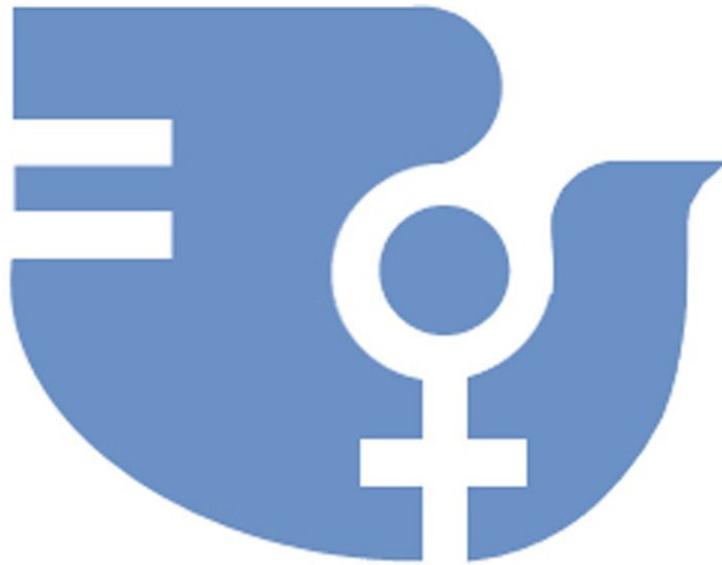


Commission on the Status of Women



UN Commission on the
Status of Women

Background Guide

Stanford Model United Nations Conference 2020



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Letter From the Chair

Dear Delegates,

It is my pleasure to welcome you to the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) of SMUNC 2020! My name is Emma Smith and I am a junior at Stanford majoring in International Relations with a minor in Human Rights. Most of my work comes at the intersection of international security and human rights, with a particular focus on the prevention of conflict and mass atrocities and U.S. grand strategy. Model UN has actually been one of the main outlets through which I've developed these interests -- although, I have to credit Parks and Recreation for first introducing me to the (exciting? exhausting?) world of MUN when I was in eighth grade. I joined the team at my high school in Oak Park, IL my freshman year after watching that fateful episode, and I've now been part of the MUN universe for six years and counting. While I loved competing at conferences in high school, I'll admit I've preferred staffing conferences while in college. I've been the Chair of DISEC at PacMUN 2020, SOCHUM at PacMUN 2019, and SOCHUM at SMUNC 2018, in addition to serving as the Director General of SMUNC 2019. Outside of MUN, you're most likely to find me writing for The Stanford Daily, hiking with my friends, or drinking copious amounts of coffee.



I'm incredibly excited about the topic we'll be discussing throughout the weekend. Violence against women and girls during conflict has been a pervasive issue throughout history, yet it is rarely prioritized. Even when the international community does focus on it, they often only achieve a surface-level understanding of violence -- discussing the causes and consequences of physical violence, while too often ignoring the economic, social, and political impacts on communities that continue long after the violence subsides. There has also been exciting research in this field of late, with several studies showing that the presence of women in situations of peacebuilding and conflict mediation increases the likelihood of long-term peace. This is not an easy or uplifting topic to be sure, but it's one that is incredibly important; I hope we can all leave the weekend inspired by past solutions and those that you, as delegates, present.

I'd be remiss to ignore the elephant in the room: we're in the midst of a global pandemic, not to mention an international reckoning on the role of system racism and police brutality in furthering gross inequities around the world. In many ways, these events have left me disillusioned about the state of the world and global leadership; yet, this disillusionment fades a bit more each day, as it seems there's always something new that provides room for a little hope.



We have witnessed the power of youth--people my and your age, and younger--in using their voice to demand change; the role of protests in igniting global action and solidarity; and a renewed sense that leadership, rhetoric, and a knowledge of history are essential to fostering positive social change. If nothing else, I hope that you all come away from this weekend with a sense that what you say and what you do matters. You are never too young to make a difference, and MUN is one of the best places to see that in action.

Besides your position papers, I only ask that you come in with open minds, an active intent to listen to and compromise with your fellow delegates, and a willingness to push yourself out of your comfort zone. I'm so excited to meet you all, and to have an incredible SMUNC 2020!

Best,

Emma Smith '22

esmith11@stanford.edu

P.S. In order to be eligible for awards, please email your position paper with the title "CSW_School Name_Country" to me at esmith11@stanford.edu. Position paper guidelines can be found in the SMUNC 2020 delegate handbook on the website.

