Fishery Governance and Capacities with SDG 17 to Deter Illegal, Unreported, Unregulated Fishing

by Ho-Tu Chiang

Advisor: Ms. Larisa K. Schelkin

Introduction

Illegal, unreported, and unregulated (IUU) fishing activities threaten the seafood markets, marine biology, livelihoods, food security, and human rights across the globe (Longo CS et al., 2021). IUU fishing results in unsustainable harvest levels, undermining important fisheries management goals and leading to a downward biological, social, and economic spiral (Doulman, 2000; Sumalia et al., 2006).

On September 25, 2015, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, setting a series of goals collectively termed the SDGs. Underlining the decision to focus on the fisheries aspect of Goal 14 of the SDGs, which seeks to ensure the sustainable use of the oceans, seas, and marine resources, is the fact that fisheries make a significant contribution to the lives of billions on earth as it serves as a source of food, nutrition, income and tradition (V. Lam et al., 2012). The challenges to the progress of SDG 14 have been unabated. IUU fishing frustrates global efforts to ensure a sustainable marine environment, thereby impeding the ability of countries in the region to meet Goal 14 of the SDG (UNCTA, 2017). It also casts a shadow on the realization of some of the other Goals, such as seeing an end to poverty and hunger, ensuring economic growth, good health, and even access to education for the many people living in the littoral areas who depend on the fisheries for subsistence (Okafor-Yarwood, 2019).

Combating IUU fishing is an interdisciplinary and cross-sector task that requires a broader view to design global, regional, and local fishery management. This paper points out that IUU fishing hampers the actualization of SDGs. Not only SDG 14 but also the other SDGs are affected, given the current state of fishery management protocols across the region in terms of justice, socioeconomic, and political willingness. As such, the paper maintains that attaining the conservation of the ocean, seas, and marine resources (SDG 14) is fundamental to actualizing other SDGs, such as SDG 1, SDG 2, SDG 3, SDG 4, and SDG 8. The partnership for this goal (SDG 17) is a particularly critical instrument to connect SDGs in actualizing the target of SDG 14 –to end overfishing, illegal, unregulated and unreported fishing, and destructive fishing practices. Furthermore, this paper discusses the current system and mechanism to strengthen fishery governance and capabilities to deter IUU fishing with the multilateral partnership. FAO Agreement on Port State Measures (PSMA) and complementary instruments and tools, such as the Monitor, Control, and Surveillance (MCS) and the engagements of stakeholders and private sectors, such as the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC), in particular, have been used to enhance the capacity building support to developing country in consideration of comprehensive and feasible measures.

IUU Fishing and SDGs

SDG 14, the life below water, includes seven targets covering almost all ocean issues, such as marine pollution, ocean acidification, sustainable management, and fishery. Each of these seven targets is linked, and at least one target is a prerequisite for another (Haas et al., 2019). For example, target 14.7 highly depends on the achievement of targets 14.2 and 14.4. All marine stakeholders, international organizations, regional institutions, governments, and private sectors have to contribute to the different targets of SDG 14. Although SDG 14 seems to emphasize comprehensively addressing the marine environment issues, such as the conservation and use of the oceans, seas, and marine resources for sustainable development, the single factor without the adequate contribution of the other SDGs, such as the ocean to poverty alleviation (SDG 1) and the human health is deficient in achieving the SDG 14 (SL Wood, F. DeClerck, 2015; Okafor-Yarwood, 2019). Taking how SDG 14 looks to IUU fishing as an instance, SDG target 14.4 aims to end overfishing, illegal, unregulated, and unreported fishing, and destructive fishing practices. SDG target 14.6 aims to prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies that contribute to overcapacity and overfishing and eliminate subsidies that contribute to IUU fishing by 2020. However, there needs to be more evidence and tools to track levels of IUU fishing and countries' vulnerability. It requires more systematic efforts to organize SDG 14 and other SDGs to achieve a wide range of co-benefits and multiplier effects, thus enhancing across-the-board synergies (Mara Ntona, Elisa Morgera, 2018).

SDG 1, 2, and 3 are seeing an end to hunger, ensuring sustainable agriculture, achieving food security and improved health (UN, 2015) as well as ensuring healthy lives and well-being, which can only be achieved for many across the region if SDG 14 is attained (Okafor-Yarwood, 2019). Fishery and aquaculture bring at least fifty percent of animal protein to a large number of people in low-income countries (FAO, 2016). However, the local fisheries that bring food, nutrition, and income to coastal countries are threatened by IUU fishing (D. Belhabib, K. Greer, D. Pauly, 2017; A. Doumbouya et al., 2017). Facing the under-reporting of IUU fishing harvest and lacking traceability, fisheries management is forced to be restricted, leading to lower legal catch limits and reducing confidence in stock assessments (Evans, D.W. 2000). However, restricting catch limits push the seafood price in the markets due to supply-demand rule may increase the level of IUU fishing activities hampering the progress of sustainable development.

Since fish serves as a source of income for many in the littoral communities, allowing them to send their children to school, this paper posits that the decline in fisheries will come at a cost to achieving SDG 4 – quality education for many (Okafor-Yarwood, 2019).

Decent work and economic growth (SDG 8) must be attained by promoting adequate working conditions on board fishing vessels linking to more attractive employment opportunities, which supports SDG 1 and SDG 2 (IMO, 2022). WWF's (2016) reports found that importing illegally caught seafood and its product into the United States may decrease the \$1 billion fishing industry's revenue which accounted for 19% of total revenues from their catch, as a result of price suppression alone. Coastal countries which rely on artisanal fishery suffer from the economic impact of IUU fishing. According to FAO (2020), IUU fishing has cost the West African countries of Mauritania, Senegal, The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, and Guinea an estimated USD 2.3 billion per year between 2010 and 2016. IUU fishing reduced the economic viability of fishing activities by undercutting prices in seafood markets. The economic damage of IUU fishing for countries across the region threatens their ability to attain SDG 8 (Okafor-Yarwood, 2019).

The Challenges of SDGs in Guinea Resulting from IUU Fishing

The Gulf of Guinea has suffered from the socioeconomic impact of IUU fishing. According to Okafor-Yarwood (2019), the Gulf of Guinea consists of many West and Central African countries with abundant fishing and aquaculture resources. There were over 300 species of finfish, 25 species of crustaceans, and many valuable aqua creatures (D. Belhabib et al., 2016).

The small-scale and artisanal fishermen in the Gulf of Guinea primarily exploit fisheries for food as the primary source accounting for approximately 41%-75% of their protein and sometimes the only source of animal protein due to its accessibility, affordability, and availability as well as a source of a significant portion of their income (A. Doumbouya et al., 2017; B. Belton, S.H. Thilsted, 2014; D. Belhabib et al., 2014; Harper et al., 2013).

Most countries in the region cannot implement Monitoring Surveillance and Control (MCS) systems. Therefore, it has been difficult to gauge the real extent of the impact of IUU fishing in the region even though the pervasiveness of the threat has been documented in the works of literature (A. Doumbouya et al., 2017; D. Belhabib, U.R. Sumaila, V.W.Y. Lam et al., 2015; D. Belhabib, U.R. Sumaila, D. Pauly, 2015). Onuoha (2012) asserted that the country loses an estimated US\$800 million annually. However, more than a paucity of data is needed to support the assertion (Okafor-Yarwood, 2019). The NGO's literature indicated the overarching influence on local communities due to IUU fishing. INTERPOL (2014) notes that IUU fishing and other associated crimes destabilize the sustainability of marine living resources and threaten littoral communities' economic, social, and political stability. The report states the impact of unsustainable fishing practices in traditional fishing communities in Nigeria, where the continued existence is threatened.

To fulfill the responsibilities of the member state to protect and preserve the marine environment, the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Seas, Part XII (Art. 192) noted that "states have the right to exploit their natural resources pursuant to their environmental policies and in accordance with their duty to protect and preserve the marine environment" (UNCLOS, 1982). However, many countries in the region favor economic profit in the short term instead of sustainable development. The need for people and environment in the circumstance of the resources has been over-exploited (FAO, 2005). It argues that the governments should apply a more robust and effective fisheries management regime and engage fishing stakeholders to eradicate IUU fishing.

Regional Organizations play an important role in implementing new laws and the financial commitment to support relevant agencies. For example, the African Union, to ensure the optimum maximization of the fisheries resources, discussed at the Summit in Lomé in October 2016 (Okafor-Yarwood, 2019). In the practical aspect, the leaders of African countries signed the African Charter on Maritime Security, Safety, and Development, a legally binding instrument aimed at facilitating the consolidation of efforts in combating maritime security threats, promoting trade, and ensuring the sustainable exploitation of Africa's marine resources (AU, 2016).

Eliminating IUU fishing and attaining SDGs can only be achieved with adequate financial and policy makers' support. First, the authorities must assist fishery stakeholders in seeing beyond short-term revenue and applying sustainable fishing measures without degrading their quality of life. Second, MCS measures, including training and infrastructure, require investment. It has been encouraging that some fishery measures, such as Distant Water Fishing Nation (DWFN), intend to meet their food security goals through

their access agreement (WTO, 2015). Finally, in every sense, the SDGs embody the UN's pledge of "no human left behind," which is emphasized by the commitment that "no Goal or target be considered met unless met for all social and economic groups" (UN, 2015). Combating IUU fishing needs the cooperation of all countries and stakeholders in the region. As the evidence has shown, many fisher folks from across the Gulf of Guinea region who depend on fisheries for subsistence already feel left behind as they struggle to make ends meet in the face of the uncertainties caused by IUU fishing. It follows that the link between SDG 14 and the other Goals listed above makes a strong case for this paper to submit that should IUU fishing be allowed to continue unabated, it will be almost impossible for countries in the region to meet the above-listed SDGs.

Revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development to deter IUU fishing

In the scope of global, the United Nations has committed to strengthening fisheries governance and states capacities to prevent, deter and eliminate illegal, unreported, and unregulated (IUU) fishing through the implementation of the FAO Agreement on Port State Measures (PSMA) and complementary instruments and tools (UN, 2022). The Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported, and Unregulated Fishing (Port State Measures Agreement) was adopted by FAO members in November 2009 and entered into force in 2016. Port state control is an effective tool in the regulation of maritime traffic as well as a key tool in addressing vessel safety, environmental performance, and seafarer safety and welfare. It has been applied to fishing vessels in compliance with the principle that "state can assert maximum enforcement jurisdiction over their internal waters" (Telesetsky, 2015). Within the partnership of PSMA, the member states support the administration and implementation of the Agreement in three domains:

- (1) Technical support: FAO developed an online portal for the publicity and dissemination of information provided by the Parties, assisting funding and assisting the Parties in monitoring and assessing the implementation of the Agreement.
- (2) Capacity Building: FAO assisted capacity building to support developing States Parties to meet the needs of PSMA and other FAO members, particularly the least-developed among them and small island developing states (SIDS).
- (3) MCS Measures: It promoted the implementation and further development of complementary tools to combat IUU fishing, such as the Voluntary Guidelines for Catch Documentation Schemes and the Global Record of Fishing Vessels, Refrigerated Transport Vessels, and Supply Vessels.

In regions, Regional Fishery Management Organizations (RFMOs) play key roles in fishery management on high seas where beyond national jurisdiction (UNDESA et al., 2014). Thirteen RFMOs have the mandate to implement binding regulations among their members as well as manage the regional area (Table 1). It is important that RFMOs establish binding standards and guidelines, as national laws are severely limited in application to international waters. One important aspect is the collection of data. The increasing application of monitoring control and surveillance systems provides an opportunity to collect these data also to ensure compliance with existing resolutions and measures. Moreover, there is a strong push for member states to enforce the UNFSA and the FAO Port State Measures Agreement. These latter instruments would provide another layer of monitoring and surveillance of working conditions.

Table1

Acronyms and Full Name for Regional Fishery Management Organizations	
<i>Acronym</i>	<i>Full Name</i>
CCAMLR	Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources
CCSBT	Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna
GFCM	General Fisheries Commission of the Mediterranean
IATTC	Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission
ICCAT	International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas
IOTC	Indian Ocean Tuna Commission
NAFO	Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization
NEAFC	North East Atlantic Fisheries Organization
NPFC	North Pacific Fisheries Commission
SEAFO	Southeast Atlantic Fisheries Organization
SIOFA	Southern Indian Ocean Fisheries Agreement
SPRFMO	South Pacific Fisheries Management Organization
WCPFC	Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission

Non-government organizations and the private sector can also impact the sustainable development goal by activating the marketing mechanism and people's awareness. The Marine Stewardship Council (MSC), established in 1996, is an example of an approach to facilitate fishery management and sustainable development as outside state-based governance through market mechanisms with product certificates and ecolabels (Potts & Haward, 2007). The MSC set a series of standards within the certification of the sustainable fishery to issue the logo of MSC that influences consumer behavior and provides price signals (Potts, 2006; Lee, 2009). The MSC Fisheries Standard has three core principles that every fishery must meet: (1) Sustainable fish stocks; (2) Minimizing environmental impact; (3) Effective fisheries management. These three principles are significant to attain the SDGs, and the third principle is the most relevant to combating IUU fishing. Principle 3 states:

"The fishery is subject to an effective management system that respects local, national, and international laws and standards and incorporates institutional and operational frameworks that require the use of the resource to be responsible and sustainable (MSC, 2018)." According to Principle 3, the stakeholders must comply with international, regional, and national laws and the regulations enforced by RFMOS (Haas et al., 2019). The MSC promotes the certificates, which are believed to grow and maintain the number of sustainable fish populations. Since the MSC was founded in 1997, fisheries responsible for around 15% of marine catch have been certified to the MSC Fisheries Standard, and fisheries have so far made over 2000 improvements to their performance and management (MSC, 2022). The MSC argues that the marine stakeholders work together to thrive in a sustainable fishery and have strong management systems to detect any sustainability violations, including under serious pressure from IUU fishing activities.



Conclusion

In this article, we argued that IUU fishing is impossible to be eliminated by seeing as a target of SDG 14 without adequate attention being given to other SDGs issues, such as ending poverty, food security, decent working environment, and local education. It has been stated that SDG 14 is the foundation to deter IUU fishing but also requires support from other SDGs. However, in the discussion above, it has shown clear short in building the partnership and networking of fishery stakeholders. Thus, it suggested a key measure forward to strengthen the global fisheries governance and states capacities to eliminate IUU fishing is to actively explore the implementation of SDG 17: Partnership for the Goal. Connecting SDG 14 with other SDGs through the multilateral partnership is a necessary mechanism that means, inter alia, including economic and social considerations. FAO’s PSMA and MSC certificates, which are good examples, have developed programs and instruments to eliminate IUU fishing that push hard on particular issues, such as maritime security and seafood sustainability. Partnerships between multiple issues to coordinate the development and implementation of effective measures are argued to establish. IUU fishing is a complex problem that requires RFMOs, responsible for international fisheries, to act and implement resolutions or binding conservation and management measures, and work with marine stakeholders to create the space for negotiation. There is increasing engagement from non-state actors, and market states integrate the fishing sectors’ social, economic, and security issues. Therefore, it would be likely to explore further the possibility of ending IUU fishing.



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2.14 Paper



The Weaponization of Artificial Intelligence Threatens International Peace and Security, and the United Nations' Response

by Kathryn Lehnerer

Advisor: Yuriy Sergeyev

Breakthroughs in computer science technology and machine learning have rapidly advanced artificial intelligence capabilities, and the weaponization of these intelligent systems poses severe implications for international peace and security. Broadly defined, artificial intelligence, also referred to as AI, is a simulation of “computational techniques that allow computers and robots to solve complex, seemingly abstract problems that had previously yielded only to human cognition” (Boulainin, 2019). AI is essentially engineering machines and software capable of mimicking human-like behavior and intelligence, in turn making aspects of our lives easier, but when deliberately integrated into militarized systems or machinery, it can cause devastating disruptions to the global community.

