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OBSTACLES AND ENABLERS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A NATIONAL ACTION PLAN FOR THE UNITED NATIONS SECURITY COUNCIL RESOLUTION 1325 (2000) IN SOUTH AFRICA

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A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration

Johannesburg, 2011

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to determine how South Africa can further implement the United Nations Security Council's landmark Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security that was adopted by the Security Council at its 4213th meeting on 31 October 2000. The report will achieve this by ascertaining the obstacles and enablers for the development of a National Action Plan (NAP) in order to implement the aforementioned resolution in the country.

It has been 11 years since the adoption of the resolution. During this period fewer than 30 countries out of 192 Member States have developed NAPs (Peace Women 2011). This realisation is considered to be inadequate, and contributes to the persistent victimisation of women by means of gender-based violence and discrimination with regards to armed conflict and its repercussions.

The research data was collected through both face-to-face and in-depth telephonic interviews that were arranged with relevant employees at the UN, SA government departments, individuals based at embassies that have already implemented the UNSCR 1325 and within civil society, all based in SA.

It was found that the absence of a NAP in SA, unemployment and HIV prevalence hinders the advancement of women empowerment and gender equality; that obstacles to the development of a NAP include a lack of monitoring and accountability; and that NAP enablers include partnerships between UN agencies, governments and civil society, access to private sector CSR programmes, and recognition of female activists, for example in the awarding of Nobel prizes.

The years 2010-2020 have been posited as the Decade of the African Women (African Union 2009). The basis for this report, should therefore, be viewed as the opportune time to attempt to further advance concerns regarding women, peace and security within SA, Southern African Development Community and the African Union. This can arguably be done through developing NAPs, and it should be noted that the process of developing a NAP is as important as the final product.

DECLARATION

I, Lindiwe Dhlamini, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Lindiwe Dhlamini

Signed at ……

On the …….. day of …… 2011

DEDICATION

TO THE DHLAMINI FAMILY: SIPHIWE, PULENG, PHINDILE, KHAYALETHU AND SAKHILE

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this research was to determine how South Africa can further implement the United Nations Security Council's landmark Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security that was adopted by the Security Council at its 4213th meeting on 31 October 2000.

The report intends to provide a framework of obstacles and enablers to assist South Africa to develop a National Action Plan that can be utilised as an effective and concrete tool to translate the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 into practice.

1.2 Context of the study

The United Nations, Member States and civil society joined forces towards the international and national understanding of promoting the goal of gender equality. The UNSCR 1325 is the first United Nations resolution to specifically address women, peace and security issues. Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (2011) suggests that the resolution integrated a gender perspective into all aspects of the prevention and resolution of conflicts, peace negotiations, peace-building, peacekeeping, humanitarian response and in post-conflict reconstruction. The resolution stresses the importance of women's equal participation and full involvement in all efforts for the maintenance and promotion of peace and security. The resolution provides a number of important operational mandates that have implications for Member States.

In addition to the physical insecurity of gender-based violence, the numerous challenges that women face in post-conflict environments are comprised of extreme poverty, the destruction of social networks and coping mechanisms, limited options for employment and livelihood-generation (Popovic, Lytikainen and Barr 2010).

Over time, a number of initiatives have been implemented by the United Nations in an attempt to further facilitate the adoption and implementation of the resolution by member states. One such initiative is the Global Open Day on Women, Peace and Security that took place on the 21st of October 2010. This international occasion was in commemoration of the 10th anniversary of the adoption of the UNSCR 1325 and presented a critical opportunity to review and reflect on achievements to date as well as persistent gaps in implementation. More importantly, it was an ideal occasion to demand greater accountability and propose timely and relevant actions that the United Nations, Member States, civil society and other stakeholders should take to fully implement the resolution.

In addition to the above initiative, the Technical Working Group on Global Indicators for the UNSCR 1325 was created by the United Nations in order to ascertain the current ideal position and how to get to that desired end goal through the development of a common set of indicators that would track the resolution's implementation internationally. The Global Network of Women Peacebuilders then continued to build on these efforts through the coordination with other agencies involved in the indicators development process.

Member states are encouraged to produce NAPs as they can assist to raise awareness and construct means to counter challenges faced when implementing the UNSCR 1325. Peace Women (2011) suggests that the resolution recommends member states to take action at a national level in the following vital areas:

- Women's participation in decision-making and peace processes
- The protection of women and girls
- Gender training

To date, there are only a small number of countries that have employed NAPs (Peace Women 2011), which makes it difficult to measure the progress and impact of the different initiatives. The content and emphasis varies from country to country but they all work as influential tools to start discussions with relevant stakeholders, advance policy development and then to translate those policies

into tangible actions to implement the UNSCR 1325 within the country. South Africa's objective to achieve gender equality is guided by a vision for human rights, which includes acceptance of equal and inalienable rights of all men and women. This principle is a primary tenet under the Bill of Rights of The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996). The country emerged from an Apartheid past to a democratic society that respects and promotes the rights of all its citizens irrespective of gender, race, class, age and disability (Republic of South Africa 2011).

In 2007 and 2008, the Office of the Special Advisor to the Secretary-General on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women, now a part of the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, organised two high-level policy dialogues on the national implementation of the UNSCR 1325 in Latin America and Africa, during which member states confirmed their commitment to supporting national-level action, in particular the development of NAPs (Luciak 2007).

National-level policies on women, peace and security rely on country-specific political, socio-economic and cultural contexts. It is possible that South Africa has implemented a number of the indicators, but the country has yet to develop a NAP and this can be seen as a gap in the United Nations system towards improved and satisfactory gender equality. Considering the country's re-election as a non-permanent member of the UNSC for the period 2011-2012, this implementation seems ever more pertinent.

1.3 Problem statement

1.3.1 Main problem

Ascertain the obstacles and enablers for the development of a National Action Plan in order to implement the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security in South Africa.

1.4 Significance of the study

For a country not at war, South Africa's crime and violence statistics are alarming. The country's injury death rate is almost twice the global average, with this rate determined mainly by interpersonal and gender-based violence. Half the female victims of homicide are murdered by their intimate male partners and South Africa has a particularly high rate of rape of women and girls (Seedat, Van Niekerk, Jewkes, Suffla and Ratele 2009). The authors go on to state that 55,000 rapes of women and girls are reported to the police every year, and suggest that this is estimated to be nine times lower than the actual numbers (Seedat et al 2009: 1011).

In this regard, the resolution lends itself very applicable in the South African context in terms of addressing some of the intricacies related to the level of crime inflicted on women in the country. Ekiyor and Wanyeki (2007) argue that the UNSCR 1325 serves two main purposes:

1. To work as an advocacy tool for engendering peacemaking processes
2. To work as a mechanism of international law that is binding on all United Nations member states

Given South Africa's prominence in conflict resolution through peacemaking, peacebuilding and peacekeeping, the government should take on major responsibility for the implementation of the UNSCR 1325. Since the resolution's adoption in 2000, it is apparent that national level implementation is important to successfully addressing women, peace and security issues towards gender mainstreaming, and ultimately gender equality. Cohn (2004) states that the notion of gender mainstreaming is at the heart of the UNSCR 1325 because the resolution aims to make gender equality and gender issues a central part of the Security Council and the member states' agenda. Gender mainstreaming has been promoted as the tool to integrate a gender perspective in policy development, research, advocacy, dialogue, legislation, resource allocation, planning, implementation and monitoring of programmes (Popovic 2010).

There is also the growing attention to the requirement for “gender equality” concerns to include men in the discussions, a recognition that while gender equality has become synonymous with “women”, it is finally about relational connections between men and women (Swaine 2010).

The research is significant in that it will provide some basis in documenting how far South Africa is from meeting all the indicator requirements and the work that is required to achieve them. The study will not only benefit South Africa on a national level, but it will also assist the United Nations in establishing a more accurate representation of its regional and international constituencies.

The study will also provide guidance towards a framework that will help South Africa to complete a NAP that will in turn further support the country in its implementation of the UNSCR 1325.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

The research focused on information from the United Nations, South African government, other country embassies that have implemented the UNSCR 1325 and civil society organisations.

The researcher foresaw a challenge in obtaining objective responses from personnel who were approached from United Nations agencies, government departments, other country embassies and civil society organisations. A convenience sample of 12 staff members from these entities perceived to be experts in the realm of women, peace and security were identified and contacted with 10 being interviewed.

1.6 List of Acronyms

AU	African Union
CSO	Civil Social Organisation
GBV	Gender Based Violence
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NAP	National Action Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
SA	South Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
UN	United Nations
UNSCR	United Nations Security Council Resolution
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

1.7 Assumptions

The following points were the underlying assumptions regarding the research conducted:

- The respondents views' would be representative of the United Nations, South African government, other country embassies that have implemented the UNSCR 1325 and civil society organisations
- The particular respondents chosen would have sufficient knowledge concerning women, peace and security in line with the UNSCR 1325
- The respondents would be honest and unbiased when sharing information

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The literature review concentrated on the key themes of significance to the research by identifying the different components necessary for SA to develop a NAP in order to implement the UNSCR 1325. A background discussion included a summary on the resolution and its implementation thus far. The review further discussed NAPs, their purpose, implementation, financing and monitoring thereof. It also discussed the perceived obstacles and enablers to developing NAPs. In turn, it illustrated the significance for SA to implement the UNSCR 1325 through the development a country NAP.

2.2 Background discussion on the UNSCR 1325

Over the past decade, regardless of the continuous attempts for real tangible action, the reality of women conflict circumstances persist to be one of insecurity and the worst forms of human rights abuse internationally.

Although women play numerous roles within armed conflict conditions, these roles tend to include being, as in the case of Sierra Leone, cooks, porters, sex slaves, heads of households, combatants and income generators whilst still experiencing immense forms of GBV (Amnesty International 2007). These same women are then discriminated against, isolated and excluded from their families and communities. In addition, they are unable to find food, shelter, work and medical attention, which, in turn hinders them from both reintegration and economic independence

Passed in 2000, the UNSCR 1325 has been hailed as a milestone regarding its recognition of and commitment to address women's experiences of armed conflict. This is evident in the emphasis of its stipulation that women should be engaged at all decision-making levels for the prevention, management and resolution of armed conflict. The tenth anniversary of the UNSCR 1325 should

be seen as an opportunity to restore commitments from global, regional and national stakeholders towards the resolution's full implementation.

2.3 Relevant international legal instruments

Three international legal instruments will be explored in this report. These legal instruments have played a significant part in advancing women, peace and security issues.

