Human Security

Approaches and Challenges

The enclosed **CD-ROM** incorporates
UNESCO publications on human security
from 1996 to early 2008.

Human Security
Approaches and Challenges

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UNESCO commissioned this chapter from Alioune Sall, of the African Futures Institute (South Africa), which is one of the few institutes dealing with prospective analysis of human security. UNESCO does not necessarily share the views expressed therein.

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Preface

Koïchiro Matsuura

Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Since the 1990s, ensuring human security for the most vulnerable populations has been a major concern of the international community. The threats and risks that these populations face have increased, together with their intensity. They have taken a heavy toll, particularly on women and children, but also on all those who have been deprived, generation after generation, of access to opportunities to forge a better life.
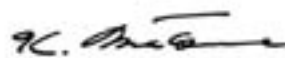
The prevalence of extreme poverty and illiteracy, the impact of HIV/AIDS, environmental degradation, internal conflict and forced displacement, and migration are closely nterlinked. All too often, this makes it very difficult to provide those affected with access to the means for improving their livelihoods – especially through education – and to establish the conditions for ensuring respect for their human rights. The urgency and extent of the efforts that must be undertaken in the coming years and decades are becoming even clearer as we begin to take the full measure of climate change and its impact on the poorest segments of the population.

Over the last six years, UNESCO has striven to make its own contribution to human security by mobilizing its resources in all its fields of competence through interdisciplinary approaches to its work, and with one single purpose: finding sustainable responses to the evolving needs of the most vulnerable populations.

This publication provides a succinct and evidence-based overview of UNESCO's endeavours in numerous human security-related fields in various regions and countries. It reflects the results of the Organization's efforts to identify innovative ways of responding to evolving human security needs, to define more clearly those needs at regional and subregional levels, and to help articulate a sound and action-oriented basis for human security.

I sincerely hope that this publication will inspire and foster new approaches and initiatives in the field of human security geared towards addressing the long-term needs of the most vulnerable in an effective and sustained manner.

Koïchiro Matsuura

Foreword

Pierre Sané
Assistant Director-General
for Social and Human Sciences,
UNESCO

As Chairman of the Intersectoral Group on Human Security (IGHS) set up by the Director-General of UNESCO in 2006, I am delighted that all UNESCO sectors and services, as well as relevant field offices, along with international, regional and local partners, have been involved in the preparation and finalization of the present publication. The interdisciplinary understanding that this volume embodies composes an essential element of contemporary knowledge production. At the same time, it represents a basic challenge for an organization such as UNESCO, whose different components must act in complete synergy not just as a matter of credibility, but moreover in order to have a tangible impact on the most vulnerable populations.

UNESCO promotes human security along two major fronts. On one hand, it is engaged in enriching the concept of human security through relating it to the actions of peoples, nations and international organizations. On the other, UNESCO is exploring different approaches to various, complex and interconnected human security issues, taking into account the impact of globalization, the promotion of human rights, and concerns about security in the larger sense of the term. For UNESCO was established in order to contribute to peace and security in the world through education, the sciences, culture, communication and information – and that by strengthening cooperation among nations, with a view to ensuring universal respect for justice, the rule of law, human rights and fundamental human freedoms.

Human security illustrates the specific role played by UNESCO, within the United Nations system, in disseminating the work of numerous experts, research centres, institutes, networks and NGOs working in this field. The very concept of human security points to the need for a common understanding of its underlying principles. As reflected in the present work, UNESCO's programme sectors are involved in advancing a human rights-based security, focusing *inter alia* on education for peace, responses to HIV/AIDS, the relation between human rights and sustainable development, research and action on water resources and disaster-related issues, promoting a culture of peace, the struggle against racism and intolerance, dialogue among cultures and civilizations, and promoting cultural diversity and freedom of expression.

Since 2000, UNESCO's Social and Human Sciences Sector has followed a *regional approach to human security*, with a view to elaborating *ethical, normative and educational frameworks* in this field, for each region and subregion, as reflected in Chapter 2 of this volume.

What is to be understood by the ethical, normative and educational frameworks of human security? When we say that human security is people-centred, we are referring in general to the specific needs, sometimes very urgent, of individuals and communities confronted by extreme poverty, conflict and post-conflict situations, or environmental degradation. At the same time, we are speaking of

fundamental freedoms, as reflected in the United Nations Charter. We are also talking about *human dignity*, in the spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, along with the *intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind*, as recalled in the UNESCO Constitution. Finally, we are invoking the *values* embodied in spiritual and religious traditions that are part and parcel of cultural diversity, as practised by individuals in their daily lives – values that play a major role in the solidarity they can manifest, even in the direst conditions, in the hope of a better future.

These are only some of the elements that go into building a common ethical framework in which human security can thrive, provided it is associated with the essential dimensions of individual lives.

In turn, this ethical framework cannot be dissociated from the normative framework, which refers essentially to the full enjoyment of human rights, as proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. We must strive to show how human security is closely intertwined with respect for human rights and for democratization.

We also know that human security will not be achieved without education and the skills to address major issues such as peace, human rights, intercultural dialogue and sustainable development. Much work lies ahead to this end in terms of redefining the purposes of education itself, along with designing appropriate curricula, producing corresponding textbooks, and, perhaps most of all, introducing relevant teacher training.

While these three frameworks for the promotion of human security – the ethical, the normative and the educational – must be well established at global level, it is of foremost importance to develop them at regional level in order to best define the human resources and capacities that need to be mobilized. *Regional integration processes* are acquiring impressive momentum everywhere, and globalization is creating tensions that cannot be ignored in any analysis that would substantially advance international dialogue and strengthen multilateral cooperation. UNESCO's regional meetings have shown that much can

be gained from regional approaches to human security. The combination of regional approaches and specific action frameworks promises a diversified and fruitful way forward in promoting human security.

These three frameworks should play key roles in moving forward, given the wide array of challenges in the field, especially in implementing inclusive human security policies. It would be unwise to try to tackle the threats to human security only on a case-by-case or emergency basis. Ensuring the sustainability and enhancing the coherence of major international and regional initiatives for human security require solid foundations on which to act in the long run – and that in a manner exceeding responses to natural or man-made disasters in terms of prevention, including action at community and local levels.

One of the challenges we face is that of clearly differentiating between so-called 'external' and 'internal' risks and threats to human security. It is of fundamental importance that we address the dynamics of threats to human security within countries – whether of a societal or an environmental nature – by identifying how to make better use of regional and national capacities and more effectively involve a wider range of actors to help tackle those threats. These include water-related differences and conflicts resulting from the impact of climate change on the poorest and most vulnerable populations – issues that will surely be high on the international agenda in coming years. Another challenge that lies ahead is that of strengthening the *gender dimension* in promoting human security at national and local levels; for the needs of women in this regard, as evidenced in many research reports, demand much more consistent and longer-term action. At the same time, we must reach out to all stakeholders in human security, for only the broadest participation will contribute to the lasting success of any policy, initiative or project, especially at local level.

Towards meeting these challenges, we must do our utmost both to contribute to the coherence of the international agenda on human security and to help build coalitions for fostering and sustaining human security. In this regard, we

should acknowledge and profit from some common approaches to human security reflected in major initiatives of the last few years, as well as the achievements of key initiatives launched by countries such as Canada, Japan and Norway as pillars of their foreign policies.
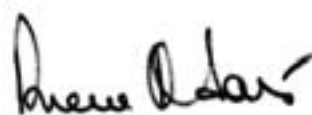
We must also bring on board academic research on a wide array of interlocked human security issues being carried out in centres of excellence and regional research networks in both developed and developing countries. In this respect, UNESCO commissioned Chapter 4 of the present volume on 'Emerging challenges and possible scenarios' from Alioune Sall of the African Futures Institute (South Africa), one of the few institutes in the world pursuing a prospective analysis of human security.

At UNESCO, we believe that better cooperation in human security research and more effective involvement of the primary stakeholders in formulating and implementing human security policies will help to ensure its sustainability for the most vulnerable populations.

Since the concept of human security was first introduced in the UNDP's 1994 *Human Development Report*, it has not ceased evolving. As the nature of the risks and threats facing the world change, so does the definition of what human security means, along with the parameters for joint action. For this reason, it has been important for

UNESCO to take stock of what has been achieved within its own fields of competence as a basis for engaging in future reflection and action in favour of the most vulnerable populations. This has come at a time when the Organization is gearing up, during the 2008–2013 period covered by its recently approved Medium-Term Strategy, to assess the emerging societal challenges in its domains of expertise and to redouble its efforts to meet the needs of those who continue to live, generation after generation, in bleak and intolerable conditions.

Thus, as one phase of UNESCO's action in favour of promoting human security ends, another begins in which specific human security concerns will be tackled through different programmes on the basis of the rich experience gained in the last six years, and in the context of enhanced interdisciplinary collaboration.

Pierre Sané

Introduction

Moufida Goucha
Chief of Human Security, Democracy and Philosophy Section, UNESCO

Human security and UNESCO: review and prospects

Human security comprises a wide range of topics and involves diverse actors at various levels. As illustrated in the first chapter of the present volume, dedicated to UNESCO's action in the field of human security, this is truly a multidimensional concept.

The Organization has a profound and longstanding involvement in matters of peace and security – or, more recently, human security. The major periods of UNESCO's action in this field are 1945–93, 1994–99 and 2000–07. Its current work rests on solid foundations to which it owes tribute.

Following on the recommendations of the UNESCO College of Assistant Directors-General and the findings of expert meetings and regional encounters over the years with an array of partners, this publication takes stock of what has been achieved so far in UNESCO's promotion of peace and human security. It aims to put into perspective the lessons learned and the experience gained in this field and to present new models for future work.

The relation between peace and security: 1945–93

The first session of the UNESCO General Conference, in 1945, took note of the potential contributions of the human and social sciences to greater mutual understanding among peoples and better resolving the tensions that generate conflicts.[1] In line with its Constitution, the General Conference included in the programme of the Organization studies on social tensions and their international repercussions. A corresponding plan for such work was adopted by the General Conference at its second session, in 1947, and then implemented over the next few years.

In 1953, UNESCO's Social Sciences Department took the additional step of inviting the International Sociological Association to carry out a critical study of all current investigations – both sociological and psychological – on inter-group conflicts in order to set a course for future research. The results were published by UNESCO in 1957 as *The Nature of Conflict*.[2] Attributing a decisive role to UNESCO in the mid-1950s in giving impetus to a sociology of conflict and international security, Pierre Hassner[3] underlined the importance of UNESCO's earlier studies, which broke with the psychologism of hackneyed ideas about the spirit of peoples or extrapolations on the extraordinary role of their leaders. These studies effectively opened the way to further exploration of the socio-economic causes of conflict, including analysis of security and insecurity on the basis of game theory and of decision-making based on rational choices. The political theory of Raymond Aron, Lucien Poirier's *Essais de stratégie théorique*, the polemology of

(1) The following is based on UNESCO, 1999, Historical Background in *The Unit for Peace and the New Dimensions of Security*, Paris, UNESCO, pp. 11–13.

(2) J. Bernard, T. H. Pear, R. Aron and R. C. Angell, 1957, *The Nature of Conflict: Studies on the Sociological Aspects of International Tensions*, Paris, UNESCO.

(3) P. Hassner, 1995, Violence, rationalité, incertitude. Tendances apocalyptiques et iréniques dans l'étude des conflits internationaux, in *La violence et la paix : de la bombe atomique au nettoyage ethnique*, Paris, Esprit, pp. 83–84.

Gaston Bouthoul, and the studies of Anatol Rapoport, as well as the interdisciplinary *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, all benefited from the initial direction provided by UNESCO.

From the 1960s to the 1980s, UNESCO continued its work in a context frequently marked by serious disagreements – repercussions of the Cold War – among researchers studying peace, disarmament and the socio-economic origins of conflict. As teaching and research related to peace and conflict were then beginning to become part of university curricula in numerous countries – to some extent at UNESCO's instigation – the Organization itself, with its *Reports and Papers in the Social Sciences*, launched a series of publications on the major trends in this area, cooperating with key institutions worldwide.

A new stage commenced with the appearance of the *UNESCO Yearbook on Peace and Conflict Studies 1980*, a review of the main work conducted throughout the world in the previous two years. As Hylke Tromp stated in his introduction to the *Yearbook 1980*, recent studies indicated that a 'paradigmatic change' had taken place insofar as interdependence and transnational phenomena had come to take their rightful place in the study of peace and conflict. This trend was subsequently confirmed by the end of the Cold War, which in turn had its own considerable impact on peace and conflict studies. By 1988, the proliferation of internal conflicts within states had become the international community's principal subject of concern.[4] These developments also marked the beginning of a radical change in UNESCO's strategies to promote peace through an emphasis on the 'culture of peace'.

New dimensions of security: 1994–99

UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy for 1996–2001 highlighted the Organization's global effort to promote a culture of peace and described another new phase in its involvement in peace and human security. A good example of this is the transdisciplinary project Towards a Culture of Peace, on which work began in 1996.

'What kind of peace do we in fact want? What kind of security needs to be promoted?'[5] These questions behind UNESCO's engagement for a culture of peace had lain at the heart of its concerns ever since the Organization came into being. The Preamble to its Constitution declares 'that a peace based exclusively on the political and economic arrangements of governments would not be a peace which could secure the unanimous, lasting and sincere support of the peoples of the world, and that the peace must therefore be founded … upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind'.[6] Security relies upon the same solidarity since, as the Charter of the United Nations sets forth, peace and security are indissociable.

Although the military aspects of security continued to enjoy their priviledged status during this time, international law had come to conceed that there were many non-military factors adversely affecting peace and national as well as international security. This development was analysed in UNESCO's publication *Non-Military Aspects of International Security*.[7] The concept of security could be seen to be evolving to encompass new dimensions that hitherto had merely occupied a secondary place in state concerns.

The strictly military conception of security had been superseded by a global conception of the security of populations – or indeed, we might say, of the *democratic security* of populations. This latter notion could not be other than global and indivisible, inasmuch as certain phenomena (i.e. extreme poverty, inequalities among and within countries, environmental damage, pandemics and new diseases, various forms of discrimination, and human rights violations) transcend national frontiers. Fear of nuclear war was being replaced by a range of uncertainties, many of

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(4) See from this period the *UNESCO Yearbooks on Peace and Conflict Studies.*
(5) M. Goucha, 1998, Introduction, in *What Kind of Security?*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 9. The following is based on ibid., pp. 9–14.
(6) UNESCO's Constitution was adopted in London on 16 November 1945. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=15244&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
(7) UNESCO, 1995, *Non-Military Aspects of International Security*, Paris, UNESCO.

which likewise imperilled human life and had consequences with which no single state could adequately deal. It followed that only a conception of security squarely based on the real security needs of populations and premised on international cooperation could strengthen the interconnections between peace, development and democracy. Such a conception of security, entailing a redefinition of the roles of all members of society, including the armed forces, could obviously not be worked out without input from each of them.

The key lines for further study in this direction were identified in a seminar on peacekeeping and peacebuilding held at the Venice Institute of Science, Literature and Art in 1994[8] and at the Inter-American Symposium on Security for Peace: Peace Building and Peace Keeping, organized by UNESCO, the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Inter-American Defense College (IADC) in Washington DC in 1995.[9] That same year, the Director-General of UNESCO, Federico Mayor, set up an informal group within the Organization to examine the complex and interlocking factors underlying this new conception of security.

This approach was in keeping with the spirit of the Organization's Medium-Term Strategy for 1996–2001, which called on UNESCO to take account of the 'new conditions for security' when contributing to the building of peace.[10] It was also consistent with UNESCO's Programme and Budget for 1996–1997, which foresaw that the Organization would, under its Towards a Culture of Peace project, 'contribute to ongoing discussions concerning a new peace research agenda, a new concept of security and the role of the United Nations system in this respect'.[11]

In rethinking the meaning of security, the informal group benefited from contributions made by a number of eminent specialists and reproduced in *What Kind of Security?*. Starting from widely differing viewpoints, their work as a whole suggested new avenues of action for dealing with the security challenges faced by the international community, even as it allowed UNESCO to draw upon an intellectual tradition going back to the early work of the sociologist Jessie Bernard and colleagues.

In 1996, UNESCO relied heavily on these contributions when it opened an unprecedented dialogue with institutes of strategic studies, defence institutes and representatives of the armed forces in the symposium From Partial Insecurity to Global Security, organized jointly with the Institut des Hautes Études de Défense Nationale (IHEDN, France), with the assistance of the Centro di Alti Studi per la Difesa (CASD, Italy), the Western European Union's Institute for Security Studies and the Centro Superior de Estudios de la Defensa Nacional (CESEDEN, Spain). The dialogue continued later that year in El Salvador at the Central American Military Forum for a Culture of Peace,[12] which met again in 1998 in Guatemala with a view to promoting democratic security in Central America. Mention should also be made in this context of the role that UNESCO played in helping to set up the Central American Armed Forces Conference (CAFC).

Throughout this period, UNESCO took part in various regional and subregional meetings on new requirements for training the armed forces in peace, human rights and democracy, envisioning enhanced cooperation with the United Nations Centre for Human Rights. At a time when a vast reform of the United Nations was under way, one of its aims being to strengthen the capacity of the system as a whole in conflict prevention and peacebuilding, it was incumbent on UNESCO to cooperate closely with other UN agencies, especially given its own emphasis on a new approach to security in Towards a Culture of Peace.

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(8) UNESCO, 1996, *The Venice Deliberations – Transformations in the Meaning of 'Security': Practical Steps Toward a New Security Culture*, Paris, UNESCO (The Venice Papers, CAB-96/WS/1).

(9) UNESCO, 1996, *Security for Peace. A Synopsis of the Inter-American Symposium on Peace Building and Peace Keeping*, Paris, UNESCO (The Venice Papers, CAB-96/WS/2).

(10) UNESCO, 1996, Medium-Term Strategy for 1996–2001. *Approved*, Paris, UNESCO, 28 C/4, § 189.

(11) UNESCO, 1995, Approved Programme and Budget for 1996–1997, Paris, UNESCO, 28 C/5, § 05247. See also UNESCO, 1998, *Approved* Programme and Budget for 1998–1999, Paris, UNESCO, 29 C/5, §§ 06016, 06019, 06027.

(12) The proceedings of the Forum are available in UNESCO, 1997, *Foro militar centroamericano para la cultura de paz (San Salvador, 26 y 27 de junio de 1996), Programa de cultura de paz de la UNESCO*, El Salvador, UNESCO Office.

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For UNESCO, the most recent origins of the specific concept of human security lie in the Organization's response to the UN Secretary-General's 1992 report *An Agenda for Peace*, with its focus on preventive diplomacy, peacemaking and peacekeeping.[13] (Another concept in vogue, at that time was that of 'democratic security' espoused by the Council of Europe and developed at length in the Treaty on Democratic Security in Central America.) An *Agenda for Peace* took stock of the fact that since inter-state wars were very much in decline, the real challenge for the future would lie in intra-state conflicts and the way that the international community dealt with them.

Responding to this assessment with its own Culture of Peace Agenda, UNESCO referred to the ethical purport of its Constitution and its attendant emphasis on peace and security, as well as recast its work in an interdisciplinary manner. At the same time, the Organization involved itself in reconciliation in El Salvador and in Guatemala, in promoting a Culture of Peace in the Philippines, and in major actions in this field incorporating a gender perspective in Africa.

The influence of the Culture of Peace movement was reflected in the proclamation by the United Nations of the year 2000 as the International Year for a Culture of Peace and of the period 2001–2010 as the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-violence for the Children of the World, for which UNESCO became the lead agency, even as other priorities for the UN system emerged in the meantime, as set forth in the Millennium Declaration and the corresponding Millennium Development Goals.[14]

Of the governments and international organizations involved in defining and promoting human security during this period, some were more active than others. The Canadian and Japanese governments were at the forefront of these efforts, although they advocated different concepts of human security. The Canadian interpretation centred on the security of the individual, its emphasis on

'freedom from pervasive threats to people's rights, their safety, or even their lives' as the most salient feature of human security distinguishing it from the focus of the United Nations Development Programme on individual security achieved through freedom from want.[15] The Japanese approach, by contrast, encompassed both freedom from fear and freedom from want within a definition of human security incorporating human rights concerns and democratization.

Integrated approaches to human security: 2000–07

More recently, the Social and Human Sciences Sector of UNESCO has strived to support research and action promoting human security in keeping with the conclusions of the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions, convened by UNESCO in 2000, on *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*. There it was acknowledged that human security could be considered 'a *paradigm in the making*, for ensuring both a *better knowledge* of the rapidly evolving large-scale risks and threats that can have a major impact on individuals and populations, and a *strengthened mobilization* of the wide array of actors actually involved in participative policy formulation in the various fields it encompasses today. As such it is an adequate framework for:

> Accelerating the transition from past restrictive notions of security, tending to identify it solely with defence issues, to a much more comprehensive multidimensional concept of security, based on the respect for all human rights and democratic principles.

> Contributing to sustainable development and especially to the eradication of extreme poverty, which is a denial of all human rights.

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(13) B. Boutros-Ghali, 1992, *An Agenda for Peace, Preventive Diplomacy, Peacemaking and Peace-keeping*. Report of the Secretary-General Pursuant to the Statement Adopted by the Summit Meeting of the Security Council on 31 January 1992, New York, United Nations (A/47/277-S/24111).

(14) The eight goals are: 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; 2. Achieve universal primary education; 3. Promote gender equality and empower women; 4. Reduce child mortality; 5. Improve maternal health; 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; 7. Ensure environmental sustainability; 8. Develop a global partnership for development.

(15) Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT), 2002, Freedom from Fear: Canada's Foreign Policy for Human Security, Ottawa, Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade; L. Axworthy, 1997, Speech to 52nd session of United Nations General Assembly, New York, 25 September 1997 (http://www.iansa.org/documents/un/unpub/statements/); ibid., 1999, *Human Security: Safety for People in a Changing World*, Ottawa, Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade.

> Reinforcing the prevention at the root of different forms of violence, discrimination, conflict and internal strife that are taking a heavy toll, mainly on civilian populations in all regions of the world without exception.

> Providing a unifying theme for multilateral action to the benefit of the populations most affected by partial and interrelated insecurities'.[16]

UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007 took up human security in its Strategic Objective 5: *Improving human security by better management of the environment and social change* – an objective pertaining to both the Natural Sciences and the Social and Human Sciences programme sectors. Meeting this objective required new strategies for dealing with manifold risks and threats. Both programme sectors were directed to focus on acute and major societal needs and to integrate human rights concerns into their work. Complex issues such as climate change, food and water security, poverty, HIV/AIDS and contagious diseases, biological diversity, and the impact of abrupt social transformations demand innovative approaches in both the natural and the social and human sciences able to take into account local and traditional knowledge. Currently the Organization has five intergovernmental and international scientific programmes[17] allowing it to address these issues in an interdisciplinary manner through research, training, education, policy advice and awareness-raising.

While many ecological problems, for example, have reached global dimensions, potential solutions are becoming more localized, especially in terms of ecosystem management. The one certainty is that the rate of change in ecological (just as in societal) systems is increasing, while the predictability of its direction is decreasing. In ecological monitoring and evaluation of the effects of global climate change, UNESCO has supported science-based activities incorporating local and indigenous knowledge.

As far as the natural sciences are concerned, UNESCO has pursued several objectives, including developing integrated environmental management approaches, emphasizing critical areas such as coastal zones; creating disaster mitigation plans for vulnerable groups; disseminating guidelines for disaster preparedness and mitigating the consequences of natural disasters; the introduction and use of modelling and forecasting tools for hydrological, ecological and geological policies and applications; better assessment of the impact of human activities on the oceans; improvements in the sustainable use of coastal natural resources by small island developing states; and increased use and promotion of new and renewable energies, in particular solar energy, especially in African countries. This has been accompanied by improved use of the results of UNESCO's own work in the social and human sciences in policy-making and governance, especially in countries undergoing transformation.

With respect to the social and human sciences themselves, UNESCO's strategy highlighted the need 'to prevent conflicts at their source … through its global network of peace research and training institutions, thereby reinforcing human security', and to contribute to 'the elaboration of integrated approaches to human security at the regional, subregional and national levels, targeting the most vulnerable populations, including … the prevention and resolution of conflicts'.[18]

These goals were closely linked to the Organization's role in the eradication of poverty – most of all, extreme poverty[19] – and the promotion of human rights, as well as the implementation of the United Nations Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace[20] and the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001–2010).

Towards opening up new research perspectives and further consolidating public policy and awareness in a way that

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(16) UNESCO, 2001, Final Recommendations, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-first Century?*, 2ⁿᵈ edn 2005, Paris, UNESCO, pp. 113, 225.

(17) These are the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC), International Geological Correlation Programme (IGCP), International Hydrological Programme (IHP), Man and the Biosphere (MAB) programme and Management of Social Transformations (MOST) programme.

(18) UNESCO, 2002, *Approved Medium-Term Strategy 2002–2007*, Paris, UNESCO, 31 C/4, §§ 93–113.

(19) Ibid., §§ 178–201.

(20) United Nations, 1999, A/RES/53/243: Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace, New York, United Nations.

Human Security: Approaches and Challenges -- Introduction

might best translate the concept of human security into action, UNESCO Social and Human Sciences programme sector activities for 2002–07 emphasized three elements: (1) a solid ethical foundation; (2) normative instruments protecting human rights; and (3) education and training, including education for peace and sustainable development, human rights training, and enlarging the democratic agenda.

The First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions also invited UNESCO to support regional approaches defining the most suitable ways to promote human security and conflict prevention. The adoption of such approaches to human security has proved most fruitful, as shown by the results of a corresponding series of regional conferences.[21]

Other UNESCO activities concerned with promoting human security include the MOST programme, as well as an array of programmes related to human rights, the fight against discrimination, gender issues, and the ethics of science and technology. In addition, several intersectoral projects carried out under the theme 'Eradication of poverty, in particular extreme poverty', have a strong human security component, especially those in Africa and South Asia. Many of their results have been incorporated into other efforts to promote human security.

In late 2005, UNESCO organized a High-Level Working Meeting: Towards a UNESCO Publication on Human Security. It was attended by international experts[22] along with representatives of the Human Security Network, various intergovernmental regional organizations (the Organization of American States, League of Arab States, Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe), the United Nations University, UNESCO Member States, and the UNESCO Secretariat. The meeting reviewed existing international human security initiatives and their follow-up and debated the outline of the present publication, the design of which was influenced by several recommendations from participants.

Key issues identified at the meeting included:

> Giving priority to empowerment, with special emphasis on education, including preventive education, education for sustainable development, and citizenship education and related values, as well as human rights education.

> Enhancing capacity-building and the research-policy nexus in human security by identifying relevant potential partners and initiatives outside UNESCO and better linking expertise in the UNESCO Natural Sciences and Social and Human Sciences programme sectors with field-level needs.

> Exploring the interaction between environmental security and human security – a relation that UNESCO currently treats mainly in intergovernmental scientific programmes concerned with water-related issues and associated ecosystems.

> Ensuring regard for the gender dimension of human security – an important element of the Organization's contributions not only to education, but also to environmental and cultural issues, gender equality remaining a priority in UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy for 2008–2013.

> Aligning poverty eradication with the enhancement of social cohesion.

> Helping to eradicate conflicts by identifying the risks and threats that give rise to them, as well as possible solutions.

Acknowledging the ongoing debate within the United Nations on the precise definition of human security, participants in the meeting underscored that the scientific rigour and potential tangible impact of a UNESCO publication on the topic would be contingent on the clear presentation of UNESCO's approach to human security. They also emphasized the need for a set of common measurements

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(21) See Chapter 2.

(22) These were: Wolfgang Benedek, Hans Günter Brauch, Peter Burgess, Paz Buttedhal, Bechir Chourou, Keith Krause, Mehrnaz Mostafavi, Ghada Moussa, Edward Newman, Zoe Nielsen, Karen O'Brien, Paul Oquist, Geneviève Schmeder, Luis Guillermo Solis, Shahrbanou Tadjbakhsh, Majid Tehranian, Jo-Ansie van Wyk.

or benchmarks allowing for a genuinely scientific and thereby comparative analysis of human security. Towards answering these needs, the present volume structures data on human security in a policy-relevant manner affording cross-regional analysis. It features the results of a Human Security Questionnaire on current and anticipated threats and risks, specifically designed for this work. Reflecting the views of hundreds of experts engaged in this field over many years, this questionnaire represents a qualitative and quantitative tool that also incorporates valuable input from Human Security Network members and from students who found a good opportunity to freely express their views and expectations on current and anticipated threats and risks. The text also finds a fruitful echo in *Rethinking Human Security*, to be published by the International Social Science Journal (ISSJ), which reflects several dimensions of human security and offers diverse views of experts on the subject.[23]

Just as the many facets of human security are interrelated, so, too, are vulnerabilities interlinked. With regard to UNESCO's present and future role in promoting human security, recognizing the social, economic, political, institutional, cultural and environmental factors that underlie vulnerabilities entails taking on the responsibility to tackle the misconceptions that surround the concept of human security in its multidimensional nature.

UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy for 2008–2013 emphasizes that the Organization must redouble its efforts relating to the culture of peace, intercultural dialogue and emerging ethical and societal issues. In doing so, and reaching out to the most vulnerable populations, UNESCO can make good use of the substantial momentum created over the past few years in the field of human security and peace.

A collective endeavour, interdisciplinary in nature, this publication has benefited from the involvement of all UNESCO sectors and selected field offices. It also represents the fruit of collaboration with research networks, non-governmental organizations, institutes, associations and regional organizations, as well as other specialized United Nations agencies, all of which are to be thanked for their invaluable contributions. Special mention should be made of the assistance provided by the Human Security Unit at the Office of Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (HSU-OCHA), and the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS). It is hoped that UNESCO will continue to pursue this type of cooperation with other regional organizations and specialized agencies.

Moufida Goucha

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(23) Collective work, *Rethinking Human Security*, forthcoming, UNESCO/ISSJ.

Chapter 1

UNESCO's action in the field of human security

Introduction: human security, a paradigm in the making

In her contribution to the UNESCO series of publications on human security, Shin-wha Lee reminds us that addressing human security requires that we take a comprehensive view of all threats to human survival and dignity, with special emphasis on promoting human rights, social development, and environmentally sound and sustainable development, as well as eliminating violence, social strife, terrorism, state atrocities, genocide and discrimination of all kinds.[1]

The following synthesis aims to provide that kind of comprehensive overview of UNESCO's approach to human security and its efforts to reach out to the most vulnerable populations through intersectoral work within its special fields of competence: Education, Natural Sciences, Social and Human Sciences, Culture, Communication and Information. The examples used to illustrate the nature of the commitments that UNESCO has undertaken to promote human security in collaboration with a wide network of partners[2] have principally been drawn from regional accounts of how UNESCO has sought to reduce and, when possible, eradicate the insecurities that plague human lives. Conscious that any approach to human security must be interdisciplinary and multidimensional and must respect the indivisibility inherent in the concept of human security itself, an integrated thematic approach has been adopted.

Human security is people-centred

The concept of human security emphasizes the protection of individuals. It takes as its objectives peace, international stability and protection for individuals and communities, as Claudia Fuentes and Franciso Rojas Aravena point out from a Latin American perspective.[3] It comprises everything that is 'empowering' for individuals: human rights, including economic social and cultural rights, access to education and health care, equal opportunities, good governance, etc.

The United Nations Development Programme's 1994 *Human Development Report, New Dimensions of Human Security*, is thus correct to call human security people-centred because it concerns how people live and breathe in a society, how safely and freely they can exercise their many choices, how much access they have to market and social opportunities, whether they live in conflict or peace, how confident they can feel that the opportunities they enjoy one day will not be totally lost the next.[4] In her study on Central Asia, Anara Tabyshalieva suggests that the very utility of the idea of human security lies in the fact that, in contrast to earlier state-centred concepts of security that mainly connoted military power, human security opts for 'a more inclusive and multifaceted notion of security based on the individual'.[5]

Fuentes and Rojas Aravena identify international and structural factors as having contributed to the evolution of the concept of security and this new emphasis on the protection of individuals, among which: (1) the end of the bipolar communism/anti-communism conflict; (2) the impact of globalization, for which the national level is often not present in the global-local chain of cause and effect; (3) the presence of new transnational actors, multinational/transnational companies, NGOs; (4) new power relationships, new non-military, transnational security threats, development gaps, increase in intra-national conflicts.[6]

Once attention is turned to the protection of individuals, though, it becomes imperative to recognize that major differences of opinion can exist concerning what constitutes a threat to their lives, livelihoods, health and welfare, differences that are in turn determined by people's personalities, self-defensive capacities, genders, ages, locales, occupations, educational levels, personal incomes, experiences, etc.

The UNDP *Human Development Report* considers that the emerging concerns of human security for most people all over the world today are job security, income security, health security, environmental security, security from crime, and that people's feelings of insecurity arise more from worries about daily life than from the dream of some cataclysmic world event.[7] In his work on South-East Asia, Amitav Acharya draws attention to the fact that, while the concept of human security

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(1) Shin-wha Lee, 2004, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in East Asia*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 11.

(2) Networking and partnership with regional and international institutions are absolutely necessary. Two examples have developed: New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), which aims to strengthen international linkages, in order to end the marginalization of Africa; UNESCO Chairs, which are research-policy links aiming at applied research in the fields of development, democracy and human rights, cultural dialogue and promotion of local knowledge.

(3) Claudia F. Fuentes and Franciso Rojas Aravena, 2005, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Latin America and the Caribbean*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 20.

(4) Cited by Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 31.

(5) Anara Tabyshalieva, 2006, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Central Asia*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 13.

(6) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., pp. 22–23.

(7) UNDP, 1994, *Human Development Report: New Dimensions of Human Security*, New York, United Nations Development Programme, p. 3.

initially focused more on freedom from fear than on freedom from want, in South-East Asia freedom from want is seen as 'a softer, more considerate, less provocative interpretation of human security'.[8] For her part, Tabyshalieva considers that for the general public, poverty and a lack of human security, including daily needs, are considered the most important problems,[9] while Sadako Ogata, former United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, sees a wide array of factors, ranging from the laying of landmines and the proliferation of small arms, to transnational threats such as drugs trafficking, to the spread of HIV, as contributing to people's sense of insecurity.[10] Writing on universal international security and regional security, Hector Gros Espiell maintains that security should be considered 'a necessary feature of development, its aim being to arrive at a future situation of balance, well-being and satisfaction of all human needs'. He regards the awareness of being safe, the feeling or belief of being protected from danger, as being essential to an understanding of security. There can be no security, he argues, without an awareness that, given suitable means, the danger can be overcome.[11] Added to this diversity of perceptions are the major differences that can exist between what states and individuals may perceive as threats to people's lives, livelihoods, health and welfare.

A Western concept?

Many questions have arisen about human security's relevance to life in non-Western developing countries. What cultural assumptions are involved in the definition of this concept? Is it suited to different countries and regions? Is it a meaningful and useful approach to their problems? How can it be used to provide policy suggestions within the context of other cultures and societies? Are there other, more suitable, approaches?

One of the main challenges confronting the promotion of human security is that it may be perceived as a means of intervention of the developed nations in the affairs of developing ones, as an intrusion and an imposition of Western values upon other sets of values. In East Asia, human security is apt to be viewed as a concept developed in the West that puts the individual first and does not match 'Asian values', for which the common good can only be attained through greater emphasis on the community. In the words of Shin-wha Lee, 'it is important to keep in mind that UN-proclaimed definitions of human security… are primarily based on Western thinking, and philosophy. Some principles are seemingly universal – "thou shalt not kill" – but others are not'.[12]

In the South-East Asian region, the promotion of the concept of human security faces the challenge of the predominance of national/state security over human security, as reflected in figures for military expenditures versus expenditures on health and social services. There is also the fear that in the guise of serving humanitarian ends, human security might be used as an excuse for external involvement in domestic affairs and that the creation of the institutions needed to promote human security might bring a relinquishing of national sovereignty.

Acharya considers that the reason the idea of human security has not made inroads into security thinking in South-East Asian states and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) is the underlying suspicion that the concept represents a Western agenda, centred as it is on such liberal values and approaches as human rights and humanitarian intervention, while giving short shrift to regional economic and developmental priorities.[13]

For her part, Tabyshalieva sees few leaders in the Central Asian states as being prepared to confront the norms and values promoted by international agencies. In her estimation, some politicians consider human security and human rights to be a reflection of Western values and democracy and doubt whether their countries should follow recommendations concerning them.[14] Even teams working within the frameworks for Eastern and Western Europe came to the conclusion that, since human security is about an expansion of the notion of security from inter-state conflict and post-conflict contexts, perhaps it 'lends itself *better* to the *developed* world'.

Although in Africa, there is a perception that the concept of human security has been determined, framed and led by developed countries at governmental and intergovernmental levels and that African responses are merely reactive, the Southern African region has proposed a 'new approach to security' that emphasizes: the security of people and the non-military dimensions of security; the creation of forums for mediation and arbitration; the reduction in force levels and military expenditure; and the ratification of key principles of international law governing inter-state relations. In other words, they have been endeavouring to understand security in ways that incorporate political, social, economic and environmental issues. The common security regime is thus supposed to provide an early warning of potential crisis, the building of military confidence and stability through disarmament and transparency, the negotiation of multilateral agreements and the peaceful management of conflict.

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(8) Amitav Acharya, 2007, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in South-East Asia*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 21.
(9) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 34.
(10) Sadako Ogata, *Human Security: a Refugee Perspective*. Keynote Speech, Ministerial Meeting on Human Security Issues of the Lysoen Process Group of Governments, Bergen, Norway, May 1999. www.unhcr.org/admin/ADMIN/3ae68fc00.html
(11) Hector Gros Espiell, 1998, Universal international security and regional security, 25 January 1996, in *What Kind of Security?*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 54.
(12) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 41.
(13) Acharya, op. cit., pp. 11–12.
(14) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 36.

A growing and evolving concept

Human security has been called a 'paradigm in the making'. Shin-wha Lee has called it 'clearly a growing and evolving concept in the discourse of global security'.[15] The Director-General of UNESCO Koïchiro Matsuura has called it 'an extremely topical theme'.[16]

Indeed, ever since the concept of human security was first proposed in the UNDP 1994 *Human Development Report*, the concept has continued to be seen as complex, contested, and yet it has undeniably evolved to become a key term in discourse on international relations, development, security studies, in economics and the social sciences. In that it reaches beyond the traditional concept of state security to affirm the importance of individual security, it has been the focus of lively debate within the UN system, in international and regional organizations, governments of different regions, as well as in the political and academic community. All this is to say that, in spite of its controversial nature, and in spite of the fact that there is neither a set, universal definition of human security, nor any standard indicator adopted to measure it, the need

has been recognized to continue to develop the concept of human security.

A great deal of effort has now been expended to identify the most suitable approaches to problems of human security and the appropriate mechanisms for dealing with them. These pages chronicle the intersectoral, interdisciplinary action undertaken by UNESCO, in collaboration with a wide network of partners, to enhance human security throughout the world by helping states battle risks and threats weighing on humanity – be they in the area of the eradication of poverty, the preservation of the environment, respect for human rights and cultural diversity, the promotion of an ethics of science and technology – and by reaching out to the most vulnerable populations to ensure freedom from fear, freedom from want, freedom to participate in the social, economic and political processes that affect their livelihood, their access to education, health services, and income-generating activities.

I. UNESCO's commitment to peace and security

Human security is an integral part of UNESCO's mission. According to the Organization's Constitution, UNESCO's principal purpose is to 'contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion'.

As the UN agency specializing in education, culture, sciences and communication and information, UNESCO particularly contributes to the promotion of human security within those fields of competence. Its approach to human security embraces three interrelated dimensions. First, it is concerned with 'the empowerment of individuals and communities – through Education for All, training, networking and building inclusive and participatory knowledge societies – with a view to developing their capacities to tackle in the long term the pervasive threats that can put at risk their physical and human livelihoods and the enjoyment of the human rights pertaining to UNESCO's mandate, ensuring thus the enhancement of their opportunities and choices for achieving sustainable development'.

Second, it is concerned with 'the identification and promotion – through in-depth research and interaction with a wide array of partners and stakeholders – of appropriate and enabling national and local policies aimed at countering the compounded and multidimensional impact of the existing major threats which can both aggravate existing and emerging vulnerabilities and, in particular, jeopardize progress already achieved in the attainment of the goals, objectives and standards set out by UNESCO in its fields of competence'.

Third, it is concerned with 'the mobilization of regional organizations, research institutions, civil society and non-governmental organizations to engage in long-term and integrated action targeting the needs of the most vulnerable segments of the population, focusing on the key long-term contribution which education, the sciences, culture and communication and information can make to that end'.[17]

By drawing in questions of political rights and economic vulnerabilities, UNESCO's approach to human security necessarily involves a broadening of the issues to be tackled beyond those involved in traditional understandings of security.

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(15) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 11.
(16) Inaugural speech by the Director-General, Koïchiro Matsuura, 2001, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 17.
(17) Definition given in College of ADGs, 17 January 2007, Promotion of Human Security, Social and Human Sciences Sector, Human Security, Democracy and Philosophy Section, p. 11. (UNESCO internal working document). The UNESCO College of Assistant Directors-General (ADGs) meets on a regular basis under the chairmanship of the Director-General. Unless otherwise stated, the material making up this synthesis is drawn from the documents provided by the various UNESCO sectors and by regional expertise.

Born out of post-Cold War realities

Hector Gros Espiell traces the origins of the idea of security back to Article 2 of the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen of 1789, which stipulates that 'the aim of every political association is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security and resistance to oppression'. He considers that without this conceptual and historical reference, it is impossible to understand the concept of security as applied in domestic law and modern constitutional law. He points out that it was this very concept that was taken up in 1948 in Article 3 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that proclaimed that everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of the person and that in the nineteenth century, comparative constitutional law and European and Latin-American law treated this concept of security as a human right.

After the First World War, Espiell explains, the legal concept of 'international security' came into being and was developed as a consequence of the Convention of the League of Nations and the whole process of European postwar legal and political construction. Eduard Benes, a great statesman of the inter-war period, defined 'international security' as a rejection of the inherent desire of any people, any state, to be safe from the risk of aggression, and is based upon the state's certainty of not being attacked, or in the case of attack, of receiving immediate and active aid from other states. This conception based on the principle of the balance of power prevailed in international law between the wars and is still applied today.

With the beginning of the legal organization of the international community, Espiell further explains, came a shift from the idea of balance of power to that of security based on legal and political guarantees linked with the legal organization of the international community, an idea going back to the Covenant of the League of Nations, Article 16 equating international security and collective security. The complete failure of that conception, the non-enforcement of the Covenant and absence of solidarity in face of aggression made the Second World War possible.

Nowadays, general or universal international security is based on the Charter of the United Nations, in which peace is always linked with security. In all the articles relating to peace, in particular Articles 1, 11, 12, 24, 33, 34, 39 and 42, the two words 'peace' and 'security' are found together. There is never any mention of peace without security or vice versa. If there is to be a clear understanding of the concept of international security in contemporary international law, Espiell insists, it must be repeated that peace is not possible without international security, and there can be no international security without peace. From the necessary relationship between peace and security, it follows that, without security, it is impossible to achieve a real international order and, of course, without an international order, peace cannot be attained.[18]

Contemporary understandings of *human security* date back to the early 1990s. The end of the Cold War brought a growing awareness of the multiplication of non-military threats to security on local, regional, national and international levels, and a new conception of security began making its presence felt on the world scene at that time when new paradigms were being sought to explain the international systems and a growing theoretical and practical debate was under way concerning the traditional concepts of security that had driven the actions of countries for much of the twentieth century. It was increasingly recognized that security threat concerns are very diverse in nature and multidimensional in scope and that the traditional concept and approach had to be expanded to encompass new, non-traditional threats, that include political, economic, cultural, educational, social, health, and environmental aspects. The traditional threats to security and the mechanisms for addressing them remained important, but it began to be realized that they could be different in nature from the new threats, concerns, and other challenges to security and from the cooperation mechanisms deemed suitable for addressing them.

As Kofi Annan has recognized, human security is far more than just an absence of violent conflict. It is also a matter of human rights, of good governance, of access to education and to health care and of ensuring that all people have opportunities and choices to fulfil their potential in life. Every step taken in this direction, he has affirmed, is also a step towards reducing poverty, towards achieving economic growth and towards preventing conflict. He has pointed to freedom from want, freedom from fear, and the freedom of future generations to inherit a healthy natural environment as being the interrelated building blocks of human security and, therefore, of national security.[19]

In 1992, the United Nations Security Council expressly recognized that non-military threats to peace called for urgent action. Although the Cold War had come to an end, the same could not be said of any number of threats to humanity resulting from a long list of factors, among them ignorance, climatic change and environmental degradation,

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(18) Espiell, op. cit., pp. 55–57.
(19) Kofi Annan, *Towards a Culture of Peace*, 8 November 2001, cited by Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 33.

disease, discrimination, intolerance, extreme poverty, and the persistence of numerous conflicts of a territorial and ethnic nature.[20]

In 1994, new perspectives for action were established with the publication of the UNDP *Human Development Report*, which focused on seven dimensions of human security: economic security (assured basic income), food security (physical and economic access to food), health security (relative freedom from disease and infection), environmental security (access to sanitary water supply, clean air and a non-degraded land system), personal security (security from physical violence and threats), community security (security of cultural identity) and political security (protection of basic human rights and freedoms).[21]

Since 1994, major efforts have been made to enrich the concept of human security through research and expert meetings, to put human security at the core of the political agenda on both national and regional levels and, most important of all, to engage in innovative action in the field to respond to the needs and concerns of the most vulnerable populations.

There have been two landmark initiatives in this process. The first was the creation of the Human Security Network in 1999.

Through action undertaken by its Social and Human Sciences Sector, UNESCO maintains regular cooperation with the Network through UNESCO representation as observer in the annual meetings, regular exchange of information, contribution to specific projects launched by the Network, in particular in the field of human rights, and participation of Member States belonging to the Network in the actions carried out at the regional and international level.

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(20) Inaugural speech by UNESCO Director-General, Koïchiro Matsuura, 2001, 2nd edn 2005, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*, Proceedings of the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions, Paris, UNESCO, pp. 17–20. See also Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 25.
(21) As presented by Acharya, op. cit., p. 15.

The second landmark initiative has been the work of the Commission on Human Security, co-chaired by Sadako Ogata and Amartya Sen, established in January 2001 through the initiative of the Government of Japan.

The Commission's publication *Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People* proposed the mobilization of a global initiative to place human security at the top of local, national, regional and global agendas addressing the basics of: 'protecting people from violent conflict; protecting people from the proliferation of arms; supporting the human security of people on the move; establishing human security transition funds for post-conflict situations; encouraging fair trade and markets to benefit the poor; providing minimum living standards everywhere; according high priority to universal access to basic health care; developing an efficient and equitable global system for patent rights; empowering all people with universal basic education through much stronger global and national efforts; clarifying the need for a global human identity'.[22]

The Commission on Human Security proposed this definition of human security:

to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfilment. Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms – freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people's strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity.[23]

UNESCO's Social and Human Sciences Sector has worked to promote research and action with a view to promoting human security on the basis of the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions convened by UNESCO in November 2000 on the theme *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*.[24] The approach spelled out in their final recommendations has served as a guiding principle for Social and Human Sciences programmed activities relating to the promotion of human security. The participants pointed out that human security can be considered as:

a paradigm in the making, for ensuring both *a better knowledge* of the rapidly evolving large-scale risks and threats that can a have a major impact on individuals and populations, and *a strengthened mobilization* of the wide array of actors actually involved in participative policy formulation in the various fields it encompasses today.
As such, it is an adequate framework for:
> accelerating the transition from past restrictive notions of security, tending to identify it solely with defence issues, to a much more comprehensive multidimensional concept of security, based on the respect for all human rights and democratic principles;
> contributing to sustainable development and especially to the eradication of extreme poverty, which is a denial of all human rights;
> reinforcing the prevention at the root of different forms of violence, discrimination, conflict and internal strife that are taking a heavy toll, mainly on civilian populations in all regions of the world without exception;
> providing a unifying theme for multilateral action to the benefit of the populations most affected by partial and interrelated insecurities.[25]

Promoting regional approaches

UNESCO was invited to promote regional approaches in order to define the most suitable needs and modalities of action and to promote human security and conflict prevention in each specific regional and cultural context. Indeed, the patent transnational character of many of the threats to human security makes cooperation to find solutions on a regional level essential if tangible results are to be obtained. One need but reflect on the transnational nature of extreme poverty, organized crime, drug trafficking, terrorism, environmental degradation, pollution, migration, money laundering, arms smuggling, trafficking in human beings, migration, displaced persons, guerrilla activities, illegal immigration, the spreading of pandemics, the political exploitation of cultural, religious and ethnic differences, all of which call for the building of a framework for regional

cooperation and the development of binding instruments to find regional responses conceived to be able to grapple with transborder threats to human security.

So it is that since 2000, in line with one of the recommendations of the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions (November 2000), UNESCO has adopted a regional approach to human security by launching a series of research studies and regional/subregional consultations on human security. The regions involved are Africa, in cooperation with the Institute for Security Studies (ISS); the Arab States, in cooperation with the Regional Human Security Center at the Jordan Institute for Diplomacy, and with the League of Arab States; East Asia, in cooperation with the Korean National

(22) This account is taken from Background Document for discussion of Human Security related issues at the College of ADGs, 1 March 2006. (UNESCO internal working document).
(23) *Human Security Now*, 2003, New York, United Nations, p. 4.
(24) UNESCO, op. cit., 2001, 2nd edn 2005.
(25) Ibid., p. 225.

Commission for UNESCO and the Ilmin International Relations Institute of Korea University; Central Asia, in cooperation with the OSCE Academy in Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan); and South-East Asia, in cooperation with ASEAN; Latin America and the Caribbean, in cooperation with FLACSO-Chile; and Eastern and Western Europe in cooperation with the Center for Peace and Human Security at the Institut d'Études Politiques, Paris.

The adoption of regional approaches to the promotion of human security has proved very fruitful to date, as evidenced in the results of the series of regional conferences held with a view to determining human security priorities in different parts of the world and identifying avenues for the promotion of human security.[26]

Box 3: UN-UNESCO-LAS project: Human security in the Arab region

The project, financed by the Government of Japan through the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS), for an amount of US$214,500, aims at helping policy-makers, academics, civil society and the population better understand human security and at improving it through appropriate analysis, policy and strategic cooperation. UNESCO is working with the Human Security Unit at the Office of Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (HSU-OCHA) and the League of Arab States (LAS) which is providing a special Human Security Unit for the project's implementation.

Studies and policy papers will include a document on Human Security in the Arab region, and cover poverty eradication, environment, managing conflict and post-conflict situations, and democracy and human rights, to be discussed at an international conference planned for June 2008. The project follows the publication in Arabic of the *Human Security Now* report of the Commission on Human Security, launched on 25 November 2004 by the LAS in Cairo (Egypt), and the International Conference on Human Security in the Arab States, organized by UNESCO and the Regional Human Security Center at the Jordan Institute for Diplomacy on 14 and 15 March 2005, in Amman (Jordan).

Source: UNESCO Social and Human Sciences Sector

Enhancing the ethical foundations of human security

Human security is a field in which there is a clear need to move from concept to action. Since ethical concerns are always implicit in any action, concern for human security is inseparable from ethical questions about what is right and wrong and from normative questions about what ought to be done. As Shin-wha Lee points out in her work on East Asia: 'From an ethical perspective, human security should be understood in the real contexts of individual situations and should be made operational so that people will consider such security issues as not only an abstract concept but also a basic demand, a human right, and a personal responsibility that is necessary in order to lead a better life'.[27]

UNESCO is the only UN agency with responsibilities for ethics. The foreword to the series of publications on *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks* stresses that what is needed for translating the concept of human security into action is '*a solid ethical foundation*, based on shared values, leading to the commitment to protect human dignity which lies at the very core of human security' and the buttressing of that ethical dimension by '*placing existing and new normative instruments at the service of human security*, in particular by ensuring the full implementation of instruments in relation to the protection of human rights'.

In meeting the challenge of providing a solid ethical foundation for translating the concept of human security into action, existing value systems can be, and are being, appealed to.

Box 4: United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS)

In March 1999, the Government of Japan and the United Nations Secretariat launched the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS), open to all UN agencies, which started its activities under the management of the UN Controller.

The Fund finances projects carried out by organizations in the UN system, and when appropriate, in partnership with non-UN entities, to advance the operational impact of the human security concept.

The UNTFHS places priority on the special needs and vulnerabilities of women and children, focusing on projects that are primarily operational and aiming at:

> Protecting people in conflict situations who are exposed to physical violence, discrimination, exclusion and whose destitute situation derives mostly from inequalities in treatment.

> Supporting and empowering refugees, internally displaced persons, economic migrants and others on the move. Particular attention is given to the socio-economic impact on the displaced and their host communities.

Source: http://ochaonline.un.org/Home/tabid/2097/Default.aspx

For one thing, existing standards for human rights can be, and are being, built upon and developed. For example, Anara Tabyshalieva has pointed out that in Central Asia international organizations and NGOs are using an international normative framework for human rights to ensure more human security on the national and community level.[28]

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(26) Ibid., p. 11.
(27) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 39.
(28) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., pp. 31-32.

In his study of human security in the Arab States, Bechir Chourou voices his belief that reforms needed for achieving human security in the Arab region have to grow out of the conviction that human security is an ethical undertaking. He identifies the values underlying human security as being those of solidarity, tolerance, openness, dialogue, transparency, accountability, justice and equity and emphasizes the many aspects of human security that are deeply rooted in Arab culture and Islam. He goes on to outline a proposal for the ethical and normative frameworks that he believes ought to serve for achieving and sustaining human security in the Arab world and he argues for the adoption of a set of values, some of them universal, and some having been, or needing to be, adopted by Arab culture, as a foundation for defining norms identifying minimal levels of human security, what he calls 'the threshold beyond which a given situation may be considered as critical and jeopardizing human security'. He sees the framework developed by the UN to achieve global human security as being based on a number of universal principles that can be summed up in the right of every individual to live in freedom from want and freedom from fear and he sees Muslim ethics and Arab values regarding the sanctity of life, generosity, altruism, dialogue, equity and tolerance as not being very different from those espoused by other cultures and civilizations. He emphasizes that they do not need to be reinvented, but only put into practice.[29]

Anara Tabyshalieva cites Shirin Ebadi, the 2003 Nobel Peace Prize laureate from the Islamic Republic of Iran, as having pointed to the applicability of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to both East and West and its compatibility with every faith and religion and as having warned that failure to respect human rights undermines humanity.[30] Tabyshalieva further writes of how it is important and increasingly essential for Central Asian countries that share numerous cross-border and regional problems to be able to call upon universal ethical values and normative approaches to human security that transcend borders. In this context, national and external actors help to fine tune the normative and ethical approaches to human security, within security and moral principles.[31]

Providing a solid ethical foundation for human security and buttressing it by normative instruments at the service of human security does, however, present its share of tough challenges. For example, Tabyshalieva describes how the post-Soviet Central Asian countries adopted new constitutions and national laws reflecting an uneasy transition from the communist system to the ethical and normative frameworks for the promotion of human security, market economy and democracy and how the present government and society in Afghanistan face myriad challenges in building the normative, ethical

and educational frameworks for promoting human security.[32] Cited as well may be the series of ethical challenges that have arisen with regard to threats and challenges created and sustained by the developed countries to their own gain in developing states and the human security considerations not figuring in the criteria for admission into the European Union.

> ### Box 5: Millennium Development Goals to be achieved by 2015
>
> In September 2000, at the United Nations Millennium Summit, world leaders agreed to a set of time-bound and measurable goals and targets for combating poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and discrimination against women. Placed at the heart of the global agenda, they are now called the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The Summit's Millennium Declaration also outlined a wide range of commitments in human rights, good governance and democracy.
>
> **Halve extreme poverty and hunger**
> 1.2 billion people still live on less than US$1 a day. But forty-three countries, with more than 60 per cent of the world's people, have already met or are on track to meet the goal of cutting hunger in half by 2015.
>
> **Achieve universal primary education**
> 113 million children do not attend school, but this goal is within reach; India, for example, should have 95 per cent of its children in school by 2005.
>
> **Empower women and promote equality between women and men**
> Two-thirds of the world's illiterates are women, and 80 per cent of its refugees are women and children. Since the 1997 Microcredit Summit, progress has been made in reaching and empowering poor women, nearly 19 million in 2000 alone.
>
> **Reduce under-five mortality by two-thirds**
> 11 million young children die every year, but that number is down from 15 million in 1980.
>
> **Reduce maternal mortality by three-quarters**
> In the developing world, the risk of dying in childbirth is 1 in 48. But virtually all countries now have safe motherhood programmes and are poised for progress.
>
> **Reverse the spread of diseases, especially HIV/AIDS and malaria**
> Killer diseases have erased a generation of development gains. Countries such as Brazil, Senegal, Thailand and Uganda have shown that we can stop HIV in its tracks.
>
> **Ensure environmental sustainability**
> More than 1 billion people still lack access to safe drinking water; however, during the 1990s, nearly 1 billion people gained access to safe water and as many to sanitation.
>
> **Create a global partnership for development, with targets for aid, trade and debt relief**
> Too many developing countries are spending more on debt service than on social services. New aid commitments made in the first half of 2002 alone, though, will reach an additional US$12 billion per year by 2006.
>
> *Source*:
> http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/MDGs-FACTSHEET1.pdf

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(29) Bechir Chourou, 2005, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in the Arab States*, pp. 20–21, 90, 101–03.
(30) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 29, citing UNDP *Human Development Report 2004*, p. 23.
(31) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 37.
(32) Ibid., p. 28.

Responding to interrelated risks and threats

That there are no one-dimensional human problems is all too apparent in the human realities under discussion within these pages. The actual insecurities that plague human lives, the actual precarious circumstances that people face, the actual threats to life, health and welfare that they actually have to cope with necessarily cross disciplinary lines. Just as human rights are indivisible and interdependent, so threats to human security are by nature interrelated and overlap in complex ways. None fits into any neat category or can be considered completely in isolation. They always arise from the complex interaction of a number of circumstances, themselves complex. As Fuentes and Rojas have pointed out, one of the factors contributing to the change in outlook concerning security was precisely the complexity of global problems and their repercussions on millions of people.[33]

This awareness of the complexity and multidimensionality of human problems is reflected in the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, every one of which is concerned with human security.

UNESCO knows that there are no one-dimensional human problems and that human security can be no exception. Of all the specialized agencies of the UN system, UNESCO is the one that has the multifaceted programmes encompassing education, sciences, culture, and communication and information needed to take a multidimensional, transdisciplinary approach to human security and translate it into action. Indeed, one of UNESCO's important assets is its broad array of functions enabling it to operate in numerous modes: at the global level, through normative, policy, advocacy and monitoring work, as well as operational activities at the country, subregional and regional levels. Intersectoral coordination and interdisciplinary thinking are lacking and need to be integrated within the existing activities and any new programmes and activities. All this is reflected in UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007, § 93.

Box 6: Human security in the UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007 (31 C/4)

Strategic Objective 5

Improving human security by better management of the environment and social change

93] Preserving and enhancing human security today demands the formulation of integrated strategies dealing with manifold risks and menaces within UNESCO's spheres of competence. Accordingly, the sciences are called upon to refocus their approaches on acute and major societal needs and to integrate human rights concerns. Complex issues such as climate change, food and water security, poverty, HIV/AIDS and other contagious diseases, biological diversity and the impact of abrupt social transformations demand innovative and interdisciplinary approaches from both the natural and the social and human sciences, also taking into account the role and importance of local and traditional knowledge.

94] UNESCO's five intergovernmental and international scientific programmes are a privileged tool to address those issues from an interdisciplinary point of view through research, training, education, policy advice and awareness-raising.

Promoting a better understanding of natural and social systems

101] While ecological problems have reached global dimensions, potential solutions have become more localized, especially through ecosystem management. The one certain factor is that the rate of change in societal and ecological systems will increase, while the probability of predicting the direction of change is set to decrease. UNESCO's activities focused on ecosystem management will continue to be science-based, but will also integrate local and indigenous knowledge. Ecological monitoring and evaluation activities will increase, providing a link to the critical task of mitigating effects of global climate change.

105] Natural hazards and risks continue to afflict countries and regions worldwide. Given the devastation they cause and the enormous economic and social consequences – especially for poor countries and poor people – UNESCO will promote science-based disaster preparedness and prevention also through environmental and science education. An interdisciplinary programme aimed at enhancing the scientific understanding of natural hazards will be developed, paying particular attention to public information and institutional educational components related to natural hazards and to the mitigation of their adverse effects through the modelling of geo-dynamic space-time processes of the earth. In developing strategies for enhancing human security, UNESCO shall also address the impact of and preparedness for technological and other man-made disasters.

107] UNESCO will continue to give priority to network research on social transformations, that is, different ways in which globalizing forces affect local communities and national societies with diverse historical experiences, economic and social patterns, political institutions and cultures. Such research shall focus, in principle, on the themes recommended by Member States for the second phase of the MOST Programme (2002–2009). Likewise, priority will be given to the follow-up of major UN conferences relating to environment and development, population and development, social development and habitat and to a better articulation of the main parameters of the rapidly evolving human security agenda.

108] Policy advice will be provided on poverty in all its dimensions and specificities, including migration, drugs, urban violence and exclusion, in line with the strategy for the cross-cutting theme on eradication of poverty, especially extreme poverty, and to provide for pertinent extension mechanisms.

Source: Excerpts from UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001254/125434e.pdf

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(33) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 20.

II. Confronting major challenges in education

Achieving Education for All

UNESCO considers education to be a basic human right. Operating at different levels of the formal and non-formal education systems, the Organization endeavours to mobilize both individuals and institutions so that everyone may receive education and appropriate training, especially vulnerable populations and those in difficult circumstances, such as women, children, the elderly, the disabled, minorities and indigenous peoples, refugees, displaced persons and those living in extreme poverty.[34]

There is a strong connection between the goals of human security and those of education. Education is one of the principal means of raising awareness about human rights and thereby of preventing old and new threats posed to human security. It is the keystone of the policies on human security and the main tool to encourage the emergence of knowledge societies. By meeting people's fundamental learning needs, education empowers them.[35] For many people, elementary education is the very first step to security, employment, political participation and the enjoyment of legal rights.[36]

Through education, the battle is fought, not only against ignorance, but also against other forms of insecurity. It helps pacify the everyday violence in relationships between individuals. Investments in education bring significant gains in freedom from fear and want. Education brings about sustainable improvement of living conditions. It teaches people to take better care of their health. It is often the only path to success. Without education, people may have no hope, no dignity and no rights.[37]

Illiteracy is itself a form of insecurity.[38] Major-General Jamil D. Ahsan cites it as a cause of the very low awareness of human rights and dignity in Asia, where most people live below the poverty line and face illiteracy and socio-economic inequalities. He characterizes South Asia as becoming the poorest, most illiterate, most malnourished, least gender-sensitive and most deprived region in the world, where policy-makers are unconcerned about human security, and military spending preempts scarce financial resources urgently needed for the education and health of its people.[39] Anara Tabyshalieva sees illiteracy as leading to human insecurity in her region, whereas people's

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Box 7: United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development

Enabling people to live in an environment of peace and security is fundamental to human dignity and development. Too often fragile processes of sustainable development are undermined by insecurities and conflicts.

These result in significant human tragedies, overwhelming health systems, destroying homes, schools and often whole communities, and leading to increasing numbers of displaced people and refugees.

Education for sustainable development therefore seeks to build skills and values for peace in the minds of humankind, as enshrined in the UNESCO charter.

The goal of the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2014, DESD), for which UNESCO is lead agency, is to integrate the principles, values, and practices of sustainable development into all aspects of education and learning.

This educational effort will encourage changes in behaviour that will create a more sustainable future in terms of environmental integrity, economic viability, and a just society for present and future generations.

The objectives for the DESD are to:
> facilitate networking, linkages, exchange and interaction among stakeholders in ESD;
> foster an increased quality of teaching and learning in education for sustainable development;
> help countries make progress towards and attain the millennium development goals through ESD efforts;
> provide countries with new opportunities to incorporate ESD into education reform efforts.

Recognizing that how sustainable development, and related educational processes are attained will vary from context to context, these objectives will share the key tasks for UNESCO to perform in support of Member States through its role as lead agency of the Decade. UNESCO's leadership role and, in fact, the task of Member States are also defined by the four major thrusts of education for sustainable development:
> improving access to quality basic education;
> reorienting existing education programmes;
> developing public understanding and awareness;
> providing training.

Source: http://www.unesco.org/education/desd

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(34) This chapter is mainly based on contributions by UNESCO Education Sector and IIEP.
(35) On the question of empowerment and human security, see Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., pp. 169–76.
(36) Tabyshalieva op. cit., p. 37.
(37) See UNESCO World Report, 2005, Paris, UNESCO. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001418/141843e.pdf Knowledge societies, human security, human rights and the fight against poverty http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001418/141843e.pdf, pp.139–142.
(38) Commission on Human Security, *Human Security Now*, 2003, as cited in Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 139.
(39) Jamil D. Ahsan, Main challenges facing the promotion of human security in Asia, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*, op. cit., pp. 208, 213.

empowerment through universal basic education could potentially provide them with knowledge and skills for human security. She particularly points to the degree to which illiteracy is greatly limiting the social emancipation of women.[40]

Human development through education is one of the basic requirements for human security. If one accepts that the aim of education is to help people realize their potential so that they are able to play an active role in obtaining what they need for their welfare and for exercising their universally recognized rights, then the link between education and human security is evident.[41] Education provides the values, attitudes and skills required to meet the emerging challenges of contemporary societies and for the full development of the human personality. As Nobel Prize laureate in Economics, Amartya Sen has stressed, with its particular adaptation to its rich vision and perspective, human security stands on the shoulders of human development.[42]

The educational framework is also one of the most important ways of disseminating the concept of human security. Teachers, schools, universities, research centres and training institutions have a particular responsibility to promote awareness of the global and universal nature of human security at all levels of education. For example, human-

security-oriented curricula aimed at teaching about the economic and social forces that to a large extent generate injustice, as well as about how to live in harmony with the natural environment and in a human society, can be introduced at primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

UNESCO aims to create a shared and expanded vision of quality education as a foundation for human security.[43] In his inaugural speech before the international meeting on the topic of *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*, Director-General of UNESCO, Koïchiro Matsuura drew attention to the fact that education is one of the principal keys to human security and any individual, social, economic and sustainable development and to UNESCO's special mandate to encourage everything that could strengthen individual human dignity, self-awareness and personal fulfilment. Education, he affirmed, fulfils its true purpose by allowing people to make their own decisions and take control of their own lives. He reaffirmed the role that a commitment to human security plays in fulfilling the injunctions of UNESCO's Constitution to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among nations through education and in asserting the values of peace, democracy, justice, tolerance and freedom of expression that the Organization has defended from its inception.[44]

Ensuring that the right to education is respected

UNESCO has a major responsibility in ensuring the access of all children to quality education. The objectives of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) include the ensuring that 'children everywhere,

boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling and that girls and boys will have equal access to all levels of education'.

Box 8: The six EFA goals

Six internationally-agreed education goals aim to meet the learning needs of all children, youth and adults by 2015.

Goal 1 – Expand early childhood care and education
Goal 2 – Provide free and compulsory primary education for all
Goal 3 – Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults
Goal 4 – Increase adult literacy by 50 per cent
Goal 5 – Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015
Goal 6 – Improve the quality of education

As the lead agency for the Education for All movement, UNESCO has been mandated to coordinate international efforts to reach these six goals. Governments, development agencies, civil society, non-government organizations and the media are but some of the partners working towards these goals.