The weaponization of artificial intelligence in the military sector is manifesting at expeditious speeds through technological advancements using autonomous, autonomy and automated mechanical responses. Often in research, these terms are used interchangeably, but they do have distinctions setting them apart that are helpful when looking at them conceptually. Weaponized artificial intelligence (WAI), also referred to as “algorithmic warfare” by the US Department of Defense (DoD), uses AI to “deliberately inflict harm on human beings by integrating it into the system and tools of national militaries” (Suhaib, 2021). These enhancements in robotics are readily used to “develop and deploy fully autonomous weapons systems” (Suhaib, 2021). Autonomous artificial intelligence is technology that can “independently compose and select among different courses of action to accomplish goals based on its knowledge and understanding of the world, itself, and the situation” (Boulainin, 2019). Meaning once these AI-advanced software systems are activated, they have the capabilities to execute actions with expected outcomes without human intervention. This highly developed and complex technology can have fixed goals, such as locating, identifying, attacking, and killing human targets if weaponized (Suhaib, 2021).

Another algorithm of artificial intelligence that is highly debated due to its military applications is autonomy. A robot that uses autonomy relies on various inputs to understand its environment rather than relying on physical infrastructure. These systems are built to “respond to sensory input and step through predefined procedures, and whose functioning cannot accommodate uncertainties in the operating environment” (Boulainin, 2019). This operating system reduces the need for constant communication between the operators and analysts, and executes the mission faster than a human operator could.

In addition to the previously mentioned technological developments, automated systems pose a threat when weaponized using AI. Automated systems operate based on “prescriptive rules that permit no

divisions,” and this system “logically follows a predefined set of rules in order to provide an outcome, its output is predictable if the set of rules under which it operates is known” (Boulainin, 2019). Therefore, an automated system has parameters and restrictions it abides by when fulfilling tasks, and the decisions are based on predetermined solutions. The stark variation between the three systems mentioned above is the system’s ability to adapt and learn based on the data it ingests in an environment. Based on the program contemplated when the system was deployed, it can familiarize itself with the changes within a dynamic environment, learning from the information it collects and presenting reliable records of that data. If the system were not intended to have decision-making capabilities, allowing it to adapt to external conditions, it would find solutions based on human input.

Artificial intelligence is at the core of the power dynamic between states. This constant competition for developing new technological advancements leads us towards a path of futuristic warfare that sees no bounds. This research aims to describe the challenges that arise when artificial intelligence is weaponized and used as a threat to international peace and security. This paper will also cover the United Nations’ actions to prevent or mitigate the weaponization of AI, as well as any disagreements UN member states have regarding the impact WAI has on human rights, international law, and global military deterrence. Lastly, this paper will summarize approaches experts have suggested in reducing the risks weaponized artificial intelligence poses to humanity. Considering the rising safety concerns these recent advances in AI have on nuclear weapons, strategic stability, and international security, this subject should be further analyzed to better understand the development and trajectory of this quickly advancing AI-enabled technology.

Section One: Challenges of WAI to International Peace and Security

Artificial intelligence has a dual nature, it can be constructed to better our lives, providing ease and accessibility, but simultaneously, this technology can be used to cause significant harm to humanity if weaponized. Due to the duality of AI, concerns have risen over the extensive developments made in this field, especially considering its increased use in military applications, leading to a drastic increase in lethality, possibly altering the nature of war forever (Suhaib, 2021). Advancements in AI technologies play a hugely important role in our everyday lives, making society nearly dependent on these tools. These AI-enabled advancements that are “revolutionizing the way we live” are the algorithms that enable objects to recognize one’s facial features authorizing a smart device to unlock, voice-activated virtual assistants, and the programming that instantaneously separates emails into various folders, including junk emails being flagged and sent to spam (Suhaib, 2021). The features that are moving humanity forward and pose enormous potential are the same algorithms being readily weaponized and used in technologies with lethal capabilities, such as the object-oriented software tested on rifles in the military to identify targets (Suhaib, 2021). The same software applications saving and bettering lives in fields such as education, healthcare, agriculture, and logistics are the same technologies causing massive concern worldwide due to their capacity to cause lethal outcomes, leading to breaches in international peace and security (Suhaib, 2021).

The rate at which national militaries develop complex AI algorithmic systems is rapidly accelerating. The tools they integrate into the programming are exceptionally thought out, making the systems intelligent with human-like processing capabilities. Some of the tools incorporated into these systems include autonomous

sensors for data collection and specialized software that enables threat recognition. In real-time, we are watching nations develop and deploy semi and fully autonomous weapons, “leading us towards autonomous wars where Lethal Autonomous Weapons Systems (LAWS)” or Autonomous Weapons Systems (AWS) are the soldiers fighting in these conflicts, rather than humans (Suhaib, 2021). The trend of using these automated systems reduces the need for people on the battlefield but, concurrently, enlarges the magnitude of the conflict, putting more lives at risk. National militaries can weaponize AI due to these advanced algorithms that “commercial companies like IBM, Amazon, and Microsoft” have created and presented to them with the knowledge it would then be used in a potentially lethal capacity (Suhaib, 2021). The rate at which this cutting-edge technology is developed and distributed across the globe has facilitated fierce competition among nations to incorporate these algorithms into their equipment to support more aspects of war. States, individually and collectively, have been accelerating their efforts to gain a competitive edge, leading to potentially devastating implications for the safety and security of the world.

Countries worldwide have already begun incorporating AI in their warfare to improve the speed, accuracy, and persistence of their machinery. One example is when Israel produced a loitering machine named Harpy in the 1980s capable of being autonomously airborne, searching for signals embedded into its programming that indicated a threat, identifying the target, and sending off explosives to eliminate the perceived enemy (Suhaib, 2021). Harpy was an unmanned aerial vehicle (UVA), most commonly referred to as a drone, which was guided remotely with a vast range capability of approximately 500 km (Suhaib, 2021). Equipment such as Harpy is highly sought after by other countries given its effectiveness at meeting its objective, and being compact, making it virtually undetectable when flying. Considering its desirable aspects, “Israel sold some 100 Harpys to China for about \$55-70 million,” impacting the relationship between the United States and Israel (Suhaib, 2021). This technology poses an extreme challenge for future warfare in the case that a country sends off a swarm of UVAs selecting humans as its intended target, leading to catastrophic loss of human life, as well as potentially escalating tensions between countries over the influence AI has in the nature of conflict and violence.

The usage and adoption of these advanced semi and fully autonomous technological systems quickly entering into military operations worldwide pose a considerable threat when considering the gap in wealth distribution among nations. Countries that are not abundantly wealthy lack the resources and feasibility to enact AI-enabled technologies for military offensive or protective purposes. This concern has already been brought forth at the General Assembly by a Cuban diplomat in the discussions for the characterization of autonomous operating systems stating, “we are all aware that a developing country does not have the technology that we are discussing today. How are we going to defend ourselves?” (The, 2019). With these stark financial disparities, it is apparent that countries that lack the resources and financial assets to weaponize artificial intelligence are increasingly concerned with powerful developed countries using these highly advanced robotic systems in military applications against developing countries, causing a sizable disadvantage. Consequently, this revolution in technology breakthroughs could “widen the gap between rich and poor nations by shifting more investment to advanced economies where automation is already established,” further accelerating global wealth inequality (Alonso, 2020). Thus leading to growing frustration which could materialize political behaviors undermining international security and peace interests.

Another concern that is presented when AI is weaponized is the ethical dimensions involved in the implementation of these technologies. Although these systems are embedded with “deep learning algorithms” that can provide actionable insights, without proper mitigation, problems can occur, such as

“bias against underrepresented groups such as women and ethnic minorities,” due to the lack of human judgment (Liu, 2022). In a large-scale adoption of these data-driven algorithms augmented to present human-like responses, biases can be inadvertently introduced into these designs, potentially harmful consequences for a large population.

A further challenge with the growing competition between nations’ desire to develop algorithmic warfare is the need for more transparency around the capabilities of these advancements and the intentions behind these developments. It is becoming increasingly unclear what the nations intend to do with these lethal robots, leaving people to believe that ethics overshadows fundamental issues. The issues WAI poses to international peace and security remain unresolved, demonstrating the need for balance between the rules and principles for an effective and safe application of artificial intelligence, even when used in militarized operating environments.

Section Two: International Community Managing The Risks Presented by WAI

In response to the risks that the weaponization of artificial intelligence poses to international peace and security, the international community has taken actions to prevent or mitigate the risks caused by the lack of regulations for autonomous weapons. Although participating states differ in their perception regarding the definitions of autonomous systems and whether legally binding international bans are necessary, multilateral discussions regarding autonomy in weapon systems have been a highly coveted topic in the international community, including at the United Nations.

The “UN Office for Disarmament Affairs, the Stimson Center, and the Stanley Center for Peace and Security” facilitated a discussion for stakeholders on the overlap of AI and military capabilities (Sission, 2020). Over two days, experts from “member states, industry, academia, and research institutions” participated in an open dialogue covering “The Militarization of Artificial Intelligence,” agreeing that there remains uncertainty about the generated risks that come with this domain, causing heightened perceptions of fear and continued debate regarding the tradeoffs with these innovations (Sission, 2020). Holding discussions is a preliminary step toward a compromise between states, determining the degree of the “importance of human control” and collectively agreeing on a “common definition of this concept” so we can move forward in the decision-making process (Nadibaidze, 2021). However, the constant discrepancies among states over the defining terms of WAI and LAWS create massive disruptions to the global debate, causing any binding agreements on possible regulations to stall, and the risks to international security remain.

The public is becoming increasingly aware of AI technologies causing legal, ethical, and security risks, which has led groups to call for their nations to begin negotiations for an international treaty that limits the application of WAI and LAWS. In general, people are aware that the reality of AI-algorithmic weapon systems is already under development, tested and used, “changing the ways that humans are involved in the use of force” (Nadibaidze, 2021). However, “the countries working hardest to build autonomous weapons insist we can’t regulate what doesn’t exist yet,” although simultaneously, their militaries are already in the developing stages with these weapons (The, 2019). Take Russia, for example. The diplomat for the Russian Federation spoke at the General Assembly in opposition to creating legally binding regulations against LAWS stating,

“it is believed that there is no lethal autonomous weapon at the moment and that its development is a question for the future,” while at the same time, the Russian government has planned to acquire thousands of unmanned T-14 Armata battle tanks capable of unmanned combat (The, 2019).

Questions regarding morality, ethics, and accountability arise when AI has autonomous functions, eradicating human control. Diminishing the role of humans in controlling weapon systems is an infringement against the fundamentals of International Humanitarian Law (IHL), considering it does apply to armed conflict (Nadibaidze, 2021). The Nagorno-Karabakh conflict that took place in 2020 is an example of how UAVs breach IHL by the use of weapon systems that have lethal capabilities. In this case, the LAWS was highly effective. However, due to the system’s programming to self-operate without human confirmation, investigators could not determine the “level of human control,” demonstrating the effort to further diminish humans’ responsibilities in conducting militarized weapons (Nadibaidze, 2021). After further evaluation by experts, the weapons systems have been determined to “lack the situation(al) awareness necessary to discriminate between combatants and civilians,” leaving states questioning whether these robots can legitimately recognize the intended target based on features or characteristics it was programmed to be sensitive to (Nadibaidze, 2021). Therefore, numerous states have managed these risks posed by WAI by their reluctance to administer these technologies into their operations, including France who has refused to implement fully autonomous weapons without any human control due to recognized flaws in the technology unable to identify right from wrong.

Given the global arms race has already commenced, this accelerated the notion of globalized deterrence. The introduction of these transformative technologies has challenged states around the world to rethink their usage of these autonomous systems in military operations, taking into consideration the risks and vulnerabilities they present if their equipment is no longer fully operated by human control. Additionally, most states do not want to become exposed to military retaliation by other state leaders with greater military power and resources. Although there remain divisions among states on how to approach these automated technologies in warfare, especially with concerns regarding IHL, security, and ethical accountability, more than 70 states have joined together to strengthen their efforts to address the weaponization of autonomous weapons systems. The joint statement 70 UN Member States issued was the “largest cross-regional group statement ever made throughout UN discussions on the issue,” recognizing that a human element to these military operations should remain (Noor, 2022).

Section Three: Bridging Diversities on WAI and Finding Solutions

Emerging technologies using lethal autonomous weapons systems have demonstrated the diverse attitudes among states on the correct international response in addressing their deployment in the military domain. From the reaction of Ambassadors, UN officials, and experts, the call for an urgent response in this matter is recognized. The initiative shown by these groups has set into motion negotiations over an international framework encompassing these new and emerging autonomous applications. Implementing internationally agreed-upon rules and regulations around when and where LAWS are “appropriate and necessary” will assist in the bridging of diversities on WAI (Noor, 2022).

One of the most influential international organizations in formulating international standards and facilitating partnerships is the United Nations. The work done by United Nations officials and UN Member States have been pivotal in our progress towards responding to the threats algorithmic warfare poses on international peace and security. For instance, the UNs Secretary General, Antonio Guterres, urged AI experts to meet in Geneva to “push ahead with their work to restrict the development of lethal autonomous weapons systems,” announcing, “discretion to take lives without human involvement is politically unacceptable, morally repugnant and should be prohibited by international law” (United, 2019). Through regularly facilitated meetings, Member States are provided a forum to express their perspectives on elements surrounding emerging technologies, such as risk assessments, obligations to IHL, security dilemmas, and international peace.

Although Member States have not yet reached a clear and concise solution, the United Nations offers an encouraging platform furthering the dialogue between nations on the “development of possible governance approaches,” broadening their understanding of the “benefits, risk, governance, and challenges” of applying these technologies in military format (Sisson, 2020). Doing so will assist in increased transnational cooperation and compromise between participating states leading to considerable progress in the decision-making process to establish globally recognized and agreed definitions for the concepts. Massive uncertainty is caused due to the international debate on defining LAWS and the “basic principles about responsible use of weaponized AI” (Nadibaidze, 2021). With the role that the UN plays as a mediator, promoting diplomacy and preventing conflicts, continuing these spaces for States to converse is an essential step in preventing security risks relating to using WAI and maintaining international peace.

Section Four: Summary

Artificial intelligence is a massive threat to international peace and security with its revolutionary military applications. Aspects of semi and fully autonomous AI components are integrated into weapons used by national militaries, leading to potentially catastrophic loss and devastation. Some of these weapons are designed with human-like behavioral capabilities, no longer relying on humans to send commands. Unsurprisingly, countries disagree over applying these futuristic systems and whether they violate international humanitarian law and pose severe risks to international peace and security.

This research covered the challenges that are present with these algorithmic applications in warfare, including its capacity for increased lethality, altering how we fight wars, the effect it has on emphasizing the gap in wealth distribution among nations, ethical concerns arising from potential biases embedded into the programming, and the growing competition between countries to develop more advanced AI-machinery, diminishing the transparency for intentions and capabilities of the weapons. This paper also covered the actions taken by the United Nations and UN Member States to mitigate the weaponization of AI and their disagreements regarding the impact it has on international human rights law, international law, and global deterrence. Lastly, the paper touched on the approaches recommended by experts at the United Nations for reducing the risks of WAI, bridging divisions on the issue, and finding possible solutions. Although WAI is an unresolved issue for the United Nations and its Members, there have been demonstrations of widespread commitment from nations showing their willingness to compromise and establish a better international framework for autonomous weapons systems to mitigate further the potentially catastrophic losses posed by these quickly advancing technology. These efforts by Member States, international organizations, experts, and academics show that as a world, we are getting closer to having a more unified front on revolutionary technologies, making our communities and countries safer and promoting international peace.

