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Abstract

This research critically analyzed Sierra Leone’s 2010 National Action Plan (SILNAP) that was launched in June 2010 as a response of the United Nations Security Council’s Resolutions 1325 (UNSCR 1325). UNSCR 1325 was adopted unanimously on October 2000 and focuses on the consequences of conflicts on women and girls. It is also the first UN Security Council Resolution to formally link women to the peace and security process. As support for UNSCR 1325, the Security Council adopted UNSCR 1820 on June 19th, 2008 as its 5,916th meeting (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 7). UNSCR 1820 confronts sexual violence in conflict and post-conflict situations.

Because countries were not implementing the points made in the resolution, on October 13th, 2004, the UN Secretary General urged states to take strong actions by preparing National Action Plan (NAPs) toward the implementation of UNSCR 1325. NAPs were to state how nations would protect, enhance participation, and ensure promotion of women’s rights and their involvement in peace process (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 3). This is against the background that women’s leadership had been recognized as crucial in preventing wars and preventing wars and peacemaking.

Sierra Leone encountered 11 years of conflict (1991-2002). The conflict left more than half of the population displaced and caused tens of thousands of deaths, thousands of amputations and abductions, and thousands of women coping with the aftermath of sexual violence (Coulter 2009, p. 31). Stressing the horrific atrocities of armed conflict on women and girls, UNSCR 1325 broadly demands that all governments, UN agencies, multilateral agencies, and civil society act in concert to intervene to meet women’s needs and concerns during conflict,
post-conflict recovery, and peace building processes (SILNAP 2010, p. 2). Sierra Leone responded to the United Nations call and has published its NAP.

This research used content analysis as its analytical tool. Twenty criteria were used by Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011) to analyze the first sixteen NAPs based on UNSCR 1325. This research uses those 20 factors – that is, publication date, general organization, agents that led the NAP process, level of involvement of civil society, plan period, timeline for implementation, advertising/promotion, age sensitivity, gender perspectives, geographic/political level of specificity, priority areas, performance measures, reporting/feedback, financial allocation, and monitoring by civil society – to analyze the Sierra Leone National Action Plan.

The research pointed out the efficacy and the importance of a National Action Plan for the implementation of UNSCRs. Many of the criteria in the Sierra Leone’s NAP (SiLNAP) seem to be mentioned and well developed (e.g., publication date, general organization, performance measures, priority areas). Even though the SiLNAP appears to be well developed, there is a lack of details about points in regard to implementing the plan. For instance, there is no precision about the number of times and the frequency of reports, conferences and workshops. Also, there are inadequate efforts to address gender issues, a lack of specificity about where the plan priorities will be implemented (Freetown, Boo, or elsewhere), and the unmatched plan budget framework is only for four years vis-à-vis the plan’s timeline of five years.

This research’s findings are important because they contribute to the small amount of research about the UNSCRs (1325 & 1820) and also are a guide for countries that are planning to publish their NAPs. The research also can be useful to policymakers, citizens, activists, and researchers.
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List of Acronyms

APC All People Congress
CEDAW Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DDR Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration
ECOWAS Economic Community of West African States
ICCPR Internal Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR Internal Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IDP Internal Displaced People
MARWOPNET Mano River Women’s Peace Network
NAP National Action Plan
NGO Non-Governmental Organization
OSAGI Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women
OUA Organization of African Unity
RUF Revolution United Front
SCSL Special Court for Sierra Leone
SGBV Sexual and Gender-Based Violence
SiLNAP Sierra Leone National Action Plan
SL Sierra Leone
SLA Sierra Leone Army
SLPP Sierra Leone People’s Party
TRC Truth and Reconciliation Commission
UN United Nations
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR United Nations High Commissioners for Refugees
UNSCR United Nations Security Council Resolution
WANEP West African Network for Peacebuilding
WHO World Health Organization
I. INTRODUCTION

This research critically analyzes Sierra Leone’s 2010 National Action Plan (SILNAP) that was launched in June 2010 as a response to the United Nations Security Council’s Resolutions (UNSCR 1325 and 1820). UNSCR 1325 was adopted unanimously on October 2000 and mentioned the consequences of conflicts on women and girls. It is also the first UN Security Council Resolution to formally link women to the peace and security process. Because countries were not implementing the points made in the resolution, on October 13th, 2004, the UN Secretary General urged states to take strong actions by preparing NAPs toward the implementation of UNSCR 1325. NAPs were to lay down how states would protect, enhance participation, and ensure promotion of women’s rights and their involvement in peace process (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 3). This is against the background that women’s leadership had been recognized as crucial in preventing wars and in peacemaking. As support for UNSCR 1325, the Security Council adopted UNSCR 1820 on June 19, 2008 at its 5916th meeting (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 7).

UNSCR 1820 confronts sexual violence in conflict and post-conflict situations. Key provisions of the resolution are to (a) recognize a direct relationship between the widespread and/or systematic use of sexual violence as an instrument of conflict and the maintenance of international peace and security; (b) commit the Security Council to consider appropriate steps to end such atrocities and to punish their perpetrators; and (c) request a report from the Secretary General on situations in which sexual violence is being widely and/or systematically employed against civilians and on strategies for ending the practice.

Sierra Leone encountered 11 years of conflict (1991-2002). The conflict left more than half of the population displaced and caused tens of thousands of deaths, thousands of
amputations and abductions, and thousands of women coping with the aftermath of sexual violence (Coulter 2009, p. 31). Stressing the horrific atrocities of armed conflict on women and girls, UNSCR 1325 broadly demands that all governments, UN agencies, multilateral agencies, and civil society act in concert to intervene to meet women’s needs and concerns during conflict, post-conflict recovery, and peace building processes (SiLNAP 2010, p. 2). Sierra Leone responded to the United Nations call and has published its NAP. Its work commenced in February 2008, was finalized in March 2010, and was published in June 2010.

There is a wealth of information about women during conflict and in peace building (Institute of International Studies 2010, p. 11). According to Mazurana, et al. (2005, p. 29-42), a sustainable peace is possible only if women have equal access to political, social and economic institutions. In addition, sustainable peace is also possible if there is a change in cultural attitudes away from violent confrontation to non-violent conflict resolution. Because of women’s concerted fight against violence, literature related to the topic of sustainable solutions in post-conflict reconstruction has increased in the past decade. Even though the research on UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 is limited [e.g., Institute of International Studies (2010), Mazurana, et al. (2005), and Anderlini (2007)], there are a few studies of the national action plans [e.g., Gumru and Fritz (2008) and Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011)].

This research uses a content analysis of the SiLNAP as its analytical tool. Neuendorf (2002, p.10) defines content analysis as a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding. Twenty criteria were used by Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011) to analyze the first 16 NAPs based on UNSCR 1325. This research uses those 20 factors – e.g., publication date, general organization, agents that led the NAP process, level of involvement of civil society, plan period, timeline for
implementation, advertising/promotion, age sensitivity, gender perspectives, geographic/political level of specificity, priority areas, performance measures, reporting/feedback, financial allocation, and monitoring by civil society – to analyze the Sierra Leone National Action Plan.

Particular areas of concern, based on the problems experienced by other countries (Fritz, Doering and Gumru, 2011), are the extent to which civil society has been involved in the development, proposed implementation and proposed monitoring of the plan; whether there is adequate financial backing for implementation; the plan’s priorities examined in relation to the country’s needs; and whether monitoring is expected to take place.

Only 24 countries out of 192 UN Member States have developed national action plans for women, peace and security. These are: Austria (August 8th 2007); Belgium (May 8th 2009); Bosnia-Herzegovina (July 2010); Canada (October 2010); Chile (August 3th 2009); Cote d’Ivoire (January 2007); Denmark (June 2005 and revised in 2008); Democratic Republic of Congo (June 2010); The Netherlands (December 2007); Estonia (November 2010); Finland (September 19th 2008); France (November 2010); Iceland (March 8th 2008); Liberia (March 8th 2009); Nepal (October 2010); Norway (March 2006); Philippines (March 2010); Portugal (August 2009); Rwanda (May 2010); Sierra Leone (March 2010); Spain (November 2007 and revised in November 2010); Sweden (October 2006 and revised in 2009); Swiss (February 2007 and revised in October 2010); Uganda (December 2008); and United Kingdom (March 8th, 2006).

Sierra Leone is one of the few African countries (Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia, Uganda, Cote d’Ivoire) to have put a plan in place. This research analyzes the plan and serves as a base to help Sierra Leone evaluate its efforts to deal with the very difficult situation of women in its country. This research also will be helpful to other African countries – such as
South Africa and Sudan – that are considering or need to be considering the development of national action plans.

To better understand this research, key concepts, numbered 1 through 6 and noted in italics, are defined below:

1. *UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (UNSCR 1325)* reaffirms the role that women play in peace building as equal and fully participating active agents. It laments the under-valued and under-utilized contributions women make to conflict prevention, peacekeeping, conflict resolution and peace building. Thus, implementing UNSCR 1325 means increasing women's visibility and participation in peace processes, strengthening protection mechanisms, and incorporating gender equality provisions across the democratic systems established once hostilities come to a close (SiLNAP 2010, p. 1).

2. *UN Security Council Resolution (UNSCR 1820)* focuses on sexual violence in conflict and post-conflict situations. Key provisions of the resolution recognize a direct relationship between the widespread and systematic use of sexual violence as an instrument of conflict and the maintenance of international peace and security. In addition, UNSCR 1820 demands changes to the legal and political landscape for addressing sexual violence in conflict by declaring that sexual violence is a tactic of war and requires a planned and trained military and police reaction (SiLNAP 2010, p. 2).

3. *National Action Plans (NAPs)* are one of the implementation tools of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (UNSCR 1325). A NAP is a written document that provides the opportunity for a government to initiate strategic actions, identify priorities and resources, and determine responsibilities among different actors. It includes time frames for implementation and also benchmarks and accountability mechanisms. The best NAPs will extensively involve
civil society in plan development, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of military and civilian personnel in preparation for deployment (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 2).

4. *Peace* means the absence of war or other hostilities in the context of this research project. This research concurs with Gumru’s (2008, p. 2) definition of peace. Peace is “respect of human dignity and human rights, of economic development, well being, protection of the environment, rule of law, and of social stability” (cited in Frauensicherheitstrat, 2008).

5. *Human security* embraces far more than the absence of violent conflict. According to the former Secretary General of the United Nations Kofi Annan (2000), human security “encompasses human rights, good governance, access to education and healthcare and ensuring that each individual has opportunities and choices to fulfill his or her potential.” He explained also that “every move in that direction is also a way of reducing poverty, achieving economic growth and preventing conflict so future generation can inherit a healthy environment.”

6. *Post-conflict* is the phase of recuperation, peace building and reconstruction that follows a conflict. It is also the end of hostilities or conflict by negotiation or war, and there has not been a relapse into violence (Heyzer 2005, p. 59).

This study is both important and timely because there has been little research about Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 and none that the author has found about the NAP in Sierra Leone. The research is an asset to policymakers, citizens and activists who are working very hard to ensure that Sierra Leone’s NAP is implemented successfully. The research also serves as model to other countries.

This research is organized into seven chapters. Chapter One introduces the study and defines key concepts and terms as will be used in the research. Chapter Two is a statement of the problem, provides further description of the topic and definitions of the key definitions for the research, and describes the structure and roles of the UN’s Security Council and the Convention
on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). This chapter also reviews UNSCR 1325 and NAPs. Chapter Three describes the study area – Sierra Leone. Sierra Leone’s history, geographic and demographic contexts, and the situation of its women and girls are discussed. Chapter Four describes the research method, while Chapter Five outlines the data research used to analyze Sierra Leone’s NAP. Chapters Six and Seven are the analysis and conclusion chapters, respectively.
II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This chapter first defines some relevant terms that are used in this research. In order to better understand the research subject matter – Sierra Leone’s 2010 NAP, this chapter also reviews several other topics. These are the UN Security Council, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Women as Victims and Change Agents, and UN Security Council Resolutions and the Call for National Action Plan.

A. Definitions

1. Gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women (Mazurana, et al. 2005, p. 13). According to the World Health Organization (2002, p. 4), “Gender is used to describe those characteristics of women and men, which are socially constructed, while sex refers to those which are biologically determined. People are born female or male but learn to be girls and boys who grow into women and men.” Gumru (2008) pointed out also that the experiences and concerns of men, women, boys and girls before, during, and after wars and armed conflicts are shaped by their gendered social roles. These roles are formed by cultural, social, economic, and political conditions, expectations, and obligations within the family, community, and nation (Mazurana, et al. 2005, p. 13).

3.  *Gender balance* refers to the degree to which women and men are involved within the full range of activities associated with the United Nations (Mazurana, et al. 2005, p. 13).

4.  *Gender mainstreaming* is as a way to “assess the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programs, in any area and at all levels” (Rehn & Sirleaf 2002, p. 65). Gender mainstreaming considers to the fact that the concerns and experiences of women, girls, men, and boys are different, and they recover differently from the effects of violence and community destabilization (Mazurana, et al. 2005, p. 15).

5.  *Peace processes* are negotiations towards the peaceful settlement of a conflict or any social process undertaken by governments who want their citizens to believe they are trying to avoid armed hostilities (Warning 2008, p. 10). A complex range of informal and formal activities composes the peace process. Informal activities include marches, protests, demonstrations, intergroup dialogue, intercultural exchange, and various actions for social, political, and economic justice; and these activities are conducted by a range of actors, such as international, regional, national and local organizations, and grass-roots organizations, including peace groups, women’s groups, religious organizations and individuals (Mazurana, et al. 2005, p. 18).

    Formal peace processes generally include early warning, preventive diplomacy, conflict prevention, and global disarmament. Conflict resolution, peace negotiations, reconciliation, reconstruction of infrastructure and the provision of humanitarian aid are among the formal activities (United Nations 2010, p. 53). Political leaders, the military, international organizations, such as the United Nations, regional and sub-regional organizations, such as the African Union (AU), as well as governmental, non-governmental and humanitarian organizations conduct these activities (United Nations 2010, p. 53).
B. United Nations Security Council

The review of literature in this section relies on information found on the United Nations Security Council websites. The UN Security Council is the United Nations’ most powerful body with primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security (UN Security Council, 2010a). The UN Security Council is composed of fifteen UN member States, five of which are permanent members: the United States of America, the United Kingdom, France, the Russian Federation, and China. The permanent members have the power to veto a substantive decision of the Council by voting against it (UN Security Council 2010a). The other ten members of the Security Council are elected by the General Assembly to two-year non-renewable terms, with five new members elected each year. The ten elected members, known in Charter language as "non-permanent members," are selected according to a distribution formula from each of the world's major regions (UN Security Council 2010a).

The Security Council meets formally in both private and public sessions. The meetings normally take place in the Security Council Chamber at UN headquarters in New York. In their meetings, the Council votes on resolutions and conducts other official business. The Security Council meets occasionally in private mainly to decide on candidate(s) recommended for the position of the UN Secretary-General. Since 1990, the Security Council has conducted most of its business in private "consultations informal and off-the-record meetings.” The President of the Security Council conducts meetings. The Office of the President of the Security Council rotates each month among the Council's membership on an alphabetical basis (UN Security Council 2010b).

In addition to recommending the names of new Secretary Generals, the Council recommends new State members of the UN. The Security Council also elects judges to the
International Court of Justice jointly with the UN General Assembly. In the key realm of peace and security, the UN Security Council performs three main functions (UN Security Council 2010b):

- It assists in the peaceful settlement of disputes,
- It establishes and oversees UN peacekeeping forces and
- It takes enforcement measures against recalcitrant States or other parties.

Acting under Chapter VI of the UN Charter, the UN Security Council “shall, when it deems necessary, call upon the parties” to settle a dispute by peaceful means such as negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, or judicial settlement (Article 33). Moreover, it may, if all the parties to a dispute request it, make recommendations to the parties with a view to a peaceful settlement (Article 38). In practice, the UN Security Council often asks the Secretary-General or one of his or her Special Representatives to mediate or negotiate under guidelines the Council has established. Increasingly, the Council members themselves have traveled to conflict areas in an effort to directly negotiate settlements or mediate conflicts (UN Security Council 2010b).

Though the first UN peacekeeping force was established by the General Assembly, the Security Council has established subsequent forces. The latter exercises authority and command over them. The Security Council delegates to the Secretary General its powers to organize and exercise command and control over the force. Nevertheless, it retains close management (UN Security Council 2010c).

The Security Council usually deploys peacekeeping forces only after ceasefires have been agreed upon. As such, the peacekeepers are only lightly armed and should not be confused with an army fighting an opposing force. In the post-Cold War period, with greater consensus among its members, the UN Security Council has established far more peacekeeping operations than in the past. Some large and complex operations not only include soldiers but also civilian
police, election monitors, demining and demobilization experts, as well as civilian administrative personnel (UN Security Council 2010c).

The UN Security Council also may take enforcement measures which are more robust than peacekeeping. These enforcement powers are included in Chapter VII of the UN Charter. The enforcement powers authorize the UN Security Council to determine when a threat to, or breach of, the peace has occurred. Enforcement includes imposing economic and military sanctions (UN Security Council 2010c).

The UN General Assembly may suspend a Member State that is against a preventive or enforcement action from the exercise of the rights and privileges of membership once the UN Security Council makes such a recommendation. The UN General Assembly, once it receives such a recommendation from the Security Council, may expel from the United Nations a Member State that has persistently violated the principles of its Charter. Both Member States of the United Nations and non-member States, if they are parties to a dispute being considered by the Security Council, are invited to take part, without a vote, in the Security Council's discussions. However, the Security Council sets the conditions for participation by a non-member State (UN Security council 2010c).