About the Committee

A functional commission of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) is the primary U.N. organ that examines issues of female empowerment and gender equality. At SMUNC 2020, CSW will discuss the prevention of violence against women and girls in conflict and humanitarian settings. Representing a gross violation of human rights and a public health crisis, the likelihood and severity of violence is exacerbated in and after conflict. Although a perennial challenge, it is this committee's goal to think of innovative ways to minimize these atrocities and devise a framework for structural, lasting change.



This is neither an easy nor light-hearted topic; it consists of unspeakable crimes, ones that often leave me needing to take a step away from my work and reading because of the sheer horror of the rights violations committed against women each and every day. The seriousness of this subject, though, is matched only with its pervasiveness throughout times and regions, making it all the more important that we continue to talk about the history of violence against women and develop solutions to mitigate it in the future. If you feel overwhelmed at all during your research or during committee, please send me a note. I'm always around to help, and there are a range of strategies we can take to make these discussions accessible and effective.

A note on having only one topic

If you've been to SMUNC before, you'll remember that most of our GAs and Specialized Committees have two topics: Topic A and Topic B. For SMUNC 2020, I've decided to only include one topic. This will allow us to have a more substantive discussion about the range of issues that fall under violence against women in conflict, and it will provide extra time to flesh out detailed and thoughtful working papers and draft resolutions. We'll discuss my vision for the conference's day-by-day format during our first committee session, but no need to fear if you're worried about the pace of debate being slower with only one topic -- I can promise you we'll have a heated discussion throughout the weekend!

This will also be my first virtual conference. While I'm sure there will be blips and inconveniences throughout the weekend, I'm confident that we'll be able to navigate through them together. During the first committee session, we'll talk through expectations for each of the following sessions, and I'd love to continue to get feedback from you about the most effective ways to run discussions and debates!



History of the Problem

General Trends

The 1945 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) enshrines gender equality as a key tenet of international rights. Yet, the fundamental standard of “the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women” has fallen short in practice; women face both community-specific and systemic challenges that limit their socioeconomic opportunities and leave them vulnerable to discrimination and abuse. Impunity for violations against women’s rights remains widespread. An under-discussed area in which this inequity of treatment remains particularly poignant, and consequential, is violence against women and girls (VAWG) in conflict and humanitarian settings. While women and men may be victims of similar kinds of human rights violations during conflict, the prevalence of certain abuses differs greatly by gender. For instance, men are imprisoned in greater numbers, but women remain a greater proportion of those who are forcibly displaced from their homes and face abject poverty (Hayner 2001, 85). The corrosion of law and order, a common precursor and outcome of conflict, often breeds instability, impunity, and a general feeling of powerlessness -- all of which contribute to increases of violence against women.

Physical Violence

Although there remain few studies about the prevalence, forms, and underlying causes of violence against women and girls in conflict, there is a consensus that conflict exacerbates existing inequities and results in higher rates of physical and emotional violence. Physical violence, in particular, can include a range of violations -- from random acts of assault by the enemy and “friendly” forces to the strategic use of rape as a strategy of genocide (WHO 1997).



Research in the last decade has confirmed that rates of non-partner sexual violence during armed conflict is especially high, while intimate partner violence (IPV) is even more prevalent under these conditions. What Works, a UK programme investing in studies and interventions to prevent violence against women and girls, has conducted several surveys in conflict-affected areas throughout Africa and Asia to try to measure the prevalence of such violence. In three sites in South Sudan, they found that about one in three (28–33%) women and girls had experienced rape, attempted rape, or sexual assault by a non-partner during their lifetime. In these same sites, the rates of IPV were 54-73%. This study also aimed to evaluate the connections between exposure to armed conflict, displacement, and IPV. It found that girls who were displaced or exposed to armed conflict were two or three more times as likely to experience IPV as those who were not (Murphy et. al. 2019). Specifically, 70% or more of non-partner sexual assaults occurred during a direct experience of conflict (i.e. displacement, attack on the survivor’s village); women also reported that conflict increased the brutality and frequency of attacks and injury (UN Women 2019).