Source: http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.php-URL_ID=53844&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

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(40) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., pp. 37–38.
(41) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 170.
(42) Cited by Tabyshalieva, p. 37.
(43) 32 C/5 (2004–2005) § 01012.
(44) Koïchiro Matsuura, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?*, op. cit., pp. 17–19.

An example of the nature of UNESCO commitments in this regard is the Programme for the Education of Children in Need, a worldwide, extrabudgetary programme financed entirely by private funds launched by UNESCO in 1992. It aims at contributing to the defence of children and their rights. Through it, approximately 292 aid projects aiming to relieve the suffering of deprived children have been carried out in eighty-five countries in Asia, Africa, the Arab States, Latin America and Europe. No matter who these children are, whether they are victims of war or child labour, whether they live on the streets, are ill or disabled, this programme aims to restore their sense of dignity and to offer them renewed faith in their future. It successfully continues to build children's capabilities through basic education, works to satisfy their basic needs, especially nutrition and health needs, and to provide concrete responses to problems of exclusion, deprivation, exploitation and violence.

Another example of UNESCO's work is the methodological guidelines and a practical handbook on preventive education for children in difficult circumstances developed by UNESCO and finalized through a network of policy-makers and street-children educators from Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, the Niger and Senegal. UNESCO has also published a CD-ROM on vulnerable children and HIV/AIDS. Within the framework of the programme on Guidance, Counselling and Youth Development targeting sub-Saharan Africa, UNESCO has promoted training in counselling with a view to enhancing mediation and discipline skills amongst school personnel, and activities in peer education and counselling with special focus on HIV/AIDS.

A further example of UNESCO's commitment to education for all the children of the world is the needs assessment carried out and training workshops organized on mediation skills for the integration of Roma children into the Hungarian school system. With UNESCO assistance, an Institute of Mediation in School was established in 2004 by the Minister of Education in Budapest. As a follow-up, a project was launched in order to prevent violence in school in Central Europe, to introduce new educational skills at school as well as mediation or conflict resolution, and to enhance social cohesion and ensure equal opportunities for minorities.

UNESCO's action towards the achievement of the EFA Goals also includes the Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE), whose last initiative – the African-Regional Conference in Support of Global Literacy (September 2007, Bamako, Mali) – resulted in an appeal which is a commitment to 'making non-formal education a reality as a fundamental human right exercised by all and for all'.[45]

Box 9: Child labour, a major obstacle to reaching the MDGs

Recent progress reports on the Millennium Development Goals and Education for All have identified child labour as an obstacle to progress on MDG 2, which seeks to ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015.

The ILO's most recent global report estimates that in the 5–14 age group more than 165 million children are involved in child labour. In secondary education, gross enrolment rates remain low in many regions, in sub-Saharan Africa 30 per cent and in South and West Asia 51 per cent. Of out-of-school children, 82 per cent are in rural areas.

The MDGs Report states that 'High rates of poverty in rural areas limit educational opportunities because of demands for children's labour, low levels of parental education and lack of access to good quality schooling' (*Millennium Development Goals Report*, 2006, p. 7).

'Education for All … requires an inclusive approach that emphasizes the need to reach groups that might not otherwise have access to education and learning' (*EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007*, p. 67). It calls for policies aimed at 'reaching the unreached', including policies to overcome the need for child labour (*EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007*, p. 69).

A crucial target group for inclusive education strategies should be the millions of child labourers worldwide who have never attended school, have dropped out of school or combine school and work. Child labour is a significant part of the multidimensional 'barrier network' which also involves issues of poverty, gender, quality, access, the impact of HIV/AIDS and disability. The 2007 Global Monitoring Report highlighted the need for policies to tackle exclusion, including steps to overcome the need for child labour. Some of the policy options to tackle exclusion listed in the report and particularly relevant in the context of tackling child labour are:

- reducing direct costs of schooling
- creating financial incentives, offsetting household costs, to stimulate demand for schooling
- creating incentives to overcome the need for child labour
- providing non-formal education opportunities for youths and adults who have missed out on formal schooling.

The Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education for All, launched in 2005, is an international partnership which has the objective of contributing to the achievement of EFA goals through the elimination of child labour. Members of the partnership are the ILO, which provides the secretariat for the Task Force, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, the World Bank, Education International and the Global March against Child Labour.

Source: Reaching the Unreached – Our Common Challenge, UNESCO Education Sector

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(45) http://www.adeanet.org/workspace2/documents/dococt2007/BM/Item%207/Bamako%20Literacy%20meetings/General%20report%20Literacy_Bamako_en.pdf

With a view to ensuring high-quality education for both children and adults, a specific initiative for teachers has been elaborated, the Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa (TTISSA) which is one of UNESCO's three high-level initiatives in UNESCO's education programmes. It is a ten-year project aiming to increase the quantity and improve the quality of the teaching force in sub-Saharan Africa. While seventeen countries were chosen as an initial reference group for the 2006–2009 period, all forty-six sub-Saharan African countries will participate progressively in TTISSA by 2015. TTISSA advocates a holistic approach to addressing issues concerning the teaching force in sub-Saharan Africa. A logical framework was developed and four key outputs identified: status and working conditions of teachers improved; teacher management and administration structures improved; appropriate teacher policies developed; and quality and coherence of teacher professional development enhanced.

Towards gender parity and equality

Special emphasis is placed on women's education as women figure among the most vulnerable populations. Being a woman often combines with other factors, such as poverty, remoteness, ethnic minority status, to increase marginalization and reduce the chances of sustainable development. These situations can be so entrenched that measures to offer greater opportunities to women take effect only slowly. In many regions gender roles keep girls away from school and prevent women from seeking learning opportunities as adults.[46]

Women and girls suffer discrimination in many societies, both developing and industrialized. Even in parts of the world where women have comparable, if not equal, access to work and income, they bear in addition much of the burden of household responsibilities. Such discrimination is often structurally embedded, where individual relationships between men and women follow the pattern of prevailing social norms or traditions. In many societies, women bear the major burden of responsibility for food production and child-rearing, they are excluded from family and community decisions which affect them and have little or no access to means of income generation.

Pursuit of gender equality is central to sustainable development where each member of society respects others and plays a role in which they can fulfil their potential. Gender parity in education is part of this and is the first of the Dakar EFA goals – with a target date of 2005. The broader goal of gender equality is a societal goal to which education, along with all other social institutions, must contribute. Gender issues must therefore be mainstreamed throughout educational planning – from infrastructure planning to material development to pedagogical processes. In terms of Education for Sustainable Development specifically, the full and equal engagement of women is crucial, first, to ensuring balanced and relevant Education for Sustainable Development messages and, second, to give the best chance for changed behaviours for sustainable development in the next generation.

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(46) http://portal.unesco.org/education/en/ev.phpURL_ID=27234&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

In the Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, gender equality is seen as both an aim and a precondition of sustainable development. Gender equality in formal education is also the main objective of the UN Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI). All these initiatives emphasize the need for gender-sensitive approaches and materials, and for the integration of gender perspectives into all educational activities.

Obstacles to female education remain a reality in many countries, and prohibit women and girls from fully enjoying the right to education and the associated benefits. For example, in the Arab world guaranteeing the equal access of girls and young girls to education is an objective that remains to be met. Anara Tabyshalieva has pointed to the way in which lack of schooling reinforces the traditional gender and age discrimination deeply rooted in Central Asian societies. She draws attention to how the first signs of this are now becoming apparent as a consequence of the severe budget cuts made in the educational sector in post-Soviet Central Asia. She also notes that data from the region confirm that when advances in education and the empowerment of women have been made, they have brought about a decline in both the children's mortality rate and the adult fertility rate.[47]

UNESCO actively promotes gender parity and equality within formal education systems at all levels and through literacy and non-formal educational programmes. The Social and Human Sciences programme for gender equality and development (GED) contributes to the promotion of women's rights and gender equality. Its action in the area of girls' education and gender issues strongly supports the idea that the education of girls cannot be dissociated from the education of women.

UNESCO is promoting basic education for girls, with a special emphasis on marginalized and disadvantaged girls. It places particular accent on the issue of their transition between primary and early secondary education. In Zambia, UNESCO supports a programme aiming at increasing promotion from primary to secondary school of young girls living in difficult circumstances in areas with a high prevalence of poverty, prostitution and HIV/AIDS. In Burkina Faso, China, Mozambique and the Niger, UNESCO has focused on strengthening capacities of girls and women for their empowerment in poor rural areas. In the Niger, UNESCO is coordinating a project called 'Fight against poverty: capacity building of girls and women in rural areas'. It targets poverty through education and the promotion of human rights. Over 2,500 people, most of them girls and women, are to benefit from this project, which is being launched in six villages south of the capital, Niamey. To accelerate the achievement of gender parity and equality in education, the issue of gender violence has been tackled in the regional action plan for the ECOWAS countries within the framework of UNGEI.

In accordance with the resolution adopted by the UNESCO General Conference at its 33rd session and the resolution of the Heads of State at the Khartoum Summit in January 2006, the Director-General of UNESCO and Professor Joseph Paré, Minister of Secondary Education, Higher Education and Scientific Research and Chair of the Burkina Faso National Commission for UNESCO, signed an agreement establishing the International Centre for Girls' and Women's Education in Africa (CIEFFA), in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso), in April 2006. CIEFFA, a UNESCO category 2 centre under the auspices of the African Union, aims to coordinate actions promoting the education of girls and women, to promote gender mainstreaming in development policies and programmes and to build the operational capacities of various countries in the field of girls' and women's education.

Box 11: **EFA's 5ᵗʰ goal progress**		
EFA Goal 5: Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015		
Commitment	**Encouraging**	**Worrying**
Gender	- About two-thirds of countries have achieved parity in primary education. - 94 girls per 100 boys are now enrolled in primary education, compared with 92 in 1999.	- The 2005 target date for primary and secondary parity was missed. - Disparities at the expense of girls remain significant at primary level in many countries, often those with the lowest enrolment ratios. - Only one-third of countries have achieved parity in secondary education. - Gender equality is still an issue.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report, Strong foundations – Early childhood care and education, 2007, UNESCO, p. 191.		

(47) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., pp. 37–38.

Mainstreaming human rights education

The promotion of human security looks to human rights education as a foundation for the teaching of principles and values conducive to human security. Education systems are well-positioned to play a fundamental role in fostering the active listening, critical thinking, creative problem solving, cooperation, the development of attitudes of tolerance, equality and non-discrimination understanding, self-respect and respect for others that promote human rights and, therefore, human security.

UNESCO was assigned a key role in the development, implementation and evaluation of the projects foreseen during the UN Decade for Human Rights Education (1995–2004). Through its National Commissions, UNESCO gave support to the development of national plans of action on human rights education, provided human rights education, training, information, fellowships and advisory services programmes, and developed model human rights curricula, teaching techniques and materials for use in primary and secondary schools.

Officially proclaimed by the UN General Assembly on 10 December 2004, the World Programme for Human Rights Education, for which UNESCO is the coordinating agency with the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), focuses on integrating human rights principles and values of non-violence, non-discrimination, tolerance, mutual understanding and respect into school systems. UNESCO is engaged in policy dialogue with Member States and other partners to follow up on the implementation of the World Programme's Plan of Action, mobilize resources, support actions at country level and undertake advocacy initiatives. As a contribution to the World Programme, UNESCO has worked closely with UNICEF since 2005 in the development of a framework for a human rights-based approach to and within education. This project aims to develop a policy and programme framework and to facilitate the constitution of a network of development partners who will take the framework forward at global, regional and country levels in terms of advocacy campaigns, policy dialogues and development interventions.

UNESCO promotes a rights-based approach to education and underlines the importance of human rights education as a major factor that contributes to social cohesion and conflict prevention by supporting social and emotional development. In cooperation with UNICEF, UNESCO has elaborated 'A Human Rights-Based Approach to Education for All: a framework for the realization of children's right to education and rights within education'. This approach aims at assuring every child a quality education that respects and promotes her/his right to dignity and optimum development and focuses on the right of access to education; the right to quality education; and the right to respect within

the learning environment. The forewords to the UNESCO series of publications on *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks* stress that in translating the concept of human security into action it is

necessary to strengthen the education and training component by lending improved articulation and enhanced coherency to all the ongoing endeavours, focusing on issues such as education for peace and sustainable development, human rights training and the expansion of the democratic agenda to include human security issues.

Through a rights-based framework, UNESCO promotes a multifaceted approach that includes consideration of how we learn to adapt to the newly emerging risks and threats of the twenty-first century for our welfare and security, and possibly our very survival. UNESCO's strategies and action in the field of human rights education are based on a comprehensive approach recognizing the indivisibility and interdependence of all rights: civil, political, economic, social and cultural.

Through its expertise in the fields of education, UNESCO works to identify specific tools to promote human security, for example, the development of curricula for inculcating the knowledge and practice of human rights principles and values such as tolerance, civic duties and obligations, and rejection of extremism and xenophobia. It aims to engage governments to integrate human rights principles and values into the school curricula including non-violence, non-discrimination, tolerance, mutual understanding and respect. It recognizes the need to improve human rights education at the primary levels focusing on the most vulnerable populations, among them, young girls, women, and child soldiers. In the Latin America and the Caribbean region, it has sponsored a series of educational initiatives that particularly include human rights training for specific groups, such as army, security force and police representatives.[48]

Fostering education for peace

Contributing to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education is one of UNESCO's main objectives as set out in its Constitution. The Organization was established on the basis of the principle that the 'education of humanity for justice and liberty and peace is indispensable to the dignity of man'. For UNESCO's education programme, this has meant the promotion of education through which people learn to live together in harmony and display tolerance towards one another with respect for human life and human rights.[49]

Focusing on understanding, respect for diversity, building solidarity between people, empathy, tolerance, non-violence, conflict mediation and resolution, sustainable development, intercultural understanding, respect for linguistic and cultural diversity, the right to education, a sense of human dignity and human responsibility, UNESCO's work on education for peace is inseparable from human rights education and is rooted in its values and principles.

As the demands and challenges of achieving peace through mutual understanding become more complex, new and more integrative approaches to education, including the development of textbooks and learning materials, are urgently needed. In response, UNESCO continues to work to develop new strategies and guidelines to help regions and countries shape educational policies and practices that encourage and provide the necessary tools for building mutual understanding and respect among all peoples of the world. *The Guidelines on Intercultural Education* (available in English, French and Spanish) have been developed to help understand the key issues and challenges concerning this area, and present the fundamental guiding principles for an intercultural approach to

education as viewed by UNESCO. Intended to serve as a practical resource to guide future pedagogical activities and policy-making, the guidelines include standard-setting instruments and the outcomes of numerous conferences. In the Latin American and Caribbean region, UNESCO organized a seminar on peace education as well as a competition on educational research regarding issues such as peace education, non-violence, peaceful coexistence, and culture of peace with the participation of eighteen countries. The competition included a seminar to share best experiences and support the elaboration of educational policies.

The UNESCO-UNHCR Inter-Agency Peace Education Programme was set up to upgrade existing peace and human rights instructional materials for primary and adult education for countries in conflict situations. Peace education materials were revised, expanded and upgraded, making them relevant to more general formal and non-formal educational contexts beyond the original conflict and post-conflict contexts. The materials focus on the development of basic skills and values in conflict prevention and minimization. Combined with an application in human rights, citizenship and health education they constitute a unique resource for use with resource-poor and conflict-affected populations, including refugee, internal displacement, reconstruction and conflict prevention scenarios. The materials were field-tested in ongoing education programmes conducted by UNESCO, UNHCR, UNICEF and NGOs in Pakistan, southern Sudan, Somalia, Eritrea, Sierra Leone and Liberia and about 1,000 teachers were trained. In Nepal, UNESCO engages in a project on peace and human rights education at primary education level.

(48) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 34.
(49) 32 C/5 (2004–2005) § 01012.

Established in 1980, the aim of the UNESCO Prize for Peace Education is to promote all forms of action designed to 'construct the defences of peace in the minds of men', by rewarding a particularly outstanding example of activity designed to alert public opinion and mobilize the conscience of humanity in the cause of peace, in accordance with the spirit of UNESCO's Constitution and the United Nations Charter.

Member States and Associate Members of UNESCO, non-governmental and intergovernmental organizations maintaining formal consultative relations with the Organization and active in a field covered by the Prize, eminent persons qualified in the opinion of the Director-General, in addition to any persons and civil society organizations working in the perspective of the thinking and culture of peace in the world and considered suitable, may submit nominations of an individual, a group of individuals or an organization whose activities are considered to merit this distinction.

The prizewinner, who shall be selected without regard to nationality, religion, race, gender or age, shall have achieved outstanding and internationally recognized action carried out in accordance with the spirit of UNESCO and the United Nations Charter, extending over several years and confirmed by international public opinion, in the fields of: the mobilization of consciences in the cause of peace; the implementation, at international or regional level, of programmes of activity designed to strengthen peace education by enlisting the support of public opinion; the launching of important activities contributing to the strengthening of peace; educational action to promote human rights and international understanding; the alerting of public opinion to the problems of peace through the media and other effective channels; any other activity recognized as essential to constructing the defences of peace in people's minds.

Source: http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.php URL_ID=2126&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

The Asia-Pacific Regional Human Security and Peace Network of University Educators is a forum for the exchange of ideas, the expansion of the integration of human security and peace activities into a wide range of subjects in the university curriculum and the continual development of curriculum with integrated human security and peace promotion components. The Strengthening and Expanding Regional Human Security and Peace project aims to integrate Human Security and Peace activities into University Curricula to ensure that reflections on human security and peaceful living among students of the region Asia and the Pacific are sustained in the long term. UNESCO Bangkok and the UNICEF Thailand Country Office co-sponsored a workshop on 1 March 2006 on Education for Peacebuilding in Southern Thailand: Reflections on Human Security. Attending were Thai

academics, government officials, diplomats, National Reconciliation Commission (NRC) members and representatives of teachers' organizations, student groups and civil society organizations who made a number of practical, concrete suggestions.

In response to a growing international demand for programmes to teach peace education, UNESCO has set up a Peace Education Data Base, a worldwide, coordinated effort to collect, codify, share, and then adapt resources on a regional or country-by-country basis. It includes peace education materials and resources in the areas of human rights, violence prevention and non-violent conflict resolution, social and economic justice, ecology, environment, health, cultural and ethnic differences and the teaching of peace.

Peace and human security is a major focus in Asia and the Pacific. Traditionally, the countries of the region tend to emphasize national security, i.e. freedom from fear is freedom from military threat. Secondly, to be free from want, they aim for rapid economic development backed by attempts to create a basic safety net to satisfy the basic needs of the poor. In some Eastern Asian countries, such as Japan, there have been several official expressions of the concept of human security, but general academic research and policy actions regarding the human security approach are still insufficient, and there are significant imbalances among countries in this region. UNESCO Beijing has been focusing on migration and urban development, and developing an index for measuring human security.

UNESCO Bangkok is coordinating the regional project United for Peace and Human Security in Asia and the Pacific, which is developing, testing and sharing curricula and materials in various countries of the region. This project was launched with a week-long regional training session in March 2007 in Thailand, and pilot projects are running in countries across the Asia-Pacific region including China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, the Solomon Islands, Thailand and Uzbekistan. More countries have been invited and the next meeting will be held in April 2008.

Source: http://www.unescobkk.org/ http://www.unescobkk.org/index.php?id=energyethics

Contending with violence in schools

The increasing violence in schools is one of the greatest educational challenges of our times. It constitutes a major obstacle to the creation of safe, secure and supportive schools that provide quality education for all and so to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and the EFA goals of ensuring the right to education for all the children of the world. However, while schools may be breeding grounds for violence, they are also the solution to the problem. Through school reform and through introducing policies and curricula that promote non-violent responses, contexts of violence can be turned around.

In 2002, within the framework of the Programme on Human Rights Education focusing on primary and secondary school systems, UNESCO initiated a project on 'Mediation in School' aimed at providing training for social workers, local mediators, educators and teachers on educational methods (mediation) for the prevention and the resolution of conflicts at school. As a follow-up to the United Nations Secretary-General's *Study on Violence against Children*, a round table on school-related gender-based violence was organized. An Expert Meeting on 'Stopping Violence in Schools: What Works?' was organized in June 2007 with the objectives of strengthening the integration of violence prevention strategies in schools into policy and practice and of exploring solutions to a number of key challenges relating to violence against children, such as gender-based violence, school bullying, corporal punishment and gang violence.

Although violence in schools is an enormous problem around the world, it simply does not exist statistically. The problem partly lies in apparently minor, but repetitive, everyday acts of violence. It is these acts, difficult to document but very important, that lead to the most frequent consequences of this sort of violence in schools, such as drop-outs, school phobia, bullying, depression, suicide, and lack of self-confidence among students. The lack of official data and statistics is a major issue and a clear and reliable database needs to be established in close cooperation with researchers worldwide, as well as teachers, parents and students, in order to gather and disseminate scientific research.

All the participants agreed that violence in schools is an international challenge that requires international solutions. Teaching communication skills, providing tools for students to make ethical decisions, establishing a non-violent school atmosphere and eliminating corporal punishment were highlighted as good practices. There was a call for coordinated efforts in research, data collection, awareness-raising and advocacy, as well as for a full commitment to strengthening and enforcing legal and policy mechanisms that protect the rights of children. In addition, the participation of children and young people, and the role of civil society and the media in helping schools reduce violence, were emphasized.

To raise awareness and understanding of the extent to which those involved in education, whether students, teaching staff, trade unionists, administrators or officials, are facing violent political and military attacks, and to suggest paths of action to address the problem, UNESCO commissioned *Education under Attack: A global study on targeted political and military violence against education staff, students, teachers, union and government officials, and institutions*. Countries with the highest number of attacks on education targets in recent years include Afghanistan, Colombia, Iraq, Myanmar, Nepal and Thailand. The study found a rise in the number of reported targeted attacks such as the bombing, assassination, abduction, illegal detention and torture of staff, students, education officials and trade unionists, the bombing and burning of educational buildings, and the closure of institutions by force. It studied the types of attacks and the motives for them, which vary between conflicts and within conflicts and can be multilayered with links to culture and/or politics. In the countries affected most the impact of violent attacks on education provision is devastating. The report presents a number of recommendations including the importance of creating child-friendly inclusive schools that are sensitive to local culture and language and teach and operate within an ethos of peace and tolerance.

The report proceeds to present a number of recommendations arising from its findings and analysis, including the following:
> If the international community is serious about attempts to achieve Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals on education, it needs to focus attention urgently on the impact of violent attacks on education and press for an end to impunity for such attacks.
> Current international monitoring of incidents is limited and the report recommends the establishment of a publicly accessible global database to facilitate the examination of trends in the scale, nature and targeting of attacks, and qualitative research into the underlying motives.
> There is an urgent need to widen the application of human rights instruments to violations regarding students, teachers, academics, and education trade unionists and officials, and for governments and intergovernmental bodies to set conditions of adherence to the instruments when negotiating trade or aid packages with offending parties. These conditions should include an end to impunity for attacks on educational staff and institutions, including *inter alia* the illegal detention, torture or assassination of trade unionists.
> Recent international efforts to press for action on the issue of recruitment of child soldiers should be extended to attacks on schools, universities and education offices, and

the protection of the educational process, with the aim of making schools and universities safe sanctuaries, free from military and political violence.

> Greater resources should be given to the International Criminal Court to bring more education-related cases to trial to widen the Court's deterrent effect.

> Action should be taken urgently to encourage the removal of education as a factor contributing to conflicts and to make it part of the solution. This means creating child-friendly inclusive schools that are sensitive to local culture and language, and that teach and operate within an ethos of peace and tolerance. It also means pressing for transparency and an end to political and sectarian interference in the running of universities and a commitment to academic freedom and autonomy.

The report concludes by acknowledging that there has been a noticeable increase in targeted attacks on education staff, students and institutions in a number of countries and that this constitutes a highly damaging assault on the provision and availability of education in the countries most affected.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, UNESCO's contribution has been directly developed within the framework of activities linked to peace education. In El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua, workshops to strengthen the capacities of heads of schools with regard to leadership and prevention of violence in schools and communities have been organized. OREALC also organized a training seminar in the context of the construction of peaceful coexistence and the development of a culture of peace in schools in Cartagena de Indias in November 2006 with the participation of seventeen countries from the region.

As a member of the Inter-Agency Group on Violence against Children, UNESCO participated in the preparation of the United Nations Secretary-General's *Study on Violence against Children (UNSGS)* with an analysis of violence in education and corporal punishment in schools and produced a publication entitled *Eliminating Corporal Punishment – a Human Right Imperative*. According to the

study, 300 million children are victims worldwide of various forms of violence in schools, families, communities and institutions, and violence in schools was identified as a major obstacle.

UNESCO has played an active role in the East Asia and Pacific Regional Steering Committee on Violence against Children. UNESCO Bangkok hosted the regional launch of UNSGS, organized by the Steering Committee, and UNESCO Asia-Pacific Regional Bureau for Education contributed to the follow-up by developing a guide for teachers on positive discipline in the classroom as part of *Embracing Diversity: A Toolkit for Creating Inclusive, Learning-Friendly Environment* (ILFE Toolkit). The guide focuses on abolishing corporal punishment in schools and educational settings by using positive discipline and proposing concrete alternatives and promotes inclusive, learning-friendly schools and classrooms. Students who actively and enjoyably participate in classroom learning have fewer disciplinary problem. Absenteeism, drop out levels and lack of motivation may be partly attributable to bullying, corporal punishment, sexual abuse or attack, and other forms of violence in the school.

In Southern Thailand, UNESCO started a project in August 2007 in order to train jurists on human rights education. Building capacities among lawyers and judges will contribute to handle violence in particular against children. Follow-up training will include teachers, headmasters, etc. The second part of a project carried out by UNESCO in Viet Nam, and aiming at training journalists on human rights education, started in June 2007. Capacities will be strengthened, in particular as concerns how to report on human rights violence against children. Other interventions are taking place, for instance, in Nepal, where UNESCO is undertaking a project on peace and human rights education at the primary school level. The objective is to empower children to report violations, as well as to train teachers to use positive discipline methods.

Responding to HIV/AIDS

Health is an essential element in human security. The 2003 report of the Commission on Human Security proposed four criteria for establishing a link between human security and health: (1) the burden represented by disease now and in the future; (2) the urgency with which measures are adopted; (3) the extent and degree of the impact on society; (4) interdependence or 'external causes' that may produce a chain reaction spreading beyond the persons or locations immediately affected.[50]

The overriding world health concern remains the HIV pandemic, which is a major threat to human security, social stability and the sustainable development of societies. The effects of the HIV/AIDS pandemic include a decline in life expectancy, child-headed households, loss of skilled workers, weaker agricultural sectors, and a dramatic reduction in living standards.

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(50) See Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., pp. 114–15.

Education is instrumental for reaching key populations at risk with appropriate services and for creating the conditions of the effective use of such services by those who need them the most. UNESCO's global response to HIV/AIDS gives priority to fulfilling UNESCO's responsibilities under the UNAIDS division of labour,[51] including leading HIV prevention and the impact of HIV/AIDS among teachers, educators, learners and within education systems at large and the 2007–2010 UNAIDS Strategic Framework for support to countries in their efforts to move towards universal access to HIV prevention, treatment, care and support.

In March 2004, UNESCO launched the Global Initiative on Education and HIV & AIDS (EDUCAIDS), a multicountry inter-agency initiative to support the implementation of comprehensive national education sector responses to HIV/AIDS.[52] Operating in about 34 countries, the focus is on the impact of HIV/AIDS and prevention of the spread of HIV through comprehensive educational responses and secure and protective learning environments. The 6th meeting of the High-Level Group on Education for All held in Cairo (2006) reaffirmed the 'central role of education in enabling individuals, communities and nations to respond effectively to the challenges of HIV/AIDS, and in enabling learners to protect themselves and others from HIV'.[53]

UNESCO also coordinated the Education Sector Global HIV & AIDS Readiness Survey (GRS) by the UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team (2004), reviewing education sectors in

seventy-one countries. The Organization has a key role in the FRESH inter-agency initiative which aims at making schools healthier for children. The FRESH school health toolkit proposes a framework for designing and implementing effective school health programmes, with HIV/AIDS being a key component. Other activities have included the organization of a consultation in Kenya on ways to support the needs of teachers living with HIV in Eastern and Southern Africa and activities addressing the needs of key populations particularly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS including a joint publication with UNHCR in 2007 *Educational Responses to HIV and AIDS for Refugees and*

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(51) http://data.unaids.org/una-docs/JC1146-Division_of_labour.pdf
(52) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001473/147360E.pdf
(53) http://www.unesco.org/education/HLG2006/Communique22Nov.pdf

Box 17: EDUCAIDS, the Global Initiative on Education and HIV & AIDS

Led by UNESCO, which brings to the table the strengths of all its sectors, EDUCAIDS is a partnership to assist countries to put into place and implement a comprehensive education sector response: one that uses all educational modalities (formal, non-formal and informal) and all elements and components of an education system to address the epidemic in an effective and efficient way.

As part of a broader effort organized by UNAIDS to move towards Universal Access to prevention, care, treatment and support, EDUCAIDS has two primary aims: to prevent the spread of HIV through education and to protect the core functions of the education system from the worst effects of the epidemic.

Its aims are promoted through greater collaboration among UNAIDS Cosponsors, working closely with national authorities, ministries of education and other key education sector stakeholders, other ministries and sectors, and including bilateral agencies and civil society groups at the country level, such as the UN Theme Groups on HIV/AIDS and the Joint Country Teams on AIDS.

Central to the EDUCAIDS approach is the implementation of a broad partnership strategy, within the UNAIDS framework, to link closely to EFA, the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI), the MDGs, the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD), the Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa (TTISSA), the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD), the UNAIDS IATT on Education, and other relevant efforts.

Through collaboration and consultation with EDUCAIDS partners, UNESCO is also supporting the development and dissemination of practical implementation support tools that provide guidance on the technical and operation aspects of a comprehensive approach.

Source: EDUCAIDS – Towards a Comprehensive Education Sector Response – A framework for action, UNESCO, 2006

Internally Displaced Persons: Discussion paper for decision-makers; and an interregional EU funded programme (2002–2006) that addressed marginalized youth exposed to drug misuse and HIV/AIDS through non-formal education in ten countries throughout South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean. The programme developed comprehensive community-based strategies based on a holistic, rights-based approach to human security and community development, imparting life skills to youths and offering access to multiple education, health and socio-economic services geared towards their empowerment and the improvement of their living conditions.

In addition, a joint ILO/UNESCO programme entitled Workplace Policies on HIV/AIDS for Education Sector was initiated in 2005 to support Member States in the adaptation and/or development of HIV/AIDS-specific workplace policies for the Education Sector in order to ensure supportive and safe learning environments that meet the needs of students and educators. Workplace policies have been developed and agreed to for the Southern Africa and the Caribbean regions.

Within the framework of the programme on Guidance, Counselling and Youth Development targeting sub-Saharan Africa, UNESCO has supported training in guidance and counselling in order to enhance learner-friendly school mediation and discipline skills among school personnel and activities in peer education and counselling with special focus on HIV/AIDS. Youth Fora were organized in Botswana, Malawi, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe for

the most vulnerable children, in particular those affected by HIV/AIDS. They bring together government officials and these children to give them an opportunity to influence policy and capacity-building processes and programmes targeted to assist them. Through participatory and empowering methods, the children learn about their rights and related legislation, where to find assistance, HIV/AIDS prevention, and basic enterprising and peer counselling skills. A computer-based training package relating to this initiative has been produced.

In partnership with UNAIDS, UNESCO is addressing the issue of HIV/AIDS among children in difficult circumstances through actions aimed at reducing their vulnerability. Methodological guidelines and a practical handbook on the contents of preventive education for these children have been prepared through a network set up amongst policy-makers and street children educators from Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, the Niger and Senegal. UNESCO also published a CD-ROM on vulnerable children and HIV/AIDS. It contains data on HIV/AIDS, publications and documents, and interactive stories as well as photographs of children who are directly affected by the pandemic that threatens the future of Africa's youth.

III. Living in security, living in diversity

New links between culture and human security are being seen and acknowledged. The essential role that culture plays in serving as a basis of a people's identity and aspirations, in laying down foundations for its survival, livelihood and dignity, in acting as a driving force for human creativity, is increasingly being seen as having profound implications for ensuring human security. For, as affirmed in the *Arab Human Development Report 2002* (UNDP), 'human well-being is not limited to material dimensions but extends to the individual's moral participation in society and to all aspects of a decent life, such as beauty, human dignity and self-fulfilment'.[54]

Viewing cultural phenomena in terms of human security makes of culture an investment in the common good based on the optimistic conviction that cultural diversity is not a factor of conflict and division, but reveals the profound unity of humanity. From this perspective, the cultivation of a world environment that protects and preserves the creativity of individuals and peoples in its rich diversity becomes a contribution to peace and human security and the cultivation of the role of traditional cultural leaders like artists, writers, and religious leaders becomes a determinant factor in the creation of an environment favourable to peace and security.

Seeing international security as inseparable from the evolution of intercultural relations involves reinterpreting economic, social, technological and political realities from the angle of human aspirations and cultural expression. For instance, awareness of the interplay between cultural diversity and political stability casts the importance of intercultural relations in constructing durable peace in a new light that reinforces the conviction that cultural responses can figure among the possible solutions to threats presently weighing on human security. This justifies according culture in all its rich diversity an important place on national and international political agendas.

Protecting and promoting the diversity of cultural expressions

This new sense of the role that culture may play in contributing to human security calls for a redefinition of the type of action and strategies to put into effect to ensure human security and finds reflection in the nature of UNESCO's strategies and programmes in the field of culture.

UNESCO focuses its action on the protection of cultural diversity. It considers promoting the role that cultural diversity and intercultural dialogue play in preserving peace and social cohesion within each country and throughout the world to be among its primary objectives. Instead of seeing internal diversity as a threat to national and social unity, UNESCO seeks out an alternative path, a path for which respect for cultural diversity is a key factor in harmonious coexistence, for which no culture is monolithic, no culture homogenous, for which all cultures are made up of give and take and for which ruptures or dissidence can prove to be a source creativity. By turning the spotlight on cultural diversity and intercultural dialogue UNESCO confronts the dual challenge of, on the one hand, ensuring the harmonious interaction and will to live together of people and groups with multiple, varied and dynamic cultural identities, and on the other hand, of defending creative diversity, the multiplicity of forms in which cultures reveal themselves in space and time.

When respect for cultural diversity is not promoted, cultivated, achieved and safeguarded, social exclusion, inequalities, racism and discrimination of every kind, marginalization and socio-economic underdevelopment of minority populations, social divisiveness, conflicts, wars are bound to result. For example, many of the political conflicts in Africa are orchestrated by intellectuals with a political agenda and fuelled by the manipulation of people's ethnic allegiances. The status and position of ethnic minorities is made far more complex there by the interplay of a number of factors such as great ethnic diversity, the political exploitation of the ethnic otherness/differentiation by members of the elite, the political exclusion of large ethnic groups, traditional economic or social interaction among neighbouring ethnic groups that often forms the basis of political rivalries or alliances, reluctance to admit ethno-political issues inherited from the colonial past, violations of the rights of minorities, such as a failure to ensure equitable access to natural resources, desires for homogeneity of a 'national' community linked to the nation-state building processes, claims to self-determination and territoriality issues. In recent years, the Sudan, Burundi, Rwanda, Ethiopia, Eritrea, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Uganda, the Great Lakes Region and Côte d'Ivoire have all undergone violent conflicts that have cost numerous lives and have had an immensely destructive impact on the social and cultural environment that UNESCO contributed to creating and consolidating, during the 1960s in particular.

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(54) *Arab Human Development Report 2002: Deepening Democracy in a Fragmented World*, New York, United Nations Development Programme, p. 15, cited by Chourou, op. cit., p. 69.

In contrast, UNESCO activities focus on promoting reciprocal knowledge and understanding among cultures. Because human security is about placing people at the heart of policy concerning security and stability, two of these activities are of particular interest: the Culture of Peace and the Dialogue among Cultures and Civilizations. The former aims to promote values, attitudes and behaviours in people so that they will seek peaceful solutions to problems and is based on respect for human rights, democracy and tolerance. The Dialogue among Cultures and Civilizations helps to bridge the gap in knowledge about other civilizations, cultures and societies – unveiling the ignorance of the Other thus laying the foundations for dialogue based on universally shared values that aim to promote dialogue in the service of peace thereby building 'peace in the minds of men'. UNESCO does not work in a vacuum in its endeavour to promote human security.

One of the main goals of the Great Volga River Route Project that UNESCO launched in 2004 is to foster intercultural dialogue among young people of different countries and to involve young people in the promotion of World Heritage, biosphere and sustainable development. The project joins schools from Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Georgia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, the Russian Federation, Sweden, Turkey and Ukraine and thus links the Baltic, Black and Caspian Seas.

The Decade for the Inclusion of Roma Population (2005–2015) aims to improve the social and economic status of the 7–9 million Roma in Central and East Europe. The governments of Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, TFYR Macedonia, Montenegro, Romania, Serbia and Slovakia have signed the Decade declaration pledging to implement national plans with special attention to anti-bias education, tolerance teaching and training of school mediators. The issues involve the protection of minorities, touching upon education and linguistic rights, as well as in matters of political participation.

Based on surveys carried out in Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Peru and Mexico, books on violence in schools and conflict resolution, teaching methods to deal with cultural diversity, stereotypes and discrimination, including discrimination against indigenous people, have been published.

The many threats to indigenous peoples are a matter of great concern to UNESCO. Indigenous peoples number some 350 million individuals in more than seventy countries in the world and represent more than 5,000 languages and cultures. Today many of them live on the fringes of society and are deprived of

Box 18: Conflict prevention through intercultural dialogue

Cultural identity can, in certain cases, become a key factor in violence and conflicts against a background of socio-economic, political, and demographic tension between groups or countries. On the other hand, the sharing of cultural heritage (music, dances, religion, etc.) can serve as a solid basis on which to build peace and reconciliation. UNESCO is involved in several projects aimed at identifying obstacles to intercultural dialogue and enhancing the capacities of communities, local cultural actors, and policy-makers to establish common values and prevent the escalation of identity-related conflicts using various resources ranging from performing arts to cultural diplomacy.

In Western Africa, for example, UNESCO trains local actors in using theatre, music and other cultural resources for conflict prevention, mediation and resolution. Following a workshop on tools and methodology to prevent conflict through intercultural dialogue (Ouagadougou, 30–31 October 2005), a dozen projects were implemented in Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Congo, DR Congo, Guinea, the Niger and Togo. A particularly successful application was the use of theatre to stage underlying tensions between communities. The caricature representation of prejudices can have a cathartic effect on the public and has great potential as instrument for reconciliation and peace among communities with a history of conflict.

In Asia, the UNESCO Children's Performing Arts Festival of East Asia (CPAF) each year brings children together from China, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Japan, Mongolia and the Republic of Korea to share their different modes of cultural expression in order to enhance mutual understanding and respect. It is the sole international venue where children from both Koreas share the same stage and perform together, confirming the strong power of music and non-verbal communication as a vector for intercultural dialogue. The long-term objective of this project is to foster dialogue and a culture of peace among children from an early age so as to lay the basis for tolerance and understanding among the countries of East Asia.

Source: http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=11679&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

basic human rights, including cultural rights. Indigenous peoples hold a significant place in the planet's cultural landscape and are an integral facet of cultural diversity. Many indigenous groups retain intimate ties to their natural resource bases, and maintain unique knowledge systems through this relationship. These can provide alternative perspectives on environmental, social and ethical issues, which are of crucial importance when considering sustainable development at local and global levels.

The International Decade of the World's Indigenous People was officially launched on 10 December 1994 by the UN General Assembly. It is in this framework that the International Day of the World's Indigenous Peoples is celebrated every year on 9 August, the anniversary of the opening of the first session of the Working Group on Indigenous Populations in 1982. In partnership with the UN and its other agencies, UNESCO plays a key role in the Decade which is intended to 'strengthen international cooperation for the solution of problems faced by indigenous people in such areas as human rights, the environment, development, education and health'. In this respect, the programme of activities recognizes the value and diversity of the cultures of indigenous communities and of their specific forms of social organization, and attaches value to the contributions that they can make to humanity.

UNESCO is willing to take account of proposals made by indigenous peoples in order to draw up specific programmes of action that conciliate promotion of their cultural identity and accession to full and complete citizenship in the Member States. In this respect the project to constitute within the UN system a permanent authority on behalf of indigenous peoples is a vital step forward that will ensure them a better hearing, besides promoting their interests.[55]

Encouraging interreligious dialogue

Religion has a special link with human rights, specifically with the right to express one's convictions and beliefs, or the right of not believing. UNESCO activities promote reciprocal knowledge and understanding among religions. They stress the cultivation of the kind of genuine mutual respect and recognition that genuinely bridge religious divides and reach well beyond mere tolerance. Following an International Survey carried out by UNESCO on intercultural and interreligious dialogue, along with other partners UNESCO has organized workshops and produced manuals and pedagogical tools to promote better understanding among young people from different cultural and confessional backgrounds. For example, an Expert Meeting on Intercultural Education was held in 2006 and UNESCO Guidelines on Intercultural Education were produced.

A project is also being carried out in East Africa by UNESCO in cooperation with the World Conference of Religion for Peace. The aim is to equip interreligious women's associations/organizations to engage in conflict transformation, peacebuilding and sustainable development. For this purpose a training of trainers has been designed for enhancing skills using appropriate tools and pedagogical manuals (handouts and activity guides) already tested in other regions of Africa in conflict (Liberia, Sierra Leone, etc.).

In August 2007, another important initiative was the symposium, Dialogue among endogenous religions, Christianity and Islam in the service of the culture of peace in Africa (Cotonou), organized with the support of the World Islamic Call Society (WICS) and the Government of Benin. The symposium resulted in the Cotonou Declaration, which reiterated, among others, 'the growing role played by religions in the strengthening of ethical values and social cohesion' and strongly reaffirmed the importance of religious education 'in the promotion of interfaith dialogue'.[56]

Within the context of education and for the purpose of strengthening religious and cultural understanding to attain harmony and a peaceful coexistence, UNESCO has established thirteen Chairs on 'comparative studies of religions and their specific culture, interreligious and intercultural dialogue'. Operating through the UNITWIN network, the aim is to build a common programme of research and learning and to facilitate the exchange of teachers and students. These Chairs are also specialized in intercultural and interreligious mediation and in the training of trainers of future teachers. In the area of human rights, seminars on practices in Western and Eastern Europe have been organized as well as a meeting on 'The space of religions in a context of laity and citizenship'.

(55) www.unesco.org/culture/indigenous/; www.un.org/rights/indigenous/mediaadv.html; www.unhchr.ch/html/menu6/2/fs9.htm; http://www.wateryear2003.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=5550&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
(56) http://portal.unesco.org/culture/fr/ev.php-URL_ID=16305&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html; http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001536/153618e.pdf

Preserving the cultural heritage

As world events unfold, we witness the tragic destruction of cultural heritage, which can become a prime target, especially in intra-state conflicts of aggression, misunderstanding and rejection owing to its symbolic value as a reflection of the identity of a given society or community. Indeed, during conflicts instigated by extreme nationalism or ethnocentrism, or perhaps by counter-reactions to globalization, a people's cultural heritage may come under attack and continuity in the practicing of an intangible cultural heritage may be threatened or attacked because of the role it plays as a rallying point acting to consolidate a people's identity.

Of the 851 World Heritage sites, thirty sites on the List of World Heritage in Danger currently face threats from armed conflict and war, environmental degradation, natural disasters, uncontrolled mass tourism and development projects. As an example of cultural entities of a different order that are in danger of disappearing can be cited the threat to cultural diversity apparent in the loss of language diversity or uniformization of languages. It is estimated that over 50 per cent of the world's 6,000 languages are endangered. One language disappears on average every two weeks. As languages disappear, the world views associated with them disappear as well.

UNESCO contributes to the creation of an international environment favourable to peace and security by working to protect natural and cultural, material and immaterial, places representing cultural diversity against any form of attack, degradation, destruction or disappearance. With the assistance of many different public and private partners, it has played a leading and high-profile role internationally in coordinating complex operations to safeguard heritage damaged or threatened by conflicts.

In Afghanistan, the prolonged armed conflict and fanaticism destroyed much of the country's unique cultural heritage which reflects a history marked by the complex encounters between Achaemenid Persians, Greeks, Buddhists, Hindus and Muslims, among others. The Bamiyan Buddhas were dynamited in March 2001. In addition, many statues in the collections of the Kabul Museum were damaged, including many stored for security reasons in the Ministry of Information and Culture.

UNESCO work there includes coordination and operational projects (emergency consolidation and restoration of monuments in Herat and Jam, Safeguarding of the Bamiyan site etc.) as well as an overall strategy for safeguarding Afghan cultural heritage. The destruction of the giant Buddha of Bamiyan in Afghanistan led UNESCO to strengthen its activities in that country and to undertake a standard-setting action on this act judged by UNESCO to be a crime against culture.

An international safeguarding and development programme was launched in Angkor (Cambodia) in 1992. The programme was devised essentially for heritage protection, but ultimately extended to rehabilitating the cultural life of people ravaged by war in that country.

Box 19: Cultural heritage and post-conflict

In conflict and post-conflict situations, UNESCO plays an important role in coordinating complex operations for the protection of cultural heritage, both tangible and intangible.

The establishment of dialogue and development are the pillars of UNESCO strategy in post-conflict areas, in so far as it highlights the role of cultural heritage in preserving or rebuilding peace after civil strife or armed conflict. The safeguarding of all aspects of cultural heritage, including museums, monuments, archaeological sites, music, art, traditional crafts is essential to strengthen a sense of national unity. Cultural heritage can become a rallying point for former adversaries, enabling them to re-build ties and dialogue and re-design a common identity and future together.

In cases where the cultural heritage has become a target owing to its identity value, UNESCO brings together the various warring parties and populations concerned to encourage them to resume intercommunity dialogue through the reconstruction of their heritage.

In some cases this requires restoring the bonds between the communities concerned, their history and cultural affiliations, while in others it involves helping to restore a sense of common ownership of the shared heritage that has been damaged or is a source of conflict.

UNESCO's action for intercommunity reconciliation is implemented in Iraq, Afghanistan, South-East Europe (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo), Caucasus region, Middle East, Cyprus, Cambodia, Timor-Leste, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Republic of Korea and Africa.

Source: http://whc.unesco.org/en/activities/2/

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the restoration of the Old Bridge in Mostar and the conservation of the old city symbolize a renewal of the ties between the Bosnian, Serbian and Croatian communities.

In Kosovo, with UNESCO assistance, an inventory of cultural heritage was prepared, and an action plan was developed for the restoration of cultural heritage including orthodox churches, Islamic mosques and monuments, and vernacular buildings.

In North-East Asia, the restoration of Kogryo Tombs, World Heritage sites in China and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea is ongoing with assistance from UNESCO/Republic of Korea Funds-in-Trust and promotes dialogue among neighbouring countries in the subregion. Here, universal values of cultural heritage are being protected, restored and harnessed as tools for dialogue, reconciliation and the enhancement of human security.[57]

Box 20: Dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples

The quest for a dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples is deeply entrenched in UNESCO's Constitution and its various programmes and resolutions. The promotion of dialogue in order to 'build peace in the minds of men' is at the core of UNESCO's mission. In our increasingly divisive societies, it is essential to ensure harmonious interaction among people and groups with plural, varied and dynamic cultural identities as well as their willingness to live together. Therefore the fostering of dialogue among cultures and peoples can only occur on the basis of the recognition of and respect for cultural diversity. In this context, UNESCO advocates for inclusive and participatory policies as a guarantee of social cohesion, the vitality of civil society and peace. For several years, and especially since the United Nations Year for Dialogue among Civilizations (2001), the issues raised by the dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples have been addressed through important initiatives, declarations and in many conferences and meetings organized by UNESCO and numerous stakeholders in a wide range of countries and regions. These events have also given rise to programmes and publications fulfilling UNESCO's advocacy role. Efforts are also being pursued through activities for the recognition and preservation of the diversity of the world's cultural heritage as well as its manifold cultural expressions which allow for a better knowledge among cultures and peoples.

Contemporary challenges
Globalization and the emergence of new challenges, threats to humankind, ignorance and widening gaps in mutual understanding have made the need for dialogue among peoples more necessary than ever. We witness at present a sense of shared vulnerability and at the same time a palpable new willingness to counter intolerance and fanaticism and to build instead on opportunities that globalization has created for intercultural exchange and understanding. In October 2001, UNESCO's General Conference affirmed the fundamental challenge constituted by dialogue; a challenge based on the unity of humankind and commonly shared values, the recognition of cultural diversity and the equal dignity of each civilization and each culture. The Conference set out a new framework for action, which has been progressively refined by the Executive Board, most recently at its 175th session. New impetus has been gained from the United Nations World Summit in September 2005, when the world's leaders committed themselves to taking action for the promotion of a dialogue among civilizations and a culture of peace at the local, national, regional and international levels and assigned UNESCO a lead role in this endeavour.

UNESCO has responded to the need for further dialogue among civilizations by intensifying and focusing its strategy on concrete actions and results in the following areas: The articulation of a set of commonly shared values; Initiatives at the regional and subregional levels; The development of action-oriented thematic proposals drawing on all domains of UNESCO; Multi-stakeholder involvement beyond governmental representation and deliberate engagement of youth, women and existing UNESCO networks; Renewed exploration of the contribution of religions to dialogue related activities; Research on the role of dialogue in advancing women's rights. The Rabat Commitment, adopted in June 2005, constituted a major break-through in this regard, setting out concrete and practical steps in various domains of UNESCO, which the organizations participating in the Rabat Conference – ISESCO, ALECSO, Organisation of the Islamic Conference, Danish Centre for Culture and Development, Anna Lindt Foundation – have pledged to pursue.

Source: Bureau of Strategic Planning (UNESCO)
http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=37084&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
http://www.unesco.org/bpi/pdf/memobpi58_dialoguecivilizations_en.pdf

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(57) UNESCO Culture Sector
http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php URL_ID=34329&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
The UNESCO Courier, Post-conflict: Reconstructing for tomorrow
http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=35518&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
Relevant Normative Instruments
http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=35170&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=-471.html
Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict with Regulations for the Execution of the Convention, 1954 (The Hague)
http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13637&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

Human Security: Approaches and Challenges -- Chapter 1

Struggling against racism

The convention to set up UNESCO in the wake of the Second World War recognized that war had been made possible by the rejection of democratic ideals of dignity, equality and respect for human beings and by the will to exploit people's ignorance and prejudice to substitute a dogmatic belief in human and racial inequality.

In the 1950s, UNESCO was already active in mobilizing the scientific community to deal with the question of race and contributed to exposing the falsity of racist theories and to demonstrating the lack of any scientific basis for claims of racial superiority. The *Declaration on Race and Racial Prejudice* adopted in 1978 in particular remains a key reference point for UNESCO in its struggle against racism.

Awareness of the need to combat racism, discrimination and intolerance has continued to be a priority as shown by the celebration of international days such as the International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (21 March) and the International Day for Tolerance (16 November) in different regions of the world.

UNESCO Associated Schools Project network of 8,000 world institutions promotes the practice of human rights, World Heritage education, and peace education activities in 177 Member States. For example, schools in Africa, Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean have organized anti-racism initiatives to celebrate the International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination. The activities are part of a UNESCO schools campaign, All Equal in Diversity: Mobilizing Schools against Racism, Discrimination and Exclusion, as a follow-up activity to the International Year to Commemorate the Struggle against Slavery and its Abolition, celebrated in 2004. With the help of a campaign kit, participating schools organize three anti-racism activities annually. These include publications, performances and exhibitions, as well as school exchanges on the theme of diversity.

UNESCO contributes to the fight against racism and discrimination through research, normative instruments and operational programmes and projects. New forms of discrimination have arisen, in association with certain scientific developments and the process of globalization. As a result of these new threats and the outbreak of violent inter-ethnic conflicts in many parts of the world in recent years, the international community decided to convene in 2001 in Durban, South Africa, the World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance. In close collaboration with the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), UNESCO participated actively in the Durban Conference, which was undoubtedly the high point of the Third United Nations Decade to Combat Racism and Racial

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Box 21: UNESCO's Integrated Strategy against Racism and Discrimination*

In response to the challenges emerging in modern societies, in October 2003, at UNESCO's 32nd General Conference, 190 Member States adopted an *Integrated Strategy to Combat Racism, Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance* (32 C/13). To develop this strategy, UNESCO undertook a series of studies on different aspects and forms of racism, xenophobia and discrimination. Various consultations in different regions in the world were also organized to discuss the regional specificities and priorities to be taken into account. The strategy is being implemented by advancing scientific research and reflection, revitalizing standard-setting instruments, reinforcing education and awareness-raising activities, mobilizing opinion leaders and decision-makers and networking diverse actors. The following themes and domains were identified as priority:

> Development of scientific research and reflection on the phenomena of racism, discrimination and xenophobia;
> Revision and/or revitalization of UNESCO instruments dealing with racism and discrimination;
> Development of new educational approaches, elaboration of teaching materials and establishment of indicators;
> Mobilization of opinion leaders and political decision-makers against racism and discrimination;
> Preservation of diversity in multi-ethnic and multicultural societies;
> Combating racist propaganda in media, especially in cyberspace.

* http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001312/131202e.pdf

Source: www.unesco.org/shs/againstdiscrimination

Discrimination, which ended in 2003. The Durban Conference provided a forum for examining questions crucial not only to the protection of fundamental human rights but also to the promotion of understanding, coexistence and cooperation among individuals and peoples.

The implementation of UNESCO's Integrated Strategy to Combat Racism and Discrimination has continued to be at the heart of the work strategy of the Social and Human Sciences Sector (SHS) in this area. Among the main achievements to be noted is the significant development of its flagship project, the International Coalition of Cities against Racism and Discrimination. This project was launched by SHS in 2004 and encompasses all regions of the world. Its aim is to establish a network of cities and assist municipalities interested in sharing experiences with others with the goal of developing and strengthening their policies to counter all forms of discrimination and then achieve a greater urban social inclusion. With a view to taking into consideration the specificities, challenges and priorities of the different regions of the world, coalitions were created, in a first stage, at the regional level: in Africa,

North America, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Arab States and Europe.

The struggle against racism and discrimination was seen as having to be conducted on several fronts: prevention and positive action, monitoring and vigilance, empowerment, mediation, and punishment. These five dimensions were translated into the 'Ten-Point Plan of Action', made up of ten commitments covering different elements, such as education, housing, employment or cultural and sporting activities. The cities that become signatories to the Coalition agree to integrate the Plan of Action into their respective municipal strategies and policies. In 2004–2007, the existing Coalitions in Europe and in Canada were significantly strengthened, and three brand new Coalitions were set up, in Asia-Pacific, Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean. In order to strengthen policy-research interface in the field of the struggle against all forms of discrimination and exclusion, SHS coordinates a series of activities in close cooperation with the member municipalities and partner institutions.

Thanks to the coordinating role played by a 'selected lead city', each regional coalition will have its own 'Ten-Point Plan of Action'. By the end of 2007, six regional coalitions will have been established: Europe (lead city: Nuremberg), launched in December 2004, with more than seventy cities; Canada, launched in March 2006, with more than twenty cities; Asia and the Pacific (lead city: Bangkok), launched in August 2006, with more than twenty cities; Africa (lead cities: Durban, Nairobi, Bamako), launched in September 2006, with more than fifty-five cities, and Latin America and the Caribbean (lead city: Montevideo), launched in October 2006, comprising over 200 cities. Under the fight against racism and discrimination, Bangkok organized two regional conferences on the Coalition of Cities Against Racism and Discrimination in Asia and the Pacific. Other regional cities have helped to develop the regional action.

Addressing migrants' rights

The overall aim of UNESCO's Programme on International Migration is to promote respect for the human rights of migrants, and to contribute to the peaceful integration of migrants into society. To fulfil this general goal, the programme wants to achieve certain specific objectives. A first objective is to increase the protection of human rights of migrants. Migrants remain more vulnerable than other groups in society. In 1990, the UN General Assembly adopted the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant workers and Members of their Families – the most comprehensive international instrument to date to provide legal protection for migrants. On 1 July 2003, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families entered into force, after the threshold of 20 ratifying states was reached in March 2003. With IOM, ILO, the OHCHR and several NGOs, UNESCO participates in the Steering Committee for the Global Campaign to coordinate activities to promote further accessions to the International Convention. The strategy involves contributing to improving policies of Member States so that they ratify the International Convention, providing capacity-building to facilitate the implementation of the Convention, increasing awareness of the Convention among policy-makers, the media and the public.

A second objective is to improve national policies in sending, transit, as well as receiving countries, to handle the impact of migration on society. International migration is high on the public agenda of many countries because the phenomenon is considered a source of potential economic, social, political and cultural problems. Politicians are explicitly or implicitly asked to formulate and implement policies to avoid and resolve these problems. UNESCO can support research and provide training on migration policies to decision-makers acting to prevent future policies from being based on ill-defined ideas and misconceptions. The strategy involves strengthening the link between research and policy-making on migration issues; contributing to advocacy and policy dialogue on migration issues; stimulating innovative thinking on migration policies.

A third objective is to promote the value of and respect for cultural diversity in multicultural societies and improve the balance between policies promoting diversity and policies promoting social integration. As a consequence of cross-border population flows many countries have a growing number of immigrant minority populations that differ from the original population. The increase in xenophobia and racism calls for policies that respect the rights of migrants, underscore the benefits of diversity and at the same time promote social cohesion. Current UNESCO's initiatives promoting pluralism, tolerance and cultural diversity include the UN Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities (1992) and the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity. The strategy involves: promoting a more balanced view of migrants, contributing to better-informed policies concerning social cohesion and cultural diversity, increasing awareness on international instruments related to migration issues.

A fourth objective is to contribute to the Global Consultative Forum within the United Nations on international migration. This would be an open-ended body involving government representatives active in international migration which would enable the elaboration of constructive approaches towards international migration and ensure fruitful cooperation between governments and the UN system, along with the

International Organization for Migration (IOM). UNESCO's mandate to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, sciences, culture and communication and information is highly relevant to the issue of international migration and development. Based on its mandate and within its areas of competence, the Organization could contribute to the consultative process on international migration and development by addressing:

> the migration-education nexus, for example by anticipating and defining the emerging problems concerning brain drain in developing countries, or by serving as a central forum for coordinating the ethical, normative and intellectual issues of recognition of qualifications for mobility,
> the migration-development nexus, including the development of knowledge diasporas through the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs),
> the impact of environmental trends on international migration, including the growing importance of climate changes and natural disasters on the movement of people,
> the balance between, on the one hand, social cohesion and the integration of migrants in host societies and, on the other hand, the respect for cultural diversity in multi-ethnic and multicultural societies,
> the research-policy nexus, including ways in which social scientists and policy-makers can cooperate to improve policy development on crucial social transformations brought by migration.

The fifth objective is to contribute to the Global Fight against human trafficking and exploitative migration. Despite increased spending on enforcement measures, the number of migrants in an irregular situation has not declined. By definition, trafficked persons are victims of serious human rights violations. Further, smuggling and trafficking can undermine security. The need to give special attention to trafficking in persons has been stressed both by the UN Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights and in the Millennium Development Goals. The strategy involves improving information and knowledge on exploitative migration and contributing to improving policies relating to combating exploitative migration.

A sixth objective is to strengthen the capacity, sustainability and effectiveness of diaspora networks as a means to promote brain gain – as opposed to the current brain drain – through the use of ICTs. The brain drain – the migration of skilled and educated human resources from developing to developed nations – affects developing countries in their capacity for development. With the use of ICTs, this trend can be reversed to brain gain – considering the expatriate skilled population as a potential asset. By facilitating information exchange, technology transfer and business expansion, migration can bring new development dynamism and link the country of origin to the global economic system. The strategy involves contributing to the promotion of brain gain through the use of ICTs; developing mechanisms and effective tools to improve cooperation links and knowledge sharing; strengthening diaspora networks; improving access to ICTs for diaspora population.[58]

Fighting all forms of discrimination

The international community confronts forms of discrimination as varied as gender discrimination, ethnic discrimination, anti-Semitism, discrimination against migrants or HIV/AIDS-related discrimination.

In many countries, women do not enjoy the same rights as men, and many forms of gender discrimination are an integral part of national laws and family codes, rather than just part of traditions. The consequences of gender discriminative traditions are observable in Muslim countries, where the access to assets and the active participation in economic activities is ruled by customary law, which gives exclusive inheritance of land and real estate to male relatives.

A web-based network for Women's/Gender Studies Centres has been established in Asia Pacific to contribute actively to the realization of the objectives outlined in the Beijing Platform of Action, the Millennium Development

Goals (MDGs) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) to strengthen established and planned gender studies centres in the region through expansion of the gender network created in 2005 that aims to research and review current programmes and curricula. A web portal has been constructed. The purpose is to provide a dissemination point for information concerning W/G Studies in the Asia and the Pacific region. It is also to serve the professional needs of the network members.

A conference on Educating against Hate: the Case of Resurgent Antisemitism was organized to analyse various experiences aimed at promoting tolerance and mutual understanding and, in particular, the good practices that contribute effectively to the fight against intolerance and discrimination from the educational point of view.

(58) http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.php-URL_ID=1228&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/files/3330/11720538051migration_presentation.pdf/migration_presentation.pdf

In Western Europe, debates about intercultural diversity turn around the notions of assimilation and integration of second- and third-generation migrants, Muslim populations in particular. Earlier discourse on tolerance and cultural relativism is being replaced by discourse in which otherness/identity dichotomies between 'native' and 'migrant' inhabitants and communities are beginning to take root.

The programme to fight against HIV-related discrimination remains a priority. It has resulted in an increase in the number and capacity of youth-led community activities – proposing a rights-based framework for quality education, communication, care and advocacy initiatives; an increased capacity of youth-led initiatives to provide effective responses to HIV-related stigma and discrimination

affecting their peers; and more awareness of the importance of addressing HIV/AIDS in local policies by the local governments. As evidenced by the recently revised UNESCO strategy for responding to HIV/AIDS (February 2007),[59] UNESCO's activities seek to address understanding and tolerance in order to reduce stigma and discrimination against vulnerable and marginalized communities and people living with HIV.

HIV-related discrimination can be an obstacle to eradicating the disease. For example, in the South Asia region, drug addicts tend to be considered as criminals subject to arrest, prosecution and imprisonment and, therefore, do not receive treatment. Owing to the high incidence of intravenous drug use, HIV/AIDS infection rates are on the rise.

Pluralism in the media

In post-conflict and transition countries, UNESCO promotes a holistic approach in assisting the reconstruction and development of a free, independent, pluralistic, non-partisan and professional media sector, as well as universal access to information and ICTs. These are all prerequisites for peaceful, sustainable and democratic reconciliation, as outlined by the Belgrade Declaration which was prepared by a broad-based multi-stakeholder conference on World Press Freedom Day, 3 May 2004, and endorsed by the 33rd UNESCO General Conference.

In the various phases of the transition, this approach includes:
> Assistance to media legislation reform according to international standards (such as: article 19 of the UDHR, Security Council Resolution 1738 on safety of journalists, African Charter on Human and People's Rights, etc.);
> Strengthening professional and safe journalism (training of media professionals and managers, support to media associations and freedom of expression advocates, Training of Trainers (ToTs) and capacity-building of media training institutions);
> Media development (support to independent and community media, reform of state media into Public Service Broadcasters, etc.);
> Dialogue (promotion of cooperation, co-productions, exchange mechanisms among media professionals, etc.);
> Universal access to information (preservation of audio-visual archives and libraries, increasing access to ICTs and the internet);
> Promoting fair, safe and professional election coverage to allow citizens to make informed choices (training to enhance professional election reporting; advocacy to encourage full, fair and efficient disclosure of information).

> **Box 22: Some specific examples of UNESCO action in Africa towards strengthening the media**
>
> **Support for the media through Press Houses**
> UNESCO has opened Press Houses in Kigali (Rwanda), Bujumbura (Burundi) and Bangui (Central African Republic) to encourage regular contacts between journalists. The houses host various professional media events and offer training workshops and discussion groups on the problems of journalism that have led journalists to draft their new code of conduct.
>
> **Support for the creation of the Somali Forum for Freedom of Expression**
> Forty Somali media organizations, civil society and human rights groups have joined together in the Somali Forum for Freedom of Expression (SOFFE), an alliance to promote the protection of freedom of the press, freedom of information, freedom of speech and opinion. The decision came at the end of a four-day round table held in Mogadishu from 19 to 22 January 2007. The event was organized by the National Union of Somali Journalists (NUSOJ) with the support of UNESCO's International Programme for the Development of Communication. SOFFE and NUSOJ have since been taking an active role in advising the Transitional Federal Government on media policy reform.
>
> **Support for radio stations' network development**
> Within the context of 'Promoting the role of dialogue among media professionals in areas of open and post-conflict/ Promotion of networking and exchange activities', UNESCO is supporting the Uganda Radio Network in conducting four in-house training sessions to raise the professional capacity of journalistic and radio production staff from radio stations in remote post-conflict areas of north, north-eastern and north-western Uganda and to facilitate the creation of news and programme exchange mechanism among the radio stations.
>
> *Source: Listening to Africa. Regional Review of UNESCO Activities: Biennium 2006–2007, P. III, pp. 103–05.*
> http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001545/154529m.pdf

(59) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001499/149998E.pdf

As lead agency for freedom of expression, UNESCO facilitates coordination mechanisms for media assistance bringing together donors, national stakeholders and media representatives together with international and regional partners, such as the International Federation of Journalists, World Newspaper Association, World Association of Community Radio Broadcasters, Asia Broadcasting Union, Network of African Freedom of Expression Organizations, and media development NGOs. Within the UN country teams in PCPD contexts, UNESCO also promotes the mainstreaming of communication for development of best practices. Some typical intersectoral aspects of this holistic approach are distance education (Education), risk prevention (Science), and dialogue (Culture).[60]

Box 23: Analysis of the correlation between free press and foundation of human security

It is UNESCO's objective to empower people through the free flow of ideas by word and image, and by access to information and knowledge. Evidence of the link between free press and development is abundant, especially in cases where the establishment of an environment conducive to free press has opened the door to the attainment of other human rights and accelerated sustainable development. Free press inarguably plays a vital role in promoting good governance, thus fighting poverty and deprivation.

Similarly, there is evidence that a free, independent and pluralist press can help tackle the challenges endangering the different dimensions of human security. But the amount of quantitative and qualitative data scientifically analysing the relationship between various theories on human security and a free press is limited. In order to contribute to filling this gap, UNESCO has supported research undertaken by the Centre for Peace and Human Security (CPHS) at Paris-based Fondation Nationale des Sciences Politiques ('Sciences-Po') to research correlations between free press and other indicators of human security such as freedom from threats, freedom from want and human dignity.

As the study delved into uncharted territory, the researchers investigated to find the most reliable sources of both insecurity and free press indicators to use as a base for their analysis. This paper uses various econometric tools and data from sources such the World Bank, UNDP and UNESCO and a variety of other world-renowned institutions to analyse various facets of human development and security. To measure free press, they chose to use Freedom House indicators. The sets of data obtained from these sources were compared to find relationships.

According to the findings of the study, 'there is a 'good' correlation between press freedom and the different dimensions of development, poverty and governance,' and therefore also reflects the various theories of human security. For instance, it appears that press freedom is positively correlated with human development, economic security, food security and health security.

In particular, according to the research, good governance and press freedom go hand in hand. The correlation between press freedom and diverse qualities of good governance offer additional evidence of the importance of the watchdog and civic forum functions of the press both important for the economic development.

Economic development and the fight against poverty are as a rule improved when the press is freer. When looking at health conditions, a pluralistic and independent media sector appears to be crucial. In fact, when press freedom is high, government is more likely to spend more on health, and rates of infant mortality and HIV go down, while life expectancy goes up.