**C. Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)**

The Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the UN’s General Assembly in 1979. CEDAW is an effort by the UN to set comprehensive international legal standards for women. Besides, many view CEDAW as an international bill of rights for women (Anderlini 2007, p. 14). Additionally, CEDAW is a landmark international agreement that affirms principles of fundamental human rights and equality for women around the world. CEDAW offers countries a practical blueprint to achieve progress for women and girls by calling on each ratifying country to overcome barriers to discrimination. As of 2009, there are 186 out of 193 countries that have ratified CEDAW (2009).
To ensure that women enjoy the same basic rights and fundamental freedoms as men, CEDAW (CEDAW 2009) seeks to:

1. End sex trafficking, domestic abuse, and violence against women,
2. Provide access to education and vocational training,
3. Ensure the right to vote,
4. Improve maternal health care,
5. Ensure the ability to work and own a business without discrimination,
6. Ensure inheritance rights and
7. End forced marriage and child marriage.

In principle, CEDAW obliges State parties to submit to the Secretary General a report on the legislative, judicial, administrative, or other measures that they have adopted to implement the Convention within a year after its entry into force. Country report submission is done at least every four years thereafter or when CEDAW so requests. In submitting country reports, States may indicate factors and difficulties in implementation to be considered by CEDAW (2009).

D. Women as Victims and Change Agents

This section reviews women as victims and their courageous roles in conflict situations.

1. Women in Conflict Situations

The nature of conflict has changed since the last quarter of the 20th Century. While global conflicts have been diminishing, local conflicts have increased. This research focuses on the latter. The changing nature of conflict from interstate wars to intrastate wars has also changed the tactics and weapons used in conflicts. In the past, the regular armed forces mostly absorbed the damages of armed conflict (Guardam and Jarvis 2001, p. 15-16). However, in current conflicts,
civilians have become the primary victims, especially women and girls. Incidents of violence against civilians are not simply collateral damage. On the contrary, civilians have become a primary target in today’s conflicts. In addition, torture, murder and rape are used as weapons during these conflicts to demoralize the enemy (Guardam and Jarvis 2001, p. 17-18).

2. Women as Victims

As Guardam and Jarvis (2001, p.19) assert, during war, men have always been the main subjects of discussion. They have been the ones who make decisions about conflicts; they have been heroes; they have killed and been killed for their countries. On the other hand, women have either been portrayed as those in need of protection, or as means of communication between men. As feminist scholarship has highlighted for decades, the reproductive capacity of women has a direct effect on social existence. Hence, domestic violence, honor killing, or other forms of sexual violence have always been used to control women’s bodies as well as their reproductive capacities.

During the conflict in Sierra Leone (1991-2002), attacks directly targeted women and children. Many were abducted and taken by rebels into their strongholds in the jungle. The abductions were often brutal, with fighters invading villages, burning homes, and killing the leaders and chiefs. Individuals deemed worthy of conscription, the majority of whom were boys between the ages of eight and fifteen, were often forced to commit atrocities against their communities. These atrocities varied but included killing and raping their own family members or other villagers. Women and girl abductees taken during these raids were often subjected to repeated sexual and violent physical abuse. If they survived these abuses, they became the battalion’s cooks, porters, and messengers. Some ended up as “bush wives” for combatants. As “bush wives,” women faced forced labor and sexual relations but were spared from some forms
of sexual abuse, such as gang rapes, due to protection from their “bush husbands” (Coulter 2009, p. 95-116).

While McKay and Mazurana (2004, p. xi) contend that these forced sexual roles were a daily reality for many women, anthropologist Mats Utas’s (2005) investigation of women’s roles in rebel battalions in Liberia shows that many young women strategically manipulated these partnerships in order to survive the unstable economic and violent environment inherent in civil guerrilla conflicts. Erturk (2005, p. 51-54) points out that in armed conflicts throughout the world, the rape and the impregnation of women is used as a war weapon. In other words, it is a political and strategic triumph to dishonor the enemy by violating the women who belong to other men. During the war, the result of this violation in social standing meant that women would often avoid returning to their communities; thus, they become captives of the fighting forces. Women were especially vulnerable to these strategic tactics because communities saw these women as part of the fighting forces and often feared them. The children of these women were also feared, and it was expected that these “rebel babies” would grow into brutal individuals due to their parents’ lineage (Coulter 2006, p. 369).

According to, Pierre Schori (2003), a Swedish diplomat, “it is not about sex, or about men and women, it is socially constructed role and behaviors that are labeled masculine and feminine that can be, and should be, deconstructed.” He further argues that “war is a gendered activity.” He states that, after childbirth, war making has possibly been the most segregated of activities along gender lines. Simply put, armed forces and military factions are generally male institutions, while women and girls face most risks and dangers. Yet, women are generally absent from official initiatives to end conflicts, and their voices are missing from decisions on priorities in peace processes (Schori 2003).
3. Women as Dynamic Actors in War

One of the predefined gender roles attributed to women is that women are related to peace, while men are attributed to war. In the public sphere, men are portrayed as dynamic actors, not only in wars but in peacetime too. Men are shown as subjects or active elements of working life or politics, while women are considered just passive contributors or objects. In reviewing the case of Sierra Leone, Mazurana and Carlson (2004) conclude that women and girls in the fighting forces had a complex experience—they were captives and dependents, but they also were involved in planning and executing the war. However, in some cases, women also find themselves forced to participate in war against their wishes. According to Coulter (2009), women in Sierra Leone have been forced to join the army to fight, to cook and to be wives of soldiers. In this case, these women did not wish to be part of the war, but they were forced to serve in the name of their country.

Another issue often raised and discussed in studies on women in the army is how the army changes the lives of female members (Bouta, et al., 2005 and Mazurana, et al., 2005). On the one hand, joining the armed forces during a conflict is one way of survival for these women. During conflict, because many resources are diverted to the army, being a member of this army becomes a way to survive the violent disturbance. On the other hand, women also participate in armies for equal rights. Mostly during conflicts based on liberation movements, women tend to join the army to gain equal rights. Women’s entry is also buttressed by the fact that many revolutionary movements also support equal rights for women and give them unbridled hope after the revolutionary conflict.

Being in the army also changes women’s gender roles as they receive military education equal to men, and in most cases, they are treated equally to men. Even though they may become
more masculine, women participating in the army start to question gender roles in general.

Bouta, et al. (2005, p. 11) indicates that:

Girls were part of fighting forces in 55 countries and were involved in armed conflict in 38 of the 55 countries, all of them internal conflicts. In addition, girls in fighting forces participated in a number of international conflicts, including Lebanon, Macedonia, Sudan, and Uganda. Although female participation varies in armies, guerrilla forces, or armed liberation movements, generally they are between one-tenth and one-third of combatants. In Sri Lanka women comprised one-third of the fighting forces; they were one-quarter of the combatants of El Salvador’s Farabundo Martí National Liberation Front (FMLN), while in Nicaragua, women were some 30 percent of soldiers and leaders of the Sandinista National Liberation Front.

In El Salvador, Guardam and Jarvis (2001, p. 78) show that female guerillas used conflict as a means to change their gender roles. During the civil war in El Salvador, women learned new skills and assumed new responsibilities because the ideology of liberation also included the liberation of women. Additionally, El Salvadorian women, by participating in many activities and missions together with men, were able to escape segregation pitting males against females. This gave these women confidence and self-determination. After the conflict, this self-consciousness continued, and women demanded education and equal opportunities in public life. Mckay and Mazurana (2004) also highlighted this issue in their case studies in Northern Uganda, Sierra Leone, and Mozambique. They conclude that, “Women and girls in the army are subjected to oppression, gender-specific violence and abusive and violent relationships” (cited in Bouta, et al. 2005, p. 16).
It also should be mentioned that even though most revolutionary movements include women’s rights and how they intend to change gender roles, there is evidence that this does not occur all the times. In other words, there is evidence that some post-war periods are characterized by continuing discrimination against women and previous gender role experiences. This becomes especially difficult for women who fought actively during conflict. These women become ashamed of themselves, since according to prevailing gender roles in a patriarchal setting, women are not supposed to be fighters and potential killers. In the context of the Sierra Leone conflict, Coulter (p. 235) notes that:

Peace did not entail a return to normalcy, and although many had suffered throughout the war, peace did not necessarily mean the end of violence and abuse or many rebel women. Many were afraid to return home, fearing rejection by their families and communities. With good reason, they were afraid of being punished for returning with rebel children, for not being virgins, and for being called rebels.

4. Women as Agents of Change

This section argues that women were not only victims in conflict situations. As a matter of fact, women have played key roles in the formation of strong anti-war movements. McKay and Mazurana (2004, p. 16) concur that:

Rural and urban women from all classes and ethnic groups mobilized to form active organizations, conduct marches, and lead rallies for peace and justice…and ultimately played a catalytic role in bringing an end to the conflict.

In post-war situations, women are involved in grass roots efforts aimed at rebuilding the economic, political, social, and cultural fabric of their societies. For instance, in Sierra Leone the
Lomé Peace Accord in 1999 ushered in women movements that called “for an end to male domination and male-biased decisions” (McKay and Mazurana 2004, p. 17). Investigating previous gendered aspects of West African political actions shows that this type of collective action has historically been a powerful tool for mobilization in terms of women-centered issues. Moran’s insightful descriptions illustrate the way in which women’s associations, both spontaneous and strategically planned, have incited social action and built political platforms utilized by West African women to voice and demand change (Moran 1989, p. 449-450).

E. UN Security Council Resolutions and the Call for National Action

Plans

1. Events that led to the UN’s Security Council Resolution 1325

This section describes the history of and examines the events that led to the passage of UNSCR 1325. UNSCR1325 calls for increased involvement of women, at all decision-making levels, in conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict reconstruction, as well as in areas such as disarmament, demobilization, and reintegration (DDR). It also promotes women as advocates for peace. It further acknowledges the need to take special measures in terms of protecting women and girls and to respect the different needs of women and girls. UNSCR 1325 clearly identifies women as important actors in peace-building and conflict mediation. It seeks to expand the contribution of women to field based operations and strives to increase consultation with local and international women's and human rights groups (UN Security Council 2008b).

Strategies for the Advancement of Women, the Vienna Declaration and Program of Action, the 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, the Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action and Beijing +5, and the Windhoek Declaration and the Namibian Plan of Action on Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective on Multidimensional Peace Support Operations. Additionally, central initiatives include, but not are limited to, those developed by Member States, the establishment and the ruling of the ad hoc international criminal tribunals, a series of reports by the Secretary General on issues of peace and security, and the report of the Panel on United Nations Peace Operation (Marazuna, et al. 2005, p. 9).

Efforts to address the situation of women in armed conflict by the United Nations include the consideration by the Commission on the Status of Women in 1969. The issue then was whether special protection was to be accorded to women and children during armed conflict and emergency situations. In 1974, the UN General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict. This was in recognition of how women and children suffer during a period of emergency and armed conflict. Suffering was manifested in the form of suppression, aggression, racism, colonialism, alien domination and foreign subjugation (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa 1974, p. 1). The 1974 Declaration exhorts States involved in armed conflicts to spare women and children from the ravages of war. It further exhorts States to take all necessary steps to ensure the prohibition of persecution, torture, punitive measures, degrading treatment and violence, against women and children. It considers all forms of repression and cruel and inhuman treatment of women and children as criminal. In particular, the declaration advocated that women and children threatened by emergency and armed conflict should not be deprived of shelter, food, medical aid, or other inalienable rights (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa 1974, p. 2).
While the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict highlighted the risk to women and children, the First World Conference on the Status of Women in Mexico City recognized the importance of women’s involvement in peace issues. The First Women Conference coincided with the 1975 International Women’s Year. The latter was observed to remind the international community that discrimination against women continued to be a persistent problem in much of the world. Two others UN conferences were held in Copenhagen (in 1980) and Nairobi (in 1985) that recognized women’s special responsibilities for children and their roles as mothers and caregivers. Moreover, a conference, along with the recognition of the period 1976-1985 as the UN Decade for Women by the UN General Assembly launched a new era in global efforts to promote the advancement of women. These developments opened a worldwide dialogue on gender equality (United Nations 2010).

In 1990, the UN took a number of steps to address the issues of wartime violence against women and girls, including sexual and gender based violence. Marazuna, et al. (2005, p. 10) highlights one of the most important examples in the UN Compensation Commission, which was created to compensate victims of Iraq’s invasion of Kuwait. Potential issues for compensation included physical and mental injury arising from sexual assault. Furthermore, the 1993 UN Conference in Vienna adopted the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women. In particular, the conference recognized violence against women during armed conflict as a human rights violation (Marazuna, et al. 2005, p. 10).

The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) was yet another milestone in the fight against women’s discrimination. BPFA was developed at the Fourth World Conference on Women. It identifies 12 key areas of public policy with specific analysis on the impacts on women. The policy areas are power and decision-making, women’s advancement, human rights,
media, environment and the girl-child, the economy, armed conflict, violence against women, health care, education and training, and poverty. The policy agreement states that (United Nations 2008a):

Violations of human rights of women in situations of armed conflict, in particular, murder, rape, including systematic rape, sexual slavery and forced pregnancy is violations of the fundamental principles of international human rights and humanitarian and requires a particularly effective response.

In May 2000, the Namibia Plan of Action on Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Multidimensional Peace Support Operations, also called The Windhoek Declaration, was adopted. The Action Plan urges the Secretary-General to ensure that appropriate follow-up measures are taken to ensure the participation of women and men as equal partners and beneficiaries in all aspects of the peace process. The Action Plan calls for equal representation of men and women in peacekeeping, reconciliation and peace building processes. Specifically, the plan calls for gender sensitizing and training on gender issues, such as sexual assault and harassment, for peacekeeping forces and personnel in mission areas. Furthermore, the Action Plan calls for developing issues of sexual violence, in standard operating procedures, within missions (Windhoek Declaration 2000).

In October 2000, UNSCR 1325 was unanimously adopted. In the history of the UN, it was the first resolution to recognize the disproportionate impact of conflict on women. Thus, UNSCR 1325 highlighted the need for stronger participation at all levels of decision-making, and the creation of prevention and protection mechanisms that enable women to exercise their rights and contribute to effective peace building. UNSCR 1325 also calls on parties engaged in armed conflict to take special measures to “protect women and girls from gender based violence”
during armed conflict. Furthermore, UNSCR 1325 emphasizes the responsibility of States (United Nations 2008b):

To put an end to impunity and to prosecute those responsible for genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes including those relating to sexual violence against women and girls, and in this regard, stresses the need to exclude these crimes, where feasible from amnesty provisions.

After UNSCR 1325, in January 2002, the Special Court for Sierra Leone (SCSL) was established following an agreement between the UN and the Government of Sierra Leone pursuant to UNSCR 1315. An SCSL Statute allows for the prosecution of rape as a crime against humanity and as a violation of common Article 3 to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 for the Protection of War Victims, and Protocol II thereto of 8 June 1977. The most influential cases on the prosecution of rape from SCSL were the cases of Alex Tamba Brima, Brima Bazzy Kamara and Santigie Borbor Kanu. In addition to the convictions on rape as a crime against humanity, the judicial bodies convicted (life in prison) the above accused for forced marriage and sexual slavery in 2007 (The Special Court for Sierra Leone 2011).

2. Events that led to United Nations Security Council 1820

The development of UNSCR 1820 began as early as 2005, at which time there were diverging views on the utility of a resolution on sexual violence. The Permanent Mission of the United Kingdom to the UN was the first mission to begin considering how to continue to advance the women, peace and security agenda, perceiving critical weaknesses in the language of UNSCR 1325. With the inputs of women’s rights activists, the UK’s Permanent Mission concluded that a strong action resolution was needed, one that would specifically address the types of gross human rights violations that were increasingly being reported in conflict-affected
countries. Although the UK Government supported this agenda, its Permanent Mission faced resistance from a small group of NGOs who expressed concern that such a resolution could subvert the discourse on women in UN resolutions regarding the status of victims, terminology that had strongly characterized references to women prior to UNSCR 1325. They worried that it could undermine calls for women’s participation, which had continued to be vastly outnumbered by calls for protection in the eight years since the adoption of UNCSR 1325 (Black 2009, p. 76-77).

There was also concern about the fact that UNSCR 1325 had yet to be fully implemented and another resolution might take away attention from this. In October 2007, Ghana held the Presidency of the Security Council and expressed interest in using this opportunity to develop a Presidential Statement calling for a working group on women, peace and security, as recommended in the Secretary-General’s report to the Council on the same issue in September 2007. While most of the words calling for a working group were eventually dropped from the final statement, the debate that arose, coupled with other on-going advocacy, helped to open the way for the future development of UNCSR 1820 (True-Frost 2007).

Soon afterwards, the UK and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) began collaborating on a conference to be held at Wilton Park, UK in late May 2008 to refine the understanding of what role UN peacekeepers could play in preventing and responding to conflict-related sexual violence. Conference participants included representatives from permanent missions to the UN, country-level ministers, military personnel, policy makers, NGO experts from conflict zones and other practitioners with insight into the challenges of tackling sexual violence (Black 2009, p. 78).
Drawing on the experiences of in-field experts such as Major-General Patrick Cammaert, former Deputy Forces Commander for the UN Mission in the Democratic Republic of Congo (MONUC), attendees exchanged stories on good practices and on critical barriers to implementation. Major-General Cammaert described how some peacekeeping units under his command had carried out successfully attacks in certain areas through tactics such as strengthened grassroots intelligence, profiling populations at risk, and observing patterns of when and where violations were mostly likely to occur, such as when women collected water or firewood. They also employed simple, non-intervention strategies such as increasing patrols in high-risk areas and/or using flashlights or flashing headlights to signal their presence to potential perpetrators. Although organizers did not specifically intend the Wilton Park meeting to develop a resolution on sexual violence, the United States Government expressed interest in advancing a resolution on the topic during its Presidency of the Security Council shortly after the Wilton Park conference (UN Security Council 2008a).