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2.16 Paper



Globalization and transnational organized crime - UN in countering illicit drug trafficking

by **Leslie S. Weiler**

John Jay College of Criminal Justice

Advisor: **Dr. Yuriy Sergeyev**

Globalization, defined as the “increasing connectedness and interdependence of world cultures and economics” (National Geographic, n.d.) is a phenomenon which continues to influence global processes in all areas of human life, including transnational organized crime. The United Nations (UN) has long been committed to countering all areas of transnational organized crime. However, globalization has presented unique challenges to the UN’s approaches whilst simultaneously aiding their cause. The purpose of the present research is to explore the extent to which globalization helps or hinders the UN’s efforts in combatting illicit drug trafficking, which is an example of a transnational organized crime. In order to do so, the following will a) explain the relationship between globalization and transnational organized crime, b) illustrate the effects of globalization on illicit drug trafficking by discussing current statistics and specific examples, and c) analyze the UN’s role, efforts, and challenges in countering illicit drug trafficking.

Globalization and transnational organized crime

Recent trends in transnational crime have been affected by many things, one of which is globalization. The latest wave of globalization has been described as providing both opportunities and challenges to organized criminal groups, as new markets were opened but not all of the established groups took the chance to expand upon their local ties and influences (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). Many of the smaller groups might have been alienated by the fast opening of global markets and were weary of expanding their businesses due to fears of losing their local territories. However, illicit commerce has globalized at least at the same speed as licit commerce has globalized (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). This development has allowed for effortless communications and the abuse of global shipping patterns to smuggle illicit goods (Forest, 2020). Specifically, the dark web has allowed for greater access to goods and services on a global scale (Forest, 2020), as it is now a lot easier for transnational criminal groups to not only communicate to each other but to establish global markets involving producers and customers in various nations across the globe.

Additionally, the growth of transnational crime in the era of globalization has also brought a threat to the rule of law in many countries. This is a large obstacle to any efforts regarding sustainable development or economic growth (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). Transnational organized crime

is increasingly threatening nation states, as it undermines governance and stability, causing a loss of trust among populations (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). It has often been cited that a regulation vacuum was created for transnational organized crime to exist in when globalization outpaced global governance (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). With decreasing costs of transporting goods, criminal groups were able to maximize their profits as the demand for drugs is on the rise globally (Forest, 2020). Globalization has made it possible to establish facilities, warehouses and other relevant infrastructure in different regions of the world, significantly enhancing the activities of transnational criminal organizations. However, it has to be noted that this rise in transnational organized crime is closely linked to market economics regarding supply and demand for illicit goods and services on a global scale, as the groups involved with transnational crime have become less important than the markets they operate in (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010).

Illicit drug trafficking in the era of globalization

Focusing in on illicit drug trafficking as an example of transnational organized crime, it is important to first look at the effects globalization has had on market. It is hard to measure the total value of this ever-growing market but most estimates put its value at over 500 billion US dollars per year (Jenner, 2011). The estimated 200+ million drug users worldwide make up 3% of the world population (Jenner, 2011). However, with current trends in legalization of certain drugs in various countries and the dark figure of crime the true numbers might be a lot higher.

As globalization progresses, so do certain social issues in different countries. What benefits some, might seriously disadvantage others. One resulting trend are income inequalities, which have been shown to create growing markets for smugglers, as increased economic migration makes it easier to move large amounts of product across borders without detection (Pecteu, 2017). Further, the increased use of the internet and especially the evolution of the dark web have allowed for the facilitation of new online marketplaces (Pecteu, 2017), making it very easy for smugglers to organize their illicit trades.

In terms of demand it can be said that globalization had a positive effect on the global demand for drugs. For example, due to decreased risks of detection and increased efficiency of smuggling operations the price of cocaine severely decreased over time (Pecteu, 2017). Consequently, this led to increases in the amount of users globally, which has increased by 32% since 2010 (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2022a). Looking at Europe's market for cocaine it becomes evident that globalization has made increased volumes of cocaine available, leading to rising consumption and demand as prices are falling. Studies showed that in 2008 the price for one gram of cocaine in Europe was half of what it had been in 1990 (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010).

Not only has globalization affected demand and marketing of drugs but also their movement around the globe. From 1985 to 2005 world container traffic increased tenfold, while the amount of time to inspect goods at ports of entry has drastically decreased (Pecteu, 2017).

This is mainly due to the speed and amount of products which are shipped around the globe every day. This speed and volume increase of licit shipping has helped drug traffickers to more effectively move product across the globe for a lot less money.

Therefore, the processes described above are all interconnected and do by no means happen in a vacuum, as they are fully dependent on each other. Very recently this interdependence could be witnessed in Russia. With an estimated 1.5 million users, Russia is the largest national heroin consumer in the world, while Afghanistan supplies about 95% of global heroin (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). Traditionally, heroin among other drugs was mainly sold in Russia through a dark web marketplace called Hydra (Rogulin, 2022). However, when Russia started its war on Ukraine and as a result was sanctioned by many countries around the world, German investigators shut down Hydra (Rogulin, 2022). This led to a major crash in Russia's drug market, as the migration of sales to other marketplaces meant a decline in the purity of heroin, along with the unavailability of drugs which had traditionally come to Russia from Europe, such as MDMA (Rogulin, 2022). However, the interdependence of factors also helped the Russian illicit market to recover from the initial negative consequences of the sanctions, as substitute drugs were quickly found (Rogulin, 2022), showing that the interdependence of processes can go both ways, positive and negative.

UN in countering illicit drug trafficking

The UN plays a vital role in countering illicit drug trafficking, as it is the only universal global organization with the power to coin legal instruments for the consolidation of global efforts in the fight against drug crimes. This section will therefore look at the UN governing bodies, legal instruments, and partners in the fight against illicit drug trafficking.

UN bodies governing global efforts

There are five main governing bodies within the UN which are worth mentioning when it comes to countering illicit drug trafficking, as they are responsible for most if not all of the action on this issue. First, the UN Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is the biggest of the aforementioned five main governing bodies. The mission of this office is to “contribute to global peace and security, human rights and development by making the world safer from drugs, crime, corruption and terrorism” (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2021). In order to achieve these goals the office provides practical assistance and encourages transnational approaches.

Three of the five specified areas of activity of the office relate to drug trafficking: Strengthening member states' capacity to confront threats from transnational organized crime, strengthening crime prevention and building effective criminal justice systems, supporting member states in building a balanced comprehensive and evidence-based approach to the world drug problem that addresses both supply and demand (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2018).

Second, the Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND), was established in 1946 in order to assist UNODC in supervising the application of international drug treaties. This commission, which has 53 member states, reviews and analyzes the global drug situation and aims to reduce supply and demand levels for illicit drugs through the adoption of decisions and resolutions (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, n.d.c).

Third, the International Narcotics Control Board (INCB) is an independent, quasi-judicial expert body working to control illicit drug trafficking. The board consists of 13 members which are elected by the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) every five years. These members then monitor the implementation of the UN international drug control conventions and conduct training programs and dialogues for and with government officials (International Narcotics Control Board, n.d.).

Fourth, the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ) is the principal policymaking body of the UN in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice. It offers a forum for the exchange of expertise, experience and information by all UN member states. CCPCJ has 40 member states, working on the development of policies based on UN resolutions, which are elected by ECOSOC (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, n.d.a).

Finally, the Paris Pact is comprised of 58 states and 23 international organizations to specifically tackle opiate trafficking from Afghanistan. This pact focuses on implementing alternative development projects in Afghanistan to limit the amount of illicit drug trafficking out of the country (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2018).

UN legal instruments

However, the aforementioned governing bodies could not function well and effectively without appropriate legal instruments. While there is a wide range of policies and resolutions developed by the UN in regards to illicit drug trafficking over the years, the following will focus on 6 main documents which guide UN action against drug trafficking.

First, the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime was adopted in 2000 and has 190 state parties to it. This is the main international legal instrument to fight transnational crime by eliminating differences among legal systems and setting minimum common standards for domestic law to achieve effective global cooperation. Pursuant to Article 32, a conference was established to promote and review the implementation of this convention (United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocols Thereto, 2000).

Second, the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs was adopted in 1961 and aims to combat drug abuse through coordinated international action. More specifically, this convention clearly outlines that to combat illicit trafficking through international action states have to limit production, possession, trade, and use of illegal drugs (United Nations Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, 1961).

Third, the Convention on Psychotropic Substances was adopted in 1971 and established an international control system for psychotropic substances. It was also the first UN convention in this area to look at the therapeutic value and abuse potential of certain drugs when classifying and controlling them (United Nations Convention on Psychotropic Substances, 1971).

Fourth, the Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances introduced comprehensive measures against drug trafficking when it was adopted in 1988. Specifically, the convention seeks to achieve global cooperation on this issue through the extradition of traffickers, their controlled deliveries to other countries, and the transfer of proceedings (United

Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances, 1988).

Lastly, the final two resolutions are 61/186 and 76/188. Both are international drug control resolutions aimed at enhancing global cooperation. While the former was adopted in 2006 and mainly concerns international drug trade, the latter was adopted in 2021 and therefore provides a more current strategy to international cooperation in countering the global drug problem. This is not to say that the former resolution is less relevant, as it even mentioned the earlier discussed interdependence of processes relating to the global drug market: “Increasing interdependence of national economies in a globalizing world (...) have meant that the space for national economic policy (...) is now often framed by international disciplines” (United Nations Resolution 61/186, 2006, p2). This quote, as well as all previously mentioned legal instruments place great focus on international cooperation in countering illicit drug trafficking, as it is not possible for a single state to combat a criminal issue which affects multiple nations.

Therefore, it is worth mentioning that illicit drug trafficking is part of the permanent agenda of the 77th UN General Assembly of 2022. The issue runs under item 111, while international drug control is a separate item (United Nations General Assembly, 2022), showing that the UN recognizes these two topics as issues that are to be dealt with individually, as fixing the drug trafficking problem might not fix issues on drug control and vice versa.

UN partners

While there are a multitude of UN partner organizations, there is one which is specifically noteworthy when discussing the topic of transnational crime. Interpol is the International Criminal Police Organization and has 195 member countries (Interpol, 2022b). The role of Interpol is to allow member countries to share and access relevant data, and offering technical and operational support where needed, which can take the form of police training (Interpol, 2022b). The main areas in which Interpol works and collects data from its member countries are terrorism, cybercrime, and all forms of organized crime, under which illicit drug trafficking falls. Specifically, in fighting drug trafficking Interpol coordinates investigations and operations which are led by national or international agencies in order to disrupt the movement of product along certain known smuggling routes (Interpol, 2022a).

At this time it should be very clear that the UN places great value on international cooperation in fighting transnational crimes. As has been said, successful combatting of transnational crime does not happen in a global vacuum, but through the effective coordination between affected countries. In this sense globalization can be seen as a great catalyst of effective strategies against drug trafficking, as it allows for improved communication and data sharing among countries. With globalization it has become possible to build large databases and collect mass amounts of data on successful and unsuccessful policy decisions worldwide and comprise databases revealing current trends on the global drug market. Therefore, in this sense globalization has really aided the UN's efforts in fighting transnational crime by easing communications between countries.

What hinders the UN?

However, there are several factors which need to be considered before drawing the conclusion that globalization has helped international drug trafficking responses. While it was indeed helpful in this realm, it can also hinder the UN's efforts. Further, there are other influences on the effectiveness of UN-led efforts in fighting illicit drug trafficking.

One very big factor which continues to undermine the UN's efforts is corruption. While it is self-evident that corruption within a state and its government undermines the achievement of the sustainable development goals set forth by the UN General Assembly (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, n.d.b), the connection to globalization and organized crime might not be as clear cut. Research has shown that in nations where governmental corruption is an issue crime rates and therefore levels of violence are higher (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, n.d.b). This creates a vicious cycle, by which high levels of violence fuel corruption and vice versa. This is something that transnational crime groups such as drug traffickers are not unaware of. These groups oftentimes exploit the opportunities for corruption that are presented to them by weak governmental and social structures within a given country, therefore feeding into the cycle of violence. The UN's efforts to fight transnational organized crime through international cooperation are herein jeopardized, as corrupt governments do not make great partners. Similarly, a lack of commitment, regardless of corruption levels, by governments jeopardizes UN efforts. However, it has to be mentioned that this lack of commitment might in some cases be resource-based, because certain countries might not have the means to effectively implement policies put forth by the UN. Therefore, a line is to be drawn between states who hinder UN efforts through corruption and non-compliance in the absence of will and countries who hinder UN efforts through non-compliance in the absence of resources. It is obvious that from a UN perspective it is much easier to deal with situations involving the latter, since these can be helped with the provision of resources, while the former require more comprehensive intervention.

Another big influence on UN efforts is climate change. According to the most recent UN World Drug Report the impact of climate change on drug production and trafficking can be very significant at the local, community, and individual level (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2022b). The increased and continued use of fertilizers and pesticides, along with the dumping of waste in local water sources, as well as deforestation all create adverse living conditions for populations in areas of drug cultivation and production, which might in turn cause migration patterns, as people are trying to leave affected areas (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2022b). Therefore, UN action to fight illicit drug trafficking is hindered by climate change, since drug production increases its effect on local populations. Here, the UN will need to work very closely with its partners in the environmental sector, as the fight against transnational crime can go hand in hand with efforts to combat climate change.

Next, global economic crises such as the inflation many countries are facing currently, also have an adverse effect on the UN's work to fight transnational crime. Looking at Mexico it can be seen that globalization has caused a lot of international competition in the manufacturing sector, which caused a huge wave of job loss in Mexico (Dell, 2019). These job losses and the ensuing alienation and frustration with the Mexican government was then exploited by drug traffickers, as they provided employment opportunities in their ranks (Dell, 2019). Once more globalization has hindered UN crime fighting, as it amplifies the problem of drug trafficking through decreasing licit labor forces while increasing illicit job markets in certain countries.

Finally, the arguably biggest outcome of globalization was the improvement of communication services and an increase in technology access. While the positive effects of this have been described earlier, this change also has negative consequences in the area of combatting transnational crime. The ease of online trade has created countless possibilities for criminal networks to evade detection (Reuter, 2001). For example, by using cryptocurrency as payments in drug transactions, all parties involved in the deal can effectively conceal their identities and therefore avoid financial control (Reuter, 2001). The new forms of communication have helped to create networks of transnational drug traffickers, leading to illicit trade today being as globalized as licit trade (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2010). This allows smugglers to easily adapt to interventions by local governments or international organizations such as the UN. In turn, this creates immense difficulties for law enforcement to control drug supply and trafficking. Further, the use of unmanned marine and air vehicles has started a new era of drug trafficking (Klein & McLaughlin, 2022). Due to issues within international law, it is currently unclear how governments can react to such operations, as the law is ambiguous about accountability and jurisdiction in such cases (Klein & McLaughlin, 2022). Hence, the new technologies developed through globalization are a great obstacle to UN efforts when it comes to fighting illicit drug trafficking. They have allowed for grey areas to develop which will need to be dealt with by the international legal community, if the fight against transnational organized crime is to be effective.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be said that the trend of globalization both helps and hinders the UN's efforts in combatting illicit drug trafficking. Improved communications and interdependence of processes have been identified as the main outcomes of globalization. Here it is important to realize that what might be useful to the UN in fostering international cooperation and communication, might be equally useful to criminal networks in organizing and concealing their shipments. The fight against transnational organized crime is not a straightforward one, as many factors need to be considered. Ultimately, the winner will be the one utilizing the positive outcomes of globalization to his advantage more effectively.

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2.17 Paper



Violence Against Women The Impact of The Shadow Pandemic and Civil and Political Violence in Iran

by **Maria Simonetti**

John Jay College of Criminal Justice

Advisors: **Jelena Pia-Comella and Cemre Ulker**

Women's rights and gender equality remain significant concerns on an international level despite the great strides made over the years. The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights, adopted in 1948, addressed equality and equity issues and has since worked diligently to protect these issues and human rights for women. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), often described as the international bill of rights for women, was ratified on September 3, 1981, albeit several member states, including Iran, Palau, Somalia, Sudan, Tonga, and the United States have not ratified the Convention. This treaty was put in place to help women around the world combat various issues on discrimination, gender equality, fundamental freedoms, trafficking and exploitation, civil and political rights, violence against women, and many other issues. This paper will discuss current issues on violence against women, focusing on the global pandemic related to domestic violence, known as the 'Shadow Pandemic,' and also discuss Iran's civil and political unrest after the death of Mahsa Amini. The main purpose of this essay is to show that violence against women continues to be a global problem. As our world continues to evolve and goes through events such as a global pandemic or political unrest in conflict States, violence against women remains a global problem today.