While this data from South Sudan does not mean that each country experiencing conflict will have similar rates of violence, it is important in its revaluation of the pervasive nature of sexual violence -- used both as a tactic of war and by supposedly friendly forces. Other physical violence can include torture, arbitrary acts of violence, and forced marriage. Less acknowledged, but similarly present, is also the reality of increases in “early marriage” during conflict. Qualitative research suggests that conflict and crises can provide an impetus for families to marry off their daughters at a young age. This can be seen as a means of minimizing their financial burden or as a form of “protection” -- “protecting” them against pre-marital rape that



could occur during conflict, which would reduce their marriage prospects. This particular revelation demonstrates the vulnerability of young girls preceding conflict from within their own communities, in addition to demonstrating the pervasive nature of sexual violence, showing that communities *expect* a high likelihood of rape during conflict.

Physical violence against women and girls is perpetrated for a variety of reasons, but a primary motivation in times of conflict is the perception of violence as a tool to control, intimidate, degrade, and demoralize the larger targeted population (UN Human Rights 2020). Horrific enough at the individual level, widespread violence against women of a particular identity is a common tactic of war -- a tactic that is defined as a crime against humanity. When women are targeted for their identity, this violence may be being used as a tool of genocide. The crime of “genocide” consists of an intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnic, racial, or religious group *as such*. Women are often viewed as representatives of such groups, and thus have been targeted throughout history due to these identities. Outside of identity-based violence, unaccompanied women and children, women held in detention and concentration camps, and those with physical or intellectual disabilities are also especially high-risk to be targeted.

Social and Emotional Violence and Trauma

While physical violence is the most visible sign of abuse of women’s rights, conflict also serves to exacerbate existing inequities and structural deficiencies in targeted communities. Regional instability and lack of infrastructure means that essential services can be difficult, if not impossible, to deliver. Adequate healthcare, already lacking, becomes scarce during conflict; this limits the ability of women and girls to receive proper sexual and reproductive health aid,



increasing maternal mortality, unplanned pregnancy, sexually-transmitted infections, and the morbidity of otherwise non-fatal injuries (UN Human Rights 2020). Food and water are also many of the first resources to disappear in conflict. When many families lose the income of their primary breadwinner during conflict, women and children are at greater risk of malnutrition and related illnesses.

In even its simplest sense, physical and psychological violence can have greatly detrimental effects to the “social health” of an entire community. Due to feelings of shame or fear, women are more likely to isolate themselves (or for their families to isolate them), breaking social bonds and further stigmatizing being a survivor of violence (WHO 2019). The trauma from seeing and experiencing violence too often goes undiscussed and unaddressed, leading to diminished mental health.

Women and girls are also disproportionately impacted by structural and operational deficiencies that occur during conflict. In addition to healthcare, education can become a scarce good. Girls are often asked to take on greater household activities, especially as a family’s economic situation deteriorates, and may also stay home due to fear of targeted attacks and direct threats. In this way, conflict not only impacts the lived reality of girls and women *during* armed conflict, but also defines the rest of their lives. An interrupted education often translates to no more education at all, limiting opportunities for socioeconomic mobility and achieving a higher standard of living for themselves and their families.

Refugees, IDPs, and Human Trafficking

While not the direct topic of this committee, women and girls face increased risk of violence when they are in humanitarian settings as refugees and internally displaced persons



(IDPs). These circumstances often have fewer institutional protections, such as a lack of basic health and social services or a responsive police force. This translates to an increase in preventable deaths, physical violence, and economic hardship. Per the UN, at least 20 percent of displaced women or refugees are estimated to have experienced sexual violence. 60 percent of preventable maternal deaths also take place in similar humanitarian settings (UN Women 2020). The educational gender gap also remains, and is often exacerbated, in such situations. Today, there are fewer than eight refugee girls in primary school for every ten refugee boys (UNHCR 2020). While half of the world's refugees are women and girls, only four percent of projects in UN inter-agency appeals in 2014 were targeted for them (UN Women 2019).

Conflict also exacerbates the risk of human trafficking. Adult women account for nearly half of all human trafficking victims globally, with women and girls together accounting for 72 percent of victims. More than 80 percent of women and 75 percent of girls are trafficked for the purpose of sexual exploitation (UN Women 2019).

Drivers and risk-factors of violence

While some of the drivers and risk-factors of gender-based violence were implied above, the chart below provides a more thorough understanding of the range of factors that contribute to violence -- from individual circumstances to societal norms and preconceptions. A few of these risk-factors will be explained more in depth below, but each category provides ample room for discussion and innovative solutions. A range of these risk-factors should be addressed to achieve a well-rounded resolution to combat violence against women in conflict.