At the same time, Peace Women (2008a) pointed out that issues of participation and violence are inextricably linked. Simply, sexual violence is both a cause and consequence of low levels of women’s participation in all decision-making and participation in day-to-day life. Peace Women adds that sexual violence does more than discourage political engagement and holds a community hostage and prevents access to markets, water-points, and schools. From this perspective, some NGOs argued that UNSCR 1820 was to address a critical barrier to women’s participation and thus reinforced resolution 1325. NGOs also saw the value in sustaining momentum and attention to the broader women, peace and security agenda (UN Security Council 2008a).
Nevertheless, by the time H.E. Ambassador Zalmay Khalilzad\(^1\) addressed NGOs with an initial draft, he faced resistance from some NGOs and some veto-wielding members of the UN Security Council. In a letter addressed to UN Security Council members and other Member States in June 2008, the NGO Working Group on Women, Peace and Security (NGOWG) urged the incorporation of “bottom-line requirements in the language” of UNSCR 1820. Specifically, NGOWG called for UNSCR 1820 to at a minimum (UN Security Council 2008a):

- Recognize that sexual and gender-based violence in conflict-affected situations is relevant to the maintenance of international peace and security, and, therefore, the Security Council should ensure systematic monitoring and analysis of such violence and, where appropriate, take timely action;

- Require that the UN Secretary-General systematically include comprehensive information on acts of sexual and gender-based violence against women and girls in all of his reports on conflict-affected situations and report to the UN Security Council on ways to improve the level and quality of such reporting;

- Require the UN Secretary-General to report to the UN Security Council on ways to improve the UN’s response, in particular at the highest levels, including at the UN Security Council, to stop gender-based violence in conflict-affected situations. Such a report should draw on the full capacity and expertise of all experts, including UN Action Against Sexual Violence in

\(^1\) He was the United States Ambassador to the United Nations under President George W. Bush. He has been involved with U.S. policy makers at the White House, State Department and Pentagon since the mid-1980s, and was the highest-ranking Muslim American in the Administration of U.S. President George W. Bush (http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/biog/83777.htm).
Conflict and relevant NGOs and women’s groups at the local and global level, and an independent expert could be appointed to lead the study (and prepare the report);

- Require that women’s groups at the local level actively participate in the design and implementation of strategies and programs to meet their security needs and concerns.

When the final language was presented, NGOs were satisfied that their concerns had been sufficiently addressed. Resistance at the Member State level was overcome due to a convergence of factors including a letter signed by 71 women’s organizations in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) that called on the UN Security Council to adopt a resolution using the strongest language to counter impunity. Specifically, they called for strengthened laws and law enforcement, the exclusion of sexual violence from amnesty agreements, the development of monitoring mechanisms, the provision of support to victims, and the implementation of proactive policies to prevent impunity from arising in the first place.

On 19 June 2008, just over three weeks after the conference at Wilton Park, UNSCR 1820 was unanimously adopted in a UN Security Council session presided over by U.S. Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice. She said, “I am proud that, today, we respond to that lingering question with a resounding ‘yes’!” adding that the world body was acknowledging that such violence was indeed a security concern. According to a 2008 UN Security Council report, she further said that the UN Security Council session by adopting UNCSR 1820 affirmed that sexual violence profoundly affects not only the health and safety of women, but the economic and social stability of their nations.” UNSCR 1820 strongly condemns the widespread or systematic use of sexual violence in situations of armed conflict and demands an end to it (UN Security Council 2008a).
Specifically, UNSCR 1820 states that (UN Security Council 2008a):

Sexual violence, when used or commissioned as a tactic of war in order to deliberately target civilians or as a part of a widespread or systematic attack against civilian populations, can significantly exacerbate situations of armed conflict and may impede the restoration of international peace and security.

UNSCR 1820 covers two principal instances of sexual violence: when it is used as a tactic of war to deliberately target civilian populations, including achieving political and military objectives; and when it is part of a widespread or systematic attack on civilian populations, including opportunistic attacks as a consequence of environments of impunity (UN Security Council 2008a).

3. Call for National Action Plans (NAPs)

This section reviews events that led to the formulation of National Actions Plans (NAPs) about women, peace and security. A strong step in the application of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 or other UN Resolutions for that matter is to have a well-structured and strategic action plan in the form of a NAP (SiLNAP 2010, p. 7). Fritz, et al. (2011, p. 21) said that the impact of resolution relies completely on the political will of the different actors to bring into “operation, implement and monitor the recommendations and objectives set out in the resolution.” In fact, in 2004, the UN Secretary-General called on “the Security Council Members States, the United Nations entities and civil society organizations to reaffirm their commitment and strengthen their efforts to fully implement UNSCR 1325” (UN Secretary-General 2004). To date, 24 countries\(^2\) have

\(^2\) These countries are Austria (2007), Belgium (2009), Bosnia-Herzegovina (2010), Canada (2010), Chile (2009), Cote D’Ivoire (2007), Denmark (2005 and revised in 2008), Democratic Republic of Congo (2010), and Netherlands (2007). Others are Estonia (2010), Finland (2008), France (2010), Iceland (2008), Liberia (2009), Nepal (2010),
enacted, revised and/or updated their NAPs since the Secretary General Report of October 2004 (UN-INSTRAW 2010).

Since the adoption of the UNCSR 1325 in 2000, the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women (OSAGI) in New York, in partnership with UN agencies\(^3\) around the world, have embarked on initiatives to raise awareness about the importance of and need to implement the Resolution in especially countries in transit from war to peace. The objective is not only to foster the popularity of the UNSCR 1320 at UN member state level, but also to motivate targeted UN Member States in Africa to respect their commitment to women’s empowerment, gender equality and mainstreaming in peace and security policies and plans with the provision of effective protection to women and girls during and post conflicts (SiLNAP 2010, p. 7).

UNSCR 1325 calls for the implementation of international humanitarian and human rights law, institutional arrangements to guarantee the protection of women and girls and their full participation in the peace process. Consequently, it requests Member States to increase the representation of women at all levels of decision making for prevention, management and resolution of conflict. It seeks to expand the role of women in field-based operations and supports the inclusion of a gender perspective in peacekeeping operations (Amnesty International 2001).

The NAP also serves as a guide to effective implementation, by responsible actors, creating a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) framework and a comprehensive budget. The

\(\text{Norway (2006), Philippines (2010), Portugal (2009), Rwanda (2010), Sierra Leone (2010), Spain (2007), Sweden (2006 and revised in 2009), Switzerland (2007 and revised 2010), and the United Kingdom (2010).}\)

\(\text{\(^3\)For example in Africa OSAGI has partnered with UN Economic Commission for Africa’s Centre for Gender and Social Development.}\)
creation of a NAP should provide the necessary tools for analysing the situation facing women by consulting stakeholders and initiating strategic actions. Precisely, creating an action plan will lead to comprehensiveness, coordination, awareness raising, accountability, and monitoring and evaluation in addressing women issues (UN-INSTRAW 2010).
III. SIERRA LEONE: THE STUDY AREA

This chapter first describes Sierra Leone’s geography as well as its demographic and human conditions. Also discussed are the history, situation of women and girls (through the post-conflict period from 2002 to 2010), and the protection of women from all forms of discrimination.

A. Geography

Sierra Leone is a small West African country bordered by Guinea to the north, Liberia to the east, and the Atlantic Ocean to the southwest and west. Its coastline along the Atlantic Ocean is 210 miles. Sierra Leone is roughly circular in shape and covers approximately 27,900 square miles. Its territory includes several offshore islands including Sherbro, Banana, and Bunce. Administratively, Sierra Leone is divided into four areas: the Central, Northern, and the Southern provinces and the Western area. The latter includes the national capital-Freetown. Each of these areas is divided into districts. Districts are further divided into chiefdoms according to ethnic and patrilineal lines. In terms of climate, Sierra Leone is a tropical country blanketed with heat and humidity for much of the year. It has two main seasons: the dry season from December to April and the rainy season from May to December (Central Intelligence Agency 2011).

B. Demographics and Human Conditions

Sierra Leone has a population of 5,245,695 people as of July 2010. The majority of the population, roughly 60%, is Muslim. The remainder of the population is comprised of traditional African religions (30%) and Christians (10%). The gross national product (GNP) of the country was US$130 per capita in 2000. Compared to its 1980’s per capita GNP US $370, Sierra Leone
qualified as one of the poorest countries in the world. Though Sub-Saharan Africa experienced a decline of 30% for its total in GNP from US $660 in 1980 to US $470 in 2000, Sierra Leone was the worst as its decline exceeded 60% (Central Intelligence Agency 2011).

According to the *UN Human Development report* (2007, p. 42), women are employed primarily in the agricultural sector and make up approximately 37% of the labor force in Sierra Leone. Even though agriculture dominates the economic scene, its low-paying related jobs have far reaching implications on income distribution in the country. Indeed, the agricultural sector’s share of the national employment is about 65% (about 68% for women). It is followed by trade (14%), community-related services (4.4%) and mining (3.6%). The agricultural sector, by dominating the economic scene, has implications for incomes that cannot be overemphasized. Besides the above sectors, Sierra Leone is a country rich with natural resources, that is, timber, ivory, palm oil, and valuable mineral deposits including gold, bauxite, and diamonds. Arguably, this has been the main source of conflict in the country.

While income levels continued to decline throughout the last fifth of the 20th century, population was increasing alarmingly despite casualties from conflict. Sierra Leone’s population grew from around 3.2 million in 1980 to over 5 million by 2000. It is estimated that over 80% of Sierra Leoneans, predominately women and children, now live below the poverty line. Life expectancy at birth in Sierra Leone is among the lowest in the world, that is, 38 years for males and 41 years for females (UNDP 2007, p. 42).

The fertility rate in Sierra Leone has decreased in 2000 to 5.8%, down from 6.5% in 1980. However, the decrease in fertility rate can be attributed more accurately to a decline in the welfare of women and an increased mother mortality rate (MMR) than to increased education and practice of family planning techniques. Currently, the MMR in Sierra Leone is
1,800/100,000 and the infant mortality rate (IMR) is 316/1000; both rates also among the highest in the world (Gbujama 2002, p. 11).

During the height of the war in 1996, only 30% of women in Sierra Leone received prenatal care. At present, 33% of children under the age of 5 are underweight, and 66% of pregnant women have iron deficiency anemia. Even with the immediate expansion of prenatal healthcare facilities, the ripple effects from years of neglect have caused permanent health problems for many women in Sierra Leone (Gbujama 2002, p. 11-12).

C. History

Prior to the entry of the British colonial regime, Sierra Leone was composed of two large ethnic groups, the Mende and the Temne. They lived in areas, which were administered as chiefdoms in the south and the north, respectively. In the early 1800s, Sierra Leone became a British “Crown Colony” (Gberie 2005, p. 4). During its movement to abolish slavery, Great Britain allowed thousands of freed slaves to find refuge in the West African territory, effectively reshaping the demographic composition of Sierra Leone. Other ethnic groups including the Kono, Limba, Kissi, and Krio migrated into the new British territory (Hirsch 2001, p. 22).

During colonialism, British rule was characterized by direct and dominant administrative rule over Freetown and its environs, and indirect rule via local “paramount chiefs” over the countryside. Negative aspects of the colonial period have persisted, especially as it relates to ethnic rivalries. Even more, the state left by the British at independence had barely functional political institutions and administration. The “divide and rule” system ensured that the Krio
ethnic group\textsuperscript{4} was favored. This meant that with the Krio ethnic group accounting for about 2-3% of the population, it had access to the best schools and business opportunities. This was a cause for friction among Sierra Leoneans. Interestingly, while the minority Krios became dominant among civil servants in the colonial administration, their influence after independence dropped significantly in the civil and professional services (Hirsch 2001, p. 23).

Other ethnic groups, including the Mende in the South and the Temne and Limba in the North, had coexisted fairly peacefully before independence. However, post-independence politicians incited ethnic differences, the latter responsible for the subsequent state collapse. As political parties have for the most part remained along ethnic and geographic lines, such differences continue to be potential sources of future conflict. Corruption also developed during colonial rule, arising from attempts to gain private benefit from the diamond-mining industry. Both corruption and the low capacity of the state have haunted Sierra Leone from the colonial period to this day (Hirsch 2001, p. 24-25).

Democratic reforms following World War II established an assembly for the territory led primarily by Paramount Chiefs. Fearing marginalization, the Krio elite, along with other chiefs, created the Sierra Leone People’s Party (SLPP), led by Sir Milton Margai, a Mende. The creation of the Temne-dominated All People’s Congress (APC) followed in 1957, splitting the assembly’s composition and dividing it ethnically between the Mende (belonging to SLPP) of the south and the Temne (belonging to APC) of the north. Margai was elected Prime Minister after successful constitutional talks in London in 1960. A year later, Sierra Leone became independent, women gained the right to vote and a parliamentary system within the British Commonwealth was

\textsuperscript{4}) Krios are descendants of former slaves who settled in Freetown (http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/543356/Sierra-Leone)
established. The years after independence gave way to protracted political clashes between the two parties. In 1967, the APC won in a democratic election (Mazurana and Carlson 2004, p. 10).

Adopting a policy of non-alignment during the Cold War (1945-1960), the Sierra Leone government supported the colonial practice of emphasizing the export of raw materials over industrial production. Politically, Margai was very weak, and Siaka Stevens remained head of the APC and in control of much of Sierra Leonean commerce, including the richly lucrative diamond industry. Independent mining made up the bulk (80 %) of economic exports from Sierra Leone (Hirsch 2001, p. 29).

Stevens had built an extensive patronage network during his years as President of the party, and this continued throughout the Margai years. Stevens controlled 52% of the national diamond industry and its profits. In 1978, facing increased opposition from professionals and trade unionists, Stevens consolidated his power. He destroyed many of the political institutions established in the British parliamentary system, rendering them ineffective. Tightening its grip on power, the APC leadership cut off access to natural resources to those who were not its allies (Mazurana and Carlson 2004, p. 10).

One result of the above actions was increased frustration and unrest among youth and students unable to support themselves and their families. The political ideals expressed by jobless university students, graduates and dropouts supplanted the unorganized political frustrations among the uneducated youth, who were sometimes used as thugs by the political leadership. The youth promoted the idea of Pan-Africanism with the motivation of public support, drawing parallels between the colonial past and the post-colonial present. The APC tried to attract distinguished “radicals” among the youth class as potential candidates for the party, but none accepted (Mazurana and Carlson 2004, p. 10).

The economy started to weaken throughout the 1980s, due in part to lost revenues from diamond smuggling. Yet, those within the patron system, including politicians, powerful chiefs and traders, prospered, while the average citizen’s standard of living continued to decline (Alfred
1999, p. 143-162). Government expenditures on health and housing dropped, and state-sponsored scholarships decreased. Looking for allies to overcome the West’s containment of Muamar Qaddafi’s regime, Libya eagerly nurtured the political discord among young Sierra Leoneans (Bangura 2000, p. 551-577).

One of those who traveled to Libya was Foday Sankoh, formerly a corporal in the Sierra Leone Army (SLA). It was in a Libyan military training camp that Sankoh met Charles Taylor of the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL). In 1987, the two agreed to support each other’s efforts to overthrow their respective governments. Financiers and recruits were found in the main diamond mines of Sierra Leone, located in the Eastern and Southern Provinces (Kono Region). In some cases, these areas were more easily accessed from Liberia than from the Sierra Leone capital of Freetown (Bangura 2000, p. 551-577).

After several years of economic decline and increased political opposition, Stevens handed over power in 1985 to his “hand-picked,” northern-born successor, Major General Joseph Momoh, who led an already nearly stateless country even further into economic and financial ruin” (Hirsch 2001, p. 29). Civil servants, educators, and important chiefs often went unpaid. Steven’s rule was called the “seventeen-year plague of locusts” (Hirsch 2001, p. 29). Corruption, the collapse of the economy, and heavy cuts in social programs, partly due to International Monetary Fund (IMF) structural adjustment programs, had severely weakened the country. Momoh attempted to re-establish a multi-party government with elections scheduled for 1991 (Alfred 2001, p. 21-22).

Upon the recommendation of a constitutional review commission established by Momoh, in October 1991, a new constitution was adopted, resulting in the restoration of the multi-party system. Many agree that the time for major political reform, however, had past. A group of rebels from the Revolutionary United Front (RUF), which included Sierra Leoneans, Liberians loyal to Charles Taylor, as well as mercenaries from neighboring Burkina Faso, had invaded eastern Sierra Leone from Liberia in March of the same year, marking the beginning of the horrific civil war. Initially, RUF forces consisted of three groups: those trained in Libya with
fighting experience in Liberia, young men from Liberia and Sierra Leone who had little or no work, and seasoned fighters from Taylor’s army (Alfred 2001, p. 22).

In March 1991, RUF rebels invaded Sierra Leone from Liberia and occupied the eastern regions of the country by gaining control of lucrative diamond reserves. In exchange for weapons, drugs, and supplies, Sierra Leonean diamonds were smuggled into Liberia for sale in the international market, generating millions of dollars annually. Controlling the diamond mines also allowed RUF rebel leader Foday Sankoh to recruit, forcibly and voluntarily, young miners and locally unemployed men and boys into his fighting force (Richards 2001, p. 65).