A Background on Women's Rights and Violence against Women United Nations Framework and Activism

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (CEDAW) has received nearly universal ratification except for some States, as mentioned in the introduction. It is an international human rights treaty focusing on women's rights and issues worldwide with the following three principles: substantive equality, non-discrimination, and state obligation. CEDAW was the first step to developing a standard for the fundamental human rights of women. Since its inception, it has addressed eliminating all forms of discrimination against women in all areas of life, ensuring that human rights and fundamental freedoms are afforded the same as they are to men. This Convention contains six parts comprised of 30 articles, all of which address the treatment of women; However, there is no direct wording in the Articles that condemn violence against women; it is evident that several Articles point out the issues that relate to them. Starting with Article 1, which defines the term *discrimination against women*, it means that any distinction, exclusion, or restriction made on the basis of sex and the basis of equality of men and women, or human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field. Article 2 – 'declare intent to enshrine general equality into their domestic legislation,' and to 'guarantee women effective protection against discrimination' – this Article is vital because equality can be seen as the baseline of how women are discriminated against or in a position where they are submissive, with rigid gender roles. Article 5 calls out prejudice of stereotypes of roles between men and women to eliminate social and cultural or customary practices of inferiority and superiority; this Article address hierarchy and the many issues of women being placed in a lower status in society. Article 7 guarantees equality in political and public life concerning participation in government and non-governmental organizations. These Articles, in particular, substantiate the points addressed in this paper.

Overseeing the Committee, a U.N. body establishes rules and procedures to ensure that rules within CEDAW are followed and continuously evolve, focusing on different women's rights issues. The Committee addresses such concerns through reports of progress made by member states and offers advice and general recommendations that further focus on CEDAW obligations. General recommendations are conceived by a dialog between the Committee, U.N. bodies, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs); the recommendation is drafted and discussed during the next session. Several key general recommendations have focused directly on violence against women.



Commemoration on 40th Anniversary of Women's Convention 12/18/2019

UN PHOTO/MANUEL ELÍAS



Meeting of States Parties to Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. 11/9/2020

UN PHOTO/EVAN SCHNEIDER

General Recommendations Related to Violence Against Women

General recommendations have been added over the years since CEDAWs inception; these recommendations focus on issues affecting women that state parties should devote more attention to (OHCHR, 2022). To date, the Committee has adopted 39 general recommendations; however, for the sake of this paper, we will focus on several recommendations, with the main focus on the issue of violence against women, including general recommendations no. 12, 19, and 35. We will go through each of these recommendations and note their primary roles.

General Recommendation No. 12 (1989)

In the eighth session, violence against women was first introduced and brought recommendations to State parties, including legislation to protect women against the incidence of all kinds of violence in everyday life. It mentioned sexual violence, family abuse, and sexual harassment in the workplace, measures to eradicate such violence, the existence of support services for women who are victims of aggression or abuse, and statistical data on these incidents.

General Recommendation No. 19 (1992)

In the 11th session in 1992, this general recommendation gained status in international law to the violence against women as inferring violence as a form of discrimination. The Committee defined “violence against women” during this session, essentially stating that the violence directed at a woman is because she is a woman and affects women disproportionately; it is defined as:

The definition of discrimination includes gender-based violence, that is, violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately. It includes acts that inflict physical, mental, or sexual harm or suffering, threats of such acts, coercion, and other deprivations of liberty. Gender-based violence may breach specific provisions of the Convention, regardless of whether those provisions expressly mention violence. (CEDAW Committee 1992: para. 6)

General Recommendation No. 35 (2017)

On July 14, 2017, CEDAW issued General Recommendation 35, which focused on the issue of violence against women, updating the general recommendation no. 19. This recommendation argues that there is no justification for gender-based violence, and it prohibits it, making it international customary law; this type of violence must be forbidden in all states. Additionally, general recommendation sees that women’s sexual and reproductive rights are gender-based violence, including the criminalization of abortion, forced sterilization, and harmful practices on girls and women. It argues that states must have due diligence that all sorts of private violence are prohibited and protected; non-state actors also have these obligations.

United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (1993)

The United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women was one of the first declarations that focused on domestic violence and sexual abuse as human rights violations. Article 1 included any acts of gender-based violence that result in or are likely to result in physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women. Article 2 holds responsible not only the State but individuals and those behind closed doors in a household setting. Article 2 outlines domestic violence occurring in the family, including battering, spousal rape, female genital mutilation, and non-spousal violence; it also calls out violence related to exploitation. This declaration was the first of its kind to address domestic violence and sexual abuse as human rights violations making those responsible not just on the government level but also private citizens.

Activism to End Violence Against Women and Girls

The 16 Days of Activism begins on November 25th, the international day to end violence against women, and ends on December 10th, Human Rights Day. The campaign began in 1991 and called for eliminating gender-based violence against women and girls by raising awareness globally, calling for a change in laws, and providing services. The campaign theme for this year is “UNiTE! Activism to end violence against women and girls,” which focuses on the impact of global awareness on gender-based violence. Over the last several years, progress has been made with the #MeToo movement and Time’s Up movement, which has called for awareness of sexual harassment, violence, inequality, and discrimination issues in the workplace. These global movements have shined a light on awareness of gender-based violence; however, setbacks have followed, including the COVID-19 pandemic, women’s reproductive rights in the United States, educational rights in Afghanistan, and civil and political rights issues in Iran. But what about the backlash of women human rights defenders?

As this campaign takes place, women who participate in activism as human rights defenders are being arrested and detained in Afghanistan and Iran. In a press release by U.N. Women (29 November 2022), they address these situations in those countries and call for the urgent defending of the rights and lives of women human rights defenders. During the 16 Days of Activism, International Women Human Rights Defenders Day (WHRD) is also celebrated on November 29th; this day is meant to commemorate the work of all those who tirelessly defend the rights of women and girls (U.N. Women, 2022). This year’s 16 Days of Activism campaign introduced ‘Orange Day,’ meant to occur on the 25th day of each month. Orange Day “calls upon activists, governments, and U.N. partners to mobilize people and highlight issues relevant to preventing and ending violence against women and girls” (U.N. Women, 2022 2). In an article by Gazete Duvar, on November 25th, 2022, thousands of women marched in Turkey to commemorate Orange Day. However, they faced backlash, including heavy police presence, barricades, and violence. Women bear signs that read “Jin Jiyan, Azadi,” which is Kurdish for “Women, life, freedom.” Nonetheless, they are practicing their rights to peacefully protest; many are being detained and, even worse, falling victim to the elimination of violence they are fighting against.

Domestic Violence as a Human Right's Violation

The Shadow Pandemic, COVID-19, and Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is a human rights issue and violation; often, society believes that domestic violence is to be treated as a private matter, yet international human rights frameworks and systems have challenged this belief. Domestic violence against women means any act of violence directed against women in a domestic setting, including physical, sexual, psychological, or economic violence or threat of violence inflicted against them (Murtazaa, 2017). U.N. Women has long focused on ending violence against women, considering domestic violence on a global level; nearly one in three women and girls are subject to physical and/or intimate partner violence, non-partner sexual violence, or both at least once in their life (U.N. Women, 2022). U.N. Secretary-General António Guterres addressed the 'shadow pandemic' urging governments to prioritize women's safety. In a Tweet by the Secretary-General on March 15, 2021, he addressed it first hand, claiming that "COVID-19 has sparked a shadow epidemic of violence against women worldwide, online & offline – the damage is incalculable & will resound down the decades, into future generations." He further argues that "everywhere, COVID-19 has led to a shadow pandemic of violence against women and girls" in a press release on 25 October 2021.

The United Nations entity dedicated to gender equality and women empowerment, U.N. Women, raised awareness with the public campaign titled Shadow Pandemic, which focused on the increase in domestic violence amidst the COVID-19 global pandemic. Following this campaign, the report titled 'Measuring the Shadow Pandemic: Violence Against Women During COVID-19' (2021) revealed the harsh realities of the impact of violence against women during the pandemic. The report found that violence against women during the pandemic intensified and exacerbated a pre-existing crisis of violence against women. It is reported that 1 in 2 women reported that they or a woman they know had experienced a form of violence since the pandemic; it further found that 1 in 4 women felt more unsafe in their home and that conflicts within the household have become more frequent. During the pandemic, our global population faced unprecedented measures, including income loss, employment instability, increased health risks, other financial worries and burden, and disruption in all aspects of life. Additionally, the pandemic overwhelmed the healthcare system, causing shutdowns of childcare programs, social services, family courts, and other service providers essential for victims and survivors of domestic violence. The shadow pandemic portrays the perfect storm of the consequences many women faced during the global pandemic.

In a study conducted in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, during the height of the pandemic in June/July 2020, Tadesse et al. (2020) found that COVID-19 created opportunities for violence against women. Due to the state of emergency orders, confinement, closures of schools and workplaces, and other social services played a crucial role in increased intimate partner violence. Out of 589 married women in the capital city, a majority of the respondents, 22.2%, were married before 18 years of age, and 21.4% were illiterate. Some of the critical findings of Tadesse et al. were that women who experienced IPV may not have known legal legislation to protect their rights nor any knowledge of services offered for victims of domestic violence. They also found that husbands may not have considered the treatment of their partners violent due to poor knowledge regarding women's legal rights. It was evident that during a state of emergency, women were confined within their family unit and, due to stay-at-home orders, restricted to the outside world. While all members of society had heightened stressors during the pandemic, this was more prevalent for victims of abuse having no escape to the outside world.

The Shadow Pandemic (U.N. Women, 2021) report aligns with scholarly research suggesting that violence against women, namely domestic violence and IPV, has intensified. Isolation with abusers, movement restrictions, cramped living conditions, health worries, financial issues, and deserted public spaces were leading factors. Moreover, the pandemic created more problems for survivors of intimate partner violence (IPV) and sexual assault. Wood et al. (2021) found that the pandemic created more risks for survivors and further created negative impacts limiting survivors' access to supportive services. In this study, 80.9% of the respondents reported increased relationship difficulties in the home; some safety strategies for the survivors included going to social media for support and avoiding the abuser (Wood et al., 2021). What is portrayed in both of these studies is the need for a social support system for women who are victims of domestic violence; it further reflects that during the unprecedented times of COVID-19, women remained with their abusers, thus making it difficult for any outside support.

Civil and Political Violence in Iran

Since the tragic death of Mahsa Amini, a 22-year-old Iranian woman, in September 2022, civil and political violence against women has increased at the hands of The Guidance Patrol, the so-called “morality police” in Iran. Media has coined the movement amidst Amini’s death as the ‘TikTok Generation,’ led by many Gen Z women and girls demanding ‘Women, life, freedom!’ against the Islamic regime. Unprecedented protests and demonstrations followed Amini’s death and unveiled more violence against women. According to France-Presse (2022), Iran’s civil and political unrest has been the largest of its kind since the 1979 revolution.

Violence against women in politics violates women’s human rights; women have the right to participate and live free from violence. According to the U.N. Women Guidance Note on Preventing Violence Against Women in Politics (2021), violence against women in politics is a pervasive and disturbing violation of human rights; it both manifests and exacerbates gender inequality. Women often suffer a great deal of violence in politics, from intimidation, physical harm, and harassment of female politicians, activists, and voters (Krook, 2017). In the Resolution adopted by the Human Rights Council on 24 November 2022, attention was called to the current situation in Iran of human rights violations on women and children.

The Resolution calls on the arbitrary arrest of children concerning the protests, the blocking of social media platforms, and Internet blackouts, urging the government of Iran to respect, protect and fulfill human rights and to end all forms of discrimination and violence against women and girls. It calls for Iran to cooperate and fulfill its mandate and responsibility. The situation has worsened for the Iranian people, although many Western countries condemn Iran’s violent repression. Nevertheless, Iran’s government places the blame on the influence of Western countries.

The protests in Iran have led the United States to encourage Iran to be removed from the Commission on the Status of Women, a United Nations panel. The U.S. is being blamed for using exclusionary tactics against Iran when plenty of other countries also have poor records on women’s rights. However, the United States stands by its request in support of the Iranian people – a U.S. official proclaimed that “Iran is killing women in the streets for protesting – this is the right thing to do at the right time” (Toosi & Heath, 2022). The U.N.’s Economic and Social Council requested to hold a vote led by the U.S. on December 14th, 2022, in

reaction to the government crackdown on the women-led protest movement (Ziabari, 2022). Nevertheless, fears remain about the consequences of the possible outcome of the vote. U.N. special rapporteur on Iran Javaid Rehman affirms, “I’m afraid that the Iranian regime will react violently to the Human Rights Council resolution, and this may trigger more violence and repression on their part.”

This is no surprise as medical professionals, human rights activists, and volunteers are smuggling bandages and medicine on foot as hospitals have become armed with security. Doctors and nurses remain anonymous as they speak to journalists about treating demonstrators; an article in the Guardian on December 8, 2022, proclaims that female protestors are coming out with different wounds than men. Women are being shot in their faces, breast, and genitals; one doctor stated that he treated a woman with two pellets wedged between her urethra and vaginal opening. The woman stated that security agents were in a group shooting directly at her genital area and thighs. Security forces in Iran savagely shoot demonstrators in the face and eyes, causing visual damage and blindness. Once they have successfully harmed demonstrators who subsequently need emergency medical attention, more security forces are posted up at hospitals and medical facilities awaiting their arrival for future detainment. Kurdish human rights activist Soran Mansornia states that “the number of wounded is very high. Every day, we hear about the death of an injured person who did not go to hospital out of fear of arrest” (Parent & Habibiadzad, 2022).

Conclusion

The right for women and girls to live free from violence is a promise upheld by the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and the U.N. Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women. This United Nations framework has evolved and expanded its reach to address the issues of violence against women. Although significant progress has been made, VAW undoubtedly remains a global concern and obstacle for women and girls and is a human rights violation. The primary concerns addressed in this paper are recent and current issues that deserve the attention and action of all global society to increase awareness and promote advocacy. U.N. Women Executive Director Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka calls for action after seeing a global effort against COVID-19. She says, “we need a comparable amount of determination and effort to be given to the global fight to end violence against women and girls so that we can see the results and flatten the curve of this destructive shadow pandemic” (U.N. Women, 2021). What is to come of Iran’s future will be voted December 14th, 2022, by the U.N. Economic and Social Council (ECOSCO) on whether to remove Iran from the Commission on the Status of Women. Regardless of the turnout at ECOSCO, do Iranian women protesters have the power to challenge the regime? Demonstrators’ voices are being heard with support all around the globe, and possibly, with the help of the influential West, perhaps the regime may fall.

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2.18 Paper



When will Ethnic Cleansing be an Independent International War Crime?

by **Nada Wafa**

Advisor: **Jelena Pia-Comella**

Overview

Under what conditions will ethnic cleansing be considered an international war crime? When does the process of inhumane actions transfer into an ethnic cleansing? Surprisingly, ethnic cleansing is not recognized as an independent war crime under international law (“United Nations Office on Genocide Prevention,” n.d.). However, it will always make a comeback despite the geopolitical crises that have occurred over the centuries. Ethnic cleansing’s meaning is greater than a political statement, but at its basic level, it focuses on human destruction, which should be enough to constitute it as a crime. The doctrine of Responsibility to Protect (R2P) clearly obliges the democratic world to protect humans from genocide which precedes ethnic cleansing and to intervene before any killing occurs. Since the 2005 UN Summit, there was a commitment from the world and the Responsibility to Protect (R2P) was an optimistic agenda that soon after became a mirage (Abramowitz & Puddington, 2019). Village after village, city after city, country after country, the men in power continue to bury media and journalists to perpetuate their power to their rulings. The failure of the democratic powers and the world as a whole to respond to the Responsibility to Protect (R2P) jurisdiction has reinvigorated even more extreme measures of major ethnic cleansing, genocide, and autocracies in advantage to their geopolitical plans (Abramowitz & Puddington, 2019). The following research covers the following: 1) the definitions of ethnic cleansing, 2) three cases of ethnic cleansing, and 3) what we learned from history and how we can apply this learning to take action.