Finally, according to the findings of the research-team, the relation between press freedom and education seems to be one of synergy: press freedom furthers and enhances education, and education has an even stronger effect on free media. All in all, literacy rates and enrolment ratio show that the more people are educated, the more they can act themselves to benefit from and defend press freedom. Therefore there appears to be a snowball effect leading to further development and thus security.

Source: Anne-Sophie Novel et al., Liberté de la presse et développement. Une analyse des corrélations entre la liberté de la presse et les différentes dimensions du développement, de la pauvreté, de la gouvernance et de la paix, CERI/UNESCO, 2008.

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(60) UNESCO's Communication and Information Sector. 1. Belgrade Declaration on Assistance to Media in Conflict Areas and Countries in Transitions, as approved by participants at the UNESCO conference on World Press Freedom Day, 3 May 2004, and endorsed by the 33rd session of the General Conference; 2. *Media: Conflict Prevention and Reconstruction*, various authors, 2004, UNESCO.
http://portal.unesco.org/ci/admin/ev.php?URL_ID=18648&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201&reload=1193928860; 3. Guy Berger, 2007, *Media Legislation in Africa: A Comparative Legal Survey*, Rhodes University/UNESCO.
http://portal.unesco.org/ci/admin/ev.php?URL_ID=25479&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201&reload=1193928860; 4. Monroe E. Price and Peter F. Krug, 2000, *The Enabling Environment for Free and Independent Media*, New York, Yeshiva University, Cardozo School of Law. (Public Law Research Paper No. 27.)

IV. Building a knowledge base: contribution of natural and social and human sciences to human security

Koïchiro Matsuura has observed that when we speak of knowledge economies in today's world, we mean that they are science-based. Science, he reminds us, leads to technological advances and economic benefits that offer unique opportunities to meet basic human needs, reduce poverty, protect the environment and improve the quality of life.[61]

The crucial links between UNESCO's objectives in the sciences and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of promoting international peace and of fighting poverty within the 2015 timeline, and the inclusion into UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy 2002–2007 of the goal of 'improving human security by better management of the environment and social change' pertaining to the two science programmes,[62] both reflect a recognition of the interplay between the natural, social and human sciences and the human security concerns to which the Director-General alludes.

Looking at that interplay from another angle, Amitav Acharya has found that concern for human security in terms of threats to environment and health has helped the concept of human security make inroads into the security thinking in the South-East Asia region. He cites the SARS (severe acute respiratory syndrome) in 2003, the tsunami in 2004, the recurring haze problem and the danger of a major bird flu outbreak as having impressed upon people that human security matters and that major threats to national and regional security can come from sources that have not traditionally figured on national security agendas.[63]

Indeed, in asking how UNESCO's sciences programmes – natural sciences and social and human sciences – could make a significant difference in the twenty-first century, the Review Committee of UNESCO's sciences programmes recognized that the nature of new challenges that the world is facing as a result of unequal economic development, environmental degradation, demographic evolution, political transformations and globalization, and the major threats to natural and human security, such as global climate change, the emergence and spread of infectious diseases and the loss of biological diversity, are testing our intellectual capabilities while humanitarian imperatives and development needs remain as critical as ever. Thus, sustainable solutions, whether at the global, regional or country levels, require more advances in scientific

knowledge, discoveries and understanding, stronger integration of research and education and identification of practical measures for action. The Committee noted that science and technology have moved forward dramatically and become increasingly complex, interdisciplinary and international, and that new scientific paradigms and conceptual frameworks and new collaborative approaches are pushing back the frontiers in all areas of the natural, social and human sciences. Thus it is imperative for UNESCO's science programmes to reflect and take advantage of the latest advances in scientific research and new conceptual thinking, as well as technological innovations. The Committee also pointed to the need for good coordination among the intergovernmental/international science programmes and other related organizations, and the benefit that UNESCO's science programmes might draw from greater visibility and public outreach.

From this perspective, a key factor is the innovative and synergistic way in which UNESCO's sciences portfolio can bring together the natural, social and human sciences dimensional aspects of poverty, conflicts and other human security concerns. For example, through its science programmes, UNESCO can contribute to poverty reduction and peace by increasing opportunities and access to knowledge and basic services through appropriate technologies leading to better living standards, especially for traditionally excluded segments of the population. Along these lines, it has been suggested that a further key objective of UNESCO's sciences portfolio could, for example, be dialogue and the integration of mainstream science with the traditional, local and indigenous sciences of diverse cultures in order to enrich the overall perspectives and approaches in its programmes with diversity, sustainability and distributive justice.[64]

As the only UN agency which, through its very mission, can integrate science, education and culture, UNESCO has a genuine comparative advantage and a unique role to play in the science programmes within the United Nations in today's world. UNESCO is in fact well-positioned to act as a catalyst for actions performed in collaboration with others and to facilitate participation in research, including the development of networks. Through its science programmes, UNESCO promotes global research, human and institutional capacity-building, networking, policy research and evidence-based policy debate, monitoring, collecting and disseminating best practices and mobility and exchange of scientific

(61) Koïchiro Matsuura's address to the Ministerial Round Table on the Basic Sciences, 13 October 2005.
(62) 31 C/4 Approved, Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007, November 2001, §§ 93–113, under Strategic Objective 5.
(63) Acharya, op. cit., pp. 12–13, 23–24.
(64) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001502/150264e.pdf

researchers. In particular, the Organization can and does act as a facilitator of global, regional and country-level science policy development by improving the base of relevant scientific research knowledge and communicating that knowledge by policy work and formulating policy advice, as well as building country capacity in policy-making, scientific monitoring and benchmarking. This collective activity fits UNESCO's cross-disciplinary capability.

Addressing environmental degradation and climate change

The specific mission of UNESCO Natural Science Sector is to further the advancement and sharing of scientific knowledge and to promote the application of this knowledge and its understanding in the pursuit of sustainable development including the management of the environment and of natural resources.

Environmental degradation and climatic change, for example, desertification, drought, heat waves, floods, deforestation, soil erosion, air, water and marine pollution, affect people's lives, properties and livelihoods and exacerbate insecurity. Socio-political factors, such as forced migration and armed conflicts may enter in as well to exacerbate the conditions of degradation, erosion and desertification of soils and a resultant loss of arable land becoming responsible for poor food distribution and non-access to foodstuffs, representing a significant threat to human security at regional and global levels. Whether caused by military conflicts, the transport sector, industry, population growth or increased pressure on resources resulting from improved economic conditions, as in the East Asian region, high levels of pollution are one consequence of years of environmental neglect. It is the poorest people who are the most affected.

Central Asia may serve as an illustration of the interplay of the kinds of complex, interrelated problems alluded to above. Anara Tabyshalieva sees the insecurity arising from environmental problems as representing a constant challenge to the populations of this region exposed to environmental problems, such as annual droughts, mudslides, floods, earthquakes that kill people and make others homeless and force them to move to safer places. This population displacement then often raises social or ethnic tensions between those forced to move and those receiving them. She calculates that between 1992 and 2005 natural disasters in the regions have had adverse effects on about one-tenth of the population. She also points to the extent to which man-made ecological problems have greatly disturbed thousands of people's lives. As an example, she cites the thousands of members of an ethnic minority population forced to migrate because of the Aral Sea catastrophe. She sees such crises as being exacerbated by problems of governance, regional fragmentation, lack of confidence between neighbours and an irrational use of water and energy resources.[65]

Within the United Nations, the United Nations University, whose overall mission is 'advancing knowledge for human security and development', together with the Institute for Environmental and Human Security (UNU-EHS), have been privileged partners throughout the implementation of UNESCO's human security activities. UNU-EHS explores threats to human security arising from natural and human-induced hazards. The institute spearheads UNU's research and capacity-building activities relating to the broad interdisciplinary field of 'risk and vulnerability'. Knowledge generation and capacity development efforts aim to address decision-makers and scientists worldwide, notably in the areas of developing and testing of vulnerability indicators, investigating the relationships between risks, vulnerability, and coping capacity, and fostering a better understanding of the links between different hazards and creeping processes such as climate change and environmental degradation and their influence on hazard magnitude and frequency.[66]

During 2007, the issue of climate change was particularly catapulted to the top of the international political agenda. Constant exchange between scientific observations and international decision-making is necessary to define and continuously revise effective responses. The following six thematic areas of action for UN system cooperation on climate change have been identified: scientific research and assessment, monitoring/observation, mitigation, adaptation, technological innovation, and transfer and finance mechanisms. UNESCO has a long track record of diverse action of direct or indirect relevance for climate change and is currently developing a comprehensive and integrated strategy for action on climate issues that highlights its multidisciplinary areas of competence and strategic orientations and draws upon its climate-relevant action, especially with respect to four of the six thematic areas of action mentioned above: scientific research and assessment, climate monitoring, mitigation and adaptation.[67]

(65) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., pp. 67–68.
(66) United Nations University, Research Brief – Number I, 2005.
(67) Future development of the WMO-IOC-UNEP-ICSU global climate observing system (GCOS). http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001510/151052e.pdf
Address by Koïchiro Matsuura, Director-General of UNESCO, on the occasion of the Information Meeting with the Permanent Delegates and Observers on the development of UNESCO's strategy on Global Climate Change. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001548/154880e.pdf
Facing the multidisciplinary challenges of knowledge societies and global climate change: UNESCO'S contributions to United Nations reform at the regional and country levels. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001533/153373e.pdf
DRAFT UNESCO Strategy on Climate Change
http://ioc3.unesco.org/tfgcc/meetings/2nd-meeting/docs/UNESCO%20Climate%20Change%20strategy_v6.pdf

In addition, UNESCO maintains links with several UN conventions and inter-agency coordination activities and mechanisms relevant for climate change action at the global, regional and country levels, such as:

> UN-Water;
> UN-Oceans (for which UNESCO serves as the implementing secretariat);
> UN-Energy;
> United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. UNESCO is a co-sponsor of GCOS, recognized by the Convention as the UN mechanism for implementing systematic observations;
> Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change – UNESCO is a co-sponsor of the World Climate Research Programme, whose Working Group on Coupled Modelling facilitates the collection, archiving and access

to all global climate model simulations used for IPCC Assessments;
> Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) – Decisions V/3 and VII/5 of the CBD have called on the 1972 World Heritage Convention, the IOC and its Global Coral Reef Monitoring Network to address the biological and socio-economic consequences of physical degradation and destruction of key marine and coastal habitats, specifically coral reef ecosystems;
> Mauritius Strategy for the Implementation of the Barbados Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States (SIDS) – UNESCO's Coasts and Small Islands Programme provides regular implementation status reports to the secretariat of the Mauritius Strategy and is a member of the Inter-agency Coordination Group for the Mauritius Strategy;
> World Summit on Sustainable Development – in the WSSD Plan of Implementation the UN system is charged with 'addressing critical uncertainties for the management of the marine environment and climate change'.[68]

The Ocean Data and Information Network for Africa (ODINAFRICA),[69] in cooperation with IOC and with the support of the Flemish community of Belgium, launched the first African Marine Atlas in February 2007. It indicates areas of intense use along the African coastline requiring careful management. Coastal resource managers, planners and decision-makers in Africa, as well as NGOs, hotel managers, teachers and the general public may consult the maps, images and data in the Atlas. The Atlas was realized by a team of sixteen marine scientists and GIS experts from national institutions in Benin, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Senegal, Seychelles, South Africa and the United Republic of Tanzania. Other activities in the field include the GLOSS Africa website,[70] which provides information on sea-level related activities in Africa (www.iode.org/glossafrica); the reactivation and new installation of sea-level stations, etc.

By contributing to an understanding of environmental phenomena and their interaction and of the mitigation of the adverse consequences of global climate change, UNESCO's scientific, environmental and engineering programmes contribute to knowledge management and education for reducing vulnerabilities and adapting to climatic change. For instance, climatic variability and its impact on water resources are a part of the Assessment of Snow Glacier and Water Resources project in Asia, which reviews and advances scientific knowledge of the impact of climate variability and change on water resources and informs decision-makers, professionals and other

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(68) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001533/153373e.pdf
(69) http://www.odinafrica.net/
(70) http://www.ioc.unesco.org/glossafrica/

stakeholders. A similar initiative is being implemented in Latin America.

Within the framework of the FRIEND Programme (Flow Regimes from International Experimental and Network Data), a system for diagnosis and early-warning of droughts has been developed to help reduce hydrological vulnerabilities at national and regional scales for adaptation to the impact of climate variability and change. To contribute to the assessment and better management of water resources in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) under a global change scenario, through the Water Balance Programme, the International Hydrological Programme (IHP)-LAC is supporting the generation/updating of regional water balances by applying a common methodology. The Central American component is already being completed, while the South American component is still in progress.

In terms of adaptation, the Adaptation to Climate Change in Coastal Zones (ACCC) project (PDF-B) – implemented at the request of Cape Verde, the Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania and Senegal, initiated by the African Process and taken up in the Action Plan for the Environmental Initiative of NEPAD – aims to perform adaptation actions in pilot sites particularly vulnerable to natural climate changes and to anthropogenic degradation in the short, medium and long term (erosion, mangrove destruction…) and to formulate national and regional strategies of adaptation aiming at managing the impact of changes to the shoreline, in the framework of integrated coastal area management.[71]

A Memorandum of Understanding between the Government of the Republic of Kenya and IOC for the development and implementation of the Coastal and Marine Sub-theme of the Environment Initiative of NEPAD (NEPAD COSMAR) was renewed in early 2007. Main areas of collaboration will include Integrated Coastal Area Management (ICAM), Ocean Data and Information Exchange (IODE), fostering self-driven development of

capacity in marine institutes in Africa and awareness-raising and capacity-development activities that pertain to the legal delimitation of the continental shelf. In addition, NEPAD, UNESCO/IOC and GRID-Arendal are working together to promote awareness among African countries with respect to the delineation of the outer limits of the continental shelf. In this regard, the three agencies are: (a) developing a strategy for fast tracking capacity development in Africa for preparation of submissions on the outer limits of the continental shelf beyond 200 nautical miles; (b) sharing experiences on current efforts towards creating awareness of Article 76 by mandated UN agencies – UNESCO and UNEP; and (c) exploring opportunities for partnership development.

A workshop was organized in 2002 by UNESCO-IHE Institute for Water Education to introduce and discuss the concept of valorization of nutrients via the treatment of wastewater for NGOs, universities and the private sector. An international technical tour was arranged to see some examples of valorization schemes for nutrients from wastewater in agri- and aquaculture. The scope of a demonstration project in Iraq was identified on this occasion. Since then, UNESCO-IHE has organized various capacity-building activities for Iraqi professionals.

A cooperation programme between the United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), and UNESCO-IHP, the Quo Vadis Aquifers? (QVA) Programme is interdisciplinary. Through research, capacity development and networking, it addresses the multiple components of the links between human security and groundwater resources vulnerability and degradation worldwide. IHP publications such as Groundwater *Contamination Inventory: a Methodological Guide* provide technical advice on evaluating the quality of groundwater and potentially related problems, which may have health implications.[72]

Acting for disaster prevention, preparedness and reduction

The world has become more agglomerated and integrated, due to urbanization, on the one hand, and developments in transportation, communications and media technology on the other. Thus, the consequences of disasters are more visible and affect a larger number of people. Human security requires the reduction and, when possible, the removal of insecurities that threaten and plague human lives. The responses required must aim towards greater preparedness in order to reduce vulnerability and to ensure that more rapid and effective action can be taken in face of disasters.

UNESCO has a recognized mandate and record in the study and mitigation of risks arising from natural hazards, such as earthquakes, floods, landslides, tsunamis, volcanic eruptions, and droughts that overwhelm health systems, destroy homes, schools and often whole communities, lead to increased numbers of displaced people and refugees, undermine sustainable development, and result in significant human tragedies. Of the specialized UN agencies, UNESCO is the one that has the multifaceted programmes in education, sciences, culture, and communication and information

(71) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001509/150954e.pdf
(72) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001325/132503e.pdf

needed for an intersectoral and transdisciplinary approach to harness knowledge and technology for building effective capacities in disaster prevention and preparedness. UNESCO action builds on the expertise within several of its international and intergovernmental scientific programmes, including those in basic and engineering sciences, water sciences, ecological and earth sciences, oceanographic sciences and space sciences.

UNESCO's scientific and environmental programmes advocate a shift in emphasis from post-disaster reaction to pre-disaster action. The destructive effects of natural and environmental hazards on societies are anticipated and mitigated through a focus on reduction of the vulnerability of people, buildings and infrastructure, achieved by implementing measures based on scientific, engineering and social knowledge within national and regional economic and cultural frameworks. UNESCO promotes a better understanding of the distribution in time and space of natural hazards and of their intensity, helps to set up reliable early-warning systems, encourages hazard mapping and rational land-use plans, helps to secure the adoption of suitable building design, contributes to protecting educational buildings and cultural monuments, promotes environmental protection for the prevention of natural disasters, and fosters scientific and technical post-disaster investigation. Within the context of the UN International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) and its new Global Platform and within its contribution to the UN system-wide implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005–2015, adopted at the World Conference on Disaster Reduction held in Kobe (Japan), in January 2005, UNESCO plays an important role in advancing knowledge on natural hazards, promoting innovation and technology for disaster risk early-warning and mitigation, and supporting sound preparedness and public awareness through education and training and communication.

The Indian Ocean tsunami of December 2004 particularly helped to focus international attention on natural disasters as a threat to human security. It showed the need for Asian governments and their regional institutions to draw a human dimension into their approach to security cooperation. It also highlighted the issue of environmental security. Areas that were protected by coral reefs and mangroves suffered less damage. In the wake of the tsunami, UNESCO is assisting the Government of Indonesia in coordinating and improving the capacity of Indonesian Institutions to prevent and respond to earthquake and tsunami disasters.

It is clear that some disasters are caused or worsened by human actions that exacerbate existing levels of risk and vulnerability, which is why it is a mistake to try to cope with hazards in isolation from broader social, economic and environmental factors and without involving people at the local level. Quite often the people who are affected by a disaster, and who are sometimes themselves the cause of them, such as the inhabitants of slums built on flood plains or on hillsides prone to

Box 25: The Indian Ocean Tsunami Warning and Mitigation System: good practices

In March 2005, following two major coordination meetings, the nations of the Indian Ocean agreed to participate in single process to establish, under the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC) of UNESCO, a tsunami warning system for the Indian Ocean. An interim tsunami advisory service started operating shortly afterward on 1 April 2005, relying exclusively on seismic information broadcast from our associated centres in Hawaii (Pacific Tsunami Warning Center) and Tokyo (Japan Meteorological Agency). Twenty-six nations have established official Tsunami Warning Focal Points capable of receiving and disseminating tsunami advisories around the clock.

The Intergovernmental Coordination Group for the Indian Ocean Tsunami Warning and Mitigation System (ICG/IOTWS), supported by the IOC, is an outstanding example of cooperation between Member States, UN agencies and donors. It has taken the decisions on the underlying technologies to be employed, the mechanisms for regional governance, funding, cooperation and communications.

During its first phase, this project has funded core equipment for the IOTWS. For sea level, an immediate enhancement of existing networks began upgrading instruments to make them real-time compliant. An improved seismographic monitoring network is being determined based on modelling hypothetical sources and travel times.

Eighteen countries asked for national assessment missions to study their national requirements and make effective use of international aid funds. These countries are also engaged in implementing different regional programmes and projects upgrading existing networks of detection throughout the Indian Ocean region and, very importantly, the national plans that contribute to the hazard assessment and emergency preparedness side of the system.

Towards this goal, in 2005 and 2006, UNESCO funded several targeted training activities involving more than 150 national officials and researchers in Indian Ocean countries. It has also produced much needed public awareness and educational materials, most notably 'Tsunami Teacher', translated into the many different languages of the region.

The science and technology we have today can and should protect the lives and property of all people around the oceans of the world. Through the concerted efforts of Member States of the IOC, of UNESCO and international organizations working together in a spirit of full cooperation and transparency, we have provided a series of milestones to measure progress in establishing official Tsunami Warning Focal Points, enhancing detection networks and communications, and defining comprehensive national plans for each country participating in the process.

Source: Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission/UNESCO

mud slides, live on the fringes of society and are uninvolved in risk-reduction measures, which they may actually regard as a threat.

UNESCO plays a pivotal role in a cluster of international, governmental and non-governmental organizations pledged to create 'a culture of resilient communities' based on 'knowledge, innovation and education' as an important step towards enhancing human security. This platform of stakeholders seeks to integrate education for disaster reduction into school curricula and make schools resistant to hazards by encouraging the application of construction standards that can withstand any kind of natural hazard.

Past experience and projects have revealed the enormously positive effects of knowledge and education in sustainable development and disaster risk reduction strategies. They contribute to the understanding of environmental phenomena and their interaction, to mitigating adverse consequences and to accelerating the progress of societies towards disaster resilience. The Inter-Agency Secretariat of the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) aims at raising societies' awareness to cope with natural disasters and recognizes education for disaster reduction as a transdisciplinary exercise empowering people of all ages, at all levels, to assume responsibility for building a safer and sustainable future. This requires education of all sectors of society on disaster reduction practices based on the application of scientific and technical advances and integrated in the cultural environment.

In Mexico, Romania and New Zealand, teaching of disaster-related subjects is mandatory. Brazil, Venezuela, Cuba and Japan have included it in their primary and secondary curricula at the state and municipal levels. Indeed, children who know how to react in case of an earthquake, community leaders who are taught to issue timely storm warnings, and whole communities that have been taught how to defend themselves against hazards can dramatically reduce casualties and loss of livelihood when disaster strikes. A young girl saved dozens of lives in the Indian Ocean disaster because she remembered what she had been taught about tsunamis in

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Box 26: UNESCO's role in earthquake risk reduction

The huge growth of urban populations along known seismic fault lines makes it increasingly likely that a disaster to surpass that of either San Francisco or Tokyo will occur sooner or later.

There are almost 450 cities worldwide with a population of more than 1 million, and with most population growth occurring in urban areas, sprawling mega-cities are becoming ever larger, attracting thousands of new inhabitants every day. Many of these places are situated along major earthquake faults.

Not only is the number of people at risk greater than ever, but the concentration of wealth and infrastructure in a modern mega-city could make an urban earthquake incalculably more devastating in economic terms than the Kobe earthquake of 1995, which caused economic losses of well over US$100 billion, making it so far the costliest natural catastrophe of all time.

UNESCO has supported the establishment of international, regional and national centres for the recording, exchange and analysis of seismological data. It helps train engineers and scientists and has been behind the creation of specialized centres for earthquake engineering and seismology in TFYR Macedonia, the United Kingdom, Japan, Peru and the Islamic Republic of Iran.

In other regional actions, UNESCO has been involved since 1993 in a network of expertise, stations and institutes as part of a Programme for Reducing Earthquake Losses in the Enlarged Mediterranean Region. An important feature of this programme is that it makes it possible for countries which are politically antagonistic to one another to exchange scientific data. Likewise, since 2001, UNESCO has collaborated on the Programme for Reducing Earthquake Losses in South Asia.

Similar projects, such as the Programme for Assessment and Mitigation of Earthquake Risk in the Arab region, have been funded, equipped and staffed with UNESCO help. More recently, UNESCO has cooperated with Libya to establish a digital seismological network, which is designed to provide high-quality data for research projects in regional and global seismology.

Regional disaster reduction programmes have been carried out with the help of UNESCO field offices. Thus, for example, UNESCO's Tehran Office is providing advice and at the same time benefiting from the experience in the reconstruction of the ancient city of Bam and the reduction of similar risks in Iran, one of the countries most exposed to earthquake hazard.

UNESCO seeks to mitigate disaster by supporting the development and implementation of quake-resistant building codes, for it is collapsing buildings that kill people, not usually the ground tremors themselves. Engineers know how to keep floors from pancaking on top of one another and how to create buildings that can absorb substantial shocks without collapsing, but many authorities fail to enforce earthquake hazard and building safety codes, even where these exist. Time after time, heavy casualties are caused not so much by earthquakes as by shoddy construction.

Earthquakes also provide scientists with a living laboratory: thus, a considerable amount about the behaviour of earthquakes is known as a result of many post-disaster reconnaissance missions conducted by UNESCO.

Source: http://www.unesco.org/science/disaster/index_disaster.shtml

a geography lesson before going on holiday to Thailand with her parents. UNESCO aims to have such lessons made part of school programmes everywhere. Within the framework of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, UNESCO launched an international campaign called 'Disaster Reduction Begins at School' in 2006 to make disaster reduction education part of school curricula and encourage school construction standards designed to withstand natural hazards.

The vulnerability of children in natural disasters was demonstrated by the earthquake that struck Pakistan in October 2005 when more than 16,000 children perished at school. In addition, if they are left standing after an earthquake, schools are usually the first places to be turned into rescue and relief centres. UNESCO's Islamabad Office has helped to provide professional support for the reconstruction of schools and the education system in Pakistan.[73]

In February 2006, the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) completed a training and training needs assessment programme for all district education officers from the earthquake-affected districts of North West Frontier Province (NWFP) and Azad Jammu and Kashmir (AJK). In March–April 2006, IIEP staff trained district education officers in educational planning and supported the translation and printing of the INEE *Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction*. IIEP is currently conducting a research case study on educational responses to the earthquake.

Good knowledge of water availability, sound management and capacity-building are ways to improve preparedness for water related hazards and problems of availability and to contribute to securing sufficient water resources under varied circumstances. The main objectives of the Groundwater for Emergency Situations (GWES) project include considering natural and man-induced catastrophic events that could adversely influence human health and life, and proposing effective methodologies for identifying and inventorying potential safe groundwater resources of

low vulnerability to extreme and/or catastrophic climatic and geological events and human impact that could temporarily replace damaged supply systems in selected pilot regions.

After the tsunami in December 2004, the task of inventorying and monitoring of fresh groundwater resources of the South Indian Coast (Tamilnadu) was undertaken by the UNESCO Office in New Delhi. The project aimed at understanding the extent of contamination of coastal groundwater aquifers and evaluated the required rehabilitation needs. Based on the findings, UNESCO New Delhi Office has carved out a long-term action plan.

Among other achievements involving UNESCO in the field of disaster prevention, preparedness and reduction may be cited: the identification of hazard-prone zones and mapping of risks in the Balkan, Asian, Arab and Mediterranean regions; the launching of the International Flood Initiative to address the risk management and reduction of the water hazards as well as that of the post-water-related disaster problems; the establishment of the International Consortium on Landslides and the International Programme on Landslides; field studies of the effects of large disasters including earthquakes, through the dispatch of expert missions to the affected regions as soon as possible after the event; contribution to the monitoring of active volcanoes, contribution to protection of educational buildings and cultural monuments and sites; IHP activities concerning the study and mitigation of risks arising from natural hazards, such as hydrological extremes, floods and droughts; the establishment of international and regional centres for exchange and analysis of hazards and disaster data and of seismological networks (Institute of Earthquake Engineering and Engineering Seismology, Skopje, TFYR Macedonia; International Seismological Centre, Newbury, United Kingdom; International Institute of Seismology and Earthquake Engineering, Japan; Regional Seismological Centre for South America, Peru; International Institute of Earthquake Engineering and Seismology, Islamic Republic of Iran).

Anticipating scarcity of resources

Environmental security is also affected by endowment in natural resources. Among the environmental security issues identified in Western Europe figures the scarcity of oil, gas and energy, which makes Europe highly dependent on being able to import them. Among the environmental security issues identified in Eastern and Central Europe were energy

crises stemming from the dearth of alternative energy sources and the continued wasteful use of resources, a legacy of the Soviet era, when energy was to a large extent subsidized.

Water scarcity is clearly a critical human security issue. Water in sufficient quantity and quality is essential for basic human

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(73) http://undp.un.org.pk/unesco/ERP/main.htm

well-being, food security, hygiene and health, and also for the preservation of natural ecosystems upon which we all depend. It is estimated that some 1.1 billion people lack access to the 20–50 litres of safe fresh water daily that is the minimum amount deemed necessary by the UN to ensure basic drinking, cooking and cleaning needs. Neither the natural sciences nor the social and human sciences can achieve any of UNESCO's goals alone – both aspects are required. The global problems linked with water must also be considered from the viewpoint of social and human sciences, education, culture and communication and information – cutting across all UNESCO's sectors.

The current Phase VI of the International Hydrological Programme (IHP) (2002–2007), Water Interactions: Systems at Risk and Social Challenges, emphasizes the societal aspects of water resources. Various capacity-building activities help Member States to better manage their water resources. A number of IHP activities relevant to water scarcity focus on drylands and arid areas where scarcity problems are most prominent. In the many water-scarce areas, where groundwater is the main source, IHP provides methodological and technical advice for better management of groundwater resources. In areas with insufficient water, the water resources are being augmented in various ways, e.g. using desalination of seawater or brackish water, by 'artificially' recharging groundwater, harvesting rainwater and 'mining' non-renewable groundwater resources.

IHP develops and disseminates information about the appropriate use of these techniques. Publications such as *Groundwater Contamination Inventory: A Methodological Guide* provide technical advice on evaluating the quality of groundwater and potential related problems which may have health implications. The UNESCO Cairo Office has continued the implementation of a project on capacity-building and training on environmental planning and management in the Palestinian Authority in cooperation with water research institutions in Gaza and the West Bank. In the field of water and environment, UNESCO has been entrusted by the UN with the lead role in a major initiative on water within the framework of the Cluster theme 'Agriculture, Water Resources and Environment' in Iraq. This has been carried out within the context of the UN Development Group Iraq Trust Fund Funding Framework.

In response to the need for integrated management of coastal regions, UNESCO launched the initiative on Environment and Development in Coastal Regions and in Small Islands (CSI). Its goal is to bring together expertise in education, natural and social and human sciences, culture, and communication and information to assist countries in

moving towards sustainable development in coastal regions. Through interdisciplinary pilot projects, it addresses issues such as mitigating the impact of coastal erosion, managing fresh water in coastal cities and small islands and strengthening coastal communities through sustainable management of biological resources.

It has been noted, however, that not only *scarcity* of resources compromises human security. Having too much of a resource can too. In some regions, human security is adversely affected by availability resources, for example, when oil and diamonds, are used *in* and *to fuel* conflicts. Oil and the scarcity of arable lands have a particular impact on the Arab States. The fact that some of the world's largest oil and gas reserves are located in the region not only has economical consequences (since the Arab States that produce and export oil are those with the highest per capita income, though oil is a non-renewable resource and dependence on oil wealth brings lack of diversification), but also geopolitical consequences (since it is in the interest of consuming countries to maintain unhampered access to the resource at prices that they consider reasonable), and consequences in terms of food security (since the region is highly dependent on imported food). Inter and intra state conflicts in the Arab region are closely related to control over oil and water sources.[74]

(74) See 'Oil: a poisoned gift?', Chourou, op. cit., pp. 44–46.

Ensuring ethics of science and technology

The ethics of science and technology have an important role to play in promoting human security. By serving as an advocate for ethics in science and for science's contribution to promoting the peaceful use of science and technology and preserving human rights, UNESCO enhances human security by acting to fulfill its responsibility to foster the role of science in peacebuilding and conflict resolution, and seeks to promote and facilitate an improved reflection on scientific and technological developments within various economic and cultural contexts.

An essential component of UNESCO's capacity-building effort in the ethics of science and technology is support for the establishment of independent, multidisciplinary and pluralistic ethics committees at local, regional and national levels and assistance to existing committees. Such ethics committees can play an important role as intermediary bodies for the implementation of normative instruments adopted by the member states. The ethical issues tackled may range from issues in bioethics or the

ethics of energy to questions concerning the rights and occupational safety of workers in the construction industry, engineering standards, public works projects, road and traffic safety.

In many areas of the world, the need to reflect on the moral dimension of advances in science and technology and the desire to enhance public health have led to the establishment of various forms of Bioethics Committees. For example the French Comité Consultatif National d'Éthique pour les sciences de la vie et de la santé (CCNE), the National Bioethics Committee in Indonesia and the United States President's Council on Bioethics serve as platforms for providing guidance and advice to policy-makers and governments at national level. Bioethics committees meet regularly to address the ethical dimensions of the health sciences, the life sciences and innovative health policies that are not simply factual, but profoundly normative.

Box 27: Establishment of Bioethics Committees

The Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights, adopted by the UNESCO General Conference in October 2005, advocates the establishment of independent, multidisciplinary and pluralist ethics committees at national, regional, local or institutional levels. The purpose of these committees is to foster the exchange of ideas and information, support decision-making, develop tools for standard setting, and strengthen coordination and contacts among experts and institutions (e.g. through databases). They reinforce the role of UNESCO as an international clearing house for ethical issues. Ethics committees will furthermore be one of the most important intermediary bodies for the implementation of the normative instruments adopted by the member states. In many countries, experiences exist with bioethics committees at various levels of government. However, in the majority of member states, bioethics committees do not presently exist. Establishing bioethics committees may thus be a first step for states to create platforms and bodies for ethical debate, analysis and policy development.

UNESCO has initiated a programme to support the establishment and operations of bioethics committees. The Project ABC, 'Assisting Bioethics Committees', aims at reinforcing the bioethics infrastructure in Member States by establishing national bioethics committees and enhancing their functioning once they have been established. Practical information is provided concerning the creation of a national bioethics committee. Project ABC is an essential component of UNESCO's capacity-building effort in the area of ethics of science and technology.

This support for the establishment of ethics and bioethics committees at all levels (national, regional, local) and assistance to existing committees are essential elements of the capacity-building action of UNESCO in the field of bioethics. For the time being, the focus of activities will be national bioethics committees. Such committees can be effective platforms from which to implement UNESCO's Declarations in bioethics – the Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights (1997), the International Declaration on Human Genetic Data (2003) and the Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human Rights (2005).

Source: **www.unesco.org/shs/est**

Together with Thai Government partners, UNESCO Bangkok formally launched Ethics of Energy in Asia and the Pacific, with a conference in Bangkok on 26–28 September 2007. Government officials, educators, communications specialists, engineers and academics and students of diverse disciplinary backgrounds were among the participants, who represented over a dozen countries in the Asia and Pacific region. This is a project on the ethics of energy technologies

with dialogues and policy forums to discuss long-term ethical issues regarding different energy systems. It calls for developing dialogues within each participating country and between countries on the results of research, future research needs, policy lessons and policy recommendations with regard to the ethical issues of energy-related technologies. It will also examine related environmental and human security issues.

The project aims to find answers to questions on the values that countries should appeal to in making decisions regarding the energy technologies they develop, the strategies they should follow in times of environmental crisis, the various benefits and risks of different technologies. Among its objectives are: promoting a deeper public understanding of the complexities of different energy sources and technologies; depoliticizing debates about nuclear energy in order to promote a deeper understanding of the broader social and ethical aspects of energy that are perceived to pose transboundary threats, or may predictably affect the environment; clarifying public perceptions of the ethical and legal issues involved in the global energy debate; addressing basic questions about the ethical values in different cultures regarding energy and environmental preservation; promoting a deeper understanding of inequitable access to energy technology and the leadership role of developed countries in this regard; establishing a willing coalition for ongoing dialogues and research for informed policy choices; and

analysing what can be done to reinforce or improve the ethics infrastructure. Missions and meetings are organized in groups of Member States. As countries in the Asia Pacific region face mounting external pressures to decide upon their energy policy, the values and questions that exist inside the region for ethical deliberation over the choices for energy are submitted to examination.

As an outcome of the three-day meeting, twelve working groups were established to take the project forward. These are: Universalism and environmental values; Ethical worldviews of nature; Visions and hopes of the future; Representation and who decides; Community engagement; Stakeholder responsibilities; Energy equity and human security; Cost-benefit analysis and economic constructions; Adoption and development of energy technologies (state of art review); Ethical frameworks for research agendas and policy; Educational frameworks for environmental ethics; Nuclear dialogues.[75]

Enhancing research-policy linkages through networking

As is evident throughout this document on UNESCO's approach to human security, the concept of human security brings together fields that disciplinary specializations have long led people to regard as separate. Indeed, the appearance of new non-military threats to peace and security requires that we develop new tools of knowledge and watch to define the impact of each one of them as precisely as possible, above all when those threats concern the most vulnerable populations. In this framework, essential issues – such as the interactions between populations, environment and food security – must be tackled from an integrated and interdisciplinary point of view.

In knowledge societies, such integration of research and policies should be encouraged through the pooling of knowledge resources and the development of

transdisciplinarity. It is reasonable to hope that knowledge societies will encourage the promotion of human security through new and appropriate processes.

The assumption underpinning the agendas of human security is that all individuals, provided that they are free from the main causes of insecurity, can become the architects of their own well-being as well as that of the community. Indeed, access to knowledge and knowledge sharing can provide individuals with the abilities needed to ensure the conditions for human security. These conditions include a certain number of fundamental rights – freedom of conscience, freedom of expression and information, freedom of association, freedom of the press, and universal suffrage, as well as economic, social and cultural rights, among which is the right to education.[76]

Box 28: Creating norms and standards adapted to local realities

Trust in the everyday environment and the reliability of goods and services are also prerequisites for human security, whether it is the food, health, environment or socio-economic sector that is concerned … The first imperative is to create norms adapted to local realities. But creating standards is not sufficient. Standards must be subjected to positive and negative sanctions, and citizens, companies, and the main actors of civil society must be informed about the existence and validity of such norms and standards … Normative action and the certification procedures undertaken by the public authorities must be taken over by initiatives within civil society … In the same way, non-governmental organizations hold a key position, … because they can have an instrumental role, … by providing information on the populations' needs, or after this phase, by ensuring monitoring, training and information activities integrating the new norms into the everyday environment and adapting them to local situations.

Source: *UNESCO World Report: Towards Knowledge Societies*, 2005
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001418/141843e.pdf

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(75) UNESCO Regional Unit for Social and Human Sciences in the Asia-Pacific (RUSHSAP). http://www.unescobkk.org/
http://www.unescobkk.org/index.php?id=energyethics
(76) For more on the theme of knowledge societies, see UNESCO World Report, 2005. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001418/141843e.pdf
Knowledge societies, human security, human rights and the fight against poverty, pp. 139–42. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001418/141843e.pdf

Debates conducted during the International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus (IFSP) held in Buenos Aires in February 2006[77] reconfirmed the need for articulation between policy and social science. In facing the complex problems affecting the international community, and particularly the most vulnerable sectors with greater efficiency, integration between decision-making and social science thinking is required It was generally agreed that globalization has created new social issues that transcend the national context. Migration, environmental degradation, drug traffic and the commercial sexual exploitation of children are some of the social problems the description and explanation of which go beyond the national scope. It should then be a priority to develop joint and coordinated solutions to the most urgent and dramatic problems facing our societies today, such as hunger and poverty, educational shortcomings, health, and the degradation of the environment, which are the five areas referred to in the eight Millennium Development Goals.

Box 29: Buenos Aires Declaration calling for a new approach to the Social Science – Policy Nexus

We, the participants in the International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus, which has brought together for the first time social scientists and policy-makers from more than eighty countries in all the regions of the world, coming from United Nations agencies, universities and governments, representing the full range of involvement in both social science and policy and meeting on the occasion of the closing plenary session of the Forum in Buenos Aires on February 24, 2006, after four days of discussions organized in the cities of Buenos Aires, Rosario, Córdoba and Montevideo.

Inspired by the Declaration of the 1995 World Summit on Social Development, the United Nations Millennium Declaration, the 2005 World Summit Outcome Resolution, as well as by flagship reports on human development, world development and inequality by United Nations agencies and the World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization.

Taking note of the demands placed on social science research by the development goals of the international community and of the impetus given by these and other international documents and initiatives.

Taking into consideration the Budapest Declaration on Science and the Use of Scientific Knowledge adopted by the World Conference on Science, which emphasizes the necessary enhancement of dialogue between science and society, as well as the Lisbon and Vienna Declarations on Social Sciences, both of which stress the indispensable contribution of social science to the social development objectives of the international community.

Taking into account several United Nations reports highlighting the sharp increase in inequalities between and within countries, and *greatly concerned* that the universal thrust of human rights, human dignity and justice is in many instances being eroded under contemporary social and economic pressure.

Assuming that the Millennium Development Goals and other internationally agreed development goals are not only the statement of new moral purpose but also the minimum threshold compatible with the proclaimed values of the international community, and *affirming* that failure to make serious progress towards achieving them would entail tremendous cost in terms of human lives, quality of life and social development.

Convinced that without moral vision and political will, the challenges of the Millennium Development Goals cannot be met, that meeting these goals requires new knowledge used in innovative ways and better use of existing knowledge, and that, in this regard, the social sciences have a crucial contribution to make in formulating development policy.

Taking note that addressing hunger and poverty, lack of education, poor health and environmental degradation – the five areas to which the eight Millennium Development Goals relate –, is crucial for human welfare, social and economic development, the achievement of social cohesion and the consolidation of democratic governance. None of these areas is solely within the purview of social science, but without social sciences none is fully comprehensible or capable of being addressed.

We thus state our conviction that better use of rigorous social science can lead to more effective policies and outcomes. Such use requires strengthening linkages between the social sciences and policies for social and economic development. For the knowledge that the social sciences seek is precisely the knowledge that policy needs. The world needs new forms of interaction between social scientists and policy actors – and innovative spaces to make them possible.

Commending UNESCO, the government of Argentina and the government of Uruguay for their initiative in launching the process that has led to the International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus, it is with these urgent concerns in mind that we formulate the following recommendations and bring them to the attention of the international community.

1. We strongly encourage UNESCO to strengthen this initiative and facilitate similar initiatives at the regional level at the request of its Member States and in cooperation with other United Nations agencies, funds and programmes.

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(77) See the Final Report of the International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus (IFSP), Buenos Aires, February 2006.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145939E.pdf

2. We call upon UNESCO, through the MOST Programme and in close cooperation with the other organizations, institutes, funds and programmes of the United Nations system, to explore the ways and means for ensuring strengthened synergies and complementarities between the various policy-oriented social science research programmes within the United Nations system as a whole and international social science organizations and civil society.

3. With due respect for the autonomy of social science research, we encourage the establishment of new networks and the strengthening of existing ones at the national and regional level to bring together social scientists, policy-makers, and non-governmental and grass-roots organizations around their shared concern for the urgent demands of social and economic development.

4. We call attention to the existence of Fora of Ministers for Social Development at regional as well as subregional levels in developing countries and suggest the creation and consolidation of permanent nexuses between the latter and the above mentioned networks.

5. We therefore suggest that the *International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus*, otherwise known as the *Buenos Aires Process*, be organized regularly in order to formalize and promote this linkage between both types of networks at the international level.

6. We call upon the regional organizations such as MERCOSUR and the African Union, in association with social scientists and civil society, to further develop the social dimensions of regional integration, and call upon the United Nations to facilitate interregional dialogues on regional social policies.

7. We call upon existing funding programmes, in particular donor agencies and multilateral and regional development banks, to participate in these new spaces of dialogue.

8. We also call upon United Nations, regional and national funding agencies to place particular emphasis in their programming on the development and enhancement of social science research capacities in the developing countries, with special reference to Africa, and to finance policy relevant social science research.

9. We further call upon governments to support social science research and use evidence from research in formulating social and economic policies.

10. We stress that implementation of these recommendations requires relevant funding mechanisms and appropriate institutional structures to support both research capacities and the dissemination of social science research results. We further invite all academic communities, civil society, non-governmental organizations, governments, United Nations agencies, funding agencies and other relevant stakeholders to work towards this end.

11. We call upon all participating national and United Nations agencies to ensure dissemination of this Declaration and of the work of the Forum to all relevant parties that can contribute to the implementation of the present recommendations.

Finally, we thank the governments of Argentina and Uruguay, and the local authorities and universities of Buenos Aires, Montevideo, Rosario and Córdoba, for their major contribution to the success of the Forum and for their warm hospitality. We express our gratitude to the various organizations that contributed to this effort, in particular: UNRISD, UNDESA, ILO, the World Bank, UNU-CRIS, the International Social Science Council and the regional social science networks.

Source: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145939E.pdf

Economic integration can help resolve some of the problems associated with the competitiveness, growth and development of countries, but this is not enough. The social and cultural dimension of integration is necessary. It is important to view social policy from a broader, more integrated perspective, where the state, academia, civil society and international organisms create positive synergies to articulate policy and social science. International cooperation has a relevant role to develop in consolidating these mechanisms and forums, in facilitating international dialogue, in strengthening social science research capabilities, and in financing scientific investigation relevant to policy, especially for developing countries.

The Management of Social Transformations Programme (MOST) was launched in March 1994 as part of UNESCO's Social and Human Sciences Sector. It was designed as a research programme to produce reliable and relevant knowledge for policy-makers. The original mandate established a strong commitment to the promotion of comparative, international, interdisciplinary and policy-relevant research. The programme was also designed to organize and promote international research networks, to give attention to capacity-building and to establish a clearing house of knowledge in the social science field.

After a thorough evaluation of its first phase (1994–2003), and in recognition of the increasing need to improve policy formulation, MOST has been reoriented, both thematically and in its modalities of operation. Pursuant to the Recommendations made at the 2003 session of the Intergovernmental Council of the MOST Programme, the new focus of the MOST Programme (MOST Phase II – 2004–2013) is on *building efficient bridges between*

research, policy and practice. The programme strives to promote a culture of evidence-based policy-making – nationally, regionally and internationally.

Targeted networking of ministers of social development across regions and subregions is opening up new policy spaces and helps to structure and institutionalize dialogue between high-level government officials, researchers and civil society representatives. At international level, the International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus organized in 2006 simultaneously in three Argentinean cities (Buenos Aires, Cordoba and Rosario) and in Uruguay's capital Montevideo established a new space for international exchange and stakeholder dialogue with a view to informing social policy formulation by state-of-the-art research.

A comprehensive process of consultations with UNESCO's constituencies, regional representations and scientific partners led to the establishment of regional priority themes for Phase II of the MOST Programme: Latin America and the Caribbean: Combating Poverty;

Africa: Regional Integration Processes; Arab States: The Role of the State in Social Development Policies; Asia-Pacific: Human Security; Europe, including Eastern/Central Europe: Ageing Populations: Small Island Developing States (SIDS) – Pacific/Caribbean: Sustainable Social Development.

To serve these purposes, the MOST knowledge meta-networking platform for evidence-based decision-making consists of a set of services and resources aimed at enhanced dissemination and usability of social sciences research results for policy-making. This 'Knowledge for Policy' platform will gradually integrate other select resources from UNESCO as well as United Nations and partners' related resources. Among the instruments for dissemination of results are the MOST digital library which hosts the programme publications; policy papers, designed according to a specific policy analysis methodology; and the MOST comparative policy research tool providing policy-relevant comparative information; as well as a conference reporting system allowing immediate restitution of discussions and debates at any event.[78]

V. Facing conflicts and violence

An essential element making up human security lies in guaranteeing the right of all people to live in peace and security within their own borders. For this to be a reality, people and states must be able to prevent and resolve conflicts through peaceful and non-violent means, and they must be able to carry out reconciliation efforts in an effective way once the conflicts come to an end.[79]

UNESCO's Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007 aims at reinforcing human security by addressing the need to prevent conflicts at their source through its global network of peace research and training institutions, thereby contributing to the development of integrated subregional, regional, and national approaches to human security that focus on the most vulnerable populations and include the prevention and resolution of conflicts.[80]

In fulfilment of its mandate within the UN system, which specifies that UNESCO is 'to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction

of race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations' (Article I of UNESCO Constitution), the Organization has never remained silent on issues pertaining to violence. This profound commitment, particularly evident since the 1980s, culminated in the Seville Statement, drafted by international scientists in 1986 and adopted on 16 November 1989 at the 25th session of the General Conference. Drafted in the form of clear propositions, this document challenges the widespread belief that violent, warlike behaviour is inherent in human nature.

UNESCO has also made major contributions to multidisciplinary research on violence through many publications on such subjects as 'violence and development', 'violence and the media', 'violence and non-violence', 'violence and education', 'violence and gender', 'violence and urbanization' and 'violence and peace' with, *inter alia*, the publication in 1995 of *Violence: a UNESCO Notebook*[81] focusing on Algeria. As the *Notebook* demonstrated, blind violence can easily occur within a society and affect a large part of its own members. UNESCO had the duty to react and did so in publishing this book dedicated to all the victims of violence at a time when the 'events' were still occurring in

(78) http://www.unesco.org/shs/most
(79) Sadako Ogata, *Inclusion or Exclusion: Social Development Challenges for Asia and Europe*.
(80) 31 C/4 Approved, Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007, November 2001, §§ 93–113.
(81) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0010/001007/100776eo.pdf

the country. As violence often benefits from forced silence, UNESCO wanted to speak on behalf of all who suffered unfairly.

It is also a question of discerning what in the minds of those who murder may result from the submission of citizens to a criminal state, from their own will, a desire for revenge, hate or fear of imaginary dangers, from pillage, from the 'settling accounts' among neighbours, from a group mentality, from the feeling of assumed or actually suffered humiliation, from a guarantee of impunity. This question is paramount. Mass massacre can be the result of a decision by the state, but for its execution, it needs the participation of a large number of citizens. The decision of a political power to eliminate a national group can only be carried out if the ties between the group to be eradicated and the rest of the nation are broken. It is under these circumstances that people become capable of refusing shelter to threatened neighbouring women and children and of directing killers to those who attempt to hide as well as to their hiding places, thereby taking part in the massacre of their relatives.

Violence, as a concept and a phenomenon, has for decades been central to discussions in various social and human science disciplines, and likewise in philosophy and literature. The approach to 'violence' is transverse and multidisciplinary. Indeed, the primary characteristic of violence, for neophytes and theorists alike, resides in the difficulty of defining it. Should we talk of violence in the singular or the plural? After all, it has many facets. It has manifold origins and a range of local, national and international forms and consequences. So it would make no sense to treat it as a single, monolithic entity and, what is more, it would add nothing new to the debate on contemporary forms of violence.

Today, we are able to take full advantage of the contributions of specialists in a range of subjects: economics, theology, philosophy, human sciences, political science, sociology, psychology and psychoanalysis, anthropology, history, strategic studies, geopolitics, etc. What do we mean by *violence* nowadays? When we come across new forms of violence, are these really new types in the strictest sense, or are they variations on old forms that have become more

widespread or more severe and have taken on new disguises? We are witnessing many significant changes: ranging from the development of armed conflicts, which may take the form of civil war, ethnic cleansing or even genocide, to the *a posteriori* outrage of an international community that is often powerless. It is undeniable that the reactions of civil society weigh increasingly heavily in the balance when it comes to analysing and condemning violence in its many different guises.

And then, there is also an evolving trend in international law, which, like all law, is constantly changing and developing. With the emergence of the concept of individual responsibility on the international scene – a number of political leaders brought before international tribunals – are we heading towards the end of the impunity that too many instigators have enjoyed? In international relations, are we seeing the emergence of new forms of violence? What is the scope for action under international law today?

And then, there are other questions: Is violence innate and natural, or does it stem from a particular environment? Does it make sense to speak of endogenous violence? What about the supposed divide between Islam and the West and the 'clash of civilizations'? Whose point of view is this? One of the main concerns here would be to trace the connections between phenomena: for example, between globalization and violence, between violence and national sovereignty, and between violence and non-state actors. From this standpoint, how should we analyse the new forms of violence, both before and after the events of 11 September 2001?

It was to provide some answers to such major societal issues that, under the heading of the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World, UNESCO and the Institut des Hautes Études de Défense Nationale (IHEDN, France) decided to act in tandem to organize an International Symposium on *Violence and its Causes: A Stocktaking*, the purpose of which was to analyse present-day forms of violence through the contributions of intellectuals from various backgrounds and disciplines. The main outcomes of the symposium are compiled in the UNESCO-Economica joint publication with the same title.[82]

(82) http://publishing.unesco.org/details.aspx?Code_Livre=4403; http://publishing.unesco.org/details.aspx?Code_Livre=4331

UNESCO's contribution to the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-violence for the Children of the World (2001–2010)

Today more than ever, there is a need to reinforce our efforts to build a Culture of Peace, collectively and at all levels. As defined by the United Nations, the Culture of Peace is a set of values, attitudes, modes of behaviour and ways of life that reject violence and prevent conflicts by tackling their root causes so as to solve problems through dialogue and negotiation among individuals, groups and nations.[83]

In order to 'mobilize public opinion at the national and international levels for the purpose of establishing and promoting a culture of peace', on 20 November 1997, the General Assembly of the United Nations proclaimed the year 2000 the International Year for the Culture of Peace, envisaged as a global movement for a culture of peace to create a 'grand alliance' of existing movements that unites all those already working for a culture of peace.[84] The Programme of Action adopted in September 1999 calls upon civil society in general and non-governmental organizations in particular, in partnership with governments and the United Nations to work to form this 'global movement for a culture of peace'. This Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace is structured around eight interrelated areas.

Box 30: The eight fields of activity of the Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace

1. Educating for a culture of peace and non-violence by revising the educational curricula to promote qualitative values, attitudes and behaviours of a culture of peace, including peaceful conflict resolution, dialogue, consensus-building and active non-violence, empowerment of women, special measures for groups with special needs, environmental sustainability.

2. Promoting sustainable economic and social development by reducing economic and social inequalities, eradicating poverty and assuring sustainable food security, social justice, durable solutions to debt problems.

3. Promoting respect for all human rights, because human rights and a culture of peace are complementary: whenever war and violence dominate, there is no possibility to ensure human rights and without human rights, in all their dimensions, there can be no culture of peace.

4. Ensuring equality between women and men through the full participation of women in economic, social and political decision-making, the elimination of all forms of discrimination and violence against women, support and assistance to women in need.

5. Fostering democratic participation, because democratic principles, practices and participation in all sectors of society, transparent and accountable governance and administration, combating terrorism, organized crime, corruption, illicit drugs and money laundering are indispensable foundations for achieving and maintaining peace and security.

6. Advancing understanding, tolerance and solidarity, because to abolish war and violent conflicts we need to transcend and overcome enemy images with understanding, tolerance and solidarity among all peoples and cultures and to learn from our differences, through dialogue and the exchange of information.

7. Supporting participatory communication and the free flow of information and knowledge, because freedom of information and communication and the sharing of information and knowledge are indispensable for a culture of peace.

8. Fostering international peace and security, because the gains in human security and disarmament in recent years, including nuclear weapons treaties and the treaty banning land mines, should encourage us to increase our efforts in negotiation of peaceful settlements, elimination of production and traffic of arms and weapons, humanitarian solutions in conflict situations, post-conflict initiatives.

Source: Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace[85]

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(83) UN Resolution A/RES/52/13, Culture of Peace.
(84) UN Resolution A /RES/52/15: see IYCP Exhibition.
(85) UN Resolution A/RES/53/243, Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace.

As mentioned in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-first Century?*, what is new about the concept of the culture of peace structured around these eight major fields of activity is that it provides a single framework for maximizing the complementary nature of and synergy between governments, the UN system and civil society.[86]

The movement for a culture of peace began growing with the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001–2010).[87] As a follow-up to the year 2000, the International Decade is devoted to promoting a 'culture of peace and non-violence for the children of the world'. By Resolution A/RES/55/47 of 22 January 2001, the United Nations General Assembly designated UNESCO as lead agency for the International Decade.

Kofi Annan[88] presented two parallel approaches to be followed in implementing the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001–2010). First, the global movement 'needs to be continued and strengthened into order to involve everyone at all levels of society in the transitions from a culture of war and violence to a culture of peace and non-violence'. To do this the global movements have available

to them the network of National Committees and Offices that UNESCO set up during the International Year. Second, children should be at the centre of the Decade and, among the specific measures to be taken 'priority should be given to education, including the teaching of the practice of peace and non-violence to children. All other areas of action for a culture of peace should take children into special consideration.

As Focal Point for the International Year for the Culture of Peace[89] and lead agency for the Decade, UNESCO has developed an interactive web site allowing the actors of the movement to promote their initiatives and to exchange information and resources among one another for better interaction. More than 75 million individuals and thousands of local, national and international organizations representing more than 160 countries are already participating.[90] The 72 million people, more than a hundredth of the world's population, who have signed Manifesto 2000 pledging to apply the principles on which the culture of peace is based in their daily lives, are an indication of the extent to which public opinion has been mobilized in more than 160 countries of the world owing to the work of thousands of organizations in civil society.[91]

From inter-state to intra-state conflicts

In recent years, traditional inter-state wars have been largely replaced by intra-state warfare and struggles for self-determination and national identity in the post-Cold War world. As mentioned by Shin-wha Lee, of the fifty-eight major armed conflicts in forty-six locations throughout the world during the period from 1990 to 2002, all but three, 95 per cent, were civil or communal conflicts fought within the borders of a sovereign state.[92]

This proliferation of threats from within in the form of intra-state conflicts and challenges to intra-national stability in the wake of the Cold War was a factor that played a key role in increasing the awareness of the need to broaden the traditional concept of security and was instrumental in bringing human security issues to the fore. As Kofi Annan expressed it, 'a new understanding

of the concept of security is evolving. Once synonymous with the defence of territory from external attack, the requirements of security today have come to embrace the protection of communities and individuals from internal violence'.[93]

This sudden increase of intra-state conflicts or civil warfare in the form of the escalation or protraction of civil wars and communal conflicts has been a major source of humanitarian crises and tragedies such as the mass flight of refugees, genocide and ethnic cleansing. Making up more than 90 per cent of the casualties in the conflicts breaking out since the end of the Cold War, civilians have been the greatest victims, in particular women and children, who are often the targets of assault and hostility in times of violence and war.[94]

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(86) Enzo Fazzino, Presentation of the International Year for the Culture of Peace, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-first Century?*, op. cit., p. 35.
(87) UN Resolution A/RES/53/25.
(88) Fazzino, op. cit., p. 34.
(89) UN Resolution E/1997/47.
(90) www.unesco.org/cp
Useful link to UNESCO's Culture of Peace website: http://www3.unesco.org/iycp/uk/uk_sum_survey.htm
Mainstreaming the culture of peace http://www.un.org/documents/ecosoc/res/1998/eres1998-31.htm
http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N98/776/41/PDF/N9877641.pdf?OpenElement
(91) Fazzino, op. cit., p. 33.
(92) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 19.
(93) Kofi Annan, Millennium Report, New York, United Nations, Chapter 3, pp. 43–44.
(94) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., pp. 11, 19.

Unsolved border tensions are a frequent cause of conflict. A series of major border disagreements involving the Caspian Sea, the border between Afghanistan and Pakistan, the Helmand River, the Fergana Valley, the Aral Sea Basin are among the factors fostering inter-state confrontations and hindering stability in their region. Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, Nicaragua, Venezuela and Colombia are countries with unsolved border conflicts.

Border tensions are often the legacy of colonialism or the Cold War. In the case of regions with a colonial past, like the Arab region, there is a heritage of imposed boundaries that do not always match the peoples' feeling of identification with a nation-state. Various countries formerly falling within the Soviet sphere of influence are experiencing conflicts related to the imposition of borders that became real once independence was attained. To these are added intra-state conflicts coming from ethnic and centre-periphery tensions over the access and control of resources and political power.

In the Arab region, conflicts have tended to be closely bound to the control of oil and water sources and lead to a weakening of peoples' coping mechanisms and increased vulnerability. In Cambodia, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Myanmar, Sri Lanka and the Philippines, the animosities have a historical continuance. The principal outstanding challenge in the Balkans remains the legacy of recent post-Cold War conflicts, in particular in terms of political instability, and the impact of Kosovo's autoproclaimed independence. The major source of concern in the Latin America and the Caribbean region is the conflict in Colombia where the spilling over of phenomena, such as kidnapping, extortion, guerrilla and paramilitary incursions, and flow of illicit crops have led to the militarization of the country's borders and increased efforts are needed to achieve peace and reestablish the rule of law.[95] In recent years, a number of countries have fallen prey to renewed ethnic rivalries.[96] Sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia are the regions where ethno-political conflicts are particularly present. Of principal concern in the Great Lakes Region is the political crisis with continuing non-state violence, the establishment of a war economy and the consequent illicit trade in natural resources.

Box 31: Reinforcing human security in East Africa: the Greater Horn Horizon Initiative

For many decades, human security in the greater Horn of Africa region, composed of the seven Member States of the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, the Sudan and Uganda, has mainly been threatened by the consequences of long-lasting intra- and inter-state conflicts and by high levels of poverty. In order to analyse the various threats to human security in the region and to formulate related policy responses, UNESCO has facilitated the launching of the Greater Horn Horizon Initiative. This autonomous and independent research-policy forum for intellectuals from the region and the diaspora aims at providing spaces for dialogues on the common future of the region and its core problems.

Identifying threats to human security and formulating related policy recommendations
The rich ethnic, religious and cultural diversity of the Horn of Africa has often been instrumentalized by various actors in their competition for access to power as well as natural and economic resources. These 'identity divides' have not only led to violent confrontations and deep-rooted prejudices between the people, but have also so far discouraged the development of regional integration policies conducive to human security in the region. Therefore, the Greater Horn Horizon Initiative aims to support IGAD and governments of the region in formulating sustainable policies to meet these pressing challenges. Encouraging interdisciplinary thinking about the future of the region, it undertakes independent research in order to identify threats to human security and develop mutually acceptable policies. It also facilitates dialogues among researchers and with policy-makers in the search for policies conducive to peaceful coexistence and regional integration.

Looking at the future: anticipatory approaches and scenario-building methodologies
The main originality of the Greater Horn Horizon Initiative is its focus on future-oriented studies such as anticipatory approaches and scenario-building methodologies in the analysis of regional issues. Employed in South Africa, Colombia and Guatemala to assist in the reconstruction of post-conflict societies, these approaches include often-neglected positive elements that can foster dialogues and reconciliation dynamics. Thus, the forum will encourage exchanges that go beyond the usual analysis of the past and the current situations and explore different possible scenarios for the coming decades. Not wishing to be associated with the 'blame-game', this initiative seeks to focus its research on the common features of the peoples of the region, enhance public awareness of the need to think collectively and regionally, and improve the capacities for developing common and policy-oriented strategies to reinforce human security.

Source: UNESCO Social and Human Sciences Sector

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(95) Juan Gabriel Tokatlián, Colombia: more human insecurity, less regional security, in *Human Security, Conflict Prevention and Peace*, Proceedings of the Expert Meeting on 'Peace, Human Security and Conflict Prevention in Latin America and the Caribbean', UNESCO/FLACSO-Chile, 2002, p. 159.
(96) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 19.

Contributing to conflict resolution

In the area of conflict resolution, integration of the conditions and skills for dialogue is essential to the prevention of hatred and violence at all levels. As the demands and challenges of achieving peace through mutual understanding become more complex, new and more integrative approaches to education, including the development of textbooks and learning materials, are urgently needed.

Box 32: UNESCO and post-conflict reconstruction

Natural disasters and civil strife are more and more common. UNESCO has been increasingly called upon by its Member States to react in immediate post-conflict and natural disasters situations. The Organization concentrates its efforts on the human and intellectual aspects of peacebuilding through four fundamental pillars: education, culture, sciences and communication. Actions in these fields have proven to be significant in breaking conflict cycles and preventing relapse.

UNESCO has proved in several situations that it can intervene with immediate short-term quick impact activities early enough during the initial humanitarian phase of a post-conflict and post-disaster (PCPD) situation to secure immediate needs, while first of all having the capacity to bridge activities to the early recovery and reconstruction and development phase.

UNESCO assistance is aimed not only at providing urgent help by assessing damages and mitigating losses but also by preparing national authorities, and professional and civil society organizations for longer-term sustainable reconstruction through technical expertise and advisory services.

UNESCO places a strong emphasis on country ownership and local capacities enhancement to handle post-conflict rehabilitation through:
> rehabilitation of education systems;
> promotion of cultural diversity including protection of cultural/natural heritage at risk;
> reconstruction and promotion of independent and pluralistic media; and
> protection of environment and biological diversity.

Promotion of education
The right to education in emergency situations is fully recognized. UNESCO PEER (Programme for Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction) began its existence in Mogadishu as UNESCO-Somalia in January 1993. As the only decentralized UNESCO programme of its kind, PEER, from its inception, has responded to crises in the Horn of Africa, Great Lakes, Angola, Burundi, Mozambique, Guinea, Haiti, Cambodia, Afghanistan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, etc.

Protection of cultural heritage
UNESCO is dedicated to promoting better understanding of the proactive role of cultural heritage, cultural diversity and human creativity as a basis for dialogue and reconciliation and a vehicle for peacebuilding, social stability, respect for human rights, and disaster reduction. In addition, to provide international coordination mechanisms and enhance the application of normative tools for the protection of cultural heritage, UNESCO has implemented several projects for the rehabilitation and safeguarding of cultural heritage. The cultural programmes have also been developed for tsunami-affected children in South-East Asia.

Promotion of independent media
UNESCO has advanced understanding about the role that freedom of expression and independent media play in avoiding violent conflict. The Organization has facilitated projects across the globe as diverse as supporting election reporting, awareness-raising on principles of freedom of expression, constructing community radio stations, broadening access to information technology, and providing training and equipment for television production. In Iraq as part of a UN umbrella programme, UNESCO supported local initiatives in defence of freedom of expression and human rights. A focus was placed on supporting the Iraqi constitutional process, ensuring that freedom of expression was protected in the new constitution. Since 1996 UNESCO has been recognized as the UN lead agency in assistance to media in Afghanistan, DR Congo and Iraq. In 2004 the UNESCO World Press Freedom Day celebrations in Belgrade adopted a Declaration addressing the role of the international community in assisting independent media in conflict. The Belgrade Declaration, endorsed by the UNESCO General Conference in October 2005, stresses that independent local news media are essential to provide trustworthy information that is vital for peace and reconciliation efforts.

Source: http://www.unesco.org/bpi/pdf/memobpi56_postconflict_en.pdf

In response, UNESCO continues to work with its partners to develop new strategies and guidelines to help regions and countries shape educational policies and practices that encourage and provide the necessary tools for building mutual understanding and respect among all peoples of the world. UNESCO has also contributed to the promotion of cultural understanding through several publications and pedagogical manuals for teachers and educators, such as *Best Practices of Non-Violent Conflict Resolution in and out-of-school*[97] or the guide *The Art of Living in Peace*.[98]

Pursuant to its strategy, UNESCO has considerably strengthened its rehabilitation and reconstruction programme and improved its methods of intervention, as may be seen from the following examples: the Programme of Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction (PEER) was evaluated and restructured and its action in Somalia

reinforced. The programme, regional in scope, is now being given the resources that will enable it to intervene in all post-conflict zones in Africa; a national office and a decentralized antenna were opened in the Sudan where, within the framework of the UN system, the Organization is giving priority to education and cultural diversity; the education system and the cultural and natural heritage of the Democratic Republic of the Congo are being gradually restored. Funded by the African Development Bank (ADB), a support project of US$7.6 million for its education sector is being implemented; an intersectoral working group, coordinated by the Assistant Director-General for the Africa Department and entrusted with proposing to the Director-General an integrated strategy for support to Somalia, was set up. UNESCO is also contributing to the implementation of the Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region.

Box 33: The UNESCO-PEER programme

The UNESCO-PEER programme (Programme of Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction) was launched in Somalia in 1993, with the aim of promoting access to basic and vocational education in African countries affected by conflicts. In fact, education, strengthened by opportunities for civic education and peace education, is one of the most effective means of conflict prevention.

The PEER programme has three main thrusts:

> **Universal, free and non-exclusive primary education**. The priority is to restore the primary education system for children and to provide psychological treatment for traumas relating to war and social upheaval.
> **Accelerated teaching for young people**. The programme is designed to help certain populations excluded from the education system (ex-combatants) or those too old to be integrated into it fully to make up for lost school time through the use of accelerated and concentrated programmes.
> **Non-formal education**. Adult literacy programmes, including health education and education for peace, are provided.

The PEER programme has been implemented in **twelve countries** in the Horn of Africa and Great Lakes regions: Somalia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Yemen, Kenya, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia, Rwanda, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Angola.