The war quickly came to involve not only Liberia, but also Guinea and Côte d’Ivoire. It destroyed hundreds of hospitals and schools and tens of thousands of homes. Because of lack of health care, failing schools, and the widespread destruction of infrastructure support systems, the population grew increasingly vulnerable. The Sierra Leone countryside became militarized as a result of the presence of international forces, widespread proliferation of small arms, and a general suspicion towards one’s neighbor, especially in areas protected by local militias (Hirsch 2001, p. 30).

Women and girls reported atrocities committed by all fighting forces during the war (Amnesty International 2001, p. 2). Early in the conflict, the RUF perpetrated widespread violence across Sierra Leone. Violence against women and children and general terror in rural and urban centers quickly became cornerstones of the movement and were encouraged by the RUF leadership (Coulter 2009, p. 50).

Civil society in 1995 pushed and debated about how and when to conduct elections at a Bintumani Conference meeting. Women’s groups and key women leaders such as Amy Smy (the first Women Minister of Gender and Children’s Affairs in 1994) and Zainab Bangura (Foreign Minister of Sierra Leone) led this massive civil society movement (Steady 2006, p. 37). Their efforts are partially credited for the subsequent successfully elections that were held in 1996, in which Ahmed Tejan Kabbah of the Sierra Leone Peoples Party was elected as president. The elections took place against severe ongoing fighting. In fact, brutal attacks by the RUF targeting
civilians were intensified between the first round and the runoff elections. The international community, with the United Kingdom and the United States in the lead, also supported these elections by devoting significant political and financial resources. These resources allowed both the elections to take place and provided legitimacy to the process and result (Hirsch 2001, p. 40-46).

After the 1996 election, the Sierra Leonean government and the RUF negotiated on and off for six months before a peace agreement were finally signed in Abidjan, Côte d’Ivoire. The agreement provided amnesty for RUF fighters and dictated that a mercenary outfit, which had been brought in by the government to protect the diamond fields and fight the RUF, had to leave Sierra Leone. However, the Abidjan Accord, for which the Organization of African Unity (OAU), Côte d’Ivoire, and Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) served as guarantors, suffered from a lack of close follow-up and implementation. Two months after the accord was signed, fighting broke out once again (Hirsch 2001, p. 50-54).

Another peace agreement, dubbed The Lomé Peace Accord, was signed in July 1999. This Peace Accord provided amnesty for the RUF as the Abidjan Agreement had also done, gave a number of ministerial positions to the RUF, created a position for Sankoh as chairman of the yet to-be-created Commission for the Management of Strategic Resources, National Reconstruction and Development, and established the principle of a Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC). Although the Lomé Peace Accord contained a greater number of supervision mechanisms than the Abidjan Agreement (periodic reviews were built in, some of which took place), the Lomé Accord still suffered from insufficient oversight and implementation, as well as a sentiment that the RUF acted in bad faith and gained more from the accord than the government (Hirsch 2001, p. 82-84).

After the Lomé Peace Accord, the RUF again proceeded to violate a number of provisions of the accord, as they resisted disarmament efforts, and took several hundred UN peacekeepers hostage in May 2000. This action was protested vigorously by civil society, as tens of thousands of people marched to Foday Sankoh’s house to demand the release of the seized
UN peacekeepers. When Sankoh’s men opened fire on the protestors, killing about 20 of them, the crowd stormed his house and had him arrested. This strong show of support in favor of the UN Peacekeeping force and against the RUF and their leader Sankoh revealed the extent of popular disapproval for the RUF at this stage in the war. The arrest of Sankoh also led to Isa Sesay taking over as head of the RUF. Sesay later proved to be cooperative in the peace process (Hirsch 2001, p. 85-88).

Following the UK and UN response to the RUF aggression, two peace agreements were eventually signed in Abuja in November 2000 and May 2001 that finally put an end to the conflict. By 2002, there was an international peacekeeping force of 17,500 troops in Sierra Leone, the largest in the world at the time. In January 2002, a new peace treaty was signed between President Kabbah and the rebel forces. The war was declared over and a general election planned. The election, held in May 2002, provided the most promising opportunity in many years of a true new beginning for Sierra Leone (Alfred 2001, p. 25).

D. The Situation facing Women and Girls in Sierra Leone

This section describes women’s conditions in Sierra Leone. It is important to note that West African women have traditionally been the primary breadwinners in their households, an ideal which varies significantly from traditional Western ideologies (Moran 1989, p. 496). As in many West African countries, women in Sierra Leone live in difficult conditions. In the past and at present, women serve as the primary caretakers, perform the majority of domestic duties, care for livestock and crops, and contribute to household incomes through a variety of entrepreneurial activities including producing items for sale in the market.

Prior to the conflict, the inferior legal status of women referenced in the anthropologist Bledsoe’s work held true in Sierra Leone (1995, p. vii). This discrimination against women as second-class citizens was socially sanctioned and structurally endorsed in the Sierra Leonean
legal system. Women’s limited access to rights included citizenship, property and inheritance, reproductive health services and rights, divorce, child support, employment opportunities and protection against gender-based violence.

According to UNDP’s Sierra Leone report (2007, p. 26), nearly 23% of the population lives in polygamous households, with one man and several wives, and an average of about 9 persons per household. Therefore, those households have the highest poverty level in the country. Additionally, women represent the head of the majority of these households, which means that they have to provide food and money to support their families (UNDP 2007, p. 26).

Furthermore, there are gender disparities among the types of employment that women and girls are subject to. Of the 1.3 million women and girls in the economically active population, as well as the 47% who are self-employed, 35% are either unpaid family workers or household workers, compared with 12% of males. Also more men have access to paid jobs, with 76% of those in paid employment compared to 24% women who are still left out because they have been traditionally dominated. For instance, women constitute 68% of agricultural employment – a sector that dominates the economic scene. Ironically, the agricultural sector has the very low paying jobs. In terms of higher paying jobs, such as managerial, professional and technical jobs, 9.6% of men have access to them compared to only 3.4% of women. All these factors ensure that women typically earn less from employment than do men (UNDP 2007, p. 41-43).

Likewise, women also have a low participation rate in the political scene. In 2010, UNDP’s Human Development Report reported that women hold only 13% of parliamentary seats, while 10% of adult women have a secondary or higher level of education compared to 20% of their male counterparts. For every 100,000 live births, 2,100 women die from pregnancy
related causes due to lack of healthcare; and the adolescent fertility rate is 126 births per 1,000 live births (UNDP 2010, p. 11).

Moreover, Sierra Leone gender discriminatory laws, paternalistic culture, traditions and practices that discriminate against women in primary decision-making at the household level remain some of the major challenges to gender equality. Different forms of domestic violence continue to affect women in the country beyond that of violent crime. In addition to understanding the previously mentioned conditions, it is essential to realize what life was like for women who survived the past decade in refugee camps. At the end of the peacekeeping agreement of January 2002, over 72,000 rebels had been demobilized, indicating that the preliminary estimates of force size were inaccurate. As 84% of the demobilized were adult men, the program was effective in reaching out to this segment of the population. Since just 6.5% of the demobilized were women, it seems likely that thousands more fighters, particularly women and girls, were not reached by the official process (McKay and Mazurana 2004, p. 54).

Returning refugees and Internal Displaced People (IDP) who returned after the war to Sierra Leone were in desperate need of shelter, education and healthcare facilities, property, and employment, so they could restart their lives. Even more worrying is that returning refugees and IDPs face additional challenges compared with women who remained in their own communities. They are burdened by mental, financial, physical and psychological problem (Coulter 2009, p. 228).

Coulter (2009, p. 209-213) explains that there is a lack of resources available to refugee women upon returning to Sierra Leone. They are extremely vulnerable and have limited, if any, support structures to enable them to restart their lives. For many, living in refugee camps implies that they are wasting their valuable time. In instances where husbands are killed or died, such
widows remain at the mercy of their in-laws regarding whether they will be allowed back. Their chances of being embraced significantly improve if they have an older son or sons who claim their fathers’ property.

Micro-credit programs are available in some camps to help women better equip themselves with skills needed to earn a sufficient livelihood upon their return to Sierra Leone. Education programs about Gender-Based Violence (GBV) are also implemented in various United Nations High Commissioners for Refugees (UNHCR) camps throughout West Africa. However, as a result of large-scale budget cuts in organizations like UNHCR, such programs are becoming more and more difficult to implement and sustain.

**E. Protection of Women from all Forms of Discrimination**

Under international law, the Government of Sierra Leone has an international obligation to respect, protect and fulfill the spirit and the letter of women’s human rights. International law obliges Sierra Leone to refrain from committing violations of human rights in general and to protect women from human rights violations committed by agents of the state in particular. Such protection is also extended to abuses committed by private individuals or groups (Gbujama 2002, p. 14). According to Amnesty International (2006), Sierra Leone is a party to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and its Optional Protocol, as well as the two international covenants, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). All the these protocols oblige states to ensure the equal enjoyment of all the rights set forth in them to both men and women (Amnesty International 2006, p. 14).

As a party to these human rights treaties, the Government of Sierra Leone is not only obligated to amend discriminatory legislation, but also to actively legislate against discrimination
and violence against women. In both the ICCPR and the ICESCR, Article 2 contains a general clause specifying that rights should be implemented for all without discrimination. Article 3 elaborates on the general principle enshrined in Article 2, specifically on the issue of sexual discrimination, in law and practice. The area of the application of the right to equality between men and women contained in ICCPR and ICESCR has been developed by both the Human Rights Committee and the Committee on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (Amnesty International 2006, p. 14).

At the regional level, Sierra Leone is a party to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights and it has signed, but not ratified, the Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa. Article 2 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights also requires states to implement rights equally between men and women. Under Article 2 of the Women’s Convention, state parties undertake to “take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs, and practices that constitute discrimination against women,” (Amnesty International 2006, p. 15). Article 5 of the Women’s Convention further states that state parties shall take all appropriate measures “to modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customs and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women” (Amnesty International 2006, p. 15).

Furthermore, Sierra Leone has a constitution, which provides equal rights for men and women, but the principle of non-discrimination does not apply in all areas. For instance, rape of those underage is a crime according to the constitution of Sierra Leone. Despite the constitution, the prevalence of rape and sexual violence has not been prioritized in the Sierra Leone court
system. Marital rape, for instance, was not recognized under Sierra Leonean law until the passage of the Domestic Violence Act in 2007. Issues of sexuality have been taboo, and rape, in particular, is not discussed publically (Gbujama 2002, p. 14)

It was not until 1999 that the first successful prosecution of a rape case involving an adult woman in Sierra Leone took place. In February 2007, the government established a commission to review the constitution and eliminate all discriminatory measures. Nevertheless, women continue to be subjected to legal and social discrimination in day-to-day life. Women’s rights and positions are contingent on traditional law and the ethnic group to which they belong. It is difficult to determine which problems concern women in particular and which affect human rights in general. It is hoped that recent activities at the international, national, and local levels will address and improve the rights of Sierra Leonean women and girls (Gbujama 2002, p. 15).

Additionally, CEDAW reported that even though Sierra Leone is a signatory to its Convention, the provisions of the Convention are not automatically binding on the country, as international conventions ratified by the country have to be domestically passed by Parliament before they can become part of the laws of Sierra Leone. However, the fact that Section 40 of the 1991 Constitution of Sierra Leone confers authority on the President to execute treaties, agreements and conventions on behalf of the country, the aforesaid have to be ratified by parliament and passed by not less than one half of Parliament (UN/CEDAW 2006, p. 24).

Despite Sierra Leone’s apparent commitment to women’s equality and protection through adopting CEDAW, it has missed all four deadlines for turning in progress reports to the CEDAW Committee due to the civil war. Additionally, implementing CEDAW guidelines has been impossible for the government up to this point. Article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women provides that each State shall undertake to
submit to the Secretary-General of the United Nations a report on the legislative, judicial,
administrative or other measures that they have adopted to give effect to the provisions of the
Convention and on the progress made in that respect (UN/CEDAW 2006, p. 25).

According to the Center of Accountability and Rule of Law in Sierra Leone, CEDAW
has not yet been passed into national law by Parliament because of the poor state of the law and
therefore cannot be enforced by the Courts of Sierra Leone. After an enormous battle led by the
Minister for Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs, only three “gender bills” were
passed into law in June 2007 while they were drafted back in 2005. The Domestic Violence Act,
the Registration of Customary Marriage and Divorce Act and the Devolution of Estates Act, will
together help to radically improve the position of women in Sierra Leone (Center of
Accountability and Rule of Law 2011).

Some of the areas in which women are disadvantaged are covered by the entrenched
clauses in the constitution, which can be amended only by a referendum. Nevertheless, the
country has taken measures, in addition to the guarantees within the Constitution, for the
recognition and protection of Fundamental Human Rights and Fundamental Principles of State
Policy to ensure that women enjoy their Human Rights on the basis of equality with men
(UN/CEDAW 2006, p. 26).

According to CEDAW (2006), the 1991 Constitution of Sierra Leone, in section 170,
defines some laws, which has been ratified to protect vulnerable groups such as women. These
are “statutory instruments law, the existing law, and the Common Law.” The Common Law
includes the English Common Law and the Customary Law. CEDAW (2006) also states that
Chapter II of the 1991 Constitution provides for the principles of State policy, which includes
safeguarding principles for the rights of vulnerable groups such as women. The Constitution also
provided that all organs of government and all authorities and persons exercising legislative, executive or judicial power shall conform to observe and apply the provisions of Chapter II. (UN/CEDAW 2006, p. 27)
IV. RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter first explains and describes content analysis, the research method employed in this research. In the first section, the strengths and limitations of the selected method are identified. In the second part the reasons surrounding the choice of the particular research is explained.

A. Content Analysis

A content analysis was used to analyze the 2010 Sierra Leone National Action Plan (SiLNAP). Berg (2007, p. 303-304) defines content analysis as “a careful, detailed, systematic examination and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes, biases and meaning.” Content analysis is unobtrusive, inexpensive and produces quality data (Berg 2000, p. 181). The most significant advantage of content analysis is that it is unobtrusive. This means that as the existing data is examined, the chance of the researcher being influenced by people’s responses is limited. Content analysis is also inexpensive and produces quality data (Berger 2000, p. 181). However, content analysis has some limitations (Berg 2004, p. 287-288):

- It is difficult to determine measureable units
- It can be a problem to obtain reliability in coding and define terms operationally

Twenty criteria were used by Fritz, et al. (2011) to analyze 16 NAPs based on UNSCR 1325. This research uses the same twenty criteria to analyze critically the SiLNAP. A critical content analysis asks the research to make an argument by evaluating a particular document’s work (Lejeune 2001). The word “critical” has positive as well as negative meanings. The
researcher can write a critical analysis that agrees entirely with the reading or not. The word "critical" describes the attitude of the researcher and this attitude is best described as "detached evaluation," meaning that the researcher weighs the coherence of the reading and the completeness of its data before she/he accepts or rejects it. However, analysis means to break down and study the proposed document (Lejeune 2001).

Fritz, et al. (2011, p. 5-11) conducted the content analysis based on the following criteria:

(1) Publication date: Refers to the date that the NAP was made into law.
(2) Length: Number of pages including introduction/background section, main body text, charts, bibliography and appendices.
(3) General organization: Refers to the presentation and format of the plan document.
(4) Agency/agencies that led to NAP process: Identifies the office(s) that played roles in the preparation of the plan.
(5) Government agencies and civil society groups that were involved in the preparation of the plan.
(6) Level of involvement of civil society.
(7) Plan period: Specific period of time that the plan covers.
(8) Timeline for implementation: Specific timing of identified actions within the plan period.
(9) Specificity about the roles of different departments: Refers to the clarity of the roles of different implementing agents.
(10) Communication/cooperation of agents: Identifies the processes that will provide discussion and coordination among various implementing agents.
(11) Advertisement/PR: Identifies the tools that will be used to introduce the plan to the society.

(12) Age sensitivity: Does the plan only mention women, or both women and girls, or women and children?

(13) Gender perspectives: Use and strength of specific language (e.g., gender perspective or 1325 perspective, victim or survivor, society’s challenges or women’s problems); recognition of problems facing women of different backgrounds; recognition of women’s various roles (e.g., victim, collaborator, peace maker).

(14) Geographic/politic specificity: Refers to the spatial concerns (local, national, international of the plan, including specifically naming countries or regions.

(15) Content in comparison to what is specified in the four UNSCRs – 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 – with a special concern for gender-based/sexual violence.

(16) Priority areas: Refers to the specific action areas that will be taken as priorities.

(17) Performance measures: Identifies the elements that determine the success of the plan.

(18) Reporting and feedback: Refers to the existence and details of the reporting and feedback processes.

(19) Financial allocation: Refers to the financial allocation and priority decisions for the implementation of the plan.

(20) Monitoring by civil society.

These criteria were selected by Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011) based, in good part, on the kinds of questions that were asked by representatives from countries that were putting plans in place. The criteria are being used here because they are points that are of interest to those
putting plans in place and because it will be easy to make some comparisons between Sierra Leone and the sixteen countries whose plans already have been analyzed.