While ethnic cleansing is referred to as an expulsion of a population from a specific area, it has not been clearly defined and it is not recognized as a crime under international law according to the United Nations. In reality, ethnic cleansing can constitute as an act of genocide, a war crime, and a crime against humanity. Thus, this paper will focus on the threads of ethnic cleansing in correlation to war crimes.

What is Ethnic Cleansing?

There are layers of definitions for the term ethnic cleansing, but it should be serious enough to trigger countries to take action. As the United Nations continues to associate the terminology with a population being displaced or the forced movement of a specific group of people, the International Court of Justice (ICJ) defined ethnic cleansing as “rendering an area ethnically homogenous by using force or intimidation to remove persons of given groups from the area” [“UN Doc. S/25274,” 1993, para. 55]. Some of the earliest definitions of ethnic cleansing is found in the United Nations documents in correlation with Yugoslavia’s massacre of Bosnian Muslims and Bosnian Croats. The Special Rapporteur, Tadeusz Mazowiecki, stated in November of 1992, “the term ethnic cleansing refers to the elimination by the ethnic group exerting control over a given territory of members of other ethnic groups” (“U.N. Doc S/RES/827,” 1993, para. 9). In 1993, the United Nations Commission of Experts stated that ethnic cleansing renders “an area ethnically homogeneous by using force or intimidation to remove persons of given groups from the area” [UN Doc. S/25274, para. 55.]. In 1994, ethnic cleansing was then finally described as “a purposeful policy designed by one ethnic or religious group to remove by violent and terror-inspiring means the civilian population of another ethnic or religious group from certain geographic areas” (“UN Doc. S/1994/674,” 1994). The United Nations also suggested that ethnic cleansing should be an extension to genocide as the “abhorrent policy of ‘ethnic cleansing’, [is] a form of genocide” (“UN Doc. S/1994/674,” 1994). As such, a “genocidal ethnic cleansing” (Pégorier, 2013, p. 95) intersects with destroying a specific group. Some scholars have shifted the focus of the human aspect of ethnic cleansing into thinking that ethnic cleansing is more about territorial control; thus, ethnic cleansing is viewed on the spectrum as a practice that forces populations to exchange territories through contractual transactions on one end and the other extreme end is genocide and mass murder (Preece, 1998; Bell-Fialkoff, 1993; Naimark, 2002; Mann, 2005; Lieberman, 2010). However, when has ethnic cleansing been moderate in its form? When has ethnic cleansing acquired international approval? Does ethnic cleansing seem to belittle less action and stop perpetrators from forcefully expelling people out of their land despite the mass graves and systematic killings of human lives?

The Updated Statute of the Ad Hoc Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia

The UN Security Council established in 1993 the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia to investigate and prosecute the three international crimes which were later developed in the Rome Statute: Crimes Against Humanity, Genocide, and Crimes within the Jurisdiction of the Court (War Crimes). The International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia states in Article 5: Crimes to Humanity (“Updated Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal,” 2009):

The International Tribunal shall have the power to prosecute persons responsible for the following crimes when committed in armed conflict, whether international or internal and directed against any civilian population:

- (a) murder;
- (b) extermination;
- (c) enslavement;
- (d) deportation;
- (e) imprisonment;

- (f) torture;
- (g) rape;
- (h) persecutions on political, racial, and religious grounds;
- (i) other inhumane acts

Resolution 808 (1993), which the Security Council adopted, stated:

Expressing once again its grave alarm at continuing reports of widespread and flagrant violations of international humanitarian law occurring within the territory of the former Yugoslavia, and especially in the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, including reports of mass killings, massive, organized, and systematic detention, and rape of women, and the continuance of the practice of “ethnic cleansing”, including the acquisition and the holding of territory (“Updated Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal...,” 2009)

And,

Expressing once again its grave alarm at continuing reports of widespread violations of international humanitarian law occurring within the territory of the former Yugoslavia, including reports of mass killings and the continuance of the practice of “ethnic cleansing” (Updated Statute of the International Criminal Tribunal...,” 2009)

When connecting crimes against humanity to international and non-international, similar to the case of the former Yugoslavia nature, the adjustment and update for the list of criminal acts were necessary to provide tribunal jurisdiction of the crimes against humanity. The tribunal was an ad hoc to establish resolutions to the crimes committed on the territory of the former Yugoslavia in 1991, and the maximum penalty was life imprisonment for the war criminals (“History of the Office of the Prosecutor,” n.d.). The UN Security Council Resolution 808 declared that “an international tribunal shall be established for the prosecution of persons responsible for serious violations of international humanitarian law committed in the territory of former Yugoslavia since 1991” (United Nations Security Council, 1993). After a few months of approval for Resolution 808, the following Resolution 827 was approved, and the Statute of the International Tribunal was formally created as the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY), which resulted in having jurisdiction over four crimes that were committed in Yugoslavia (“Report S/25704,” 1993):

- 1) Genocide
- 2) Violations of the Laws
- 3) Crimes Against Humanity
- 4) Grave Breaches of the Geneva Convention

Following the accomplishments of the ICTY based on justice and the law, the United Nations passed many resolutions, and the Tribunal was able to charge 161 people in seven years with trials, convictions, transferring cases to courts, and terminating cases prior to trials finishing point (“ICTY: Facts & Figures,” 2017).

The Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court

After the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia in 1993, the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court was adopted on July 17, 1998, by the UN Diplomatic Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court (“United Nations: Treaty Collection,” n.d.). The purpose of the Rome Statute as a treaty extends to the State Parties to exercise its criminal jurisdiction over war criminals in countries responsible for crimes of international concern. There are 139 State Parties who have signed this treaty and 31 who have not ratified or withdrawn their signatures (“Signatories which have not ratified, 2022). The Preamble of the State Parties to the Rome Statute presents an agreement toward action in starting with an awareness and a “conscious that all people are united by a common bond,” to resolving “to guarantee lasting respect for and the enforcement of international justice” (“Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 2011). As the Statute of Rome was developed in 1998, the second part of the treaty composes of three articles: Article 5 - Crimes within the Jurisdiction of the Court; Article 6 - Genocide; and Article 7 - Crimes Against Humanity (“Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 2011). The Rome Statute provides a solid framework for the International Criminal Court in the case that it can only prosecute and indict individuals, instead of states, based on four crimes: genocide, war crimes, crimes against humanity, and crimes against aggression (“Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court, 2011). Ultimately, the countries that ratify and consent to the Rome Statute are entrusting their authority (e.g., judicial laws) to indict evident grave crimes that are committed in their territory to an international court of law that would provide accountability for the war crimes conducted to uphold the responsibility to protect civilians and soldiers in times of war (“Q&A: The International Criminal Court and the United States,” 2020).



Ceremony Marks Opening for Signature of Treaty on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court 7/18/1998

Ratification Ceremony at UN Paves Way for International Criminal Court 4/11/2002

UN PHOTO



UN PHOTO/EVAN SCHNEIDER

Cases of Ethnic Cleansing

Because ethnic cleansing accomplishes a goal of a higher power in authority to remove targeted groups, usually homogeneous in its nature, ethnic cleansing is accompanied by violence and inhuman maltreatment during the process. Since there is no formal ethnic cleansing definition under international law or considering that it is a war crime, although the term appeared in many resolutions and rulings of international courts (e.g., *Bosnia and Herzegovina v. Serbia and Montenegro*), the court defined it as “rendering an area ethnically homogenous by using force or intimidation to remove persons of given groups from the area” (“United Nations Office on Genocide Prevention,” n.d.). However, despite the lack of a solid definition for the term, ethnic cleansing, it is a serious crime under international law since the offending side implements various courses of action, including but not limited to torture, sexual assault or rape, murder, destruction, or theft of property (e.g., homes and land), and bodily harm. Suppose the targeted population does not adhere to the threats or measures taken to ethnically cleanse the group. In that case, the population may be imprisoned, deported forcefully, forcibly placed in camps, brutalized, and continue to intimidate the targeted population, which accompanies other crimes such as genocide and war crimes. Ethnic cleansing is usually conducted by official government forces such as the military and the police, but also by militias, rebellious groups, or even ordinary citizens who intimidate and terrorize another group of people to forcefully make them leave through revolutions and uprisings. The following are four cases of ethnically cleansing a population and adhering to criminal, inhumane status from various parts of the world: European, North American, and Middle East regions.

Case 1: Bosnian Massacre

The worst atrocity committed since World War II was the massacre of Muslim Bosniak men and boys in Srebrenica, Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1992, Bosnian Serbs began to target Srebrenica to seize control and annex the territory. By doing so, the Bosnian Serb forces forcefully evict the Bosniak ethnic group. As a result, the military was directed by the Bosnian Serb Republic president, Radovan Karadžić, in March 1995 to “create an unbearable situation of total insecurity with no hope of further survival or life for the inhabitants of Srebrenica” (Irwin, 2013). The Bosnian Serb military was then commanded to conduct the massacre operation, which resulted in thousands of civilians fleeing Srebrenica to a nearby village called Potočari. The Bosnian Serb military leader, Ratko Mladić, stated “ “We give this town to the Serb nation...The time has come to take revenge on the Muslims” (Charlesworth, 2018). On July 11, 1995, rows of thousands of Bosniak men were taken from Srebrenica to a forest where they thought it was an attempt to reach safety (Smith, 2022). However, the false promise to reach safety resulted in capturing and executing in terror innocent lives. The groups that had left to the nearby village of Potočari were also forced out that same day the executions occurred and with the ethnic cleansing, there followed individual murders and rape that was committed by the Bosnian military forces (Smith, 2022). The mass evacuations of blindfolded Bosniak men and boys to the execution sites continued for the next week, and thousands of victims were thrown into horrifying mass graves as it was later discovered that the victims’ arms and feet were bound and many had their limbs mutilated. The International Criminal Courts charged Ratko Mladić for genocide and sentenced him to life in prison. The Bosnian Serb forces slaying of 8,000 men and boys in July 1995 left deep emotional and psychological damage on survivors and created obstacles to political resolutions between Bosnia’s ethnic groups (Smith, 2022). The International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia, which was developed before the Bosnian massacre to scrutinize the military - proceeded to say that the killing at Srebrenica was a mass

expulsion of Bosnians and was an ethnic cleansing that extended further into a genocide. The United Nations (UN) and its supporters failed to protect the Bosniak men, women, and children who were victims of horrendous, atrocious, disturbing terrorism and murder. In 1999, the Secretary-General, Kofi Annan, said, “Through error, misjudgment and an inability to recognize the scope of the evil confronting us, we failed to do our part to help save the people of Srebrenica from the [Bosnian] Serb campaign of mass murder.” (Lynch, 1999). In its ruling against the Bosnian Serb Republic president, Radovan Karadžić, the International Court of the former Yugoslavia (ICTY) discovered a joint criminal enterprise (JCE), a legal doctrine used during war crimes to allow prosecution of ethnic groups to be held and forcibly resettle non-Serbs from different parts of Bosnia. It was established in October 1991 through the following doctrine (Prosecutor vs. Radovan Karadžić - Judgement, 2016):

... the Chamber finds that together with the Accused, Krajišnik, Koljević, and Plavšić shared the intent to effect the common plan to permanently remove Bosnian Muslims and Bosnian Croats from Bosnian Serb claimed territory, and through their positions in the Bosnian Serb leadership and involvement throughout the Municipalities, they contributed to the execution of the common plan from October 1991 until at least 30 November 1995 (Prosecutor vs. Karadžić – Judgement, 2016, p. 1300).

Nonetheless, ethnic cleansing is an atrocity that needs continuous intervention under international law. During the 1990s, the Bosnian massacre was a crime against humanity, and these war crimes constituted an ethnic cleansing of a targeted group of Bosnian Muslims in the territory. The inhumane ethnic cleansing throughout history proves that time and time again, this continued practice is often to procure power through violence and systematic slaying of human populations.

Case 2: Native Americans

Despite scholars who argue that ethnic cleansing is a 20th-century phenomenon, the forced expulsion and murderous efforts derived from the racist theories fed by the desire to cleanse nations by expelling groups of people that are considered to be “aliens” to fulfill the rise of nationalists is a continuous determination through history to present day. During the mid-10th century, the North American genocide of Native Americans resulted in mass killings, rape, and war crimes - resulting in an inhumane sense of genocide to fulfill white supremacy and eradicate the race through “cultural genocide” (“The American Genocide of the Indians,” 2022). Through systematic policy designs and the ethnic cleansing methods to suppress Native Americans, the applied genocidal policies toward indigenous people have forced extinction, resettlement, and assimilation. On July 4, 1776, when the United States of America was established on the land of the indigenous people, the Declaration of Independence stated that the British King defamed and denounced that the Native Americans were “merciless Indian Savages”(Jefferson, 1999 [1785], p. 147). Between 1775 and 1865, European colonialism was at its peak in desiring the Indian lands and set thousands of attacks on Indian tribes and slaughtering Indigenous civilians and soldiers. The Homestead Act of 1862 was enacted, and white people hovered and massacred the Western Indian tribes to take the land for themselves. The California Gold Rush between 1848-1855 triggered the extermination of Indians in California. As the first governor of California, Peter Burnett proposed this extermination, which resulted in the following:

In California in the 1850s and 60s, an Indian skull or scalp was worth 5 dollars, while the average daily wage was 25 cents. From 1846 to 1873, the Indian population in California dropped to 30,000 from 150,000. Countless Indians died as a result of the atrocities” (“The American Genocide of the Indians,” 2022).

Between the Indian Removal Act in 1830 to the “scorched earth” policy that ethnically cleansed the Navajo tribe and burned their homes and livestock, as well as shot on the spot pregnant women and elders who were not able to walk the hundreds of miles to eastern New Mexico under the American Army’s watch (“The American Genocide of the Indians,” 2022) - the U.S. government’s genocide of Indians significantly reduced the population of Indigenous communities across the United States. The brutal massacres of the Native Americans are still whitewashed in education today since exalting and praising the Westward Expansion is still widespread and seen as a path that advanced America’s democracy, and the economic development was boosted through these accelerated developments through peace and prosperity, which is deceitful and deceiving to the formation of national patriotism.