It has successfully addressed, especially through its Nairobi Office and its four antennas, three of them in Somalia and one in Djibouti (managed for the past two years by the Addis Ababa Cluster Office), urgent needs in the specific areas of education for a culture of peace, civic education, demobilization and communication for peace. The programme has developed educational materials for accelerated primary education in the local teaching language (Somali, Afar, Kinyarwanda, Kirundi, Portuguese and French) in keeping with the primary school curricula of the countries concerned.

The PEER programme has also developed technical and vocational education programmes for trades selected on the basis of offer and demand and to meet actual local needs, using two tracks, 'Institute-Based Training' (IBT) and 'Enterprise-Based Training'. To implement the EBT model, PEER is using accelerated teaching or non-formal education.

Source: UNESCO Africa Department

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(97) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001266/126679e.pdf
(98) http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=10557&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

As a result of the training sessions in conflict resolution carried out since 2002 in several countries such as Haiti, Thailand, the Congo and France, a website, Conflict Transformation, was set up by the UNESCO Youth Unit, in cooperation with the Open University of Catalunya (OUC) and the Education Sector. Contributions were also made to conferences linked with the Report of the UN Secretary-General on *Prevention of Armed Conflict*;[99] and support to the Asia Pacific Centre of Education for International Understanding (APCEIU) including publications and workshops.

Special attention has been accorded to the Middle East by bringing together people from Palestine and Israel in order for them to build confidence and identify common micro-activities in the field of community work: common schools for children, twinning of towns, common curricula, leisure and so forth.

(99) http://www.un.org.lb/un/awms/uploadedFiles/Prevention%20of%20armed%20conflict%20by%20Kofi%20Annan.pdf

Cooperation between countries sharing groundwater resources is crucial for the elimination of potential for conflict. By promoting sound equitable management of shared water resources, UNESCO's International Hydrological Programme contributes to the prevention of water-related conflicts. The IHP project, From Potential

Conflict to Co-operation Potential, facilitates multilevel and interdisciplinary dialogues in order to foster peace, cooperation, security and development related to the management of shared water resources. IHP-PCCP incorporates training, technical assistance and research to anticipate and resolve water conflicts. It addresses conflict and post-conflict situations where vulnerable populations need additional support to manage their shared water resources in a consistent and equitable manner. It uses the common desire to manage the shared water resources productively as a foundation upon which to consolidate peace. Once cooperation has been achieved,

IHP-PCCP assists the various stakeholders to maintain the sensitive balance of interests.

IHP-PCCP also brought together Palestinian and Israeli experts in December 2006 at the conference, From a Common History to a Common Thinking on Conflict Resolution in the Middle East. Participants at these meetings come from diverse disciplinary backgrounds and represent different parts of the regions under discussion. IHP has also released a computer software programme, the Conflict Resolution Support System, to serve as a tool to promote cooperation.[100]

Box 37: Courses on the prevention of conflicts and the development of cooperation in water resources management

The mission of the project From Potential Conflict to Co-operation Potential (PCCP) is to enable users of the same water resources to cooperate over the management of these vital resources rather than fight against each other and jeopardize their future.

PCCP has therefore developed a number of short courses on conflict prevention and on cooperation in water resource management. These courses started in November 2002. They were held in Maputo (Mozambique) and Cape Town (South Africa). A second round was held in January 2006 in Guayaquil (Ecuador) and the last one took place in Greece for all the South Eastern European countries in October 2006.

In each region, the course material was conceived by an interdisciplinary group of trainers. It focused on the specificities of the region and was addressed to a multidisciplinary audience gathered from the region in question: hydrologists, geologists, journalists, jurists, diplomats, biologists and social scientists were involved among others.

The main goals of the courses were to: enhance understanding of conflict transformation and to improve negotiation skills; improve knowledge of IWRM; strengthen regional water diplomacy.

Furthermore, the courses aimed at establishing a dialogue between water managers with different backgrounds that should work together, trust each other and find joint solutions to avoid real-life conflicts relating to the use of shared water resources. An important objective of the courses was to have participants with different backgrounds share their knowledge and improve their communication skills rather than focus only on country data analysis and negotiation methodologies. These courses enable participants to impart their personal experiences and to understand the ways of thinking and the different point of views of their colleagues. By introducing a real exchange of knowledge and experiences the course fora can serve to initiate discussions, genuine negotiation and cooperation and sometimes even create real close-knit fellowships.

Source: **http://webworld.unesco.org/water/wwap/pccp/index.shtml**

Educating against terrorism

Terrorist violence constitutes a security problem in a number of regions. It is a regional priority in Latin America, where terrorism has become a permanent feature of life in several countries. The area where the borders of Argentina, Brazil and Paraguay meet has been marked down by some as a breeding ground of terrorism.[101] Amitav Acharya reports that terrorism has been a major

focus of South-East Asian governments since the Bali bombings in October 2002.[102] In East Asia, the issue of terrorism has been examined from the perspective of religious radicalism and fundamentalism and has been closely associated with radical Islamic groups within the context of post-9/11 and the international actions deployed to counter it.

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(100) IHP-PCCP publications include *Institutions for International Freshwater Management*, *Guide for the Development of Postgraduate Courses in Conflict Prevention and Cooperation in Water Management in Latin America*, and support materials to various workshops and are accessible at
http://webworld.unesco.org/water/wwap/pccp/cd/index.html
(101) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 153.
(102) Acharya, op. cit., pp. 34–35.

The policies and the instruments devised to deal with terrorism have generated intense international discussion concerning respect for human rights and civil liberties.[103] History has shown that there is a negative correlation between repressing internal and external security threats like terrorism and the respect for fundamental human rights of freedom of movement, expression, assembly, and association. Threats from terrorism seem to many to call for trade-offs between those freedoms and the protection of national security and public order.[104] In Peru, the Sendero Luminoso was eradicated at a high cost to democracy.[105]

Acharya reflects that while terrorism can itself be seen as a threat to human security, there is substantial scope for abuse in the way responses to terrorism, which are often undertaken within the framework of national security concerns, are conducted. He believes that it can be argued that terrorism has had the effect of turning security discourse and policy away from human security issues and of refocusing attention onto issues of national security. He notes that although there has been much talk about attacking the root causes of terror in terms of poverty, inequality and injustice, the responses in the South-East Asia region have instead involved a reinforcement of traditional security institutions such as intelligence agencies, surveillance networks, and counter-insurgency forces.[106] Anara Tabyshalieva reflects that while a few national governments are prioritizing the threat of international terrorism, the general public believes that poverty and a lack of human security, including daily needs, are the most pressing problems.[107]

In the World Summit Outcome document (September 2005),[108] the world leaders agreed to 'strongly condemn terrorism in all its forms and manifestations, committed by whomever, wherever and for whatever purposes, as it constitutes one of the most serious threats to international peace and security' (para. 81). The document welcomed the 'Secretary-General's identification of elements of a counter-terrorism strategy' specifying, among others, that the strategy 'should also take into account the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism' and commending 'the various initiatives to promote dialogue, tolerance and understanding among civilizations' (para. 82).

As a member of the United Nations Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force, established in 2005 by the Secretary-General, UNESCO has a very special contribution to make in its areas of competence, which are often seen as the 'soft part' of counter-terrorism activities – education, the sciences, culture and communication and information.

Since one of the main planks defined in UNESCO's Constitution is 'to build the defenses of peace in the minds of men', the Organization is committed to promoting dialogue among civilizations – or in other terms 'intercultural dialogue' – in the service of peace.

The role of education – especially quality education and intercultural education – is the first and most pivotal component for any long-term action to counter terrorist proclivities. A crucial component of UNESCO's long-term strategy for its contribution to the global struggle against terrorism is seeking to scale up existing programmes for strengthening the capacities of education systems worldwide to integrate human rights education, internationally shared values, mutual understanding, conflict prevention and critical thinking into every aspect of their education systems, including the development of curriculum standards, the training of teachers and the approval of school textbooks.

Youth is a singularly important target group, as the school, and the classroom in particular, provides a privileged social space for 'learning to live together' and for rectifying stereotypes in the portrayal of other cultures, nations and religions and faiths.

Another central component is culture. At a time of accelerated globalization it is clear that culture – rather than being 'a thing' – has become a dynamic space for exchange, overlapping, interplay, and transfer; hence a factor of development and peace. The promotion of and respect for cultural diversity is therefore an important vehicle for reconciliation between divided communities. This is particularly evident in the context of rehabilitation of damaged cultural heritages sites; in restoration and development of cultural institutions such as museums, libraries and archives; and in countering the looting of cultural property – actions that are entirely based on the notion of a shared responsibility of humanity to protect our common cultural heritage in all its forms. UNESCO advocates placing intercultural dialogue and cultural development at the heart of national development plans and the joint programming of tools of the UN system.

A third component is the role of the media – both traditional and new. As terrorism creates a culture of fear which may result in serious restrictions on media freedom and freedom of expression, focus must be on the determinant role of independent and pluralistic media in preventing violent conflict and promoting mutual understanding among groups and peoples of different cultural, religious and social backgrounds.

(103) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 154.
(104) J. Peter Burgess et al., 2007, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Western Europe*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 77.
(105) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., pp. 153–54.
(106) Acharya, op. cit., pp. 34–35.
(107) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 34.
(108) The 2005 World Summit Outcome document, § 143 (A/RES/60/1).

Open and critical discussion within and among societies, facilitated by an independent media in exercise of its freedom of expression, is not only a prerequisite of a functioning democracy. It is an indispensable cornerstone of any holistic and comprehensive international approach to counter terrorism.

Support to media productions that promote genuine dialogue, to high-quality co-productions and the creation of cross-cultural journalist networks is of the utmost importance. The creative use of media and information channels, including broadcast networks, can promote a better knowledge of other cultures and people and provide background and context for individuals or groups to take a critical inward look at themselves and an open-minded one at others.

Terrorism has become more insidious, more accentuated and indiscriminate than ever. Terrorism – and terror as such – is a form of violence with strong symbolic and communicative elements. Terror rests always and everywhere upon prejudices, intolerance, exclusion and the rejection of genuine dialogue. A commitment to dialogue among civilizations, cultures and peoples is therefore a commitment to fight against terrorism.[109]

Box 38: Resolution 39 of the 31st session of UNESCO General Conference (November 2001) – Call for international cooperation to prevent and eradicate acts of terrorism*

The General Conference

1. Expresses its sorrow and indignation at the tragic events of 11 September 2001 in the United States of America and the enormous loss of human life, destruction and damage affecting world peace and security;

2. Recalling Resolutions 1368 (2001) and 1373 (2001) of the United Nations Security Council as well as Resolution 56/1 of the United Nations General Assembly, which *inter alia* strongly condemns the heinous acts of terrorism and 'also urgently calls for international cooperation to prevent and eradicate acts of terrorism, and stresses that those responsible for aiding, supporting or harbouring the perpetrators, organizers and sponsors of such acts will be held accountable';

3. Considers that all acts of terrorism are a denial of the principles and values of the United Nations Charter, the UNESCO Constitution and the UNESCO Declaration on Principles of Tolerance (1995) and represent an attack against humanity as a whole;

4. Considers that the present challenges require a coherent and coordinated response by the organizations of the United Nations system as a whole;

5. Rejects the association of terrorism with any particular religion, religious belief or nationality;

6. Affirms that the values of tolerance, universality, mutual understanding, respect for cultural diversity and the promotion of a culture of peace, which are central to UNESCO's mission, have acquired new relevance for inspiring action by international organizations, states, civil society and individual citizens;

7. Recalling in particular that the year 2001 is being observed as United Nations Year of Dialogue among Civilizations and *bearing in mind* the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World, *affirms* that such dialogue constitutes a fundamental challenge based on the unity of humankind and commonly shared values, the recognition of its cultural diversity and the equal dignity of each civilization and each culture;

8. Noting that intolerance, discrimination, inequality, ignorance, poverty and exclusion, among others, provide fertile ground for terrorism, *affirms* that while acts of terrorism can never be justified whatever the motives, the world community requires a global and inclusive vision of development based on the observance of human rights, mutual respect, intercultural dialogue and the alleviation of poverty, founded on justice, equity and solidarity, to meet the needs of the most vulnerable populations and segments of society;

9. Expresses its firm conviction that, based upon its mandate and within its areas of competence – education, science, culture and communication – UNESCO has a duty to contribute to the eradication of terrorism, drawing on its character as an intellectual and ethical organization, and *invites* the Director-General to take appropriate action through UNESCO programmes and studies.

*Resolution adopted at the 11th plenary meeting, 20 October 2001.

Source: **http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001246/124687E.pdf**

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(109) UNESCO Bureau of Strategic Planning.

Consolidating educational activities in post-conflict settings

Providing education in emergencies and post-conflict situations in countries such as Afghanistan, Algeria, Angola, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, Liberia, Pakistan, the Occupied Palestinian Territories, Sierra Leone, the Sudan and Timor-Leste presents enormous challenges to national ministries of education. All over the developing world, governments struggle alongside UN agencies and NGOs to provide education to children in crisis and to rebuild shattered education systems under extremely difficult circumstances. Through training, research and analysis, technical assistance, networking and information dissemination, the International Institute for Educational Planning plays a part in meeting that challenge.

To provide constructive guidance and practical tools for education policy-makers, officials and planners, in 2002, IIEP established a programme on Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction. The purpose of this programme is to contribute to efforts for the constitution of education in emergencies (mainly through research and analysis on the basis of experiences from the field and studies of specific cases), to build capacities by organizing training on planning and management of education in this field, and to support efforts to disseminate information, exchange experiences and network.

Research on education in emergencies and reconstruction is beginning to influence policy-making and practice in ministries and among NGOs, UN agencies and donor governments. IIEP publications have made a significant contribution to the birth of the new discipline of planning and management of education systems in emergencies and reconstruction. IIEP has published several country- or territory-specific analyses of the planning and management of education in emergencies and reconstruction. These studies concern efforts to rebuild and transform education systems in Kosovo (co-published with the World Bank), Rwanda, southern Sudan, Timor-Leste, the Occupied Palestinian Territories (co-published with Save the Children UK) and Burundi. IIEP has also published a *Guidebook for Planning Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction*.[110] Its aim is to be a resource for education ministry staff, educational planners and managers, donor agencies and NGOs as they work to reestablish education in emergency situations and periods of reconstruction and in situations of state fragility.

Networking and advocacy also constitute one of the pillars of the programme. IIEP works in close collaboration with the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), established in 2000, which is actively involved in the promotion and use of the INEE *Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies, Chronic Crises and Early Reconstruction*. IIEP is currently conducting studies on opportunities for positive change to education systems during conflict and early post-conflict reconstruction.

Since 1993, IIEP has engaged in a number of activities to support the establishment and strengthening of the Palestinian Authority's institutional capacities in the education field. These include activities such as headteacher training, training of Education Ministry officials, support for the formulation of the first Five-year Plan for Education and the functional audit of the ministry. In recent years, IIEP's Operational Activities Unit, which includes IIEP's programme on Education in emergencies and reconstruction, has provided technical support and training in various fragile and post-conflict countries.

Technical cooperation between IIEP and the Ministry of Education of Afghanistan has become very close in recent years. IIEP has provided the Ministry with technical assistance and implemented a hands-on capacity development programme in different areas of education sector development plans formulation and implementation. The Afghan National Education Strategic Plan (NESP), the first of its kind in the country, was developed in a highly participative way and launched (in draft form) by the President of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan in January 2007.

IIEP provided support to the Angolan Ministry of Education (MED) for the realization of its school mapping pilot project and in the area of education statistics. This support took place within a technical partnership with the French Cooperation (PROFORGE project, based at MED).

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(110) http://www.unesco.org/iiep/eng/focus/emergency/guidebook/guidebook.pdf

Box 39: Isolated and disenfranchised communities in the Occupied Palestinian Territory

The United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security (UNTFHS) project, Isolated and Disenfranchised Communities in the Occupied Palestinian Territory, implemented in the Occupied Palestinian Territories (OPT) by eight different UN agencies, including the UNESCO Ramallah Office, is a multifaceted and intersectoral ongoing programme that addresses the needs of seventeen isolated and disenfranchised communities in the Nablus Governorate. It aims at reinforcing human dignity and identity as well as countering the violence embedded in those difficult environments.

Education
Activities aimed at enhancing the educational process in schools, contributing to the general psychological health of students, and decreasing the use of violence within schools and the local communities. In all communities catch-up courses were offered for the first time in an institutionalized and structured manner. Village councils agreed that such an activity was needed to overcome the academic weakness of the students in certain subjects. Although this was a new task for the councils, they all felt that they were going to organize and implement catch-up courses in the future. Catch-up courses adopted non-traditional teaching methods. End assessment tests showed the success of these courses. Village councils are planning to meet with the Directorate of Education in their locality to share the experience gained and disseminate outputs. Another positive impact was reflected on the school administration performance in implementing and managing the courses, including the conduct of the assessment and evaluation tests, the preparation of training material, and the selection of qualified teaching staff. The project also provided the opportunity for active interaction between the village councils and school administrations. Councils became more aware of core educational issues and hence better prepared to address them with the relevant partners.

Culture
The Culture Sector supported a variety of cultural activities that aimed to contribute to the safeguarding, reviving and utilizing of the Palestinian Intangible Cultural Heritage while ensuring the widest possible participation of communities. Those activities endeavour to promote the function of this heritage, to ensure recognition of, respect for and enhancement of the intangible cultural heritage in Palestinian society.

In Salem and Deir al Hatab, two isolated villages located to the east of Nablus suffering severely from violence among school students, we included the excluded young people as agents of change in a Youth Violence Reduction Programme. We utilized the Palestinian Hikaye[111] in a Youth Empowerment Programme in which youth were not seen as a source of community problems, whose frustrations pose another threat to security, but rather recognized their contributions to the challenges that their communities face and considered them partners in addressing the issues that affect their livelihood. By exposing the group to values of leadership and community work, building their sense of belonging, increasing their sense of understanding, raising their sense of influence and developing their sense of competence, the two groups now act as a catalyst for change in their school and make a valuable contribution to resolving conflicts between their peers.

Communication and Information
The Communication and Information Sector supported a production of radio programmes and talk shows, to increase the level of awareness, information and knowledge on human security issues and encourage interactive public debates and local democratic decision-making. A training workshop on radio programming was organized for journalism students at An-Najah National University, and radio programmes were produced in cooperation with seventeen villages and refugee camps. Local community leaders participated in training workshops on advocacy and capacity-building, a newsletter was established for two refugee camps, and four radio talk shows were organized and broadcast on themes such as future perspectives of youth, women's empowerment and conflict resolution in schools and communities.

Social and Human Sciences
The Social and Human Sciences Sector facilitated training for Palestinians from the disadvantaged community in Nablus, who were already closely involved with the Isolated and Disenfranchised Communities project. To this end, UNESCO recommended a qualified institution to carry out this human security-related training – the Institut d'Études Politiques (Paris), which provided an introduction, a discussion on the concept and its application, as well as all available and relevant documentation on the subject.

The aims of the training were to achieve the following:
> Creation of a national discourse and gradual institutionalization of a sustainable human security approach within the Palestinian context, by exposing the relevant Palestinian research and policy institutions to regional and global human security debates and seminars, and documenting and evaluating the human security experiences as a basis for furthering the application of the concept, especially in the design and implementation of new interventions. This will be realized through study tours and visit exchanges with well-established organizations carrying out research on the human security theme within the Middle East region and Europe.
> Initiate and gradually create a national discourse and institutionalize a sustainable human security approach within the Palestinian context.

Source: UNESCO Ramallah Office

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(111) The Hikaye is a form of narration by women for other women and children that has evolved over the centuries.

VI. Contributing to poverty eradication

As reflected in one of UNESCO's twelve Strategic Objectives,[(112)] human security is closely linked to UNESCO's contribution to the eradication of poverty,[(113)] in particular extreme poverty, to the promotion of human rights, as well as to UNESCO's contribution to the implementation of the United Nations Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace and to the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001–2010).

Through various General Conference resolutions and Executive Board decisions, UNESCO Member States have

called on the Organization to make a specific contribution to poverty reduction by designing an appropriate long-term strategy. The Executive Board concurred with the Director-General's subsequent proposal that poverty eradication be selected as a cross-cutting theme for the activities of the Organization as a whole in order to promote interdisciplinary collaboration across all its sectors, to enhance efforts to understand and address the multidimensional nature of poverty and to promote innovation and efficacy in fighting it.

Box 40: UNESCO's Anti-Poverty Strategy

UNESCO's Anti-Poverty Strategy defines the main parameters of a distinct UNESCO contribution to poverty eradication, in particular extreme poverty, which is integrated and followed by all programmes. It enables UNESCO to contribute constructively in its areas of competence to the implementation of United Nations aims. It encompasses the following areas:

Policy formulation and implementation, including assisting in the design of country-owned, integrated pro-poor national policies and frameworks, involving all stakeholders, and building the capacities of governments to put in place participatory and inclusive processes at national and local levels;

Advocacy and information, emphasizing that freedom from poverty is a human right, a global ethical imperative, and a top priority for governments and the international community;

Policy-oriented research, contributing to the analysis of extreme poverty and monitoring progress towards its eradication;

Capacity-building, at local levels, particularly in countries immersed in or emerging from conflict or natural disasters;

Innovative field projects, especially through projects falling under its cross-cutting themes, to demonstrate feasibility and potential results as a basis for translating them into policies and mainstreaming them nationally or in other countries.

The implementation of the project activities were based on the following three pillars, as defined in the Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007: promoting intersectorality, considering freedom from poverty as a human right and conducting policy-oriented research and activities.

Over the last years, and in line with a true intersectoral dynamics, UNESCO has implemented several projects covering its different fields of competence. Among these are:

> Enhancing the socio-economic skills of deprived youth in the Arab States;

> Technology-related vocational training for marginalized girls: schools and learning centres as community catalysts for poverty eradication;

> Breaking the poverty cycle of women: empowering adolescent girls to become agents of social transformation in South Asia;

> Non-formal education and environmental management for indigenous communities in Indonesia;

> Integrating science and technology into micro-finance schemes: from subsistence living to small-scale enterprises;

> Indigenous building technologies in Central Asia and Afghanistan;

> Local and Indigenous Knowledge Systems (LINKS) in a global society;

> Universities in Solidarity with the Disadvantaged (UNISOL);

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(112) In UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007.
(113) See UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007 (31 C/4), §§ 178–201.

> Technology for Poverty Eradication (TAPE);

> Small-scale mining and sustainable development in Latin America;

> Poverty eradication – building national capacities for research and policy analysis, developing country strategies and action plans and monitoring their implementation;

> Ethical and human rights dimensions of poverty: towards a new paradigm in the fight against poverty;

> Urban poverty alleviation among young and female migrants in China and Mongolia;

> Combating exploitative migration of women and children in Africa;

> Contributing to the eradication of poverty by strengthening human security in Burkina Faso, Mali, the Niger, Benin and Senegal;

> Handicraft work as a socio-economic and cultural development factor;

> Cultural and eco-tourism in the mountainous regions of Central and South Asia;

> Forging innovative and interdisciplinary approaches to the Arab Sea Basin;

> Youth development and poverty reduction through sustainable community tourism in the Caribbean (YouthPATH);

> Strategy for the sustainable development of tourism in the Sahara.

All projects adopted a human-rights based approach in their implementation and evaluation. The results deriving from the intersectoral projects are classified in the four categories as follows: A best practices model to be replicated; Support to national policy formulation; Development of methodologies, strategies and training programmes; Constituting a basis for conceptual research and lobbying.

These results are compiled either in policy papers, books or training manuals.

Sources: **www.unesco.org/shs/antipoverty; http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001415/141598E.pdf**

Faced with the waste of humanity brought on by extreme poverty, UNESCO has embarked on its intersectoral research-action programme in view of meeting the Millennium Development Goal to cut in half the proportion of the world's people whose income is less than one dollar a day and the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by the year 2015. UNESCO's programme for poverty eradication, coordinated by SHS, has grown into thirty-one programmes. Various of the intersectoral projects carried out under the cross-cutting theme of 'Eradication of poverty, in particular extreme poverty' have a strong human security component, in particular those carried out in Africa and South Asia. Many of the results of these actions and activities have been duly incorporated into specific activities dealing with the promotion of human security.

Fight against poverty and protection of basic human rights

UNESCO has committed itself to raising awareness about the fact that freedom from poverty is a fundamental human right and extreme poverty a denial of all human rights. Within the framework of human security, UNESCO examines the different ways that poverty can be isolated and studies the relationship and impact of poverty on the protection of the basic human rights. Working against poverty also means working for human security.

A commitment to human rights and humanitarian law is the foundation for building human security, which is advanced in every country by protecting and promoting human rights, the rule of law, democratic governance and democratic structures, as well as a culture of peace and the peaceful resolution of conflicts. Thus UNESCO engages in a wide-ranging international debate on the human rights based approach to tackling poverty.

In 2002, UNESCO launched a project initially entitled Ethical and Human Rights Dimensions of Poverty: Towards a New Paradigm in the Fight Against Poverty, which focused on the conceptual analysis of understanding poverty within the framework of human rights. Since then, several seminars have been held, bringing together scholars from the fields of philosophy, economics, political science, and law. The first phase of the project aimed to foster a philosophical analysis and elucidation of understanding poverty and how it relates to human rights, basic needs and corresponding duties. The challenge is to see how an organization like UNESCO might galvanize the commitment of the world community by addressing the moral obligation to take action to eradicate poverty and to contribute to the full realization of the fundamental basic rights of all peoples.

The first phase of the project has thus been the conceptual development of poverty as it relates to human rights. The second phase will be to reach out to the community of NGOs, decision-makers and the general public to nourish action with the conceptual analysis produced by the scholars and to foster strategies on combating poverty through the framework of human rights.

Source: Foreword, *Freedom from Poverty as a Human Right. Who Owes What to the Very Poor?*, UNESCO/Oxford University Press, 2007, 406 pp.

With the goal of reinforcing the capacities of the most impoverished communities and of advocating conceptualizations of poverty from a human rights perspective, in 2002, UNESCO launched a regional pilot project with the objective of strengthening human security in Western Africa, especially Benin, Burkina Faso, Mali, the Niger and Senegal. The programme also aims to engage in a national debate and to bring Western African nations into the international debate to pass public policies that aim towards meeting human rights and human security requirements. The project was conceived to respond to the idea of 'poverty as a human rights issue' and is useful in the clarification, conceptualization and enactment of projects. Thus, the task of the National Committees or 'Think-Tanks' is to conceptualize development and poverty, to enlarge the debate at a national level and to undertake appropriate actions to enact the concepts in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), as well as encourage the inclusion of this perspective in other international initiatives in the fight against poverty.

This project comprises two phases:

Phase 1: The execution of pilot projects that integrate a human rights approach in order to foster strategies and policies in the fight against poverty in Western Africa (Benin, Burkina Faso, Mali, the Niger and Senegal).The reinforcement of human security and the respect for the human rights of local populations (particularly women) is the object of pilot projects in Burkina Faso, Mali and the Niger.

Phase 2: Promotion of the concept 'protection against poverty is a human right' for the engagement and enactment of a national debate on the subject, the establishment of National Committees or 'Think Tanks' and the sustained support of the countries in question.

Key accomplishments
- Establishment of four National Committees or 'Think Tanks' in the relevant countries.
- Engagement in a national debate about poverty from a human rights perspective.
- Reassessment, rethinking, revisiting and rereading of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PSRPs) from a human rights perspective.
- Execution of three pilot projects in Burkina Faso, Mali and the Niger.

Policy implications and expected applications
The project aims first of all to make recommendations and clarifications to the strategic framework for the fight against poverty and to other frameworks, in order to ensure their coherence.

The review of the PRSPs within the human rights framework, the analysis of existing legislative devices and their effectiveness, and the analysis of different philosophical approaches given the socio-cultural contexts in question are all scholarly approaches, and the discussion of these documents at the time of national consultations aid the reformulation of policies, at least in terms of recommendations about the intentions of the decision-makers through work in the National Committees or 'Think Tanks'.

Sustainability and future development
The project is part of the strategy of the Social and Human Sciences Sector for poverty eradication and comprises one of its central pillars. It will benefit from the support of other projects, in particular those that involve small research grants that cover almost twenty-five countries in which activities will be focused. One partnership is currently being confirmed with the UNDP so as to synergize efforts. For its part, UNESCO contributes with conceptual support to forty-one UNDP pilot projects. Funds are jointly sought with the UNDP and on different levels that have already been identified.

Source: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001415/141598E.pdf

A research-action project on fighting urban poverty among young and female immigrants through training, support and action is currently being implemented in eight pilot cases throughout China and Mongolia. It has thus far held three national workshops and benefited 80,000 female immigrants. The project's target group is young female migrants who, as both females and internal migrants whose rights are overlooked, suffer from both denial of human rights and discrimination. The overall objective is the integration of migrant workers in the urban social and economic structure through services including training in life and basic skills, vocational training, career counselling, family planning and health awareness. Activities within this project include promotion of the young female migrants' basic human rights: rights to work and to safe working conditions, the right to a fair trial, the right of access to information, rights to adequate living standards, to housing, access to health services, rights to security and to education and training.

In China, population control policies and the migration of young people to urban areas, combined with the rapid development of an ageing population and with the large economic disparity between rural and urban areas will cause an increasingly heavy burden for the social security system, a fast increase in expenses of the basic medical insurance fund and a speedy expansion of needs of public services for the elderly, especially health care.

One major problem of elderly people living in rural areas of China is the lack of proper social protection systems targeting them specifically. This problem has not been solved yet in cities. However, it has proved to be even more difficult in rural areas, where there is a weak economic base and the 'loss' of young and middle-aged people who migrate

to urban areas. To face all these social problems, the traditional theories and policy actions have been no longer appropriate, and thus the new theoretical framework of human security and policy actions based on it are becoming necessary.

As part of a two-year project, Human Security in China: A North-East Asian Perspective, launched in March 2006, a project on Elderly Care and Medical Service System, started in April 2007, aims to propose to the local government the establishment of a rural community medical service combining community medical service with elderly care. Specifically, it aims to demonstrate that not only is such a system feasible, but also that it is affordable – thanks to its low operational costs and to proper technology – and relevant to solving the problem of taking care of rural elderly. The project will conduct a survey and a research in three different provinces: Shaanxi, Shanxi and Gansu. In partnership with the Center for Social Policy Studies, Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (CASS), the survey will analyse the situation of local elderly people, demographic statistics, life condition, information of household and family income, health-care services in rural communities, demands of the elderly, etc. After the survey – conducted through in-depth interviews – a literature review will assess the social welfare and health of Chinese national policies specifically related to the elderly. This task aims to provide supporting theories and policies by comparing experiences of foreign countries with Chinese legislation and practices. The project concluded in December 2007, with a workshop in Beijing in order to discuss the findings of both the research and the literature review and to present the result as well as to recommend policies to relevant Chinese governmental agencies.

Focusing on the most vulnerable, the example of human trafficking

Human trafficking for the purpose of exploitation is at its core a human security issue. Victims of human trafficking constitute one of the most vulnerable populations. Human trafficking forces generations of vulnerable people, generally women and children, into exploitative work taking away their human freedoms. Trafficked persons face economic and personal insecurities. They are highly exposed to health-related risks, such as exposure to HIV/AIDS (if held in the sex industry). Their lives, livelihoods and the realization of their full potential are placed in jeopardy. Human trafficking thus obviously constitutes a most flagrant violation of the basic rights of all people, vulnerable people especially, to live in freedom and dignity

and free from poverty and despair, to be free from fear and free from want, to have an equal opportunity to enjoy all their rights and fully develop their potential as human beings, as stressed in the 2005 World Summit Outcome document.[114]

Trafficking may be engaged in for sexual exploitation, cheap labour, organ trading, service in armed conflicts, the transport of drugs, the marriage market. Female and male victims of human trafficking, adults and children alike, are destined to forced labour, sexual exploitation, forced marriage.[115] The United Nations Population Fund estimates that 4 million women are sold each year for the

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(114) The 2005 World Summit Outcome document, § 143 (A/RES/60/1).
(115) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 124.

purposes of prostitution, slavery and/or marriage. Although most of the women trafficked are from Asia and Eastern Europe, the number of Latin American women and children transported to the United States and European countries within the sex industry has increased in recent years; with Guatemala and Costa Rica being the main suppliers of minors, and Brazil, Colombia and the Dominican Republic of women.

Poverty, an extreme form of discrimination, combined with gender discrimination and lack of education is one of the main explanatory factors for human trafficking. In terms of forced labour, poverty has been designated as one of the major causes of human trafficking, as people seek to migrate from poor rural areas to cities and from poor countries to richer ones, becoming easy victims for trafficking networks. However, human trafficking at the same time raises the level of poverty of trafficked victims caught in a modern form of slavery.

For that reason UNESCO – which considers human trafficking to be a matter of human rights – aims at analysing the vicious circle of poverty/human trafficking/poverty and at promoting culturally appropriate policy responses to the exploitative migration of women and children. The main objective of its action is to assist decision-makers, NGOs and community leaders, as well as the media, in establishing more efficient responses to fight human trafficking. In attacking human trafficking, UNESCO conducts multidisciplinary research on the factors related to human trafficking; collects and evaluates successful practices in tackling those factors, in order to inspire innovative and effective responses; develops culturally sensitive prevention programmes, taking into account the socio-cultural backgrounds of vulnerable and at-risk populations, while using appropriate language and channels of communication; and informs and trains NGOs, religious and community leaders, government officials and decision-makers, in order to equip them with appropriate tools to fight trafficking in their communities and at the policy level.

One major obstacle to understanding the scope of the problem and to taking appropriate action is the lack of verifiable and reliable figures on the phenomenon of human trafficking. In order to address this lack, UNESCO is conducting a literature review and meta-analysis of existing statements on trafficking. The UNESCO Trafficking Statistics Project[116] traces the origin of figures cited by various sources worldwide, attempts to ascertain the methodology by which these figures were calculated, and to determine their validity.

The aim is to clarify the bases on which estimates of the numbers of trafficked persons are derived, and in so doing to separate trafficking myths from trafficking realities. Another challenge is to ground anti-trafficking activities on in-depth research results so as to understand the root causes of trafficking and to target the appropriate population through culturally sensitive actions.

UNESCO has initiated a system of linked databases with information relating to trafficking, rates of HIV/AIDS incidence, interventions and their coverage, and the distribution of at-risk populations (migration, population in sex work), in order to discover, record and map related trends. UNESCO also advises and trains other agencies, governments and NGOs in the development and use of Geographic Information Systems.

Regional threats such as human trafficking must be tackled with regional responses. To better tackle this major threat to human security worldwide, UNESCO has developed a methodology to address human trafficking using a socio-cultural approach. In the East Asian context, human trafficking has been examined in relation to forced labour and sex industry, noting that it should be recognized as a global concern since its causes and settings are of a global nature. Within the framework of the Eurovision Regional News Exchange for South-East Europe (ERNO), a Communication and Information project has been launched to promote the exchange of news items among twelve south-eastern European public service broadcasters and to enhance professionalism, cooperation and dialogue among Balkan journalists. UNESCO has supported the co-production and exchange of an investigative documentary and television news stories on trafficking of women and girls.

UNESCO conducts two main programmes against human trafficking. One focuses on Western and Southern Africa, the other one, on the Greater Mekong Subregion. The UNESCO intersectoral project 'Fight Human Trafficking in Africa' tackles this modern form of slavery. UNESCO undertook policy-oriented research on factors leading to human trafficking in six pilot countries in Western (Benin, Nigeria, Togo) and Southern (Lesotho, Mozambique, South Africa) Africa and offers a series of recommendations for better fighting human trafficking. By raising awareness of political leaders and civil society organizations through high-level meetings and field campaigns, this project aims at preventing vulnerable groups from being trafficked.

In Africa, UNESCO focuses on the analysis of factors leading to human trafficking, and assists governments and

(116) http://www.unescobkk.org/index.php?id=1022

communities in building or strengthening national prevention campaigns. UNESCO collects successful practices in tackling human trafficking in order to inspire innovative and better policy-making. In doing so, an analysis of the interconnectedness between human trafficking, gender and poverty in sub-Saharan Africa is carried in order to understand the weaknesses, potentials and replicability of existing projects.

In partnership with local researchers, UNESCO has analysed how poverty, combined with factors such as harmful traditional practices, lack of information and education, weak policy and laws lead to trafficking in Western and Southern Africa. Specific policy-recommendations, taking into account the socio-cultural environment of the target populations, are formulated at the attention of international organizations, governments and civil society. UNESCO has a project that aims at promoting culturally appropriate policy issues to exploitative migration of women and children. The project conducts research in the chosen pilot countries in Western and Southern Africa on the different explanatory factors which then, combined with poverty, lead to human trafficking. The project aims to organize workshops and awareness campaigns adapted to local cultures based on the findings of this research. The main objective is to assist decision-makers, NGOs and community leaders as well as the media in establishing more efficient responses to fight human trafficking. As part of a larger commitment for the abolition of slavery, UNESCO brings together a range of material on different aspects of slavery from past and present and provides a platform for promoting dialogue about ways of addressing contemporary slavery and the legacies of historical slave systems.

UNESCO's other main programme against human trafficking focuses on the Greater Mekong Subregion (Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand, Viet Nam and Yunnan province in China). The trafficking in women and children is directly related to the social and economic realities of each of the countries of Asia. It continues to cause increasingly greater harm to families and individuals. One recent trend is in organ sales.[117]

A 'self-fulfilling' cycle has been set in human trafficking to feed the sex industry, where large supply induces large demand which in turn encourages further supply. The Mekong region has a reputation within the sex industry. Two types of female population are mainly demanded: foreign women (as economic development makes local women less available, and foreign women are considered as lesser beings), and young prostitutes (under the assumption that they are less experienced, and therefore represent less of a risk).

With support from the United Kingdom, UNESCO Bangkok Office has been investigating, mapping, and addressing the structural vulnerability of minority peoples in Thailand. Research has shown that the single risk factor for a highland girl or woman in Thailand to be trafficked or otherwise exploited is lack of citizenship. This project is designed to promote highland birth registration and citizenship. Under UNESCO's special mandate for ethnic and indigenous minorities, the Trafficking and HIV/AIDS Project run by the UNESCO Office in Bangkok tackles the linked triad of problems – HIV/AIDS, trafficking, and non-traditional drug use – among ethnic minority populations in the Greater Mekong Subregion. It is doing so by researching, developing, and implementing programmes that crosscut these issues to address the needs of these at-risk and vulnerable populations.

Supported by the Asian Development Bank, UNESCO has produced research-based culturally and linguistically appropriate prevention radio dramas written in minority languages of the Mekong region. Highland minority peoples are disproportionately represented among trafficking victims and HIV positive people in this region. Using a methodology developed by the Organization, UNESCO is the only international agency authoring prevention materials in minority languages. To date, UNESCO has produced programmes in ten languages. UNESCO also compiles and maintains a current database of the various statistics on trafficking in Asia and other regions for research purposes in order to understand trends, misconceptions, and estimates regarding the social phenomenon.

Interstitial populations are groups that, due to their involvement in trade and transportation, link areas across borders. UNESCO aims to conduct research on interstitial populations by designing evidence-based interventions for them that can 'catch' these populations at the right place and right time with culturally and linguistically appropriate HIV and trafficking prevention information.

(117) Ahsan, op. cit., p. 212.

Poverty and economic development

The close links between economic insecurity and human insecurity are evident. Upheavals in the international economy, financial and budgetary crises, fluctuations in global commodity prices, decline in productivity, jumps in external debt, over-dependency on foreign aid or imported goods, inadequate or non-existent social safety nets, insecure employment, inequity in income distribution among social classes and between genders, high inflation, currency devaluation, low rates of economic growth, all have obvious effects on human security.

That poverty is one of the most serious and persistent threats to human security is also evident. It affects all aspects of human security understood in terms of freedom from want and freedom from the fear of being unable to meet one's most basic needs and those of one's family. People suffer from poverty and economic insecurity when they lack employment, food, access to health, education and social protection. Economic insecurity widens the gap between income groups, between men and women, between cities and rural areas, between dominant groups and minorities.[118]

The 1997 Asian financial crisis has been cited as a key factor in bringing home the message about the importance of human security to governments in the Asian regions. Beyond its immediate consequences in terms of a sudden increase in poverty and unemployment rates, the questions that it raised about the region's conception of development and social safety nets led to a crisis with regard to political stability and trust in state-provided social safety nets that helped to shape a new view of the relationship between East Asia and the concept of human security. Amitav Acharya has called that crisis 'the most important catalyst for what might become a more receptive attitude in ASEAN towards human security'. He describes the impact of the crisis on poverty, social and educational welfare in countries such as Indonesia, Thailand and the Republic of Korea as 'nothing short of catastrophic' and claims that it helped to underscore 'the limits of a security paradigm that expects the most dangerous challenges to security to come from invasion or insurgency'.[119]

Although economic development is a key factor in reducing poverty, it is not the complete solution. Economic growth is not synonymous with economic security. The world has never been as prosperous as it is today, yet at the same time, it is estimated that one-fifth of the world's population lives on the equivalent of less than a dollar a day, that approximately 1.3 billion people suffer from extreme

poverty that is keeping them from developing their full potential and from realizing their plans.

Shin-wha Lee has reflected on the complex connections between economic development, poverty reduction and human security. She points to China's astonishing economic development. This economic growth is to eliminate poverty and the Chinese people are to be freed from want through the reform of social safety nets and the creation of a minimal living security system. However, in the course of this rapid economic development, numerous social problems have sprung up, including increasing poverty, widening socio-economic gaps between urban and rural areas and among different domestic regions, increasing damage to the environment and ecological systems, growing problems of unemployment and migrating labour, etc. There are still more than 200 million Chinese who live on less than one dollar a day, and she interprets this as an indication that equitable distribution of wealth is far from being achieved. She also sees economic growth in East Asia as having been fuelled by the availability of cheap labour, which in many cases has involved worker exploitation. She also sees multinational corporations taking advantage of the comparatively low trade union influence. She concludes that since economic growth has not been viewed as having direct links with human security, human rights and environmental concerns have often been overlooked or neglected in view of achieving economic growth.[120]

Shin-wha Lee is encouraged, however, to see that a number of East Asian countries have started to deal with the issues of how to eradicate poverty. She cites the establishment of the East Asia Forum on Poverty Reduction that met in Hanoi, December 2002. The countries represented, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Mongolia, Timor-Leste, Viet Nam, called for cooperation and new ideas to reduce poverty. It was concluded that it was vital to start work at the grass roots by, for example, increasing educational levels, particularly for women. It was agreed that empowering women would have a major impact on poverty and that their access to public services and public office should be improved.[121]

Claudia Fuentes and Francisco Rojas Aravena describe Latin America as a region experiencing low rates of growth and as being very vulnerable to upheavals in the international economy, rising external debt and high unemployment rates that lead to an uncertain economic outlook. They see social spending as low in some countries, poverty levels as rising, social exclusion as not improving,

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(118) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 49.
(119) Acharya, op. cit., pp. 12–13, 22–23.
(120) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 76.
(121) Ibid., pp. 76–77.

the gap between rich and poor as widening. They believe that the distribution of both material and human resources is a key factor in redressing persistent inequality, that if society as a whole could benefit from the income generated by economic growth, human security would increase. They consider that the disparities between men and women, for example, the fact that women are paid much less than men in all the countries of their region, have a great impact on economic security, particularly in those societies in which women suffer more from discrimination. They consider the empowerment of women at work to be essential if security is to improve in the long term. They see the problem of employment as being fundamental from the human security point of view, because in real life people's path to at least partial security lies in improving their ability as individuals or families to generate and control resources.[122]

Fuentes and Rojas consider that social and economic vulnerabilities reflect the inability of the production, trading and financial systems to solve people's most immediate problems, essentially poverty, income distribution and unemployment, and that it is essential to create mechanisms to protect people in adverse situations that include inflation, unemployment and fiscal crises. In their estimation, if poverty is ever to be eradicated, international trade organizations, the WTO for example, and other regional and national actors must act in concert to encourage the action of markets in a way that generates equitable growth. Growth accompanied by human development also requires state intervention in combination with market policies. As they mention, from the point of view of human security, public-sector spending is needed, particularly that spent on poverty eradication in view of

establishing social protection networks for coping with such needs as unemployment, pension plans and training programmes.

For Anara Tabyshalieva the main process leaving its imprint on economic security in the Central Asian states is the ongoing recovery from the shocks of the early years of transition from the Soviet planned-economy system, poverty and inequality being lingering issues. The Central Asian economies remain highly dependent on natural resources that could affect future economic growth and poverty reduction. Though oil/gas-rich countries have a high gross national income, data based on age, gender, locality and ethnic and religious background show unequal income distribution to be a main issue in the region.[123]

The state is looked upon by many as being the most effective instrument for the redistribution of wealth in society and for putting into effect the kind of sustainable policies leading to the eradication of poverty that are vital to improving human security and, therefore, to the quality of life. A Food and Agriculture Organization policy report[124] finds that the great improvement in food security in North-East and South-East Asia has been achieved through a growth process facilitated by a dynamic rural economy that stimulates poverty alleviation, coupled with public efforts to stabilize food prices that would not have been possible without government intervention to promote food security. In Eastern Europe, the transition to a market economy at first brought forth a new type of poverty, high unemployment, insecure employment, and income inequalities that have been partially checked through state action.

VII. Interrelation between democracy, human rights and human security

In his call for a broadening of ideas about peace and security in *Towards a Culture of Peace*, Kofi Annan stresses that human security can no longer solely have a military meaning, that it is also a matter of human rights, of good governance and must encompass economic development, social justice, environmental protection, democratization, disarmament, and respect for human rights and the rule of law.[125]

Hector Gros Espiell likewise explicitly draws connections between the idea of security as a human right and

democracy. He underscores the importance of reasserting what he calls 'the absolutely essential relationship between human rights, democracy and the rule of law'. Human rights, he affirms, can have no real existence without democracy, and there is no democracy without human rights. The present concept of the rule of law, a law-based state, implies not only a state where there is law, but a state that acknowledges the existence of human rights and is limited by all the consequences of accepting democracy. That very clear and very precise view of security as a human right and the basis of democracy, he recalls, is

(122) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., pp. 95, 99, 102, 103, 107, 108, 110.
(123) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., pp. 48–50.
(124) FAO-GIEWS, 2002, *Food Outlook*, No. 3, July, Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations-Global Information and Early Warning System on Food and Agriculture.
(125) Kofi Annan, *Towards a Culture of Peace*, 8 November 2001.

forgotten in antidemocratic and totalitarian regimes, where the notion of security of person ceases to exist and concepts of 'national security' become synonymous with the security of the state against individuals, viz. not a human right, but a right of the state, and a non-democratic state.[126]

But, how should we think of the interrelation between democracy, human rights and human security, the interrelation between economic, social and cultural rights, and civic and political rights? What should be done for economical, social and cultural rights to become reality? Which are the possibilities for implementing these rights in a context of democratic consolidation and post-crisis situations?

The Third Meeting of Heads of Chairs and Institutes of West and Central Africa, on the theme Consolidation of Democracy and Economical, Social and Cultural Rights in Africa, held in 2005, Libreville (Gabon), addressed such questions within the African context. In response, it was suggested that the role of the state as the major actor of economical, social and cultural security might be reinforced, state structure and prerogative in the context of neo-liberal globalization be consolidated and enabled to ensure welfare to its citizens, and that in parallel, the state should combine national constitution and legislation, regional mechanisms

and instruments, as well as international laws for its action. In his paper, 'Partenariat et réseautage pour la réalisation des droits socio-économiques et culturels', Patrice Vahard argues that, whereas during the Cold War, human rights were conceived as ideological arms, and defenders of these rights were adopting the position of denunciation, there was now a need to envisage a more pacific conception of human rights, not only by developing an understanding of them, but also by struggling against such obstacles to human security as poverty, poor health care conditions, and illiteracy. The promotion of democracy and human rights, he maintains, must not be exclusive of other fields of development. It must be holistic. Action must now be widened to include the promotion of human rights and democracy in the concept of development, and vice versa.[127]

As illustrated in the excerpts below, several articles of the Framework Treaty on Democratic Security in Central America of 15 December 1995, signed by the presidents of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and vice-presidents of Nicaragua and Panama, display an awareness of the interrelations between economic, social and cultural rights, and civic and political rights, between democracy, human rights and human security compatible with the views expressed above.

Box 43: Excerpts from the Framework Treaty on Democratic Security in Central America

Article 1. ... The Central American Democratic Security Model has its *raison d'être* in respect for, promotion of and safeguarding of all human rights, so that its provisions ensure the security of the Central American countries and their inhabitants, by creating conditions that permit their personal, family and social development in peace, freedom and democracy. ...

Article 2. The Central American Democratic Security Model shall be governed by the following principles relating to this topic:
a. A government of law, which includes the supremacy of the rule of law, the existence of security under the law, and the effective exercise of civil liberties;
b. Strengthening and ongoing improvement of democratic institutions in each country, for mutual consolidation of them within their own sphere of action and responsibility, through a continuous and sustained process of consolidation and strengthening of civil power, limiting the role of the armed forces and of the public security forces to the authority given them constitutionally, and the promotion of a culture of peace, dialogue, understanding and tolerance based on the democratic values that the countries have in common;
c. The principle of subordination of the armed forces, the police and the public security forces to constitutionally established civil authorities chosen in free, honest and pluralistic elections; and
d. Maintenance of a flexible and active dialogue and mutual collaboration on security issues in the broad sense of the term in order to ensure that democracy in the region is irreversible.

Article 3. To ensure the security of the individual, the Parties undertake to see to it that all actions taken by the public authorities are consistent with their legal system and fully respect international human rights instruments.

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(126) Espiell, op. cit., pp. 54–58. See also UNESCO Strategy on Human Rights http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001457/145734e.pdf
UNESCO Integrated Strategy to Combat Racism, Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001312/131202e.pdf
UNESCO Integrated Strategy on Democracy Within the Framework of the International Centre for Human Sciences (ICHS), Byblos.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001310/131056e.pdf
(127) *Les Droits économiques, sociaux et culturels en Afrique au XXIème siècle,* coordinated by Fidèle Pierre Nze-Nguema and Carrie Marias (eds), Panafrika/Silex/Nouvelles du Sud, Dakar Fann, 2006, papers presented at the Third Meeting of Heads of Chairs and Institutes of West and Central Africa, on the theme 'Consolidation of Democracy and Economical, Social and Cultural Rights in Africa', 21–28 February 2005, Libreville, Gabon.

Article 10 ...
a. Democratic security is integral and indivisible. The solution of problems of security of persons in the region shall therefore be based on a comprehensive and interrelated view of all aspects of sustainable development in Central America, in their political, economic, social, cultural and ecological expressions;
b. Democratic security is inseparable from human considerations. Respect for the essential dignity of human beings, improvement of the quality of life and the full development of human potential are required for all aspects of security;
c. Supportive humanitarian aid in the event of emergencies, threats and natural disasters; and
d. Poverty and extreme poverty are regarded as threats to the security of the people and to the democratic stability of Central American societies.

Article 26 ...
g. The democratic security of each of the countries signing this Treaty is closely connected with the security of the region. Accordingly, no country shall strengthen its own security at the expense of the security of other countries.

Article 27. The following are additional goals of the Model regarding this topic:
a. Establish an early warning system to prevent threats against the security of any of the Model's categories and an ongoing confidence-building program among the countries of Central America;
b. Continue efforts to establish a reasonable balance between military and public security forces, in accordance with the internal and external situation of each State Party, conditions in Central America, and the decisions of the civil authorities of the democratically elected governments of the Parties;
c. Establish a Central American Mechanism for Security Information and Communication;
d. Establish and strengthen Central American mechanisms for the peaceful settlement of disputes, pursuant to the provisions of this Treaty;
e. Coordinate in the region ways to cooperate with international efforts in maintaining and re-establishing international peace and security; and
f. Promote law enforcement on the borders of the countries signing this Treaty, through delimitations, demarcations, and settlement of pending territorial disputes, where appropriate, and ensure the joint defense of the territorial, cultural and ecological heritage of Central America, in accordance with the machinery of international law.

Source: **http://www.oas.org/csh/english/docc&t%20CenAm.asp**

The democratic principles of dignity, equality and mutual respect

From the outset, UNESCO has played a key role in the promotion of democratic values and principles. Its Constitution upholds the democratic ideals of justice, liberty, equality and solidarity, and considers these principles to be fundamental factors in the building of peace. Indeed, the Constitution's Preamble establishes a direct link between 'the denial of the democratic principles of the dignity, equality and mutual respect of men' and the 'great and terrible war'. The realization of democratic ideals is therefore found at the very core of UNESCO actions.

After concentrating on the theoretical analysis of the principles of democracy, in 2002–2003, UNESCO developed a strategy for an international programme on democracy.[128] This integrated strategy has been coordinated by the International Centre for Human Sciences (ICHS), in close cooperation with the International Panel on Democracy and Development (IPDD). ICHS is an international social science research institution established in 1999 under a convention between UNESCO and the Lebanese Government. Located in Byblos (Lebanon), its statutes ensure full academic freedom and diplomatic immunity. The Centre's purpose is twofold: to contribute to the development of social and human sciences and to promote a culture of peace. In addition to promoting interregional and international cooperation and building research capacities in different regions, the Centre works to foster comparative analytical research, disseminate its results and encourage the creation and strengthening of networks of social science institutes.

The overall theme of the democracy programme is 'democracy, culture and peace'. It contains three main areas of action. The first area concerns fostering comparative analytical research. The initial programme of work focused on democracy and its relationship with culture. The aim is to conduct comparative empirical research on hypotheses – case studies – about determinants of democracy in order to analyse the compatibility of democracy with the will of the people living under diverse cultural traditions. Focusing on citizens' attitudes to democracy, these studies are conducted through surveys, opinion polls and analysis of media. This research has been broadened to cover democracy and its relationship to themes such as ethnicity, peace, development, social justice, etc. The goal is to achieve a better understanding of the reality of democracy in the world, in particular, the way in which democratic principles are understood and practiced by people of different regions.

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(128) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001310/131056e.pdf

The second area concerns organizing international dialogues and prospective analysis on the future of democracy. The dialogues are grounded on reflection and research on democratic norms, values and principles and their relationship to the key issues of globalization and development. Seminars are organized around the conferences in order to build capacities in different countries. For example: with academics on universalization of democratic principles; with policy-makers to foster ethics of leadership for democratic governance; with business leaders on the relationship between economic development and democracy; with journalists on the role of communication in democratic development.

The third area concerns supporting democracy in post-conflict societies. The immediate aftermath of ethnic and factional conflict may pose the strongest challenge to implementing democracy. By means of the integrated strategy on democracy, UNESCO contributes more directly to the restoration and/or establishment of democracy through a programme of research and capacity-building. The aim is to encourage the promotion of democracy by local actors in the academic community. In 2004, several general recommendations were made for UNESCO work in three post-conflict countries: Afghanistan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Iraq. These included a mapping exercise of existing studies and research on the promotion of democracy in post-conflict societies and research on democracy and culture with special focus on the challenges posed by cultural traditions.[129]

The conviction that spreading democracy throughout the world is not only intrinsically and ethically desirable, but also, and mostly, in the interest of security does, though, raise its share of tough questions, as Alain Caillé makes clear in *Peace and Democracy. Benchmarking*,[130] where he asks whether the link between peace and democracy is as certain as it seems, whether the extension of the representative democracy system – or, rather, of liberal democracy – supported by free and regular elections necessarily constitutes a peace factor, whether installing democracy, if ever achieved, leads to peace, whether we can really make a distinction between whether democracy prevents conflicts and whether it can put an end to them, whether what comes afterward is not just like what came before, whether it is really obvious that the democratic ideal is not more and more threatened today.

Caillé writes of how the idea of collective security provided by a balance of powers that characterized nineteenth-century diplomacy and governed UN decisions until the end of the Cold War gave way to the theme of 'democratic security' conceived as a safer and less costly means of ensuring security for all: security, or peace, through democracy. This doctrine of democratic security considers that democracy is desirable and should be extended as much as possible throughout the world because it guarantees peace and security and that the best proof of this is that 'democracies do not make war against each other'. He sees the question as one of ascertaining whether democracy can lead to peace because it is what it is, or because it promotes the emergence of situations or feelings that are intrinsically peacemaking, such as the sense of justice, tolerance, love of the public good or material prosperity. And, he sees this as leading to a number of partly interdependent questions: Does democracy guarantee peace by achieving justice? Does it ensure that all people receive what is owed them by providing everyone with material prosperity? Do justice and material well-being provide the mediations and necessary conditions between democracy and peace? And finally, does democracy suffice to build a city – or the political community – and to promote its unity?

A number of other tough issues are addressed in *Democracy and Human Rights in Multicultural Societies*,[131] a volume that aims to understand the changes in cultural and identity behaviour (ethnicity, language and religion) of certain minority groups throughout the world that require a shift in public policy-making towards recognition of the need to govern cultural diversity. It wants to demonstrate that the old nation-state structure has been altered by contemporary ethically normative ways of thinking that aim to reinforce democratic and human-rights-based governance of cultural diversity. The book describes social and political transformations in the world and the different responses adopted by states in dealing with cultural diversity. From a human security perspective, three aspects merit attention.

The first of these may be said to concern a tension existing between democracy and new human rights exigencies in the field of cultural diversity recognition. In the past, political theory has always linked democracy to a territorially bounded, socially closed and culturally integrated nation-state. Thus, political organization and collective identity have been conceived in tandem, and human rights identified with citizen rights and attached to national identity. But today, it is necessary to deal with 'multicultural citizenship', which implies the 'politics of cultural recognition', because transnational human rights discourse has meant a proliferation of new rights clearly extending beyond the classical modern political tradition. Therefore, a tension

(129) Excerpts from the UNESCO Integrated Strategy on Democracy within the Framework of the International Centre for Human Sciences (ICHS).
www.unesco.org/shs/democracy
(130) Alain Caillé, *Peace and Democracy. Benchmarking,* Paris, UNESCO, 2004, pp. 23, 32–33, 41, 56, 74.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001354/135498e.pdf
(131) Matthias Koenig and Paul de Guchteneire (eds), 2007.
http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.php-URL_ID=10418&URL_DO=DO_PRINTPAGE&URL_SECTION=201.html

arises between the traditional conception of democracy and the contemporary exigencies of human rights. Indeed, how is the recognition of cultural differences to be reconciled with the social reproduction of trust and solidarity that is necessary for the maintenance of a democratic policy, and how is the recognition of minorities as groups to be reconciled with a concept of human rights focusing on the rights of the individuals? These challenge the social sciences to widen their scope of research so as to overcome such contradictions by embracing the political within the ethnical, the cultural and the religious.

The second aspect meriting attention concerns the rethinking of the relations between nation-state and international organizations, in the field of human rights. The institutionalization of human rights in cultural and social frameworks at a transnational or global level has altered the legitimacy of national framework represented by the nation-state, which sometimes sees international organizations as an instrument of intervention into what it considers internal affairs, for instance policies in the field of cultural identity. Minority groups have founded their cultural autonomy-claim on international normative declarations,

which weakens the legitimacy of nation-state where they live. This problematic issue is also at the very heart of the human security concept. Out of fear of interventionism, some states are suspicious with regard to this. And, for human security, the whole challenge is precisely to show that according more attention to a holistic human security-based approach in the policy-making process can avoid external intervention in fields that would be neglected.

The third aspect concerns the rights of minorities (as a vulnerable group) as an integral part of human rights. The publication accords particular attention to minorities' linguistic rights. It shows that the world community, especially international and regional organizations should have a human-right-based approach to linguistic rights, meaning that not only national minorities must be given right to preserve and transmit their languages, but all human beings must have the right to speak their language because this right is part of the freedom of expression. Here, another UNESCO publication, *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*,[132] complemented by *The Challenge of Indigenous Education: Practice and Perspectives*[133] would constitute a normative programme still needing implementation.

Empowering civil society

UNESCO has called for substantial support to be given to democratic experiments and practices that foster greater participation by citizens and civil society in the decision-making process at all levels, particularly in favour of women and young people.[134] It is considered that civil society should be mobilized to participate in the promotion of human security and it should be carried out by various social institutions, including governments, development agencies, industry, academic institutions and NGOs.

Suggestions as to how to open up political systems and enhance the participation of citizens and civil society in decision-making processes abound in UNESCO documents. Women's associations, academics, professional organizations and the private sector may be mobilized to take advantage of their resources, skills and proximity. Non-state actors may be invited to engage in conflict resolution. The role of traditional cultural leaders, religious leaders, artists and writers may be cultivated. Civil society, think tanks and academia may cooperate to establish human security and leadership academies. Civilian/military coordination within the framework of democracy may be improved to cope with the new threats

to security. The role of research NGOs as independent players in the promotion of the concept of human security may receive greater recognition, as may that of regional and international bodies in advancing human security and undertaking humanitarian assistance in times of emergency. International and regional cooperation may be enhanced in view of building partnerships between governments and all segments of civil society. Cooperation among local stakeholders and international organizations and teamwork between local authorities and civil society, and international organizations, agencies, networking and partnership may be enhanced as well. Interaction among governments and academics around issues of human security actively engaged in grass-roots peacebuilding and human security matters may be facilitated.

Anara Tabyshalieva sees the Millennium Development Goals concept as having introduced a simple, clear strategy to promote many elements of human security and bring together governments, NGOs and international agencies to identify priorities for national and regional partnership. She sees regional and international agencies in Central Asia as supporting standards of good governance

(132) *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*, 1953, Paris, UNESCO. (Monograph on Fundamental Education VIII.)
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0000/000028/002897EB.pdf
(133) Linda King and Sabine Schielmann (eds), 2004, *The Challenge of Indigenous Education: Practice and Perspectives*, Paris, UNESCO.
http://publishing.unesco.org/details.aspx?Code_Livre=4232
(134) UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007 (31 C/4).

and human security, and as being a significant help in creating an institutional framework of electoral systems, party systems, parliament, government and civil society organizations. She suggests that international organizations can help states cover social expenditures, provide technical, legal and political advice, promote and support good governance and the rule of law, monitor the implementation of their own policies and programmes to guarantee that they reach the entire population and not only members of the elite.[135]

Special mention has been made of the importance of the media in achieving human security by providing fora where ideas, policies and programmes are debated. Indeed, one of the most important threats to human security is lack of information, lack of communication access and the impossibility for free expression. On the other hand, the means of communication must be kept from being transformed into organs of hatred, of integration and intolerance and measures need to be taken to address the issue of violence in the media, including new information and communication technologies.

UNESCO is involved in communication issues directly relating to human security in three major areas: (1) promoting access to publicly held information by journalists enabled to do their job and by the public at large; (2) combating violence against journalists/media institutions and the impunity that follows many of these crimes in keeping with a resolution of the 29th session of UNESCO's General Conference; (3) promoting a holistic approach in assisting the reconstruction and development of a free, independent, pluralistic, non-partisan and professional media sector, as well as universal access to information in conflict and post-conflict areas as the best way to counter propagandistic messages and misinformation. All the above, by creating cooperation networks among media representatives and NGOs, national stakeholders, regional and international partners, and potential donors.

Gender equality and democratization

Among the key elements making up the broadened concept of human security is that people should enjoy without discrimination all human, political, social, economic and cultural rights and be subject to the same set of rules and obligations that belonging to a state implies. Another key element is social inclusion, having equal access to the political, social and economic policy-making processes, as well as being able to benefit equally from them. Another is the establishment of the rule of law and the independence of the justice system. Each individual in a society should have the same rights and obligations. These basic elements are predicated upon the equality of all before the law and serve to eliminate any risk of the arbitrariness so often manifesting itself in discrimination, abuse or oppression.[136]

In 2000, UN Security Council Resolution 1325 recognized gender equality as an integral component of peace. Yet both women actors and gender issues are still sidelined in many contemporary conflicts, peacekeeping initiatives and reconstruction efforts, and the culture of hegemonic masculinity prevails among the major political actors, whether occupiers, the resistance or the state. In many cases, women are neither adequately represented at decision-making levels nor involved in peace negotiations and agreements. In addition, women's grass-roots organizations and peace initiatives are often marginalized. The implementation of a gender perspective into disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of former combatants is far from being accomplished and the needs and interests of women and girls are rarely taken into account in post-conflict reconstruction.

UNESCO programmes have contributed to the development of traditional and innovative conflict prevention practices and to the design of peace-oriented training methods adapted to the needs of specific groups, with special attention to the role of women. The Social and Human Sciences programme for Gender Equality and Development (GED) contributes to the promotion of women's rights and gender equality, and within the framework of human security, the programme examines the different possible ways that women and gender relations are involved in and affected by global tensions and armed conflict, and seeks therefore to promote women's involvement in conflict resolution, peacebuilding and reconstruction. One of the main objectives for the GED programme is to ensure that the human rights of women and girls are protected during armed conflicts, and that women and gender issues are integrated into conflict resolution, peacebuilding and reconstruction.

To that end, the current focus of work is driven by both the international community's failure to implement Resolution 1325, and the persistence of conflicts throughout the world having serious implications for women's human rights. The GED programme places emphasis on networking, research, advocacy, capacity-building and the sharing of

(135) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., p. 30.
(136) Sadako Ogata, *Inclusion or Exclusion: Social Development Challenges for Asia and Europe*, Geneva, UNHCR, 27 April 1998.
http://www.unhcr.org/admin/ADMIN/3ae68fcd54.html

best practices while at the same time is aimed at helping to develop the capacities in member states to respond to women's needs and rights and other broader social transformations. To achieve these goals, the proposed actions include networking and collaborative work with women peace activists, researchers and feminist scholars on international relations on contemporary conflicts and their gender dynamics; research into the implementation of Resolution 1325 and the obstacles to its implementation; dissemination of research findings to national and international policy-makers and other relevant actors; and the creation of women's observatories and/or research and documentation centres that promote women's involvement in conflict resolution, peace processes and reconstruction efforts and in post-democratization processes.

The objective of GED's work is to realize and promote capacity-building of networks and institutions for women peace activist and feminist researchers; publish, distribute as well as to use its research findings as a basis for UNESCO policy papers; participate in meetings and deliberations on gender issues organized by other UN agencies; and finally to demonstrate through specific programmes the significant role of gender equality in action in conflict resolution, peace and reconstruction processes. Moreover, GED also works to foster values and institutional changes reinforcing equality between men and women in order to fight power disparities between sexes and violence against women rooted in particular domains or social institutions.[137]

Box 44: The creation of Women's Research and Documentation Centres: How to strengthen gender equality?

UNESCO established in 2005, in collaboration with the **Palestinian authorities, a Palestinian Women's Research and Documentation Center (PWRDC)** which was the outcome of the extensive consultations resulting in a partnership between the Palestinian academics, activists and policy-makers. Placed in Ramallah, PWRDC contributes to the development of policy-oriented research and evidence-based policies for gender equality and the human rights of women. Its main functions are to collect and house various research data and documentation produced on the status and condition of Palestinian women; commission research and produce policy briefings; analyse and circulate information; promote projects creating better understanding of the human rights of women and gender equality as well as women's political participation; support networking and information sharing on the Arab region; and to facilitate capacity-building, networking and empowerment for women's organizations. PWRDC also aims to produce policy-oriented research, including policy briefs intended for the Ministry of Women's Affairs and holds seminars with women's NGOs as well as provides ICT facilities and online resources.

UNESCO is working on establishing a similar centre to that of Palestine's in Africa, and a centre for the Great Lakes Region (GLR) is currently underway. The GLR centre is part of the project on *Empowerment of Women in Central Africa* and aims to facilitate social transformations based on the universal values of justice, freedom and human dignity, as well as to promote the human rights and status of women living in the Great Lakes Region. As the strategy for the advancement of women's empowerment, the UNESCO Gender programme is pursuing policy-oriented research, consultations, networking and capacity-building. The main objective is to facilitate and promote women's participation in post-conflict resolution, democratization and governance, as called for in the Dar-es-Salaam Declaration on Peace, Security, Democracy and Development in the Great Lakes Region (2004).