Many of the statements in Resolution 1325 are directions for the United Nations. It should be noted that this research focuses only on the requirements for the Member States. There are 13 such statements in UNSCR 1325 and these provide the framework for the comparison in this research. These statements are as follows (UN Security Council 1325, 2000):

- **Urges** Member States to ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels in national, regional and international institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management, and resolution of conflict;
- **Calls** on Members States to provide candidates to the Secretary-General, for inclusion in a regularly updated centralized roster;
- **Invites** Member States to incorporate the training guidelines and materials (which will be provided by the Secretary-General) on the protection, rights and the particular needs of women, as well as on the importance of involving women in all peacekeeping and peace-building measures, into national trainings programs for military and civilian police personnel in preparation for deployment;
- **Invites** Member States to incorporate HIV/AIDS awareness training into their national training programmes for military and civilian police personnel in preparation for deployment;
- **Urges** Member States to increase their voluntary financial, technical and logistical support for gender-sensitive training efforts, including those undertaken by relevant funds and programmes, inter alia, the United Nations Fund for Women.
and United Nations Children’s Fund, and by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and other relevant bodies;

- *Calls on* all actors involved, when negotiating and implementing peace agreements, to adopt a gender perspective, including, inter alia, the special needs of women and girls during repatriation and resettlement and for rehabilitation, reintegration and post-conflict reconstruction;

- *Calls on* all actors involved, when negotiating and implementing peace agreements, to adopt a gender perspective including measures that support local women’s peace initiatives and indigenous processes for conflict resolution, and that involve women in all of the implementation mechanisms of the peace agreements;

- *Calls on* all actors involved, when negotiating and implementing peace agreements, to adopt a gender perspective including measures that ensure the protection of and respect for human rights of women and girls, particularly as they relate to the constitution, the electoral system, the police and the judiciary;

- *Calls upon* all parties to armed conflict to respect fully international law applicable to the rights and protection of women and girls, especially as civilians, in particular the obligations applicable to them under the Geneva Conventions of 1949 and the Additional Protocols thereto of 1977, the Refugee Convention of 1951 and the Protocol thereto of 1967, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women of 1979 and the Optional Protocol thereto of 1999 and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1989 and the two Optional Protocols thereto of 25 May 2000, and to bear in mind
the relevant provisions of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court;

- **Calls on** all parties to armed conflict to take special measures to protect women and girls from gender-based violence, particularly rape and other forms of sexual abuse, and all other forms of violence in situations of armed conflict;

- **Emphasizes** the responsibility of all States to put an end to impunity and to prosecute those responsible for genocide, crimes against humanity, and war crimes including those relating to sexual and other violence against women and girls, and in this regard **stresses** the need to exclude these crimes, where feasible from amnesty provisions;

- **Calls upon** all parties to armed conflict to respect the civilian and humanitarian character of refugee camps and settlements, and to take into account the particular needs of women and girls, including in their design, and recalls its resolutions 1208 (1998) of 19 November 1998 and 1296 (2000) of 19 April 2000;

- **Encourages** all those involved in the planning for disarmament, demobilization and reintegration to consider the different needs of female and male ex-combatants and to take into account the needs of their dependents;

In order to use the criteria proposed by Fritz, et al. (2011) for this research, the research first looked for the exact words (e.g., impunity) that were used in the NAP and then their equivalents. In the analysis, Fritz, Doering and Gumru connect the points in the NAP to background information, available documents and studies. This also was done here.

Content analysis is an appropriate method for this research. Being unobtrusive and providing data that can be categorized are among the strengths of the selected method for the research. The researcher did not face the problem of identifying a representative sample as one
plan was analyzed. On the other hand, it would have been useful to supplement this method and learn about the specifics that influenced the development of the plan.

B. Research Study Choice

War, an ever-present part of our global truth, is always devastating in its outcome. The researcher, therefore, has always held an interest in understanding the ways in which the negative effects of war could be countered. For that reason, a framework from which to develop and improve policy and programming on gender, peace, security and development issues seemed to her to be an obvious and pertinent area of study for a thesis. In her quest to investigate the topic of post-conflict peacebuilding, and as a result of her preliminary research, the researcher chose Africa as her broad area of interest. Africa stood out for her not only because she is African, but also the continent is home to many of today’s conflicts. According to a 2005 Human Development Report, “nearly 40% of the world’s conflicts are in Africa…including several of the bloodiest of the last decade and half” (UNDP 2005c, p. 154).

Moving forward from there, the researcher chose women, peace and security in Sierra Leone as her topic. The topic is new for her, and she doesn’t have any past or current relation to the country of Sierra Leone or the organizations mentioned. She felt that Sierra Leone would be a good area of research as the nation had fairly recently endured eleven years of devastating war that put it in need of a solid plan to build peace. Furthermore, although it has only been eight years since the war was declared over, she reasoned that this was a long enough period to see what steps had been taken in the journey towards peace. The researcher’s decision to focus on Sierra Leone was further reinforced by reading “Women, Peace and Security and National Action Plans” (Fritz, Doering, and Gumru, 2011).
V. DATA

This chapter identifies the specifics of the Sierra Leone National Action Plan for the Full Implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolutions 1325 (2000) & 1820 (2008) in relation to 20 criteria. Also, it provides general information that has been extracted from the NAP in relation to the 20 criteria. Throughout this chapter, quotes are provided in italics for some of the statements in the original action plan.

The data to be analyzed are organized in the following way: (1) Publication date, (2) Length, (3) General organization, (4) Agency/agencies that led the NAP process, (5) Government agencies and civil society groups that were involved in the preparation of the plan (6) Level of involvement of civil society, (7) Plan period, (8) Timeline for implementation, (9) Specificity about the roles of different departments, (10) Communication/cooperation of agents, (11) Advertisement/PR, (12) Age sensitivity, (13) Gender perspectives, (14) Geographic/political specificity, (15) Contents in comparison to what is specified in the four UNSCRs, (16) Priority areas, (17) Performance measures, (18) Reporting and feedback, (19) Financial allocation, and (20) Monitoring by civil society.

Information on the Analysis Criteria

The following information regarding the criteria is taken from the Sierra Leone NAP:

(1) Publication date. The plan mentions that the SiLNAP was showcased in New York on March 4th of 2010 (p. 11). The plan was signed and launched in country by H.E. Dr. Ernest Bai Koroma, the Head of State, at a special event on June 8, 2010 (Peacewomen 2010).

(2) Length. The plan that is available on the internet (www.peacewomen.org) is 54 pages. The

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5 The plan is available in English (www.peacewomen.org).
cover and introductory material are covered in 11 pages. The plan’s text is 43 pages including six pages of appendices and a one-page bibliography.

(3) General organization. The first two pages of the plan are the cover page and a page of pictures. The table of contents, a two-page preface by the president of the Republic of Sierra Leone, an acknowledgements page written by the Minister of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs, two pages of abbreviations and acronyms and a three-page executive summary follow these introductory pages. The plan is divided into seven sections:

- Introduction: elaborates the general background about the United Nations Security Councils UNSCR (1325) and UNSCR (1820).
- Elaboration of the Sierra Leone National Action Plan: explains the process (including meetings and conferences to learn how to draft the plan) of developing the Sierra Leone National Action Plan.
- The Sierra Leone National Action Plan (SiLNAP) gives details of the plan (vision, mission), matrix for 2009-2014 (pillars, outcome objectives), budget estimate, and resource mobilization for the full implementation of the plan (financing, advocacy and capacity building).
- Monitoring and Evaluation Framework: introduction, institutional readiness for monitoring the plan, institutional arrangement, indicators for monitoring, data requirement for monitoring and evaluation, and budget for implementation
- Conclusion
- Appendices (the results framework for 2010-2014 and a one-page explanation of the resolution elements for resolutions 1325, 1889, 1820 and 1888)
- Bibliography
(4) Agency/agencies that led the NAP process. The plan indicates the agencies and events that led the NAP process:

6-8 February 2008, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: Start of the Journey – Deputy Minister of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs (MSWCGA) and the then Focal Point, MARWOPNET (SL) participated in the UNECA/OSAGI ‘High Level Policy Dialogue’ on the implementation of UNSCR 1325 in Africa. They discussed the way forward for effective action in translating the principles for the benefit of women/girls in Sierra Leone and agreed to take concerted action to develop the NAP for Sierra Leone (p. 7-8).

Mid-February 2008: Cordaid Project Officer, Sanne Bilsjame visited Sierra Leone on an Assessment Mission of potential projects worthy of Cordaid assistance… (p. 8).

April 2008: CORDAID invited MARWOPNET (SL) and WANEP (SL) to write and submit for funding a project proposal for the Development of a National Action Plan for the full implementation of UNSCR 1325 (2000)… (p. 8).

July – August 2008: Proposal was finally accepted and funding for the project was approved. WANEP (SL) was accepted as lead Coordinator with MARWOPNET as Co-implementing organization, CORDAID signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with WANEP (SL) as lead agency and WANEP (SL) signed an MOU with MARWOPNET as co-implementing agencies. Further, the MOU stipulated Government’s engagement and leadership in the process… (p. 8).

(5) Government agencies and civil society groups that were involved in the preparation of the plan. A list of agents involved in the preparation of the plan is given on page 9.
The Sierra Leone government agents include:

- Ministry of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Corporations
- Ministry of Information and Communication
- Sierra Leone Police
- Sierra Leone Prisons Department
- Republic of Sierra Leone Armed Forces and Women in Security Sector (WISS-SL)
- Ministerial Interagency Relations Department and Office of National Security
- Parliamentarians ...
- Ministry of Agriculture ...
- Justice Sector Coordinating Unit (JSCO) ...
- Parliamentary female caucus ...

The civil society representatives involved in the preparation of the plan is listed as follows:

- National Forum for Human Rights (NFHR)
- Coalition of CSOs working on UNSCR 1325
- Civil Society Movement
- The 50/50 Group

650/50 Group Sierra Leone works with a mission to increase the level of female participation in representative government, to ensure parity. Its main objectives are to increase women’s participation in democratic politics and other decision making bodies and reduce the marginalization of women by giving them training in skills that would enable them to enter the political arena and other decision-making positions with confidence (www.fiftyfiftysl.com).
• Sierra Leone Women’s Forum …
• SOROTIPMIST\(^7\)
• WIPNET\(^8\)
• Mano River Women Peace Network (MARWOPNET) …
• International Alert
• Enhancing the Interaction and Interface between Civil Society and Government to Improve Poor People’s Lives (ENCISS)\(^9\) …
• Advocacy Movement Network (AMNET)
• Sierra Leone Association of Non Governmental Organizations
• Campaign for Good Governance …
• Sierra Leone Association of Journalists

(6) Level of involvement of civil society. The plan mentions that civil society is involved from …

\(^7\) SOROTIPMIST is an international organization for business and professional women who work to improve the lives of women and girls, in local communities and throughout the world. Almost 95,000 Soroptimists in about 120 countries and territories contribute time and financial support to community–based and international projects that benefit women and girls (http://www.soroptimist.org/whoweare/whoweare.html).

\(^8\) The Women in Peacebuilding Network (WIPNET) Programme was launched in November 2001 with the aim of building the capacity of women to enhance their roles in peacebuilding and post conflict reconstruction in West Africa. WANEP through WIPNET seeks to increase the number of trained women practitioners in peacebuilding as trainers, researchers, mediators and advocates. Through community mobilization and other innovative platforms, WANEP strives to provide a forum for women at the grassroots to amplify their voices on issues of peace (http://www.wanep.org/wanep/programs-our-programs/wipnet/8-women-in-peacebuilding-wipnet.html)

\(^9\) ENCISS is an independent program that seeks to strengthen the relationship between society and the state (www.enciss-sl.org).
the development of the plan through the monitoring and evaluation. Some civil society organizations and their involvement in the development are indicated as follows:

April 2008: CORDAID\textsuperscript{10} invited MARWOPNET (SL) and WANEP (SL) to write and submit for funding a project proposal for the Development of a National Action Plan for the full implementation of UNSCR 1325 (2000) (p. 8).

April – June 2008: Proposal Development Phase-MARWOPNET (SL) Focal Point, WANEP (SL), National Coordinator and WIPNET (SL) Program Officer worked together to develop the concept and project titled ‘Towards the Development of a National Action Plan for the Full Implementation of UNSCR 1325 (2000)’. Throughout the Conceptualisation and drafting, the document was shared with the CORDAID Project Officer for orientation and comments to ensure conformity with CORDAID’s requirements (p. 8).

July – August 2008: Proposal was finally accepted and funding for the project was approved. WANEP (SL) was accepted as lead Coordinator with MARWOPNET as Co-implementing organization, CORDAID signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with WANEP (SL) as lead agency and WANEP (SL) signed an MOU with MARWOPNET as co-implementing agencies. Further, the MOU stipulated Government’s engagement and leadership in the process ... (p. 8).

November 2008 – Ongoing: Awareness raising on the Resolution – information dissemination through media campaigns and community meetings. The MSWGCA

\textsuperscript{10} Cordaid combines more than 90 years’ experience and expertise in emergency aid and structural poverty eradication. They are one of the biggest international development organizations with a network of almost a thousand partner organizations in 36 countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America (http://www.cordaid.nl/nl/%28728%29-Cordaid.html).
convened a meeting which brought together other NGOs who had been working on 1325, in particular the 1325 Coalition supported by International Alert (IA) to ensure wider participation in the project implementation. The meeting discussed and agreed on the establishment of a Government – Civil Society National Task Force on 1325 – Titled WANMAR 1325 for short ... (p. 8).

20-22 October 2009: Development of Indicators Workshop on UNSCRs 1325 and 1820, organized in Bo with support from UNFPA and UNIFEM. Indicators and objectives were reviewed and priorities refined to reduce the number of indicators ... (p. 11).

Civil society is involved with monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of the plan, and they are expected to play a critical role. These civil society groups are:

*The Human Rights Commission in Sierra Leone (HRCSL), The National Commission for Democracy, other line MDAs, National Committee on Gender-Based Violence (NAC-GBV), NGOs, Women’s Organisations, CBOs, Traditional Authorities, Chiefdom Councils, and the Communities ... (p. 30).

The lead institutions at the national level to steer the overall M&E process are:

*The lead institutions at the national level to steer the overall M&E process are the MSWGCA, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, ... HRCSL, The Judiciary, and the NAC-GBV. These shall constitute a core technical group (CTG) for the monitoring of the NAP within the framework of an established national M&E National Steering Committee (NSC). The CTG will be providing technical support to the National Steering Committee (NSC). The former will be gathering national data, analyzing the data and preparing discussion notes for periodic meetings to be held by the NSC. The*
NSC will be reviewing progress on the implementation of the NAP and would make recommendations towards enhancing programme success ... (p. 31).

The lead institutions at the regional level are identified as follows:

*Progress shall be tracked at the regional level. Monitoring at this level will be coordinated by the Regional Gender Office in collaboration with regional judiciary system, FSU/SLP, the Provincial Secretary’s Office, Regional Minister’s Office and NGOs. There shall be a Regional Steering Committee (RSC) on the NAP comprising key stakeholders beyond the core regional working group to broadly discuss and review progress at the regional level. The RSC will collect and analyse data at the regional level and prepare reports for the attention of the National Steering Committee (NSC), who will review reports and make recommendations to the RSC for effective implementation (p. 31).*

The lead institutions at the district and community levels are discussed:

*Here, Local Councils will take the lead in coordinating the implementation of the NAP. A District Steering Committee (DSC) will be set up and chaired by the Local Council with secretariat support from the District Gender Officer. The DSC will comprise councillors, the Gender Office, FSU/SLP, the DISEC, traditional authorities, customary law courts, NGOs, Women’s Groups and other members deemed necessary. The committee will set up the M&E agenda with guidance from the RSC and National Steering Committee (NSC). The DSC will be reviewing progress at the district level on a periodic basis for the attention of the RSC and NSC. The RSC and NSC will review district reports and*
feedback to the DSC to inform effective implementation at the district level. The RSC will keep NSC constantly updated on progress at district and regional level.

The DSC will coordinate efforts at the community level. Councillors, Chiefdom Police and village/town headmen, in collaborate with CBOs and community women’s organisation, shall gather data and submit to the DCC who will carry out initial analysis. Efforts at the community level could be coordinated with the framework of the existing Ward Committees ... (p. 31).

(7) **Plan period.** The plan indicates that “The SiLNAP (2009-2014) is a five year dynamic document, crafted and built on five pillars …” (p. 11). Additionally, on page 14, the plan mentions that “the SiLNAP is a five-year (2010-2014) dynamic implementation, encompassing both the UNSCR 1325(2000) and major components of 1820 designed and developed around five pillars.”

(8) **Timeline for implementation:** It was mentioned (p. 15-23) that the Sierra Leone plan would be implemented during a five-year period. The specific timing of identified actions is explained according to five pillars. Output objectives and indicators are specified as followed:

**Pillar 1: Contribute to reduced Conflict including Violence Against Women/Children (SGBV)** (p. 15-17).

1.1 **Commitment for the implementation of Resolutions 1325 and 1820 by related MDAs especially Security Sector Institutions, Education, Finance, Heath and including Political Parties increased ...(2010-2014) (p. 15).

- **Number of actions taken by Government institutions to mainstream 1325 & 1820... (2010-2014) (p. 15).**
1. Increase in the level of financial commitment by Government to 5% of National Budget ... (2010-2014) (p. 15).

1.2 Policies, mechanisms and procedures for prevention of conflict/violence against women instituted at community ... (2010-2014) (p. 15).

- Number of policies, mechanisms, procedures and code of conduct in compliance with 1325 and 1820 ... (2010-2014) (p. 15).

- Number of village level community structures formed and networking to championing SGBV related abuses ... (2010-2014) (p. 16).

- Number of by-laws in support of prevention passed in communities ... (2010-2014) (p. 16).

1.3 Legal environment for the protection of women’s rights and security improved... (2010-2014) (p. 16).

- Number of relevant laws and instruments ratified and/or domesticated... (2010-2014) (p. 16).