2.3.1 The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women, adopted 1981

This is a strong legal instrument for the promotion of women's rights when endorsed by a member state and is often portrayed as a bill of rights for women as it addresses all forms of discrimination that happen along gender lines (Byrnes and Bath 2008). Member states party to the Convention need to incorporate equality into their legal systems, establish an effective tribunal to investigate discrimination and to ensure elimination of discrimination in all aspects of life

2.3.2 The Beijing Platform for Action, developed at the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995

Culler (2000) states that the Platform for Action identifies 12 significant areas of public policy with specific analysis on the impacts on women. The policy agreement enumerates that violations of human rights of women in situations of armed conflict, assassination, and in particular sex-related crimes such as rape, slavery and enforced pregnancy are violations of the "fundamental principles of international human rights and humanitarianism." These necessitate a particularly effective response. The Platform also calls for a standard 30 per cent minimum female representation in national parliaments.

2.3.3 The UN System-wide action plan for the implementation of the Security Council Resolution 1325, adopted in 2005

The first System-wide action plan (2005-2007) included all the necessary entities across the organisation detailing actions that each was pursuing. It was then reviewed in 2007 and among the weaknesses identified were the lack of baseline data, performance indicators and time lines (United Nations 2006).

The United Nations goes on to mention the Security General's report that elaborates on all 26 indicators that were constructed to assist in the tracking and monitoring of the implementation of the resolution. The indicators are arranged into 3 Pillars that reflect the 2008-2009 UN System-wide Action Plan:

1. Prevention – Decrease all forms of structural and physical violence against women in conflict
2. Participation – Women should be included at all stages of decision making during discussions associated with the prevention of conflicts
3. Protection – Women's physical, mental health and economic empowerment should be declared

Although the UN is meant to be the custodian of the UNSCR 1325, it too has been equally challenged by achieving significant headway in implementing some of the milestones that were expected of it. For example, it took the UN five years after the resolution had been adopted to develop its action plan.

2.4 Formulation and implementation

This section can assist SA with explicit ways to formulate and develop a NAP, and its implementation thereafter.

2.4.1 Policy formulation and implementation

The policy formulation stage within the policy process is vital as this is when "official proposals or alternatives are developed for dealing with policy issues and a policy proposal or alternative is adopted by a form of government" (Bishwakarma, Hunt and Zajicek 2007: 29). This is when stakeholders come

together to discuss information required to produce a framework for how the policy problem will be tackled.

Policies should be adaptive to allow stakeholders the ability to adjust and reform them when necessary. If policymakers make certain that the policies are not stagnant, this will result in them being current and relevant. Thereafter the policies can then be viewed as living documents that all stakeholders can take ownership of. Adaptive policies involve essential changes in the three key elements of policy making (Walker, Rahman and Cave 2000: 282):

1. The Analytical approach
2. The types of policies considered
3. The decision-making process

When this occurs, stakeholders get a thorough document because every step of the policy-making process can adapt to new findings and lessons learnt that could assist further with implementation of the policy.

The policy implementation phase is about carrying out policy decisions, with O'Toole (2000) defining it as what transpires between the time a decision has been established by government and its eventual impact on its intended world. There are differing means to implement a policy and the choice taken should be the most appropriate for the stakeholders concerned.

Matheson (2000) discusses the vertical and horizontal methods to policy-making. He describes how the vertical approach entails hierarchical relationships, which allows government to take and enforce decisions as it sees fit. He regards the horizontal approach as entailing bargaining, negotiating and persuasion, which allows government to make broad-based decisions but still requiring the buy-in from all stakeholders. Taking into consideration all stakeholders regarding the resolution, the horizontal approach to policy-making would be the most appropriate, as it is more democratic and lends itself to the whole group's considerations.

2.4.2 Strategy formulation and implementation

It is crucial for a strategy statement to start with a definition of the end product that the actual strategy is designed to achieve. Mintzberg (1987) defines strategy using five Ps:

- Plan: Strategy is a set of guidelines to tackle certain circumstances
- Ploy: Strategy is a set of schemes to overcome certain eventualities
- Pattern: Strategy is the repetitive nature of an organisation
- Position: Strategy places an organisation within its external environment
- Perspective: Strategy illustrates how the internal organisation views itself

Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel (2001) examine the advantages and disadvantages regarding strategy setting direction:

The advantage is that the key function of strategy is to set out the course of action for the organisation in order for it to flow effortlessly through situations. Another advantage is that strategy encourages coordination of activities, without it disorder can arise when people pull in different directions.

The disadvantage is that strategy can become a set of blinders to conceal potential hazards. Another disadvantage is that “groupthink” surfaces when efforts are too carefully focused, without peripheral vision the organisation is not open to other possibilities.

As part of the complete strategic management process, strategy implementation follows strategy development and entails the formulation of programmes, budgets and procedures (Haugen and Davis 2010) although research has established that the success rate of implementation is only between 10 to 30 percent (Raps 2004). Critics have also noted that the problem is getting worse in both public and private sector organisations (Pfeffer 1992), two possible reasons for this could be:

- While strategy development is the creative and intellectual part entailing set tools and techniques, implementation is the “doing” part consisting of

more challenging leadership and management skills (Rausch, Halfhill, Sherman and Washbush 2001).

- While strategy development is generally portrayed and practiced as the restricted purview of Chief Executive Officers and their executive management teams, implementation is everyone's responsibility in the organisation (Haugen and Davis 2010).

A strategy is necessary and can be considered as a guide for participants wanting to implement the resolution.

2.4.3 Change management

Change management can be defined as a structured approach to transferring individuals, teams and organisations from an existing situation to a coveted future state (Hiatt 2011). The author goes on to state that it is an organisational process aimed at empowering employees to accept and embrace changes in their current business environment. Change management has been seen failing due to circumstances such as the lack of senior management commitment, employees' resistance to the recommended change and ineffective implementation planning and integration (Hiatt 2011). This view was expressed a number of years ago by Kotter and Schlesinger in 1979 (Kotter and Schlesinger 1979) and reiterated when the article was republished as a "Best of HBR" article in 2008 (Kotter and Schlisinger 2008).

Within a corporation, there are various methods that managers can utilise to influence their employees positively and give them reason to buy into the intended change. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) state that possible methods could include:

- Education and communication

Educating employees about the anticipated change will give them the opportunity to understand it. Communicating about the proposed change will give employees the chance to ask questions until they are hopefully comfortable with the initiative.

- Participation and involvement

Allowing employees to take part in some aspect of the formulation and implementation of the change also allows them to take ownership of the end product.

- Negotiation and agreement

Offering incentives to potentially resistant employees gives them the chance to see a win-win outcome. Management can negotiate with unions and individual employees to result in an agreement that both sides are content with.

Change management is crucial for organisations and these above three methods to implement change within corporations can be viewed as an example of how the SA government can work together with other stakeholders to ensure the implementation of the resolution.

Kotter (1995) had set out eight steps to transforming an organisation, these entail:

1. Establishing a sense of urgency
2. Forming a powerful guiding coalition
3. Creating a vision
4. Communicating the vision
5. Empowering others to act on the vision
6. Planning for and creating short-term wins
7. Consolidating improvements and producing still more change
8. Institutionalising new approaches

These steps can be implied for both the policy and strategy implementation phases. Mento, Jones and Dirndorfer (2002) point out that there are two main learnings from the steps. Firstly the change process goes through numerous phases and each could last a substantial amount of time, secondly, any significant mistakes made at any of the steps could hinder the momentum and impact of the change process. These considerations are imperative and should be taken into account by any policy maker and strategist.

2.5 National Action Plans

The slow and ad-hoc measures adopted by the global community to implement the UNSCR 1325 prompted the development of NAPs as a possible way to help accelerate the process because they assist in ensuring that the implementation process is viewed in a practical sense through which member states can illustrate the steps they have taken to satisfy their obligations under the UNSCR 1325 (United Nations Security Council 2002).

A NAP is a document that the government of a country states its intended activities through a detailed policy implementation strategy (Gwendolyn and Popovic 2009). It should be structured to demonstrate the peace and conflict circumstances of a country, the roles and interactions between various stakeholders in the country, the skills and capacities required for the implementation of the plan and the indispensable resources necessary to support the plan (Ekiyor and Wanyeki 2007). A NAP should also increase collaboration, transparency and coherent implementation. Taking into account that the transformation of policy into practice is long and complex, a NAP should not be viewed simply as a document, but rather a process document that is able to facilitate constant development towards numerous goals such as gender mainstreaming and ultimately gender equality.

The UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women was the first organisation to publish and provide specific guidance to governments in developing NAPs for the UNSCR 1325. The report emphasised the value of NAPs in that they give a comprehensive approach to the implementation of the UNSCR 1325. The inherent value of NAPs can be summarized into the following (United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women 2006):

- They enhance coordination amongst the appropriate parties
- They raise awareness amongst relevant stakeholders
- They create ownership among those held responsible for its implementation
- They instil a culture and system of accountability

The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (2006) reveals that there is no standard template for the development of NAPs, and therefore, no established expectations as to the minimum standards that should be met. As a result NAPs differ extensively regarding the method of development, the content and the structures and frameworks set up to facilitate their implementation.

Gumru and Fritz (2009) advise that a comprehensive NAP should cover the following components:

- Introductory and background information
- Financial allocation
- Monitoring and evaluation processes
- Specified implementation agents

2.5.1 Financing

The provision for sufficient funding is a critical factor in making sure that a NAP can be well developed and effectively implemented. Recent studies on NAPs have discovered that the implementation of women, peace and security provisions is hindered by marginalisation of the Ministries through which the UNSCR 1325 plans are meant to be implemented, because they are likely to be under-funded, especially when compared with other Ministries such as the Ministries of Defence or Finance (United Nations Development Fund for Women 2009). Gwendolyn and Popovic (2009) recommend that to make certain that the UNSCR 1325 efforts are adequately funded, it is necessary to include budgetary requirements and transparent reporting mechanisms in NAPs. This funding should also include the funding that goes towards monitoring and evaluation. The financing resources can also be divided between internal and external funds.

A gender perspective is required on both the donor and recipient sides regarding the transferring of funds but as a mainstream and crosscutting concern, the gender aspect of funding is difficult to determine. Considering a government budget from a gender perspective is also a useful tool for further

transparent expenditure for progressing gender equality. Gender Responsive Budgeting is described by Budlender (2005: 4) as “involving the analysis of the government’s budget in terms of its reach and impact on women and men, girls and boys. It is in effect, a form of policy analysis from a gender perspective.”

Twinning is a suggested way for two donor countries to provide funding for a third recipient country. It concerns the two donors providing financial and technical support to the recipient for five years in the development and implementation of the UNSCR 1325. Women leaders and civil society get to share their experiences between the countries involved (Civil Society Advisory Group on Women, Peace and Security 2010).

The private sector within a country should also be considered when discussing issues on women, peace and security as this sector can provide new and innovative opportunities to promote gender equality. Firms can get involved through their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives, but it necessary to take into account that CSR means different things to different firms. To some firms it is about the legal responsibility or liability, while to others it concerns an ethical sense of responsibility and other firms plainly view it as a charitable contribution (Votaw 1972). CSR can also be based on two dimensions, the organisational and the social. The organisational dimension concerns how the firm views itself and the social dimension concerns how the firm views itself as part of its own greater social environment (Mostovicz, Kakabadse and Kakabadse 2009). It is not clear how women, peace and security issues fall within a firm’s CSR scope unless it has an actual gender component.