Figure 1: A socio-ecological model of potential risk factors for VAWG in conflict and post-conflict settings

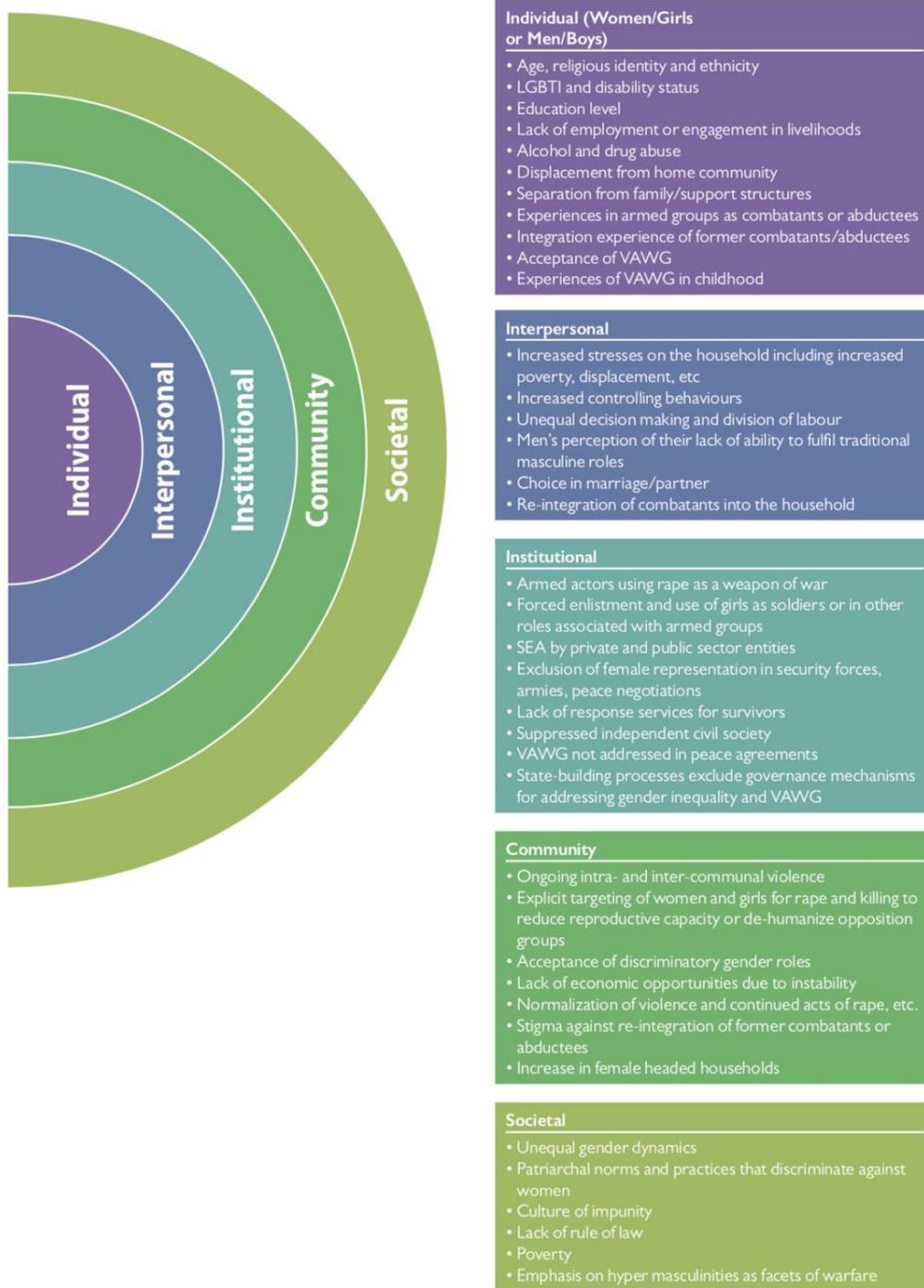


Image: Murphy et. al. 2019. “What works to prevent violence against women and girls in conflict and humanitarian crisis: Synthesis Brief”



Spotlight on: Social Norms

During situations of armed conflict, violence can become a normalized part of life. This desensitization to violence can contribute to increases in interpersonal acts of violence, with limited objection from community members. This normalization can be compounded in communities with highly polarized gendered norms. A society that places high value on masculinity can contribute to IPV as men seek to assert their dominance in the midst of such volatile environments. Enemy combatants have similarly used violence against women to increase men's feelings of humiliation and subjugation (WHO 2019).