- Passage of the Sexual Offences and Matrimonial Causes Bill by Parliament... (2010-2014) (p. 16).

- Ratification and domestication of AU Women’s Protocol by Parliament... (2010-2014) (p. 16).

1.4 Gender responsive behavior for prevention of violence against women and children and for peace consolidation strengthened ... (2010-2014) (p. 17).

- Extent of gender sensitivity including mainstreaming in the daily work of Government and rural communities ... (2010-2014) (p. 17).
Pillar 2: Protection, Empowerment of Victims and Vulnerable Persons especially women/girls (p. 18-19)

2.1 Reporting of SGBV cases at national and community levels increased (2010-2014).
- Percentage increase in the number of cases reported to law enforcement agencies ...(2010-2014) (p. 18)
- Information management and dissemination systems developed ...(2010-2014) (p. 18).

2.2 Health (psychosocial) economic and legal and support provided to vulnerable persons including victims and survivors ...(2010-2014) (p. 18).
- Percentage increase in the number of victims receiving psychosocial support...(2010-2014) (p. 18).
- Percentage number of victims receiving economic support including micro-finance ...(2010-2014) (p. 18).
- Percentage increase in number of victims having access to legal aid ...(2010-2014) (p. 18).

2.3 Government measures and benefits for women and girls in vulnerable situation increased to ensure the respect for their social and economic rights ...(2010-2014) (p. 19).
- Percentage increase in the number of new government programs skewed to wards benefiting vulnerable women and girls ...(2010-2014) (p. 19).
- Increase in the number of vulnerable women and girls benefiting from such programs ...(2010-2012) (p. 19).
Pillar 3: Contribute to increase Prosecution of perpetrators as well as rehabilitation of Victims (p. 20).

3.1 Government advocated to fully implementing the recommendations of the TRC report on Women (2010-2012).
- Increase in the number of victims receiving support ...(2010-2012) (p. 20).

3.2 Institutional and other mechanisms in the Justice Sector strengthened to prevent and respond to sexual violence ...(2010-2014) (p. 20).
- Increase in the number of Magistrates, Lawyers and Judges addressing/handling SGBV cases ...(2010-2014) (p. 20).

3.3 Reporting of SGBV at national and community levels increased (not mentioned).
- Increase in the number of cases reported to law enforcement agencies ...
- (2010-2014) (p. 20).

Pillar 4: Participation and Representation of Women (p. 21-22).

4.1 Stakeholders lobbied for increased representation and gender parity in decision-making organs including 30% quota for political representation ...(2010-2012) (p. 21).
- Number of advocacy and Consultative Sessions conducted for stakeholders’ political parties, legislatures, women’s groups, civil society, etc.)...
  (2010-2012) (p. 21).
- Legislation and regulatory measures ensuring gender parity or a minimum of 30% at all elected and appointed positions in government, as well as other governance structures, is in place, at all levels ...(2010-2012) (p. 21).
- Work with Gender Focal Points in MDAs including SSIs and organize trainings in gender issues, gender mainstreaming in peace consolidation/recovery and security ...(2010-2011) (p. 21).

4.2 Recruitment and retention of women in law enforcement, justice and security institutions increased ...(2010-2012) (p. 22).

- Number and 30% percentage of women in decision-making and high-ranking positions at all levels in SSIs ...(2010-2014) (p. 22).

- Number of training sessions to build capacity of the MSWGCA, FSU, RSLAF and other relevant partners in the area of gender, peace and security including gender analysis and gender mainstreaming ...(2010-2014) (p. 22).


5.1 Institutional mechanisms, management and monitoring capacity of the government – Civil Society Task Force strengthened ...(2010-2014) (p. 23).

- Required institutional mechanisms for effective monitoring and coordination in place (2010-2014) ... (p. 23).

- Number of capacity building trainings on M&E conducted ...(2010-2014) (p. 23).

5.2 Adequate funding secured from Government and donors ...(2010-2011) (p. 23).

- Percentage of secured funding for implementation of the SiLNAP ...(2010-2014) (p. 23).
5.3 Engaging nationally, regionally and internationally enhanced for improved coordination and collaboration ... (2010-2012) (p. 23).

- Number of coordination and consultative sessions held at national and regional level ... (2010-2012) (p. 23).

(9) Specificity about the roles of different departments: The plan specifies the five pillars with different departments involved according of their objectives and indicators:

Pillar 1: Contribute to reduce Conflict including Violence against Women/Children (SGBV)


Pillar 2: Protection, empowerment of victims/vulnerable persons especially women and girls

Victims, Law Enforcement Agencies, Community Judiciary, Perpetrators, MSWGCA, NGOs, Ministry of Health, Statistics Sierra Leone, CSOs, GRADOC, University of Sierra Leone, Police, Community Based Organizations CBOs, NaCSA, Parliamentarians, Ward Committee, Councilors, Religious Leaders, Family Service Unit, HR Commission, Women Forum, Victims and
Perpetrators... (p. 18-19).

Pillar 3: Contribute to increased Prosecution of perpetrators as well as rehabilitation of Victims

Ministry Internal and Foreign Affairs, MSWGCA, Attorney General’s Office, Parliament, FSU, ONGs, NaCSA, UN Agencies, District Security Committees (DISECS), Chiefdom Security Committees (CHISECS), Provincial Security Committees (PROSECS), CBO, NGOs, Judiciary and Civil Society Organizations (CSO) ... (p. 20).

“Reporting of sexual Gender Based-Violence” (p. 20) does not have specific implementers mentioned.

Pillar 4: Contribute to increased Participation and representation of women

President, Parliament, Attorney General, CSO, Political Parties, MSWGCA, INGOs, Community Members, MDAs, Security Sector Institutions, Media, Traditional Leaders, Female Caucus, Women in Peacebuilding and Security Network-Africa (WIPSEN-Africa), UN Agencies, Justice Sector, Security Sector, and Office of National Security (ONS)... (p. 21-22).

Pillar 5: Ensure effective coordination of implementation process including resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation and reporting on the National Action Plan

MSWGCA, NGOs, CSOs, Task Force, Statistics Sierra Leone, Consultant, Women’s Groups, CBOs, Donors, International NGOs, Cordaid, and Local
The specificity of the agents’ roles in the plan to monitor and evaluate the SiLNAP has been explained as follows:

**Role of Government**

*Government is demonstrating its conviction of the essence of promoting equal access to women and men at all levels, not just by the passage of the gender laws, protecting and advancing the status of women, but by a clear effort to ensure active implementation of the SiLNAP...* (p. 5).

**Role of National Security Apparatus**

*The SSR implementation started in 2000, and a significant element of the peace consolidation process through the support of the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC), Peacebuilding Fund (PBF) Projects and other bilateral Agencies, is underway within the SSR process...* (p. 5).

**Role of the Republic of Sierra Leone Armed Forces**

*There have been policy reform and restructuring within the RSLAF with regard to recruitment, training and retention with some gender perspective. An increase in women’s participation has been achieved through the application of quotas, maintaining academic criteria, but with adaptation in relation to physical fitness. A sexual harassment policy is also in place. Female officers have been nominated to participate in the peacekeeping mission to Darfur...* (p. 5).
Role of Sierra Leone Police

The SLP seems to have acquired a great deal of gender sensitivity as a result of its work with the UN System in Sierra Leone. Through gender training and resources it is responding to women’s concerns and special needs to a greater extent than before… (p. 6).

Role of Mano River Women’s Peace Network – Sierra Leone

The Mano River Women’s Peace Network Sierra Leone (MARWOPNET-SL) brought Security Sector Agencies and Women at community levels together to engage in dialogue that demystifies the role of security agencies, and enable women to take increased interest in their own and family security… (p. 6).

Also, for the Monitoring and Evaluation of the plan, potential stakeholders for the implementation of the plan were indicated and their roles were identified. The actors expected to play critical role in the monitoring of the NAP include:

Cooperation, Ministry of Defence, Ministry of International Affairs, Local Government and Rural Development, NaCSA, Family Support Units (FSUs) and the Sierra Leone Police (SLP), the Judiciary, the Human Rights Commission in Sierra Leone (HRCSL), the National Commission for Democracy, other line MDAs, National Committee on Gender-Based Violence (NAC-GBV), NGOs, Women’s Organizations, CBOs, Traditional Authorities, Chiefdom Councils, and the Communities. These are relevant institutions in the production of data and reporting on the implementation of resolutions 1325 and 1820… (p. 30).
The lead institutions at the national level to steer the overall M&E process are: the MSWGCA, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation, Ministry of Defence, Ministry of International Affairs, Local Government and Rural Development, NaCSA, FSUs/SLP, HRCSL, The Judiciary, and the NAC-GBV. These shall constitute a core technical group (CTG) for the monitoring of the NAP within the framework of an established national M&E National Steering Committee (NSC). The CTG will be providing technical support to the National Steering Committee (NSC). The former will be gathering national data, analyzing the data and preparing discussion notes for periodic meetings to be held by the NSC. The NSC will be reviewing progress on the implementation of the NAP and would make recommendations towards enhancing programme success. The NSC will be the anchor for updating government, the UN and the donor community in general regarding progress on the implementation of the UNSCRs 1325 and 1820... (p. 31).

(10) Communication/cooperation of agents: The plan indicates processes that provide coordination between implementing agents through some events (including a national conference):

2– 4 September 2009: National Consultative Conference on ‘Developing of the Sierra Leone National Action Plan on UNSCR 1325’. The Conference was chaired by the Minister of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affair... During the three day National Conference, the 60 participants worked intensively in five different groups through three successive interactive group and feedback sessions ... The Workshop/Conference further raised/deepened awareness on UNSCRs 1325 and 1820. It
widened and strengthened local ownership that enabled the unanimous adoption of the product – draft National Action Plan on the 4th of September 2009. The SiLNAP (2009-2014) is a five-year dynamic document, crafted and built on five pillars. The development is funded with support from Cordaid Netherlands… (p. 10).

Adopt/ and disseminate the SiLNAP 1325 & 1820 widely among institutions at meetings …. (p. 15).

Meeting are held periodically and they are mentioned as follows:

Within the LPPB, women are involved at executive levels and are participating actively at meetings and assisting the LPPB to disseminate key messages on personal security at community levels… (p. 6).

For the smooth running of the Taskforce, its monthly meetings are chaired by designated Gender Officers of the Ministry and Co-Chaired by the WANMAR Project Co-Coordinator from MARWOPNET (SL). Its day-to-day work is coordinated by the WANMAR 1325 Secretariat located in the WANEP office. The Minuting Secretary for the monthly meetings is provided by Gender Officers… (p. 9).

January 2009: Monthly Task Force meeting and 1st Stage Validation of the Baseline Study. The Assessment report not only mapped out existing initiative, but highlighted achievements on gender issues related to 1325, continuing challenges and opportunities regarding women’s involvement in the peace and security process… (p. 9).

Adopt/ and disseminate the SiLNAP 1325 & 1820 widely among institutions at meetings… (p. 15).
Joint sub-regional meetings... Legal environment for the protection of women’s rights and security improved.... (p. 16).

Hold meetings/sensitization workshops/ sessions with Justice, Finance, Foreign Affairs and Social Welfare, Gender and Children Affairs Ministries and Parliament who play decisive roles in domesticating and ratification and application of laws/instruments.... (p. 16).

Also, workshops and an international colloquium are organized:

23-25 February 2009: Two days regional consultative workshop in each of the four regions. Participants numbering 30 in each region were drawn from district and chiefdom levels. The workshop generated issues, information/data and recommendation that provided inputs for the major workshop deliverables. There are the UNSCR 1325 Action Plan for the respective region, and establishment of Regional Task Forces.... (p. 9).

March 2009: Building and/or strengthening insights and experiences on development and implementation of the UNSCR 1325 (2000) Action Plan. Two members of the WANMAR 1325 Project Core Team, attended the International Colloquium in Liberia on Women’s Empowerment, Leadership Development, International Peace and Security, during which the Liberian National Action Plan was presented and Launched. The two returned and participated in a one day Post Colloquium awareness raising and information dissemination workshop on the Colloquium organised by International Alert for the benefit of other stakeholders in Sierra Leone. The workshop also provided a platform to
reflect on wider issues of women, peace and security in the Mano River Countries that should be captured in the SiLNAP... (p. 10).

Additionally, annual round tables and media campaigns are organized as follows: Engaging nationally, regionally and internationally enhanced for improved coordination and collaboration...Organize annual round table conferences... (p. 23).
Awareness raising on the Resolution – information dissemination through media campaigns and community meetings.... (p. 8).

(11) Advertisement/Promotion. The plan specifies in its matrix various methods of advertisement to fully implement the plan. The methods are explained as follows:

The first activity was a nationwide mapping survey to establish a baseline of existing initiatives on 1325 in Sierra Leone. The survey generated data/information, which determined existing knowledge gaps and identified priority issues for crafting the National Action Plan. One thousand survey questionnaires were administered, but only 697 (70%) were completed. The findings of the survey revealed mixed lessons with regard to knowledge of the Resolution, which was particularly low in rural communities. Many activities on the Resolution were ongoing, but were done unconsciously and were uncoordinated. Also, identified as a challenge to application, was the weak capacity of staff both at government and NGO levels and within communities. In addition, there are policy and framework documents like the Gender Acts 2007 and the National Gender Strategic Plan that complement the Resolution. Knowledge of the Resolution was obtained mainly through radio listening and workshops.
Interestingly, 95% of respondents indicated their willingness to align their activities to the provisions of UNSCR 1325 as well as support the process of developing and implementing an action plan. The survey also gathered that there was need to develop a capacity building programme for the effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the UNSCR 1325 and 1820 nationwide... (p. vii).

Another method to introduce the SiLNAP is mentioned as follows:

The next activities were the regional consultations in Kailahun, Makeni, Bo and Freetown. Thirty participants were drawn from each region. The outcomes included issues relating to SGBV, access to relevant information and recommendations, which provided inputs for the elaboration of the National Action Plan. All the priority outcomes were combined into a composite matrix that served as a working document in the national consultation.

Additionally, some methods are used including in the matrix tables including:

Community study groups... meetings... airing on radio/TV, simplify and translate the UNSCR 1325 and 1820 into the main local languages... publishing translations of the resolution; intensify lobby... advocacy and outreach campaigns... conducting action oriented research; workshops... joint-sub regional meetings; and interviews... (p. 15-23).

(12) Age sensitivity. In the main text of the NAP, the word “women” is mentioned 192 times, “women and girls” are mentioned 19 times and the words “women and children” are mentioned
3 times. In the appendix the word “women” is mentioned 34 times, the phrase “women and girls” is mentioned 3 times, and the phrase “women and children” is mentioned 1 time.

(13) Gender perspectives. The plan indicates gender perspectives in the plan through all four priorities as follows (p. 14):

1. **Prevention of conflict including violence against women/children (SGBV)**
2. **Protection, empowerment of victims/vulnerable persons especially women and girls**
3. **Prosecute, punish perpetrators effectively and safeguard women/girls' human rights to protection (during and post-conflict) as well as rehabilitate Victims/Survivors of SGBV and perpetrators.**
4. **Participation and representation of women**

One of the UNSCR 1325 statements adopted in the SiLNAP mentioned that:

*UNSC Res. 1325 (Op. 8b) adopts a gender perspective including, inter alia measures that support local women’s peace initiatives and indigenous processes for conflict resolution, and that involve women in all of the implementation mechanisms of the peace agreements;*

Gender perspectives were promoted throughout the nationwide survey and they are explained as follows:

*Efforts at ending impunity & persecution against women*

*The survey revealed efforts made by various organizations at ending impunity and persecution against women in Sierra Leone. About 67 percent of those interviewed revealed that they had prosecuted perpetrators of gender based violence and crimes*
against humanity. These organizations were reported to have paid more attention on prosecution and prevention of crimes against women... (p. 12).

In the plan, funds are allocated through the plan period for “identifying survivors/vulnerable persons within the community and engaging them … ensure women victims are adequately catered for in the implementation of the preparations program… conduct Training of Trainers (TOT) on gender equality, gender mainstreaming concepts and gender analysis techniques for decision makers...” (p. 25).

(14) Geographical/political level specificity. SiLNAP was implemented in the entire country, but activities took place in different areas of the country (p. 4):

A conscious, and to an extent, coordinated initiative spearheaded by women’s organizations, mixed networks of Civil Society and Human rights’ organizations, under the leadership of the Government was intensified in 2008 to translate the principles and provisions of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 into practice in Sierra Leone.

Also, page 7 in the plan indicates the following:

The Deputy Minister of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs (MSWCGA) and the then Focal Point, MARWOPNET (SL) participated in the UNECA/OSAGI “High Level Policy Dialogue” on the implementation of UNSCR 1325 in Africa. They discussed the way forward for effective action in translating the principles for the benefit of women/girls in Sierra Leone and agreed to take
concerted action to develop the NAP for Sierra Leone... The first tranche of funds was received in Freetown.... The Project work agreed and modalities for the first project activity agreed upon – Assessment/Mapping of previous and ongoing initiatives on UNSCR 1325. The survey conducted nationwide under the guidance of a consulting firm – represents the baseline study for generation of the baseline data information determination of specific areas of activities in crafting the NAP...

Also, the plan mentions that “consultative national conference/workshop in each of the four regions was held with participants numbering 30 in each region were drawn from district and chiefdom levels....” (p. 10).

Additionally, the “development of Indicators Workshop on UNSCRs 1325 and 1820, organized in Bo with support from UNFPA and UNIFEM ...” (p. 11).