Financing a NAP finally depends on the combination of the country’s domestic infrastructure, its social and political environments. There is certainly no “one size fits all” model answer as to how much funding is required for an effective NAP.

2.5.2 Monitoring

Brambilla (2001: 2) advocates that the best NAPs have solid measurement indicators and true enforceability within the national government’s legislature.

Monitoring and evaluation methods “measure the impact of the activities of a development programme or policy...and assess whether the targets are actually met.”

If the effort is made to use both male and female monitors and evaluators during the monitoring and evaluation process, this process will in turn be regarded as gender-sensitive (Beck 1999). It is thought by Brambilla (2001) that this participatory process will assist in the assurance that women’s perspectives will be able to help in the development of indicators, which is an important step in a gender inclusive monitoring and evaluation process.

2.5.3 Indicators

Beck (1999) is of the opinion that it is crucial to note when developing indicators to use during the monitoring process, that the indicators are not simply statistics. The rationale behind this opinion is that instead of simply presenting the facts, indicators involve the comparison to a standard in their interpretation. Beck (1999) also says that NAP indicators for the UNSCR 1325 reveal the different priorities specific to the country’s government in relation to its stance on women, peace and security. A huge limitation of indicators though, is that they “do not provide information on wider social patterns: they usually inform the analyst little about why gender relations have been shaped in a particular way and how these relations can be changed” (Beck 1999: 8-9).

Within a country, even though the government has the primary responsibility to implement and monitor NAPs, it should involve other stakeholders for the best outcome. Civil society organisations not only provide decisive input during the development process but they can also serve as a vital part of the monitoring of activities (Government of Norway 2006). The organisations can further raise awareness, contribute to advocacy initiatives and provide essential views on gender-related topics. This would in turn contribute to the transparency and inclusiveness of the implementation of the NAP, as participatory collaboration at the national level assists to avoid any overlap and would contribute to comprehensive policy implementation.

Gwendolyn and Popovic (2009) propose that different stakeholders in monitoring resolutions on women, peace and security could include:

- Globally - UN, International donor community
- Regionally – UN bodies, Inter-governmental organisations, Civil Society Organisations, Non Governmental Organisations networks
- Nationally – Government ministries, Defence institutions, Academic and statistical organisations
- Locally – Private sector, Women's organisations, Human Rights activists, Media

2.5.4 Implementation efforts

It should be taken into account that NAPs are exactly that – plans, merely offering member states a framework to implement the UNSCR 1325. Worldwide, the Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues within the UN Economic Commission for Africa's Centre for Gender and Social Development in Addis Ababa started an initiative to raise and increase awareness about the importance of implementing the UNSCR 1325 in Africa. Within the continent, the African Union's (AU) Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality of 2004 was initiated to encourage gender parity within member states. Regarding the regional economic communities, the Southern African Development Community's (SADC) Gender Unit has utilised the UNSCR 1325 to improve women's participation in peace building across the region (Ekiyor and Wanyeki 2007). In SA, the concept of "National Gender Machinery" refers to "an integrated package" of structures positioned at various levels of state, civil society and within the statutory bodies to facilitate with gender mainstreaming in the country (Warioba 2004: 4).

"Twinning" can also be utilised in the implementation efforts for the UNSCR 1325. In this context, twinning can be described as having the potential to develop partnerships in the spirit of 1325 and promote a more equitable relationship between donor and recipient countries (Dutch Working Group 2009: 403). It is necessary, however, to ensure that these partnerships are founded on equality and not driven by the donor country's own agenda. Regional action

plans have been suggested and were welcomed by the UN. Their development is viewed to advance synergies and coherence as well as conformity on the implementation on the resolution (United Nations 2008).

Considering that the resolution was adopted in 2000 not many member states have implemented their own NAPs, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, with SA being one such member state.

2.6 Obstacles to developing and implementing NAPs

NAPs are normally challenged by obstacles prior to implementation, if the below can be tackled then NAPs have a better chance to get developed and further implemented. Popovic (2010) has identified a number of obstacles that can derail implementation of NAPs. These include:

- The lack of baseline data in post-conflict situations
- The lack of agreed-upon international targets in the area of women, peace and security
- The lack of funding dedicated to women, peace and security, and the lack of monitoring and evaluation efforts towards this goal

Other challenges that need to be taken into account include: no co-ordination of efforts regarding women, peace and security between the different stakeholders in a country whereby it would be much easier to integrate resolutions if the different mechanisms were more complimentary. The difficulty in collecting relevant data, the lack of capacity and the skill to process and report on data, the lack of awareness, knowledge and understanding of the UNSCR 1325 and the need to develop its NAP within a country, the lack of a standardised tracking system and in some countries gender issues are not important, therefore, not valued.

There are particular security risks posed to data collectors and informants in many post-conflict contexts that would need to be assessed and taken into account (Moser 2007).

The definition of justice, especially in post-conflict situations, needs to be standardised. In addition, a discussion is necessary to ascertain if justice should be retributive (dependent on the criminal justice system) or restorative (provided by a transitional justice system which could incorporate customary or traditional justice systems) or both. Customary or traditional justice systems in Africa might be more accessible and culturally sensitive for GBV survivors (Ekiyor and Wanyeki 2007). The before-mentioned authors also state that:

- The complex nature of international law and policy
- How to measure structural change brought about by the UNSCR 1325
- The UNSCR 1325 viewed as inapplicable to low-intensity intra-state conflict, which would be the case for SA
- The question of who is ultimately responsible for implementation, because gender departments lack resources and cross cutting influence

The effective translation of the resolution into transformative policy and practice remains one of the greatest challenges. Charlesworth and Wood (2001) also advocate that the two essential challenges about the implementation of the UNSCR 1325 are:

- Although in-roads have been made, there is still relatively low awareness in Africa, SADC and SA about the resolution. Possibly translating it into local languages such as Zulu and Sotho, taking into account that SA has 11 official languages, could possibly raise the desired awareness and interest
- The resolution is viewed as a tool for women only and not one that can also be used by men as well. It fails to engage on the issue of “men”, their role, interests and interactions with the resolution’s implementation

It has been observed that since 2000 there have been numerous reports on what should happen to implement the UNSCR 1325, but very little has been reported on what has been done thus far (Richardson 2007). This is due to the very weak, or sometimes non-existent, monitoring and evaluation efforts within member states. In order for implementation to occur successfully, high-level political will must be given to the UNSCR 1325 and NAPs could also involve the

local government structures, as they are the ones that have insight into the rural and community levels.

Olanisakin (2007) believes that more than a ‘add women and stir’ strategy is needed. This statement rings true because for many member states it is much easier to put women into employment posts, knowing very well that they do not necessarily qualify for them, and then never go on to equip these women with the required skills and training to be able to do the job sufficiently in future. This is mostly experienced with member states that just want to supposedly meet the regional and global quotas, but are not going about doing this in the systematic way.

2.7 Enablers to developing and implementing NAPs

The reasons why NAPs do not get interpreted into tangible results remain uncertain, considering that they are a number of different components that can be used to assist with their development and implementation.

2.7.1 The UNSCR 1325 Successors

The three other more recently adopted resolutions of women, peace and security try to elaborate and emphasise the importance of implementing the UNSCR 1325. They are seen as complimenting the UNSCR 1325 to the extent that they address some of its identified gaps. They also represent a reflection of the current thinking on moving the women, peace and security agenda forward. It is necessary to acknowledge that all four UNSCRs alone will not bring about the anticipated change without the full commitment from all stakeholders at international, regional and national levels.

The UNSCR 1820 (2008) was adopted on 19 June 2008 and focuses on the prevention of sexual violence committed against all civilians in conflict ridden countries. Its adoption was significant in that it marked the Security Council’s recognition that addressing sexual violence in conflict is a matter of international peace and security, and therefore, within its purview. This resolution places sexual violence squarely within the security paradigm of the Council,

acknowledging that it can exacerbate armed conflict and impede the restoration of peace (United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, United Nations Development Fund for Women and Stop Rape Now 2010).

Achuthan and Black (2009) who are known critics of the resolution argued that:

- It came out too early because the UNSCR 1325 had yet to be fully implemented and another resolution could divert attention away from this
- Such a resolution could regress the discourse on women in UN resolutions to the status of victims, which was characteristic of the terminology that had been used to reference women prior to the UNSCR 1325
- The resolution refers only to sexual violence and does not address the broader category of GBV

In addition, Achuthan and Black (2009) suggest that the long-term vision for addressing sexual violence should be grounded in the following long-term goals: Preventing widespread violence from leading to cultures of impunity and strengthening effective accountability mechanisms to prosecute perpetrators.

Resolution 1888 (2009) was adopted on 30 September 2009 and reiterates the provisions of both the UNSRC 1325 and the UNSRC 1820. It stresses the different roles and responsibilities of different international and national actors. The resolution operationalised UNSCR 1820. Together they present an ambitious platform for confronting current emergencies affecting women. They require security actors, including the UN and regional peacekeepers, to respond to sexual violence with as much determination as they would to any other atrocity (United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations et al 2010).

Swaine (2010) brings attention to the issue of protection as its meaning continues to be debated within the UN system, including viewing women and children as a homogeneous victim-group. This results in the lack of concentration to the actual prevention of sexual violence.

The most recent Resolution 1889 (2009) was adopted on 5 October 2009 and sets out a range of measures to strengthen the participation of women at all

stages of peace processes. It also advocates for international indicators that will assist in measuring the implementation of the UNSCR 1325. The UNSCR 1889, together with 1888, go some way to respond to the lack of accountability mechanisms in both the UNSCR 1325 and the UNSCR 1820. It concentrates on the post-conflict context, addressing the need for women's participation in peace-building initiatives from the outset to evade their exclusion in the post-conflict period, and picks up on some of the more progressive notions contained within the UNSCR 1325. Particularly, it notes the inclusion of the concept of women's empowerment with regards to an operational setting (Swaine 2010).

All four UNSCRs firmly establish that there is an international initiative grounded in both law and policy, and that the spotlight is on the Security Council to continue to move the agenda of women, peace and security forward. These resolutions cannot stand alone, but can rather add onto a huge body of international legislature that promote and protect women's rights.

2.7.2 UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

The UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women was created by the General Assembly on July 2nd 2010 and began its work on January 1st 2011; the entity is more commonly known as UN Women and had an initial budget of $500million (twice the budget of all four former organisations combined). The UN now has an agency with both normative and operational functions, it is exclusively dedicated to enhancing gender equality and women's empowerment and it will also assist to ensure that all parts of the UN system do better to address these issues within their own mandates (Clark 2011).