In addition to community norms, individuals can be socialized to normalize violence based on their childhood and early adult experiences. A multi-country study from the Middle East and North Africa found that men who witnessed their fathers use violence against their mothers, or men who experienced some form of violence at home as children, were significantly more likely to perpetrate IPV as adults (UN Women 2019). Other social norms that can exacerbate violence against women or contribute to general impunity includes a traditional community preference for sons. This clear preference can translate to neglect of girls, including differential feeding, a disproportionate burden of housework, and limited access to education.

Spotlight on: Institutions

While solutions that address access to services and other immediate needs at the onset of emergencies are important, lasting change and prevention of future violence relies on institutional change. Institutions represent the foundations of any society -- from the military and judiciary, to the structure and accessibility of social services, to media and civil society. Each of



these organizations plays an important role in the socializing of populations (perpetuating stereotypes and gendered norms, or leading the way in promoting gender equality), in addition to the explicit powers they have to prevent and respond to violence. Institutional change is also a primary tenet of transitional justice, the justice process used as countries transition out of violence. Many lessons can be learned from past transitional justice processes on successes and failures in fostering institutional change. Read more about these processes in the “Potential Solutions” section below.

Women have historically been underrepresented in peacebuilding efforts and post-conflict state-building. In major peace processes from 1992-2018, women made up only thirteen percent of negotiators, four percent of signatories, and three percent of mediators. Only two women have ever served as chief negotiators (CFR 2019). Even outside of the human rights-based imperative to include women in these discussions, recent data shows that this exclusion only serves to hurt states, revealing:

- The participation of civil society groups, including women’s organizations, makes a peace agreement 64% less likely to fail.
- When women participate in peace processes, the resulting agreement is 35% more likely to last at least 15 years.
- Higher levels of gender equality are associated with a lower propensity for conflict, both between and within states (CFR 2019).



UN Resolutions and International Law

The UN and the international community at large have recognized the threat to women and girls in conflict; the resolutions and guidelines passed thus far, though, are not routinely enforced. The UN Security Council (UNSC) adopted its first resolution devoted to sexual violence in conflict situations in 2008. Resolution 1820 and its subsequent follow-up resolutions (1888 in 2009, 1889 in 2009, 1960 in 2010) have focused on prevention and response to sexual violence in conflict. The Security Council has also issued resolutions that go beyond sexual violence in conflict, like the 2015 recognition that acts of gender-based violence can be used as a tactic of terrorism (Resolution 2242). These resolutions also seek to use the UN architecture as a framework for future action, including by appointing special representatives on sexual violence in conflict and establishing monitoring and reporting mechanisms. This use of UN resources is just one example of how the UN architecture can be used for under-discussed areas. There are further questions you should ask based on this history, including: what resources would be most effective from the UN? How can past resources be more effectively employed? How can these frameworks address the causes of violence, in addition to the consequences?

The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and its Commission of the same name has also play an important role in providing a legal framework for addressing gender-based violence. In general, CEDAW has worked to ensure countries' legal commitments to meet women's demands for equality and social change, serving as the primary legal instrument on women's human rights. It has been particularly successful in promoting access to basic education, modern forms of family planning, and access to employment opportunities for women and girls. With regard to conflict, CEDAW adopted



General Recommendation 35 (GR 35), which recognizes gender-based violence as a violation of human rights. The recommendations also expand the terminology of violence to include violations of sexual and reproductive health rights and emphasize the role of social norms and stereotypes in supporting violence and gender inequity (UN Human Rights 2017). CEDAW had previously adopted GR 30, which enshrines the need to protect women's rights and gender equality before, during, and after conflict. GR 30 advocates for the use of past Security Council resolutions on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) and CEDAW resolutions to generate a framework on the promotion of gender equality for conflict prevention and post-conflict reconstruction. International law like GR 30 and UNSC resolutions help pave the way for accountability for how states address women's rights in and after conflict, but they also rely to an extent on the willingness of the state to actually abide by the provisions. CEDAW and the UNSC's WPS agenda have thus included obligations to the states parties to these resolutions as key aspects of the framework -- generating a legal imperative to act -- as well as reporting mechanisms to promote accountability (Patten 2018).