(15) Content in comparison to what is specified in the UNSCR 1325 and 1820. According to Gumru (2008, p. 27-29), thirteen statements are listed in the UNSCR 1325 about what member states are required to do. These statements are repeated in the methodology chapter (4).

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11 Bo is located in south-central Sierra Leone in western Africa. Located near the intersection of roads from Freetown and Makeni, it became the largest town (and for a time capital, 1930–61) of the Sierra Leone Protectorate. The commercial hub of the interior, it trades in palm oil and kernels, ginger, coffee, cocoa, and rice, which are transported mainly by road to Freetown (108 miles [174 km] west-northwest). Bo has been the educational centre of the interior since the opening in 1906 of a secondary school for the sons of Mende and other chiefdoms; it now has government, Christian, and Muslim schools, a main library, and teacher-training colleges. Several periodicals are published locally. Bo also has the largest government hospital outside Freetown and has a population of (2004) 149,957 (http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/70644/Bo).
Twelve out of these 13 statements are mentioned (page 15-25) in the SiLNAP. These statements were worded as follows:

- **UNSC Res. 1325 (Op. 1)** urges member states to ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels and international institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management and resolution of conflict.

- **UNSC Res. 1325 (Op. 8b)** adopt a gender perspective including, inter alia measures that support local women’s peace initiatives and indigenous processes for conflict resolution, and that involve women in all of the implementation mechanisms of the peace agreements;

- **Res. 1820 (Op. 12)** Urgently Secretary-General and his special envoy to invite women to participate in discussions pertinent to the prevention and resolution of conflict, the maintenance of peace and security and post-conflict peace building and encourage all parties to such talks to facilitate the equal and full participation of women at decision-making levels.

- **UNSC Res. 1325 (Op. 8c)** ‘...measures that ensure the protection of and respect of human rights of women and girls, particularly as they relate to the constitution, the electoral system, the police and the judiciary.

- **Take concrete measure to incorporate a gender perspective into activities to promote peace and security and into humanitarian activities.**

- **Contribute to increased Protection, Empowerment and support of Victims and Vulnerable Persons especially women/girls.**

- **Addressing HIV/AIDS (p. 39)**
• Contribute to increase Prosecution of perpetrators as well as rehabilitation of Victims.

• Res.1325 Op. 1: Urges Member states to ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels in national, regional and international institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management and resolution of conflicts.

• Res. 1325 (Op. 8a) calls on all actors involved, when negotiating and implementing peace agreements to adopt a gender perspective including inter alia the special needs of women and girls during repatriation and resettlement and for the rehabilitation, reintegration and post conflict reconstruction.

• Ensure effective coordination of the implementation process including resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation and reporting on the National Action Plan.

• UNSC Res. 1820 (Op. 13) Urges all parties concerned, including Member States, United Nations entities and financial institutions, to support the development and strengthening of the capacities of national institutions, in particular of judicial and health systems, and of local civil society networks in order to provide sustainable assistance to victims of sexual violence in armed conflict and post-conflict situations.

(16) Priorities areas. The Sierra Leone NAP defines five prioritized focus areas (p. ii):

• Prevention of Conflict including Violence Against Women and Children (SGBV)

• Protection, Empowerment of Victims and Vulnerable Persons especially
women/girls

- Prosecute, Punish Perpetrators effectively and Safeguard Women and Girls’ Human Rights to Protection during and post conflict as well as Rehabilitate Victims/Survivors of SGBV and Perpetrators
- Participation and Representation of Women

(17) Performance measures. The plan specifies (p. 36-41) performance according to objectives of the five pillars. These are measured from 2010 to 2014:

1.1 Contribute to reduced Conflict including Violence Against Women/Children (SGBV) - Reduced rate in SGBV by 50% ... (p. 36).

1.2 Contribute to increased protection, Empowerment and support of Victims and Vulnerable Persons especially women/girls - 50% increase in the number of women with increased feeling of protection from SGBV in their communities & 30% reduction of violence on victims due to empowerment support…(p. 37).

1.3 Contribute to increased prosecution of perpetrators as well as rehabilitation of victims - 75% of reported cases charged and successfully prosecuted by law enforcement agencies & 50% increase in the number of victims being rehabilitated through reparations… (p. 38).
1.4 Contribute to increased participation and representation of women – 40% increase in representation of women in political office and public office & increase in women’s participation in running for public offices... (p. 39).

1.5 Ensure effective coordination of the Implementation Process including Resource Mobilization, Monitoring and Evaluation of and Reporting on the National Action Plan – Advanced increase knowledge of the status of implementation of 1325 and 1820 in Mano River countries12... (p. 40).

(18) Reporting and feedback. The plan mentions the reporting and feedback process as followed:

At the regional level reporting are reported as mentioned:

Progress shall be tracked at the regional level. Monitoring at this level will be coordinated by the Regional Gender Office in collaboration with regional judiciary system, FSU/SLP, the Provincial Secretary’s Office, Regional Minister’s Office and NGOs. There shall be a Regional Steering Committee (RSC) on the NAP comprising key stakeholders beyond ... discuss and review progress at the regional level. The RSC will collect and analyze data at the regional level and prepare reports for the attention of the National Steering Committee (NSC), who will review reports and make recommendations to the RSC for effective implementation... (p. 31).

Also, at the district and community level,

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12 Liberia, Guinea, and Sierra Leone.
A District Steering Committee (DSC) will be set up and chaired by the Local Council with secretariat support from the District Gender Officer. The DSC will comprise councillors, the Gender Office, FSU/SLP, the DISEC, traditional authorities, customary law courts, NGOs, Women’s Groups and other members deemed necessary. The committee will set up the M&E agenda with guidance from the RSC and National Steering Committee (NSC). The DSC will be reviewing progress at the district level on a periodic basis for the attention of the RSC and NSC. The RSC and NSC will review district reports and feedback to the DSC to inform effective implementation at the district level. The RSC will keep NSC constantly updated on progress at district and regional level... (p. 31).

The feedback process is explained as follows (p. 31),

Data collected at the community level flows up to the district level, where the DSCs carry out basic analyze on it for onward reporting to the RSCs, who, in return, will review and report accordingly to the NSC. There is a feedback relation as the Figure indicates with recommendations filtering down from one level to the other right through to the communities. This creates space for learning and knowledge sharing and can strengthen implementation of activities; it enables re-planning where necessary. The UN system and donor agencies relate to all national actors in the M&E system as depicted in the figure below. Information shall flow vertically and horizontally and synergies will be enhancing in implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the NAP... (p. 31).

(19) Financial allocation. The plan mentions specific activities with the financial allocation
annually according to the five priorities of the SiLNAP (p. 24-26). Each objective is allocated some funds according to its timeline. The projected total cost of the SiLNAP is US$21,301,314 and divided for the next four years as: $5,427,118 (2010); $5,482,573 (2011); $5,220,998 (2012); $5,170,625 for (2013).

Additionally, the plan also specifies on page 27 some financial concerns:

It should be noted however, that, government resources as articulated in the national budget always fall short of the requisite finance to implement its development programs... While the Government contribution will continue to remain fundamental to the resource mobilization strategy, there is a strong need to identify other sources to mobilize additional resources. Support (financially or in-kind) shall be sought from various sources including international donors, the private sector, CSO/NGOs, and individuals/ households/communities. Mobilizing resources from domestic sources is extremely critical for ownership and sustainability of the implementation process.

(20) Monitoring by civil society. Many civil society organizations are involved in the monitoring of the plan. The plan mentions civil society involvement in the monitoring process as shown below:

Local Councils will take the lead in coordinating the implementation of the NAP.

A District Steering Committee (DSC) will be set up and chaired by the Local Council with secretariat support from the District Gender Officer. The DSC will comprise councillors, the Gender Office, FSU/SLP, the DISEC, traditional authorities, customary law courts, NGOs, Women’s Groups and other members deemed necessary. The committee will set up the M&E agenda with guidance
from the RSC and National Steering Committee (NSC). The DSC will be reviewing progress at the district level on a periodic basis for the attention of the RSC and NSC. The RSC and NSC will review district reports and feedback to the DSC to inform effective implementation at the district level. The RSC will keep NSC constantly updated on progress at district and regional level.

The DSC will coordinate efforts at the community level. Councilors, Chiefdom Police and village/town headmen, in collaborate with CBOs and community women’s organization, shall gather data and submit to the DCC who will carry out initial analysis. Efforts at the community level could be coordinated with the framework of the existing Ward Committees... (p. 31).

Additionally, the plan specifies that:

Civil Society Organizations, more so women’s movements are also engaged in routine generation of data relating to gender and women’s situation, thus are also source of information for monitoring UNSCRs 1325 and 1820. The media is also crucial in this context... (p. 33).
VI. ANALYSIS

In the previous chapter, the researcher listed the specifics of the National Action Plan of Sierra Leone. This plan is now analyzed based on 20 criteria that are explained, if needed, in italics. This chapter discusses the effectiveness, necessity and overall contributions of the action plan by analyzing the specificities of the plan and, when possible, comparing the plan to the sixteen national action plans already analyzed by Fritz, et al. (2011). Additionally, this chapter summarizes the final points of the analysis.

A. Analysis of the 20 criteria

1. Publication date: Refers to the date that the NAP was put into law. In the plan, the publication date was listed as March 4th 2010. It was at a special event held on June 8th that the plan was signed and put into law. Sierra Leone, like most of the other countries, listed its publication dates in the NAP. The Ivory Coast, Portugal, and Spain did not provide dates. As Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011) note, it is important to mention the publication date in the plan document to help researchers, policymakers, implementers, monitors and other interested parties. The publication date should be mentioned on the cover page as well as it is in the plan document, so readers can easily see the date. Also, there is no mention about when the Sierra Leone plan was put into law. A plan of such importance should specify when the plan is put into law as well as the publication date.

2. Length: Number of pages including introduction/background section, main body text, and appendices. The SiLNAP begins with an introductory section which clearly states actions regarding the points made by UNSCRs 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889. A brief description of the history of Sierra Leone is provided, and then the plan explains the extensive roles of different
agents involved in the development of the plan. Also, the various institutions and actors that carry out activities related to addressing gender and women’s issues are mentioned especially in the context of post-conflict peace building in Sierra Leone. The NAP highlights the capacity of institutions for monitoring and evaluating policies, programs and projects related to gender and women’s development. Also, a description of the institutional arrangement for monitoring the implementation of the National Action Plan is given, which identifies actors and defines roles and responsibilities. The plan also analyses the indicators developed for monitoring progress; it discusses the results framework, showing planned deliverables and targets over the implementation period.

According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 5), “a national action plan needs at least 25-30 pages to cover all that is mentioned here,” which they refer to as “introductory information, background, information including decisions on gender-relevant considerations; clearly stated actions regarding the points made in UNSCRs 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889; specified implementation agents; financial allocation and identified enforcement, monitoring and feedback process.” The Sierra Leone National Action Plan meets all the requirements cited by Fritz, et al. in its 54 pages. It should be noted that the length of the plans for the first 16 countries was from 14 pages to 80 pages. (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 5)

3. General organization: Identifies the organization, presentation or format of the NAP. The Sierra Leone plan is divided into seven sections including an introductory page, elaboration steps of the plan, details of the plan, monitoring and evaluation framework with tables and charts, conclusion, appendices and bibliography. The pages and the document sections are numbered properly.
As Fritz (2008, p. 4) said, an action plan is a document that sets the standards for the protection of women and girls during and after periods of conflict, define equality of participation, provide opportunities for female leadership and indicate the necessary financial arrangements that will support the plan. With such importance, a NAP should be comprehensive and well organized. However, some countries include tables of contents while others include organizing schemes for their documents without page numbers in their online documents. Some indicates their priorities and organize their plans according to the level of focus (Fritz et al. 2011, p. 5). The Sierra Leone plan was very organized and provided a lot of details in comparison to some other countries’ plans.

4. Agents that led the NAP process: Identifies the office(s) that headed the preparation process. The idea of having a plan in Sierra Leone came from number of sources:

- Sierra Leone government represented by the Deputy Minister of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs (MWSGCA) and the Head of the Mano River Women’s Peace Network Sierra (MARWOPNET-SL).
- Non-governmental organizations represented by Cordaid and West African Network for the Peacebuilding (WANEP-SL).

In some countries (Ivory Coast, Liberia, and Uganda), only one ministry led the process while in others countries several ministries or ministries and NGOs led the process. The leading agents were discussed in the Sierra Leone plan but this could have been done in more complete way indicating current positions, contact numbers and mailing addresses. This information could be helpful to policymakers and civil society representatives in other countries that are considering the Sierra Leone plan as a model.
5. Government agents and civil society representatives that were involved in the preparation of the plan: Identifies the office(s) that played roles in the preparation of the plan.

A list of 11 government agents and 14 civil society representatives’ offices is provided in the plan that played roles in the preparation of the plan. For instance, government agents including the Deputy Minister of Social Welfare, Gender and Children’s Affairs, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Information and Communication, Sierra Leone Police, Parliamentarians, and Republic of Sierra Leone Armed Forces and Women in Security Sector, etc. Civil society representatives are for example the Mano River Women’s Peace Network-Sierra Leone, Sierra Leone Women Forum, the 50/50 group, etc.

In the peace building process, the plan listed all agents that were involved in preparing the plan. A broad constituency of government actors/stakeholders from different Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs), and different women’s organizations/groups and mixed human rights non-governmental organizations at various levels participated in four regional level consultative meetings, which followed a mapping assessment/survey of existing and ongoing fragmented attempts to implement UNSCR 1325 in Sierra Leone.

As part of the participatory process, the Gender Division of the MSWGCA chaired the Government-Civil Society Task Force in areas for action on UNSCR 1325. Also, the Sierra Leone police are fully engaged in the process of having their own plan. By this initiative, women are being involved in community policing, which includes creating awareness and educating communities on their human, legal and constitutional rights. The involvement of government and non-governmental organizations, which represent civil society, demonstrates once again how Sierra Leonean are determined to increase women’s participation in the post-conflict resolution and peace process.
It would have been useful to have contact information for the leaders. It also would useful to have contact information for the other main participants.

6. **Level of involvement of civil society**: Identifies the level of involvement of NGOs, the community or both in the implementation. Civil Society plays a tremendous role throughout the development and implementation of Resolutions 1325 and 1820 in Sierra Leone. The plan underlines civil society’s engagement beginning with the creation of the Government-Civil Society Task Force comprising 35 members.

While the harm women suffer is undisputed and pervasive, they often have little or no redress based on the fact that they usually lack access to the same resources, authority, or rights, as do their male counterparts. On the whole, women endure such violence and marginalization in society that it is necessary to address these if there is any hope for change. The only persons who consistently appreciate the significance of women's issues and address their necessities seem to be women themselves; hence the importance of women's organizations who helped to translate the principles and provisions of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 into practice.

For instance, the Mano River Women’s Peace Network (MARWOPNET-SL), the West African Network for Peacebuilding (WANEPE-SL) participated in writing the proposal for the development of SiLNAP. The MARWOPNET, the WANEP national coordinator and the Women in Peacebuilding Network (WIPNET-SL) developed the concept and project titled “Towards the Development of a National Action Plan for the Full Implementation of UNSCR 1325 (2000).” Also, WANEP was accepted as lead coordinator and lead agency for the development of SiLNAP. The International Alert (IA) supported the coalition of NGOs through the development of the plan. The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the United Nations Development Fund supported the development of the plan indicators and objectives.
Civil society participated widely to develop Sierra Leone’s plan and the civil society groups also are playing a tremendous role monitoring and evaluation. For instance, they collect and analyse data for the National Steering committee to review and make recommendations and they prepare discussion notes for periodic meetings. Civil society organizations also track the implementation progress and write reports. As Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 6) note, “in some countries civil society organizations have been the major impetus or a key partner in the development of the plans” and Sierra Leone is an excellent example.

It is sometimes difficult to see civil society involvement in the written document of some countries. Civil society organizations may be mentioned as a category for instance, but the names of the organizations may not be cited. Sierra Leone’s plan demonstrates the importance of the work of civil society organizations from development to the evaluation/monitoring process, and it also lists the names of the groups. This criterion is well met in the case of Sierra Leone.

7. **Plan Period:** The *specified period of time that the plan covers*. The Sierra Leone National Action Plan specifies its plan period (2010-2014), a five-year period. According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 6), “most plans have been four or five years.” Although the plan period is mentioned from 2010 – 2014 some objectives are to be implemented only for two, three and four years while the plan period is estimated for five years. Also, the budget estimation was established from 2013 to 2014. Therefore, the last year of the plan could be without funds as some objectives are set for five years.

8. **Timeline for implementation:** *Specific timing of identified actions within the plan period*. According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 7), only two other countries include clear and comprehensive timelines for identified actions. It is important to include specific timelines to
implement and evaluate a plan. Timelines and responsible parties have been identified clearly in the Sierra Leone NAP. Fifteen output objectives and thirty indicators are mentioned in the plan matrix. Each specified objective has been given a timeline to be implemented. Only the objective for “Reporting of SGBV at national and community levels increased” does not have a timeline. This criterion was well met because the matrix table clearly explains objectives and provides indicators, stakeholders and time frames.

9. **Specificity about the roles of different departments/agents:** Refers to the clarity of the roles of different implementing agents. Identifying the roles of departments and agents involved can help to coordinate, implement and evaluate a plan at the local, regional, and community level. According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 7), some countries specify the responsible agencies for action points, and some incorporate responsible actors into their tables. In the Sierra Leone plan, the different departments and agents that are involved in appropriate activities to implement the NAP are clearly incorporated in the matrix tables. Some departments/agents roles also are thoroughly explained in the introduction section of the plan. However, the roles of some of department/agents are not explained in the matrix table even though they are listed.