UN Women disbanded and consolidated four formally distinct bodies:

- UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)
- Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW)
- Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues (OSAGI)
- UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (UN-INSTRAW)

In Africa, UN Women works to encourage public accountability for women's human rights. The agency continues to support women's leadership in democratic governance and peace building. It also promotes the transformation of policy processes to decrease women's poverty, ending violence against women and addressing the HIV/AIDS pandemic (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women 2011).

The agency is still in its fledgling stage and remains to prove itself to the international community. Critics have commented that it is, at present, just an amalgamation of what existed in the past and some experts would have preferred to see an initial budget of $1billion versus the actual $500million (Burki 2010).

2.7.3 Millennium Development Goals

In 2000, world leaders from both developed and developing countries came together to set ambitious targets which committed them to decreasing extreme poverty by 2015. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) come from the Millennium Declaration and are a basic framework that the international community can use to reach this common aim. In 2010, during the UN General Assembly, the first MDG Review Summit took place and it was utilised as an opportunity to renew promises and refocus the international community to attaining the set goals. A broader spectrum of stakeholders within the development community were involved and given a chance to voice their opinions. This was a major milestone as this had never been achieved before.

SA has committed itself to the MDGs and has embraced them into a national set of ten priorities, a number of indicators were localized and a total of 95 indicators were addressed to tackle the eight MDGs. The country has recognised this global agenda as the single most important agenda for resolving development challenges (Republic of South Africa and United Nations Development Fund 2010).

Gender equality and the empowerment of women are at the heart of the MDGs because to achieve any goal, gender and GBV are crosscutting issues and

require attention and inclusion in all eight goals. The eight goals are significant for the development of a NAP because about 70 per cent of the world's poorest people are female (Devex and United Nations Foundation 2010). Most of the MDG targets have a 2015 deadline and 1990 is the baseline against which any progress is gauged.

The MDG Goal 3 (Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women) targets to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education, no later than 2015. Kabeer (2005) suggests that is an essential goal, valued as an end in itself rather than a mechanism for achieving other goals. The findings from MDG 3 are crucial, and are the most relevant to assist SA in its implementation of a NAP for the UNSCR 1325. A Task Force was put together for the MDGs and has recognized seven interdependent strategic priorities that will assist to ensure the attainment of MDG 3. These are to (Grown, Gupta and Kes 2005):

- Strengthen opportunities for post primary education for girls while also ensuring that pledges for universal primary education are met concurrently
- Guarantee sexual and reproductive health for women and girls
- Provide efficient infrastructure to decrease women's and girls' time burdens
- Assure women's and girls' property and inheritance rights
- Abolish gender inequalities with regards to employment
- Boost the share of women's seats in national and local government seats
- Continue to fight violence against women and girls

Akpotor (2009) believes that in light of the MDGs towards the UNSCR 1325, both men and boys should be made to better understand how to further equality issues and work together with women and girls in the attempt to meet the set targets because women are still viewed as the inferior sex, relegated by culture and traditions as the centre of the home and family life. Akpotor (2009) continues to say that in the African context, men are placed at an advantage over women and this is exacerbated by culture, religion and beliefs that undercut women's rights politically, economically and socially.

In the SA context, Peters (2009) states that the MDGs are a political reminder of the government's development promises, and posits that the country has not gone as far as the Constitution insists towards improving socio-economical rights within the country. Due to the country's Apartheid history, inclusive development and enforcing the MDGs are embedded in a frame of initiatives such as Black Economic Empowerment, social grants and public works programmes (Chibba 2011). The International Monetary Fund states that sensible macroeconomic policies, structural reforms to eliminate barriers to growth and employment and the design of suitable conditions for private sector development have assisted the country in its endeavour (Ramcharan 2009). Leckie (2009) suggests that for the MDGs to remain sustainable, they would need to be partnered with the broader social and gender justice initiatives internationally.

Haines and Cassels (2004) consider that the MDGs are worthwhile for the following reasons:

- They are a way to ensure accountability and responsibility, both ways between the developing and developed countries
- They offer an alternate lens for development efforts
- By illustrating how far behind progress is, they reveal the dire need for urgent action

Critics of the MDGs mainly point out their methodological weaknesses. Easterly, one such critic claims that the MDGs are unreasonable towards Africa in the way the targets are set and in the measuring of each country's performance. He suggests that the poverty-reduction goal is unfair to Africa compared to other regions starting points in 1990. He goes on to mention that the choices accessible for the measurement of the targets advancement should be consistent and take matters such the absolute versus percentage changes into account (Easterly 2009). Other sceptics question if it is worthwhile to have standard international goals, considering the poor track record of previous international declarations.

2.8 NAP implementation in other countries

2.8.1 The Netherlands

The country adopted a NAP in 2007 and implemented it in 2009, with most of the funding coming from the government's fund that was devoted to achieving the MDG 3. This NAP was given a four year time horizon (2008-2011) although it was emphasised that UNSCR 1325 efforts would not end at the end of 2011. The Dutch NAP is a joint venture between the government and civil society organisations, and these signatories chose to also focus on the promotion of women leadership and political participation in Fragile States (Popovic 2010). The three pilot countries that have been isolated for this endeavour are Afghanistan, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. She continues to set out the NAP steps that should be taken in the five focus areas (Popovic 2010: 41):

- International legal framework
- Conflict prevention, mediation and reconstruction
- International cooperation
- Peace missions
- Harmonisation and coordination

The Netherlands' experience establishes the notion that the partnership between governments and civil society organisations can contribute to the UNSCR 1325 funding and implementation globally. As a result of the weak and non committal language on the UNSCR 1325 concerning monitoring and accountability, no such mechanisms were set up initially for this NAP but a Monitoring and Evaluation Task Force was eventually established in 2009.

2.8.2 Liberia

President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf of Liberia is the first female Head of State in Africa, and this was viewed as a significant consideration for the UNSCR 1325 implementation in the country in 2009. The Ministry of Gender and Development is the National Machinery authorised by the government to

promote gender equality and women's advancement, it oversaw the development of the country's NAP. The four-year NAP (2009-2013) is deemed to be a "living document" because it can be amended as and when necessary within the Liberian context. The NAP is based on four pillars: Protection, Prevention, Participation and Empowerment and Promotion (Ministry of Gender and Development in Liberia 2009). The authors go on to elaborate on the goals of the NAP as (Liberia Ministry of Gender and Development 2009: 12):

- Strengthen, development and prevention, response and protection policies, procedures and mechanisms that promote the human rights of women and girls and guarantee their security at both the national and personal levels
- Promote the design, development and institutionalisation of economic, social and security policies that will empower women and girls to participate fully and effectively in Liberia's peace-building, reconstruction, recovery and development processes at all levels, including the decision making level
- Strengthen the coordination and coherence of gender mainstreaming activities in Liberia by raising awareness and intent of the UNSCR 1325, and implementing its underlying principles

Civil society, through women groups in particular, has been chosen as the watchdog. This is part of the Civil Society Monitoring Observatory that will monitor the implementation process. There is also contention over accountability and responsibility issues for the NAP development and UNSCR 1325 implementation.

2.8.3 Rwanda

The government decided on a participatory process in order to develop and implement a NAP, which was given an initial duration of 2009-2012. The Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion lead the collaborative efforts together with other stakeholders from UN agencies, the public, private and civil society organisations. The NAP was in line with the country's Economic Development

and Poverty Reduction Strategy for the term 2008-2012 (Republic of Rwanda 2010). The government states the five priority factors as:

- The prevention of violence and conflicts
- The protection of women's rights and taking into account the special requirements of women
- The strengthening of women's contribution to participation in decision making matters regarding peace and security
- Peace building and women empowerment in the post-Genocide social and economic restoration
- The coordination and evaluation of the stakeholders' activities regarding the development and implementation of the NAP

This NAP emphasised the necessity for community dialogue due to the thinking that if all of society takes part in discussions, this will result in the best outcomes. However, it should be highlighted that the need to involve women did not seem like a priority (Republic of Rwanda 2010: 11).

The credibility of UNSCRs rests on the organisation's ability and capacity to get Security Council decisions implemented on paper and in reality. All the above three NAPs shared the notion that for the development and implementation of a NAP, stakeholders from primarily the government and civil society organisations should be involved. SA can use the lessons learnt to assist it when developing and implementing its NAP.

2.9 Conclusion of Literature Review

It has been eleven years since the adoption of the landmark UNSCR 1325 on women, peace and security. During this period only less than 30 countries out of 192 Member States have developed NAPs (Peace Women 2011). This realisation is considered to be inadequate, and contributes to the persistent victimisation of women by means of GBV and discrimination with regards to armed conflict and its repercussions. The aim of the literature review was to ascertain how SA could further implement the UNSCR 1325 through its development of a NAP.

2.9.1 Research propositions

Proposition 1

The absence of a NAP in SA hinders the advancement of women empowerment and gender equality

Proposition 2

NAP obstacles experienced include a lack of monitoring and accountability

Proposition 3

NAP enablers experienced include partnerships between UN agencies, governments and civil society.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter illustrates the methodology that was used to perform the proposed research and the propositions listed in the conclusion of Chapter 2; it was done by a review of the research methodology. It was then followed by a discussion on the research design, population and sample and the research instrument. This chapter then looked at the procedure for data collection, data analysis and interpretation. The chapter concludes with a discussion on limitations, validity and reliability of the study.

3.1 Research Methodology

The qualitative methodology was deemed as the most appropriate research methodology as the proposed research is exploratory. Creswell (2002) describes qualitative research as an enquiry approach useful for exploring and understanding a central phenomenon. The inquirer will ask participants broad general questions, collect the detailed views of the participants in the form of words or images, and then analyse the information for description and themes. From this data the researcher will go on to interpret the meaning of the information (Creswell 2002). This was ideal because the results were subjective and would be more in-depth, widespread information, resulting in a wider understanding of the circumstances.

3.2 Research Design

Guided semi structured interviews were the instrument that was used for the research because they offer an objective means of collecting people's knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour (Sapsford 1999). Gill and Johnson (2002) advise that the open-ended questions also used serve as an inductive method with the intent to possibly formulate new theory, where open-ended questions are used to investigate a substantive area.

3.3 Population and Sample

3.3.1 Population

The population considered of different stakeholders regarding women, peace and security in SA. These were employees from UN Women, the Department of International Relations and Cooperation, the Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities and the Rwandan Women Association. Two civil society organisations were also included; these were Ilitha Labantu and the Progressive Women's Movement SA.

For the purposes of the research, the sampling frame was middle-to-senior managers only.

3.3.2 Sample and Sampling method

Ten individuals from the defined sampling frame participated in the in-depth interviews. The researcher attempted to conduct and analyse 12 interviews from respondents employed at the initial six anticipated stakeholders in SA – UN, government departments and other countries embassies that have implemented NAPs. However, after constant follow up with the identified organisations, the sample number decreased to 10 interviewees from six different organisations – UN Women, the Department of International Relations and Cooperation, the Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities, the Rwandan Women Association, Ilitha Labantu and the Progressive Women's Movement SA. It was possible to identify common threads in the responses early on in the interviewing process, so it can, therefore, be argued that the final number of 10 interviews was sufficient enough to draw significant conclusions on the topic. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) state that choosing a small sample tends to be effective to produce in-depth insights into the topic researched. Due to the fact that middle-to-senior management at these organisations had limited availability, interviews were solicited via telephone as well.