In addition to these projects, GED is, for instance, strengthening gender studies programmes at universities in the Great Lakes Region in order to enable present and future leaders with the capacity for promoting gender equality and women's human rights. Furthermore, within the framework of UNESCO actions in favour of women living in post-conflict situations, UNESCO and the Centre for Human Rights, University of Pretoria (South Africa), are undertaking in cooperation with partners from the University of Hull, United Kingdom, a programme of research on women's rights for peace and security in post-conflict democracies in Africa. The aim of this project is to develop policy recommendations on women's rights that would promote women's full participation in and contribution to peace and security in post-conflict countries in Africa. Member state beneficiaries for this project in addition to the countries of the Great Lakes Region are Liberia, Mozambique, Sierra Leone and South Africa.

Source: **www.unesco.org/shs/gender**

Sensitizing to good governance

One of the central aspects of human security lies in the relationship between the state and its citizens. Human security and state security are not mutually exclusive. They are always interdependent and can be complementary. The Commission of Human Security's report *Human Security Now* has stressed that human security and state

security are mutually reinforcing and dependent on one another, that without the one, the other cannot be attained.[138]

The state remains an indispensable provider/guarantor or destroyer of human security. States have an obligation to protect the vulnerable. They have the primary responsibility

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(137) www.unesco.org/shs/gender. Networking also aims at promoting gender equity, e.g. Isatou Touray, *Some Gender Perspectives on Governance and Democracy*; Michèle Sona Koundouno and Augustin Gnimassous, *La femme dans les postes de decisions en Guinée*; as well as respect for indigenous populations, e.g. Stephan Ilundu Bulambo, *Plaidoyer pour les pygmées Batwa de la République Démocratique du Congo*.
(138) Commission of Human Security report, *Human Security Now*, 2003, p. 6. http://www.humansecurity-chs.org/finalreport/English/FinalReport.pdf

in promoting human security in cooperation with the international community and the international community has an obligation to engage in humanitarian action when a state is unable or unwilling to provide its citizens with protection. Such international intervention is encouraged not only on humanitarian grounds, but also to realize far-reaching international security goals.

However, although national security and human security are complementary and mutually reinforcing, state security cannot be equated with human security. The state plays a major role in providing human security, but may also be a threat to the human security of its citizens. In many regions, a traditional concept of state-centred national security prevails over issues of individual human rights and human development. Tabyshalieva is conscious of a growing gap between the ways the leadership and the general population interpret human security in several

countries of Central Asia. In some cases, state actors view political liberalization and democratization as challenges to stability and security. A number of political leaders link human security with state security, and national laws assure many aspects of human security in varied ways.[139]

UNESCO's Beijing Office on Human Security reports that in China the perception of security still follows the traditional national security concept, and the term 'human security' is not used when addressing issues faced by their population. Eastern Asian countries have traditionally had their own understanding of the concept of security. They have tended to view freedom from fear in terms of national security and national sovereignty as the most important condition of security. They have tended more to view freedom from want in terms of strengthening the nation through rapid economic development and having a basic safety net to meet the basic needs of the poor.

Box 45: Some activities on human security of the UNESCO Beijing Office

Human security in China: a North-East Asian perspective
This two-year project, launched in spring 2006, has four main goals: by analysing the human security concept, to develop human security theories that can be used in China; by systematic empirical research, to measure China's human security situation, including the objective security situation and people's subjective feelings about security, and to analyse the factors causing insecurity; by analysing and understanding the current situation in human security, to promote policy attention and provide policy suggestions; to develop comparative research, especially with Japan and the Republic of Korea, and to explore international cooperation in human security research among East-Asian countries.

The objectives of the project are the following:
> To gain comprehensive knowledge of human security conditions in China by systematically collecting empirical data, including designing 'human security indicators', which can be used as the quantitative measurement of human security, and then a 'human security index' which will be used to evaluate human security conditions.
> To analyse the similarities and differences among China, Japan and the Republic of Korea by comparative approaches, and the various problems met by these countries and ways to solve them.
> To submit policy recommendations to the Chinese Government, addressing both domestic problems and ways of to develop international cooperative actions to promote human security in this region.
> To widely spread the findings and other knowledge of this project, including theoretical knowledge, successful policy actions in human security, the research methodology, and human security indicators and index to other Asian countries and even outside Asia.

Promotion of human security concept in rural areas of China
This project, launched in 2007, aims to increase public awareness of the concept of human security for women in rural areas of China.

Its main objectives are to give publicity to the human security concept over seven aspects: economy, foodstuff, health, environment, individual, community and politics; to popularize the concepts and knowledge about human safety in the countryside, especially among women; and to invite them to participate in the discussion of this important issue through questionnaires, workshops and other activities.

Within the project framework, the *Rural Women Magazine* will dedicate a two-page foldout in three numbers of their monthly publication to the concept of human security. By making use of the magazine's 80,000 circulation, these foldouts will first give an overall introduction to the concept of human security and then will propose a short questionnaire to readers. Answers to the questionnaire together with readers' letters will allow the magazine to gather readers' feedback, doubts or questions on human safety issues. With the collaboration of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, the magazine will analyse this feedback in order to get a rough understanding of the main concerns and worries relating to human security of Chinese rural women.

Source: UNESCO Beijing Office

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(139) Tabyshalieva, op. cit., pp. 27, 34.

Shin-wha Lee finds that, while military defence against military aggression by another state was traditionally believed to guarantee the personal security of the citizens within the defending state, governments themselves are increasingly exacerbating human suffering and responsible for offences committed against their own people. She cites Professor R. J. Rummel, who calculates that approximately 174 million people have been killed by their own governments over the past century.[140]

Bechir Chourou considers that the crucial problem facing most Arabs today is that political authorities represent the dominant threat to human security. Many figure among the millions of ordinary people whose lives are at risk because their political authorities are unable or unwilling to protect them. As national security is equated with regime security, states appear as threats to human security rather than providers of it. These threats to human security include the curtailment of fundamental human rights by the unlawful detention of political opponents designated as internal enemies, rigged trials, banned/rigged elections, discrimination against minorities and women. Though few Arabs face naked threats to their physical well-being or dire social or economic problems, most of them see their dignity and worth, their human rights and basic freedoms trampled upon everyday by institutions or people acting on behalf of, and on orders, from national political authorities.[141]

Weak, failing or failed states are also threats to the security of their own people. In Africa, state collapse and state failure are linked to the fact that African states have come from a very recent process of state formation that followed imported models, with the result that most lack the procedural and institutional dimensions of democracy, which in turn leads to little government accountability, constraints on state power and limited representation. In Eastern Europe, the question arises of the consolidation of democracy in a context of lack of trust in the new institutions and growing corruption due to a combination of factors such as poverty, poor political leadership, social and political mismanagement. The executive branch of the state loses legitimacy, while trust is placed in institutions such as armies, churches and universities. In Latin America, social cohesion is threatened by weak democracies and a legacy of dictatorships. Politico-institutional vulnerability is exacerbated by high levels of corruption in government

and state institutions such as the police and army, which abdicate their responsibilities to ensure law, order and security. Political parties being considered the least trustworthy after the armed forces and the police, citizens place their trust in the church and the television.[142]

From 1994 to 2002, the theme of Globalization and Governance was addressed by the MOST Programme through building up networks and carrying out policy-relevant research. The aim was to improve understanding of the globalization process and its impact on newly created governance mechanisms and structures. Projects in this field analysed and supported local development policies and regional coping strategies, particularly in marginalized regions and the least developed countries. In light of a rapidly changing world, the MOST programme's work on this theme evolved over this ten-year period to adapt to the global context. In the first four years links were forged between knowledge producers and research users as networks were built up and programmes established. From 1998 to 1999 activities emphasized the production of new scientific knowledge, presenting it in a form that could be used by public decision-makers and media professionals. The three main areas of action were 'national coping strategies to fight against drug-trafficking', 'sustainability' and 'social governance within the globalization and integration processes'. From 2000 to 2003, the strategy was twofold: first, work continued on understanding globalization and governance, and second, there was a focus on local development strategies and governance mechanisms. The reports, studies and publications resulting from the work of MOST on globalization and governance during this period are available in the MOST Digital Library. The theme of 'Governance and Democracy' under the Social and Human Sciences Sector was transferred to the International Centre for Human Sciences at Byblos (Lebanon). In September 2002, the Byblos Centre officially launched its programme. The new mission of the Centre is to promote comparative research on the nature of democracy and its development, with particular emphasis on the relationship between cultural perceptions and democracy. The Centre fosters interregional and international exchanges and cooperation. It also serves as a forum to disseminate the results of research conducted on the theme of democracy.[143]

(140) Shin-wha Lee, op. cit., p. 17.
(141) Chourou, op. cit., pp. 69–70.
(142) Fuentes and Rojas Aravena, op. cit., p. 142.
(143) http://digital-library.unesco.org/shs/most/gsdl/cgi-bin/library?a=p&p=about&c=most&l=en&w=utf-8

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Chapter 1

Mainstreaming the human rights normative framework

The integration of human rights into the broad range of the UN's activities is at the heart of the ongoing efforts for the Reform of the Organization. UN specialized agencies, programmes and bodies responding to the call of the Secretary-General have repeatedly manifested their commitment to the mainstreaming of human rights in their work and have agreed in 2003 upon a common understanding concerning the content of a Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA) to programming. For the UN system, the mainstreaming of human rights implies that:

1. All programmes of development cooperation, policies and technical assistance should further the realization of human rights as laid down in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international human rights instruments.

2. Human rights standards contained in, and principles derived from, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international human rights instruments guide all development cooperation and programming in all sectors and in all phases of the programming process.

3. Development cooperation contributes to the development of the capacities of 'duty-bearers' to meet their obligations and/or of 'rights-holders' to claim their rights. (*Statement on a Common understanding of a human rights based approach to development cooperation, endorsed by the United Nations Development Group (UNDG) Programme Group*).

UNESCO's Strategy on Human Rights sets as a priority for the Organization the integration of a Human Rights-Based Approach in all its programmes and activities.

Box 46: UNESCO Strategy on Human Rights

In October 2003 the 32nd session of the UNESCO General Conference adopted the UNESCO Strategy on Human Rights. The Strategy has a twofold objective: (a) reaffirm the commitment of the Organization to the cause of promoting and protecting human rights; and (b) identify priority areas of action with a view to increasing the impact and visibility of UNESCO's work in the field of human rights.

The Strategy is premised on the principles of universality, indivisibility, interrelation and interdependence of all human rights – civil, cultural, economic, political and social – reaffirmed by the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993). Furthermore, it reflects the recommendations put forward by the UN Secretary-General in his Reform Programme of the UN and integrates the United Nations Millennium Declaration and the Millennium Development Goals into the work of the Organization.

The Strategy was prepared with due account of the specific responsibilities of other bodies, programmes and specialized agencies of the United Nations, in particular of the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and the International Labour Organization (ILO). Its effective implementation will be pursued through the strengthening of partnerships with members of the UN system, regional intergovernmental organizations, National Commissions for UNESCO and UNESCO Chairs, civil society, the academic community as well as national human rights institutions (i.e. Ombudspersons and national human rights commissions).

The main lines of action of the Strategy are:
> integrating a human rights-based approach into UNESCO activities (human rights mainstreaming);
> human rights research;
> human rights education;
> standard-setting and monitoring;
> strengthening partnerships.

The UNESCO Strategy on Human Rights is closely linked to the UNESCO Integrated Strategy to Combat Racism, Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (32 C/13) also adopted by the 32nd session of the General Conference. This document provides UNESCO's response to the recommendations of the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action (2001). These two strategies are interrelated and mutually reinforcing.

Sources: www.unesco.org/human_rights
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001457/145734e.pdf

The basis for the mainstreaming efforts within UNESCO is building the capacities of its staff. Through training seminars, the production of training manuals and tools and the sharing of information, it aims to increase awareness and knowledge of human rights and human rights-based programming. UNESCO cooperates closely with other bodies, programmes and specialized agencies of the UN system, drawing inspiration from their experiences.

During 2005, learning modules on Human Rights Training for SHS Headquarters Programme Staff, Human Rights-Based Approach to UN Common Country Programming Processes, Human Rights Training for UNESCO Resource Persons and Human Rights-Based Approach to Programming: UNESCO's Response were prepared by UNESCO in cooperation with the United Nations System Staff College (UNSSC) to carry out in-house capacity-building on human rights for UNESCO staff.

Chapter 1

Chapter 2

Regional/subregional recommendations for the promotion of human security

Chapter 2

Introduction: human security 2000–2007

Since the mid-1990s, UNESCO through its Culture of Peace programme has closely followed the main international efforts towards the promotion of human security (e.g. the 1994 United Nations Development Programme's *Human Development Report* and the 2003 report of the Commission on Human Security, *Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People*). A plan of action for the promotion of human security at regional level was adopted in 2000, as a result of the deliberations of the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions on the theme 'What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-first Century?', held at UNESCO Headquarters; and in 2002 human security became one of the Organization's twelve strategic objectives as reflected in its *Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007*. This strategic objective is closely linked to UNESCO's contribution to the eradication of poverty, in particular extreme poverty, and to the promotion of human rights, as well as to its action in the field of natural sciences, notably in conflict prevention relating to the use of water resources. The choice of adopting regional approaches to human security has been most fruitful to date.

With a view to opening new perspectives for focused research, adequate training, preparation of pilot projects, and to further consolidate public policy and public awareness on human security issues, UNESCO has launched a series of publications: *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks*. These emphasize three important elements in order to translate the concept of human security into action: (a) the need to have a *solid ethical foundation*, based on shared values, leading to the commitment to protect human dignity which lies at the very core of human security; (b) buttressing that ethical dimension by *placing existing and new normative instruments at the service of human security*, in particular by ensuring the full implementation of instruments relating to the protection of human rights; and (c) the need to reinforce the education and training component by better articulating and giving enhanced coherence to all ongoing efforts, focusing on issues such as *education for peace and sustainable development, training in human rights and enlarging the democratic agenda to human security issues*.

It is hoped that this series – whose recommendations by region and subregion are compiled in this chapter – will contribute to laying the foundations of an in-depth and sustained action for the promotion of human security, in which the individual has a key role to play.

Human security at international level

The international meeting on What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-First Century?, organized by UNESCO in Paris (France) on 27 and 28 November 2000, gathered a large number of experts working on peace and human security, as well as several governmental representatives and UN agencies.

In line with one of the key recommendations of the participants, UNESCO adopted **regional approaches to human security** to identify the specific risks and threats, as well as the needs and modalities of action, in the different regional contexts.

The November 2000 meeting was at the origin of regional and subregional research papers and consultations launched by UNESCO throughout the world, in cooperation with experts and partners, whose recommendations have now been published in the *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks* series and are reproduced in this chapter, beginning with those of the original meeting.

Recommendations

> Human security can be considered today as a paradigm in the making, for ensuring both a better knowledge of the rapidly evolving large-scale risks and threats that can have a major impact on individuals and populations, and a strengthened mobilization of the wide array of actors actually involved in participative policy formulation in the various fields it encompasses today.
As such, it is an adequate framework for:
- accelerating the transition from past restrictive notions of security, tending to identify it solely with defence issues, to a much more comprehensive multidimensional concept of security, based on the respect for all human rights and democratic principles;
- contributing to sustainable development and especially to the eradication of extreme poverty, which is a denial of all human rights;
- reinforcing the prevention at the root of the different forms of violence, discrimination, conflict and internal strife that are taking a heavy toll on mainly civilian populations in all regions of the world without exception;

- providing a unifying theme for multilateral action to the benefit of the populations most affected by partial and interrelated insecurities. The importance should be underlined of the multilateral initiatives taken in this respect by Canada and Japan as well as by other countries.

> The ongoing globalization process offers new opportunities for the strengthening of large coalitions working to further human security, at the multilateral and national levels, and in particular at local level involving all actors of society. This in turn requires a much stronger participation of peace research and training institutions, institutes for security studies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other bodies dedicated to the promotion of peace and human security, with a view to enhancing the involvement of civil society in all aspects of policy formulation and implementation of actions aimed at enhancing human security at the local, national, regional and international levels.

> The promotion of human security today therefore requires an enhanced exchange of best experiences, practices and initiatives in the fields of research, training, mobilization and policy formulation, in which UNESCO can play a major role as a facilitator, forum and amplifier of proactive human security initiatives, in particular in the framework of the UNESCO SecuriPax Forum website launched in September 2000 for that purpose - http://www.unesco.org/securipax.

> The strengthening of the action of the United Nations and, in particular, of UNESCO in favour of human security is essential today, taking into account the objectives set out in the UN Millennium Summit Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace, and the Declaration and Plan for an International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001–2010), proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly, as well as on the measures being taken to reach internationally agreed development targets, in particular in the fields of poverty eradication; education for all; the preservation of the environment and notably of water resources; and the struggle against AIDS.

> The compounded impact of a growing number of threats to the security of populations requires the establishment of innovative interdisciplinary approaches geared to the requirements of inducing participative preventive action, involving all social actors. The intimate links that should exist between research projects and policy formulation in the field of prevention must also be stressed from the outset, taking into account the fact that current research on various dimensions of security is still largely dissociated from the existing policy formulation mechanisms, particularly at the national and subregional levels. On the basis of a common agenda for action, the peace research and training institutions, institutes for security studies and the NGOs working in related fields can play an essential role in creating these links, building bridges between the academic world and the policy formulation mechanisms, contributing to the establishment of such mechanisms wherever necessary, identifying priority fields to be tackled and the populations that merit particular and urgent attention.

> Regional and subregional approaches should be elaborated for the promotion of human security in order to more precisely identify the nature, scope and impact of the risks and threats that can affect populations in the medium and long term. UNESCO should contribute to the elaboration of these regional and subregional approaches, in cooperation with national and regional organizations and institutions and on the basis of the regional round tables (on Africa, the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean) held during the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions. Urgent attention should be paid to the reinforcement of the struggle against AIDS, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, which is a real threat to peace and security, as stated by the United Nations Security Council.

> Special attention should be paid to the most highly populated countries, given the fact that in these countries the interrelationship between population growth, diminishing natural resources, environmental degradation and the overall impact of ongoing globalization processes is of great complexity and must consequently be dealt with, in particular in terms of designing local approaches focusing on specific population groups.

> The development of human resources is a key factor, if not the most important, for ensuring human security. Basic education for all and the building of capacities at the national level must therefore be placed high on the human security agenda. Institutes for peace and human security can play an important role in national capacity-building in fields such as the setting up of early-warning mechanisms related to major risks and threats to human security; and high-level training for the elaboration of regional and subregional long-term approaches for ensuring human security and the formulation of preventive action policies.

> Critical post-conflict issues such as reconciliation processes and mechanisms and the often harsh impact of sanctions on populations merit more in-depth analysis in terms of human security, in the framework of an enhanced respect for international instruments, in particular the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Concerning reconciliation processes and mechanisms, due attention should be paid to the adequate dissemination of best experiences and practices and to the comparative analysis of these experiences and practices, especially of the work of the various truth and justice commissions set up in last two decades in various countries. Concerning the impact of sanctions on populations, note should be taken of ongoing initiatives within the United Nations in order to review the modalities of the imposition of such sanctions and the action of UN Specialized Agencies to alleviate their impact on civilian populations.

> The impact on human security of migrations and of movements of populations displaced due to conflict should be highlighted. Concerning migrations, attention should be paid to countering practices in host countries that discriminate against legal immigrants and in the case

of populations displaced due to conflict, the efforts of the international community should be reinforced, especially when the displacements take on a semi-permanent character.

> Due attention should be paid to countering the impact of negative paradigms (such as 'clash of civilizations', 'African anarchy', etc.), based on stereotypes and simplistic analyses of the interactions between cultures, societies and civilizations and which aim at fostering new divisions and fractures at the international and regional levels. The principles underlying the notions of cultural diversity, cultural pluralism, tolerance and non-discrimination should be stressed and due attention should be paid to the follow-up to the Plan of Action of the World Conference against Racism and Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance (Durban, South Africa, 2001).

> The role of the state in the promotion of human security must be addressed on the basis of an exhaustive analysis of challenges in matters relating to human security, both from within to ensure sustainable development, and from the rapidly evolving international processes linked to economic and financial globalization. States should be encouraged to establish ways of enlarging their cooperation with civil society, in particular with those NGOs and institutions that can contribute effectively to policy formulation and collaborative action in the field.

Source: *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-first Century?*, Proceedings of the First International Meeting of Directors of Peace Research and Training Institutions, UNESCO, 2001; 2nd edn 2005.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001405/140553E.pdf

Human security and Africa

Further to a joint regional expert meeting held in 2001, UNESCO and the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) co-organized an International Conference on Human Security in Africa, in Pretoria (South Africa), from 4 to 6 March 2007.

The conference gathered representatives of the main networks and initiatives dealing with human security in Africa, among which the African Futures Institute, CODESRIA, COMESA, the Human Security Network (represented by Mali as the only African member), SADC, SAHRIT, SAIIA, SARPN, University of Peace, UN organizations and WANEP. South Africa being an observer within the Human Security Network, representatives of local authorities also actively participated in the Conference.

The UNESCO publication *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Africa*, by Jo-Ansie van Wyk, presents the main recommendations of the conference as listed below.

Recommendations (short- to medium-term)

African governments and international IGOs
> *Reform and restructure the African Union (AU) system*. The AU is a relatively new institution but is already hampered by cliques' agendas and a cumbersome and inefficient bureaucracy. Furthermore, the AU is unable to resolve crises such as those in Darfur and Zimbabwe. It does not have the technical expertise, financial resources and political will. Furthermore, the Pan-African Parliament (PAP), established to open avenues for civil society participation, is unable to provide such an avenue to African CSOs.

> *Improve and enhance conflict resolution efforts*. It is imperative that the socio-economic roots of Africa's conflicts be reconsidered, and mechanisms developed to resolve these conflicts. Apart from the effect on the distribution of and access to resources, this is also a major determinant of elites' success in elections, and can perpetuate patronage systems.

> *Improve AU-UN relations and joint operations*. Closer and structured cooperation between the UN Security Council and the AU Peace and Security Council should be established. Although the formation of the African Standby Force is a very crucial step for the African continent to be in a position to address its own problems, if the ASF is to become a viable component of future peace-enforcement solutions, its development needs to be accelerated and capacity-building augmented. These weaknesses have been pointed out as including poor logistical support for mission preparation, deployment and execution, an underdeveloped organizational structure lacking unity of command, and significantly undertrained and inexperienced personnel. The most critical mission for the ASF in today's operational context is peace enforcement and the ability to conduct armed interventions across potentially hostile borders. By identifying peace enforcement as the foremost mission priority, the ASF can most efficiently allocate all of its resources towards achieving competence in its most critical mission function. The AU urgently needs to secure the resources necessary to achieve the developmental goals from donor countries. Currently, the ASF is funded primarily by the AU Peace Fund, which is underfunded with barely enough capital to sustain an AMIS extension in Darfur through March 2007. ASF funding has been a longstanding issue, given the lack of financial support from AU member states and lack of clear support

from wealthier G8 nations. In addition to resources, militarily advanced nations should provide greater opportunities for ASF elements and leaders to conduct effective, mission-related training at regional training centres and military schools. Learning opportunities for ASF leaders should also be provided within Western military service academies and military schools to improve the quality of leadership, knowledge and professionalism at the highest levels. With political, logistical and financial support from world leaders for the ASF concept, the AU can make significant contributions to a Pan-African alternative to UN peace-keepers.

> Strengthen African states, institutions and governments, embedding good governance practices.

> Uphold the rule of law and independence of courts nationally, as well as ensuring the Pan-African Court's independence and efficiency.

> *Improve regional security cooperation*. Since 1945, regional and subregional organizations have proliferated. The end of the Cold War witnessed the resurgence of these organizations for security cooperation. Established analytical models for regional security include alliances, collective security and security communities. A new analysis in terms of security functionality points to at least four sets of purposes that a regional security group can perform:
- Security dialogue and conflict management, aimed at establishing or maintaining peace in a region. The AU has explicit conflict prevention and management instruments to this end, but lacks the political will and resources to implement it.
- Groups can develop systems of military operation based on mutual restraint to reduce military activity, or on shared capacity-building for new-style peace missions. This is one of the key objectives of the AU.
- Regional organizations can intrinsically and expressly promote ethical and normative standards vis-à-vis human rights and democratic governance. This is also one of the key aims of the AU.
- Regional cooperation can promote security by advancing economic development.

> Engage non-state actors in conflict resolution and post-conflict settings.

> *Rethink aid*. International donors are recommended to include a human security premium in their aid packages.

Civil society, think tanks and academia
> Establish new links and renew established links with like-minded ethical, normative and educational networks.

> Assess and enhance existing human security promotion programmes in local communities.

> Improve advocacy function vis-à-vis national parliaments, PAP, the AU system and the UN.

> Access and lobby decision-makers via existing national, regional and pan-African institutions.

> Run pilot programmes in conjunction with local organizations and UNESCO.

> Introduce a human-security-oriented curricula at primary, secondary and tertiary level.

UNESCO
> Continue with current project promoting human security and improve human rights education at primary level for vulnerable groups such as girls, women, child soldiers, etc., a major focus area.

> Coordinate existing and new efforts efficiently.

> Assess efficiency and impact of current projects in Africa. An assessment of organizations' activities in Africa should be conducted.

> Partnerships: run pilot programmes in conjunction with local and civil society organizations.

> Introduce and maintain early warning systems.

> Develop relevant capacity and skills for African human security needs.

Recommendations (long-term)

African governments and international IGOs
> Consolidate peace processes.

> Consolidate state-building programmes.

> The AU should enforce mechanisms in cases where member states contravene the Union's values and objectives.

> Nurture state/civil society interactions.

> Assess regional human security promotion efforts.

> Introduce human-security-oriented education policies.

Civil society, think tanks and academia
> Assess advocacy and human security promotion activities.

> Assess human security education and research.

> Assess and maintain early warning networks.

> The development of African leaders is urgently required. Establish human security and leadership academies.

UNESCO
> Restructure UNESCO operations in Africa to focus more on local/community level.

> Follow a regional approach to addressing human security issues, as outlined in this document.

> Cooperate with civil society, think tanks and academia to establish human security and leadership academies.

> Determine necessary and sufficient requirements for human security in cooperation with other relevant UN agencies such as, for example, the UNDP and UNAIDS.

> Enforce ethical, normative and educational frameworks that African governments have adopted via international mechanisms, such as the Responsibility to Protect (RTP).

> Develop relevant capacity and skills for African human security needs.

> Coordinate existing and new efforts efficiently.

Source: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Africa, by Jo-Ansie van Wyk, UNESCO, 2007.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001544/154406E.pdf

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Human security and the Arab States

In cooperation with the Regional Human Security Centre at the Jordan Institute of Diplomacy, Amman (Jordan) and under the patronage of the Jordanian Minister of Foreign Affairs, UNESCO organized an International Conference on Human Security and Peace in the Arab States, in Amman, on 14 and 15 March 2005.

This two-day conference gathered regional and international experts, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs – Jordan being a member of the Human Security Network – as well as other representatives of local authorities and a representative of the Human Security Unit.

One session was dedicated to the discussion and validation of a paper *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in the Arab States* by Bechir Chourou, whose recommendations are listed below.

As a follow-up to the Amman Conference, UNESCO, the League of Arab States and the Human Security Unit at the Office of Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs are currently implementing a project entitled Promoting the Human Security Concept in the Arab Region, financed by the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security.

Recommendations

Measures should be adopted to ensure the effective participation of all citizens in the processes used to identify, implement and follow-up decisions and measures having a direct impact on their lives. There are several methods through which such participation can be achieved, and each society should be free to choose those that best meet its needs.

Citizens cannot exercise their right to participate in social life if they lack the means for their empowerment. At a minimum, every citizen should enjoy:

> Access to education. All citizens must be guaranteed a sufficient amount of education that would allow them to be aware of their history and culture, to be aware of their environment - including other cultures, civilizations and religions, to meet their basic needs, ensure their welfare and contribute to the welfare of their community.

> Access to health services. Obviously, every human being aspires to be in good health, and recognizes that sickness is a major threat to security and survival. Particular attention must be paid to the specific needs of women, and special provisions must be made for their role as mothers.

> Access to income-generating activities. In order to meet their vital needs (food, shelter, etc.), people need an income, and

to generate that income they need to undertake a productive activity. Proper conditions should be created (infrastructure, rules and regulations, training) so that every person – male and female – has an opportunity to undertake a gainful activity.

> Citizens who are unable to meet their basic needs through their own efforts should have public support. In particular, vulnerable groups such as children, the elderly, the disabled, the chronically ill, people in isolated or remote areas, should be given particular attention. If states are unable to provide assistance, the international community should participate in the provision of such assistance.

The concept of human security and its underlying values of solidarity, tolerance, openness, dialogue, transparency, accountability, justice and equity should be widely disseminated in societies. To that effect, human security should be incorporated at all levels of education. The media, particularly radio and television, should be mobilized to organize awareness-raising campaigns, and to encourage people to explore ways and means by which they can enhance their own security and that of members of their communities.

The media have another function to fulfil towards achieving human security, that of providing forums where ideas, policies and programmes are debated. Citizens are not likely to accept or implement decisions that are imposed from above. Therefore, they should be given opportunities to hear, propose and debate alternative approaches to achieving the common good. Citizen involvement in public life can be efficient and productive only if it is based on freedom of speech and expression; otherwise, public opinion will only serve as a sterile echo chamber for decision-makers.

Civil society should be mobilized to participate in the promotion of human security. Special efforts should be made to mobilize women's associations, academics, professional organizations and the private sector to take advantage of their resources, skills and proximity to ensure ownership of the concept of human security by local stakeholders, and a wide dissemination of the culture of human security.

Civil society can only carry out this task if freedom of association is fully recognized. Both freedom of speech and freedom of association have to be considered as integral parts of human rights, and any restrictions that may be contemplated to limit their potential abuse should be entrusted to appropriate independent judicial organs.

Members of civil society should be encouraged to create intra-national and intra-regional networks with a view to sharing experiences and lessons learned.

Many aspects of human security are deeply rooted in the Arab culture and Islam. Therefore, there should be no difficulty in adopting or implementing them in the region. In this respect, arguments should be rejected that human security or some of its components are foreign constructs that are imposed upon us, especially if they are used as an excuse for not implementing human security in the region.

States should not place themselves in a position where they would be viewed as opponents of human security or as obstacles to its achievement. If public opinion perceives that the state is more concerned about its security than about people's security, this would not only create instability but would pose a direct and immediate threat to human security. The most appropriate level at which human security can effectively be achieved is the local or community level. However, sufficient resources are not always available at that level. Therefore, the state has a role to play in mobilizing resources and allocating them among those who need them. In this respect, Arab states should be encouraged to offer and receive moral, human and material assistance from other Arab states and the international community.

UNESCO can make a contribution to the achievement of human security in the Arab region. Its major asset is its expertise in the fields of education, culture and science. In this respect, UNESCO can work in conjunction with the National Commissions for UNESCO to identify specific tools to promote human security. One such tool could be the development of curricula for inculcating the knowledge and practice of human rights and attendant values such as tolerance, civic duties and obligations, and rejection of extremism and xenophobia.

Any reforms that Arabs may deem necessary must spring from a conviction that the search for human security is an ethical enterprise – and not just a political palliative. They further need to stem from the free will of Arab societies and be initiated and overseen by them. If reforms are adopted as a result of external pressure, or if they are defined by outside actors, or if their follow-up is entrusted to third parties, then they are not likely to be sustainable. On the other hand, outside calls for reforms should not be used as an excuse for rejecting such reforms. After all, we are dealing with *human* security and as such, it is the concern of all humanity.

Source: *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in the Arab States*, by Bechir Chourou, UNESCO, 2005.
In English:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001405/140513E.pdf
In Arabic:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001405/140513a.pdf

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Chapter 2

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Human security and East Asia

In collaboration with the Korean National Commission for UNESCO and the Ilmin International Relations Institute of Korea University, UNESCO organized an International Conference on Human Security in East Asia, in Seoul (Republic of Korea), in June 2003.

The conference was attended by regional and international experts, representatives from the governments of the region, as well as observers from throughout Asia. Ten ASEAN Member States were also represented, as well as five North-East Asian countries.

On the basis of the conference recommendations, various human security field projects were implemented, mainly in China, in 2006–2007. In particular, the work of the MOST network for Asia has been reoriented to deal with human security in the region.

A paper prepared by Shin-wha Lee at UNESCO's request, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in East Asia*, was discussed and validated during the conference. It offers the following recommendations.

Recommendations

> *Setting a common regional agenda*. Different priorities in each East Asian state on human security concerns should be respected. Yet, in order to advance human security in the region, it is important to develop a common agenda, obtain mutual agreement between nations, and proceed with specific implementation plans and strategies. Common policies and strategies should be drawn up around issues such as poverty reduction, productive employment, human rights protection, providing economic and social opportunities, investing in human resources, and securing natural resources for sustainable development.

> *Ensuring good governance*. Considering that corrupt and 'poor' governance is a major source of human insecurities in countries in the region, fundamental principles and certain standards of behaviour should be identified and adhered to.

> *Adopting comprehensive approaches*. Although non-traditional security issues have been treated individually in formal and informal multilateral meetings, they have not been treated as a group from the viewpoint of human security. Because all the issues of human security are interrelated, a comprehensive and holistic approach must be adopted rather than an individual one. To facilitate this, as mentioned below, an intellectual and policy network of human security specialists should be developed.

> *Institutionalizing multilateral cooperation*. In order for more countries in the East Asian region to show greater interest, a type of epistemic community like an 'East Asian human security forum' composed of human security specialists could be institutionalized. This community could contribute to furthering multilateral cooperation concerning human security in the region by selecting norms or guidelines in promoting human security and by discussing specific reaction plans. If this were to happen and the East Asian region was able to make a common proposal towards the international community based on research, it would provide a very effective example of human security diplomacy. Human security cooperation at the bilateral level is also needed to play the role of a catalyst in promoting cooperation at the multilateral level.

> *Reconsidering non-interference*. In crisis situations, building cooperative security arrangements even at the cost of interference in domestic affairs should be seriously considered as a necessary response. Cross-border threats such as refugee issues, drug trafficking and terrorism render a strict adherence to non-interference rather problematic. There is a need to rethink interference as a matter of practical necessity without which regional institutions cannot remain relevant and address real-world changes and challenges facing human security, instead of perceiving them as abstract moral concerns relating to human rights.

> *Promoting education*. Education is the most fundamental factor in promoting human security. Education reinforces all the methods and strategies for improving socio-economic conditions and brings more and better possibilities to improving human rights and security. Education not only results in political and economic empowerment but it directly correlates with better quality of life. Women's education, in particular, is very important in improving the human rights and security situation as women form the group that most frequently suffers from stifling of those rights. Also, a major programme of public diplomacy should be launched to enlist full support and cooperation from the public and private sector to ensure the success of policies and measures to prevent and combat all forms of human insecurity in East Asia.

> *Empowering civil society*. NGOs have contributed enormously to promoting human rights and have had much influence on international efforts that aspire to provide universal ethical protection, including addressing human security concerns. It is the active participation of NGOs that promotes the core values of human security and emphasizes human rights, environmental sustainability, poverty alleviation and social safety nets. Thus the creation of a network of Asian NGOs in the area of human security should ensure both global participation and the participation of civil society. Empowering civil society institutions and increasing public participation will lead these two groups to administer greater influence on the human and social agenda. Priority is usually given to state or national security in crisis situations with the expectation that improving the conditions for national security will lead to human security later. It may be possible for NGOs to change a government outlook from that of protecting national interests to human security interests. By helping societies to

cope with crisis and strengthening local communities, they help to improve the human security situation and further encourage a more open political system and greater popular participation in decision-making.

On a final note, the countries and peoples of East Asia face a vast range of cultural, political and economic situations while having fewer region-wide multilateral institutions than other regions, resulting in difficulties in generating a cohesive regional identity essential to coordinating responsibilities. Furthermore, individual states in East Asia tend to be more concerned with domestic problems and opportunities instead of finding a coordinated inter-state solution. This tendency not only makes East Asian cooperation difficult, but also causes the lack of a collective response to common threats faced by the region. In their interactions with countries outside the region, the events of 11 September in particular have presented East Asia with an opportunity to clarify their relationships with both the dominant world power

and each other where security issues are concerned. However, there are still many impediments to cooperation arising from historical and contemporary political animosities, and the former reliance on patron states such as the United States for security needs makes cooperation between Asian states more difficult. By promoting and implementing multinational collaboration, East Asia can better define its policies strategically, rather than in an ad hoc way, and consequently achieve the common benefits promised by human security.

Source: *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in East Asia*, by Shin-wha Lee, UNESCO, 2004.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001388/138892e.pdf

About the author

Shin-wha Lee, associate professor at the Department of Political Science and International Relations, Korea University, Seoul (Republic of Korea), received her Ph.D. in International Relations from the University of Maryland at College Park and held a Post-Doctoral Fellowship (1994–97) at the Center for International Affairs, Harvard University (USA). Her previous positions include researcher at the World Bank, special advisor to the Rwandan Independent Inquiry appointed by United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan; advisor to the Chair of the East Asian Vision Group, and coordinator of the UNESCO Chair on Peace, Democracy and Human Rights at Korea University. Prof. Lee has published many articles and books including *Environment Matters: Conflicts, Refugees & International Relations*.

Human security and Central Asia

In cooperation with the OSCE Academy in Bishkek, UNESCO organized an International Conference on Human Security and Peace in Central Asia, which took place in Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan), in September 2005.

During the two-day conference, a group of regional and international academics, experts and professionals from various backgrounds held insightful and productive discussions around human security and peace in the subregion.

One session was dedicated to the discussion and validation of the paper *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Central Asia*, prepared by Anara Tabyshalieva. General recommendations, as well as specific recommendations to UNESCO and to its National Commissions were compiled as follows.

Recommendations

The Central Asian case illustrates the overriding importance of the regional dimension of human security. Central Asian countries face similar problems in human security, although the extent and precise nature of their problems may differ.

The value of human security is based on its positive connection with human rights and individual freedoms such as those of women, youth, ethnic and religious minorities, migrants, and representatives of groups at risk. There is an obvious need to discuss normative, ethical and educational frameworks for promoting human security in the region. Central Asian states should jointly respond to the common challenges of human insecurity and conflict, by overcoming

the legacies of colonialism and the Cold War that have affected their relations in the past. Human security depends heavily on each country's structural and functional capacity to prevent domestic conflict and protect all population groups from fear and want, although each country could set different priorities in its human security policy. Based on a critical evaluation of the regional situation, however, a set of general recommendations for the promotion of human security in Central Asia can be drawn up, as follows.

> *Prioritizing the human security agenda*. Governments and non-state actors need to place human security higher on the agenda of their countries and that of the region. Central Asian regional and national forums could be organized to discuss the efficacy of the approach to human security.

Chapter 2

Human security could be used as a multidisciplinary framework at regional and national meetings, linking common problems such as education and health, conflict prevention, religious and ethnic tolerance, anti-corruption, combating drug and human trafficking, and migration, in a more coherent and coordinated fashion. A holistic approach to human security in Central Asia is an important step towards a more people-centred strategy.

> *Discussions on normative, ethical and educational frameworks for promoting human security*. National and regional actors could set the priorities for normative, ethical and educational frameworks in the promotion of human security in Central Asia. Neighbouring countries need to exchange ideas about normative and ethical approaches to human security at national and regional levels. Greater attention should be paid to harmonization across borders. Education is crucial to human security in the region, especially the education of young men, to stimulate a positive effect that could help to prevent their recruitment by extremist movements. A joint programme of researchers and representatives from governments and civil society groups needs to be established to identify national and regional priorities and advocate a holistic approach to human security problems together with policy recommendations. These working groups could develop monitoring and evaluation tools and methodologies on human security in the Central Asian context. Efforts should be made to collect standardized and systematized data on human security. Within regional institutions, country representatives might be encouraged to urge their national governments to participate in common censuses and surveys.

> *Participation and vibrant civil society.* Central Asian people should be the first to decide their own destiny. National and international actors need to increase support for democratic institutions and civil society groups that are addressing human security and human rights. It is urgent to enhance the capacity and expertise of civil society groups in relation to human security. For example, independent scholars and civil society groups could produce and translate literature on issues relating to human security.

> *Economic reforms and poverty reduction.* The establishment of macroeconomic sustainability is an important prerequisite for human security in Central Asia. Fostering an economically strong middle class and developing small and medium-sized enterprises will be effective tools in long-term regional stability. There is a vital need to diversify the economy to expand employment opportunities, especially in densely populated areas. Poverty reduction programmes are essential for the whole region. Access to health and education services is one of the central issues for poor communities.

> *Bridging ethnic and religious divides*. Central Asians should build upon past instances of overcoming ethnic and religious divides, and draw from their rich history the many examples of ethnic and religious tolerance, traditional methods of conflict prevention and the means to achieve greater human security for all population groups. An extended dialogue on tackling cultural diversity in the region would have a positive impact on bridging ethnic and religious divides.

> *Combating the drug industry and human trafficking*. Central Asian countries need to further discuss the regional anti-drug platform and involvement of civil society groups in combating these issues. To eliminate drug trafficking and drug use, Central Asian governments and the donor community must address the economic sources of the mass involvement of people in illicit trade in drugs and human trafficking.

> *Human security for women*. National and regional efforts to empower women and promote women's rights need support. The reality in Central Asia is a long way from gender equality, from signing international conventions to the actual elimination of discrimination against women. The role of customary law at national, community and family levels ought to be discussed in a human security context. Women should have more access to decision-making positions and economic resources. Regional cooperation in human security would also benefit women.

> *International and regional cooperation*. Central Asian cooperation could be helpful in setting regional benchmarks of progress and in sharing experience in the implementation of human security reforms. Regional frameworks for economic, political and environmental cooperation, joint water management, migration strategy and cooperative efforts against terrorism, organized crime, corruption, drug and human trafficking would be advantageous to neighbouring states. To promote human security, prevent conflict and combat threats, international donors and agencies need to better coordinate their programmes among themselves and national actors, and to support more regional than national projects in the Central Asian states.

> *Helping Afghanistan*. Stabilization and reconstruction in Afghanistan are the most important steps to achieving human security in the Central Asian neighbourhood. International aid for post-conflict state building, counter-narcotics programmes and many other human security problems in Afghanistan will benefit all Central Asian states.

> *Promoting internet and computer technology*. The internet remains an expensive luxury for most Central Asian peoples. International organizations and private sponsors could greatly contribute by widening access to information and discussions on human security locally and internationally. New technology through satellite links could bring together all the members of the Central Asian neighbourhood. Exploring digital satellite possibilities is a new step in South-South networks towards the sharing of knowledge and skills. The gap between urban and rural youth in access to the Internet and information about human security issues needs to be addressed.

> *Supporting improvement of national and regional statistics and data collection*. In the light of promoting human security, national statistics organizations should better identify their approach to collecting social and educational data and align their methodologies with international standards. National and regional reports, produced by the UNDP together with local actors, need to provide clear definitions, compatible data, analysis and policy recommendations on human security problems.

> *Enhancing cooperation among local stakeholders and international organizations*. Teamwork between national governments and civil society groups on the one hand, and agencies such as ADB, OSCE, UNDP, UNESCO and the World Bank on the other, in promoting human security in Central Asia would have a lasting impact.

UNESCO and National Commissions for UNESCO

> *Encouraging regional and interregional cooperation*. UNESCO, together with other UN agencies and organizations engaged in Central Asia, could promote regional and interregional dialogue and provide a platform for cooperation to integrate human security priorities in domestic and external policies in each country. There is a need for further UNESCO assistance in encouraging and facilitating national and regional discussions on a holistic approach to ethical, normative and educational frameworks for the promotion of human security between state and non-state actors. Joint analytical work on the elaboration of a human security strategy in Central Asia under the auspices of UNESCO should be continued with the support of the donor community.

UNESCO and its National Commissions should support cooperation among local civil society, academic and state organizations in establishing national and regional websites promoting human security in the vernacular.

Exchange of ideas on education, culture and science carried out under the auspices of UNESCO and its National Commissions will greatly contribute to understanding human security strategies in the region. Particular attention should be paid to e-education and networking relating to the promotion of human security in Central Asian universities and research institutions.

Source: *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Central Asia*, by Anara Tabyshalieva, UNESCO, 2006.
In English:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001493/149376E.pdf
In Russian:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001493/149376R.pdf

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Anara Tabyshalieva studied at the Kyrgyz National University, Bishkek (Kyrgyzstan). She received her training as a historian and social scientist at Kyrgyz National University (M.A. 1979; Ph.D. 1985) and Johns Hopkins University (Washington DC, USA) (Master in International Public Policy, 2003). For fifteen years she lectured at various universities in Kyrgyzstan. Between 1994 and 2001, she worked as a director of the Institute for Regional Studies. She was a visiting research fellow at Selly Oak Colleges (Birmingham, UK), UN University (Tokyo, Japan), US Institute of Peace, and the School of Advanced International Studies, Johns Hopkins University. She led a research project on regional cooperation in Central Asia supported by the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation (USA) and the UN University (Japan). In 1999, her report *The Challenge of Regional Cooperation in Central Asia. Prevention of Ethnic Conflict in the Ferghana Valley* was published by the United States Institute of Peace (Washington DC, 1999). She has worked as a consultant for the World Bank, ABD, UNDP, OSI, A.R.S. Progetti and other agencies to assess the development problems in the post-Soviet Central Asian states, the Caucasus, Pakistan and other countries, and has been involved in several UNESCO programmes as a member of the UNESCO Steppe Route Expedition in Central Asia (1991), a recipient of the Hirayama Silk Road Fellowship for travel and research in Eurasia, a member of the International Scientific Committee for the Preparation of the (UNESCO) History of Civilizations of Central Asia (1995–present).

Human security and South-East Asia

Within the framework of the Agreement of Cooperation between ASEAN and UNESCO, signed at the UNESCO-ASEAN Regional Symposium on Cooperative Peace in South-East Asia (Jakarta, Indonesia, 11–12 September 1998), UNESCO and ASEAN jointly organized a Concept Workshop on Human Security in South-East Asia, which took place in Jakarta from 25 to 27 October 2006.

During the workshop, representatives of ASEAN Member States, as well as eminent regional and international experts discussed the various dimensions of human security in South-East Asia.

A study by Amitav Acharya, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in South-East Asia*, was presented and discussed on that occasion. The following set of recommendations for the promotion of human security in the subregion was debated by the workshop participants.

Recommendations

The concept of human security confronts the policy community in South-East Asia with several challenges. The first is to address scepticism about the need for this concept in view of earlier and ongoing attempts in the region at redefining security and giving it a broader meaning. The second stems from the divergence between South-East Asia and the West in understanding what human security actually means, and what sort of issues it should cover.

A third is how to introduce the concept into policy debates and approaches.

Some analysts and policy-makers in South-East Asia argue that the region does not need a concept of human security because, in this part of the world, attempts to redefine and broaden the concept of human security are nothing new. After all, what is known in Asian academic and policy circles as 'comprehensive security' was articulated in Japan and South-East Asia in the 1960s and 1970s. But comprehensive security, while paying attention to economic development and social stability, was not really focused on the 'security of the human person'. In the case of Japan, it was used to legitimize higher defence spending beyond what was mandated by its peace constitution. In Singapore, it served the country's defence mobilization needs, being part of its 'Total Defence' strategy. In South-East Asia, associated notions of comprehensive security such as national and regional 'resilience' coined by the Suharto regime in Indonesia and adopted as a general ideology by the members of ASEAN, became an integral aspect of the strategy of regime preservation. In short, although the concept of 'comprehensive security' predated that of human security, comprehensive security focused strongly on regime legitimation and identifying and addressing non-military threats to state security. It was not people-centred per se.

Hence, the concept of human security that underscores the centrality of human dignity and does not put the interests of the state or the society above that of the individual or the 'self' constitutes a distinctive approach compared with earlier attempts at redefining security in the region.

The concept of human security reflects new forces and trends in international relations. Globalization ensures that the national security of states can be challenged by forces other than foreign armies, including forces that endanger lives while leaving the physical boundaries of states intact. Governments can no longer survive, much less achieve legitimacy, by citing their performance through rates of economic growth or social and political stability and by providing for defence against external military threats. Democratization empowers new actors, such as civil society, which must be accounted for in the security framework. Human security in this sense reflects real world developments that could not be captured by the narrow and military-focused idea of national security. This leads to the issue of differing interpretations of what the concept means. The main differences in understanding and application of human security are between those who associate it with reducing human costs of conflict and violence, as was the case with the earlier formulations by the Canadian Government, and those who take a broader view, including issues of economic development and well-being. This broader view seems more popular among Asian governments, such as Japan, although the UNDP also advocated a broader view of human security. Some people see debates about the meaning and interpretation of human security as an unwelcome distraction from policy advocacy and action. But such debates are necessary, because policy formulation to promote human security is closely associated with the way the concept is defined and put into operation.

Promoting human security suffers from a deficiency of educational toolkits and resources. Despite the proliferation of literature on security studies, the number of texts that can be used to teach courses and seminars on human security remains extremely few. Security studies in South-East Asia are still essentially wedded to the notion of national security, although recent initiatives, such as the Ford Foundation supported Non-Traditional Security Issues in Asia project, have contributed to greater awareness and literature on human security issues. But there is enormous scope for innovation. It will be really interesting to have a text that takes human security as its central organizing framework around which other elements of security, including military balances, weapons of mass destruction and economic development, could be framed. The teaching of human security also calls for greater reliance on case studies, including micro-studies of conflict and poverty zones around the world, which are not readily available in mainstream undergraduate textbooks on international relations and security studies. It challenges us to develop a more transnational teaching community that includes those with more hands-on experience, including experience with international organizations and the NGO community.

The key *normative* issue for the promotion of human security in South-East Asia of course concerns the non-interference principle. A cherished norm of ASEAN, non-interference has been under challenge since the Asian economic crisis in 1997. More recently, ASEAN's willingness to discuss the domestic political situation in Myanmar attests to further pressure on the norm. The transnational dangers facing the region have done much to dilute the norm, but more debate and discussion is needed to institutionalize new policies in support of human security that might require relaxation of the strict interpretation of non-interference.

There are several issues to take into consideration when discussing the promotion of human security in policy discourse as well as in educational institutions.

First, any concept of human security, in order to be acceptable to South-East Asia, must combine 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want'. The debate about which concept is the more important and relevant is becoming sterile and unhelpful. Human security is what states and peoples make it and attempting to impose arbitrary limits or boundary markers on its scope is bound to be futile. What is more important is to view these divergent understandings not as mutually exclusive, but as complementary parts of a total package. Each is inadequate in the absence of the other. Some well-meaning advocates of human security want to focus on a narrower definition that excludes freedom from want and downgrades the focus on reducing wartime human suffering. While this approach may have the virtue of making the concept more precise and hence more 'measurable', it is also divorced from reality. To speak of human security in Asia, where poverty and authoritarianism remain pervasive maladies, without bringing in the question of political rights and economic

vulnerabilities, is to severely undermine the utility of the concept in moving the region away from the traditional understanding of security and devising policy tools to institutionalize the new understanding at national and regional levels.

Second, it is important to recognize, as has been done by the report of the Commission on Human Security, *Human Security Now*, that the state remains an indispensable aspect of human security. While national security is about protection of the state (its sovereignty and territorial integrity), human security is about protecting the people. But what does protecting the people actually mean? On the surface, there should be no contradiction between security of the state and security of the people; a strong state with resources and policy apparatus is needed to ensure the protection of the people. In fact, the report of the Commission on Human Security seems to acknowledge this point when it states that 'Human security complements state security, enhances human rights and strengthens human development.' But whether state security and human security conflict with each other depends very much on the nature of the government. In many developing countries, as well as in some Western countries in the wake of September 11, human security as security for the people can and does get threatened by actions of their own governments. As *Human Security Now* says: 'The state remains the fundamental purveyor of security. Yet it often fails to fulfil its security obligations – and at times has even become a source of threat to its own people.' Any link between human security and national security should be contingent on the nature of the government.

To fully address the conditions and threats that people face, the focus in human security must shift from looking at 'what' to promote to 'how' this should be promoted. The 'what to promote' remains definitional. The Commission on Human Security report of 2003 focuses on which human elements of security, rights or development to strengthen. There is relative silence on modes of achieving progress in advancing human security. The development of normative frameworks, and 'translating them into concrete policies and actions' is mooted, but the actors and catalysts that will be the agents of change are not explored. In other words, there is now a need to shift attention from measurement of human security to promotion of human security measures.

In South-East Asia, much of the discourse on human security remains couched in capacity-building and empowerment terms. As in *Human Security Now*, there is also a broad consensus among those conversant in human security language that this concept should be mainstreamed in the work of global, regional and national security organizations. The prioritized targets for this new conception of security are identified as groups involved in violent conflicts. Two examples of resources already devoted to promoting human security are the UN Trust Fund for Human Security and the bilateral Grassroots Human Security Grants, both established by the government of Japan. Japan has set aside more than US$200 million to the UN Trust Fund, and also contributed about US$120 million in fiscal year 2003 for bilateral grants to further human security. The destination of these funds is mainly local communities and NGOs working in developing countries. The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) is also involved in spearheading programmes to promote human security. The technical cooperation programmes, equipment provision schemes, emergency disaster relief teams and community empowerment programmes are designed to further human security by targeting people at grass-roots level in developing countries for the betterment of their livelihood and welfare. In 1999 alone, Japan's total overseas development assistance amounted to US$15.385 billion. JICA has also incorporated the Millennium Development Goals that are grounded in human security into their operations in country and sector programmes. Canada has also undertaken a major human security programme, both domestically and externally.

Regional governments in South-East Asia have yet to develop a consensus on the adoption of human security into their multilateral agenda and agree on specific measures to promote the idea. It is clear that, until now, regional cooperation on human security in Asia focuses primarily on economic rather than political challenges. As at the national level, 'freedom from want' has taken precedence over 'freedom from fear' in the development of regional cooperation to promote human security. Hence there is no Asian or ASEAN mechanism for human rights protection, despite the development of a dialogue to create such a mechanism within ASEAN. ASEAN countries have also not taken up the issue of small arms, child soldiers, landmines ban and other aspects of human security that conform to the Western definitions of the concept. Instead, whatever cooperation that exists addresses managing the adverse consequences of the Asian economic crisis. ASEAN's response here involves restructuring institutional mechanisms for ASEAN social development cooperation and the creation of several human resource programmes, for example the ASEAN Occupational Safety and Health Network, which attempts to promote human security through standardizing the guidelines for workplace safety.

The role of civil society organizations in the promotion of human security deserves attention, especially because they address human insecurity both in terms of 'freedom from want' and 'freedom from fear'. Among the South-East Asian NGOs who have been particularly active in promoting freedom from fear at regional level is Forum-Asia, the largest and most prominent transnational NGO in the region. This group seeks to 'facilitate collaboration among human rights organizations in the region so as to develop a regional response on issues of common concern'. Activities include monitoring and reporting on human rights violations, conducting human rights educational activities, and organizing fact-finding missions and trial observations. The Bangkok-based Focus on the Global South, along with Malaysia-based Third World Network, has been at the forefront of campaigns to create greater awareness of the dangers to 'freedom from want', especially those posed by globalization, and has organized protests against the exploitation of labour and environment by multinationals. A variety of other NGOs operating at national and regional levels have addressed more specific needs that may be considered as part of a human security framework.

The call for human security, espoused both by Western countries and Japan, which entails recognition of threats to the safety and dignity of the individual, provides a conceptual justification for closer involvement of civil society and social movements in regional cooperation that had traditionally been the exclusive preserve of governments. In general, however, governments in Asia have been reticent about cooperating with NGOs in promoting human security. And human security cooperation remains subject to the state-centric norms of sovereignty and non-interference in the internal affairs of states.

This report proposes the following additional recommendations as a way of promoting human security in South-East Asia:
- First, the concept of non-traditional security or human security can provide a useful conceptual basis for refocusing. These concepts recast security as security for the people (as opposed to states or governments) and pay attention to non-military threats to survival and well-being of societies including poverty, environmental degradation and disease, which are linked to both human and natural forces. Regional think tanks should find ways of reconciling the concepts of comprehensive and non-traditional security, which have already found broad acceptance in the region, with the concept of human security.

  Research on human security issues by think tanks such as ASEAN-ISIS and universities should be supplemented by dissemination and educational strategies. A regional council of educators at both secondary school and university levels could work with national bodies in ASEAN member states to develop curricula and teaching materials on human security issues, including trends in conflict and violence in regional conflict zones, the scale of human misery caused by poverty, economic underdevelopment and inequality in the region, and the danger posed by transnational challenges such as pandemics, natural disasters and environmental degradation. Think tanks should also consider issuing an annual State of Human Security in South-East Asia, a venture that should attract support from foreign donor agencies.

- Second, the countries of the region, and the regional organization ASEAN, should embrace the 'humanitarian assistance' (if not humanitarian intervention, which has proved too controversial in the region) through statements and declarations in much the same way as comprehensive security has become an integral part of ASEAN security literature and discourse. The ASEAN Charter, which is now being developed by a group of eminent persons appointed by ASEAN leaders, could be an important vehicle for enshrining the concept of human security as a basic normative framework for ASEAN. Until now, South-East Asia has resisted the concept of humanitarian intervention, which has been adopted by Western and even African regional groupings. Yet humanitarian assistance and cooperative action in coping with complex emergencies can serve as a new rallying point for Asian regional groups and to some extent offset their resistance to the political notion of humanitarian intervention. Humanitarian assistance offers a less contentious and accurate way of describing the response to human security challenges. Countries should ensure greater transparency and information-sharing on challenges to human security. This involves early warning of natural disasters, pandemics, terrorist movements and financial volatility. Some mechanisms for transparency are already evolving. One example is the peer-review mechanism set up by ASEAN after the economic crisis. Another example is the ongoing effort to develop an early warning system for tsunamis in the Indian Ocean.

During the discussion at the ASEAN-UNESCO Concept Workshop on Human Security in Southeast Asia (Jakarta, 26–27 October 2006), the following points emerged concerning the role of ASEAN in promoting human security.

> ASEAN has already undertaken several initiatives that speak to a broader notion of human security. Examples cited include recent agreements of disaster management and relief, or plans to make ASEAN a drug-free region by 2015. The ASEAN Plan of Action to Combat Transnational Crime addresses certain threats to human security, such as illicit drug trafficking, trafficking in persons, arms smuggling, terrorism and various forms of economic crime. The ASEAN Action Plan on Rural Development and Poverty Eradication addresses economic threats to human security.

> ASEAN will do well to harmonize its 'comprehensive security' approach with the broader concept of human security (freedom from want) now prevailing at international level.

> At this stage, it would be unrealistic to expect ASEAN to embrace the notion of human security formally through its charter or institutional mechanisms. For example, the ASEAN Charter will not mention the term 'human security', although it may be possible to include references to respect for international humanitarian law by member states. It is more feasible politically for ASEAN to take a 'human development' approach to human security, rather than the Canadian formulation which focuses on freedom from fear. The latter approach is not feasible at this juncture, at least through the ASEAN mechanism. 'The personal level of human security – when we talk about human rights, human dignity, and spirituality – that I am afraid is still the domain of national governments.'

> While human security is not the same as state security – on this point, there was consensus – national security and human security are complementary, rather than mutually exclusive. States would have the 'primary responsibility' in promoting human security, both at national level and through regional and international cooperation.

> ASEAN is unlikely to adopt the principle of humanitarian intervention, or 'responsibility to protect' being promoted by Canada and other Western nations. Instead of seeking exceptions to non-interference, which is politically sensitive, it may be better to use the phrase, as one participant suggested, 'mutual support in times of crisis', which is 'perfectly acceptable to all, and is already on the ground'.

On this basis, other suggestions could be made as follows:

> *The ASEAN Secretariat could compile a list of various ASEAN agreements and declarations that speak to the broader notion of human security*. This would be consistent with the claims made by several ASEAN participants at the 2006 Concept Workshop that while ASEAN has not formally adopted human security as a goal (at least the term itself), it has already taken measures on the ground to address human security problems in the region, including those posed by regional crises.

> *ASEAN should also work in cooperation with other Asian and Asia-Pacific regional organizations to promote human security*. Until recently, these groups remained focused on such traditional agendas as trade liberalization or addressing traditional security issues, including inter-state tensions. For example, the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF), Asia's only security organization, focused primarily on measures such as confidence building, preventive diplomacy and conflict resolution. More recently, ARF and APEC have turned their attention to fighting terrorism. APEC, ARF and ASEAN have now increasingly turned their attention to non-traditional and human security issues. This is a welcome shift that needs to be further encouraged and strengthened with new institutional mechanisms.

Regional organizations such as APEC, ARF, ASEAN and ADB can cooperatively play an important role in human security promotion. APEC has three pillars, of which economic and technical cooperation could be structured to advance human security. Some of its relevant working groups and committees that could promote institutional arrangements to promote human security include the Senior Officials Meeting Committee on Economic and Technical Cooperation, the Beijing Initiative on Human Capacity Building, the APEC Food System (which includes elements of Rural Infrastructural Development), the Gender Focal Point Network, and the Sustainable Development Working Group.

Some of the ASEAN and ARF dialogues and programmes could also be specified to promote human security. Recent activities such as the Seminar on Economic Security for Asia-Pacific in the First Decades of the 21st Century (February 2002), the Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster Relief Seminar (December 2002), the Workshop on Changing Security Perception of the ARF Countries and the ARF Security Policy Conference (November 2004) seek to draft frameworks to advance human security. ASEAN could designate its Social Development Unit as a Human Security Unit to further advance the idea of human security through concrete measures. A coordinating mechanism among these various regional bodies could be a useful device for implementing measures consistent with the promotion of human security in the region.

> *The creation of new institutions to support human security could be a third area of policy action*. An educational response could be a committee to promote human security studies in the academic curricula of schools and universities. At the political level, ASEAN countries should consider setting up an ASEAN Human Security Council, comprising eminent persons, experts and members of NGOs. The task of the AHSC would be: to identify and study challenges to human security in the region, consider appropriate coping mechanisms and recommend both preventive and reactive measures to governments. Moreover, the AHSC should form a Legal Committee on Human Security whose main function would be to review the participation of member states in all relevant international treaties that impinge upon the notion of human security, such as human rights treaties and conventions on small arms and light weapons.

> *Coordinating mechanisms for response to humanitarian crises should be developed by Asia, including South-East Asia*. Asia is a diverse continent and the interests and capacities of states to provide humanitarian aid vary widely, depending on levels of economic development and civilian and military logistical and personnel capabilities. But a number of Asian countries increasingly have the resources and capabilities to undertake significant humanitarian action, hence it is timely to examine their interests and capabilities for humanitarian action, not just at the national level but also in cooperation with the UN and within the framework of regional agencies. To this end, ASEAN could convene an international workshop to examine the threat to national and human security posed by complex humanitarian emergencies in the region; the experience and policy framework of states in undertaking humanitarian action; national capabilities for humanitarian action and the sharing of best practices; modalities of cooperation between UN agencies such as the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs and national governments; and how existing and new regional mechanisms for humanitarian action could work better together in cooperation with UN agencies.

About the author

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Chapter 2

Human security and Latin America and the Caribbean

In cooperation with the *Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales* (FLACSO), in Santiago (Chile), UNESCO organized a regional expert meeting (November 2001) and an International Conference (August 2003), on human security in the Latin American region.

Participants were regional and international experts; representatives of local authorities including the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Chile – the country being a member of the Human Security Network. Within the framework of a Participation Programme on the Promotion of Human Security in Latin America, granted to FLACSO for 2004–2005, UNESCO supported and took part in an International Seminar on Civil Capacities in the Promotion of Human Security in Latin America (Santiago, Chile, 28–29

November 2005), which gathered regional and international experts, representatives of regional authorities, and international NGOs with a view to establishing a permanent regional working group on human security.

UNESCO also launched in 2005 various projects concerning prevention of violence among youth in Central America, based on experience gained in a major project carried out in Brazil on the same issue.

A paper on *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Latin America and the Caribbean*, prepared by Francisco Rojas Aravena and Claudia F. Fuentes and discussed at the 2003 conference, offers the following recommendations.

Recommendations

Governments
Political
> Move towards a common conception of global, hemispheric and regional security with a view to improving existing international instruments in this area. In the case of the American continent, it is proposed that an inter-American charter of hemispheric security be drawn up.

> Cooperate in conflict resolution. This means consolidating prevention and early warning mechanisms with the support of academic centres in the region.

> Bring in transparency and accountability mechanisms for national, regional and hemispheric institutions concerned with security and defence issues.

> Move towards more effective coordination of the institutions responsible for security at the national and hemispheric levels. This will avoid duplication and strengthen conflict-prevention mechanisms.

> Encourage a regional outlook and strengthen the development of binding instruments in the following fields: transnational crime, migration and small arms trafficking. The nature of these threats requires strong state cooperation.

> Involve outside parties in conflict resolution.

> Increase efforts to achieve peace and re-establish the rule of law throughout the territory of Colombia, the main focus of conflict in the region. The actions of the United Nations, the different states in the hemisphere and civil society organizations should converge on this objective.

Reinforce the rule of law and governance in the region
> Pursue public policies to reinforce social security with the objective of reducing economic insecurities. The

preparation of policies to combat extreme poverty should be a priority for the countries of the region.

> Improve civilian/military coordination, within the framework of democracy, to cope with the new threats to security. To do this, it is essential to have a clear legal framework in place so that the police do not become militarized or the armed forces acquire police functions.

> Increase inter-sectoral coordination of the state, in particular through civil society participation at the national, regional and hemispheric levels.

> Recognize the need to intensify international cooperation so that the main vulnerabilities affecting stability, governance and human security in the region can be overcome.

Human Security Network
> Set up a permanent working group of civil society organizations and academic centres under the auspices of the Human Security Network with a view to enhancing the work of this partnership of countries.

Academia and civil society
Inclusion and participation of civil society
> Strengthen civil society networks involved in promoting human security and, to this end, create opportunities for participation within the institutional framework of the OAS. Likewise, the Human Security Network could set up working groups involving civil society and academia for priority issues on its agenda.

> Promote training for NGOs involved with security issues and for grass-roots organizations. It is essential to develop human rights education through formal education syllabuses in primary and secondary schools and in refresher courses for administrators.

Knowledge creation and risk evaluation
> Continue to develop the concept of human security with a

view to making existing approaches more consistent among themselves, particularly in the case of Latin America. Here, progress in three areas is essential: (a) analysis of the link between security and violence; (b) creation of a human security index; (c) regional observatories in this field.

> As regards the identification and evaluation of the main risks and threats, it is essential to decide which are the key areas for strengthening cooperation and to conduct comparative studies on the basis of the lessons learned.

> Continue with analytical work on the function of the state, essentially with reference to social protection; economic promotion and sustainability; and protection functions (use of force).

UNESCO
> Continue the work of promoting regional programmes of action in relation to human security. It is vital for UNESCO to carry on cooperating with the relevant academic and scientific institutions in Latin America with a view to the progressive establishment of a regional framework of analysis, training and action in the field of human security.

> It is suggested that the following activities should be pursued: (a) a regional pilot programme to train members of civil society, academics and government representatives in negotiation and conflict prevention; (b) a regional seminar to analyse exemplary experiences with human security-related projects of national, regional and local scope; (c) support for comparative research into the issue of security, including the various stakeholders concerned.