Case 3: Palestine

The final touches on a plan to ethnically cleanse Palestine were completed in March 1948, particularly when a group of Zionist men placed military orders to systematically expel Palestinians from their country (Tal, 2004). The methods to forcefully evicting Palestinian are still ongoing to this day, as there are “large-scale intimidation; laying siege to and bombarding villages and population centers; demolishing homes; and finally, planting mines in the rubble to prevent the expelled inhabitants from returning” (Pappè, 2006, p.6). The plan to take control of the rural and urban parts of Palestine was the result of Zionism’s ideology to exclusively place Jewish settlers on the ground, in particular after the British power ended the mandate and turned this over to the United Nations (Pappè, 2006). Given that this is seen as an Arab-Israeli conflict, it is challenging to set an equal standard to a conflict given the unequal weight of power, including the injustices, inhumane hostility, apartheid, and ongoing genocides that are occurring at this moment, whether censored or not, to the Palestinian people from Zionism and settler-colonialism. It may be challenging to say there are two perspectives on a non-negotiable issue. In historical context, particularly regarding teaching about slavery and the Holocaust, there are no two sides to the injustices and discrimination. The voices of those oppressed cannot and should not be lost within the Western narratives of two sides or seen as ‘clashes’ or ‘conflict.’ However, the United Nations came to a partition resolution in 1947, but it “provided the perfect context and pretext for implementing the ideological vision of an ethnically cleansed Palestine” (Pappè, 2006, p.6). A UN report about ethnic cleansing described it as “a well-defined policy of a particular group of persons to systematically eliminate another group from a given territory based on religious, ethnic, or national origin. Such a policy involves violence and is often connected with military operations” (Petrovic, 2006). As Petrovic connects nationalism to ethnic cleansing, the plan and reports of the cleansing techniques described in Yugoslavia’s reports are comparable to what is happening in Palestine. The Adalah Attorney, Rabea Eghbariah, argued in the Israeli Court against the ban on Palestinian family unification the following:

The [Jewish State] law creates two separate legal tracks, on an ethnonational basis, on everything that relates to becoming a citizen and family life, and I shall explain. The first track is a track for family unification which is relevant mainly to Jewish-Israeli citizens. The second, and inferior track, is a track for Arab [Palestinian] citizens and residents of the state who wish to unite with their spouses, from their people, residents of the occupied territories. According to this track, the starting point is that there is no right to family life in Israel, and the question is not when this right will be realized, but if at all. (AdalahEnglish, 2022)

Furthermore, an Israeli historian and social activist, Ilan Pappè (2018) shared in his talk, “History is Relevant: The Israeli New History and its Legacy” at Case Western Reserve University and stated the following:

What we found in the archives that from the mid-1930s and definitely immediately after the Second World War, the Zionist political and military leadership contemplated and planned mass expulsion of Palestinians in order to create what they thought would be a Jewish Democratic State. They wanted as much of Palestine as possible with a few Palestinians in it as possible. Their main problem in 1947-1948 when the British rule came to end was that the Jews in Palestine were only 1/3 of the population, and even when the United Nations took over the issue of Palestine from Britain and suggested to partition Palestine into an Arab state and a Jewish state in November 1947, the demographics were such that even in the Jewish state, that was offered by the United Nations, the Jews were still not the majority because there were too few Jews in Palestine 47-48. And the solution definitely after the Second World War, in the eyes of the leading Zionist politicians and military commanders were very clear, what I called in my book of 2007, *The Ethnic Cleansing of the Palestinians* (Case Western Reserve University, 2018).

Furthermore, Pappè (2018) mentioned in his talk that out of the 45,000 Palestinians in Jaffa, there were 3,000 people left within 10 hours. Pappè (2018) described in detail how the Red Cross wrote descriptions of the ethnic cleansing and how the headquarters in Geneva censored and covered the method by which Palestinians were expelled, raped, and even poisoned because it was just three years after the Holocaust. Pappè (2018) continued to share that in the 1990s, two Israeli troop soldiers who injected the poison, Typhus, into the water in Jaffa were interviewed. While Pappè (2018) was sharing his insights into the interview, one of the audience members spoke and said, “it was a war,” and Pappè (2018) said, “in a war, you don’t poison people’s house...you don’t poison...this is a crime, a war crime. People who do this usually sit all their life in jail” (Case Western Reserve University, 2018).

The new Israeli film “Tantura” (Schwarz, Efrat, & Schwarz, 2022), documented by the Israeli historian, Adam Raz, describes the Catastrophe of 1948, also known as Nakba, in the words of Zionist soldiers as they spoke about the war crimes committed during the ethnic cleansing and massacre of Palestinians in 1948. One former Zionist soldier in the film, a Haganah gang member, was asked, “How many people did you kill?” and he laughed and said, “I did not count them. I had a rifle with 250 shots, and I fired it and killed everybody, but I cannot tell how many people I killed” (Schwarz, Efrat, & Schwarz, 2022). Another Zionist soldier who was also a Haganah gang member said, “One of the soldiers there raped a girl. She was around 16 years old. You know? Things went really bad there. We had someone with us; he was very cruel. He simply gathered them up in cages and killed them. They put them in something like a cage. They put metal wires around them. They gathered all the men and made them sit on the ground. Then a soldier came with a machine gun and shot them all” (Schwarz, Efrat, & Schwarz, 2022).

The new Netflix film, “Farha,” (Sallam, 2022) which translates to “joyfulness” in Arabic, is anything but full of joy as it is the telling of a single story of a family during the 1948 Nakba/Catastrophe and how their village was forcefully expelled in order to create the state of Israel. It depicts the truth of the ethnic cleansing that happened in one of the hundreds of villages in Palestine. This film provides a reminder of the ongoing Nakba that is occurring in Palestine to this day (Elassar, 2022).

As carefully planned and well-executed methods of the 1948 Nakba, Ilan Pappè (2006) described a strategic concept that was shared by Moshe Pasternak, who was one of the members of the Haganah who collected data on the ethnic cleansing of Palestinian villages:

We had to study the basic structure of the Arab village. This means the structure and how best to attack it. In the military schools, I had been taught how to attack a modern European city, not a primitive village in the Near East. We could not compare it [an Arab village] to a Polish, or an Austrian one. The Arab village, unlike the European ones, was built topographically on hills. That meant we had to find out how best to approach the village from above or enter it from below. We had to train our “Arabists” [the Orientalists who operated a network of collaborators] how best to work with informants. (Pappè, 2006, p. 12)

Along the same lines, Pappè (2006) was critical to note the following:

...there is no doubt that the ethnic cleansing of 1948, the most formative event in the modern history of the land of Palestine, has been almost entirely eradicated from the collective global memory and erased from the world’s conscience.

As a result, like many who were ethnically cleansed from their lands, Palestinians have not been able to live safely and securely for the past 75 years. It is like there is a sense that the Responsibility to Protect (R2P) is not constituted for the Palestinian people. Their continued dispossession and displacement, as well as the misrepresentation of reality which includes the settler-colonialism and elimination of the natives, is ethnic cleansing, mainly through the injustices and war crimes conducted daily at the hands of the Zionists regime. The mass depopulation of almost 700 villages by the Israeli Occupation Forces, the mass expulsion of millions of Palestinians from their homes, the systematic genocides and mass killings, the siege and blockade of cities in Palestine, the illegal settlements built in the West Bank, the innocent killings of children per month does not seem enough to constitute ethnic cleansing as an independent international war crime.

Learning from History

Given the late responses from the international and regional world to the many crises happening in the world, the failure to implement the Responsibility to Protect (R2P) doctrine continues to advance the atrocities and increase forced expulsion and changes in demographics to fulfill a political agenda. The military in Myanmar committed murder and rape and set fires in villages to expel Muslim Rohingya into Bangladesh. The Syrian multifaceted and multilayered war under the Assad regime targeted the ethnic group to flee the war and displaced them worldwide. South Africa’s racial segregation, ethnic cleansing, apartheid, and harsh

authoritarianism included violating human rights laws. South Sudan's ethnic cleansing of the Nuer's constitutes millions of people fleeing their homes, including gang rapes, starvation, and burning of villages across the country (Williams, 2017). The ethnic killings and massacres of the Darfur region in South Sudan, which was recognized as the first genocide of the 21st century, displaced, attacked, and destroyed non-Arab groups and their villages (Kranz, 2017). The Shiites Iraq brutal ethnic cleansing and systematic extermination of the Shiites, Yazidis, and Christians. The mass rapes and destroying identities of people living in the war-torn regions of Syria and Iraq increased between 2013 and 2015. China's engagement with regions that have ethnic minorities and it continuously aims to suppress the culture, language, and religion of the ethnic groups of Tibet, Xinjiang, and the Inner Mongolia regions. The most brutal ethnic cleansing occurring in Xinjiang is the detention of millions of ethnic Muslims into unjustifiable centers to "re-educate" the Uyghurs in these inhumane facilities. Arguing that ethnic cleansing is not a war crime can motivate more aggressive atrocities in places that are vulnerable and are on the rise with dishonest forms of government systems (Abramowitz & Puddington, 2019).

Conclusion

My purpose in sharing the necessity to educate about ethnic cleansing and consider it a war crime is to humanize the victims and ethnic populations that are greatly affected by the results of ethnic cleansing. I want to advocate and prevent ethnic cleansing committed by regimes forcing demographic changes through their powers. This causes implications and alarming responses from the international community to make this a norm and a new standard that gives permission and approval for rulers to execute any necessary action to create and form their idea of citizenship, which is, ultimately, the reversal effect of what it means to live in a democracy and democratic world. I am part of the world that stands responsible for bringing to light these stories and understand that it is necessary to look into the painful and sorrowful journeys of the past and look into the present's unjust violence that is occurring to move forward and create a better, just, and sustainable world for all of us. As Cutcha Risling Baldy (2015) shares:

History is about **power**. The ability to tell the story is a very powerful thing. And the history we have learned in the west is about justifying, maintaining, and supporting the illusion that western civilization, western control of, western ownership of this land was inevitable, beneficial, and destined (Baldy, 2015).

Thus, history in this world is a site of constant struggle where people all around the world, through all hemispheres, especially BIPOC (Blacks, Indigenous People of Color), are fighting colonial attempts to rewrite, relearn, and free themselves from supremacy to erase unjustified, falsified stories. This world is complex. Because of these complexities, we need to continue to create bridges and unifications before it is too late. We must continue to honestly believe that the stories we share offer the best hope for today's people, as well as the future generations to come, especially as we continue to build these bridges across the world that will lead to equity, equality, justice, peace, prosperity, and essentially, humanity for all.

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2.19 Paper



The Impact of Fracking on the Environment and Social Justice

by Patricia Tesoriero, Ph.D.

Advisor: Larisa Schelkin

Abstract

Climate change is a significant threat facing the globe. Events such as extreme energy gravely impact global warming and impair climate justice through elevated greenhouse gas emissions, exacerbating climate change. While there are many contributors to greenhouse gas emissions, one manmade phenomenon plaguing transmission levels is an operation known as hydraulic fracturing, colloquially known as fracking. Fracking not only poses a threat to climate change, but it also impacts social justice.

Keywords: climate change, fracking, social justice

Introduction

The world is not without a growing list of ever-evolving problems. Still, while dealing with the effects of a novel coronavirus and global pandemic, as well as record-high inflation and rising crime rates, there is no shortage of issues that plague the planet and pique the interests of many around the globe. However, there is one threat that some call “the most pervasive threat” the world has experienced (UNHR, 2022). One that is so great it threatens societies and the natural environment and violates human rights, climate change. Loosely, climate change is understood to be a shift, over time, in weather patterns due to more significant greenhouse gas emissions, carbon dioxide levels, and other humanmade factors, which could also increase rapid climate patterns (BBC, 2022; EPA, 2022; Meng, 2017). This shift impacts our oceans, weather, the ecosystem, safety, health, and sustainable living (EPA, 2022; UNHR, 2022). As devastating

as the impact of climate change is, the effects are felt disproportionately by marginalized or disadvantaged populations (Baragona, 2022; Tesoriero, 2022). Notwithstanding, while there are arguably many causes of greenhouse gas emissions, impacting climate change and threatening our sustainable development goals, one of the leading contributors is hydraulic fracturing, or fracking (EPA, 2022; Meng, 2022).

The industrial extraction method, fracking, is used to gain access to fossil fuels by drilling deep into the earth with a mixture of high-pressure water containing chemicals and [tight] sands in order to release gas to pass freely through rock to the head of the well (Saunders, McCoy, Goldstein, Saunders, & Munroe, 2018; Tesoriero, 2022). Although the technique earned its pseudonym, fracking, by the way rock is fractured during the drilling and extraction process, it has become synonymous with the entire fracked well procedure, including the production process of fossil fuels as well as other ancillary operations, such as the transport of materials to and from well sites (Environment International, 2016). Consequently, the oil and gas pulled or extracted from the rock formation during the fracking process are referred to as shale. Notwithstanding, the long-term effects of the process are still not entirely known for this relatively new technique of accessing natural deposits from deep within the Earth (Burton, Ellis, Kapo, Entekin, & Nadelhoffer, 2014; Cox, Pidgeon, & Spence, 2022; Yang, Yang, Tu, Li, Yang, Xia, Flower, & Thompson, 2015) for both the environment and the nearby communities. Notably, the practice has become quite controversial as a result. Thus, highlighting the need for scientists and environmental diplomats alike to work in concert with businesses and other governmental agencies in ensuring public safety and sustainable development goals (Dodds & Sepnce, 2022) are at the forefront of discussions when considering fracking practices.

While balancing the world's energy needs and gaining access to more cost-effective natural resources is paramount. Caution must be exercised when reconciling against the environment and societies. Natural resources no doubt offer great consumer benefits, such as greater access to energy supplies, reducing the cost of transportation, heating, and cooking, and lowers reliance on foreign resources (Tesoriero, 2022). However, the process also includes a plethora of detrimental aspects to the environment as well as the quality of life for those living near fracking sites (Tesoriero, 2022). Thus, it is imperative to understand the impact on the environment surrounding fracking operations, and what impact on social justice may exist for those living near fracking locations.

Fracking and the Environment

The method, or process, of fracking is an around-the-clock, 24-hour operation involving transporting enormous amounts of water and other materials to and from site locations. The technique itself consists of expansive drilling procedures to create a well, this can be done either horizontally or vertically, and typically runs about 1 to 2 miles from the Earth's surface or greater, with drilling taking as long as a month (EE&C, 2014; EPA, 2017). Subsequently, the well, also referred to as a wellbore, is encased in steel or cement to avoid leaking. Once the natural layer of rock is reached, this is where the shale or oil and gas deposits exist, the technique is continued and curves approximately 90 degrees to extend the drilling process another mile from the wellbore (EE&C, 2017; Uhlman, Boellstorff, McFarland, Gholson, & Smith, 2017). At this point, a perforating gun, holding explosive-shaped charges, is lowered into the well and used to create openings in the casing that lies deep within the shale layer (EE&C, 2014).

The next stage of the technique is where the process earned its name. Once the openings have been created, a combination of an extremely high-pressure mixture consisting of water, sand, and chemicals are pumped into the well, which can exceed 9,000 pounds per square inch (EPA, 2017). The pressure created during this stage of the process is so powerful that it fractures the surrounding rock, which creates fissures and cracks, allowing the oil and gas to pass freely (Tesoriero, 2022). This stage also consists of a process known as “flowback,” where the chemicals and water flow out of the well, and the flowback is to be taken for treatment or disposal. However, this is a fluid process and hard to contain, so ground contamination is possible (Harkness, Dwyer, Warner, Parker, Mitch & Vengosh, 2015). Lastly, the natural gas begins flowing from the shale towards the surface of the well, where it is then distributed to consumers through a pipeline.

Ostensibly, the process is lengthy and complex, with areas in the technique that are largely unchecked by any regulatory agency. However, with the demand for natural oil and gas rising, developments have grown exponentially over the past few decades. Reports shared by Ridlington and Rumpier (2013) suggested that since 2005 roughly 80,000 hydraulic wells were permitted drilling, with developments underway in 17 U.S. states alone, with figures rising. Notwithstanding, other reports estimated that as of 2015, there were approximately 1.7 million wells in the United States, in closer to 21 states (Fox, Gandour, Adlesic, & Sanchez, 2010), signifying the rapid growth of this technique (Tesoriero, 2022).

Given the rapid growth of this technique, coupled with the relatively low to no government oversight, it is important to understand the implications of the process on the nearby environment. Raising awareness and educating others will help ensure proper policies are enacted (Seth, Diaz Barrado, Lalaguna, 2019) to safeguard against some of the detrimental practices of this technique. For example, as noted, fracking consists of high-pressure water and chemicals as well as a sand mixture to exploit shale deposits from deep within the Earth. The process includes a slew of chemicals, not the least of which are harmful to humans, wildlife, and the environment, such as benzene and methane, as well as other carcinogens and toxins such as hydrochloric acid, lead, mercury, uranium, radium, and ethylene glycol. (Ash, Boyce, Chang, & Scharber, 2013; Scanlan, 2017). The chemicals act as pollutants during the extraction process and could contaminate both the local water and air supply with poisonous gas and massive greenhouse gas emissions (EE&C, 2014).