Only one objective does not have specific implementers mentioned (*Reporting of Sexual Gender Based Violence*) in the Sierra Leone plan. Normally, the policymakers and stakeholders should clearly identify who is in-charge of achieving important objectives. This is helpful for researchers, civil society representatives and policymakers in Sierra Leone and other countries.

10. **Communication/cooperation of agents:** Identifies the processes that provide coordination between various implementing agents. As Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 7) have noted, “countries have different approaches of how the parties will communicate…”
To reinforce better communication between agents in Sierra Leone, institution meetings, sensitization workshops, monthly meetings, conferences, seminars, reports and annual round tables are assigned to coordinate information about the implementation of the plan. Those communication tools are incorporated in the plan matrix among the specific objectives.

This criterion could be better met as only meetings are specified in times of frequency. Only the conference on “Developing of the Sierra Leone National Action Plan on UNSCR 1325” had the timeframe (three days) mentioned. However, there is no precision about the time and frequency of when and where reports, and workshops will take place. There is a lack of clarity about information will be shared between agents.

11. Advertising/Promotion: Includes the approaches that will be used to introduce the plan to the society. Sierra Leone’s NAP indicates that the plan will be translated into the local languages and also that that there will be TV, radio, and public outreach campaigns in schools, community study groups, annual and monthly meetings, as well as conferences, seminars and training. All these are the tools that will be used to inform the general public. Compared to some of the other countries that have NAPs, Sierra Leone has a large platform to educate women to fully participate in the implementation process.

This criterion appears to be well addressed because the plan indicates steps to promote and advertise the adoption UNSCRs 1325 and 1820. For instance, surveys questionnaires were administered nationwide. Also, four regional consultations were held to access relevant information and recommendations to elaborate the Sierra Leone NAP. A vital part of building and strengthening the capacities of women is educating them on their rights, and on specific policies and international resolutions that have been passed that could be potentially beneficial to them. It is often realized that not everyone has the ability to attend education or training
facilities. There are many women residing in rural areas that may have no access to such
facilities. Still, there are certain pieces of information that everyone should have. To this end, in
order to extend their outreach to women in the rural areas, some organizations employ other
means.

One of the steps in the reconciliation process in Sierra Leone is to inform the public of
the need for reconciliation, exactly what it entails, and how this can be brought about. One of the
ways of doing so is through the dissemination of information through community meetings,
workshops or the use of the media. People are informed of their rights, and the disgrace of
atrocities is publicized. This allows the truth to emerge, and it represents a step on the ladder of
reconciliation

12. Age Sensitivity: Does the plan only mention women, both women and girls, or women and
children? The NAP of Sierra Leone incorporates “women and girls”, “women and children” and
women when setting the five pillars. Pillar 1 discusses the Gender Based Violence by
“Prevention of Conflict including Violence against Women/Children;” Pillar 2 focuses on
“Protection, Empowerment of Victims/Vulnerable Persons especially Women and Girls;” and
Pillar 4 emphasizes the need, “To Increase Women’s Participation and Representation.”
Consequently, this criterion is well met because it is clear to the reader that the plan incorporates
not only women, but also women and girls and women and children of various ages who have
been proven to be most affected by the war. Sierra Leone Plan’s like almost all the other national
action plans include references to women and children (Fritz, et. al 2011, p. 8).

13. Gender Perspectives: Use and strength of specific language (e.g., gender perspective or
1325 perspective, victim or survivor, society’s challenges or women’s problems); recognition of
problems facing women of different backgrounds; recognition of women’s various roles. Sierra
Leone NAP uses some specific languages for instance “prevention of conflict including violence against women/children”, “protection, empowerment of victims/vulnerable persons especially women and girls”, “prosecute, punish perpetrators… as well as rehabilitate victims/survivors Sexual Gender Based-Violence”. Also Sierra Leone clearly promotes dealing with impunity through a nationwide questionnaire.

According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 8), all of the NAPs mention the prevention of gender-based violence, but with big differences. Some countries have made this a priority. For instance, Uganda includes (a section on ending impunity in the region as well as action points are included) while impunity is mentioned in the Sierra Leone national plan and prosecution is one of the five priorities. The Sierra Leone government shows its determination to include a gender perspective in its society policies and programs, and Sierra Leone may move quickly because priorities are determined and targets are specified within an established time frame. This criterion is well met because gender perspectives are used as priorities of the plan.

14. Geographic/political level specificity: Refers to the spatial specificity of the plan; Are there some states/regions/countries where the plan proposes more attention? According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 8) “most of the countries indicate different levels of geographic focus in their plans.” Sierra Leone’s plan is implemented all over the country. For instance, the first activity conducted was a nationwide mapping survey to establish a baseline of existing initiatives on Resolution 1325 in Sierra Leone. The plan clearly focuses on Sierra Leone but without concrete information about where the meetings and workshops are taking place. Freetown and Bo were specifically mentioned for workshops and meetings conducted when the plan was being developed. The four regions of Sierra Leone participated in the consultative national/workshop and had 30 participants from each region. The monitoring of the NAP is
being tracked within region, districts and communities, but without exactly saying where this is happening.

The plan would be improved if it provided specific information about communities. Also, the plan does not mention any out-of-country initiatives. According to Fritz, Doering, and Gumru (2011), it is not unusual for a country coming out of a long period of conflict to focus exclusively on one’s country.

15. Content in comparison to what is specified in the UNSCRs 1325 and 1820:

Refers to the clarity of the topics that are included in the NAPs, in relation to relevant resolutions. Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 9) have written that all the national action plans mentioned the increased representation of women and the increase of women participation in peace activities. The Sierra Leone NAP clearly mentions the UNSCR 1325 statements. For instance some of the statements are “(1) urges member states to ensure increased representation of women at all decision-making levels and international institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management and resolution of conflict”, and “(2) Contribute to increased Protection, Empowerment and support of Victims and Vulnerable Persons especially women/girls.”

In meeting this criterion, statements are well defined and incorporated according to each pillar objective. Critical issues are mentioned such as increasing representation of women at all decision-making levels, ensuring protection and human rights of women and girls, including gender perspectives, ensuring effective coordination of the implementation process and increasing prosecution of perpetrators. However, there is no mention of the statement “encourages all those involved in the planning for disarmament, demobilization and reintegration and reintegration to consider the different needs of female and ex-combatants and to take into
account.

16. **Priority areas:** *Refers to the specific action areas that will be taken as priorities.* Five priorities were mentioned in Sierra Leone’s NAP according to the timeline (2010-2014) and each has some specific areas of focus. The priorities are detailed and meeting this criterion was done in an explicit and excellent way.

The priorities in the Sierra Leone plan are its pillars. Pillar one mentions some objectives including “the commitment to implement UNSCRs 1325 and 1820, mechanisms and procedures for prevention conflict/violence against, provision of legal environment for the protection for women’s rights and security improved.” Pillar two indicates “reporting of sexual gender based-violence cases, providing health economic and legal support to vulnerable persons including victims and survivors.” Pillar 3 is, “contribute to increased protection of perpetrators as well rehabilitation of victims.” Pillar 4 is “contribute to increased participation and representation of women.” Pillar 5 states “ensure effective coordination of the implementation process including resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation and reporting on the National Action Plan.”

There are also some problems in connection with the other priorities/pillars. For instance, the plan is heavily donor-dependent. An example of this is Pillar 2 on Protection, which specifies “the funding of lawyers to take on women’s cases, the strengthening of medical facilities (psychosocial capabilities and trauma counseling), and the provision of free medical access for abused women and the development of economic opportunities for women affected by violence.” The plan does not incorporate a clear mandate for how all of these activities will be identified and developed. For instance, microcredit could be emphasized as a way to provide economic opportunities for sexual violence victims.

Pillar 4, “Increased Representation,” ignores other aspects of training necessary to ensure
women are in effective positions. Pillar 5, “Monitoring” demonstrates a low technical capacity for implementation and monitoring. The plan shows an over-reliance on numerical outputs rather than qualitative change, for example, the number of gender sensitive training sessions held.

According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 10), most of the plans mention three or four priorities or objectives, but it’s usually done in a general way. However, some countries are more specific. For instance Cote d’Ivoire’s plan has four priorities and is unusual because one of the priorities includes protection against female circumcision. Sierra Leone has five specific priorities.

17. **Performance and monitoring:** *Identifies the criteria that determine the success of the plan.*

The Sierra Leone National Action Plan specifies the outcomes for each objective in its framework specifically in Priority 5. The plan uses tables in the appendices to clarify the measurable indicators, the responsible agents involved and the frequency of the data collection. For instance, Sierra Leone has a timeframe with output results that indicates that “increased protection, Empowerment and support of Victims and Vulnerable Persons especially women/girls - 50% increase in the number of women with increased feeling of protection from SGBV in their communities & 30% reduction of violence on victims due to empowerment support.”

According to Fritz, Doering and Gumru (2011, p. 10), only half of the NAPs have performance indicators. Sierra Leone clearly identifies a set of outcomes, and that will not only make it easier to measure the success of the plan, but it also will provide a framework for identifying problems and modifying the action plan.

18. **Reporting and Feedback:** *Refers to the existence and details of the reporting and feedback processes.* In Pillar 5, in the Monitoring and Evaluation tables, the plan indicates reporting and
feedback and identifies the specifics of the process. However, this criterion is weakly met because the plan does not provide details of the reporting and feedback. There is a lack clarification about if the meeting and/or reports are on a monthly or annual basis. For instance, “the RSC will collect and analyze data at the regional level and prepare reports for the attention of the National Steering Committee (NSC), who will review reports and make recommendations to the RSC for effective implementation” and “the DSC will be reviewing progress at the district level on a periodic basis” Only round table conferences are indicated to be annual in the matrix tables.

Some countries, such as Uganda and Liberia, have plans that are very detailed and refer to annual as well as frequent reports. The reporting and feedback processes are considered to be important to assess performance and for the further development of a plan. The Sierra Leone plan does not mention the specificity of feedback or the frequency of reporting.

**19. Financial allocation:** *Refers to the financial allocation in regard to priority areas.*

The Sierra Leone National Action Plan provides a detailed financial framework. Financial allocation is provided in a table and tied to specific objectives of the five priorities (Pillars) of the plan with a four-year time frame (2010-2013). The Sierra Leone government mentions the lack of identified financing which may slow the implementation of the plan objectives.

Although, the plan provides a very detailed chart concerning the financial allocation connected to the priority areas, the plan does not contain details about the total amount collected or that will be collected from each donor. For instance, the plan does not provide how much money Cordaid provides, which is the lead donor for the SiLNAP implementation process. In addition, the government contribution is not mentioned in the plan, nor is that of Cordaid, which financed its preparation. Also, the plan’s timeline is for five years but the budget allocation is
only for four years (2010-2014) and there is no explanation of how the last year will be funded. This confusion might create some disagreements among the stakeholders. A plan of such importance should be very detailed about the sources of funds and the amounts collected for implementation. Without such clarification, concern may be created in the minds of researchers and in civil society regarding the potential success of the plan. Some countries provide a chart of their financial allocations, while others say the money will be allocated in a general way. A number of countries ignore or scarcely mention the budgetary requirements that must be satisfied to achieve full implementation (Fritz, et al. 2011, p. 10). While Sierra Leone has set a four-year financial framework, clarification about the sources of funding and specifically the last year of funding is lacking.

20. Monitoring by civil society: Refer to the close observation of a situation in order to see if further action is necessary. The Sierra Leone NAP incorporates civil society into the monitoring process. On page 33, the plan mentions that “Civil Society Organizations, more so women’s movements, are also engaged in routine generation of data relating to gender and women’s situation, thus are also source of information for monitoring Resolutions 1325 and 1820.”

Monitoring the NAP should not be left only to government. CSOs should not been left out because implementing these resolutions benefits as well, and it is useful for collecting data that can be used to monitor the development of the plan. Sierra Leone has met this criterion.

B. Final points

The analysis of the criteria results in some final points. The activities are evaluated in the following way:

Excellent means the criteria is met in the best way and is complete.
Well done means that Sierra Leone responds to almost all the requirements of the criteria, but not completely.

Weak means that there is a lack of necessary information about meeting the criteria.

The final points are listed as follows:

(1) Publication date: Refers to the date that the NAP was made into law (excellent).

(2) Length: Number of pages including introduction/background section, main body text, charts, bibliography and appendices (well done)

(3) General organization: Refers to the presentation and format of the plan document (excellent).

(4) Agency/agencies that led to NAP process: Identifies the office(s) that played roles in the preparation of the plan (well done, but did not provide contact information)

(5) Government agencies and civil society groups that were involved in the preparation of the plan (well done)

(6) Level of involvement of civil society (well done)

(7) Plan period: The specific period of time that the plan covers (excellent)

(8) Timeline for implementation: Specific timing of identified actions within the plan period (well done but weak with one objective out of fifteen)

(9) Specificity about the roles of different departments: Refers to the clarity of the roles of different implementing agents (fairly well done)

(10) Communication/cooperation of agents: Identifies the processes that will provide discussion and coordination among various implementing agents (weak, specifics needed)

(11) Advertisement/PR: Identifies the tools that will be used to introduce the plan to the society (excellent)

(12) Age sensitivity: Does the plan only mention women, or both women and girls, or women and children? (well done)
(13) Gender perspectives: Use and strength of specific language (e.g., gender perspective or 1325 perspective, victim or survivor, society’s challenges or women’s problems); recognition of problems facing women of different backgrounds; recognition of women’s various roles (e.g., victim, collaborator, peace maker) (well done)

(14) Geographic/politic specificity: Refers to the spatial concerns (local, national, international of the plan, including specifically naming countries or regions (weak)

(15) Content in comparison to what is specified in the four UNSCRs – 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 – with a special concern for gender-based/sexual violence (well done)

(16) Priority areas: Refers to the specific action areas that will be taken as priorities (excellent).

(17) Performance measures: Identifies the elements that determine the success of the plan (excellent)

(18) Reporting and feedback: Refers to the existence and details of the reporting and feedback processes (weak)

(19) Financial allocation: Refers to the financial allocation and priority decisions for the implementation of the plan (well done in identification but weak in identifying necessary contributions)

(20) Monitoring by civil society (excellent)

Overall, the Sierra Leone National Action Plan (SiLNAP) appears to be comprehensive, well organized and specific when compared to many countries national action plans
VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Content analysis as an analytical method has been used to analyze Sierra Leone’s NAP and to compare the plan to the first 16 plans analyzed by Fritz, et al. (2011). The Sierra Leone National Action Plan (SiLNAP) was found to be comprehensive, well organized and specific when compared to many other countries’ plans. There are many points that make the plan successful including:

1) The organization of the document
2) The publication date is clearly identified
3) Five priorities are specified according to a timeline with indicators
4) A gender perspective is reflected in four out five of the plan priorities
5) A financial framework that is tied to the specific activities of the five priorities
6) A plan to publicize the UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 and the NAP

Although, the plan has many strengths, it does have some weaknesses including the following:

1) The plan should add information (e.g., phone numbers and email addresses) of the lead agents and major stakeholders
2) In the plan, meetings are merely listed without specifics as to how frequent they will be held. As for the reports, conferences and workshops, there is no precision about the time and frequency of when they will happen
3) There is a lack of clarity about cooperation among agents, which is very important to implement a national action plan
4) One important timeline is missing for the objective “Reporting of SGBV at national and community levels increased”
5) There is a lack of specificity about where the plan priorities will be implemented

6) The plan budget’s budget framework is only for four years while the plan’s timeline is five years.

7) The necessary financial resources are not obtained from the government or provided by outside sources

Despite the weaknesses, the SiLNAP development process seems to be more successful than many countries plans. The success of the plan’s development is due to:

- the perseverance and engagement of the Sierra Leoneans through their civil society organizations.
- the international Non-governmental Organizations that demonstrated their expertise and their willingness to assist the implementation of the plan.
- the Sierra Leone government, which despite the lack of financial resources, shows its commitment to the development and prosperity of the country.

Due to the engagement of women's organizations and inter-ministerial institutions, the UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 have been implemented. The plan was prepared with the technical and financial assistance of the Dutch NGO (Cordaid) along with multilateral institutions, private sector actors, other NGOs, and Sierra Leone government agencies. Evidence reviewed has revealed that the Sierra Leone NAP is important since it identifies concrete guidelines, timelines and financial needs for the implementation of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820. The SiLNAP can serve as a possible “model” action plan.

In conclusion, the SiLNAP should not only a model plan for countries that have been in war, but all the 192 member states of the United Nations. It is very important to country policymakers to put an NAP in place in order to address and solve problems faced by women
and girls. Although, the SiLNAP is new and its implementation is in its early stages, an early assessment of the plan, for instance in 2012 or 2013, would be a good idea. Policymakers should also be concerned about how the plan would be sustained by improving the plan’s processes and outcomes. In the end, the government should be committed to provide or locate enough financial resources for the plan to be fully implemented.

If the Sierra Leone outcomes are assessed and revised periodically, it will help Sierra Leone and other countries see the value of having a plan and how to improve the implementation process to achieve the desired outcomes. Interested parties that are looking for specific outcomes -- such as much higher rates of women's participation, huge decreases in violence against women and girls, successful prosecution of those who initiate violence against women and girls, and significant percentages of women in leadership positions in government and government initiated peace building activities (Fritz, Doering and Gumru, 2011) -- should follow the developments in Sierra Leone. This country can make great strides in dramatically improving the lives of its women and girls.
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