Source: *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Latin America and the Caribbean*, by Claudia F. Fuentes and Francisco Rojas Aravena, UNESCO, 2005.
In English:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001389/138940e.pdf
In Spanish:
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001389/138940S.pdf

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Human security and Eastern Europe

With a view to identifying avenues for the promotion of human security in Europe, two studies were commissioned by UNESCO from the Center for Peace and Human Security of the Institut d'Études Politiques (Paris) in 2006: *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Eastern Europe* and *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Western Europe*.

A one-day workshop was also organized at UNESCO Headquarters in June 2006 by the Center for Peace and Human Security, on Human Security in Europe: Perspectives East and West, to discuss these two papers. The recommendations of the Eastern Europe study edited by Shahrbanou Tadjbakhsh and Odette Tomescu-Hatto are reproduced below.

Recommendations

> *A regional and domestic framework, not just for external policy*. So far, the concept of human security as a foreign policy tool and political objective has been principally incorporated into the foreign policy strategies of industrial states that render assistance to developing and underdeveloped countries. For example, a number of industrialized countries, Canada, Japan and to some extent Norway, have taken up human security as their foreign policy concepts. Yet a human security strategy should be devised that is not only donor-oriented, but that concerns the local, national, regional and international spheres of the region.

At national level, a number of security strategies are increasingly concerned with the dignity of the population.

The National Security Concept of the Republic of Bulgaria and the National Security Strategy of Romania, for example, state that respect for human dignity and for fundamental human rights and liberty is of primary concern. The increased insistence on revising national and regional 'security' strategies to include elements of human security comes from pressure to recognize the interdependence of threats, and from that logic, the threat to national security emanating from groups of insecure people.

Since 9/11, for example, a consensus has emerged among Western nations that the primary global threat to international security is the existence of fragile and failing states. This approach is also seen in the EU through the proposal of the London School of Economics and Political Science Study Group in its September 2004 report *A Human Security Doctrine for Europe* presented to Javier Solana, High Representative for the Common Foreign and Security Policy. The doctrine identified threats to international security – terrorism, regional conflicts, weapons of mass destruction, state failure, bad governance (corruption, abuse of power, lack of accountability), in the countries outside the European borders, specifically because of their impact on the human security of Europeans. Yet instead of studying the question of human security and insecurity in Europe, the report analysed the problems, and solutions, of human security within the field of European external affairs. The answer proposed for a 'self-interested' moral duty would be to intervene 'intelligently' in other parts of the world, using civil-military special forces, engaged not only to exert military and police control, but also to (re-)build comprehensive political institutions. The Study Group thus recommended the creation of a Human Security Response Force of about 15,000, composed of both military and civilian specialists. The problem with this approach is two-pronged: first, military means were seen as the answer to poverty as a threat, and threats were seen as emanating from the 'other'. Such ethical argumentation and the use of the term human security were, above all, as critiques would argue, meant to gain the support of the international community and of the European public for civil-military interventions.

Another approach to the question of human security as an external policy in Europe is anchored in the development debates about the roles and responsibilities of the EU in decreasing insecurities, once again, elsewhere. In 2004, Dóchas, an association that represents the interests of Irish non-governmental development organizations, published the report *Human Security – Placing Development at the Heart of the EU's External Relations* for the Irish Presidency of the EU. Although also focusing exclusively on Europe's foreign policy, this report tackled trade, aid, economic assistance and development cooperation without concentrating on the military – or use of force – as a primary means of European foreign policy. Instead it proposed revisiting European trade policy as a political move to define EU foreign policy. The report claimed: 'As the stronger partner in trade, the EU has a particular responsibility to take into account the human security impact of its policies. Trade policy should consider the (limited) capabilities of Europe's partners. And with a human security perspective, EU agricultural policy will have to take into account the right to income in developing countries'.

International trade rules were therefore as important a tool, if not more so, than any army or civilian force that the EU could send abroad. Along the same lines, the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) was launched by the European Commission in March 2003 in the context of the EU's 2004 enlargement, with the objective of avoiding the emergence of new dividing lines between the enlarged EU and its neighbours.

Yet the question arises as to why human security should be adopted as a foreign policy tool, good enough for people in 'other' countries, rather than a domestic strategy for a goal towards achieving societies where everyone feels protected, secure and empowered enough to take destiny in their own hands? Human security must thus also become a truly European question, adequately focused on the region's inhabitants and anchored as a domestic organizational concept. The mask of stability should not hide the fact that there are millions of people who are currently living in all parts of Europe (including Western Europe, as the complementary study outlines) under very dire human security conditions.

> *Human security as an ethical policy objective.* First and foremost, in contrast to the 'state security' paradigm that has the state as its referent object, individual human beings should obviously be the focus of attention for any policy that seeks to enhance human security. From an ethical point of view, the dignity of the human being is the greatest value that needs to be protected and ensured, regardless of nationality, race or gender. Any human security strategy must thus be able to empower the individual to cope with their own situation, to protect them from sudden and structural threats (freedom from fear) and to provide them with a sustainable standard of living above subsistence level (freedom from want).

The first principle of protection underlines the preventive character of the human security concept, and not only as a reaction to, or pre-emption of, extreme situations such as war, economic crises or natural catastrophes. Threats, whether they are of a violent nature or have structural and chronic causes, need to be identified, predicted and prevented. Early warning initiatives can be cited as excellent initiatives in this respect. Since 1997, UNDP has set up Early Warning systems in South Eastern Europe to monitor economic, social and political developments, to analyse economic and political risks, and to serve as an advocacy and policy-making tool to help governments and civil society to anticipate crises and make effective and timely decisions. Their findings and analyses are published in the form of *Early Warning Reports* intended to serve decision-makers but also NGOs and society at large in their conflict prevention efforts. These initiatives should be expanded to cover not only crisis countries such as those of South Eastern Europe, but all countries of the region, including those of Western Europe.

To put the second principle of provision into practice would require efficient and legitimate state-building. This is based on the assumption that a life in dignity is only possible if the individual human being disposes of a sufficient amount of daily security, stability and material sufficiency. Weaker states

of Central and Eastern Europe will thus need assistance in order to establish redistributive social security systems and services, and especially social safety nets, which enhance social welfare and provide their citizens with a basic minimum living standard.

Finally, a principal objective of the human security concept is to empower people in such a way that they are able to care for themselves, to self-regulate their daily lives or to participate in politics of their concern. A human security policy thus supports the increase in knowledge and capacities of all humankind. Here, education is a very important tool that needs to be adopted at all levels, by developing and investing in the human resources of the individual, local communities, civil society actors, local and national state institutions as well as regional initiatives. Partnerships between national governments, regional governmental or even non-governmental organizations can foster this transfer of knowledge in a very profitable way by exchanging best experiences, practices and initiatives in research, training, mobilization and policy formulation.

> *A framework of multidimensional cooperation and coordination*. A human security policy framework should aim at achieving both peace, in the widest possible meaning of not just the end of war but a state of development and rule of law, and stability, and should therefore adopt a multisectoral approach to address the multidimensionality of insecurity in a holistic framework. Similarly, interdependence demands a multilevel approach that combines and coordinates policies at the local, national, regional and international institutional levels by the means of multilateral partnerships and intensified cooperation and coordination between the different actors involved. As a human security framework relies on the principles of cooperative multilateralism, it is crucial that the national governments of Eastern and Central Europe be willing to cooperate in order to build partnerships and to engage in existing regional institutions. Additionally, the exchange on common problems and past experience helps mutual learning from best practices and facilitates mutual assistance. Apart from reinforced cooperation among governments, there should also be strengthening of partnerships between Eastern and Western European institutions, where Western institutions could offer expertise and empowerment to their Eastern counterparts, for example in terms of management, policy experience, strategies or financing.

Yet, a multidimensional regional policy that involves local, national, regional and international state and non-state actors does not bypass the ultimate issue of responsibility and the question of how far responsibilities and power should be diffused among the different institutional levels. In this respect, it is desirable to enhance capacity-building at the lower dimensions of competences by adopting a bottom-up approach that follows the principle of subsidiary. Such an approach responds to the actual needs of citizens, and opinion polls and studies have to be conducted that assess the demand and the rights of the citizens concerned, in order to decide on resource allocation and distribution. Consequently, local problems should be dealt with at local level and national problems at national level, while transborder or

common regional issues should be tackled via regional cooperation and coordination. Certainly, responsibilities and competences should only be attributed to regional organizations if they match the profile of the institution concerned, in order to ensure an effective and efficient settlement. Here, international organizations such as the EU, OECD, OSCE or UN could step in by providing extra assistance in case those regional organizations of Eastern and Central Europe are unable to solve regional security and development problems on their own.

> *The delicate role of external actors*. Thus, the promotion of human security increasingly involves coordination between external actors and national states. Since the beginning of the 1990s, the economic, political and social reforms in Central and Eastern Europe have been realized in close cooperation with international organizations and Western governments. The process of democratization in Latin America and in Central and Eastern Europe has provided a number of lessons for analysing interactions between the internal dynamics of nation-states and international factors. Although the influence of external actors on the process of democratization could be considered as a 'state-centred action', the international dimension of development and consolidation of democracy could have a positive impact on the evolution of human security for society.

Since 1999 (the date that coincides with the creation of the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe) the international community has made some strategic choices and actions that have made a considerable contribution to improving the quality of human security in the region. First, NATO proposed itself as the provider of 'hard security' in the region. The 2004 enlargement of the Alliance to the East is likely to provide stability in the region, including the stabilization of the Western Balkans. NATO has sought to provide security in the traditional sense by leading a peacekeeping mission in Kosovo and assisting the governments of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia in reforming their armed forces. The Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC) brings together twenty-six NATO countries and twenty partner countries (including Albania, Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine) for dialogue and consultation on political and security-related issues. These issues however are broader than a traditional security focus on crisis management and peace operations, arms controls and proliferation of weapons or terrorism, but also focus on defence planning, budgeting and policy-making as well as disaster preparedness, civil-military coordination of air traffic management; and scientific cooperation. Whether NATO is ready to take on a human security approach however is questionable. The Secretary-General of NATO, in response to whether human security could be put on the agenda, claimed that NATO was a security organization and not a 'humanitarian one'. However, with the difficulties that NATO is facing in post-conflict situations in Afghanistan, a rethinking of mechanisms to address the root causes of instability may be coming in the near future.

Second, at the regional level the EU has invested more political and financial resources by integrating in its structures

eight former communist states, by its involvement in crisis management and post-conflict reconstruction in the Balkans and through the new European Neighbourhood Policy launched in March 2003. The EU also assumed more responsibilities inside the Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe, a political initiative adopted in 1999, by being the largest donor and leader of the entire process, with the OSCE as an umbrella organization. Thus, the EU is also increasingly involved in the promotion of personal security and community security in the CEE countries. Besides the European Neighbourhood Policy, the Council of the European Union has sought increasing involvement in peace and stabilization in the Balkans, including attempts to resolve the status of Kosovo. Nevertheless the development of the European Security and Defence Policy within the EU programmes is subject to the will of EU member states.

Personal, political and community security is further promoted through the Stability Pact. Short of a new international organization with independent financial resources or implementing structures, the Stability Pact is a political declaration of commitment and a framework agreement on international cooperation to develop a shared strategy among all partners for stability and growth in South Eastern Europe. Its three Working Tables on Democratisation and Human Rights, Economic Development, and Security Issues, have helped to develop projects worth € 5.4 billion.

The OSCE continued to conduct a wide range of activities relating to all three dimensions of security – the human, the politico-military and the economic-environmental in SEE countries. Other existing regional cooperation mechanisms, including the Southeast European Cooperative Initiative (SECI) and the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC), have contributed to the stabilization and democratization of the region.

Third, development organizations, such as the UNDP, as well as financial institutions such as the European Bank of Reconstruction, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund have assumed new forms of involvement that enhance political stability and promote human security in the region.

What could be the extended role of international organizations for promoting specifically human security?

First, international organizations could help states which are resource-poor and unable to guarantee the minimum economic resources or health facilities for their citizens by providing them with technical, financial or advisory support. Second, international organizations could give legal, political or administrative advice to states that are not complying with their obligations concerning human and political rights and the freedom of their citizens. A third role lies in the active support or promotion of the rule of law and good governance. International organizations can actively promote respect for the rule of law and help states to fight corruption and organized crime by advising states, by analysing and making known problems or by encouraging and supporting major

actors inside governments but also inside societies. These three roles of the international organization represent a support for the implementation of national policies that improve the situation of individuals. Another role is to monitor the implementation of their own policies and programmes to guarantee that states do not pick and choose only the policies and norms that benefit a certain political group or group of individuals, or that they do not implement programmes monitored only selectively by international actors.

But caution is also called for when honing the possibilities of international organizations in promoting human security in the long term. The general debate on international relations in comparative politics is that multilateral institutions influence state strategies, with most studies stressing the importance of rules and norms for weak states. The rules of institutions may create presumption in favour of the norm that principles of conduct must be generalized to all members of the institution, imparting greater consistency of behaviour and favouring weaker states. Nevertheless, the CEE countries are still in a dependency relation vis-à-vis international organizations. As institutionalists have shown, the power in an interdependent relationship flows from asymmetry: the one who gains more from the relationship is the more dependent. By complying with the international organizations' rules (especially EU rules), most of the CEE countries adopted a large amount of reforms and maximized their dependence on the EU or on other donors/international organizations. Dependency in the long term decreases the states' ability to develop truly consultative mechanisms with their population in order to put in place viable states that are trusted to provide, protect and empower. Furthermore, even if playing by international rules, especially those of the EU, offers brighter economic and geopolitical prospects for CEE populations in the long term, sacrifices to comply with new rules and norms are often high for some parts of the population. This is clear, for example, when we analyse measures taken to contain illegal migration and fight organized crime and trafficking in persons.

Borders constitute a fundamental, if not *the* fundamental dilemma of EU integration and enlargement. Partly for its own sake and credibility, the European Union strives to export stability and prosperity beyond its borders without, however, importing instability and other negative consequences of the existing socio-economic disparities. The very proximity of the prosperous EU tends to generate or aggravate some of these consequences, such as poverty-driven migration, human trafficking and organized crime, despite its good intentions to uphold the quality of integration without producing new dividing lines on the continent. The EU programmes for regional and cross-border cooperation, on the one hand, and the system of border control and regulations known as the Schengen *acquis*, on the other represent the two sides of the border dilemma. Structurally, the consequences of the Schengen implementation by the new member states (visa regime) and the expansion of the EU common market have negative consequences by default as they restrict the potential markets available for the new neighbouring countries and complicate their citizens' access to more

European countries. While trying to protect the EU member states from possible 'aggression', the EU tends to design new dividing lines between insiders/outsiders. The most affected will be the local populations living on EU borders in countries to which the EU was not offered a perspective of adhesion (Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine, Western Balkans). The Schengen framework is now dealing with this problem by allowing for flexible arrangements such as multiple-entry visa and 'Euro-consulates' that would make the border regime less obstructive for productive relations between an EU-27 and the new neighbours.

> *Weak states, educated societies and islands of insecurity: raising the tidal wave*. International organizations can assist and regional integration can improve human security objectives, but ultimately, the implementation of human security goals in Eastern and Central Europe requires strong, efficient and effective states that are capable of regulating the daily lives of individual citizens or communities. Hence, the weak states of Central and Eastern Europe need to be incorporated into a regional human security strategy as their socio-political structures remain so far unable to offer protection and empowerment for their populations.

In the particular context of Eastern and Central Europe, weak states have themselves become a source of insecurity to their own citizens due to corruption, the absence of the rule of law or rather authoritarian practices. A successful policy hence needs to be aware of and empower the state's capacities to provide and maintain security for its citizens, as this 'requires both a strong state and a strong power'. Taken from this perspective, the achievement of human security is an end and the fortification of the state is the means. However, an all-embracing policy cannot concentrate on state institutions alone, but should also factor non-state actors such as NGOs, local or regional communities into its policy strategy.

If some CEE countries suffer from weak state structures, their societies are positively strengthened by the high value on education, an attribute that will be greatly beneficial as the region moves towards humanly secure states and societies.

Despite the difficulties of the transition period, most of these values were preserved and the education systems of CEE countries are today easily comparable with those in Western democracies. The public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP increased or remained stable during the period 1990–2005 in most of the countries in the region (except for Bulgaria and Croatia), and public expenditures on education as a percentage of total government expenditure increased considerably, notably in Hungary, Moldova, Poland and Ukraine. The compulsory character of education instilled by the communist regimes up to the age of 16 years (8th–9th grades) has led not only to a high level of literacy among the young but also to a relative equal enrolment in terms of the percentage of boys and girls in primary and secondary education. On average, 92% of boys and 90% of girls of the relevant age are enrolled in primary education in Central and Eastern Europe. The gross enrolment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary schools is relatively high in the CEE accounting for more than 80% in most countries, with 60%–70% in Albania, Moldova and Romania. In almost all countries, combined gross enrolment ratios for primary, secondary and tertiary education are even higher for girls than boys. These indicators are very encouraging, as societies develop their own capacities to engage with the future states of their choice, and help to create a true human security nirvana for future generations.

It is therefore with alarm that we may have to consider the island of human insecurity in Central Europe, the question of the Roma, for whom school enrolment rates, levels of literacy, unemployment and poverty are much lower, as analysed in this report. The question of the Roma is a thorn in the eye of Europe, not only for the Roma population for whom freedom from want, freedom from fear and a life of dignity remains a distant dream, but also for the region as a whole that cannot afford such human insecurity among its population.

Source: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Eastern Europe, edited by Shahrbanou Tadjbakhsh and Odette Tomescu-Hatto with various authors, UNESCO, 2007.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001511/151145E.pdf

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Human security and Western Europe

The study *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Western Europe*, commissioned by UNESCO from the Center for Peace and Human Security of the Institut d'Études Politiques (Paris), was discussed together with the study *Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Eastern Europe*, during a workshop entitled 'Human Security in Europe: Perspectives East and West', which took place at UNESCO Headquarters in June 2006.

The recommendations of the Western Europe study, prepared by J. Peter Burgess et al., are as follows.

Recommendations

Insecurity is something other than danger. Where an attention to human safety may seek to keep individuals clear from imminent danger, human security has a different aim. Where protection from danger preserves us from known and understood sources of harm, protection from insecurity involves something far more diffuse and speculative, something more human. Human security manifests far deeper links to the humanity of what concerns us, to our fears and wants, our hopes and ambitions, and our feelings of anxiety and trepidation at leading a life free from fear. In this special sense, human security as an analytic concept has a unique contribution to make in understanding Western Europe. Where one might argue that human security is a concept minted for application to the developing world, this report responds that, having vanquished the basic challenges of physical survival, the European system of public welfare must now turn to adequately addressing the growing human insecurity of Western Europeans.

This fact is perhaps the *least* innovative among the discoveries of the Western Europe report. Indeed, it harkens back to a Marxian analysis of base and superstructure, according to which all higher institutional activities build upon the basic economic functions of a society. Nonetheless, it is a crucial reminder that a certain version of democracy, of equality, of diversity, is not yet attained in Western Europe. In a number of developing regions of the world, these values are not yet institutionalized because of economic conditions, environmental crisis or armed conflict. In Western Europe they represent the expected baseline.

Recommendations for achieving better human security will vary in kind and degree according to the subfield covered in the report.

> Insecurities originating in *socio-economic vulnerability* are already the object of social policy in individual Member States and in EU social policy at large. The data systematized from the European Social Survey in the present report is thus already an indication of where more effort and focus is needed and where effort is presently either unnecessary or ineffective. Social and economic policy contributes to human security and insecurity, yet cannot exhaustively assure it (or fail it). Socio-economic security is fundamental for the individual to confront life in European society, a basis for reducing vulnerability, and for dealing with the social risks inherent in the European risk society.

> Similarly, *health security* cannot simply be improved by improving health, though clearly good health makes one more resilient to unseen threats to health. Insecurity associated with individual health is also clearly related to a globalized world of new and transportable illnesses. Insecurity stems from awareness of looming illness, infection and epidemic. Such threats are again inseparable from processes of *environmental* change, *socioeconomics*, and globalization. In terms of policy, health-related vulnerabilities must be confronted on all levels, personal, national, European and global. The politics of socio-economics is the starting point. From city to region to country, access to health services varies. Such access is the direct consequence of policy decisions and should be improved considerably within the EU. On the threat side of health security, a new spate of illnesses occupies the consciousness of Europeans

(Europeans are in fact more preoccupied with the security of their food than with any other security issue). Food-borne illness, the unknowns of genetic modification, avian influenza, contribute to both a sense of vulnerability and to a factual vulnerability. Moreover, the explosive spread of HIV/AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa again links health security to questions of migration.

> The links from health security to *environmental security* are already clear. Approaches to the environment require global coordination, at all levels. For questions of large-scale pollution, international cooperation is the only possible route. At the local level, coordination is needed in order to assure an adequately clean water supply and for concerns related to agricultural production and food processing. These are classic health and environmental issues, which in aggregate contribute to insecurity.

> Insecurity stemming from *migration* issues has two distinct dimensions. The *direct* experience of migration as a migrant can carry an enormous burden of insecurity. Those who migrate face a spectrum of unknowns, threatening and non-threatening, along their journey. Protecting the individual security of migrants begins by insisting that their basic rights, even as illegals, be protected if arrested and put in state custody. The *indirect* experience of migration as a member of the receiving community involves a different order of insecurity. Foreign migrants represent a threat, real or imagined, to cultural traditions that individuals experience as their own. In this case, the notion of cultural identity becomes central. Most individuals find a certain kind of security in the identity they hold in a cultural and social setting. That identity is conceived as unchanging and for the most part heterogeneous. While the notion of unchanging cultural homogeneity is demonstrably imaginary, the prospect of change or hybrid culture is unsettling, even destabilizing for many. *Cultural identity* in its affirming and negative modes thus becomes a central concern for the feelings of security of individuals. The response to the cultural threat is knowledge, awareness of culture, and awareness of oneself in that culture.

> Finally, on the most general level of security and insecurity in Western Europe, lie the political notions of *personal and political liberty*. Although these notions are perhaps the most theorized and canonized in our study, it is essential that they be revitalized as key measures of the well-being of individuals in society. The dominant cause of changes in norms surrounding personal liberty is the encroaching illiberalism linked to the global 'war on terror'. Political liberty of the kind assured in the tradition of the liberal state is in this context presented as a trade-off against security. The equation is simple: in order to be secure, society must sacrifice a certain number of political and personal liberties assured by the liberal state. This calculation of security touches the human security of individuals. It needs to be addressed with a critical eye. Some dangers are real, and some liberties do provide fertile ground for their exploitation. Here more than elsewhere, however, it is essential to reiterate the distinction made repeatedly in this report between danger and insecurity.

Vulnerability is the exposure to the *possibility* of harm or suffering. However, the notion of possibility, as we know, is the product of those who know how to evaluate threat. More than any other field in our time, the science of threat is politicized. Thus human insecurity in the domain of personal and political liberty is now more and more forcefully modulated by politics.

With the question of personal and political liberty, human security thus comes full circle. Traditionally, ensuring personal and political liberties belongs to the domain of the state, institutionalized in law and government. The institutions of the state are the accepted guarantors of freedom of action, movement, of democratic rights, etc. These are customarily considered as the foundation of the well-being of citizens of the state. And yet a well-studied consequence of globalization and late modernity is an increasing *porosity* of the state.

Human security is not merely a state of wellbeing, shaped by a determinate set of parameters. And, by the same token, no one is served by the kind of prolonged discussion that seeks a consensus as to what those parameters are. Human security, we have found, is a kind of knowledge about society.

The response to this challenge must, as elsewhere, be one of lucidity: human security as an analytic, and thus political, tool. Political *because* analytical. In itself human security has no normative status. It is rather the answer to the question: what relieves individuals of fear, what liberates them from duress. The answer is obviously culturally contingent, context dependent, fixed in a social field, implicitly linked to a moral environment. These dimensions vary from place to place, from era to era. Their variability grants the notion of human security with meaning in Western Europe just as it does elsewhere.

Human security is not a relativism because there are standard benchmarks for the quality of human life, engrained in the central documents of human rights and international law. However, human security does indeed vary in relation to such benchmarks. Indeed, it is the very *meaning* of human progress to raise civilization relative to these benchmarks to make obsolete or unthinkable those types of suffering which in a previous era systematically gave rise to vulnerability and precariousness.

> The most general and wide-ranging recommendation that emerges from this study must be to politicize the interrelation of core elements of vulnerability in Western Europe. One must not only open social complexities to interdisciplinary analysis, but ensure that political decision-making takes into account the interdependencies of human insecurity. As might be expected, insecurity in one domain feeds insecurity in others. The most general set of causal links stems from socio-economic insecurity, which spreads vulnerability and precariousness to all aspects of life, from health, to liberty, to political voice.

Personal liberty thus turns out to be an essential ingredient in the conceptualization of human security in Western Europe.

This new approach to security must no longer only be considered as a foreign policy tool. It must also become a (truly) European question, adequately focused on the region's inhabitants. While referring to the fundamental principles defined in the 1994 UNDP *Human Development Report*, the conceptualization of human security in a Western European context evidently deserves and requires a specific definition in order to be pertinent and applicable. Any such definition must stress regional criteria specific to Europe, criteria that are likely to differ substantially compared with those of other regions.

It is from the dynamics of this contextual adjustment of the concept of human security that the emphasis on personal liberty derives its meaning. The fear generated by the 9/11 attacks and other terrorist attacks in Europe and elsewhere may facilitate the propagation of socio-political tensions and the implementation of liberally constraining measures. In this context, the human security approach must permit the reaffirmation of the indivisible and irreducible nature of certain fundamental rights and liberties. Personal liberty is an integrated part of these liberties. Freedom of expression and information, and the right to privacy, are all central elements whose defence contributes to the respect of human rights and human dignity.

In Western Europe, the political and social environment is interconnected and consists of many levels. This brings with it potentially positive and negative aspects. For example, empowerment and accountability could suffer, as states may potentially be able to exploit the European Union framework to pass laws unpopular at home, and thus bypass domestic democratic scrutiny, and/or otherwise diminish certain fundamental liberties. This in turn entails a problem of transparency and accountability in the formulation and implementation of policies.

A broad human security approach contributes to redefining the assumption of an 'outside versus inside' dimension of security policies. We can see two principal movements and tendencies concerning this point: the first is the European Union integration in itself. For a wide range of domains, including security, the integration process implies a progressive abandoning of the distinction between the national and supranational base of policy-making and policy-implementation. The second tendency is the recognition of an interconnected world with interconnected threats. The approach of human security broadens the concept of security and emphasizes first and foremost the monitoring and maintaining of human rights everywhere as a basis of security for everyone. In this context, security for Europeans can therefore only be achieved by promoting rights-based and universal freedoms for Europeans and non-Europeans alike.

If there is to be a human security agenda it must therefore be one of knowledge production, knowledge to be put to the service of political processes whose means and ends are not the object of the doctrine. Indeed, the strengthening of the research-policy nexus, as promoted by UNESCO at the International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus (Buenos Aires, Argentina, February 2006), in the field of human security, is essential today. Furthermore, human security does not articulate the right to human security. This family of rights is already laid down in the central documents of this and the preceding century. Rather, it makes a demand to those who do not see the world in the light of a new security problem.

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The following series of tables attempts to gather the main risks and threats to human security, as well as some recommendations for action, set out by participants in the diverse expert meetings and conferences held with a view to identifying human security priorities in all regions of the world, as recorded in the Frameworks publications.

Table 1. Africa

Risks and threats

> State collapse and state failure
> Political and social exclusion of minorities and indigenous people
> Leadership and 'advanced cases of *stayism*'
> Illicit actors and their authority
> Poverty and low levels of human development
> *West Africa:* crisis of protection, crisis of youth, the regional dimension of crises, and the environmental dimension of crisis (analysed not as a situation of lack of resources, but one in which available resources – oil and diamonds – are used in and to *fuel* conflicts)
> *East/Horn of Africa:* food insecurity, inter- and intra-state conflicts (closely related to control over oil and water sources), the rise of fundamentalism
> *Southern Africa:* HIV/AIDS, poor governance structures and food insecurity
> *Great Lakes Region:* the main feature is the political crisis; with continuing non-state violence, establishment of a war economy – and the consequent illicit trade in natural resources, unsuccessful disarmament, demobilization and rehabilitation (DDR) processes

Recommendations[1]

African governments and IGOs

Short to medium term
> Reform and restructure the African Union system
> Improve and enhance conflict resolution efforts
> Improve AU-UN relations and joint operations
> Strengthen African states, institutions and governments, embedding good governance practices
> Uphold rule of law and independence of courts nationally, as well as ensuring Pan-African Court's independence and efficiency
> Improve regional security cooperation
> Engage non-state actors in conflict resolution/post-conflict settings
> Rethink aid

Long term
> Consolidate peace processes
> Consolidate state-building programmes
> The AU should enforce mechanisms in cases where member states contravene the Union's values and objectives
> Nurture state/civil society interactions
> Assess regional human security promotion efforts
> Introduce human-security-oriented education policies

Civil society, think tanks and academia

Short to medium term
> Establish new links and renew established links with like-minded ethical, normative and educational networks
> Assess and enhance existing human security promotion programmes in local communities
> Improve advocacy function vis-à-vis national parliaments, PAP, AU system and UN
> Access and lobby decision-makers via existing national, regional and pan-African institutions
> Run pilot programmes in conjunction with local organizations and UNESCO
> Introduce human-security-oriented curricula at primary, secondary and tertiary level

Long term
> Assess advocacy and human security promotion activities
> Assess human security education and research
> Assess and maintain early warning networks
> The development of African leaders is urgently required: establish human security and leadership academies

UNESCO

Short to medium term
> Continue with current projects on the promotion of human security
> Improve human rights education at primary level (focusing on most vulnerable populations – young girls, women, child soldiers)
> Coordinate existing and new efforts efficiently

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> Assess efficiency and impact of current projects, and organizations' activities in Africa
> Run pilot programmes in conjunction with local and civil society organizations
> Introduce and maintain warning systems
> Capacity-building with a view to responding to African human security needs

Long term
> Restructure UNESCO operations in Africa to focus more on local/community level
> Follow a regional approach, as outlined in this publication, to addressing human security issues
> Cooperate with civil society, think tanks and academia to establish human security and leadership academies
> Determine necessary and sufficient requirements for human security in cooperation with other relevant UN agencies such as, for example, UNDP and UNAIDS
> Enforce ethical, normative and educational frameworks that African governments have adopted via international mechanisms such as the Responsibility to Protect (RTP)
> Develop relevant capacity and skills for responding to African human security needs
> Coordinate existing and new efforts efficiently

(1) At the request of participants in the International Conference on Human Security in Africa (UNESCO-ISS, Pretoria, March 2007), and in order to imply a certain priority for implementation, the recommendations were divided into short- to medium-term, and long-term.

Sources: Peace, Human Security and Conflict Prevention in Africa, Proceedings of the UNESCO-ISS Expert Meeting held in Pretoria, South Africa, 23–24 July 2001; *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Africa*, by Jo-Ansie van Wyk, UNESCO, 2007.

Table 2. Arab States

Risks and threats
> Non-existence/insufficient respect for the rule of law
> Natural factors (such as endowment in natural resources and geographical location)
> Patterns of conflict and cooperation in the region
> Prevailing concepts of political culture (particularly definitions of nationalism and political allegiance)
> Demographic trends (increasing population combined to decreasing per capita income, unemployment, increasing urbanization …)
> Limited access to health services
> Limited access to education
> Inability to guarantee food security
> Insufficient respect for human rights

Recommendations
> Adherence to the rule of law (as fundamental condition for achieving human security)
> Adoption of measures that ensure citizen participation (in processes which have a direct impact on their lives)
> Citizen empowerment (in terms of access to education, health services, income-generating activities)
> Incorporation of human security into all levels of education.
> Mobilization of media in order to organize awareness-raising campaigns
> Mobilization of civil society (towards the promotion of human security, the creation of intra-national/regional networks)
> Encourage offering/receiving moral, human and material assistance among Arab states and the international community

Sources: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in the Arab States, by Bechir Chourou, UNESCO, 2005; *Selected papers of the International Conference on Human Security in the Arab States*, 14–15 March 2005, Amman, Jordan, UNESCO, 2007.

Table 3. East Asia

Risks and threats
> Poverty and economic inequity
> Ethnic, political and religious conflicts
> Corrupt and poor governance
> Hunger and famine
> HIV/AIDS epidemics
> SARS epidemic
> Transnational crime
> Human rights violations

> Nuclear threats
> Terrorism
> Environmental degradation
> Human trafficking
> Forced migration (and forced repatriation of displaced people)

Recommendations

> Setting a common regional agenda
> Ensuring good governance
> Adopting comprehensive approaches
> Institutionalizing multilateral cooperation
> Reconsidering non-interference
> Promoting education
> Empowering civil society

Sources: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in East Asia, by Shin-wha Lee, UNESCO, 2004; Proceedings of the International Conference on 'Human Security in East Asia', UNESCO/Korean National Commission for UNESCO/Ilmin International Relations Institute of Korea University, Seoul, Republic of Korea, 2004.

Table 4. Central Asia

Risks and threats

> Political and social exclusion
> Economic transition and inequalities in Human Development Index
> Conflicts over resources (intra and inter Central Asian states)
> Transnational terrorism and religious extremism
> Drugs (use and trafficking)
> HIV/AIDS epidemics
> Forced migration and human trafficking
> Environmental disasters
> Human insecurities for women (in terms of political participation, gender-discriminative traditions, domestic violence)

Recommendations

> Prioritizing the human security agenda at national and regional levels
> International and regional cooperation needs to be enhanced, in view of the increasing interdependence and transnational nature of human security challenges faced by the region
> Economic reforms and poverty reduction (macroeconomic sustainability and diversification of economic activities)
> Discussions of educational approach for promoting human security (bringing together national and regional actors) with a view to setting priorities for the promotion of human security at regional level
> Participation and vibrant civil society, in terms of ownership of reform processes and assuring sustainability through capacity-building and empowerment
> Bridging ethnic and religious divides, building upon common history, as well as promoting dialogue on tackling cultural diversity
> Combating drug industry and human trafficking – countries in the region need to further discuss regional anti-drug platform and involvement of civil society groups in combating these issues
> Human security for women – review the role of customary law and work towards equal access to education, property, health
> Helping Afghanistan (post-conflict and counter-narcotics programmes) will benefit the region (positive spill-over effect)
> Promoting internet and computer technology for discussion on human security issues – addressing the need to bridge the gap between urban and rural populations
> Supporting improvement of national and regional statistics and data collection – aligning methodologies of national statistics organizations with international standards
> Enhancing cooperation among local stakeholders and international organizations – teamwork between local authorities and civil society, and international organizations, agencies, etc.
> UNESCO and National Commissions: promote regional and interregional dialogue and provide a platform to integrate human security priorities in domestic and foreign policies in each country

Sources: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Central Asia, by Anara Tabyshalieva, UNESCO, 2006; Selected papers presented at the International Conference on Human Security and Peace in Central Asia, 8–9 September 2005, Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan, UNESCO, 2007.

Table 5. South-East Asia

Risks and threats

> The predominance of national/state security over human security, seen in terms of military expenditure versus expenditure on health and social services
> A two-fold fear of Asian states of what accepting the concept of human security might mean in terms of sovereignty: that it might be used as an excuse for external involvement in domestic affairs; that the creation of the institutions needed to promote human security may lead to relinquishing national sovereignty
> The broader nature of challenges to security, in terms of borders (trans-territoriality of threats and their consequences) as well as their essence (threats to the security of the state not only from insurgence and/or invasion, but from non-traditional issues such as unpredictable natural events or poverty)

Recommendations

> Any concept of human security, in order to be acceptable to South-East Asia, must combine 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want', bringing in the question of political rights and economic vulnerability
> Human security and state security are not exclusive concepts, they are complementary – the state remains an indispensable provider/guarantor of human security
> It is important to develop a regional consensus, at governmental level, on the adoption of human security into the multilateral agenda
> Reinforce the policy-research nexus by disseminating the possible results of the work of the research on human security issues by think tanks and universities, as well as integrating them into educational and public policy strategies

Source: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in South-East Asia, by Amitav Acharya, UNESCO, 2007.

Table 6. Latin America and the Caribbean

Risks and threats

> Growth and economic crises
> Steady rise in external debt
> Rising unemployment
> Rising poverty
> Rising inequality
> Migration
> Social integration
> Social cohesion
> Weak democracies/crisis of representation
> Corruption
> Unresolved border conflicts
> (special mention) Colombia
> Transnational threats
> Institutionalized violence
> Environmental vulnerabilities
> Social resistance movements

Recommendations[(1)]

(G / IGO)

> Move towards a common conception of global, hemispheric and regional security (with a view to improving existing international instruments)
> Cooperate in conflict resolution (involving academia as well as outside parties)
> Bring in transparency and accountability mechanisms for national, regional and hemispheric institutions (mostly those concerned with security and defence issues)
> Encourage a regional outlook and strengthen the development of binding instruments in the fields of transnational crime, migration and small arms trafficking
> Reinforce the rule of law and governance in the region
> Increase efforts to achieve peace and re-establish the rule of law in the territory of Colombia (main focus of conflict in the region)
> Creating new spaces for influence at a multilateral level: promote active participation of new civil society groupings in the existing multilateral influence spaces in hemispheric institutions – even informal ones
> Creating mechanisms for consultation and participation: establish mechanisms for permanent consultation with multilateral institutions on specific issues

(HSN)
> Set up a permanent working group of civil society organizations and academic centres under HSN auspices with a view to enhancing the work of country partnerships

(A / Civ Soc)
> Inclusion and participation of civil society (in promotion of human security, training of NGOs and grass-roots organizations involved with security issues)
> Knowledge creation and risk evaluation (continue development of human security concept, identification and evaluation of main risks and threats as well as key areas for ongoing/future work, maintain analytical work on function of the state)
> Research: continue research on human security and other concepts with a view to reinforcing coherence among the different existing views
> (Training) promote best practices: foster exchange of successful experiences (lessons learned) of civil society organizations and research centres through seminars and (possible) professional exchanges
> (Training) capacity-building projects (at regional level): promote training and capacity-building workshops for civil society actors, as well as research and governmental representatives, on negotiation skills and conflict prevention
> Impact and dissemination strategies: need to strengthen research-policy nexus at national level
> Impact and dissemination strategies: dialogue with the media; establish dialogue between media(s) at national and regional levels, in order to define a joint strategy for fostering peace

(UNESCO)
> Continue work of promoting regional programmes of action in relation to human security
> It is suggested that the following activities should be pursued: (a) a regional pilot programme to train members of civil society, academics and government representatives in negotiation and conflict prevention; (b) a regional seminar to analyse exemplary experiences with human security projects of national, regional and local scope; (c) support comparative research into the issue of security, including the various stakeholders concerned

(1) Formulated for particular actors in the field of human security – governments (G), intergovernmental organizations (IGO), Human Security Network (HSN), academia (A) and civil society (Civ Soc), UNESCO.

Sources: Human Security, Conflict Prevention and Peace, Proceedings of the Expert Meeting on 'Peace, Human Security and Conflict Prevention in Latin America and the Caribbean', UNESCO/FLACSO-Chile, 2002; International Conference on Contemporary International Security: Consequences for Human Security in Latin America, Santiago, Chile, August 2003; *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Latin America and the Caribbean*, by Claudia F. Fuentes and Francisco Rojas Aravena, UNESCO, 2005.

Table 7. Eastern Europe

Risks and threats
> High poverty rates
> Increasingly insecure labour market (especially for women)
> Energy insecurity
> Air and water pollution
> Gaps in life expectancy
> Shortage of medical personnel
> Looming HIV/AIDS crisis
> Need for protection of minority groups
> Problems of multiculturalism
> Insecurity of exclusion (among the Roma)
> Lack of freedom of expression
> Fragility of media
> Rocky road to consolidation of democracy
> Lack of trust in the new institutions
> Increasing corruption
> Light arms ownership and trafficking
> Trafficking in human beings
> Drug smuggling
> Unresolved wars

Recommendations
> As threats are multidimensional and interdependent, adequate responses demand a multilevel approach (combining and coordinating efforts at local, national, regional and international levels)
> Building of new regional partnerships (and reinforcement of existing ones)
> Strengthening of partnerships/exchanges with Western European institutions

> Adoption of bottom-up approach (on the principle of subsidiary), tackling issues at the level at which their effects are experienced

> Attributing responsibilities and competences (when acting) to the regional organizations taking into account their nature and mandate (so as to guarantee effectiveness and efficiency)

> *International organizations:* allocate resources to countries in need to allow them to act as welfare providers for their citizens

> Offer advice (legal, political or administrative) to countries not complying with their obligations (according to international law)

> Actively support/promotion of the rule of law and good governance

> Monitor the implementation of policies and programmes in beneficiary countries (to guarantee that populations in need are not left out)

> Empower state capacities to provide and maintain security for citizens

> Incorporate weak states into regional human security strategies (within the context of state capacity-building process)

Source: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Eastern Europe, edited by Shahrbanou Tadjbakhsh and Odette Tomescu-Hatto, UNESCO, 2007.

Table 8. Western Europe

Risks and threats

> Income inequalities
> Heterogeneous results of poverty reduction strategies
> Poor employment on the rise
> Scarcity of resources (oil, gas, energy)
> Air pollution
> Risks associated with global climate change (heatwaves, floods)
> Poor lifestyle-related illnesses (obesity, cardiovascular diseases, cancer, mental health problems)
> Rising HIV/AIDS
> Anticipation of a bird flu epidemic
> Health problems related to climate change (temperature increases) such as allergies and asthma
> Rising identity conflicts (predominance of discourse emphasizing integration and assimilation, closing of state borders)
> Risks incurred by the trade-off between civil liberties and protection of national security
> Demultiplication of non-state security institutions
> Migration issues (as destination/host countries)

Recommendations

> Politicize the interrelation of core elements of vulnerability in Western Europe (make sure that policy-making takes into account the interdependencies of human security risks/threats/issues – *externalities*) at intra-level and not only for foreign policy matters

> *As for other regions:* conceptualization of human security for Western Europe should pay attention to the region's particular context, and the needs of the population as expressed by them (therefore taking into account the subjective dimension of the concept of human security – perceived threats)

> When using human security as framework for foreign policy, the interconnectedness of threats should be taken into account – so that promoting human security within does not cause/enhance human insecurity outside

Source: Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Western Europe, by J. Peter Burgess et al., UNESCO, 2007.

Conclusion

The regional recommendations, despite their diversity of historical context and inconsistency in levels of social and economic development, have underscored some measures and approaches which may constitute a consensus. We summarize these points of consensus here, before making some specific regional proposals.

First of all, human security needs a healthy state. Every expert agrees that human security must not be considered in opposition to the state itself, but rather in opposition to the 'failed state'. This traditional and somewhat simplistic pattern of dualism must be erased. It is through a well-organized state, founded on democratic rotation and ruled by good governance, that human security can be guaranteed in every field, particularly by managing the redistribution of wealth in society and constantly safeguarding the rule of law. The state should also provide equitable justice to its citizens without any form of discrimination.

Secondly, there is a large consensus on the necessity of collaboration between the state and civil society, which is identified as an indispensable partner in the field of human security, because there is a crucial need to involve the people themselves in the formulation of policies. State, regional and international organizations must then promote a participative approach, so that NGOs and non-state actors can act and decide at their own level. The overarching principle of this conception consists in encouraging a bottom-up approach to the decision-making process.

The third aspect pointed out by most of the contributors concerns the educational approach to human security. There is a general call for a somehow institutionalized awareness-raising process. For this, UNESCO is considered to be the UN Specialized Agency which has the legitimacy and the duty to assist state authority in setting up human security curricula and specific training. Some regions even call for a human security curriculum from primary school onwards. Specific training is part of UNESCO's mission in guaranteeing capacity-building, and must be focused on sharing the practical experience that certain states or regions may have had.

Apart from this consensus, the recommendations of course follow regional patterns.

Africa is experiencing various forms of human insecurities, with different problems in different subregions (West Africa, East/Horn of Africa, Southern Africa, Great Lakes Region) requiring specific priorities. Among the numerous recommendations, perhaps we could point out some that really call for deep policy-oriented reflection. First, experts think that Africa still needs to strengthen standard-setting in institutions responsible for promoting common norms and values, with real influence on states. To achieve this, reform and restructuring of the African Union (AU) has been suggested, while improving AU-UN relations. Second, civil society and NGOs should be involved in assisting the state in conflict resolution and in a post-conflict setting, as well as in the implementation of more community-based development projects. Third, academia and think tanks should be reinforced and should work in collaboration with international organizations in promoting ethical, normative and educational networking. The academic role is also to lead policy-oriented research, and then to lobby for their application. Lastly, an interesting recommendation was made to efficiently tackle multifaceted human insecurities – Africa needs to solidly develop African leaders by establishing human security and leadership academies. In finding ways to relieve poverty, we must not forget the development of a responsible elite and leaders.

The Arab States have identified some particular problems such as their endowment in natural resources, political participation and insufficient respect for human rights. The main concern is focused on the problem of building the rule of law in societies where conflicts and all kinds of tensions are undermining civic equality. To face up to this fragile situation, experts recommend measures for empowering citizens in terms of access to health services, education and income-generating activities. Civil society of course has a tremendously important role to play in the peacebuilding process, through projects that aim to facilitate mutual understanding. In this perspective, the media also need to organize awareness-raising campaigns.

East Asia is currently experiencing another kind of instability which persists in the intensive economic growth of the past decade or so. Rapid economic growth has triggered several social transformations and inequity, which often create new groups of vulnerable individuals, such as industrial workers, migrants, impoverished city dwellers, or victims of human trafficking. It also raises the problem of environmental degradation due to excessive industrialization. Social policies are thus needed, and must be included into what experts call 'comprehensive approaches'. Regarding the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, the necessity is stressed of setting a common regional agenda and of reconsidering the non-interference principle.

Central Asia also has to find innovative ways to deal with its economic structure which is, according to experts, too dependent on natural resources. This problem even leads to intra-state conflicts coming from ethnic and

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centre-periphery tensions over the access and control of resources and political power. One solution for easing the situation is to bridge ethnic and religious divides through dialogue, which can be facilitated by UNESCO. In parallel is the need to combat the drug industry through a regional anti-drug platform. In this regard, experts think that helping Afghanistan will benefit the entire region, in a positive spill-over effect.

South-East Asia presents a specific regional approach to human security because it is a region where the human security concept has no choice other than to be reflected in parallel with state sovereignty. The experts formulate a consensus around the fact that the state remains an indispensable provider/guarantor of human security. The regional approach thus has to be implemented in accordance with a strong conviction that the national state does have a specific and important role. This region also insisted on the fact that human security, in order to be acceptable, must combine 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want', bringing in the questions of political rights and economic vulnerabilities.

Latin America and the Caribbean should be encouraged to create new spaces for influence at a multilateral level, by promoting the active participation of new civil society groupings in the existing multilateral hemispheric institutions – even informal ones. This approach should allow the promotion of best practice and sharing successful experiences (lessons learned) between civil society organizations and research centres through seminars and professional exchanges. At the same time, general state reform must be envisaged in order to deal with high degrees of institutionalized violence, as domestic security agencies persistently abuse their power. This type of abuse is not only related to social upheavals, protests and street disturbances; but also to factors such as the weak legal and civilian control of security forces, their poor salaries, and the lack of human rights education.

Eastern Europe, according to the experts, must concentrate on building new regional partnerships and strengthening partnerships and exchanges with Western European institutions. It should work to improve human rights, especially those of minorities and migrants. International organizations can provide help in terms of resource allocation (to states unable to cover the social expenditure of their citizens), advice (technical, legal and political), promotion and support of good governance and the rule of law; monitoring the implementation of their own policies and programmes by beneficiary states, so as to guarantee that they reach the entire population and not only elites.

Western Europe, finally, as the most industrialized region with an already long history of social and economic development, should now focus on politicizing the interrelation of core elements of vulnerability within the region, instead of concentrating on foreign policy (making sure that policy-making takes into account the interdependencies or 'externalities' that can create ripple effects in human security risks and threats). When using human security as a framework for foreign policy, the interconnectedness of threats should be taken into account – so that promoting human security *inside* does not cause/enhance human insecurity *outside*.

UNESCO regional and subregional initiatives in the field of human security

| 2000 | > | 2007 |

| Latin America and the Caribbean 2001, 2003 & 2005 | Eastern and Western Europe 2006 | Africa 2001 & 2007 | Arab States 2005 | East Asia 2003 | Central Asia 2005 | South-East Asia 2006 |

Chapter 2

Chapter 3

The UNESCO Human Security Questionnaire (HSQ): from debate to practice

Chapter 3

III. The online HSQ   150

I. Principal results of the HSQ

Introduction

The concept of human security has been a feature of academic and policy debate for over a decade and is now an established part of the vocabulary of international politics and development. Human security is no longer an 'emerging concept', it is a conceptual framework and an operating principle for many actors in national politics and foreign policy. However, its meaning, applicability and practical value remain contested. Some practitioners remain unconvinced that the concept can bring policy-oriented added value regarding problems that are already largely understood. Some analysts claim that human security is a hopelessly broad and all-inclusive concept and can therefore have no analytic utility. Yet many countries are embracing human security as a policy framework, and civil society groups have also focused on it as a mobilizing instrument.

The UNESCO Human Security Questionnaire (HSQ) was presented and adopted during the High-Level Working Meeting: Towards a UNESCO Publication on Human Security, on 12 and 13 December 2005. It was conducted online to assess the current situation and future prospects in the field of human security. On this basis, the HSQ will help UNESCO to identify where and how it can make the most valuable contributions and develop a forward-thinking strategy in relation to human security.

Through a statistical and analytical evaluation of expert opinion, UNESCO hopes to achieve three principal objectives: (1) prioritize existing and anticipated human security risks and threats and analyse their relevance to UNESCO's fields of competence (education, natural sciences, social and human sciences, culture, communication and information); (2) highlight new and emerging human security risks and threats; (3) identify UNESCO's best possible role(s) within the field of human security.

The HSQ represents the most systematic and extensive survey of expert and student opinion on the potential, limits and future of human security. It covers definitions and conceptual aspects of human security, an exploration of specific human security threats and challenges, approaches and policy tools for addressing human insecurity, institutions and actors engaged in strengthening human security, and projections for future human security threats.

However, caution is required in interpreting these data because surveys always pose a double difficulty: data relevance and equity of representation between countries or regions. Indeed, out of 754 people contacted by UNESCO, 233 (31%) responded to the questionnaire, but some of those 233 did not answer the whole set of questions, therefore certain tables reflect a number of respondents other than 233. Likewise, geographical analysis of some charts is more relevant for some regions of expertise than for others (Figure 1).

Nevertheless, this HSQ is an important tool because the representation of regions of expertise is rather equitable with an average of twenty experts per region, with the exception of Latin America and the Caribbean for which there were ten experts. This equity nevertheless varies depending on the questions. Finally, gender distribution has been well respected (Figure 2).

Figure 1. Percentage and number of experts by region of expertise.
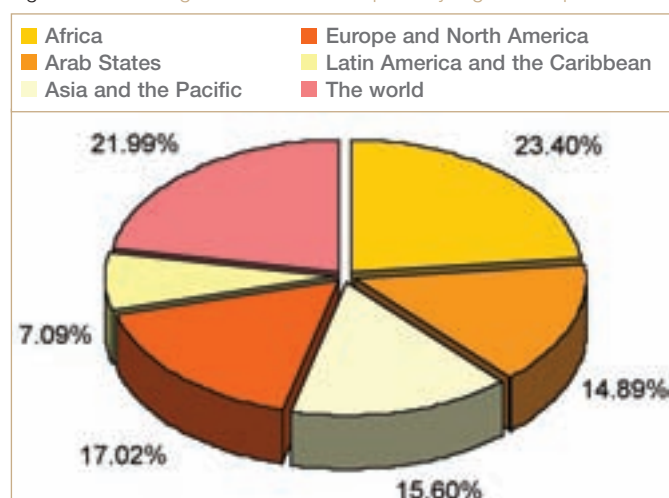
Number of experts by region of expertise	
Africa	33
Arab States	21
Asia and the Pacific	22
Europe and North America	24
Latin America and the Caribbean	10
The world	31
Total	141

Figure 2. Gender distribution in the group of respondents.
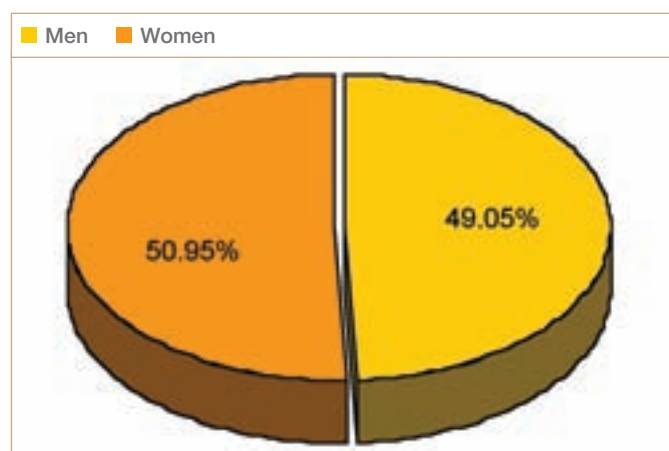
The HSQ illustrates how the concept of human security has evolved and how its proponents have responded to the challenges – both academic and political – to human security. The results also illustrate the inherent subjectivity and contingent nature of human security: its definition and the threats that people perceive reflect in various ways their situation and economic position, as well as their geographical location. Transcending all such differences, however, the HSQ illustrates a huge discrepancy between the security threats that governments and the international community focus on and where they allocate resources, on the one hand, and the reality of human security challenges that confront the world today, on the other.

The overriding message of the HSQ is, therefore, the urgent need for all actors – but especially governments – to reorient their security attitudes and policy around people. This is both a humanitarian imperative and also a more effective approach than existing attitudes and policies. The HSQ reaffirms the value of human security as an analytical concept, policy framework and normative orientation.

Attempts to define the human security concept

Refocusing on the individual

The HSQ demonstrates that, among experts, there is both consensus and disagreement on the definition of human security. It is widely accepted that the referent object of human security is the *individual*. Human security reflects the concern that contemporary security, if it is to be relevant to changing conditions and needs, must focus on the individual or people collectively. This does not deny the importance of traditional ideas of security, but it does suggest that it may be more effective to reorient the provision of security around people. It demands that we place human beings, both as individuals and collectives, at the heart of security analysis and practice. As one expert put it, 'human security comprises personal, social and societal security; it protects and empowers individuals and groups, based on human rights'.

The definitions offered by respondents to the HSQ also illustrate how the concept of human security reflects – and in turn drives – an evolution in norms relating to governance, human rights and security. Broad definitions of human security prevailed, combining freedom from fear and freedom from want. Many respondents also expressed a preference to go beyond purely material measurements of security and embrace positive security, wellbeing, justice and dignity as elements of the definition. Most definitions therefore reflected the idea that human security is not just a question of survival, but of positive existence which enables the fulfillment of opportunities, or even individual empowerment and emancipation.

In this respect, many of the experts underscored the difference between *human development* and *human security*: whereas the former should ensure basic material living, the latter consists of giving favourable conditions for the realization of human potential. Thus, an expert from South Africa could say: 'If human development is freedom from want (a process widening the range of people's choices), human security can be understood as the ability to pursue those choices in a safe environment, on an equal basis with others, and with the expectation for a future continuation of that status.' There was broad consensus that a definition of human security must capture its nature as essentially holistic, integrative, interdisciplinary and inclusive. In academic terms, human security involves deepening (to the individual) and broadening (to non-military factors) security analysis, because 'human security involves enhancing and ensuring the physical, emotional, social, political and economic rights of human beings', as another expert said. However, this holistic aspect of human security makes its standards difficult to set out satisfactorily: 'Human security is not merely a state of well-being, shaped by a pre-determined set of parameters. And by the same token, no one is served by the kind of prolonged discussion that seeks a consensus as to what those parameters are,' another expert warned.

A mobilizing concept rather than an analytical tool

The implication of some definitions, therefore, is that the achievement of human security also implies structural change in the manner in which economics and politics are organized, both nationally and internationally. From this point, a question arises: is the concept of human security expected to be a normative and mobilizing concept, or can it become a real analytical tool for action?

The HSQ reflects a basic understanding of human security that transcends geographical, demographic and national differences. However, the manner in which people perceive threats to their security is influenced by their location and particular circumstances. In addition, the variety of definitions of human security contained in the HSQ also implied differences – or disagreement – on how to address insecurity. The HSQ thus illustrates differences of opinion about the principle *sources* of human insecurity, and these were raised in the various definitions that were presented.

A division of opinion – notable since the concept became popular – also exists between a 'broad' and a 'narrow' definition of human security. The first is a broad, development-based human-needs approach, often associated with the dimensions of the concept of human security as stated in the 1994 *UNDP Human Development Report*:[1] critical economic, food, health, personal, environmental, cultural and political security. In contrast, the narrow approach focuses on extreme danger to individuals, especially in situations of armed conflict and egregious human rights abuse.

There is some disagreement on what a definition of human security should do: should it describe, explain, prescribe or predict? Most definitions focus on description and prescription – or advocacy – while the element of explanation is weaker. Many respondents therefore felt that human security is normatively strong; strong as a political orientation; but weak as a tool of analysis. It is considered to be a mobilizing concept, not an analytical tool.[2]

Indeed, the definitions contained in the responses to the HSQ reflect the continuing – and possibly insoluble – conceptual disagreements inherent in human security. Some approaches focus principally on negative freedoms, others on positive freedoms. The distinction between protection and empowerment, and the relationship between *human security* and *human rights*, were also a source of disagreement, or even confusion. The issue of 'thresholds' – that challenges become a human security threat if they reach a certain level of severity – was also a source of debate.

Rethinking human security, state security and international economic structure

The different definitions offered by the expert respondents did appear, however, to indicate an evolution in one key aspect of the human security debate. Human security and state ('traditional' or 'national') security are no longer seen as being in tension: the HSQ responses affirm that a capable and well-functioning state is fundamentally important to the attainment of human security. Indeed, the implication of the responses on the definition of human security is that weak and failed states pose the greatest danger to both national and human security: 'Often failed states show signs of poverty, human rights abuses, social malaise, lack of access to basic health and education as well as a plethora of other failures that have the most severe and direct effect on individuals and communities, in particular the most vulnerable. These are challenges that, if not addressed, can lead to internal conflicts that tear up families, reverse development, instil distrust and result in the breakdown of society, family, and the individual,' an expert from the United States explained.

According to the conventional Westphalian model of international politics, threats to international security come primarily from recalcitrant or aggressive states. In the twenty-first century it is widely believed that threats are equally likely to come from failing or weak states, or even non-state actors, and affect populations both abroad and within a country's borders. Indeed, 'human security is about freedom from fear. It entails the acknowledgement by the international community of a collective responsibility to protect individuals from existential and pervasive threats to their personal safety and physical and psychological well-being,' as one expert explained.

Finally, the different approaches to human security reflect different security concerns and outlooks, perhaps even different sociological contexts. The typologies differ in focus (the issues that are seen to be within the framework of human security) and methodology, in terms of the institutions, actors and policies that are proposed to promote human security. There is no absolute consensus on either focus or methodology. In turn, a further contentious point is the degree of 'revisionism' that human security implies: some approaches to human security are essentially *status quo* oriented, whereas others represent a fundamental challenge to institutions and values of political and economic organization at all levels.

In this way, old questions are revisited: what adjustments in the structure of the international economic system – governing trade, investment and terms of trade for primary commodities – may be necessary to redress the structural inequalities of the international economic infrastructure and provide a genuine 'level playing field'? How can we find a more balanced approach to development that incorporates environmental and social considerations – and reconciles them with market mechanisms – and that considers quality of life in an era of mass production and economic costs and gains? In terms of conflict and intervention, how can we balance the tenet of sovereignty with people's basic human rights in times of crisis or war? These are some structural questions that the human security concept requires us to answer.

(1) UNDP, 1994, *Human Development Report: New Dimensions of Human Security*, New York, United Nations Development Programme/Oxford University Press.
(2) Idea expressed by Edward Newman, 2004, A normatively attractive but analytical weak concept, in *Security Dialogue*, Vol. 35, No. 3, pp. 358-59.

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Main human security threats and risks identified

Prioritizing human security threats and risks?

Many of the experts significantly rejected the idea of prioritizing, ranking or sequencing threats to human security, because they thought that whatever threats are considered, they all endanger human life and potential. Thus, human security does not privilege or prioritize sources of insecurity, but has to be seen from a global and comprehensive viewpoint. In this sense, the HSQ underscores the growing recognition that human security challenges and solutions are interconnected: prioritizing only certain issues would mean conceiving threats as separate and independent problems, whereas in reality illiteracy, for example, is an indirect but real cause of poor social conditions, or misunderstandings that often lead to socio-cultural tension. As an expert on the Asia and the Pacific region explained: 'Because the threats are interrelated and mutually reinforcing, it is important to move away from a rigid prioritization. For example, increasing a family's food production might reduce their immediate risk of severe malnutrition, but it will not build their resilience if they do not have access to sufficient healthcare services or if their crops are in danger of destruction as a result of a natural disaster or violence.'

The HSQ reflects the now widely held assumption that anything that presents a critical threat to life and livelihood is a security threat, whatever the source. But what clearly emerged from the questionnaire is that prioritizing threats is not that relevant, because the real solution and objective, no matter what the threats are by order of importance, is to determine their sources or 'root causes'. In turn, the HSQ respondents were almost unanimous in believing that human security necessarily involves looking at and addressing the underlying sources of insecurity, rather than merely tackling its manifestations or containing it. This was very clearly stated by an Egyptian expert for whom 'UNESCO should lead in addressing and analysing the *causes* more than dealing with the *consequences*'.

In addition, an attempt to prioritize human security threats indicates that the concept is to some extent subjective and contingent upon location, gender, class, etc., which has been variously appreciated. Some, indeed, think that it is important for each region's or each group's specific human security worries to be revealed, whereas others consider that this concept would be more practical if it set out universal concerns and standards, because 'human security is the *natural* right of all human beings to live in complete safety and peace, in harmony with their environment, without being disturbed by natural or man-made disasters or calamities. In short, it is the totality of human safety', as an Ethiopian professor of African history and anthropology put it.

There was, however, wide agreement that the prevailing institutions of human security – in terms of policies and resources – were out of step with the reality of people's daily security needs.

The answers given to the HSQ on the risks and threats currently attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources give a clear impression that terrorism, armed conflict, climate change and HIV/AIDS are attracting most public attention (perhaps disproportionately) (Figure 3), whereas poverty, economic inequality and human rights abuses should be given greater attention. This general opinion comes as an echo and justification of Anara Tabyshalieva's statement in her report for UNESCO on human security in Central Asia.[3] While a few national governments are prioritizing the threat of international terrorism, the general public believes that poverty and other urgent human security threats, including the more common ones of daily life, are causing more severe damage.

Other areas of concern that the experts' answers specifically highlighted include corruption and poor governance, failed states, food insecurity, intolerance and discrimination (Figure 4).

The students' answers, for their part, indicated that poverty, climate change, economic inequity, and war and armed conflicts should attract more attention (Figure 5). When compared with the experts' opinions on the same question, a larger percentage of students further emphasized poverty as a threat deserving more focus and resources, while a smaller percentage stressed human rights violations, lack of democracy and poor governance. Another field insisted on by the students, as opposed to the experts, concerns human trafficking. These differences of focus pointed up by this questionnaire require deeper analysis, which could unquestionably sharpen our view on human security understanding: Why, for example, did fewer of the younger generation consider that lack of democracy, as a threat, deserves more public attention (1.3% of 112 students), while experts were more numerous in thinking so (4.32% of 110 experts)? What do these data reveal? What is to be planned and implemented from this point?

The fact that students highlighted war and armed conflicts as threats that deserve more attention and resources may indicate an overall feeling today that wars are devastating societies around the world. Wars and armed conflicts are indeed 'visible' reality which can be more easily quantified in terms of dead or injured; they are also realities that more easily shock as relayed by the media. In contrast, human rights violations or lack of democracy cannot be 'seen'

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(3) Anara Tabyshalieva, 2006, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Central Asia*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 34.
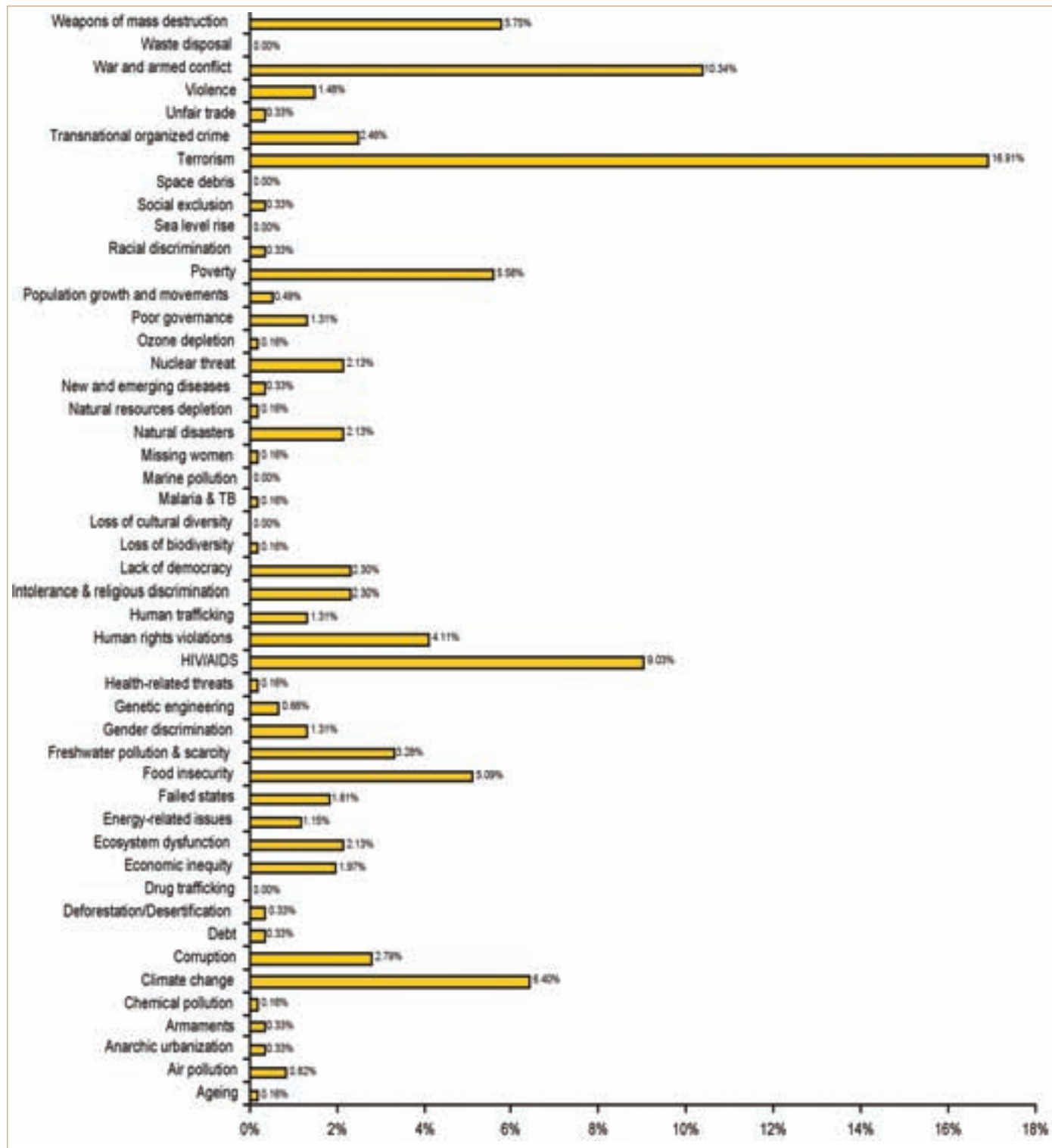
immediately, and therefore they touch fewer lay people, despite being a source of concern to experts. But whatever the interpretation may be, the students' answers are a reminder that wars and armed conflicts are not a nightmare of the past but realities of the twenty-first century.