It is also believed that the process can release dangerous petroleum hydrocarbons, including xylene and benzene, during flowback and increase ground-level ozone levels through contamination, impacting fish and wildlife (EE&C, 2017; EPA, 2022). In addition to pushing birds and other imperiled animals out of their habitat, the process disrupts climate by releasing large amounts of methane into the air and surrounding environment. This only exacerbates an already looming problem with climate change. It is reported that greenhouse gas emissions are “at their highest level in 2 million years” (UNHR, 2022), with fossil fuels, such as oil and gas, as well as coal, accounting for roughly 90 percent of carbon dioxide emissions and in excess of 75 percent of global greenhouse gas transmissions, according to The Economist (2022) and other reporting agencies (EE&C, 2017; EPA, 2022; UNHR, 2022). These emissions trap the sun’s resources and lead to the process known as global warming, and climate change, with a ripple effect on rising oceans, more severe storms, increased drought, loss of species, poverty, higher temperatures, food scarcity, and greater health risks (Burton et al., 2014; Cox et al., 2022; Finkel & Hays, 2016; Harkness et al., 2015; UNHR, 2022).

Understandably, fracking is believed to contribute to environmental factors such as “extreme energy,” which can have lingering effects on the water, air, and soil long after production has moved on to other locations (Paulik Donald, Smith, Tidwell, Hobbie, Kincl, & Anderson, 2016; Turley & Caretta, 2020). Moreover, fracking creates a burden on the water supply by reducing the amount of available water for consumption and irrigation, and creating wastewater contaminated by petrochemicals as well as potential leaking through the transportation process. The leakage can have an impact on nearby soil and plant and wildlife. Fracking has also been linked to seismic activity in some areas (BBC, 2022; Tesoriero, 2022).

Paradoxically, the United Nations Human Rights Council found that damage to the environment as a result of fracking activity not only impacted the environment, but also posed a “new threat to human rights” with possible direct and indirect implications on human rights (EHRA, 2011).

Fracking and Social Justice

Social justice, broadly, refers to the promotion of equity and fairness of resources and other opportunities across many aspects of society. Given how disproportionately marginalized populations inhabit low-income industrial areas with little to no voting power, some refer to this phenomenon as environmental racism. Whereby [marginalized] community members are significantly, and unjustly, impacted by environmental and other inequalities at greater rates (Aczel & Makuch, 2018; Tesoriero, 2022).

For example, Heinz (2005) found that minorities are considerably impacted by environmental hazards, which are influenced by media as well as class and income. Arguably, areas associated with fracking activities also tend to be more remote and situated in industrialized locations. Given the virtually nonstop fracking operations, this can severely impact one’s quality of life and put their overall health at greater risk.

For starters, the lifestyle for those living nearest site locations can be drastically altered due to the frequent activity, constant and increased noise levels, not to mention the lighting needed to keep operations functional around the clock. Moreover, this can disrupt sleep quality and impact community dynamics; it can also influence collective trauma experienced in these neighborhoods (Tesoriero, 2022). Additionally, exposure to toxins can impact the overall health and well-being of those living in fracking communities. It can be measured by increased cancer risks, breathing problems, depression, difficulty during pregnancy and birth, as well as other health-related risk factors, even employment (Ash et al., 2018; Baragona, 2022). Ultimately, the standard of comfort is greatly hindered; however, health suffers as a result of fracking activity and in some cases health changes are irreversible.

As noted earlier, fracking consists of blasting a high-pressure water mixture, including sand and chemicals, into the Earth aimed at releasing gas from rock (Burton et al., 2014; Meng, 2017). The process itself is risky and can leak harmful chemicals into the air, water, and soil during operations. Exposure to these toxins has been connected to increase rates of hospitalization, elevated cancer risks, breathing problems including asthma, and other chronic issues (Gerton, Neidell, Chillrud, Yan, et al., 2015; McDermott-Levy & Garcia., 2018; Torres, Yadav & Khan, 2018; Wattenberg Bielicki, Suchomel, Sweet, Vold, & Ramaachandran, 2015; Tesoriero, 2022). Remarkably, spill volumes as low as 500L can impact cancer risks that exceed target values (Finkel & Hays, 2016; Tesoriero, 2022).

Other disrupting factors, such as lifestyle, impede the comfort level experienced by residents, which can be expressed through disruption in sleep or changes in community dynamics, noise levels, and impaired health like breathing or headaches. In some cases, these experiences can be so extreme that they impede the ability of those affected to maintain employment or healthy relationships and can even inhibit one's socioeconomic status (Tesoriero, 2022). In other words, they are impacting social justice for those most vulnerable.

Discussion

Fracking, with its many benefits, also comes at a great cost to the environment in the form of climate change and social justice. As it relates to climate change, fracking is associated with increased traffic, uses vast amounts of water, and includes a process consisting of blasting rock with a high-pressure mixture of chemicals. These chemicals can potentially seep into the local air and water supply as well as nearby soil. The chemicals and flowback can be harmful to area residents, wildlife, and the environment, and gravely impact greenhouse gas emissions increasing the effects of climate change.

Further, fracking activity can impact those living nearest site locations by increasing their exposure to harmful toxins and disrupting their livelihoods and quality of life. Fracking sites tend to be located in rural areas heavily populated with low-income marginalized populations putting them at greater risk for health impairments and other social justice issues.

Conclusion

The process known as hydraulic fracturing, or fracking, is a resourceful technique aimed at gaining access to hard-to-reach fossil fuels from deep within the Earth. Fracking operations tend to take place in poorer marginalized communities located in industrial areas and often function around the clock using large amounts of water, transportation, creating loud noises, and emitting harmful chemicals in the air, water, and ground. Although there are many consumer benefits to the process, for example, lower cost of fuel for things such as cooking and heating homes, the offset is generally at the expense of the environment and those living nearest these communities. The operations also can be problematic for local infrastructure such as law enforcement, hospitals, and other health care services, as well as area roadways. Thus, making it a controversial practice.

In addition to creating an added burden on local infrastructure, the practice of fracking adversely impacts climate change and creates many stressors on the nearby environment and wildlife. There is also potential for greater health risks experienced by those living near fracking sites as well as other quality of life impairments, which is a construct of social justice.

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UNITAR GLOBAL DIPLOMACY INITIATIVE 2022



3 Final Notes and Remarks – GDI Publication

UNITAR is delighted to present the Global Diplomacy Initiative (GDI) at the United Nations Headquarters every semester. GDI serves as a gateway to the UN system for students who have a keen interest in international relations and global diplomacy. Our aim is to inspire participants to pursue careers and further studies in this dynamic field. With the vision of fostering a brighter future through diplomacy, the newly-designed UNITAR Global Diplomacy Initiative provides students with a unique opportunity to engage with international relations and contemporary politics alongside experienced diplomats.

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Graduates and Faculty



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PHOTOS GRADUATION CEREMONY - CERTIFICATES



DR. AHLEM ARFAOUI TARTIR



MR. DANIEL PEREIRA PONTES



MS. ELISA VERSETTO



MS. EMILY KENWARD



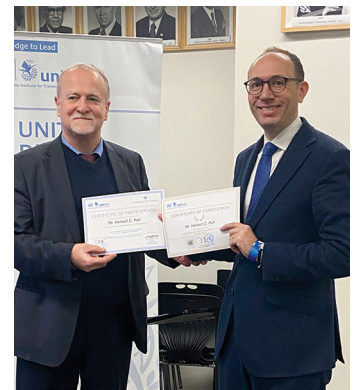
MS. ERICA CUJI GUARTAZACA



MR. GERALD MAKI



MS. HANG LOI



MR. HERBERT C. PELL



MS. KATHRYN LEHNERER



MS. LESLIE WEILER



MS. MARIA LYNN SIMONETTI



DR. PATRICIA TESORIERO

4 BIOGRAPHIES OF STUDENTS



Dr. Ahlem Arfaoui Tartir

Dr. Ahlem has a PhD in political science from Kansas University. She is the President of the International Organization of local government and President of International human rights observer in USA.



Mr. Daniel Pereira Pontes

Degree in Management from ISCAL - Instituto Superior de Contabilidade e Administração de Lisboa; Postgrad in Political Science and International Relations from Institute of Political Studies - Portuguese Catholic University and Postgrad in Information and Security Management from NOVA IMS Information and Management School. Master's student at Institute of Political Studies - Portuguese Catholic University in the field of Political Science and International Relations. Working at the Portuguese Trade and Investment Agency (AICEP), he is Market Manager for East Asia, India, Australia and East Timor. Previously he was Economic Counsellor of the Embassy of Portugal in Abu Dhabi, for UAE, Saudi Arabia and Qatar, in charge of the economic office of AICEP in the UAE, between November 2019 and August 2022; he was working as Market Manager for Middle East, North Africa, India and Australia at AICEP headquarters in Lisbon. Furthermore, between September 2015 and September 2018, he was Economic and Commercial Counsellor of the Embassy of Portugal in Doha, responsible for opening of the first AICEP Office in Qatar. Prior to joining AICEP, he was working as Officer at the European Public Space from the Representation of the European Commission in Portugal, teaching about European affairs, funds, instruments and programs; Economic Officer at the Embassy of Portugal in São Tomé and Príncipe and trainee at the Jacques Delors European Information Centre (CIEJD) from the Directorate-General for European Affairs, Portuguese Ministry of Foreign Affairs.



Ms. Dominique Finley

Dominique Finley obtained her bachelor's degree in clinical psychology and her master's degree in community clinical mental health. She is a third-year doctoral student in the International Psychology-Online program at the Chicago School of Professional Psychology. Ms. Finley has conducted research projects during her undergraduate and graduate education. As a licensed professional counselor, she enjoys clinical work and wrap-around services with diverse client populations. Ms. Finley hopes to eventually work in a non-profit organization/agency perhaps focusing on public and government mental health policy.



Ms. Donna Sroka

Donna Sroka is a daughter of immigrant parents, raised on a dairy farm in Vermont. My adult children currently live in NYC and Los Angeles. I live with my husband and dog in Western Massachusetts. Donna received a Master's in Education from UMASS, Amherst, MA. and has been a lifelong learner in many areas. Her background in mental health and special education led her to the specialized field of technology for education and administration. Donna's experience in global education for the past dozen years has allowed her to travel in person to Belize, China and Germany. Virtual online resources have widely expanded her experience. Global STEM Education Center and NASA Globe projects have given her the opportunity to work with professionals and students from different countries and cultural backgrounds. She is currently serving in the volunteer role of Governor for District 1 (New England and Nova Scotia) for Zonta International. Zonta's mission is to build a better world for women and girls. Zonta International partners include UNFPA, UNICEF, UN Women, Girls Not Brides, and the Coalition to End Violence Against Women and Girls Globally.



Ms. Elisa Versetto

Elisa Versetto is from the Chicagoland area, and she is a graduate student at John Jay College of Criminal Justice. She is studying M.A. International Crime and Justice while also pursuing advanced certificates in Transnational Organized Crime studies and Terrorism studies. Elisa works as a law enforcement officer with the hopes of using her education and experience to earn a position with a federal agency in the future. Through this fellowship she was able to gain an exceptional understanding of the global environment she lives in and the issues facing it today. Through the distinguished professionals she got to learn from, she has gained extraordinary insight and experience of a variety of global challenges so that she may be a part of the solution and shape the world she lives in for the better.



Ms. Emily Kenward

Emily wanted to explore further the intersection between environmental justice, peace, and security within communities affected by armed conflict. She graduated with honors from Tulane University in May 2020 with a B.S. in Environmental Biology and a B.A. in Political Science: International Relations. In August 2021, she graduated from Tel Aviv University with an M.A. in Conflict Resolution and Mediation, as well as received a mediation certificate from the Bosserman Center for Conflict Resolution under the auspices of UNITAR. Emily specializes in feminist foreign policy and the ways in which increasing women's leadership and amplifying historically excluded voices leads to more equitable, transformative, and holistic peace and policymaking. She currently works as the Chicago Site Director for Hands of Peace, a nonprofit organization that empowers American, Israeli, and Palestinian youth to become agents of change.



Ms. Erica Cuji Guartazaca

Erica Cuji Guartazaca is a student in CUNY John Jay currently finishing up her Master's degree in International Criminal Justice! She also has an Advanced Degree in Transnational Organized Crime Studies. Erica is particularly interested in transnational crimes and how these crimes tend to violate the human rights of innocent civilians. She would like to continue to learn from the United Nations in order to hopefully one day work with the Washington Office on Latin America!



Mr. Gerald Maki

Gerald Maki currently serves as Professor of English at Ivy Tech Community College, Indianapolis. He is also a doctoral candidate (ABD) at Purdue University with coursework completed in 20th / 21st Century British Literature and secondaries in Theory and Cultural Studies, Post-Colonial Literature, and Film. Gerald's educational experience includes a fellowship at the University of Bonn, Germany studying globalization and E.U. integration. He has presented academic papers at over 30 conferences and published essays and book chapters on topics ranging from international cinema to educational philosophy.



Dr. Gisella Lamas

Gisella Lamas is a Brazilian/Peruvian environmental engineer. She works as a Chemical Engineering Lecturer at the University of Kentucky – Paducah Extended campus. Her research experience includes photochemical processes and applications of mathematical and statistical methods applied to engineering, study of bacterial communication, prevention of biofilms and toxins by *Microcystis aeruginosa* PCC 7806. She has over 10 years of experience in Water and Wastewater treatment research, but she is currently focusing on Engineering Education: developing an undergraduate course of biofilms for engineers, introducing social responsibility to curriculum and computational tools in chemical engineering. She is passionate about Diversity & Inclusion, and she is actively involved with Outreach opportunities. She has been awarded the 2022 Engaged advocate award and she is currently taking a Global Diplomacy Initiative course from UNITAR.



Ms. Hang Loi

Hang Loi is an engineering professional who recently completed a 33-year career with 3M Company where she worked in industries such as consumer electronics, safety apparel, security identification, and Post-it® Notes. She has spent time in the US and Asia manufacturing sites and R&D facilities to collaborate and build partnerships with colleagues and external partners. Hang is passionate about driving inclusive values to bring more equitable opportunity and diverse representation. With a focus on STEM she volunteers with organizations that support these values, including the Society of Women Engineers (SWE) and the Society of Asian Scientists and Engineers (SASE). Inside 3M she was global Chair of A3CTION, an employee resource group (ERG) for Asian-heritage employees and was a member of 3M Corporate SWE team. Hang is a holder of four US and 17 global patents and a recipient of several corporate awards for her technical and leadership contribution. She was recognized by SWE in 2022 with the Advocate of Women Engineers award, and by SASE for the 2022 ERG Leadership Achievement and 2021 Career Achievement Award. A child refugee from Saigon, Vietnam, Hang has two daughters in STEM fields who inspire her to do better each day.



Mr. Henrique Soares

Henrique Ramiro Duarte Outeiro Soares is 22 years old and lives in Portugal. He is currently in the last year of his master's degree, studying at Lusíada University of Lisbon. Henrique is only missing the jury discussion of my dissertation with the title, "O Sistema de Informações como instrumento fundamental da Segurança", which translates to "The Intelligence as a crucial instrument for Security". Furthermore, he is finishing a post-graduation diploma on "Intelligence Management and security" in NOVA University of Lisbon. Henrique has a bachelor's degree in international relations from Lusíada University of Lisbon. Since Henrique has dedicated his time to his studies, he does not have any professional experience. However, he is eager to apply the knowledge he have acquired all these years.



Mr. Herbert C. Pell

Clay Pell is a judge on the U.S. Coast Guard of Criminal Appeals and a Commander on the Commandant's Advisory Group. Clay recently completed the Sloan Fellowship at the Stanford Graduate School of Business. Clay previously served as Director for Strategic Planning at the White House National Security Council and Deputy Assistant Secretary for International and Foreign Language Education at the U.S. Department of Education. Clay holds his Juris Doctor from Georgetown, Bachelors from Harvard, and graduated first in his class from the Coast Guard Direct Commission Officer School. Clay has a passion for the international system and has studied Chinese, Spanish, Arabic, and French.