This was convenience sampling because the respondents were “readily available” (Meyer and Wilson 2009: 26). In the event that a requested respondent was not accessible for an interview, alternate employees equally knowledgeable on the topic availed themselves to take part. The researcher also anticipated that respondents would be in a position to nominate potential participants from within the stakeholder groups, therefore, benefiting from the snowball sampling effect (Meyer and Wilson 2009: 27). In some cases the snowball effect worked but in others it did not.

As the interviews incorporated a questionnaire, this can be regarded as triangulation. Denzin (1978: 291) defined triangulation as “the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon” and Jick (1979: 602) identified the following triangulation advantages:

- It allows researchers to be more confident of their results
- It can lead to richer, thicker data
- It can uncover contradictions

3.4 The research instrument

The open-ended interview questionnaire is provided in Appendix A and was used as the research instrument. These kinds of questions are essential measures because they allow respondents to answer in their own words, without being influenced by the response categories provided (Holland and Christian 2009). The advantage of open-ended questions is that they give respondents the ability to elaborate further with their answers, which could in turn bring out new insights from the investigation. The disadvantage with such questions is that the researcher could encounter confidentiality concerns from the respondents (Holland and Christian 2009). Due to qualitative research being more “interpretative rather than predictive” (Öhman 2005) the focus is placed on the data gathered as opposed to the interviewee presenting it, therefore anonymity was assured because this was particularly important to some of the respondents.

3.5 Procedure for the data collection

The data was collected through both face-to-face and in-depth telephonic interviews that were arranged with relevant employees at the UN, SA government departments, those at embassies that have already implemented the UNSCR 1325 and within civil society, all based in SA.

Some interviews took place at the respondents' premises whilst others were conducted over the telephone. The interviews were open-ended, which allowed the researcher to direct the conversation in line with the research topic. The researcher requested for the interview to be recorded and notes were taken as well.

The interviewees were sent the questionnaire together with a cover letter ahead of the scheduled interviews. This was to give them sufficient time to prepare and be able to share in-depth insights on the questions posed.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

The most appropriate analysis and interpretation of the research was content analysis. Qualitative approaches to content analysis share the following characteristics (Krippendorff 2004: 17):

- Although sample sizes are relatively small, a great deal of data / textual matter can be gathered. This needs to be closely read and analysed for content and themes.
- They involve the interpretation of given texts into new narratives such as analytical, demonstrative and critical
- The analysts acknowledge working within hermeneutic circles in which their own socially or culturally conditioned understandings constitutively participate

The responses from the interviewees were coded to highlight common trends and themes that emerged from the interviews. These coded interviews were coded according to the propositions indentified in the literature review. The

codes that were generated confirmed the propositions that were discovered in the literature review. In some cases, new factors were produced which added to the body of knowledge in the discipline. The new factors are further discussed in chapters 4 and 5.

3.7 Limitations of the study

The research was reliant on a desired sample of 12 individuals (actual sample size was 10 individuals) and it was especially difficult to secure interviews with them. The individuals would either not respond or cancel scheduled interviews, this in turn impacted on the number of the eventual interviews conducted.

3.8 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are important issues in discussions on the legitimacy of qualitative research. If this type of research cannot continuously generate valid results, then policies, programs or predictions based on these studies cannot be relied on (Maxwell 1992).

3.8.1 External validity

External validity refers to the degree of generalisability of research results. There are four threats to external validity (Schofield 2002: 171):

1. The experimental treatment
2. The interaction of selection and treatment
3. Reactive arrangements
4. The interference of multiple treatments with one another

Considering that the sample was limited by the size of the convenience sample, generalisations could not be made. It was, however, expected that the open-ended interview questions would be sufficiently dependable enough to provide in-depth data to give a good, detailed view of the topic, which is anticipated to provide guidance both in this case and in similar contexts.

3.8.2 Internal validity

Leedy and Ormrod (2001) recommend that internal validity refers to the level to which the data collection instrument is designed in such a way that it makes certain the investigation draws truthful conclusions. To demonstrate that this validity exists, it was made certain that the research methodology, instrument and results were analysed based on face validity and plausibility. Findings from the interviews were analysed in line with other similar research in the field.

3.8.3 Reliability

Patton (2002), with regards to the researcher's ability and skill in qualitative research, states that reliability is a consequence of the validity in a study. For this research, reliability was obtained by making sure that the researcher did interviews personally and that was uniformity.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the performed research. The chapter comprises the findings related to the three research propositions and other factors that were not discussed during the interview.

4.2 Demographic profile of respondents

The demographics of the research sample were stakeholders dealing with women, peace and security issues in SA. These were employees from UN Women, the Department of International Relations and Cooperation, the Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities and the Rwandan Women Association. Representatives from civil society, Ilitha Labantu and the Progressive Women's Movement SA, were also included.

The researcher had initially planned to conduct interviews with the above-mentioned stakeholders, not including representatives from civil society.

Table 1: List of respondents

Organisations	**Number interviewed**
UN Women	2
Department of International Relations and Cooperation	2
Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities	2
Rwandan Women Association	1
Ilitha Labantu	2
Progressive Women's Movement South Africa	1

4.3 The absence of a NAP in SA hinders the advancement of women empowerment and gender equality

These results pertain to Proposition 1 from the literature review.

A NAP is required in SA because there are not many women in ministries for peace and security. The Democratic Republic of Congo is the only country in SADC that has a NAP. Respondents were of the view that a NAP is essential to building a fairer society, for example:

> *There are numerous gender analysis frameworks that can be used to ensure a gender perspective in ministries for peace and security. These include the People Oriented Planning by UNHCR, Harvard Gender Analysis Framework, Gender Planning in the Third World by Caroline Moser, Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) and the Gender Equality and Empowerment Framework by Sara H. Longwe.*

Collaboration mechanisms between the different stakeholders need to be strengthened. This should take place among the international community, regional support systems and within SA. One respondent illustrated this by saying:

> *The coordination between the different stakeholders tends to be random and poorly measured, which will hinder the adequate development and implementation of the resolution.*

As there is no “one size fits all” strategy for a NAP development, transparent planning of the existing and required resources is important. There was a great sense that not much could be done without this essential planning phase.

Women’s unique and gendered experiences make their deliberations and participation crucial. All respondents were in agreement that women’s views were essential:

> *The country needs to understand that we cannot move from conflict to peace without the roles, the ideas, the unique skills, and the capacities of women during discussions.*

4.4 NAP obstacles experienced

These results pertain to Proposition 2 from the literature review.

Monitoring and evaluation is imperative to advance and manage the impact of existing and past women, peace and security initiatives. A respondent highlighted the Rwanda case study:

> *The Gender Observatory in Rwanda was put in place for collecting, analysing and presenting national gender equity progress. It works in conjunction with other government institutions. The monitoring and evaluation process is regarded as indispensable to ensure that gender is mainstreamed at all levels, to identify gender performance and to report gaps in the gender policy which will be a basic for decision making.*

Indicators to track UNSCR 1325 have been initiated for the global level; SA needs to tailor-make these for the country. Respondents consider these to a great assistance to further the resolution's implementation due to the reality that:

> *Indicators are signposts of change along the path to developing a NAP; they can help the country to understand where it is along the development time-line, where it needs to be by a certain time period with the focus on the ultimate prize of the NAP.*

It is imperative that a NAP includes clear lines of responsibility and delegation of tasks for each stakeholder involved in the development of the NAP. This ensures that stakeholders can be held responsible if their specific task remains outstanding.

All respondents were adamant that gender-based quotas can become purely symbolic or women may be given token positions without real decision-making ability or power. One stated:

> *A monitoring and evaluation process that does not engage women during agenda development, substantive talks and implementation loses legitimacy and misses potentially helpful initiatives by excluding half of the population.*

Earmarking specific funds dedicated to UNSCR 1325 is required to monitor the available resources more proficiently. Certain respondents shared their knowledge of the following initiative:

> *The SA Department of Defence has indicated that a gender sensitive budget has ultimately been put in place with specific funds allocated for women's dialogue to create a women's programme for leadership.*

4.5 NAP enablers experienced

These results pertain to Proposition 3 from the literature review.

UN Women disbanded and consolidated four formally distinct bodies, this new entity is characterised by both policy and operational functions. Respondents were split regarding thoughts on the new UN agency, some thought significant results would be experienced after streamlining four bodies that were at times repetitive and others thought that it was too soon to have an opinion as the agency was still young.

The AU released its "Gender Policy" in 2009, building on a number of policy commitments, including UNSCR 1325. Respondents were at opposite ends regarding their observations, with some considering that African feminism to be an asset, some regarding it as a liability.

Mainstreaming gender into the SADC Organ on politics, defence and security cooperation compels member states to increase the representation of women in the security sector. Respondents concurred entirely with this initiative, as one commented:

> *Impacts on women post conflicts are dire and can go on for long afterwards. These include high unemployment, post-traumatic stress and prostitution. With more women represented in the security sectors, they will be the best people to assist appropriately.*

Another respondent stated that:

The SA Department of Defence increased their target number of women in training for peacekeeping operations from 34 to 44 for 2009/2010, so they intend to train at least 44 female officers in peacekeeping per year.

Because of the central role government plays in conflict resolution, peace building and reconstruction, national governments are the most influential stakeholders in the development and implementation of UNSCR 1325. Certain respondents were steadfast in their belief that they have been continuously let down, providing the following observations:

In SA there is conflict in communities and townships due to the lack of service delivery, with people being disheartened about the repeated broken promises from government since 1994. It is felt that the SA government is failing to address the scars of Apartheid, pre 1994.

And:

Apartheid institutionalised gender inequalities across all racial groups, and African women were the most severely discriminated against. These women's minds are still not liberated nor can they understand democracy enough to have the ability to see themselves as free citizens in a free society.

Women's organisations and women representatives from civil society do not have a place in official meetings. This results in them conducting their own meetings parallel to the official ones. More than one respondents demonstrated their support of the opinion that:

Government should enable the voices from the local communities to be heard because it seems the affluent find expression through using laws and policies, whilst the poorer communities express themselves through violence – which the government can attempt to curb.

4.6 Additional factors emerging from the research

There are other factors that came about after interviewees were requested to mention any factors that were not discussed during the course of the interviews, besides those pertaining to the literature review propositions above. These follow and are deliberated further.

4.6.1 The private sector

Private sector stakeholders work through foundations formed specifically to carry out their CSR mandates that also entail initiatives for women economic empowerment.