Human security threats and risks in different regions

The main concern that emerged very clearly from every region of expertise was poverty which, according to every respondent,

has not been given sufficient attention and addressed with enough resources. Poverty was even highlighted by a large number of experts on the European region. This is a significant finding which demonstrates that human security is not mainly or only a concern of developing countries, but covers problems that are relevant to developed and industrialized countries as well. 'In fact, Europe is a fascinating field for reflection and action with respect to human security, because it embodies Amartya Sen's idea that human security is the other side of the development coin. It is about the

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Figure 4. **Experts'** answers to Question 3: List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources.

Category	Value
Weapons of mass destruction	0.66%
Waste disposal	0.00%
War and armed conflict	2.99%
Violence	3.99%
Unfair trade	2.33%
Transnational organized crime	1.66%
Terrorism	1.00%
Space debris	0.00%
Social exclusion	2.33%
Sea level rise	0.66%
Racial discrimination	1.00%
Poverty	8.31%
Population growth and movements	2.66%
Poor governance	5.32%
Ozone depletion	0.66%
Nuclear threat	0.33%
New and emerging diseases	0.33%
Natural resources depletion	1.33%
Natural disasters	0.33%
Missing women	0.33%
Marine pollution	0.00%
Malaria & TB	0.66%
Loss of cultural diversity	1.33%
Loss of biodiversity	0.33%
Lack of democracy	4.32%
Intolerance & religious discrimination	2.33%
Human trafficking	1.00%
Human rights violations	6.98%
HIV/AIDS	2.33%
Health-related threats	2.99%
Genetic engineering	0.00%
Gender discrimination	1.33%
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	1.00%
Food insecurity	2.99%
Failed states	5.98%
Energy-related issues	1.00%
Ecosystem dysfunction	2.33%
Economic inequity	7.97%
Drug trafficking	0.33%
Deforestation/Desertification	1.99%
Debt	0.00%
Corruption	4.98%
Climate change	7.64%
Chemical pollution	0.00%
Armaments	1.66%
Anarchic urbanization	1.99%
Air pollution	0.33%
Ageing	0.00%

Figure 5: **Students'** answers to Question 3: List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources.

Category	Percentage
Weapons of mass destruction	0.33%
Waste disposal	1.30%
War and armed conflict	5.86%
Violence	1.30%
Unfair trade	1.95%
Transnational organized crime	2.28%
Terrorism	1.95%
Space debris	0.00%
Social exclusion	2.28%
Sea level rise	0.33%
Racial discrimination	0.00%
Poverty	10.42%
Population growth and movements	2.28%
Poor governance	2.28%
Ozone depletion	0.98%
Nuclear threat	0.98%
New and emerging diseases	1.30%
Natural resources depletion	2.28%
Natural disasters	0.33%
Missing women	0.98%
Marine pollution	0.00%
Malaria & TB	1.30%
Loss of cultural diversity	0.65%
Loss of biodiversity	0.65%
Lack of democracy	1.30%
Intolerance & religious discrimination	3.58%
Human trafficking	3.91%
Human rights violations	4.89%
HIV/AIDS	3.26%
Health-related threats	1.63%
Genetic engineering	0.33%
Gender discrimination	2.61%
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	2.28%
Food insecurity	5.21%
Failed states	3.91%
Energy-related issues	0.33%
Ecosystem dysfunction	1.63%
Economic inequity	6.19%
Drug trafficking	0.65%
Deforestation/Desertification	2.61%
Debt	0.65%
Corruption	3.26%
Climate change	8.14%
Chemical pollution	0.00%
Armaments	0.65%
Anarchic urbanization	0.33%
Air pollution	0.33%
Ageing	0.33%

downfalls and the left outs. Europe shows how human security is still a valid approach even in a developed, rich society, especially in one that has been experiencing economic stagnation for a few decades,' according to a French student's analysis.

Nevertheless, some interesting regional patterns emerged regarding perceptions of human security threats. For experts on **Africa** (thirteen experts, three Human Security Network respondents and one student answered Question 3),

in particular, international terrorism and weapons of mass destruction have attracted disproportionate attention and resources. African respondents highlighted poverty, poor governance, corruption, poor health and HIV/AIDS, food insecurity, climate change and lack of democracy as human security threats to which greater attention, focus and financial resources should be committed (Figure 6).

It is also particularly interesting that poor governance and corruption were ranked particularly high as human security

Figure 7: Region of expertise: **Asia and the Pacific**. Answers to Question 3: List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources.

Category	Value
Weapons of mass destruction	0.00%
Waste disposal	0.00%
War and armed conflict	5.56%
Violence	5.56%
Unfair trade	0.00%
Transnational organized crime	0.00%
Terrorism	2.78%
Space debris	0.00%
Social exclusion	2.78%
Sea level rise	0.00%
Racial discrimination	0.00%
Poverty	11.11%
Population growth and movements	2.78%
Poor governance	5.56%
Ozone depletion	0.00%
Nuclear threat	0.00%
New and emerging diseases	2.78%
Natural resources depletion	2.78%
Natural disasters	0.00%
Missing women	0.00%
Marine pollution	0.00%
Malaria & TB	0.00%
Loss of cultural diversity	2.78%
Loss of biodiversity	0.00%
Lack of democracy	5.56%
Intolerance & religious discrimination	8.33%
Human trafficking	2.78%
Human rights violations	5.56%
HIV/AIDS	0.00%
Health-related threats	0.00%
Genetic engineering	0.00%
Gender discrimination	2.78%
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	0.00%
Food insecurity	2.78%
Failed states	8.33%
Energy-related issues	0.00%
Ecosystem dysfunction	5.56%
Economic inequity	11.11%
Drug trafficking	0.00%
Deforestation/Desertification	2.78%
Debt	0.00%
Corruption	0.00%
Climate change	0.00%
Chemical pollution	0.00%
Armaments	0.00%
Anarchic urbanization	0.00%
Air pollution	0.00%
Ageing	0.00%

threats (even above poverty) by African respondents. It may be a little surprising that climate change ranks among the most important issues for African respondents as a challenge that deserves greater attention, suggesting that climate change should not be considered as an exclusive concern of the developed world and that Africans clearly recognize the impact that it will have upon their livelihoods.

For experts on **Asia and the Pacific region** (thirteen responded to Question 3), economic inequality, poverty,

failed states and intolerance and religious discrimination were highlighted as particular concerns. In a region where economic growth is increasingly accelerating, the gap between haves and have-nots is more and more severe, threatening the lives of individuals (Figure 7). Regarding economic inequity, an Indian expert stated: 'Globalization is creating corporate capitalism that "disempowers" individuals and communities. Despite the extreme problem of failed states, even in democracies people remain insecure and disempowered in the face of corporate power that controls

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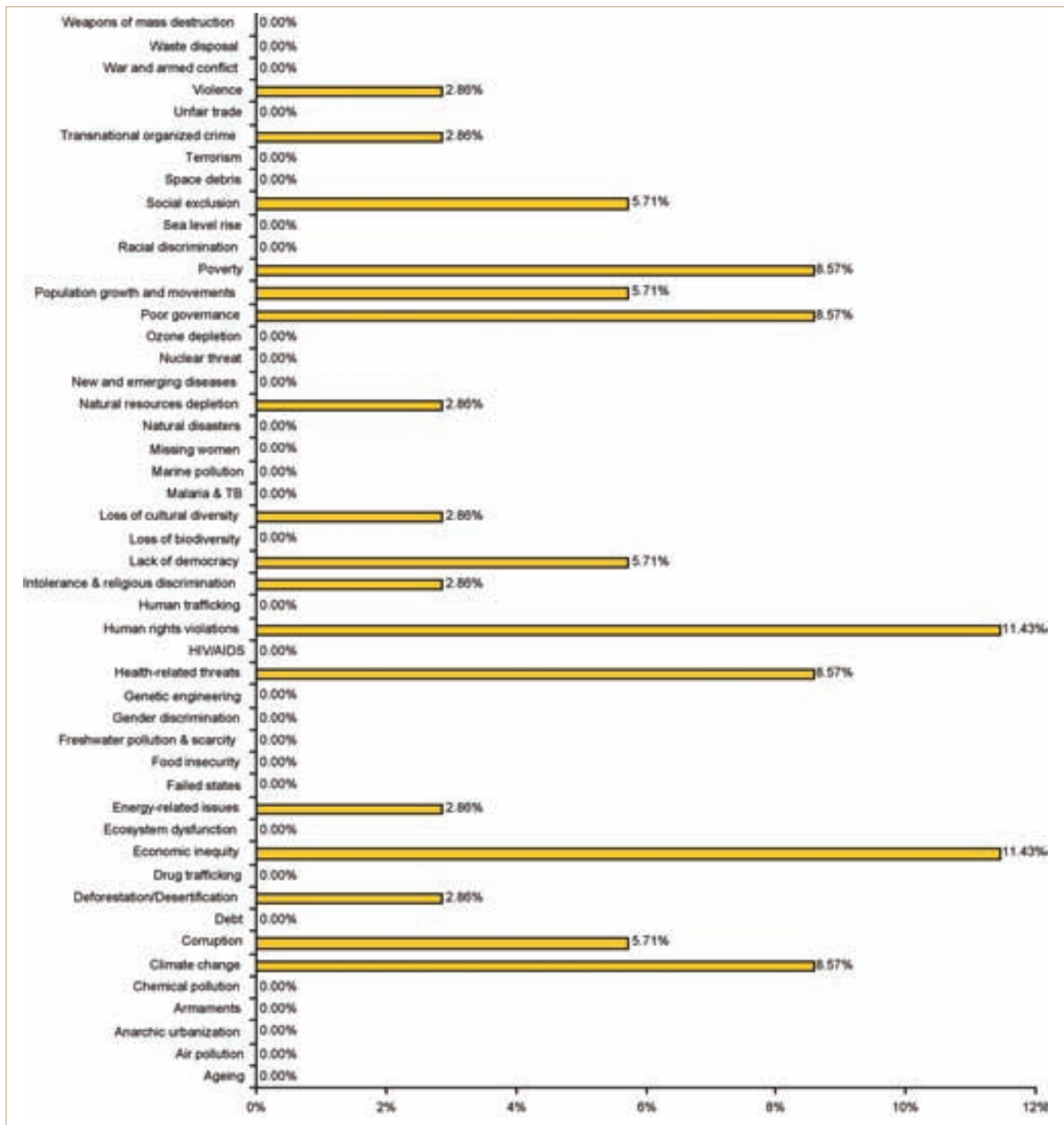
all institutions. Individuals cannot get justice especially in the Third World in the face of such inequality and inequity.' And as a Canadian expert on this region put it, 'Many states have experienced growing uncertainties and are unable to perform well as the traditional protector of citizens. Even in economically successful states, there is no guarantee that they will remain stable. When unable to play this role, they may resort to repressive violence, open up the possibility of terrorist activity, and even exacerbate poverty, religious intolerance and racism.'

All these responses show the tremendous importance of reforming and improving the existing structure, including state institutions, in order to meet the challenges that our globalized world is facing today in the field of human security.

For experts on Europe and North America (twelve responded to Question 3), human rights abuses and economic inequity were underscored as major concerns, followed by poverty, poor governance, health-related threats and climate change. Other secondary concerns were social exclusion, population growth and movements,

Figure 9: Region of expertise: **Arab States**. Answers to Question 3: List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources.
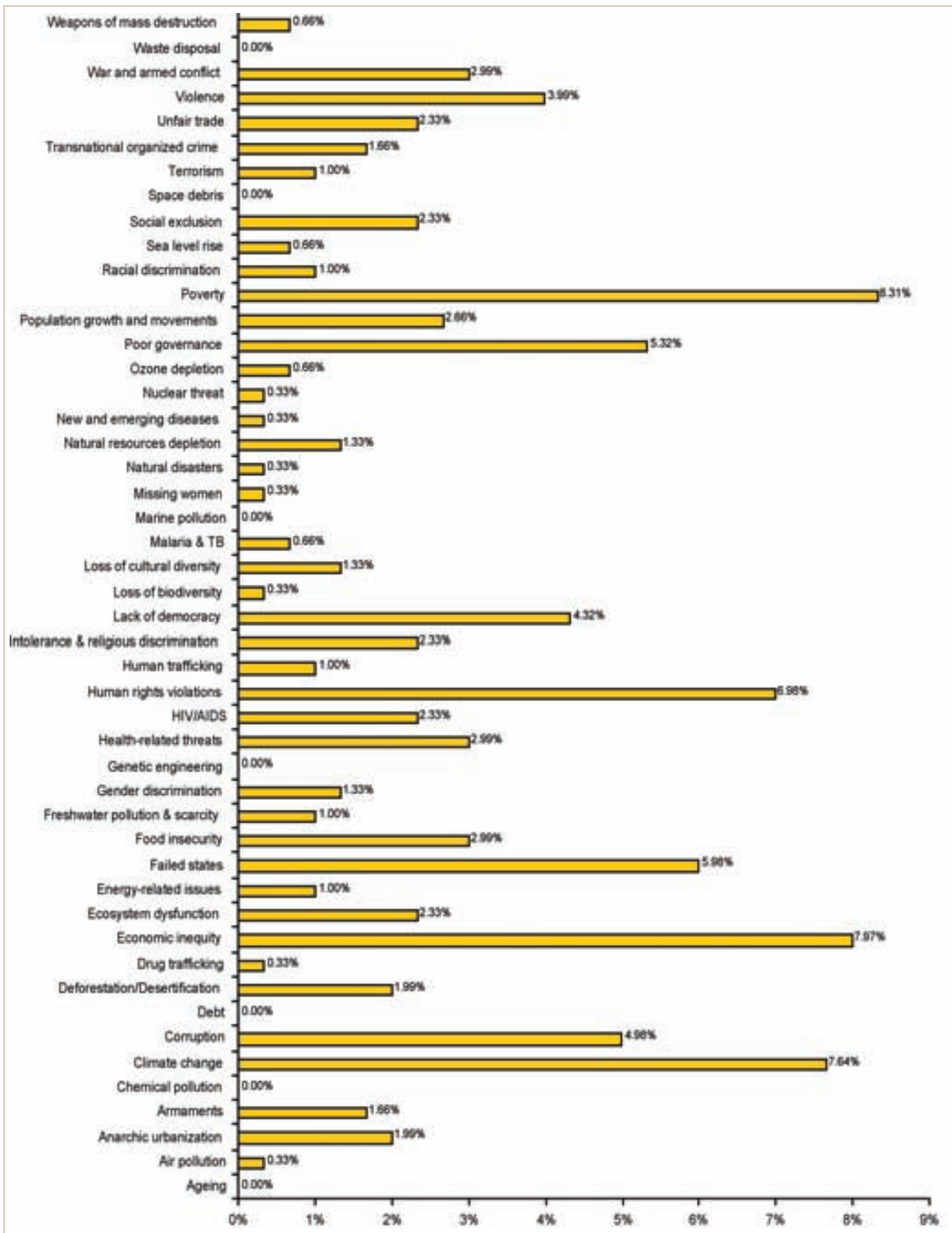
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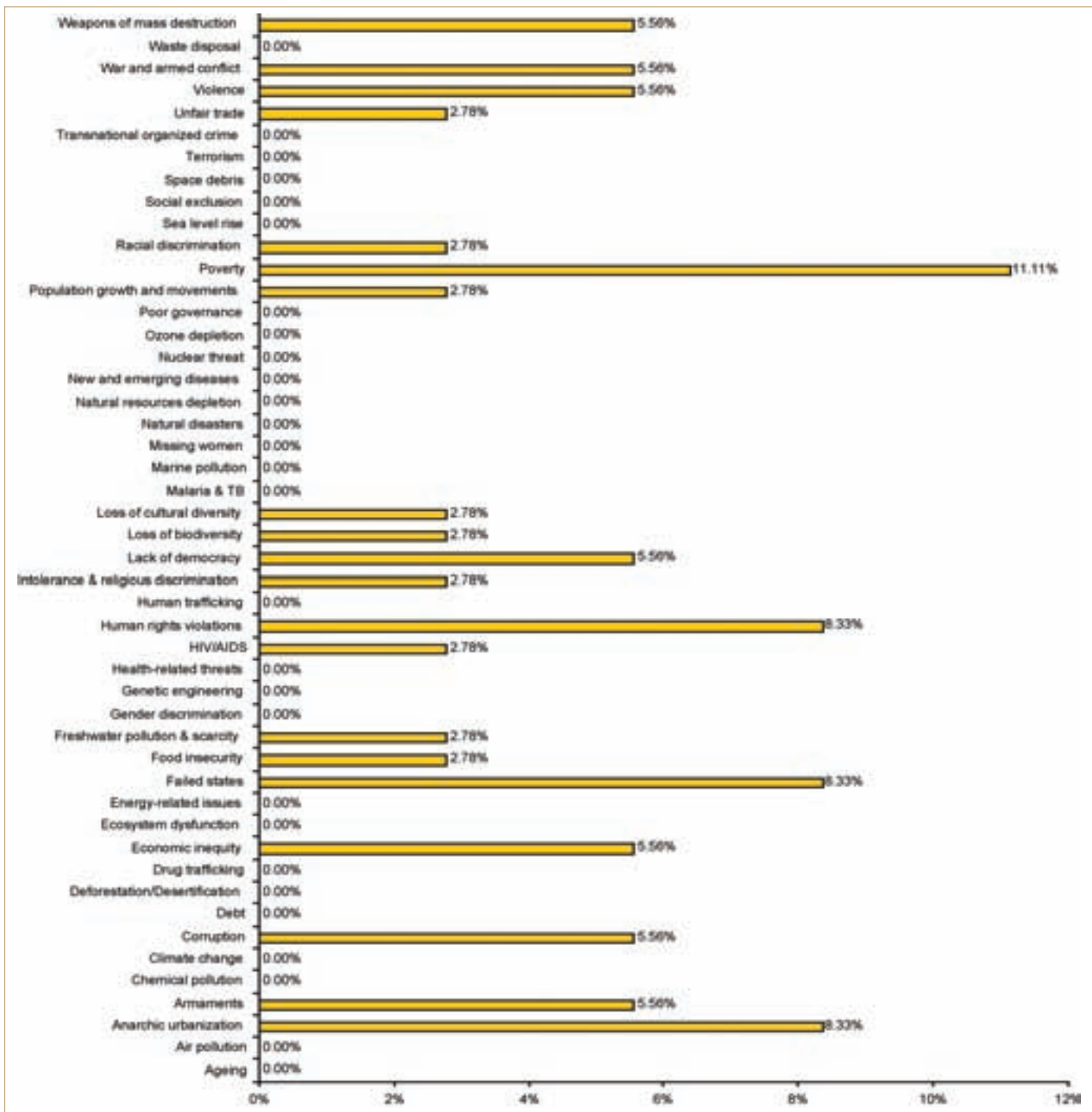
lack of democracy and corruption (Figure 8). An interesting point is that experts on the European region underscored poverty and economic inequity, but they also identified a factor that continues to make these threats more severe today: the inequity of resources distribution: 'Poverty in which most of the world lives relative to those of us privileged in the West is the single greatest source of human insecurity. The only way to redress this is to improve the living conditions of the poor, which requires access to resources we are presently restricting to the North. The most appropriate solution to this is thus global redistribution of (relative) wealth,' said a Canadian expert.

An expert on the European region said, 'I believe that poor people are more susceptible to ideology and extremism as a result of desperation and social envy. Poverty is at the basis of "movements of rage" which are combated by wrong methods such as armed intervention against incurably bad nations and groups.'

Poverty again is the main concern for the Arab States (thirteen experts responded to Question 3) which also stressed human right violations, lack of democracy, failed states and anarchic urbanization as issues that deserve to attract worldwide focus (Figure 9). In the context of the

Middle East, experts on the Arab States were mainly worried about the weakness of states and state institutions in providing their citizens with a safe environment: 'War and conflict settings and failed states are situations in which human security is threatened on a constant level; while the state or other governance structures should protect its citizens from threats and insecurity, in conflict and within failed states, individuals are often threatened by the state or state-like actors. If there is no state structure to protect the citizens and provide them with the most necessary social services and infrastructures, the security of the individual is dependent on his social, religious or ethnic affiliation,' an expert explained.

Concerning Latin America and the Caribbean, only nine experts responded, which does not provide sufficient data for a meaningful analysis. Nevertheless, without drawing up a chart, it is possible to note that for this region the two main concerns are poor governance and climate change, followed

by social exclusion, violence and unfair trade. The context in which these worries have arisen was well analysed by a Uruguayan expert: 'After a period of high hopes for sustained and accelerated development, Latin America is becoming once again a highly conflictive region. Endemic poverty and inequity in a number of countries are threatening democratic governance and generating instability and economic and social deterioration. In many countries, increasing disappointment with the lack of positive results from the painful economic and social policies undertaken in the mid 1980s and 1990s is generating social tensions and violence. At that time, the countries of the region made extraordinary efforts to restructure their economies, to reinstall democracy and to regain control of their own destiny from authoritarian regimes that had seriously affected political and social perspectives and prospects. Concern is growing dramatically to prevent the present trends towards increasing violence from reversing the positive developments of the last two decades.' A certain apparent 'human security' due

Figure 10: **Women's** answers to Question 3: List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources.
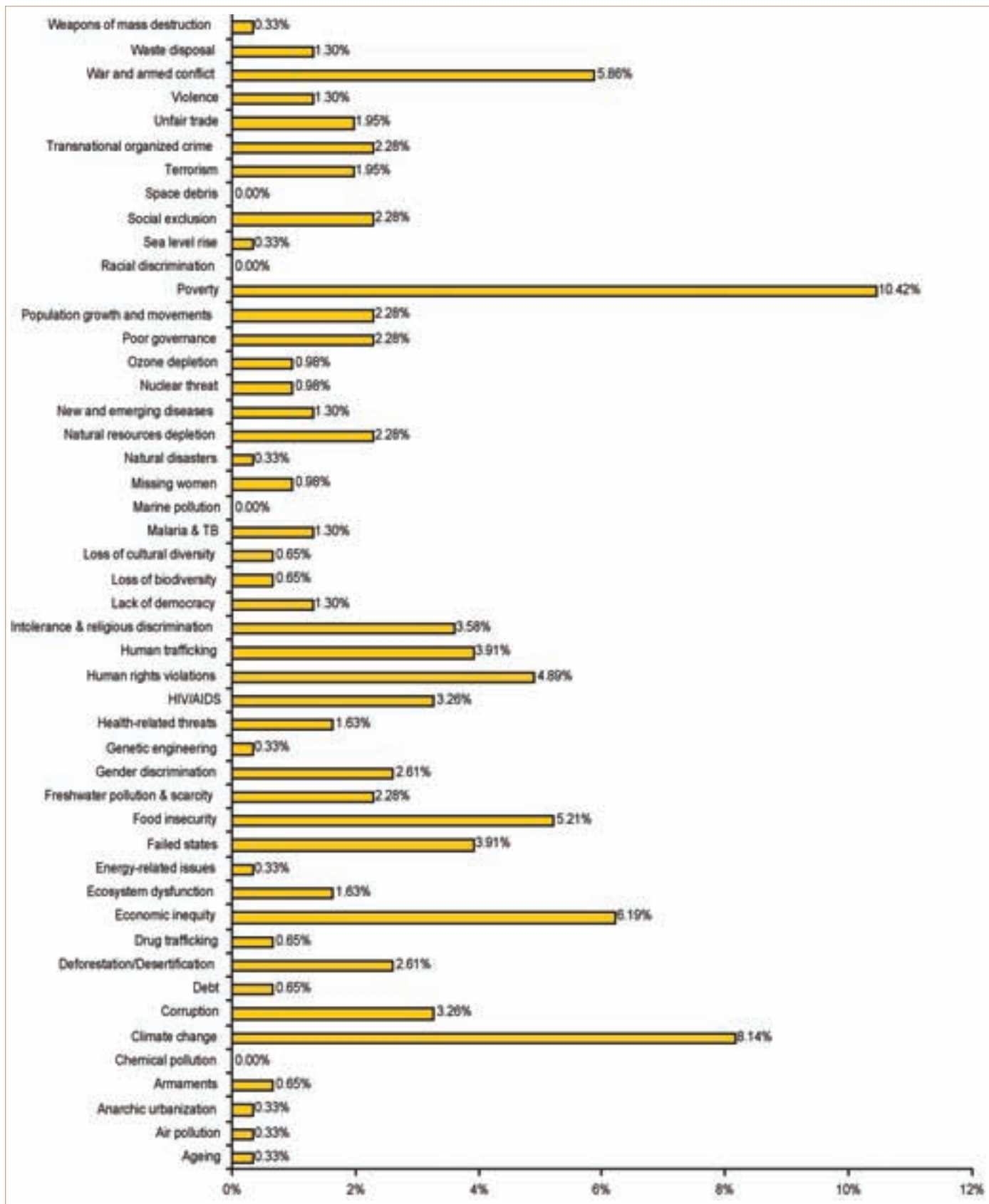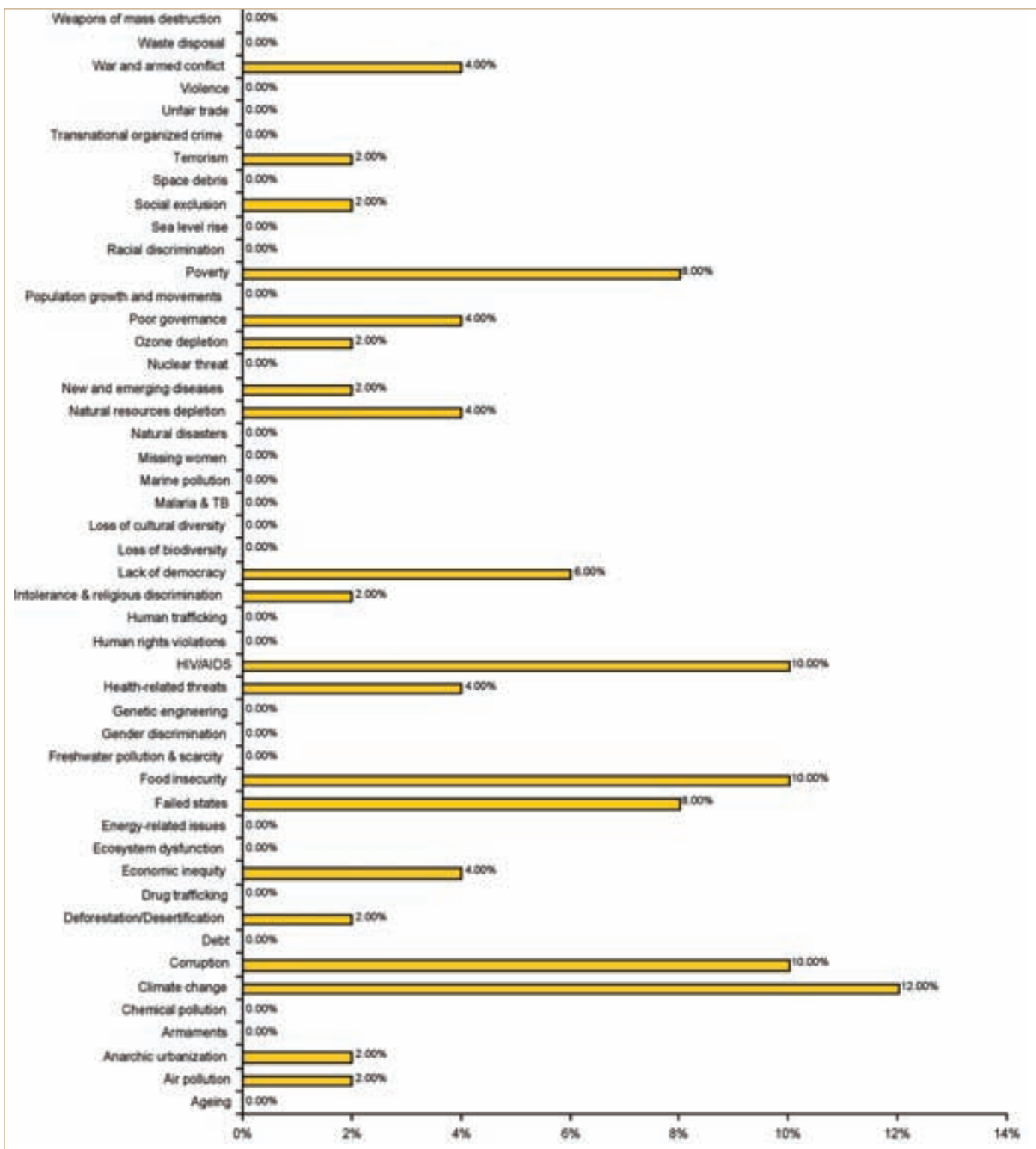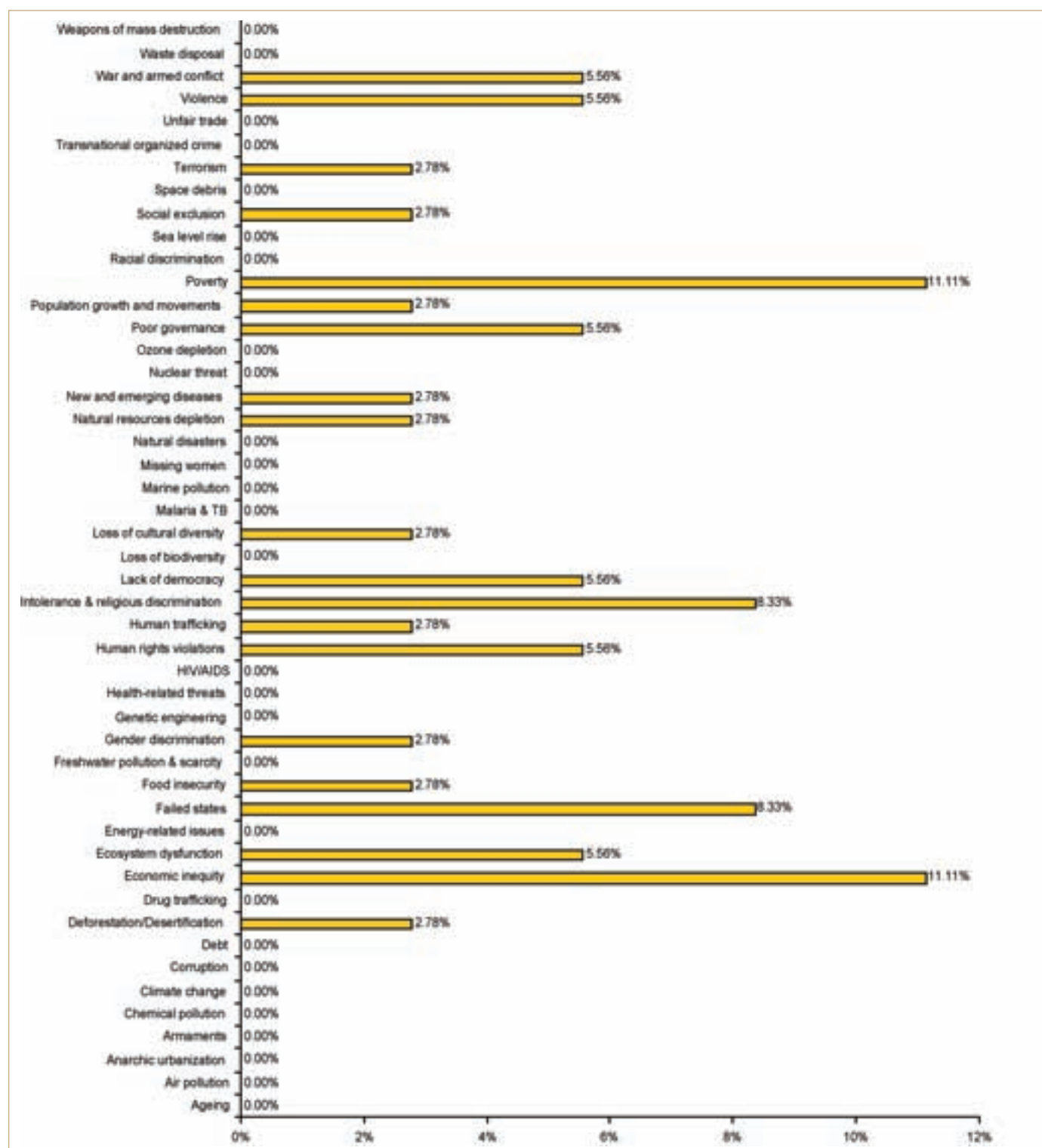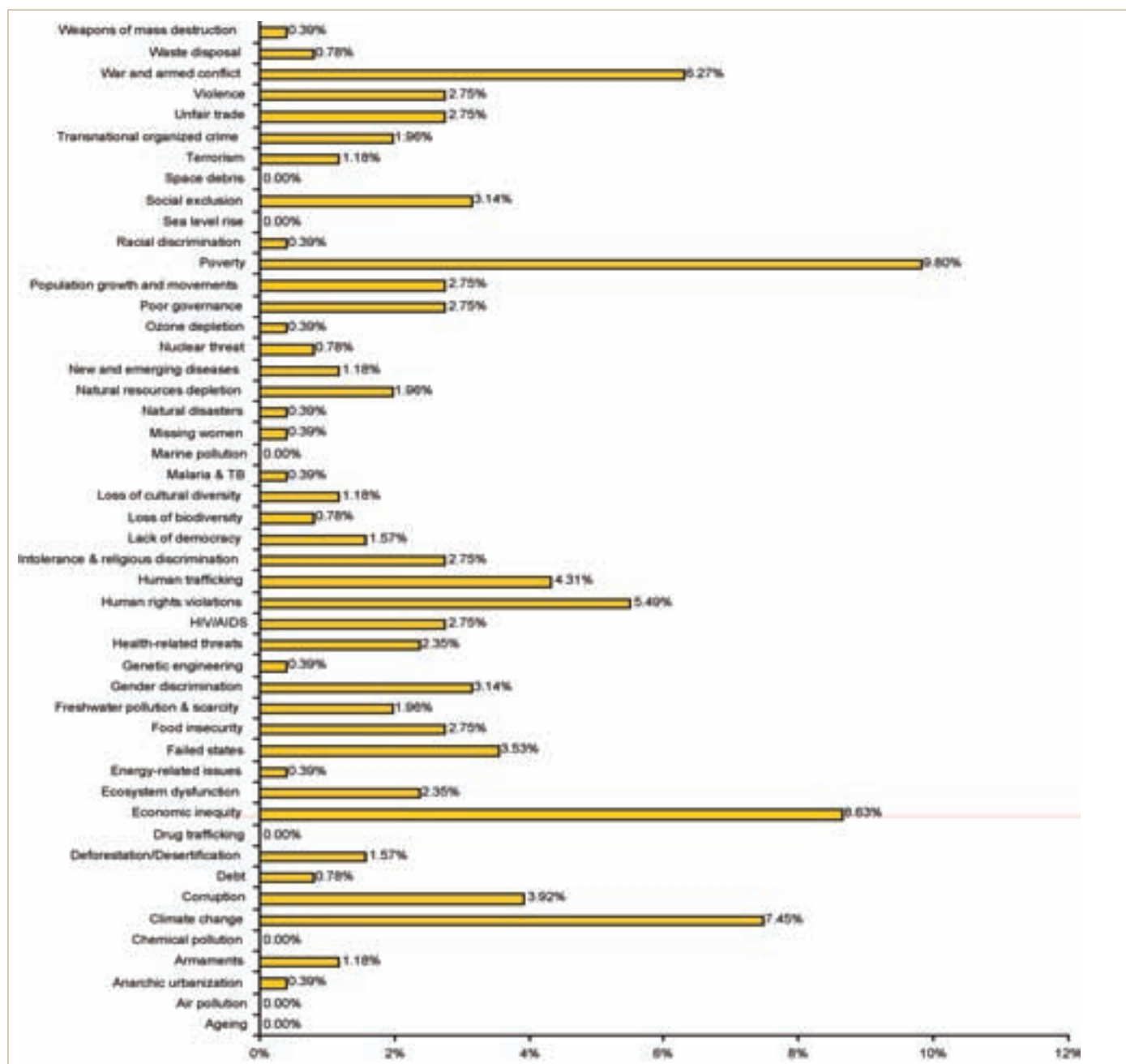
to economic growth cannot be taken as a definitive and solid basis, because human security is a concept that requires the constant and attentive consideration of evolving contemporary realities for permanent prudence.

Human security threats and risks through gender perspective

As pointed out above, human security threats and risks vary depending on their geographical, social and economic context. This is as true of real threats as it is of subjective perceptions of threats: different generations have different views on actual and potential future human security threats. It is precisely through these differences that we have to draw meanings and sharpen our understanding of the problems.

Analysing the perception of risks from a gender point of view is of particular interest, in that the HSQ showed some meaningful divergences. In terms of the human security challenges that experts believe deserve attention, men and women respondents shared a concern for poverty, economic inequality, climate change and human rights violations.

However, there were some slight but meaningful gender patterns (Figures 10 and 11). Significantly enough, gender discrimination was identified as a particular issue of concern by a higher percentage of women. However, there were also less-expected patterns, such as war and armed conflicts, which a higher percentage of women considered as deserving more attention and resources. On the other hand, poor governance was regarded as a severe human security challenge by a higher percentage of men than women. A significantly higher percentage of women considered human trafficking – a phenomenon generally considered to have a gender dimension – to

Figure 11: **Men's** answers to Question 3: List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources.

Human Security: Approaches and Challenges -- Chapter 3
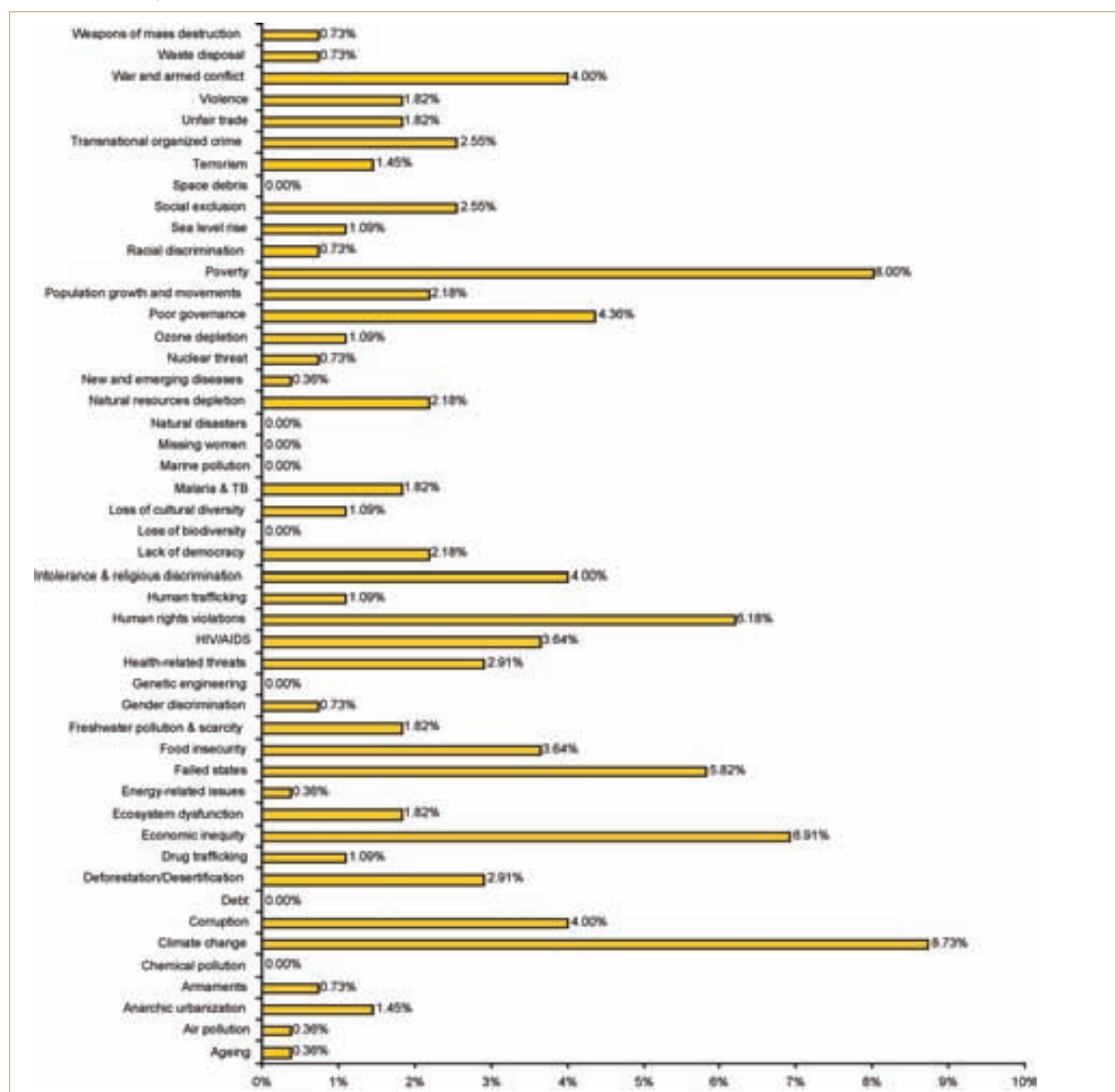
be a human security issue deserving greater attention. Women also focused more than men on economic inequality, although this issue featured significantly for all respondents. These patterns well illustrate the concept of vulnerability of particular human groups such as women, children and migrants. Indeed, if women placed more stress than men did on wars and armed conflicts, human trafficking and economic inequity, it is because they are the very victims of these threats, or at least it is undeniable that they are often, if not always, in a position of passivity in the midst of such threats. In charge of their children's care, women are often direct victims of armed conflicts, but also of their immediate and durable consequences such as migrations, nutritional problems and famine.

Respondents in general felt that climate change and other environmental problems, as well as economic inequality, will become worse human security threats in the future. Some gender patterns are apparent here as well (Figures 12 and 13). Almost no men believed that human trafficking will worsen in future, whereas women highlighted it as an existing and prospective key concern. A higher percentage of women also highlighted the future dangers of population growth and irregular population movements. Following the same patterns, HIV/AIDS worries a significantly higher

Figure 12: **Women's** answers to Question 14: List three human security risks and threats which you think will increase in importance over time.

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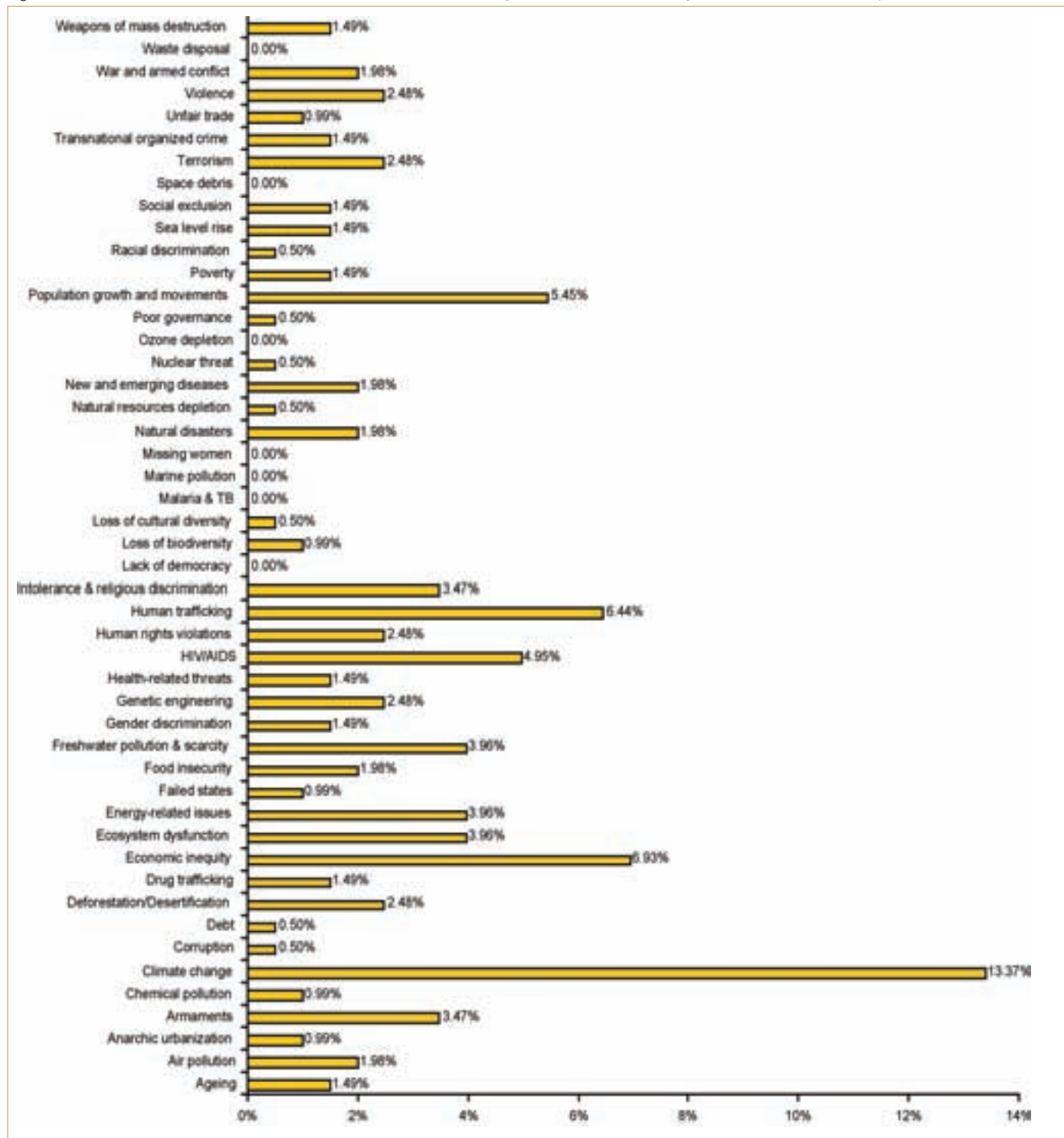
percentage of women. On the other hand, women almost ignored issues such as natural resources depletion, loss of biodiversity and the nuclear threat, whereas a higher percentage of men considered that these problems would increase over time.

The same interpretation is valid here, as women feel more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS, human trafficking, population growth and irregular movements. Another characteristic is that women's concerns are often focused on immediate risks and threats, those which endanger their daily life and that of their family, whereas loss of biodiversity or nuclear threats may seem too distant and thus too abstract.

But this explanation is not satisfactory regarding climate change, which women as well as men identified as a major future threat. We may explain this general worry by the massive media coverage that has been devoted to this problem for several years, which has raised awareness and concern. Another possible explanation is that there are indeed tangible consequences of climate change, at least as explained by the media, such as desertification or sea level rise, which contribute to making this notion more worrying than other natural threats such as loss of biodiversity.

Figure 13: **Men's** answers to Question 14: List three human security risks and threats which you think will increase in importance over time.

Human Security: Approaches and Challenges -- Chapter 3
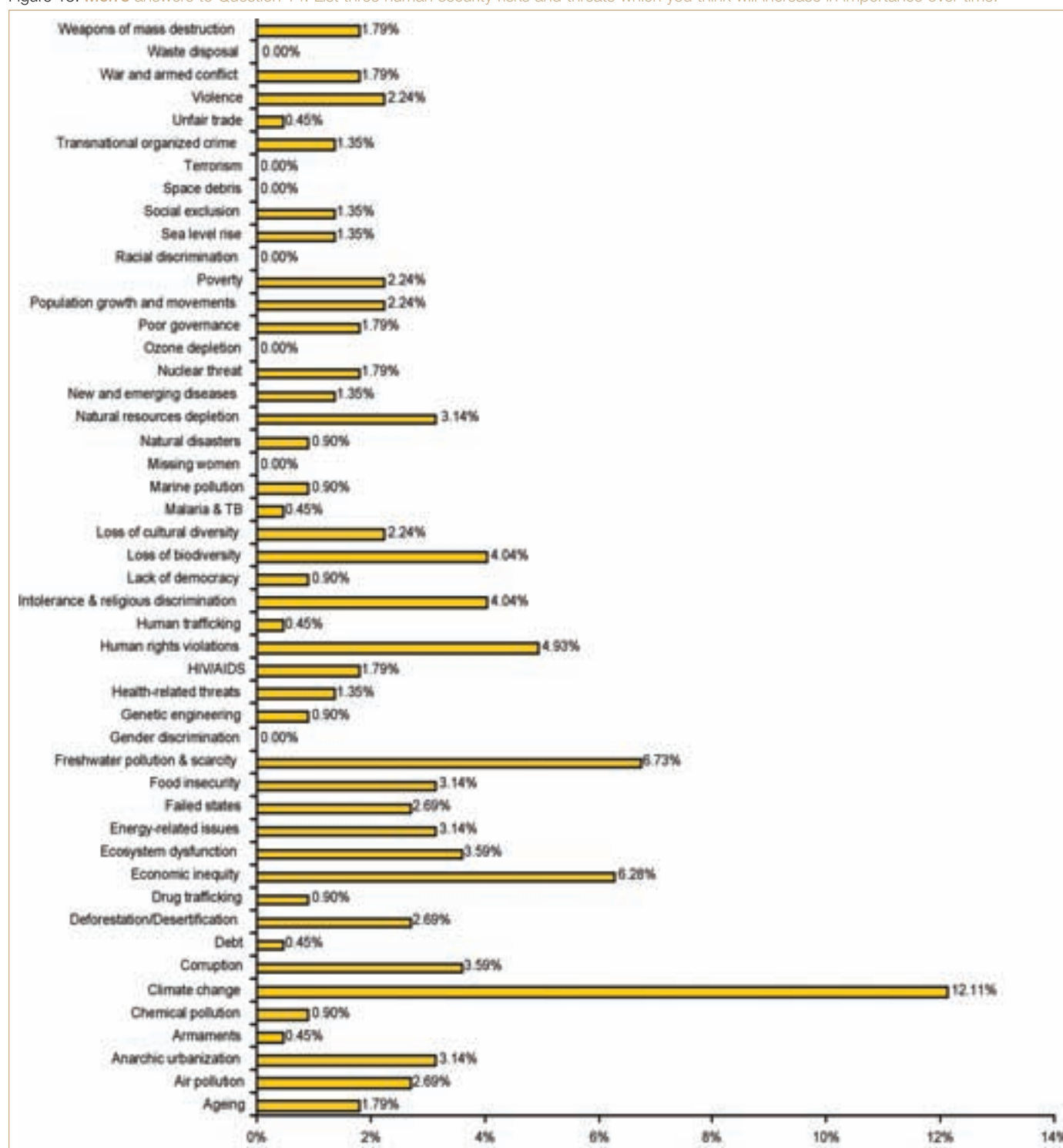
Prospective: What can we anticipate? Is there a 'point of no return'?

Anticipating human security threats

Question 18 of the HSQ asked 'Do you think enough work is being done with the aim of anticipating future risks and threats in the field of human security?'. Figure 14 bears out that a significant majority of respondents (68%) believed that insufficient work is being done to anticipate future human security risks and threats.

The experts in general were pessimistic about future trends in terms of the capacity – and willingness – of national and international actors to respond to human security threats. While anticipation is believed to be quite an important tool in identifying and preventing human security threats, the majority found that little effort has been made in actual policy orientation, either in developed or developing countries.

However, among these negative answers there were some nuances that should be brought out. First, according to some experts, policy is uneven and consists of anticipating some threats while ignoring others that are sometimes more urgent. This is the opinion of a French student: 'In some fields (climate change, for example), I think awareness (and material resources) is growing and preventive actions are starting to be taken. But little has been done to try to reflect on the future of those underdeveloped countries which are becoming poorer and poorer and on the inertia effect of prolonged poverty.' This imbalance is sometimes exacerbated, and unfortunately blinds us to the interconnection of certain threats to human security: 'I believe threats such as terrorism are being anticipated but I do not think the same attention is devoted to issues such as poverty,' said a Senegalese professor of philosophy, religion and logic. This is an indirect questioning of the relevance of anticipating terrorist threats without making sufficient efforts to address and anticipate causes of poverty.

Second, although it was acknowledged that human security issues are attracting more public attention, especially among academics who understand the implications and carry out research on certain specific problems, experts pointed out the lack of communication between the academic milieu and political decision-makers. 'The holistic, systemic and dialectical nature of human security definitions call for the type of studies and research that are becoming increasingly interdisciplinary in nature, there is an intellectual understanding of these issues. However, these do not translate into the type of policy frameworks that would allow for effective instruments to deliver and implement effective solutions in the short term,' remarked an NGO expert on Sri Lanka. This situation of 'chiasm', as a student from the United States put it, is even more dramatic when we know that research is indispensable for

Figure 14. Number and percentage of different answers given to Question 18: Do you think enough work is being done with the aim of anticipating future risks and threats in the field of human security?
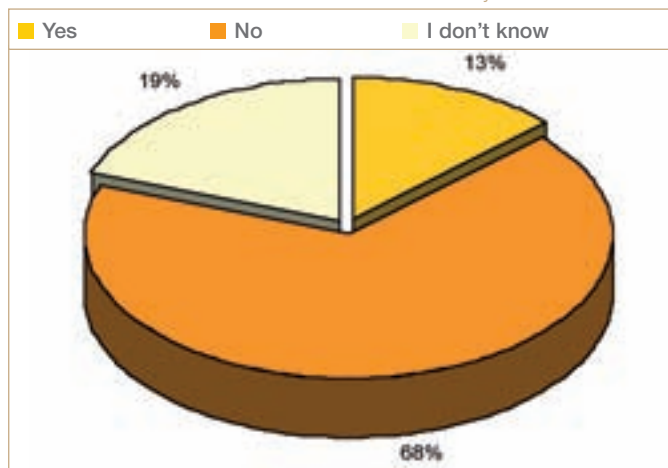

Answers to Question 18	Number of answers	%
Yes	20	13%
No	104	68%
I don't know	30	19%
Total	154	100%

anticipation: 'Often, on the ground in insecure places, there is a "here and now" mindset. Urgency seldom fosters foresight. On the other hand, for academics, time is allocated specifically to dissect these themes. The major divide between the two careers, though, is the *operationalization* of those ideas. Academics are criticized (and I have observed this) for not developing ideas to the point of realization, and thus a chiasm perpetuates.'

Moreover, it is interesting to interpret the non-negligible 20% of respondents who picked the 'I don't know' option. Very often this does not mean lack of knowledge, but a positive option by which respondents wanted to underscore their doubt concerning the notion of 'anticipation'. Should a state be pushed to anticipate future threats while there are actual issues that are undoubtedly of extreme urgency? Does dealing seriously with those urgent threats not constitute the correct way to anticipate? Indeed, as an expert on Cambodia stated: 'Part of anticipating future risk is to understand the causes of present ones. In this respect, we need to learn far more about the underlying conditions correlated with current individual threats, as well as clusters of human security threats.'

But what is all the more interesting is that even among respondents who chose the 'Yes' option, very few firmly stated their satisfaction. Most of them said 'Yes' because they considered that anticipation has been well implemented relative to the restricted relevance of the concept. For example, an expert on Europe and Africa explained: 'I answered 'Yes' [*enough* work is being done with the aim of anticipating

future risks] because according to me, human security must be wary of delving too much into futurology, as the concept is still striving to be understood widely, and operationalized in all its aspects. Understanding interconnections of threats in the present, which do include threats that can and that we know will grow in the future (climate change, rapid urbanization, population growth), needs to be the priority. Understanding the full picture of the present necessarily will make it easier to anticipate future risks to come.' Complementing this opinion, a Tunisian professor of international relations and sustainable development may be quoted: 'We have a fairly good idea of the future consequences of phenomena such as climate change, desertification, pollution, etc. We can also describe (and perhaps even quantify) the consequences of other threats such as lack of health, education and economic growth. The problem is how to convince policy-makers that it is vital to deal with these problems today, even though their impact will become felt after they leave office.'

Thus, for most of the respondents, the matter is not so much about public willingness to anticipate, but about political will to efficiently solve urgent human security threats at the present time, the consequences of which we all know. 'It seems to me that the problem does not lie in what we know or do not know, but whether we have the political will to act on what we already know,' concluded a Canadian expert on international security in Asia and the Pacific.

Aspects of human security needing future-oriented research

In order to improve capacity to anticipate threats, some respondents clearly stated that the international community should focus on determining certain urgent fields that require future-oriented research. Tackling urgent human security threats does not exclude fundamental research, which is considered to be an indispensable knowledge-providing tool.

A great majority of the experts and students, if not all of them, clearly outlined environmental issues as needing highly future-oriented research. Within this field, climate change was often said to be the most urgent issue on which knowledge must be strengthened. Research on climate change must be twofold: a broad vision and a deep-focused research. The broad vision should consist of a wider study on global environmental change that includes climate change, desertification and water scarcity. The deep-focused research should look into precise aspects such as the relation between sustainable agriculture and climate change, the consequences of climate change and human interventions on vegetation fire hazards, risk and danger.

The respondents' concern about environmental threats thus goes far beyond climate change to a greater awareness of the planet's future. Experts and students were unanimous in

considering that further research is still needed even in more common issues such as air and water pollution, or protection of global vegetation cover, to address how to stop or reverse the environmental destruction pollution might cause. Other fields are more specialized, such as the loss of biodiversity or the rise in sea level. Finally, some experts would like the international community to become more deeply aware of the political, social and economic consequences of environmental changes caused by man. Thus, studies are required on the societal impact of global environmental change, and on the threats arising in conflict and post-conflict situations as a result of environmental degradation and natural disasters. This would entail linking environmental threats with political unrest in the world, and should lead, for example, to preventive responses to reduce damage from natural disasters.

The second main concern was for good governance. The experts found that insufficient work has been done in assessing state governance in different countries, and that more assistance should be given to developing countries in which the state is still weak in handling human security threats and risks. Moreover, even in developed countries, research needs to envisage the causes and the manifestations of corruption in public institutions. The corruption issue drew great attention from both students and experts, being seen as the main contributory factor to state failure and poor governance. Respondents showed particular concern for democratic transitions, post-conflict situations and peace, and democratic institution-building: these are delicate situations for a country to handle and research should be undertaken to find better solutions to address what is identified as a crucial transition. Human security will be better ensured if it has a solid foundation, an efficient state able to provide its citizens with welfare, justice and knowledge.

Lack of good governance not only impacts at national level, it can also create international disturbances. For example, some experts thought that North/South inequalities and their imbalanced role in global governance exacerbate human insecurities, and therefore need to be better addressed through specific research. Sanctions and enforcement by the UN Security Council and the international community are another possible topic for research, in order to measure all the negative impacts such an international system can cause in terms of humanitarian problems for civilians. Thus, serious research is required on the interlinkages between international security, state security and human security.

The international political situation goes hand in hand with the international economic structure. There was a unanimous call for further future-oriented research with a view to setting up a 'responsible economy trade', as a Croatian professor of education in human rights and democratic citizenship put it. According to the experts,

policy-makers must take stock of the current economic situation where there is a severe imbalance between northern and southern countries. Research needs to address this structural inequality and find ways to counter the problem, which is not only deepening more and more the gap between rich and poor, but which also can trigger armed conflict, as a British expert on international politics and security studies explained. The final aim of research on the economy must be to develop what a Canadian student called a 'new paradigm' in trade and the financial system, or at least, he added, 'research ambition should aim at proposing ways to control capitalism in order to serve everyone's needs'.

Another economic issue needing future and policy-oriented research is that of sources of energy. Awareness is rising of the necessity to firmly and efficiently handle state policy regarding the available sources of energy: extreme inflation, major economic crisis, and even war are at stake. Therefore serious technical and scientific research is urgently needed on energy-saving devices and alternative resources. This question is particularly crucial for some regions, and in this respect the Tunisian professor of international relations stressed the need to undertake specifically future-oriented research on 'Arab economies after oil'. The Arab region must accord great attention to energy, because oil is not the only resource likely to cause problems in the near future: there are also problems of water scarcity.

The question of poverty of course stems from economic causes, but HSQ respondents suggested another interesting research angle from which poverty can be analysed. One of the numerous conditions for finding 'poverty alleviation schemes', to quote an expert from the United States, is our understanding of the profound relationship between education and poverty. Researchers and policy-makers must act in accordance with their awareness that education, as it has always been the case and is particularly so today, is the only solution for mankind to survive and to overcome severe poverty. Research must therefore make it clear that public investment and state budget cannot be reliable if it does not reflect this awareness.

Some respondents went even further, stressing that as education enlightens minds and counteracts intolerance through mutual understanding, research must be oriented in a holistic perspective, reflecting on the three elements of education, tolerance and poverty. Indeed, there is an undeniable overlap between the three, in that material conditions (economic welfare) are not independent of intellectual behaviour. For example, one expert said that the international community crucially needed 'studies that deal with systemic worldwide racism, as it is overlapping impoverishment'.

The ongoing and accelerating process of urbanization worldwide also demands a valid and strong planning policy.

In developing countries, uncontrolled urbanization often leads to poor living conditions, which then generate social unrest and violence. When asked which human security area needs future-oriented research, many respondents answered with a single significant word, 'violence'. Violence is not conceived as threatening a country, or even as directed by the state towards individuals; it is very often understood as violence between individuals occurring in poor and disadvantaged milieux. Migration is of course linked to this problem, because it exacerbates urban tension. In a sense, human insecurities that can be witnessed in anarchically urbanized areas represent a very meaningful image of the interconnection between all human security components. Populations living in such areas are confronting 'threats arising in urban areas, from crime and breakdown of the rule of law, poverty and lack of access and opportunity, environmental degradation and health effects, etc.', as explained by a Uruguayan lawyer. To summarize, it is in this kind of situation – even though poverty in rural areas must not be neglected – that human dignity is deeply threatened. Future-oriented research is absolutely crucial in this field, because it has to provide decision-makers with efficient tools that allow them to plan and to carry out preventive action.

It is also within this context that health-related issues can be mentioned. It was very clear to all respondents that no compromise must be made on health if we are resolute in addressing human insecurities. Scientific research must continue, especially regarding new and emerging diseases, such as severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) or avian influenza. The international community and researchers also have to take into account the development of new technologies in genetics. These technologies are still insufficiently known, and thus the potential consequences of, for example, genetically modified organisms on human health are unpredictable, which by definition is a human security threat. Strategic research must benefit from this new situation as a policy-oriented reference for the future.

Finally, research must continue on HIV/AIDS. The severity of this epidemic needs to be countered by future-oriented research to find ways to provide universal and affordable access to medicine. In this field, scientific research is not only necessary, but must also transcend economic interests. The same applies to malaria.

The last but not least issue for deep future-oriented research is the loss of cultural diversity. It is significant that this cultural problem strongly drew respondents' attention: in a globalizing world, special care must be given to diversity. The loss of this essential human characteristic is perceived as a fundamental threat, just as loss of biodiversity represents an irreversible threat for mankind. Research in this field must be based on 'intercultural dialogue and understanding', as some experts and students put it, aimed at avoiding homogenization of thought.

For this reason, communication and media studies are indispensable: media monopolies are high risk because a unique voice in information provision can very easily become a means of manipulation.

Is the 'point of no return' concept relevant to human security?

HSQ Question 15, 'Do you think that the concept of a "point of no return" is relevant in analysing human security?' was the most controversial. While bringing out deep disagreement between respondents themselves, it also triggered the most extreme reactions, either in favour of the concept or in absolute opposition to it. However, we should mention that a number of respondents explicitly admitted their unfamiliarity with this term, their doubt as to the implication of such an expression, or even chose voluntary silence as the most appropriate answer. Considering these reactions, we cannot but feel the uneasiness that the question has caused, all the more so in that it was complemented by Question 16: 'List two human security risks and threats that you believe may trigger a "point of no return". How much time do you think we have before we reach the "point of no return"? Twenty years, fifty years, a hundred years?' What is the purpose of the concept: awareness-raising, to frighten people with a purely pessimistic and chaotic vision, or to justify the intervention of certain countries? Is it a scientifically based concept? If it is, how can we measure the 'point of no return'? These are samples of the questions that respondents raised.

Generally speaking, the 'point of no return' or threshold is defined as the limits in human action beyond which damages are irreversible. It is the entry point to a grey area where very little is known about what comes next. To start the discussion, we mention certain respondents who did not hesitate to underscore the absurdity of such a concept: 'From a historical point of view, the idea of a "return" to a previous state of the world is simply absurd. From a moral point of view, the idea that "things were better before" is simplistic and biased. Some irreversible things might be "good" for the human species, others might not be. This is what we must care about,' a French expert explained. Along the same lines, a business management professor from Poland added these details: 'Although a naive "techno-fix" is not acceptable, gloomy forecasts are not authorized either. No return – to what? As a matter of fact, human development is a series of "points of no return". We cannot return to medieval cities, or to wild forests in Europe. But we are surviving. The patterns of survival are just changing.' Taken in a literary sense, the concept of 'point of no return' indeed risks implying a revisionist way of thinking – in this case, human security would be understood as strictly opposed to human development. The implacable alternative would then be either development and progress, or preservation and immobility, which for many is too simplistic a concept.

Against this apocalyptic logic, respondents wanted to keep hoping for a possible brighter future for mankind, because human security, by definition, deals mainly with human and social issues, and 'the social has no precise limit, neither in intensity, nor in time', as a sociologist from Costa Rica explained. Nothing in the social field, according to certain respondents, is irreversible, because 'we can make changes in human behaviour and structures', according to an Indian academic, whereas the Canadian expert mentioned before responded: 'Human beings prove to be quite resilient and innovative. They can rebuild what has been destroyed. As long as there is a will, nothing is irreversible. Even environmental degradation is not beyond repair. State, political and civil society institutions can be built and strengthened to ensure responsible action.' An academic in international politics and security studies finally admitted: 'I am not entirely comfortable with the idea of "irreversible". Surely, all problems can be addressed, and I am not sure it is entirely sensible to think in terms of "too late". In policy terms, I do not think it is helpful to present challenges as a "now or never" thing.'

Respondents also raised the question of whether there is – or can be – the technical possibility of scientifically measuring such a 'point of no return'? Even in terms of climate change, some experts doubt whether scientists can, today and in the near future, precisely predict when the point of no return has been reached. One expert voiced his concern that 'from a scientific point of view, it is difficult to identify points of no return or thresholds. Thus, there is a danger that too much attention and debate could be directed at this exercise rather than actual improvements.' In the same way, a Bulgarian academic in international law said: 'We need to be aware of the dangers of going beyond the "point of no return", but purely academically – how can this point be identified? Is this not a "mirage"? I don't think there is a lack of understanding or lack of desire to establish "thresholds" – the problem is more technical: how can this be done?' He also explained that today, a problem can be considered as having reached a 'point of no return', but after twenty years there might be a cure for this problem. And on the other hand – new major threats may emerge that we have not predicted at all.

Therefore, there is a call from experts and academics that professionals dealing with human security issues should be consistent in the definition, methodology and conceptual handling of this particular term. A French consultant in human security, international relations and political economy formulated this common worry very clearly: 'The concept can be used in regular language, but what it means would be hard to fathom in actual analysis of human insecurities, or degrading human situations and crises. Analytically it seems weak: where would this "point of no return" be? How could it be quantified? In which fields and which areas? It even sounds analytically frightening looking at implications for programming and even beyond that, as it

suggests an inescapable linearity of crises. The only area where this concept might eventually be of use (and this remains to be discussed) is the very specific issue of climate change, and related challenges (desertification or water scarcity to a certain extent), but the numbers and data on such a complex phenomenon as global warming make the idea of figuring out where is the exact "point of no return" more of a scientific wager that can only amount to a waste of energy. It seems also that not only does this idea promote linear thinking but also sees technical and scientific progress as a constant, which it is not. All in all, it is a dangerous concept.' To illustrate what he called the 'uselessness of this concept', the same respondent took the example of food insecurity: can we beneficially apply the concept to such a field? If yes, should the point of no return be 'death through starvation'?