Mr. Ho-Tu Chiang

Ho-Tu Chiang is a manager in a NGO based consultancy, Ocean Outcomes, advancing economic, social, and environmental fisheries sustainability. Also, He is pursuing the master's degree in the International Crime and Justice program of John Jay College of Criminal and Justice and likes to do environmental crime research. He was a former Taiwan Coast Guard who dealt with IUU fishing, international maritime project management and policy analysis for over seven years. Driven by the interest in ocean and maritime security, he takes opportunities to be a part of Global Diplomacy Initiative program of UNITAR to learn sustainable development policy and international justice as well as meet like-minded partners all around the world. In his free time, Ho-Tu likes to do workouts, hiking, and traveling.



Ms. Kathryn Lehnerer

Kathryn Lehnerer is a second-year master's student at John Jay College of Criminal Justice studying International Crimes and Justice while earning an advanced certificate in Transnational Organized Crime. She received her bachelor's degree in Criminology, Law, and Society at the University of California, Irvine, in 2021. Her interest in the international sphere began during her internship at Kohn Kohn & Colapinto, a Washington D.C.-based international whistleblower rights law firm specializing in anti-corruption and whistleblower law. Through this experience, she got exposure to the legal procedures of tackling foreign corruption, and because of that, she was inspired to further her education in International Crimes and Justice at John Jay. After completing her master's, Kathryn aspires to pursue a background in law and apply herself to resolving international disputes.



Ms. Leah Rea

Leah Rea is a scholarship PhD researcher at the Transitional Justice Institute, Ulster University, where she is examining the relationship between constitutional conventions established by devolution and the progression of human rights in Northern Ireland. She holds a Master's in Violence, Terrorism and Security, a Master's in Conflict Transformation and Social Justice, and an LLB, all from Queen's University Belfast. Leah also served on a student working group focused on human rights, researching the necessity of a Bill of Rights for Northern Ireland. She currently serves on the Human Rights Working Group of the European Student Thinktank and is also a member of the FEPS YAN (8th Cycle). Leah is passionate about social justice and believes that human rights progression and the peace process in Northern Ireland are entwined. She is interested in advancing the equivalency of human rights standards across the island. Interested in transatlantic relations in the context of Northern Ireland, Leah is an alumnus of the Washington Ireland Programme (2021) and the British Council's Study USA scholarship programme (2014-2015).



Ms. Leslie Weiler

Leslie Weiler is 23 years old who grew up in Germany. After completing a BA in Criminal Justice and a BS in Psychology at the University of Wyoming, she is now pursuing a Master's degree in International Crime and Justice from John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York City. The Global Diplomacy Initiative has allowed her to explore current issues of diplomacy and given her the chance to critically discuss these with professionals from around the globe. Ms. Weiler is very thankful to have had this unique opportunity to build not only her knowledge but also her skills regarding diplomacy.



Ms. Maria Lynn Simonetti

Maria Simonetti is a graduate student at John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York, where she recently obtained an Advanced Certificate in Transnational Organized Crime. In May 2023, Maria plans to graduate with a Master's Degree in International Crime and Justice. In 2022, she started her academic research career when she began working as a Graduate Research Assistant on two separate projects within John Jay. These opportunities helped her better understand how to collect and analyze data, conduct literature reviews, and, more importantly, work towards a greater goal for the global community. These projects focused on gender, women, victimization, and crime prevention. These projects included a National Science Foundation-funded research project: The Impact of Covid-19 on Victimization Risk and Service Needs for Domestic Violence Victims and Survivors; and, Incarcerated Women – An International Perspective. Upon working on the incarcerated women project, the lead Professor, now her mentor and co-author, decided to begin a new study on prison officer training in Norway, Sweden, and the U.S. Maria's reason for joining the United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) Global Diplomacy Initiative was to learn more about how the United Nations deals with diplomacy and to have an overall understanding of the United Nations especially related to the field of international crime and justice.



Dr. Nada Zaki Wafa

Dr. Nada Zaki Wafa was raised in North Carolina, completed her education and earned her teaching licensure from NC State University. In summer 2011, she moved to Jordan to teach an International Baccalaureate School. Following her work in Jordan, she earned a Master's degree in New Literacies and Global Learning at NC State University. After completing her Master's Degree, she pursued a Ph.D. in Teacher Education and Learning Sciences with a concentration in Social Studies Education, also at NC State University. Her research focus is the integration of global education in schools and societies, the use of inquiry-based instruction, and the infusion of digital technologies in K-12 classrooms. Her areas of expertise align with her work using the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework, which focuses on preparing teachers to use inquiry instruction throughout their teaching and learning. In addition to her research efforts, she demonstrates a commitment to leading and serving in local, national, and global communities.



Dr. Patricia Tesoriero

Patricia Tesoriero is an accomplished professional and Controller, who completed her Ph.D. in International Psychology at The Chicago School of Professional Psychology in the Fall of 2022. The focus was on Organization + Systems, with a dissertation on the Psychosocial Implications of Hydraulic Fracturing on Nearby Communities in North America. The emphasis was aimed at shedding light on marginalized populations with little to no political voice and to seek systematic change to help improve the quality of life for those impacted most. Prior academic achievements include two master's degrees, one in Sociology earned at Arizona State University, and a second earned at Norwich in Diplomacy with a focus on International Commerce. She has also received a Certificate of Teaching License (CTL) from Norwich University as well as Honor Society in Education from Pi Lambda Theta and is certified in Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) obtained at Texas A&M University.

5 BIOGRAPHIES OF GDI PROFESSORS



Dr. Angel Angelov

Consul General to Bulgaria in New York and Former Deputy Permanent Representative of Bulgaria to the UN

Dr. Angelov is specialized in the work of the UN Security Council, with a focus on agenda items related to Europe and the Middle East. Dr. Angelov was recently elected as a Bureau member of the Special Political and Decolonization Committee for the 72nd session of the UN General Assembly. Dr. Angelov has been a visiting professor at several universities in Europe and North America where he teaches courses on different aspects of the work of the UN. He holds various academic degrees in political science, international security and regional studies from the University of Geneva, the University of Bologna and the University of Athens, respectively. Dr. Angelov was awarded numerous research grants, contributed to over 100 international conferences and workshops on foreign policy. He has published over 40 academic, media articles and book chapters. He is a member of editorial boards of a peer-reviewed journal and contributes to different think tanks.



Ms. Cemre Ulker

US Director & UN Representative of the Journalists and Writers Foundation to the United Nations Department of Global Communications

Cemre Ulker is the UN Representative and US Director of the Journalists and Writers Foundation (JWF), an international civil society organization affiliated with the UN Department of Global Communications. Cemre leads JWF's global initiatives to promote the culture of peace, human rights, and sustainable development. She is a human rights advocate dedicated to the full implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals with a particular focus on gender equality, peaceful and just institutions, and global partnerships. Cemre also provides trainings and capacity building programs for the gender-mainstreaming of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and meaningful participation of civil society organizations. Ms. Ulker works on JWF's submissions to CEDAW, Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, Office of the Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Conflict, and NGO CSW about a variety of topics including women's meaningful leadership in the implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda, protection of women refugees, gender-based crimes against women political prisoners, and civil society contribution for the gender mainstreaming of the Global Goals 2030. Cemre Ulker has a BA in Economics from the University of Maryland and completed her Master's Degree in Human Rights at John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York.



Ms. Holly White

*United Nations Development Programme,
Human Resources Specialist – Central Recruitment*

Holly White is the Human Resources Specialist for UNDP's Central Recruitment Unit, based in NYHQ. She joins us from UNFPA, where she worked for 7 years in a variety of roles in HQ and at Regional Level. She joined UNFPA in October 2014 as the HR Strategic Partner of the West & Central Africa Region in Dakar, Senegal. In 2017, she transitioned to NYHQ and supported the Performance Management and Career Development unit. Most recently, she was responsible for the leadership pool and rotation process as the Career Development & Mobility Specialist. Prior to UNFPA, Holly worked with UNICEF for 4 years in New York, providing HR advisory services on staffing, training and development to the Programme Division (health, nutrition, water/sanitation and hygiene [WASH], and HIV/AIDS sectors). Before joining UNICEF, Holly supported the Partnerships, Africa and Arab States Bureaux as an HR and Operations consultant with UNDP. In the private sector, she worked for 10 years for a number of organizations: Altria Group, Inc., Kraft Foods Inc. and M&M/Mars in various HR roles and as an HR Director for Ogilvy & Mather and Ann Taylor. Since 2010, Holly has held the position of adjunct professor at Columbia University's School of International and Public Affairs (SIPA), where she facilitates workshops on career development and interviewing skills for graduate students in the program. Holly earned a Bachelor of Science degree from Cornell University in Ithaca, New York and a Master of Business Administration from Xavier University in Cincinnati, Ohio. Outside of work, Holly spends time with her 1-year-old-daughter, Karolina, and enjoys equestrian competitions with her 2 horses: Odessa and Praia.



Ms. Jelena Pia-Comella

*Former Deputy Permanent Representative of the Principality of Andorra to the United Nations,
Senior Consultant.*

Ms. Pia-Comella is a senior international consultant with over 25 years of experience in international relations and a deep knowledge of the United Nations system. Throughout her career, Ms. Pia-Comella has been true to her feminist principles by promoting women's rights, strengthening women's leadership, and supporting the work of activists in the fields of mass atrocities prevention and gender justice.

Ms. Pia-Comella was appointed Deputy Permanent Representative of Andorra to the United Nations in 2002 and served as *chargé d'affaires a.i./Chief of Mission* to Canada and the United States from 2001 to 2007.

From January to June 2008, she was a consultant for the Center for Women's Global Leadership and Women's Environment and Development Organization to coordinate the Gender Equality Architecture Reform Campaign (GEAR) which led to the creation of UNWomen. Until July 2018, she was the Deputy Executive Director of the World Federalist Movement – Institute for Global Policy (WFM-IGP) setting the strategy and overseeing the work of the Organization including the secretariats of the International Coalition for the Responsibility to Protect and the Coalition for the International Criminal Court. Ms. Pia-Comella served as adviser on gender, peace and security issues for the Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie from June 2019 to August 2021.



Larisa Schelkin, MS PE, MS CS

MS PE, MS CS, CEO & Founder, Global STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math) Education Center, Inc. 501(c) (3) nonprofit and President, Global STEM Education Consulting, LLC

Larisa K. Schelkin CEO, President and Founder, Global STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Math) Education Center, Inc. 501(c) (3) nonprofit corporation; she is the Founding Director of the Science Diplomacy Center, Inc; a Science Diplomacy Advisor at the National Science Policy Network and the Chair of the Science Diplomacy Working Group at the World Council on Intercultural and Global Competency (NGO). Larisa is serving on the Governing Board of the Journal on Science Policy and Governance; she held executive positions in academia and STEM global corporations (WPI, WIT, Tufts University; TYCO Electronics Global Corporation). Larisa is a Fellow for Education Policy, Rennie Center for Educational Research and Policy & Institute for Education Leadership (IEL), Washington, DC (Class 2015); Larisa studied Global Education at Harvard University Graduate School of Education “Think Tank” in 2015-2018, Media and Technology for Education in 2020-2021 and Disruptive Innovation Strategy at Harvard Business School in 2020. Larisa is a Fellow and Board member of Massachusetts Academy of Science. Larisa is a Global Diplomacy Fellow at the UN Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) in New York City (Class 2021). After graduation she has joined teaching faculty at UNITAR in New York; she is teaching courses on the UN Environmental Program, Global Environmental Outlook, Climate Change, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and NASA GLOBE. Larisa is a NASA GLOBE Partner, NASA GLOBE International Scientists and Engineers Network member; she also serves on NASA GLOBE IVSS judging team. Larisa holds BS and MS in Petroleum Engineering & MS in Computer Science. Prior to moving to Massachusetts, USA, Larisa and her family lived in Bashkortostan, Russia, India, and a few countries in Africa.



H.E. Dr. Laszlo Molnar

Senior Lecturer of Clinical Practice of New Jersey City University at the Department of Professional Security Studies, and Former Permanent Representative of Hungary to the United Nations

Dr. Laszlo Molnar is a Senior Lecturer of Clinical Practice of New Jersey City University at the Department of Professional Security Studies, focusing on international security. He is Tom and Ruth Sharkey Distinguished Visiting Scholar of the School of Diplomacy and International Relations at Seton Hall University. He holds a Ph.D. in International Relations, studied at the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy and at the Harvard Kennedy School. He holds a certificate on The International Negotiation Process from the Harvard Negotiation Project and was Resident Fellow of the Institute for East-West Security Studies, New York. Ambassador Molnar served as a career diplomat with the Hungarian foreign service for two decades, held various positions in the Hungarian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, with the highest rank of State Secretary. He was Consul General and then Ambassador, Permanent Representative of Hungary to the United Nations in New York. He represented Hungary in the Security Council (1992-93). His international diplomatic assignments related mainly to international security and nuclear nonproliferation, he was Chair or Vice-Chair of the NPT Review Process in Geneva and New York (2002-2005). He was Executive Director of Cisco with responsibilities in government affairs, business development and cybersecurity. He was a consultant of the Paris-based Cybersecurity Advisors Network and a board member of the International Mediation Institute. He received The Knight's Cross of the Order of Merit of the Republic of Hungary.



Dr. Michael Jabot

Department of Curriculum, and Instruction at The State University of New York at Fredonia

Dr. Michael Jabot is a SUNY Distinguished Professor of Science Education in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at The State University of New York at Fredonia. Dr. Jabot is the Director of the Institute for Research in Science Teaching, a US GLOBE partner and represents the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic Region on the NASA GLOBE US Partner Forum. He is a recipient of the Chancellor's Award for Excellence in Research as well as being recognized for excellence from numerous professional organizations.



Ms. Michele Clarke-Ceres

Executive Career Coach who earned her Advanced Diploma in Career Coaching from New York University (NYU). She is the Creator/Host of The Global Advocate Career Podcast and Co-Founder/President, WorldCeres Inc. an international consultancy focused on Career Coaching, Soft Skills Training and Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion. Her areas of specialization include transitional and outplacement coaching, career development for high school and college graduates, personal branding for professionals at all levels, leadership development, media training, and motivational speaking. With extensive experience in US government, international affairs, and international education; Ms. Clarke-Ceres is very familiar with various workplace dynamics.



H.E. Dr. Yuriy Sergeyev

Former Permanent Representative of Ukraine to the United Nations

Senior Fellow and Lecturer at MacMillan Center for International and Area Studies, European Studies Council, Yale University. Ambassador Yuriy Sergeyev is a former Ukrainian diplomat and politician, having served as the Permanent Representative of Ukraine to the United Nations from 2007 to 2016 and Bahamas (2008-2015); as Ukrainian Ambassador to France and UNESCO "2003-2007"; to Greece, and Albania (1997-2000). He held various posts in the Ukrainian Ministry of Foreign Affairs - Director of Information Department (1992-1994); Chef de Cabinet (1994-1996); First Deputy Minister (2001); State Secretary (2001-2003). Before joining diplomatic service of Ukraine in 1992, Yuriy Sergeyev for 12 years worked in the academic sphere as assistant professor, associate professor, professor at Kiev State University (Ukraine); at UNESCO guided Politechnical Institute in the Republic of Mali (1983-1986); and at the Scientific board of the Institute of Eastern Studies "Paris-Sorbonne IV" (France). He has a PhD degree from the Institute of Linguistics of Ukrainian Academy of Science (1987). Yuriy Sergeyev holds a rank of Ambassador of Ukraine (2000). He is a Grand Officer of the State Order of Ukraine "For Merit" (2006).

United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR)

New York Office

One United Nations Plaza, DC1 Room 603

New York, NY 10017-3515 USA

Tel: + 1 (212)-963-9196 / +1(212)-963- 4611

Fax: + 1 212-963-9686

Email: nyo@unitar.org

www.unitar.org/ny

Twitter: [@Unitar_nyo](https://twitter.com/Unitar_nyo)