It is the organisations obligation to acknowledge and implement the Code of Good Practice on Sexual Harassment in the Workplace. A respondent illustrated this by saying:

> *Sexual harassment in the workplace is a reality and if left unattended, can impede productivity. A 2003 case study uncovered that 77 per cent of the women and 20 per cent of the men in South Africa had experienced sexual harassment at some point during their working lives. Examples of this kind of harassment include offensive comments, sending suggestive emails and sexual advances.*

4.6.2 Unemployment

South Africa has high levels of unemployment, and it is highest among women than men. The government has initiated numerous different projects to assist women entrepreneurs, such as Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment but this is still insufficient. A number of respondents concurred with the remark:

> *Only 3 per cent of all South African women are classified as managers or senior officials and 4 per cent as professionals. A high proportion of the women professionals are employed by the government as teachers and nurses. In Africa, limited education and employment opportunities for women decrease annual per capita growth by 0.8 per cent. Had this*

growth taken place, Africa's economies would have doubled over the past 30 years.

Another respondent went on to say:

The South African government poverty reduction strategy relies substantially on social grants as a tool to alleviate poverty. What are desperately needed are possible opportunities for women to generate their own income.

In response to 2008's global financial crisis, a number of respondents stated views in support of the quote that:

In the short term, economic stimulus packages need to be made available for women. In the long term, government needs to produce a new financial and economic architecture that includes a gender perspective.

4.6.3 MDG 6 – Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

The targets for this goal entail:

1. Halting and then beginning to reverse, by 2015, the spread of HIV/AIDS
2. Achieving, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it
3. Halting and then beginning to reverse, by 2015, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Respondents shared some pertinent findings, for example:

As of December 2007, women in Africa constituted 61 per cent of infected people in the four sub-regions except North Africa. In almost every country on the continent, prevalence rates are higher among women than men. The vulnerability of African women and girls to HIV infection is integrally linked to underlying gender inequalities, societal norms and discrimination.

Violence against women in South Africa has serious consequences, which are far reaching and include the erosion of self-esteem, self-worth, physical, mental and psychological health, costs of health care, unwanted pregnancies, HIV/AIDS and other STDs. Thuthuzela Care Centres are One-Stop Victim Empowerment Centres that have been set up in all Metropole areas in the country with particular focus on crime zones, it is used in these areas as part of the National Crime Prevention Strategy. There are currently 17 operational Thuthuzela Care Centres nation wide.

4.6.4 Nobel Prize winners

For 2011, the Nobel Peace Prize has been jointly awarded to three women: Liberian President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf (Africa's first elected head of state), Liberian Leymah Gbowee (Liberian peace activist) and Tawakul Karman of Yemen (leading figure in Yemen's pro-democracy movement). A number respondents felt that it was right to recognise their achievements:

It is necessary to acknowledge these women rights activists for their non-violent struggle for the safety of women and for women's rights to full participation in peace building work globally.

4.7 Summary of the results

The findings of this study support the views explored in the literature review chapter, illustrated by Table 2. Chapter 4 was able to ascertain conformity between the propositions generated in the literature review section and the perspectives shared by the interviewees. The chapter also elucidated other factors that need to be considered, besides those initially explored.

The results highlight that monitoring and accountability mechanisms need to be reviewed and implemented more efficiently, and that cooperation between all stakeholders is essential for appropriate implementation. Considering the specific SA context, initiatives to assist with MDG 6 and the hindering of unemployment are highly required. The African National Congress' Youth

League led a two-day epic Economic March for Freedom from October 27 to 28 2011. The march had over 5,000 supporters walking from Johannesburg to the Union Buildings in Pretoria to create awareness of youth unemployment. Critics wait to see if any of the Memorandum of Grievances handed over to the Chamber of Mines, the JSE Securities Exchange and culminating at the Union Buildings will result in any visible changes being developed by government and the private sector (Chauke 2011).

Table 2: Summary of Responses regarding Obstacles and Enablers for the Development of a NAP for the UNSCR 1325 (2000) in SA

	Summary of Responses (actual numbers)						
The factors possibly regarded as obstacles and enablers for the development of a NAP for the UNSCR 1325 (2000) in SA	**UN Women (2 respondents)**	**Department of International Relations and Cooperation (2 respondents)**	**Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities (2 respondents)**	**Rwandan Women Association (1 respondent)**	**Ilitha Labantu (2 respondents)**	**Progressive Women's Movement SA (1 respondent)**	**Total (10 respondents)**
The absence of a NAP in SA hinders the advancement of women empowerment and gender equality	2	0	0	1	2	1	6
NAP obstacles experienced include a lack of monitoring and accountability	2	2	2	1	2	1	10
NAP enablers experienced include partnerships between UN agencies, governments and civil society	2	2	1	1	2	1	9
The private sector	1	0	1	0	1	0	3
Unemployment	1	1	2	0	2	1	7

	Summary of Responses (actual numbers)						
The factors possibly regarded as obstacles and enablers for the development of a NAP for the UNSCR 1325 (2000) in SA	**UN Women (2 respondents)**	**Department of International Relations and Cooperation (2 respondents)**	**Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities (2 respondents)**	**Rwandan Women Association (1 respondent)**	**Ilitha Labantu (2 respondents)**	**Progressive Women's Movement SA (1 respondent)**	**Total (10 respondents)**
MDG 6 – Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases	2	1	2	1	2	1	9
Nobel Peace Prize winners	1	0	0	1	1	1	4

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses research results with reference to the literature review and conclusions regarding the research propositions specified in Chapter 2.

5.2 Demographic profile of respondents

Interviews were done with 10 individuals dealing with women, peace and security issues in SA – from UN Women, the Department of International Relations and Cooperation, the Ministry of Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities, the Rwandan Women Association, Ilitha Labantu and the Progressive Women's Movement SA. The researcher originally planned to conduct 12 face-to-face interviews but in the end 10 individuals were interviewed either by face-to-face or telephonic interviews. Interviews with civil society organisations were also conducted; this was due to the snowball effect whereby it was suggested that a view from civil society was equally necessary when performing the research.

The senior nature of the respondents that were requested for interviews meant that their time was at a premium, and therefore, were not easily available to respond to requests for their time.

5.3 The absence of a NAP in SA hinders the advancement of women empowerment and gender equality

Gacaca Courts, community participative justice, have assisted the Rwandan government to develop a NAP, together with other initiatives in the country. One such initiative being the ProFemmes Twesehawe, which is the main umbrella group for women's organisations in Rwanda and has over 40,000 members. These results were in agreement with the literature review's section regarding NAP implementation in other countries because the Rwanda case illustrated a participatory process to the development and implementation, and also

emphasised the significance of community dialogue. SA can use the lessons learnt from Rwanda to tailor make its own NAP.

All relevant stakeholders have individual interests and perceptions on women, peace and security. The NAP implementation segment in Chapter 2 discusses how the stakeholders go about implementing the women, peace and security agenda but what is not clear is the extent of collaboration with each other. SA should seek to encourage further exchange of ideas and cooperation in order to development the ideal NAP.

It is crucial to carry out a realistic and transparent planning of existing and needed resources for the NAP development. Collaboration is an essential part of strategy (Mintzberg (1987) and policy formation (Bishwakarma 2007), and initial assessments should feed into all phases of action planning and implementation processes. The SA government would also need to apply a well-documented change management approach in order to enhance the likelihood of successful implementation (Kotter and Schlesinger 2008). The first step would be to do a stock take of current resources and review what is necessary to acquire the resources that would assist it to develop and implement a NAP for the country.

Women's experiences are important if the resultant recommendations are to factor in gender differences and assume more rounded human rights approaches. It is necessary to involve women in crafting solutions and conflict management measures, as they are also part of the affected communities. After parliamentary elections and renewals in 2009, women in SA took 44 per cent of seats in the lower-house election, placing it third in term of global ranking, after Rwanda and Sweden. The global share of women in parliament continued to increase and reached an all-time high of 19 per cent in 2010 (United Nations 2010). The representation of women in the SA parliament increased from 27.8 per cent in 1994 to 43.3 per cent in 2009. The achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment is supported by a framework of policies and mechanisms that include a national gender policy framework and a Ministry for Women, Children and Persons with Disabilities. In this regard, the SA government is believed to be on the right path towards developing a NAP and

this concurs with the MDG section under the literature review's enablers to develop and implement NAPs.

The SA government could use the literature (Mintzberg 1987; Kotter 1995; Matheson 2000; Walker et al 2000; Bishwakarma et al 2007; Kotter and Schlesinger 2008 and Haugen and Davis 2010) on policy and strategy formulation and implementation, as well as the change management section in Chapter two to assist it with explicit steps towards the formulation and implementation of the resolution.

5.4 NAP obstacles experienced

The phrase "what gets measured gets done" aims to identify and operationalise monitoring and evaluation instruments and indicators (Walker et al 2000) to development a NAP. Monitoring and evaluation should include indicators that assess the generation, use and management of such initiatives. The development of standardised indicators is necessary to be used to track, monitor and evaluate the development of a NAP. The indicators must integrate local needs and capacities; they must also endeavour to measure the long-term impact as well as the sustainability of the chosen initiatives.

Clear lines of responsibility and delegation are significant because of the number of different stakeholders involved in the monitoring and evaluation processes, these ensure that the stakeholders can be accountable for their part in the development of the NAP. The result of putting all the parts together would be a completely developed NAP; for the best results the same stakeholders would need to be equally involved with the implementation process as well.

Gender dynamics are essential so that they can be part of the implementables to ensure that women's experiences inform post conflict negotiations and reconstruction and development programmes. The "token women" perception is damaging because those women are viewed to have received their positions as a result of quotas and not for their qualifications. Member states that just want to meet the regional and global quotas tend to put women into employment posts, knowing very well that they do not necessarily qualify for them and then

never go on to equip these women with the required skills and training to be able to do the job sufficiently in future.

It is necessary to construct a methodology for gender budgeting. This strategy could contribute to the lucrative financing of a NAP, independent of external funding. These budgets can come from different government departments that will be significant for the peace and security aspect of the agenda; in the SA context this could include the Department of Defence.

The above arguments correspond with the sections on financing, monitoring and indicators of NAPs in the literature review chapter.

5.5 NAP enablers experienced

UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon declared the creation of UN Women to be historic, and asserted that the agency will extensively boost UN efforts to promote gender equality, and eradicate discrimination around the globe (DeCapua 2010). Ms Bachelet, Under-Secretary-General and Executive Director, laid out five thematic priorities in the country-specific context (D'Almeida 2011):

1. Seriously tackling violence against women
2. Enhancing and improving women's voices, leadership and participation at national and international levels
3. Prioritising women's role in the peace and security agenda
4. Empowering women economically
5. Making gender inequalities central in national and international budgetary planning

This portion on UN Women elaborates on section 2.7.2 in the literature review.

Under the leadership role of the AU, together with other regional institutions including the African Development Bank and the UN Economic Commission (UNECA), the development of a standardised "template" for developing a NAP in Africa would aid in monitoring and evaluation efforts. In Africa, deeply entrenched cultural norms and increasing religious conservatism perpetuate

violence against women, women's fear of speaking out to report violence and has contributed to impunity.