While these actions by the international community to recognize the causes and consequences of VAWG have been important steps, the recent proliferation of non-state armed actors in conflict has increased the difficulty of using international norms and legal mechanisms to eliminate gender-based violence. States parties to CEDAW are obliged to regulate non-state actors, but CEDAW itself is not binding to these groups. CEDAW and the UNSC have often called on non-actors to abide by International Humanitarian Law (IHL) and other human rights obligations, but the impact of these calls has been minimal. Case studies of non-state actors perpetrating particularly heinous crimes against women in conflict include the enslavement of



Yazidi women by ISIL (UNFPA 2016) and the use of women and children as suicide bombers by the West African insurgent organization Boko Haram.

Though challenging, it is important to address the role of non-state actors in perpetrating violence just as much as this committee addresses state-sanctioned violence. If traditional institutions seem like they may have less of an impact for such groups, it may be helpful to consider how to target the a) norms that justify violence against women in conflict, and b) structural inequities that allow women to be targets of violence (largely without impunity) in the first place.

Preventing post-conflict violence and the role of transitional justice

Violence against women and girls does not end with the resolution of conflict. In fact, a resolution can lead to a surge of violence, with last-ditch efforts at harming marginalized populations, a greater availability of small arms, and the general breakdown of the rule of law. It is thus important to consider prevention tools for post-conflict situations as well. Post-conflict environment and reforms can also be an opportunity for transformation of the institutions and norms in place before the conflict. This opportunity has not often been capitalized on in the past; only five percent of peace agreements between 1990-2017 mentioned gender-based violence in conflict, and only nineteen percent included reference to women at all (CFR 2019). The widespread nature of this historical exclusion from conflict prevention efforts, transition, and reconciliation processes has drawn concern from the international community.

Determining what state and international actions and resources are available to bring about change is a necessary precursor to reversing these exclusionary trends. For a start,



delegates can learn much from the emerging field of transitional justice (TJ). Broadly defined, TJ is the way that countries emerging from conflict and state-sanctioned repression reckon with systemic human rights violations. Most often, these violations are so serious, and so widespread, that a traditional retributive justice process cannot provide an adequate response (ICTJ 2018). The four primary pillars of TJ are a focus on accountability for perpetrators, redress for victims, a reckoning with abuses (often through a truth-telling or fact-finding process), and reforming state laws and institutions (from the military and police forces to the judiciary). While TJ processes in the past have never solely focused on violations against women, many have recognized the disproportionate violations against women and girls and committed to supporting survivors and their families. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission in South Africa is likely the most well-known TJ process, but other initiatives to research may include: Tunisia’s Truth and Dignity Commission; the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Liberia; the Commission for Reception, Truth and Reconciliation in Timor-Leste; and a range of TJ processes in Peru.

While these commissions could be used as roadmaps for a more systematic, UN-backed process for prevention of post-conflict violence, they also demonstrate the challenges women have historically faced in achieving recognition of and redress for the consequences of armed conflict. A 2006 study of truth commissions and gender concluded that “many truth commissions have failed women -- the crimes they have suffered are under-reported, their voices are rendered inaudible, their depiction in commission reports is one-dimensional, and their needs and goals are deprioritized in recommendations for reparations, reform, and prosecution” (Hayner 2001, 86). The question of prioritization of crimes during truth and justice processes has particularly hurt women. Commissions have often emphasized “serious crimes” of torture, killings, and



forced disappearances -- which should be investigated to be sure, but often lead to a lack of resources allocated to delve into the economic impacts and societal trauma. Even fewer commissions have investigated the economic and social drivers that facilitated the abuses in the first place (Hayner 2001, 86).

Potential Solutions

While violence against women and girls in conflict remains a pervasive issue, there have been steps taken in recent years to address the motivations for violence and institute harsher penalties for perpetrators. In particular, there has been progress on documenting the forms, types, and drivers of VAWG in conflict and humanitarian environments (Murphy et. al. 2019). The importance of documentation in data is often overlooked, but it is an essential step to recognize the full scope of violence and which interventions are most effective, and the data can also be used to inform prosecution and accountability mechanisms in the future.

It is not always feasible to conduct such research and analysis in the midst of armed conflict. Recent research has demonstrated trends, though, that confirm with empirical data that rates of VAWG are extraordinarily higher during conflict and humanitarian settings. Importantly, research has also shown that incidents of VAWG can also serve as drivers of further armed conflict, with abduction and killings leading to an escalatory cycle of violence (Murphy et. al. 2019).