SADC member states have progressed in increasing the representation of women in the security sector (defence forces, police and correctional services). There is, however, room for much greater improvement to meet the 50/50 goal, as progress in the respective countries is ad hoc and uneven. The Strategic Framework for Mainstreaming Gender into the SADC Organ is premised on improving coherence and coordination – by creating this framework and its Strategic Indicative Plan, member states can embark on a coherent and coordinated plan of action to implement the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The framework can also act as a monitoring and evaluation tool for the SADC Organ.

These observations coincide with section 2.5.4 regarding NAP implementation efforts.

South Africans do not seem to have taken ownership of their country. The modus operandi for expressing unhappiness is currently the same as that one used prior to independence – burning and destroying infrastructure belonging to "the enemy," the enemy has gone but the modus operandi has remained the same. The government needs to engage the communities to help them unlearn behaviours associated with the past, but to some people pre and post 1994 looks the same. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission happened at the national level, but the anger experienced by ordinary South Africans was not addressed at the local level, with women and girls being the most adversely affected. This is in line with the views of Charlesworth and Wood (2001: 317) on obstacles to developing and implementing NAPs, which warns that mainstreaming gender issues is "as much about men as women".

Lessons learnt from other African countries (Liberia Ministry of Gender and Development 2009; Republic of Rwanda 2010) can assist SA to develop its own NAP, brought to the fore in section 2.8, demonstrating NAP implementation in other countries. Ellen Johnson Sirleaf was elected as President in Liberia in 2005 and became Africa's first female President. The country has since made

impressive advances regarding women, peace and security. The Rwandan constitution adopted in 2003 makes clear the equal rights between Rwandan men and women. The Chamber of Deputies within the Rwandan parliament, for instance, was made up of 45 women out of a total 80 posts (56 per cent) during the 2008 elections. “Twinning” is encouraged and needed because women go through the same situations worldwide, and this initiative enables countries to share lessons learnt. Rwanda has taken part in this process; it was implemented by the exchange of experiences and capacities with other countries.

Too often peace and security assumes a masculine identity presumed from images of males with arms of war, male power and strength. This expands on Olanisakin’s (2007) comments in section 2.6 because he believes that more than an ‘add women and stir’ strategy is required, thereafter resulting in women’s organisations and representatives waiting for invitations in order to take part in official meetings with governments. When invited, they have little bargaining power to ensure their suggested agenda is considered.

5.6 Additional factors emerging from the research

5.6.1 The private sector

There is a need to create a CSR framework, which encompasses all the guiding principles, international and human rights standards affecting women, peace and security. This would assist the private sector stakeholders to have a standard framework so that they can work together and their efforts assembled would seem larger than individually. The government would also be able to measure how well the sector as a whole is doing to advance the women, peace and security agenda.

The universal theme for International Women’s Day (March 8) 2011 was “Equal access to education, training and science and technology: Pathway to decent work for women.” SA is one of the few countries with specific provisions to address sexual harassment in the workplace and have other initiatives such as

Black Economic Empowerment to help the previously disadvantaged population, of which women and girls make the bulk.

5.6.2 Unemployment

South African women that are working, their careers are typically within specific sectors and occupations such as NGOs and retail. Women have little or no representation in high-level decisions within the economic or finance sectors. This continues to lead to future policies that add to the inequalities between women and men.

Women in the country have been adversely affected by 2008's global financial crisis. The impact has been felt mostly in these three areas:

1. *The loss of jobs and decreased real wages and benefits*
2. *The decline of social services from government*
3. *The increased work burden and stress from unpaid responsibilities in the household and community*

5.6.3 MDG 6 – Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases

The AIDS epidemic in SA is affecting health, livelihoods, economic growth as well as the lives of individuals, families and workplaces. HIV prevalence levels remain high in comparison to other countries in Northern, Western and Central Africa. Although the prevalence has stabilised, the differential infection rates are due to the predominance in rural provinces attributed to gender power relations and the emergent sexual relationships between older men with young girls that expose the girls to HIV as a result of the gender power inequalities (Republic of South Africa and United Nations Development Fund 2010).

Alvaro Bermejo, Executive Director of the International HIV/AIDS Alliance, stated that "we need to tackle MDG 6 in conjunction with MDGs 4 and 5, in a way that puts patient needs at the center of our responses...Health cannot be "projectised" (Devex and United Nations Foundation 2010: 20). A review of the improvement made specific to the health goals (Goals 4, 5 and 6) in SA resulted

in the findings that progress has been unsatisfactory or even reversed for some. Chopra, Lawn, Sanders, Barron, Karim, Bradshaw et al (2009) however do believe that the country still has enough time to alter its trajectory, and possibly can meet the 2015 deadline.

5.6.4 Nobel Peace Prize winners

This year is only the second time that three individuals have won the Nobel Peace Prize in a given year, and only 40 of the total 776 Peace prize winners have been women in the past. Critics express the fact that few women win this award, and when they do, it is typically for “female activism” (International Business News 2011). When women win such awards for helping other women recover from violence against them such as rape and domestic violence, it positions women as victims. The referred critics mention that even though these are serious issues, victimization does not lead to empowerment.

Leymah Gbowee, in reaction to the criticism about this year’s award going to three women seeming like tokenism from the part of the prize committee, stated that (Women War & Peace 2011):

> *Tokenism is something where you give to a group of people who have not done anything. But all over the world women have been working tirelessly for peace and social justice – the prize is recognition of their very real efforts.*

5.7 Conclusion

The findings from this research show that the propositions can be broadly accepted. The research supplemented current literature in that the additional enablers and obstacles of: private sector involvement, unemployment, the need to combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases and Nobel Peace prize-winning women that have not previously been reported, were found.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the results from the research carried out. The chapter then offers recommendations to the elected stakeholders. Ultimately, the chapter concludes with suggestions for further research in the realm of women, peace and security in SA.

6.2 Conclusions of the study

This research report has identified certain obstacles and enablers for the development of a NAP for the UNSCR 1325 in SA. The research findings were mostly in line with what is currently supposed by academic literature, and the main findings from the research are summarised below.

Popovic, Lytikainen and Barr (2010: 30) point out a number of reasons for the lack of country NAPs to be:

- The lack of political will
- The lack of awareness about the resolution
- Competing priorities
- The perception that gender issues are not important or are already sufficiently addressed in national policies
- Translating broad goals to tangible policies and practices

Popovic et al (2010: 28) go on and elaborate on several benefits for the development of NAPs:

- It can increase the visibility and accountability of national efforts to implement women, peace and security policies
- It can help tie together the different policy and operational areas within a government's diverse institutions and programmes

- Coherence and coordination between government agencies
- Improved monitoring and evaluation and enhanced accountability
- Increased ownership and awareness

It is important to note that for a NAP to be meaningful, it should obtain sufficient human, technical and financial resources throughout the development, implementation and monitoring and evaluation processes.

Governments are familiar with the “gender call” but pledges to gender-specific priorities continue to be rhetorical than real. In order to eventually achieve women empowerment by means of gender equality initiatives, the appeal for increased women participation at the middle-to-high management levels within the local, regional and national government ranks should be understood to imply meaningful participation and not just representative because this in turn results in women being appointed as tokens.

We are in the decade of the African Women, 2010-2020 (African Union 2009) and this should be viewed as the opportune time to attempt to further advance concerns regarding women, peace and security within SA, SADC and the AU. This can be done through developing NAPs, and it should be noted that the process of developing a NAP is equally as important as the final product. Regional action plans may be considered as they can be seen as an intermediary step between stakeholders at the international and national levels; they could also be complementary and mutually supportive to SA’s NAP.

An outstanding research finding that was established is that SA needs to have its own definition of the word “peace” because the “absence of war” (Sandy and Perkins 2002) seems insufficient, illustrated by South Africans at the local level burning and destroying infrastructure out of frustration for the government. Even though the country is not at war, it is not at peace.

6.3 Recommendations

The SA government is in a difficult position as it is eventually responsible for the development and implementation of a NAP to advance gender mainstreaming

and ultimately gender equality in the country. There are a number of NAP enablers that have been identified by this research, which can assist the government to develop and then implement a NAP for the UNSCR 1325. These NAP enablers that the government should work in junction with and integrate into its final report include:

- UNSCR 1325 successors
- UN Women
- Lessons learnt from NAP implementation in other countries

Collaboration with other initiatives such as the MDGs in SA is also recommended. Unless continued support is given to prevent and redress violence against women and girls using the backdrop of the MDGs, the health, social and economic outcomes of such violence can limit the potential benefits of the UNSCR 1325 and contribute to impunity. SA has committed itself to the MDGs, together with the UNSCR 1325, the country can tackle the socio-economic and cultural challenges that continue to underpin aspects of gender inequality.

As this research is equally important for the UN, the organisation can continue to make certain that all its initiatives globally, regionally and nationally are being implemented correctly. These initiatives include:

- The Africa regional component of the UN Secretary General's global campaign, UNiTE to End Violence Against Women
- The Africa UNiTE campaign to End Violence Against Women and Girls, the Action Plan for the UN System in Southern Africa
- NAPs

The UNSCR 1325 working together with its successors to promote women, peace and security issues as a total package is also recommended. If the UNSCR 1325 coordinates its efforts together with UNSCR1820 (2008), UNSCR 1888 (2009) and UNSCR 1889 (2009), and has the desired commitment from the significant stakeholders, its impact would be largely felt. The following table illustrates how the best results could be attained if all the actors from each

resolution work jointly to tackle issues regarding women, peace and security. The UN focal points, the monitoring and reporting mechanisms and the accountability mechanisms are given. This aids in ensuring responsibility throughout the UN and other stakeholders, there should also be less duplication of resources. The table links back to the section 2.7.1 discussion on the resolution's successors.

Table 3: Resolution 1325 (2000) and its successors

	1325	1889	1820	1888
	Women's leadership in peacemaking and conflict prevention		Prevention of and response to conflict related sexual violence	
DESCRIPTION	First Security Council resolution to **link women's experiences of conflict to the maintenance of international peace and security.** Asserts women's **leadership** role in conflict-resolution, peace talks and recovery; requires build-up of **gender response capability** in peacekeeping missions and gender **training** for all involved in the maintenance of peace and security. Presented by Namibia, 2000	Addresses **women's exclusion from early recovery and peacebuilding** and **lack of adequate planning and funding** for their needs. Asks for a **strategy** to increase numbers of women in conflict-resolution decision-making, and asks for **tools** to improve implementation: **indicators** and proposals for a monitoring mechanism. Presented by Viet Nam, 2009	First Security Council Resolution to recognize **conflict-related sexual violence as a tactic of warfare and a matter of international peace and security,** requiring a peacekeeping, justice, services and peace negotiation response. Presented by the USA, 2008	Strengthens tools for implementing 1820 through assigning high-level **leadership, building judicial response expertise, strengthening service provision, and building reporting mechanisms.** Presented by the USA, 2009
ACTORS	**UN Secretary-General (SG) must:** • Increase numbers of women in UN decision-making on peace and security • Ensure women participate in peace talks • Provide information on woman and conflict in country reports to the Security Council **States must:** • Provide training on gender and conflict • Address gender in Disarmament Demobilization and Reintegration programmmes **Parties to armed conflict must:** • Protect women from sexual and gender based violence (SGBV) • Respect civilian character of refugee and IDP (Internally Displaced Persons) camps • Prevent impunity and avoid amnesty for war crimes against women **Security Council must:** • Take into account impact of its actions on women and girls • Meet with women's groups on its missions	**UN Secretary-General must:** • Produce a strategy to increase numbers of female peacemaking and peace keeping decision-makers • Ensure all country **reports** address **gender, conflict and peacebuilding** • Produce a global report on women's' participation in peacebuilding • Enable UN entities to collect data on women's post-conflict situation • Place gender advisors and/or **women protection advisors** in peacekeeping missions • Produce a global set of indicators of implementation of 1325 • Propose a Council mechanism for monitoring 1325 **States must:** • Promote women's **participation** in political and economic decision-making from the earliest stage of **peacebuilding** • **Track money spent on women in post-conflict and recovery planning,** invest in women's physical and economic security, health, education, justice, and participation in politics **Security Council must:** • Add provisions for **women's empowerment** to mandate renewals for UN missions **Peacebuilding commission must:** • Address women's engagement in peacebuilding	**UN Secretary-General must:** • Ensure sexual violence is addressed in **conflict resolution** as well as post conflict recovery **efforts** • Raise the issue of sexual violence in **dialogue** with parties to armed conflict • Ensure **women** are **represented** in peacebuilding institutions • Ensure sexual violence is addressed in UN-assisted **Demobilization, Disarmament, and Reintegration** processes, and justice and security sector reform **Parties to armed conflict must:** • **Stop sexual violence,** enforce command responsibility, and protect civilians from sexual violence including by vetting suspected perpetrators from armed forces and by evacuating civilians at risk • Categorically **prohibit amnesty** for war crimes of sexual violence **States must:** • **Build awareness** of and take steps to prevent sexual violence including through contributing women peacekeeping personnel • Provide **training** to troops on prevention of sexual violence • Apply policy of **zero tolerance** to acts of sexual exploitation and abuse committed by UN peacekeepers • Develop measures to improve **protection and assistance,** particularly in relation to justice and health systems **Security Council must:** • Address **root causes of sexual violence** to expose myths about the inevitability and non-preventability of sexual violence in war • Include sexual violence as criteria in country-specific **sanctions** regimes if relevant **Peacebuilding Commission must:** • Advise on ways to address sexual violence	**UN Secretary-General must:** • Appoint Special Representative of the Secretary General on UN response to Sexual Violence in Conflict • **Appoint women protection advisors** to UN peacekeeping missions in contexts with high levels of sexual violence • **Establish a rapid response team** of judicial experts • Ensure that **peace talks** address sexual violence • **Appoint more women as mediators** • Propose ways the Security Council can improve **monitoring** and reporting on conflict-related sexual violence • Make improvements in **data** on trends and patterns of sexual violence • Provide details to the Security Council on **parties to armed conflict** credibly suspected of perpetrating patterns of rape **UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict (a network composed of 13 UN entities) must:** • Build coherence in the UN's response **States must:** • **Improve national legal frameworks** and judicial systems to prevent impunity • Improve support **services for sexual violence survivors** • Ensure **traditional leaders** prevent stigmatization of victims • Support comprehensive national/UN strategies **to stop sexual violence** **Security Council must:** • Raise sexual violence in designation criteria for sanctions committees
FOCAL POINT/ LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE UN	**Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues (OSAGI)** coordinates the Inter-Agency Task Force on Women, Peace and Security, and is mandated to advise the SG on 1325 matters No designated operational counterpart at country level	Introduction of possible new focal point for gender and peacebuilding issues: the **Peacebuilding Commission** Mentions the Inter-Agency Standing Committee on Humanitarian Assistance, sub-Working Group on Gender	**Department of Peacekeeping Operations** best practices unit produced 1820 + 1 report in 2009 **UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict** indicated as coordination resource	**SRSG** to build coherence and coordination in the UN's response to conflict-related SV Linked to **UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict** for coordination and production of annual reports on 1820 and 1888
MONITORING AND REPORTING MECHANISM	**The System-wide Action Plan** lacked—up to 2010—agreed indicators for results monitoring. Focuses on UN system-wide implementation plans rather than on "violation" of resolution. Informal reviews: Open Debate every October, and informal Council meetings on the subject.	Call for global indicators will create foundation for effective monitoring tool. Will need commitment of UN entities to populate with data and monitor, and commitment from Member States to monitor indicators relevant at the country level No formal mechanism but invites proposals for review procedure and mechanism [OP 18].	Annual report (but no clear monitoring and reporting parameters) Monthly consideration by the Security Council expert group on Protection of Civilians [which is briefed by the *Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs*]	Invites a proposal on monitoring and reporting mechanism. Annual report to provide details on perpetrators, i.e.: a name and shame mechanism. Links to the Monitoring and Review mechanism for the Children and Armed Conflict resolutions (1612 and 1882).
ACCOUNTABILITY MECHANISM (consequences for violating the resolution)	None. No reference to sanctions for perpetrators; (only mentions impact of sanctions on women [OP 14]) Tentative on amnesty—parties urged to avoid giving amnesty for war crimes against women "where feasible" [OP 11]	None—but calls for recommendations in 2010 on how Council will receive, analyze, and act upon information on 1325; in short, invites proposals on a Council system of implementation [OP 18]	Sexual violence relevant to country-specific **sanctions** regimes [OP 5] SG to develop a **strategy for addressing SV in dialogue** with parties to armed conflict [OP 3] Categorical **exclusion** of sexual violence crimes from **amnesty** provisions [OP 4]	**Sanctions** committees must add criteria pertaining to acts of rape and other forms of sexual violence [OP 10] Report **naming perpetrators** to be reviewed in Council [OP 26] National and local leaders, including traditional/religious authorities, to combat marginalization and stigmatization of survivors [OP 16]
RESOURCES	www.unifem.org/1325plus10		www.stoprapenow.org	

Adoption of the above recommendations should not be seen as a compliance obligation, but rather as a means to encourage gender equality.

6.4 Suggestions for further research

There were numerous limitations that were encountered during the course of the research, and these resulted in the creation of further questions than answers for the researcher. This section provides a gap for further research in regards to the topic.

Possible further research could look into the following:

Knowledge development and transfer through a number of ways, including:

- Making sure that the UNSCR 1325 language is accessible and understood by all stakeholders, even if this means translating it to a number of South African languages e.g. Afrikaans, Zulu and Sotho
- Facilitating the development of a manual for women consisting of institutions that will take on their challenges at all levels within the country – local, regional and national
- Generating a database of women experts within the field of women, peace and security. This ensures furthering of the resolution rather than a duplication of ideas and initiatives
- A pilot study to see how peace and security can be attained for women at the local level e.g. Alexander Township in Johannesburg. It is anticipated that this would in due course lead to women empowerment

Future research could take note of the obstacles and make use of the enablers for the development of a NAP that have been documented in this research in order to continue adding to the body of knowledge in this area.

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APPENDIX A

Actual Research Instrument

The interview was based on these open-ended questions:

Question 1

How does the existence of legal and policy frameworks advance the empowerment of women and gender equality in the public sector, in particular at the middle and senior management levels?

Question 2

To what extent have the present national policies and strategies for the progression of women contributed to raising awareness and pursuing national dialogue on the importance of gender equality? Please suggest reasons for your answer.

Question 3

What are the available capacity building efforts for enhancing women's skills for entering and advancing at higher levels in the public sector? How effective do you think these are?

(For example mentoring programmes and out-sourced formal classes)

Question 4

What supporting mechanisms are in place to assist the women empowerment agenda? How effective are these? Lack of certain support mechanisms can hinder the women empowerment agenda - can you think of any support mechanisms not currently in place that should be?

(For example day-care centres and flexible working hours)

Question 5

How are the government's human resource management policies gender sensitive and encourage equal participation of women? Do they include and incentivise targets for the participation of women in the public administration and specifically at senior decision-making levels, and, if so, how?

Question 6

How have women, peace and security issues been implemented in your country? What deeds have been put in place in order to implement UNSCR 1325 (2000), and who is carrying these out (UN, government and civil society organisations)?

Question 7

How can the country's policy framework anticipate monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and to what extent have these been implemented? Why is monitoring and evaluation necessary?

Question 8

Please describe the organisational structures that would facilitate implementation of the UNSCR 1325 (2000)? What economic resources, and organisational prominence and power does / should it have?

Question 9

What mechanisms within your public sector are in place to facilitate change? To educate, reward and hold participants accountable? Are they indispensable, and if so why?

Question 10

What has the level of national ownership been in designing policies and regulations on gender equality, and what has the nature and level of involvement of other national actors been?

(For example UN agencies and civil society organisations)

Question 11

Has your country taken part in the “twinning” process (a bilateral collaboration strategy between two countries to develop their National Action Plans in parallel)? Please give the reasons for this decision. How was it implemented if it did take place? How can countries benefit from such processes?

Question 12

What resources in your country are required to comprehensively implement the UNSCR 1325 (2000)? How does the private sector get involved in supporting the implementation of the resolution?

Question 13

Please elaborate on the impact that the work on the resolution has had on the political practices and value of civil society organisations that helped to initiate it?

Question 14

How can the resolution’s commitment be used by women on the ground as an effective vehicle for their own organising, mobilising and political action?

Question 15

Why do you think South Africa needs a NAP to assist it with its implementation of the UNSCR 1325 (2000)? What are the ideal conditions necessary to develop a National Action Plan on women, peace and security issues?

Please mention any other issues that you believe should have been considered in this interview regarding the research topic.

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX B

Consistency matrix

Problem statement: Obstacles and Enablers for the development of a National Action Plan for United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) in South Africa			
Literature Review articles	**Propositions**	**Data to be Collected**	**Method of Analysis**
Budlender (2005). Charlesworth and Wood (2001). United Nations Development Fund for Women (2009).	The absence of a NAP in SA hinders the advancement of women empowerment and gender equality	Questions 1, 2 and 15	Content analysis
Ministry of Gender and Development in Liberia (2009). Popovic (2010). Raps (2004).	NAP obstacles experienced include a lack of monitoring and accountability	Questions 6, 7 and 8	Content analysis
Dutch Working Group (2009). Republic of Rwanda (2010). United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (2006)	NAP enablers experienced include partnerships between UN agencies, governments and civil society	Questions 10, 11 and 12	Content analysis