Yet, research has also revealed that VAWG is not prioritized during emergency response or in peacebuilding and state-building efforts. This lack of prioritization demonstrates the need



for three key changes: ensuring the extent and consequences of VAWG during conflict are well-known outside of actors in the field, coordinating increased funding from the international community, and streamlining communication and collaboration with actors in the humanitarian space that may not traditionally work on VAWG. These steps are particularly important to address forms of violence not traditionally considered during emergencies, like IPV, and in ensuring female representation and engagement in post-conflict transition (Murphy et. al. 2019).

One initiative that has been taking strides to prevent violence is the United Kingdom Department for International Development's (UKID) "What Works to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls Programme" (What Works). The initiative has invested £25 million over five years to support prevention efforts across Asia and Africa, with the goal of understanding and addressing the underlying causes of violence. In addition to conducting primary research and evaluating existing interventions (interventions which may be useful to look into when developing your own solutions), the programme is working to add to the human rights-centered imperative to protect women and girls. Specifically, the programme is estimating the social and economic costs of VAWG to develop an economic case for investing in the prevention of VAWG (Murphy et. al. 2019).

Although evidence is still limited in terms of what interventions are most successful in preventing VAWG, there are several promising practices and emerging trends. Most clearly, it seems that successful interventions tend to take an "all of community" approach -- working to address community-wide attitudes, behaviors, and social norms through a variety of modalities (Murphy et. al. 2019, 26). These programmes are often led by community figures, like school or faith leaders. There remains mixed evidence about the role of women's economic empowerment



and emergency cash transfer programmes in preventing violence in humanitarian settings. It is unlikely that these programmes alone can address inequitable gender norms and reduce VAWG outcomes; they may, though, be a tool to be used in addition to other community-based interventions. An additional component for solutions must be addressing access to medical, psychosocial, legal, and security services beginning at the onset of a humanitarian emergency. Research is limited as to how best to reduce barriers that prevent survivors from accessing these services, and this committee would benefit from innovative solutions to tackle these challenges.

Additional recommendations for policy and practice from the What Works project and other evaluations calls for:

- Investment in addressing the range of forms of violence that women and girls experience, beyond just physical and sexual violence.
- Prioritization of VAWG prevention and gender equality efforts in humanitarian response, assigning these efforts equal importance as access to essential services.
- Work to better meet the specific needs of adolescent girls in conflict settings, who are at particular risk, yet have limited age-specific prevention interventions aimed at them.
- Continue to build the evidence base about the prevalence and drivers of VAWG in conflict and humanitarian sectors.



Questions to Consider:

1. What are solutions to addressing the range of **drivers** of violence against women and girls -- from individual circumstances to societal norms and institutions?
2. Can certain solutions **complement** one another? What's the best **sequencing** for action? Would it be effective to advocate for changing laws if the country will not actually prosecute perpetrators of violence?
3. How can you incentivize the inclusion of women in the peacebuilding and governing process? Is this about available resources, or public perception of their role?
4. How will you address the greater risk of violence faced by minority populations? Are there certain humanitarian environments that require more, or different, resources and support?
5. If your country is not in the midst of conflict, what are steps to take to prevent VAWG during conflict in the future?
6. If your country is in the midst of conflict, what are **immediate** steps to take to mitigate the risk of violence? What are more **long-term** goals to address structural inequities?
7. How will you address the role of non-state actors that perpetrate violence and promote impunity for such crimes?
8. What is the role of international law and multilateral institutions in violence prevention and mitigation? Does the international community have the responsibility to intervene in situations where women are being targeted *because* of their gender?
9. How will you direct greater funding to under-prioritized services during conflict?



Additional Resources:

1. Council on Foreign Relations, [“Countering Sexual Violence in Conflict”](#)
2. Council on Foreign Relations, [“Women’s Participation in Peace Processes”](#)
3. Global Womens Institute, [What works to prevent violence against women and girls in conflict and humanitarian crisis: Synthesis Brief](#)
4. [What Works to Prevent Violence](#) (a range of data and resources)
5. [The International Center for Transitional Justice](#) (various briefs and analyses of past transitional justice efforts around the world)
6. U.S. Institute for Peace (USIP), [“Wartime Sexual Violence: Misconceptions, Implications, and Ways Forward”](#)
7. World Health Organizaion (WHO), [“Violence against women in situations of armed conflict and displacement”](#)



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