However, it is interesting to note that even among those respondents who expressly rejected the concept, and those who confessed their ignorance of or unfamiliarity with it, many gave answers to Question 16: 'How much time do you think we have before we reach the point of no return [regarding the risks you have listed]? Twenty years, fifty years, a hundred years?'. In almost every questionnaire, 'climate change' is mentioned as the major human security threat to which 'point of no return' is relevant (Figure 15). As seen in one quotation above, if there must be a point on which even reluctant respondents may be ready to compromise, it is about climate change, or more generally natural resources depletion. Taking the concept of 'point of no return' in its literal sense, 'in case of climate change the point of no return has actually already been reached', stated a senior scientist in international policies addressing vegetation fire and related (health, climate) disaster reduction: for him, we only have twenty years to address this major issue.

But for the majority of respondents we may still have, overall, an average of fifty to a hundred years before reaching a critical point. Of course, these forecasts do not claim to be scientifically testified and proven, but they are a means of measuring the awareness and psychological perceptions of experts. Other experts preferred linking the climate change issue to food insecurity, because the condition for measuring the real impact of such a global change is to look at tangible data, such as from agriculture. Indeed, as a German political scientist in international relations explained: 'Both deforestation and desertification reinforce each other. Climate change may make the process of soil erosion irreversible. Deforestation is speeding up the process of climate change and often results in soil erosion (due to wind and water) which reduces the agricultural land and productivity. Thus proactive strategies are needed in dealing with both challenges in the context of a human security strategy that must develop its environmental dimension which has been underrepresented especially in the academic discussion on human security, but also on the past policy agenda of the Human Security Network.' In this specific pattern, when

thinking of climate change in relation to food insecurity, the time left is no longer fifty or a hundred years, but is estimated at around twenty years. This was also the opinion of a Mexican researcher in the field of disasters and risk management, who reflected that 'the model linking climate change with food insecurity shows that in the next two to five decades the main food exporter countries (Australia, Canada, United States) will all experience food insecurity and will need to import. On the other hand, food requires water and is considered virtual water. With higher pollution and more water stress, highly vulnerable social groups will be severely affected by food scarcity and urban poor are especially exposed.'

The last point leads to the problem of natural resources depletion, also a cause of great concern. With regard to water and oil resources, a Dutch professor of penal law expressly stated: 'The first regional war will be about water, starting in the Middle East and North Central Africa. This will also affect the oil-producing regions. As the struggle for material growth and welfare will continue unremittingly, the oil depletion will be reached in fifty years, but before that time pulling strings to get hold of the last resources will have begun between big countries with big economies.' There is no doubt that with continued population increase there will be growing pressure on natural resources. Even with technological change, according to some, the pressure will lead to the depletion of valuable resources including fossil energy, forests and safe water. The energy issue is also concerned with overpopulation and ecology, regarding which a consultant on peacebuilding and human rights gave twenty years before 'damage to the ecosystem might entail risks and threats, like desertification or the rise of the sea level, which will make it more or less impossible to survive in certain areas of the world. This will cause migration flows to other areas, where all the displaced have to be integrated, as return is no longer possible.' To sum up, the above-mentioned Dutch professor stated: 'Materialism will be psychologically and sociologically irreversible. With ongoing materialism, a violent scramble for the last spoils is bound to break out'; and an Italian strategic analyst concluded: 'If we do not discard the consumerist paradigm, we are bound to destroy in an irreversible way the ecosystem. Rich countries must drastically cut their consumptions. Energy is fundamental for advanced and developing societies, but its waste is a threat literally for our children. Our energy resources are for the moment finite and in most cases non-renewable. Before technology comes with some answers, we need to economize along all the chain.'

The 'point of no return' concept is also perceived as an operational analytic tool in the social sciences. First, experts pointed out economic inequity and social exclusion, which are identified as a major cause of political instability in the long term. As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, poverty and economic inequity were among the most worrying human security concerns for HSQ respondents,

Category	Percentage
Weapons of mass destruction	0.85%
Waste disposal	1.71%
War and armed conflict	3.42%
Violence	1.71%
Unfair trade	0.00%
Transnational organized crime	1.71%
Terrorism	0.85%
Space debris	0.85%
Social exclusion	1.71%
Sea level rise	0.00%
Racial discrimination	0.00%
Poverty	3.42%
Population growth and movements	0.00%
Poor governance	0.00%
Ozone depletion	3.42%
Nuclear threat	5.13%
New and emerging diseases	0.00%
Natural resources depletion	4.27%
Natural disasters	0.85%
Missing women	0.00%
Marine pollution	0.85%
Malaria & TB	1.71%
Loss of cultural diversity	0.85%
Loss of biodiversity	3.42%
Lack of democracy	0.85%
Intolerance & religious discrimination	0.85%
Human trafficking	0.00%
Human rights violations	0.85%
HIV/AIDS	0.85%
Health-related threats	0.00%
Genetic engineering	1.71%
Gender discrimination	1.71%
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	8.55%
Food insecurity	0.00%
Failed states	1.71%
Energy-related issues	5.13%
Ecosystem dysfunction	5.13%
Economic inequity	0.85%
Drug trafficking	0.85%
Deforestation/Desertification	4.27%
Debt	0.00%
Corruption	0.85%
Climate change	22.22%
Chemical pollution	0.00%
Armaments	0.85%
Anarchic urbanization	2.56%
Air pollution	3.42%
Ageing	0.00%

and this also is reflected in Questions 15 and 16 about the 'point of no return'. With regard to these questions, the expert from Costa Rica quoted earlier proposed a meaningful analysis of his region of expertise: 'In regions such as Latin America, far sooner than expected, the lack of attention regarding problems of poverty and inequity will link itself with problems of political and economic instability, which will harm people's quality of life further. The region not only will pass aside prosperity, but it will fall, periodically, into economic and political crises of considerable severity. There will be impacts, for sure, but in an atmosphere of permanent instability.' According to him, we only have twenty years before this situation of uncontrolled social transformation reaches a 'point of no return'.

In the political field, concerns have also been manifested about two of the principal human insecurities: violence, the lack of democracy and failed states. We quote only some of the responses here. For a Tunisian expert on Africa and the Arab States, 'In the Arab region, rejection of authoritarian rule is at its peak. Regimes refusal to institute reforms and peoples' demands for such reforms have triggered violence in

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many countries, and more violence is on the way. Alas, we do not have twenty years at our disposal before violence becomes even more hideous than now, and the consequences of such uncontrolled violence are for anybody to guess.' In other words, when violence stems from the lack of democracy, it becomes a structural violence that not only affects individuals, but also the society and the region as a whole. As such, it may be considered a 'point of no return', in the sense that deeply rooted violence and hatred are hardly – if at all – repairable because they are transmitted from generation to generation. Thus, respondents perceived as very short the length of time during which violence, if not addressed at its political root cause, risks becoming a structural problem.

Therefore, countries need to show strong political commitment to act urgently as soon as social, political or economic unease is felt. As far as violence is concerned, there is no doubt that an immediate reaction is needed, as explained by a Sudanese professor of development studies: 'In both cases – violence and failed state – the "point of no return" can in fact come much faster than the time suggested (twenty, fifty or a hundred years). This is based on the example of Darfur and Somalia. It is less than five years in Darfur that this point is already emerging and it took the same time in the case of Somalia.' To demonstrate that the 'point of no return' concept is also relevant to the field of social sciences, another persuasive example may be mentioned. This was given by the consultant on peacekeeping and human rights already quoted: 'There is surely also a

tendency that not only biological, chemical and physical phenomena are irreversible, but also socio-cultural changes. The socio-psychological damage on whole generations of children deployed as child-soldiers might in some cases be near to irreversible as well.' If natural change is irreversible, neither must we forget that drastic changes and traumas on the human mind can sometimes also be a definitive 'point of no return'.

To sum up, even though the 'point of no return' concept has been quite a criticized and controversial concept for the reasons we have discussed above, at least it has one virtue in the field of human security. It makes us aware that as far as humanity is concerned, any change and improvement is possible if there is a will to always measure our actions in the light of a long-term, overall vision. As a professor in the field of climate change and human adaptation succinctly explained, the concept 'does draw attention to the reality that we may be moving increasingly away from the type of society and world that many people want to create, and that the farther we go, the more difficult it may be to change direction. Actions have consequences, and some of the consequences of today's actions may limit options for future development, or set societies back in terms of the capacity and resources to achieve outcomes that are desirable in terms of human security.' To achieve this objective, international institutions must work to set up useful indicators that take into account both regional specificities and universal norms, but these indicators also have to be comprehensive and cross-sectoral.

Strategic approaches and policy tools

The HSQ attempted to establish whether experts and academics were satisfied with the way that human security has been dealt with since the concept emerged. It also suggested that the respondents should make their own proposals on which approaches could be better implemented. The term 'approach' has been used instead of 'solution', for example, because human security, as a concept whose strength lies in allowing a broad and wide-ranging understanding of human realities, should be addressed and analysed with an open mind, and flexible and inventive means. A wide range of responses was indeed given to what may be called methodological questions, discussing the best approach to particular characteristics of human security.

Adopting an interdisciplinary approach through the Millennium Development Goals

The HSQ illustrates very wide agreement on a number of principles for addressing human security challenges. These

challenges have multiple and interrelated causes and therefore solutions must be interdisciplinary, embracing a wide range of actors. There is overwhelming agreement that, while the holistic aspect and non-fixed definition of human security is a problem that continues to draw criticism and doubt as to the efficacy of the concept, it is precisely its breadth and multidimensionality that make it relevant. Several respondents pointed out the epistemological impossibility of isolating the promotion of human rights, for example, from human development: if we want human rights, we must also relieve human poverty. This interdisciplinary and inclusivity are at the very heart of the human security concept. In this perspective, it is 'an integrative approach that brings together the multiplicity of challenges faced by individuals and communities and as such recognizes the interlinkages between security, development, and human rights', as defined by a German expert on the Arab States.

Thus, as an expert on Africa and Europe stated: 'Interdisciplinary approaches are crucial simply to make

Question 6			
Which approaches and policy tools do you think can best address human security risks and threats? (number of answers per category and per choice)			
	1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	10th choice
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Normative approach	25	14	12	27
Precautionary approach	15	13	10	18
Ethical approach	14	22	21	17
Interdisciplinary approach	36	23	12	11
Regional networking	12	21	22	9
Human security indicators	17	18	34	12
Alert system	8	17	11	21
Advocacy	3	6	19	20
Education	38	17	19	2
Training	4	15	9	21
Total	**172**	**166**	**169**	**158**

sure of addressing all issues, surveying all interconnections, and most importantly, doing no harm when trying to do good. Single-focus approaches can be important, but coordination or integration, when it is possible and beneficial, is most important. This is particularly true when dealing with complex issues, which is specifically the aim of human security, because human security is a complex concept, and a complex objective to operationalize, implement and reach.' For some experts, this even implies revising certain aspects of the UN global approach to human security, particularly within the framework of the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), as we examine below.

Furthermore, when asked which approaches and policy tools they think can best address human security risks and threats, respondents preferred 'education' and 'interdisciplinary approach' as first choice, whereas a 'normative approach' is controversial as it is perceived both as important (see 1st choice; Figure 16) and less relevant (see 10th choice; Figure 16). To justify this deliberate choice, respondents most commonly argued that at present there is no time to debate the definition or the normative criteria; the international community has to focus on adopting a specific policy based on an interdisciplinary approach. In other words, the normative approach was perceived as too theoretical and abstract, and criticized by a number of respondents as neither the most apt nor the most appropriate way to deal with severe and urgent issues.

On the other hand, the interdisciplinary approach is understood as a complete solution-oriented approach which is inclusive of cultural, social, economic, political and environmental considerations of human security, while education is considered as the main priority in the quest for awareness-raising and responsibility-building. As the Dutch professor of penal law explained, we need to set up 'education and public awareness concerning the threat emanating from the over-exploitation of the Earth. Changes in public values and social distinctions are imperative: having a bigger car and a larger house is no longer "chic". This implies a huge educational investment, if possible at all.'

Another element that shows the importance given to the interdisciplinary and educational approaches is the respondents' answers to Question 21: 'Do you think that the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are tackling major human security risks and threats efficiently?'. Interestingly enough, it is through the lens of 'interdisciplinarity' that respondents analysed the MDGs efficiency. On the one hand, and in a very meaningful way indeed, a Jordanian economist answered that the MDGs are efficient 'because they tackle the basic rights/needs of education, health, employment and standard of living'. In saying this, this respondent stressed that without a global and comprehensive approach, the implementation of human security could not succeed. For other respondents, there is still a need to complement the existing goals with 'important issues such as governance, political rights, cultural rights and diversity, and solidarity between peoples', as one expert put it, so that policy-makers really see the need to work intersectorally.

But, on the other hand, it is just as interesting to note that for some experts the MDGs fail to address human security, because 'even though the MDGs are an important step toward tackling major human security risks and threats, it is insufficient since MDGs are approaching human security challenges in a compartmentalized manner rather than addressing them as interrelated, mutually reinforcing threats and challenges', as an expert on Asia and the Pacific said. A consultant on human security and international policy explained: 'If efforts under each goal do not look across to other efforts on other items of the agenda, then the MDGs are mostly a development agenda rather than a human security one: they cover only "want issues".'

These two contradictory groups of opinions reflect an internal weakness of the Millennium Declaration itself because, according to many respondents, specific actions to implement declared goals have not been proven yet throughout the world. No tangible successful realization of the goals has yet been witnessed, and this is due to the fact that 'too much emphasis has been placed on the goals and not

Chapter 3

enough on the process of *how* to reach them', according to an expert on the European region. For a professor of climate change from the United States, 'Millennium Development Goals are excellent in and of themselves, but the approaches to tackling them require an integrated approach to address multiple threats to human security. Cutting poverty in half will require more than international development aid, but a dramatic change in the way we think about human security and the interconnections between the well-being of individuals.'

Yet these fundamental goals are perceived as a crucial policy tool, as well as important and essential common ground for implementing human security, because while practical means still need to be set up, the international community must agree on an agenda that puts human security threats and risks at the top level of decision-making. Thus, as an expert on the Arab States explained, 'The Millennium Development Goals are a symbolic platform for all of those who are dedicated to make this world a better place. They provide a common language and common goals. And even though they will be very hard to reach, they are easily understandable for almost everybody who reads them.' This opinion was also voiced by the Sudanese professor of development studies: 'The UN intervention in all human security issues is essential and it can only be done by assuring that human security is accepted and worked for by all Member States.' For him, the MDGs substantially constitute the very heart of the concept of human security: 'All the eight goals cannot be achieved when local communities are not in a secured situation; when violence is the order of daily life; when poverty and corruption are dominant in society where the state is failing to protect its citizens and provide them with the necessary means for leading a good life.'

Promoting a regional approach

In parallel with this holistic approach, the HSQ also highlighted the importance of a regional approach in a context where absolutely no country can now claim to master any issue through its own unique means. Any problems relating to human security, not to mention environmental issues, are necessarily transnational problems in the current globalized context. With regard to this conception, an expert from the United States made it clear that 'there has to be recognition that human security in Europe, for example, is closely linked with the security of other areas and regions. Policies and practices have far-reaching effects, linked through globalization processes and environmental change. Not only do Europeans influence the human security of individuals in distant parts of the world, but outcomes in other areas can also influence the human security of Europeans.' Thus, over 70% of respondents to the HSQ without any hesitation accorded a high value to the regional approach (Figure 17), and an additional 24% picked the 'some value' option.

But here again, the practical aspect drew most respondents' attention. How can a regional approach be empowered in order to become a real and efficient tool in dealing with human security issues? This question of capacity-building is constantly emphasized, because there is a consensus that 'UNESCO, with national institutions, should make

Figure 17. Number and percentage of different answers given to Question 9: What value would you attribute to a regional approach to human security?
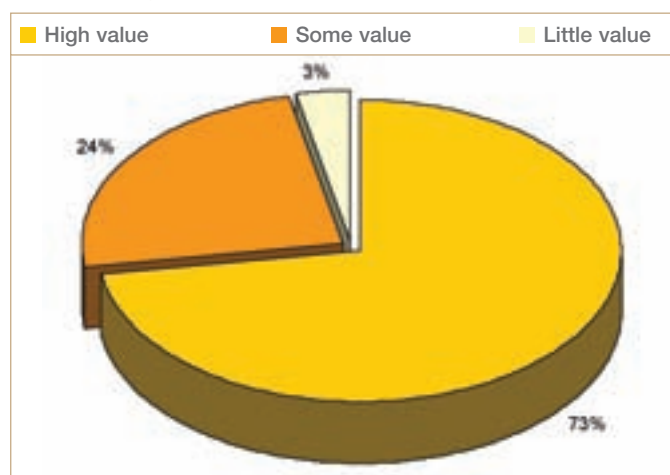
Answers to Question 9	Number of answers	%
High value	129	73%
Some value	43	24%
Little value	6	3%
Total	178	100%

more efforts and put more emphasis on generating knowledge that enable local and national institutions in different parts of the world to deal with the constraints facing these societies; a special effort should be made to acknowledge and integrate the indigenous local knowledge in such activities in order to achieve the desired goals', as stated by the Sudanese professor already quoted.

Although this may be accomplished rather easily by European Union Member States, it remains unclear to respondents as to whether Asia, for example, could implement such an approach, because 'most states in Asia lack the means to do their part to help those in need', according to the above-mentioned Canadian professor of international security. 'But they can work together to form a security community, first and foremost, in order to avoid war or armed conflict. The security community would further allow Member States to promote democracy and ensure economic development. Leading countries like Japan and China can play some type of a leadership role,' he added.

Yet a regional approach to human security inevitably comes up against a political principle on which no state at present would compromise: that of state sovereignty. Indeed, many respondents voiced their concern about the theoretical conflict between these two concepts, and thought that

even though 'a regional approach is extremely important because many of the threats that people face (such as disease, environmental degradation, crime, trafficking and other forms of forced migration, etc.) do not necessarily stop at state borders, it is still extremely difficult to implement because of questions of sovereignty, questions of which national and/or local governments hold responsibility', said an expert on the Asia and the Pacific region. Despite this difficulty, the regional approach definitely retains the attention and conviction of both experts and students, some claiming that this is a false contradiction. As an Austrian student reflected, 'It is the responsibility of states especially towards their peoples deriving from their sovereignty and independence to constantly improve the welfare of their population.'

Another respondent even proposed a solution that precisely inverts the traditional dual perspective of 'state sovereignty *vs* regional approach'. Indeed, an Iranian professor of human security and development explained that 'advocating human security among regional institutions which are best at dealing with regional and local threats will be a means to rally southern countries, for them to get involved with human security as well, so that it does not remain as a question of intervention by northern countries in the name of responsibility to protect. For this, we need to build the capacity of regional organizations, and to conduct cross-regional peer learning so that countries learn about best practices in prevention and coping from each other in developing a curriculum.' Thus, it is precisely by reinforcing and legally empowering regional cooperation that states would, conjointly with their neighbours, become a strong human security actor able to dialogue with the international community on an equal footing. The Iranian respondent added that this awareness would be all the easier to promote as 'some work is already being done in this area for the more obviously transnational challenges, such as HIV/AIDS. So it might be useful to leverage those activities by highlighting their success and impact.'

Empowering civil society

As pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, a well-functioning state is an indispensable element in human security implementation. Furthermore, the majority of HSQ respondents conceived this process as a constant and dynamic dialogue between a well-functioning state with good governance on the one hand, and a strong civil society on the other hand, consisting of academics, NGOs, community leaders, all kinds of associations and practitioners that need to be involved in the dialogue leading to decision-making.

Major significance is thus given to mutual trust between national authorities and civil society institutions. 'When state institutions function well, they are unlikely to break down or adopt repressive means. A mature political party

system also works effectively to represent the interests of individual citizens or human beings. In many countries where poverty remains widespread, civil society organizations must be equipped to help counterbalance the wealthy who tend to pursue their own material interests at the expense of the poor,' as the Canadian expert said. It is also a 'functional', policy-oriented approach that attempts to improve the performance of certain actors within political, legal or practical parameters taken as current realities. According to this approach, the objective should be to generate new policy-relevant insights – for example, how to improve coordination among actors, and how to improve the effectiveness of poverty alleviation. This approach basically accepts the prevailing policy framework and assumptions as reality.

Secondly, there is a 'critical approach', which raises questions about existing policy assumptions and political structure. A UN staff member specializing in international politics and security studies explained that 'whilst structural changes may also be important, the reality is that structural changes (for example, revising the nature of the international economic/trading system; revising the notion of state sovereignty so that states have greater obligations to uphold human rights) are unlikely to occur in the short term. Therefore, people need to address human insecurity themselves – and thus need to be empowered.' Training and awareness-raising are accorded special attention, since they are viewed as the most involving means generated from and within the peoples and communities themselves. In this respect, some experts suggested the idea of an indispensable effort to connect different civil societies in different regions of the world, because they do not necessarily have the same perspective and consciousness in the field of human security. The final aim is, of course, to enable civil society to dialogue and negotiate with decision-makers. For example, as the above-mentioned Tunisian professor of international relations suggested, 'greater involvement of civil society in the North to educate people on the causes and consequences of human insecurity in the South needs to be implemented, so that public opinion/voters in the North put pressure on their elected governments to adopt appropriate policies for achieving human security in the South.'

Finally, the means for doing so could be 'the media, which could play an important role in awareness-raising. Public reaction to the tsunami disaster, for instance, indicates that people are willing to help when they become aware that a problem exists. People should be made aware that millions have been living in tsunami-like conditions for generations,' the same respondent added.

In terms of UNESCO's role in promoting human security, the HSQ suggests strong support for a role which strictly concerns UNESCO's competences. 'Given the complexity of human security it is important for UNESCO (just like any other UN agency) to concentrate on what it does best. This does not mean that no inter-agency and intersectoral cooperation should take place, on the contrary it is essential to coordinate the different approaches to avoid duplication and overlaps and guarantee effectiveness,' an expert on the Arabs States said. This remark was generally supported by all the HSQ respondents, maintaining that as UNESCO's mandate covers fields that are tremendously important for human security preservation, the Organization must concentrate on its unique and specific tasks. But, as shown in the following development, these competences are sometimes conceived in a far broader sense than usually understood.

Tackling the root causes of human insecurity: intercultural dialogue

Many respondents insisted that in tackling the human security issue, UNESCO must make clear to every stakeholder that its added value is the capacity to thoroughly understand the root causes of human security, and not simply to ease its consequences and manifestations. In other words, UNESCO must prove itself as an intellectual reference that helps other organizations to improve the conditions of living, thinking and acting. As a Serbian jurist in public and international law put it, 'UNESCO is uniquely qualified to approach the questions related to human security in a manner unrelated to the traditional concerns with violence. In other words, UNESCO can deal with what some people call "structural violence", namely the result and petrifaction of former violence. This is located in the minds of men and therefore an organization which from the beginning has been committed to combat the idea of war in the minds of men should also have a mission of dealing with problems of structural violence.'

There is a high awareness that human security, as a reality-based and inclusive concept, requires a deep understanding of all its implications for peoples, and that the implementation of this concept cannot be possible without involving the peoples themselves, through dialogue and exchange of experience. In this respect, the above-mentioned US professor of climate change went as far as talking about the 'spiritual approach' that UNESCO should promote when dealing with human security. According to him, a spiritual approach to human security 'draws on wisdoms that cut across religions, focusing on personal development and psychological development. The notions of "us versus them" and "ally versus enemy" are at the heart of the "freedom from fear, freedom from want" definition of human security, and these cannot be addressed through normative and ethical approaches alone, or only through increased economic or social development. The threats to human security that are outwardly visible represent internal beliefs and values, and transforming these beliefs and values to foster tolerance of diversity and recognition of the interconnections among people and places will require both internal and external transformations.' For the majority of experts, there is no possible doubt that human security is one of the cultural and intellectual challenges facing our world today. An Iranian professor specializing in the European region called it an 'asymmetry that exists in terms of voices, choices and opportunities for people, whether they live in industrialized societies or developing ones'. Thus, 'UNESCO is in a position to highlight cultural and social asymmetries that exist among people, nations and regions in general, which are at the root of more specialized and concrete problems such as poverty, unemployment, human rights violations, etc. These however can be dealt with through more specialized agencies, with UNESCO providing the moral and normative framework,' she added. On the long run, it is UNESCO's role to address the intolerance and religious discrimination generated by mutual ignorance.

In this perspective, the term 'dialogue' was often used by respondents, as the most accurate means to reach people's intellect and way of thinking. Dialogue was also considered as a solid tool for understanding the fundamental causes of world conflicts. As a researcher explained, 'UNESCO's role in furthering the cause of human security should perhaps lie in advocating a comprehensive approach to furthering the security of the individual. This entails advocating the need to link security with development concerns, and promoting dialogue and understanding across ethnic, cultural and religious divides – thereby tackling the root causes of conflict.' What is at stake precisely is the challenge UNESCO has to take up in raising awareness that our world nowadays is a community village. In other words, 'UNESCO may be in a position to address the root causes of insecurity and to use its resources to promote cultural and religious exchange that may foster a greater sense of community, and fight real or perceived inequalities and prejudices', as a Canadian professor of security studies and global governance detailed.

But what forms can UNESCO's specific initiatives take? Respondents strongly expressed their concern that UNESCO should fulfil its mandate in setting up favourable conditions for all aspects of education. Education not only has to be universal; it also has to be oriented in a certain way so that children and young people care for peace and fundamental human values. Indeed, UNESCO must, according to the above-mentioned Croatian professor, tackle 'marginalization of critical discourses in education and training', as well as having a duty to put in place 'education

for human rights, democracy, citizenship, pluralism and peace … because neoliberalism (coupled with conservative tendencies and *technocratism*) is seriously threatening education. The process of acquiring new knowledge and skills is becoming more and more chaotic, flat and deprived of productive insights and criticism. Education is becoming less and less a universal human right. It has been turned into a mere instrument for meeting market needs – a commodity.' In other words, UNESCO must serve as a monitoring unit in the field of education, taking negative measures of defence, but also adopting positive measures in putting in place new and enriching disciplines. For example, as an Indian professor of international security suggested: 'UNESCO should do something about teaching human security and good governance in schools and universities. It must ask governments to improve civic education and an understanding of world politics.'

The proposition regarding civic education deserves closer attention as far as UNESCO's competence is concerned. This discipline teaches students about political mechanisms, institutions, and citizens' rights and duties in their own country and society, but also in countries different from theirs. To put it another way, if the civic education curriculum is well built and taught, this discipline can determine human behaviour in the context of state institutions as well as in civil society, through deeper understanding of what is at stake in worldwide issues such as human security. But which organization can help national authorities in implementing this topic, if not UNESCO, 'which constituency, if we can call it so, is different from the constituencies of other international organizations and is thus closer to the realm between the government and the citizens, which is usually neglected by the members of the executive who normally provide the bulk of members of government in international organizations?', asked the Serbian jurist already mentioned. Because UNESCO promotes scientific knowledge at large and responsible civic attitudes, it can best help to empower citizens to become active in current world challenges at both national and international level.

Strengthening education, training and research

The areas of education, training and research appeared as the three pillars of UNESCO's legitimacy in the field of human security. Through them, the Organization can incontestably prove its added value. When asked to develop views on UNESCO's future action in the field of human security, the above-mentioned Uruguayan lawyer significantly quoted the former president of Peru, Alejandro Toledo, on challenges for Latin America and the Caribbean region: 'It is not enough only to build schools, roads or bridges to inaugurate, place a plaque and show up in newspapers. The challenge to political parties and their leaders is to invest aggressively in the minds of the people. I know that investing in education is not very attractive, because it offers a medium and long-term return. But there is no
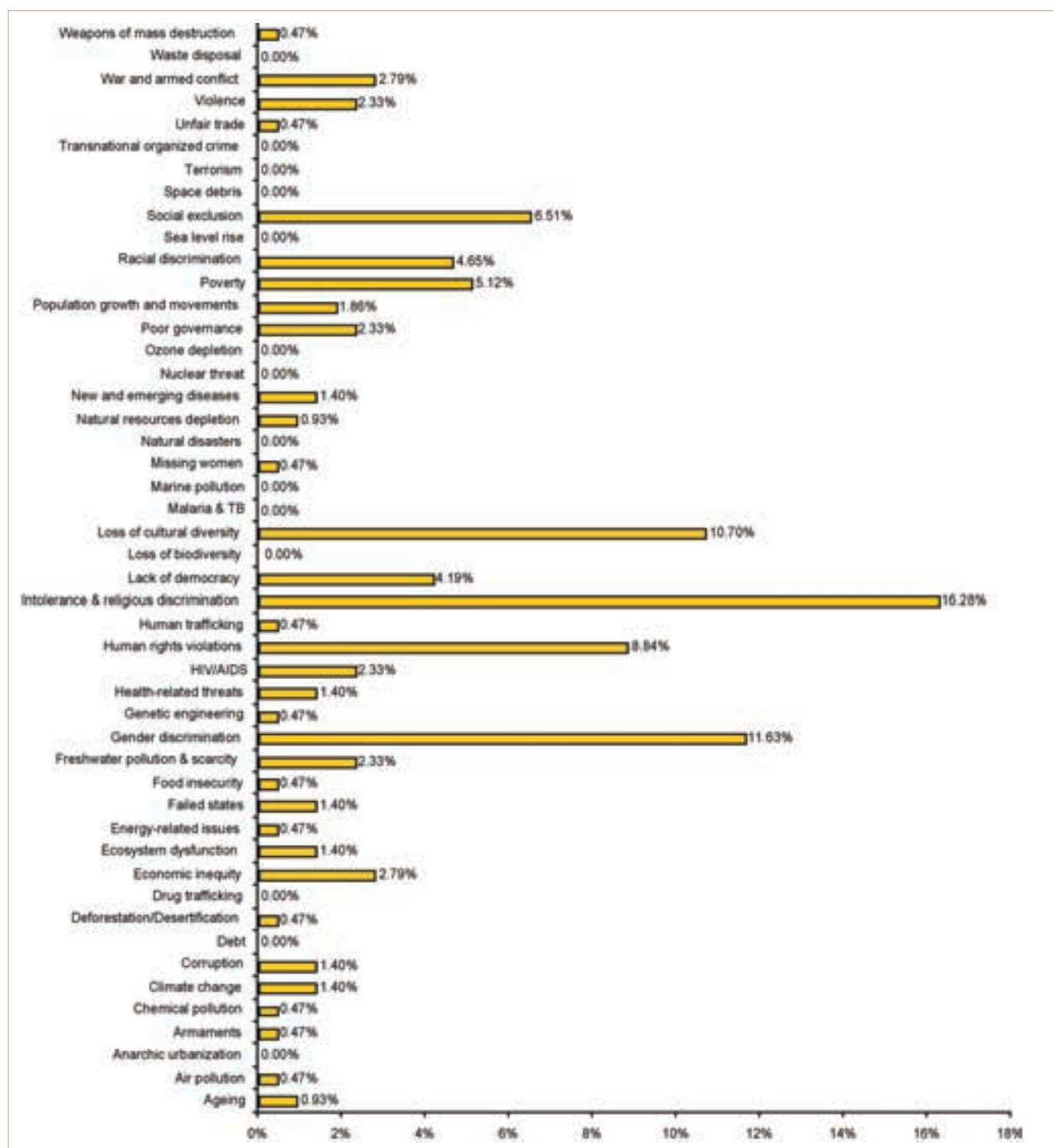
alternative.' UNESCO's mandate is, according to every expert, to intervene in the educational field in order to address human security threats in a somewhat 'indirect' way. Bearing this in mind, and recalling Figure 16 that showed the percentage of answers regarding the best approach to address human security risks and threats, with 'education' as first choice, we can imagine the important role that UNESCO can play.

First, education can help to build general awareness of the concept of human security: there has to be what one expert called 'global advocacy, promotion and awareness-raising *for the concept itself'*. Even though many criticisms have arisen concerning the theoretical definition of the human security concept, and thus the absence of specific action in the field, UNESCO has to maintain its intellectual work on the conceptual aspect as part of its awareness-raising duty. To succeed in this task, UNESCO must also ensure, 'at country level, training of trainers and teachers in order to sensitize the concerned populations regarding the threats to human security and their root causes', the same expert added. Still, as specified by another expert on Indonesia, this training has to 'move beyond the rhetoric of human security and to develop the concept through applications and examples. UNESCO is in the position to help frame many of the risks facing individuals and communities as threats to human security, and to draw attention to the wider implications for collective society.'

The question of setting up specific curricula is crucial, especially because among its duties UNESCO must address issues for which there is no unique or 'scientific' solution, such as problems of intolerance, discriminations and violence. Indeed, to Question 22, 'List three human security risks and threats which you think UNESCO is well positioned to address', a majority of experts and students replied loss of cultural diversity, intolerance and religious discrimination, human rights violations and gender discrimination (Figures 18 and 19).

Furthermore, UNESCO's field of competence in dealing with human security issues is not restricted to what is commonly referred to as the social and human sciences. For example, it is significant that a much higher proportion of the students, in contrast to the experts, considered that addressing climate change also comes within UNESCO's remit. They may have thought that what the experts considered a natural science matter, viewed from the strictly scientific perspective, is also primarily a problem that requires education and awareness-raising. Of course, global warming and climate change must be addressed by scientists and laboratories; but if public concern and understanding about the issue are not promoted through a policy of sensitization, the natural sciences would be of no impact at all. 'Education empowers people to make changes and to improve their situation, but it also informs them about risks and threats they might not know about,' as an Austrian student said.

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Lastly, at regional and local levels, training programmes and education should 'form and train members of civil society, academics and government representatives on themes of negotiation and conflict prevention or other specific issues of the human security agenda within a particular region (arms trafficking, governance of the security sector and institutionalization, etc.)', according to a Chilean journalist specializing in international relations and security.

To address human security risks and threats such as climate change, but also other social threats, UNESCO has the duty, according to the HSQ respondents, to conduct and encourage applied research leading to specific results. Research is viewed in tandem with education, as far as UNESCO's mandate is concerned. An NGO member explained that 'the most powerful tool at UNESCO's disposal is its ability to convoke interested parties to facilitate dialogue, discourse, research and action'. He added: 'In my mind UNESCO is the "curator" of the human race, and as such should use its power to foster the generation of new knowledge by helping frame the agendas for research, to facilitate dialogue through linkages of

Category	Percentage
Weapons of mass destruction	0.45%
Waste disposal	0.00%
War and armed conflict	0.90%
Violence	0.00%
Unfair trade	1.36%
Transnational organized crime	0.00%
Terrorism	0.45%
Space debris	0.00%
Social exclusion	7.24%
Sea level rise	0.00%
Racial discrimination	3.62%
Poverty	4.07%
Population growth and movements	1.81%
Poor governance	4.07%
Ozone depletion	0.45%
Nuclear threat	0.45%
New and emerging diseases	0.45%
Natural resources depletion	1.36%
Natural disasters	0.90%
Missing women	0.90%
Marine pollution	0.00%
Malaria & TB	0.90%
Loss of cultural diversity	9.05%
Loss of biodiversity	0.90%
Lack of democracy	1.36%
Intolerance & religious discrimination	9.05%
Human trafficking	2.26%
Human rights violations	6.33%
HIV/AIDS	3.17%
Health-related threats	1.81%
Genetic engineering	1.81%
Gender discrimination	9.95%
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	1.36%
Food insecurity	3.17%
Failed states	1.36%
Energy-related issues	1.36%
Ecosystem dysfunction	0.90%
Economic inequity	3.62%
Drug trafficking	0.45%
Deforestation/Desertification	0.90%
Debt	0.45%
Corruption	1.36%
Climate change	4.98%
Chemical pollution	0.00%
Armaments	2.26%
Anarchic urbanization	1.36%
Air pollution	1.36%
Ageing	0.00%

people and resources, and to foster educational programming that can help disseminate knowledge and information.' Intersectoral research and networking (in partnership with civil society organizations and regional academic centres) are highly valued, because UNESCO is expected to 'provide a bridge between the academic and policy communities to encourage the development of policy applicable, evidence-based research', to quote a British professor and director of a research institute.

Besides the concern for practical effectiveness of research which needs to be taken into account by politicians in their decision-making, there is another area where UNESCO can play an active role through its engagement in an ethical approach to contemporary problems. As certain experts underscored the worrying gap between developed and developing societies in terms of wealth, education and access to information, similarly some conveyed their concern about the inequity between countries in terms of technology and scientific knowledge. Human insecurity also springs from lack of knowledge of contemporary worldwide problems, or from the feeling of technical incapacity to address them. A German scientist and professor considered it to be UNESCO's duty and capacity

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to promote and monitor 'methods of science and technology transfer for application in local security risk management (prevention, preparedness, suppression, rehabilitation) under different cultural, socio-economic and ecological environments'. Technology and methods of science transfer must not only be operational at international level, but also within a country where communities need to be empowered. UNESCO's work in the normative field of ethics of science and technology is thus called upon to play a leading role: this is indeed about ethics and moral equity for which UNESCO has to arouse the international community's sense of responsibility. No respondent has any doubt that the Organization is capable of taking up such a challenge, precisely because of the normative approach it can legitimately exercise. To put this approach into practice, the same respondent suggested that it set 'training courses for international security risk management specialists, including experts for assessment and intervention missions'.

Setting up regional assessment and Human Security Indicators

From the above, it appears that UNESCO is perceived as a specifically unique international organization within the UN system: one respondent indeed said that it is 'closer to the realm between the government and the citizens'. Moreover, the Organization is considered as the active 'brain' of the UN family, and as such has the duty and credibility to set out standards and norms to inform the general framework for other agencies' work. Indeed, 'UNESCO can support prevention through its capacities for research; and also through peace education, its work on norms and its respected voice can give UNESCO an important role for human security through advocacy and standard-setting', according to the above-mentioned French consultant.

It is from this standpoint that UNESCO was said by a Canadian doctoral student in security studies to be 'uniquely suited and positioned to lead the conceptualization and monitoring of human security policy within the UN system'. On the practical side, this means that 'through a series of regional human security assessments, UNESCO could determine which conditions and in which country should be dealt with by the rest of the UN system, international community and national governments. UNESCO could then monitor the delivery of assistance to each of these threats', the same respondent added. Assessment work at regional level is indeed essential for a clear view of the threats and needs people confront daily in real situations. Through its network of Regional Offices and National Commissions, UNESCO is very suitable to implement this type of action. As the same respondent explained: 'Because human security is such a necessarily broad concept, acting against human insecurities in any particular region requires specific and localized information about which threats do affect which group of people in which locations. Without this information, a cohesive human security policy is, to my mind, impossible. A regional

human security assessment could be conducted, first deciding which threats surpassed the human security threshold in the region, and then measuring them using national and subnational data. This type of assessment would allow for regional organizations, national governments to prioritize and direct human security policies. It would also allow for a clear regional distinction between development and human security planning by identifying which issues, in which locations should be addressed within the security paradigm.'

Working in the Cambodian context, this respondent went as far as proposing an innovative assessment method, 'using a geographic information system (GIS) to spatially analyse subnational threats, as well as to measure and map local human security threats. Precisely because a vast number of harmful factors could cross the human security threshold, measures must be spatially dependent'.

The desire to provide UNESCO with specific and efficient tools also testifies to respondents' keenness to convey that rational task distribution among UN agencies is a prerequisite of their efficiency. Not only has duplication to be avoided, but complementary competences need to be brought together. In the field of human security risks and threats, therefore, 'UNESCO can lend its expertise indirectly to those agencies first to be operational or concerned with, for instance, post-conflict, preparedness, etc. Human security also concerns itself with streamlining and rationalizing international action and mandates,' as explained by the French consultant mentioned above.

Figure 20. Number and percentage of the different answers to Question 26: UNESCO can best anticipate human security risks and threats through: **Prevention**.
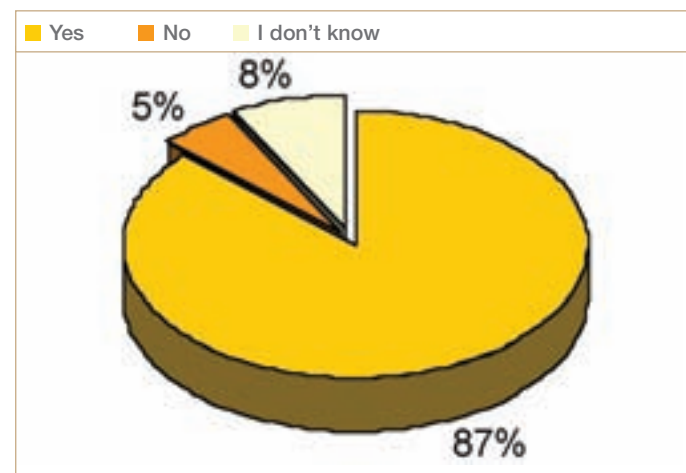
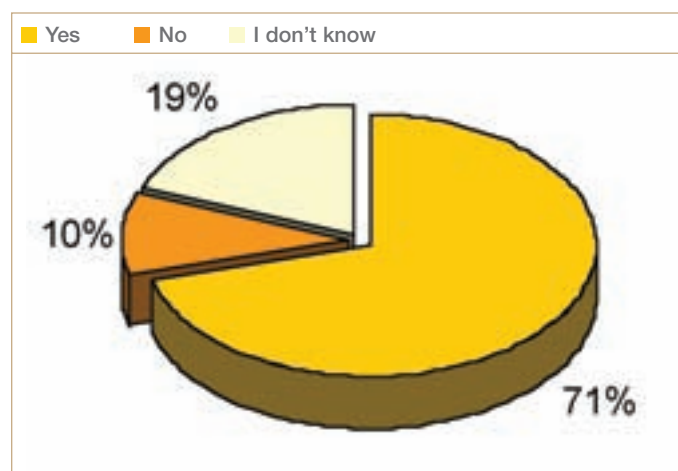| Prevention		
Answers to Question 26	Number of answers	%
Yes	131	87%
No	8	5%
I don't know	12	8%
Total	**151**	**100%**

Figure 21. Number and percentage of the different answers to Question 26: UNESCO can best anticipate human security risks and threats through: **Preparedness**.

Preparedness		
Answers to Question 26	Number of answers	%
Yes	107	71%
No	15	10%
I don't know	29	19%
Total	151	100%

Figure 22. Number and percentage of the different answers to Question 26: UNESCO can best anticipate human security risks and threats through: **Standard-setting.**

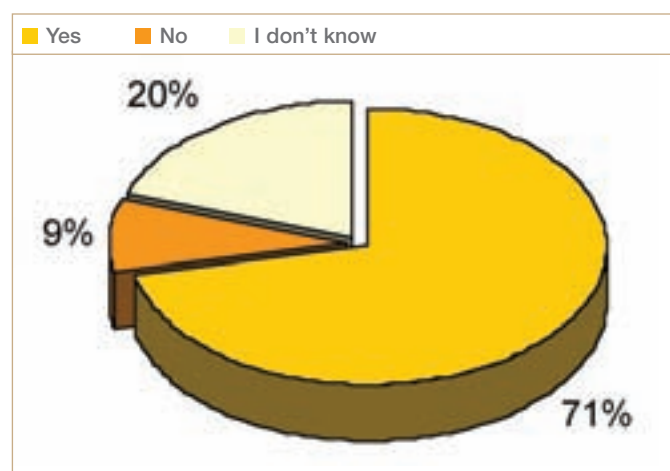| Standard-setting		
Answers to Question 26	Number of answers	%
Yes	109	71%
No	13	9%
I don't know	30	20%
Total	152	100%

Figure 23. Number and percentage of the different answers to Question 26: UNESCO can best anticipate human security risks and threats through: **Advocacy**.

Advocacy		
Answers to Question 26	Number of answers	%
Yes	132	86%
No	7	5%
I don't know	13	9%
Total	152	100%

Figure 24. Number and percentage of the different answers to Question 26: UNESCO can best anticipate human security risks and threats through: **Post-conflict activities**.
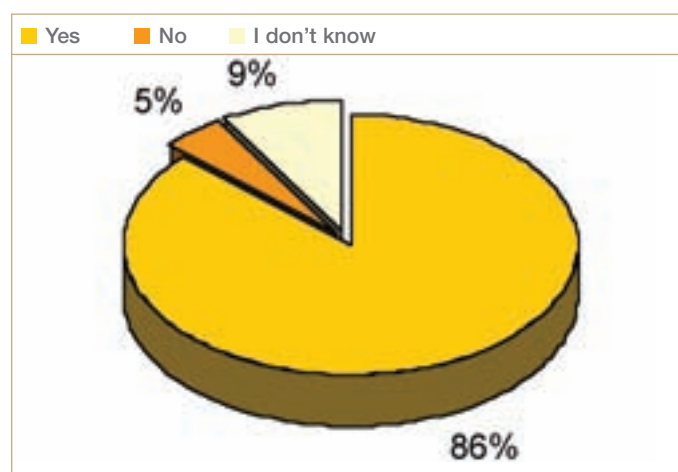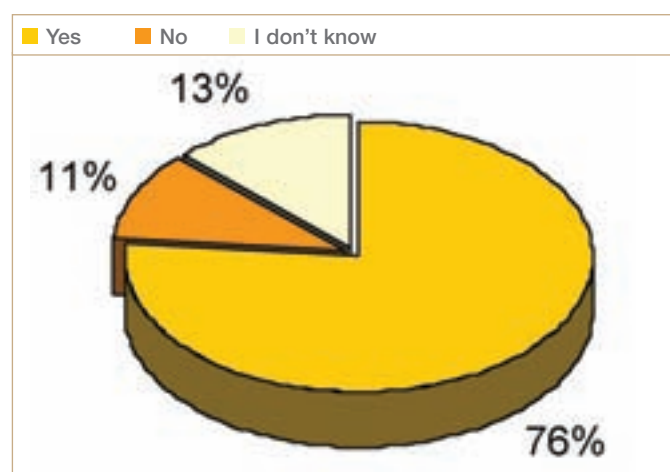

Post-conflict activities		
Answers to Question 26	Number of answers	%
Yes	115	76%
No	16	11%
I don't know	19	13%
Total	150	100%

Respondents felt that in the field of human security, UNESCO could play a meaningful role in strengthening prevention and preparedness capacity, standard-setting, advocacy and post-conflict activities (Figures 20, 21, 22, 23, 24).

All these activities, of course, need to be adopted in a comprehensive and dynamic approach. One possible

initiative was suggested by some respondents: the setting up of Human Security Indicators. In accordance with regional assessment work, Human Security Indicators must take into account specific data in each country and region, and thus offer a comprehensive view of specific needs and threats. It is undeniable that 'without properly defined indicators human security will remain a

political slogan without a deeper meaning. It can soon be replaced with other universal utterances, which will obtain a more positive reception', as the above-mentioned Polish professor warned.

In a sense, the challenge for UNESCO in the near future is to build certain specific and reliable tools that allow it to become a reference in the field of human security. Specific indicators require specific questions: which accurate parameters are to be included in the setting up of these indicators? How do they vary from the parameters of the Human Development Indicators, for example? Would it be possible to quantify or assess whether there are human rights abuses or a lack of democracy in a given country? Who or which institutional body would be accredited to conduct such work? At what level, regional, national or community, are research and assessment to be conducted? These are just a few examples of tasks awaiting UNESCO's response.

Once answers are given and tools set up, 'the worldwide network existing and the prestige of

UNESCO would be able to move some of the obstacles and promote a wider bottom-up approach to the especially highly vulnerable', as the above-mentioned Mexican researcher put it.

Finally, let us remember the outlines determined by the UNESCO College of Assistant Directors-General regarding UNESCO's approach to human security. This approach encompasses three interrelated dimensions that are in complete correspondence with the wishes of the HSQ respondents:
(1) empowerment of individuals and communities through education for all, training, networking and building inclusive and participatory knowledge societies;
(2) identification and promotion of appropriate and enabling national and local policies for countering existing and potential threats;
(3) mobilization of regional organizations, research institutions, civil society and non-governmental organizations to engage in long-term and integrated action targeting the needs of the most vulnerable segments of the population.

II. Strategy, objectives and method of the HSQ

Introduction

Since 1994, when the first UNDP human security report was published, the concept has become a focus of world attention. This, as well as the global reform of the UN system and the role of its specialized agencies, are the two factors on which, we feel, it is indispensable to reflect in the light of the points raised by the Human Security Questionnaire. Indeed, it consists in opening up time for reflection and analysis specific to UNESCO concerning a topic which is today widely debated and commented. What is the best possible contribution of UNESCO to human security? What do experts think about this issue?

The online questionnaire was a tool designed by DIGITAS, an interactive marketing agency formerly known as Business Interactif, which aimed at facilitating the elaboration of a human security anticipating strategy in UNESCO. Which are the main human security stakes that are

emerging from every field in the twenty-first century? Would it be possible to establish a hierarchy between risks and threats? What is UNESCO's role in terms of human security? In this general framework, we wished to ask the community of experts on human security about (a) current priority risks and threats; (b) upcoming risks and threats; (c) the best possible contribution by UNESCO in terms of human security, within the Organization's fields of competence.

In parallel, other results were also expected, such as a better knowledge of the community of experts on human security issues. What are their privileged networks? Which are their privileged resources within the UN system? What is their point of view about UNESCO in the field of human security? What global vision do they have of the stakes beyond their respective fields?

Human security, a unifying concept

The human security concept is a strongly unifying one. This concept links up analytical elements that constantly tend to be dissociated, compartmentalized or restricted to a unique field. The extreme compartmentalization of disciplines and the current vision of the world immensely jeopardize the understanding of what is at stake, the setting up of priorities, and thus the action itself. The UN specialized agencies themselves have grown from this very compartmentalization of the world, inherited

from the nineteenth-century conception of sciences as divided into separate categories: an archaic tool that still exists today. This discrepancy has been highlighted by our questionnaire. With the support of UNESCO, the promotion of a unifying application of human security, as highlighted by the 2003 report of the Commission on Human Security,[4] and defended by every major UN project since the 1994 UNDP report, will probably be reinforced.

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(4) CHS, 2003, *Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People*, New York, United Nations Commission on Human Security.

The questionnaire as an exploratory tool for the future

A permanent tool

The idea of permanence is a central point. The questionnaire was conceived as a tool that could be permanently reused, re-exploited and readjusted. It can be reactivated at any time, whenever the state of play in one or several years, or a complementary analysis or expertise should be needed. Thus it will become a follow-up tool in analysing world transformations, adapted to the rapidly evolving world, not one that can only be used once. It is, finally, a tool that is flexible, open and adapted to a largely decompartmentalized and fluid twenty-first century.

Lessons for future generations, from sixty years of UNESCO's expertise

This questionnaire also allows us to adapt to transformations in expertise, which is becoming less governmental and compartmentalized, more democratic and open, calling for wide participation of civil society. It can thus reflect transformations in various fields and, by opening up innovative avenues, allow us to go beyond the generalized crisis of institutions which emerged from the Second World War. Finally, it allows us to explore transformations in international consensus elaboration as well as in democratic processes.

Representativity objectives of the questionnaire

Poll procedure

The representativity objectives of the questionnaire were achieved thanks to the extremely systematic polling of the experts whose services UNESCO has used. To bring this virtual community of experts into being, each UNESCO sector was asked to establish a list of experts, and for each person identified to specify their geographical area of expertise and human security specialty, as well as their published work on the topic. Finally, each expert's reputation and the impact of their propositions had to be evaluated. This compilation was the only way to obtain a global vision of the human security expertise of UNESCO. It also provided a view of the historical evolution of the community of experts, as well as its recent orientations in expertise, in order to have a systematized tool of reference, which is absolutely indispensable to scientifically measure the representation of any subgroup within this community.

Identifying interest groups

The poll allowed us to identify experts with whom we would like to develop working groups (by theme, region, gender, etc.). Furthermore, it was a way of discovering different thoughts and innovative solutions, which could be the foundation of a future privileged relationship with some of the experts.

Calculation of representativity of each committee of experts

Systematically bringing together a virtual community while aiming at exhaustive representativity requires a great deal of effort if real heuristic value is expected. For this reason, such a task is commonly avoided when a specific virtual community is targeted, and instead a committee of experts is created whose credit lies in their personal experience or specific knowledge of the targeted community. Indeed, such a committee avoids the obligation of building up an exhaustive knowledge of all the members of the community.

Possible constitution of networks of experts

In the long term, the poll could lead to the creation of a network of experts who will identify themselves with the wider definition of human security. This network could constitute the embryo of a group that would be functioning like the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), which is often cited as an example of the international consensus elaboration process.

Strategy of opening the questionnaire to other communities

Management of geographical scarcity or overabundance of experts

The administrators of the survey can continuously supervise the representativity gap between the experts who have responded and the community identified.

They are thus able to re-contact experts individually, or to add new experts to the list who may have been more difficult to find. This increases the diversity of points of view from a wider community, thus ensuring greater relevance of the content to the objectives of the survey.

Interest of opening the questionnaire to communities other than experts identified by UNESCO

Of course, even where the questionnaire is opened to other communities, questions inviting closed 'Yes/No' replies give a set of answers whose rules of semantic interpretation are common and invariable. But to open the questionnaire to other communities or to other forms of expertise offers two advantages with regard to the objectives of the survey. First, it allows greater diversity of points of view. Most particularly, this option enables us to benefit from the points of view of NGOs which are well known for their capacity to anticipate crisis resolution on the basis of their experiences throughout the world and through their networks of associations, and for the durable solutions they put in place after a crisis threatening human security. Second, opening up the questionnaire makes possible a comparative strategy that is efficient in scientifically evaluating the proposals of different communities of experts, as well as the different forms of expertise, aiming to increase the credit, legitimacy and impacts of the proposals put forward by this publication.

Method

In order to facilitate the respondents' work, we established a small database on human security which could be easily and rapidly consulted. We sought to help them in their reflection and analysis by providing the maximum of information on the site itself, to avoid incessant coming and going between the questionnaire site and other sites containing complementary information. Thus we concentrated in building a veritable human security-oriented web constellation that was enriched with UNESCO's founding texts and UN reports, together with conceptual clarifications available from institutes of research and analysis. The whole questionnaire was on some thirty web pages which contained seven information boxes. In this way, it was possible to go beyond the traditional gap between fields of competence (environmental, sanitary, political, chemical, etc.) and to suggest, for example, expert reflections on applying the concept of 'threshold' or 'point of no return', normally restricted to the ecological field, to the political and social fields as well. This kind of experiment was possible only within the format of a documented web constellation.

The questionnaire was officially launched on 12 September 2006 and closed on 30 December 2006. In all, 233 totally and partially completed forms were received from 110 experts, 118 students and five Human Security Network respondents.

Automatic access to the form for experts

For the experts identified by UNESCO, every procedure, whether access to the forms, consultation of associated information, or formulation of answers, could be carried out online via an *http* link. IT was also used by administrators in variations on the usual procedures.

The experts received an automatic mailing informing them of the existence and importance of the questionnaire, providing access to a personal and secured link where they could find it, as well as information and conceptual clarifications necessary to successfully complete the questionnaire: a presentation of UNESCO activities in the field of human security, a summary of UNESCO's mandate and Constitution, and other useful information that enriched the website. The purpose was to create a human security-oriented web constellation with a set of websites containing some thirty easily accessible pages. Downloadable PDF files were not included in this system. The experts could complete their form in one or several sessions in order to elaborate on their answers. At the end of the questionnaire, they would explicitly give permission for their answers to be included in the database. In return, they would immediately receive a copy by e-mail.

Automatic daily management of the questionnaire

Automatic daily management makes it possible to contact an almost unlimited number of experts and to cross-reference all data. It also allows the questionnaire to function with only a small team that would normally be in charge of boosting, updating and classifying answers, etc. Two months after launching the HSQ, 300 personalized reminders were automatically sent to experts and 200 to students.

Automatic exploitation of open questions and restricted-answer questions

This operation was all the more significant in that the analysis of responses was not of a statistical nature but consisted in studying the respondents' reasoning. The aim was to analyse a causal chain behind the answers to the following question 'How are priorities organized?' More particularly, the fourteen restricted-answer questions allowed the diversity of the human security concept to be grasped from the basis of similar terms proposed to all experts. By their very nature, these only target a limited part of a reality which necessarily is identified as complex and nuanced. In contrast, the fourteen open questions allowed respondents to freely express their point of view in their own words, and thus offered semantic resources and flexibility.

Analysis of results

In order to write a synthesis of responses to the questionnaire, the questions had to be grouped according to the kind of information required from respondents. This preliminary work was also meant to provide a general view of the strategic orientation that UNESCO would like to give to this questionnaire. For example, as the idea of 'anticipation' is deemed essential to UNESCO's approach to human security, it was important to underscore this aspect by complementing the explicit question about anticipation (Question 18) with other related questions, such as that about future-oriented research in the field of human security (Question 17), or the one about understanding of the 'point of no return' concept (Question 16). Similarly, when dealing with the most appropriate approach to human security risks and threats (Questions 6, 7, 8), it was interesting to simultaneously look at experts' and students' opinions concerning the efficiency of the MDGs implementation (Question 21). Thanks to this combination and compilation of different questions, UNESCO will be able to outline future actions that will be more accurate with a sharper vision of reality.

Next, each of the 233 files (corresponding to 233 respondents) containing an HSQ form was opened and read. DIGITAS was in charge of the exploitation of the collected data from the restricted-answer questions. A specific statistical tool, in Excel format, was conceived to show the responses received through charts and tables. Certain options that had been selected by the majority would then clearly appear. But of course, analysis of the open questions was more complex, since attention had to be paid to a precise analysis (which partly required interpretation) of the respondents' comments.

Two approaches were adopted in analysing those responses. On the one hand, attention was given to building a table that showed the same or similar answers given by different respondents to one question. This operation would then point out the solutions or general approaches prioritized by the majority of respondents, thus forming a consensus. On the other hand, it was important and interesting to also identify some answers which were unique. This second approach aims to put forward certain noteworthy points of view, or even sometimes innovative solutions. Let us illustrate this with the example of the expert who suggested that UNESCO should promote the use of geographic information systems as a work tool in the field of human security. This proposal may of course be considered as a very particular point of view, but it also offers a new avenue in our reflection on the relationship between human security and technology. Therefore, the opinion of the majority and particular innovative points of view are both legitimate and should be given the same space in a future-oriented study such as this.

This question leads to another problem which may be formulated as follows: has every respondent been given the same space for expression in this synthesis? Throughout the text, some experts have been quoted several times whereas others were simply absent, and it would be naturally legitimate to wonder whether these 'predominating' respondents should be taken as spokespersons for the rest of the respondents. Of course, we cannot draw such a conclusion from this synthesis. This 'inequity' stems from the discrepancy between the forms we received: some were fully and abundantly filled out, while others contained only one, two or very few answers. Therefore, because we wished to give at least a hint of answers to each question although for some questions there were few answers, it was sometimes necessary to quote the same expert for several different questions.

Another criterion was to accord greater attention to responses that had some link with issues tackled by UNESCO, or which shed new light on approaches that explained, criticized or encouraged UNESCO's strategy and actions in the field of human security. However, a few experts and students, because of their position or because of their studies, had come into closer contact with UNESCO and could thus give more precise answers. Not quoting them for statistical reasons would be a pity.

Finally, we have tried to quote at least one or two experts from each of the five regions of the world, although a precision is needed. In terms of region, there were three kinds of expert. The first is an expert from the region of expertise concerned: a citizen of a particular country of the region, who analyses his/her own region. The second is an expert on a particular region who is not a citizen of any of the countries of that region of expertise, and often lives elsewhere. Often, these are citizens of countries in Europe and North America. The first and second types of expert are therefore complementary, giving opinions from different standpoints. The third consists of experts who specified their region of expertise as being 'the world'. Quite often, we find university professors in this category. Such experts' answers supplied a general analysis and theoretical approach to human security problems.

We conclude by reaffirming an important commitment we have maintained during this work: transparency towards experts. Transparency, honesty and assurance of good confidentiality have been of the utmost importance: data transmission is secure and the experts have been clearly informed about the use of the results by UNESCO (for this publication). Likewise, in analysing the results, we tried to keep as close as possible to the views expressed, and verbatim comments are in quotation marks.

III. The online HSQ

Human Security Online Questionnaire
UNESCO: Contributing to Human Security
Current Situation and Future Prospects

The Human Security Online Questionnaire (HSQ) is designed to enable UNESCO to develop a forward-thinking strategy in relation to human security. By assessing the current situation and future prospects in the field of human security, UNESCO is seeking to identify where it can make the most valuable contribution.

Through a statistical and analytical evaluation of the responses, **UNESCO hopes to achieve three principal objectives**: (1) to establish existing and apprehended human security risks and threats and to analyse their relevance to UNESCO's fields of competence (education, sciences, culture, and communication and information); (2) to highlight new and emerging human security risks and threats; (3) to identify UNESCO's best possible role(s) within the field of human security.

The results of this survey will be published in a UNESCO Publication on Human Security (foreseen by the end of 2007) with a sample of the respondents' proposals for UNESCO's future contribution.

UNESCO Constitution

'The purpose of the Organization is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion, by the Charter of the United Nations.'
More...

Human Security at UNESCO

UNESCO has put the concept of security at the heart of its actions. International cooperation is the natural framework to address this question, extending beyond intergovernmental exchanges, to include efforts to 'build on the intellectual and moral solidarity of Mankind', to which UNESCO is dedicated. Human security is not a state to be achieved, but a process involving the conditions for human dignity.
More...

Start the Human Security Online Questionnaire >>

ACCOUNT INFORMATION

Your last name: _____

Your first name: _____

Age group: _____

Your nationality(ies): _____

Your e-mail address: _____

Your profession: _____

Your field(s) of expertise: _____

Your region(s) of expertise: _____

Your country(ies) of expertise: _____

Your professional address: _____

Street/Zip code/Town/Country: _____

Your phone number: _____

Your fax number: _____

01. What is your definition of human security?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

02. List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, are currently attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources:

Ageing		Loss of biodiversity	
Air pollution		Loss of cultural diversity	
Anarchic urbanization		Malaria & TB	
Armaments		Marine pollution	
Chemical pollution		Missing women	
Climate change		Natural disasters	
Corruption		Natural resources depletion	
Debt		New and emerging diseases	
Deforestation/Desertification		Nuclear threat	
Drug trafficking		Ozone depletion	
Economic inequity		Poor governance	
Ecosystem dysfunction		Population growth and movements	
Energy-related issues		Poverty	
Failed states		Racial discrimination	
Food insecurity		Sea level rise	
Freshwater pollution & scarcity		Social exclusion	
Gender discrimination		Space debris	
Genetic engineering		Terrorism	
Health-related threats		Transnational organized crime	
HIV/AIDS		Unfair trade	
Human rights violations		Violence	
Human trafficking		War and armed conflict	
Intolerance & religious discrimination		Waste disposal	
Lack of democracy		Weapons of mass destruction	

03. List three human security risks and threats which, according to your analysis, deserve to be attracting worldwide attention, focus and financial resources:

Ageing		Loss of biodiversity	
Air pollution		Loss of cultural diversity	
Anarchic urbanization		Malaria & TB	
Armaments		Marine pollution	
Chemical pollution		Missing women	
Climate change		Natural disasters	
Corruption		Natural resources depletion	
Debt		New and emerging diseases	
Deforestation/Desertification		Nuclear threat	
Drug trafficking		Ozone depletion	
Economic inequity		Poor governance	
Ecosystem dysfunction		Population growth and movements	
Energy-related issues		Poverty	
Failed states		Racial discrimination	
Food insecurity		Sea level rise	
Freshwater pollution & scarcity		Social exclusion	
Gender discrimination		Space debris	
Genetic engineering		Terrorism	
Health-related threats		Transnational organized crime	
HIV/AIDS		Unfair trade	
Human rights violations		Violence	
Human trafficking		War and armed conflict	
Intolerance & religious discrimination		Waste disposal	
Lack of democracy		Weapons of mass destruction	

04. Compose your own list of human security risks and threats, ranking them from 1 to 10 in order of importance (1 being the most important; 10 being the least important):

1 _____
2 _____
3 _____
4 _____
5 _____
6 _____
7 _____
8 _____
9 _____
10 _____

05. Explain why you think the issue you have ranked first in question 4 is the most important:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

06. Which approaches and policy tools do you think can best address human security risks and threats? Please click on the approach/policy tool in the left-hand column to rank the items from 1 to 10 in order of importance (1 being the most important; 10 being the least important). For any answer which is contextually bound to a specific region, please select the region from the box alongside.

	Rank	Region
Normative approach		
Precautionary approach		
Ethical approach		
Interdisciplinary approach		
Regional networking		
Human security indicators		
Alert system		
Advocacy		
Education		
Training		

07. Explain why you think the issue you have ranked first in question 6 is the most important. Note that question 8 provides the opportunity to include approaches and policy tools which are not in the list above.

_____
_____
_____
_____

08. Suggest other approaches and policy tools which you think are key for the advancement of human security:

_____
_____
_____
_____

09. What value would you attribute to a regional approach to human security?

_____
_____
_____
_____

10. In your opinion, how should a regional approach to human security be implemented in your region?

_____
_____
_____
_____

11. Who are your main partners in the field of human security (individuals / institutes / international organizations / governmental institutions / NGOs / networks)?

_____
_____
_____
_____

12. List five studies/reports that you consider to have made a major contribution to human security analysis, ranking them from 1 to 5 in order of importance (1 being the most important; 5 being the least important):

1_____
2_____
3_____
4_____
5_____

13. List three human security risks and threats which you think will decrease in importance over time:

Ageing		Loss of biodiversity	
Air pollution		Loss of cultural diversity	
Anarchic urbanization		Malaria & TB	
Armaments		Marine pollution	
Chemical pollution		Missing women	
Climate change		Natural disasters	
Corruption		Natural resources depletion	
Debt		New and emerging diseases	
Deforestation/Desertification		Nuclear threat	
Drug trafficking		Ozone depletion	
Economic inequity		Poor governance	
Ecosystem dysfunction		Population growth and movements	
Energy-related issues		Poverty	
Failed states		Racial discrimination	
Food insecurity		Sea level rise	
Freshwater pollution & scarcity		Social exclusion	
Gender discrimination		Space debris	
Genetic engineering		Terrorism	
Health-related threats		Transnational organized crime	
HIV/AIDS		Unfair trade	
Human rights violations		Violence	
Human trafficking		War and armed conflict	
Intolerance & religious discrimination		Waste disposal	
Lack of democracy		Weapons of mass destruction	

14. List three human security risks and threats which you think will increase in importance over time:

Ageing		Loss of biodiversity	
Air pollution		Loss of cultural diversity	
Anarchic urbanization		Malaria & TB	
Armaments		Marine pollution	
Chemical pollution		Missing women	
Climate change		Natural disasters	
Corruption		Natural resources depletion	
Debt		New and emerging diseases	
Deforestation/Desertification		Nuclear threat	
Drug trafficking		Ozone depletion	
Economic inequity		Poor governance	
Ecosystem dysfunction		Population growth and movements	
Energy-related issues		Poverty	
Failed states		Racial discrimination	
Food insecurity		Sea level rise	
Freshwater pollution & scarcity		Social exclusion	
Gender discrimination		Space debris	
Genetic engineering		Terrorism	
Health-related threats		Transnational organized crime	
HIV/AIDS		Unfair trade	
Human rights violations		Violence	
Human trafficking		War and armed conflict	
Intolerance & religious discrimination		Waste disposal	
Lack of democracy		Weapons of mass destruction	

15. Do you think that the concept of a 'point of no return' is relevant in analysing human security?

_____

_____

_____

_____

16. List two human security risks and threats that you believe may trigger a 'point of no return'. Please comment.

Human security risks and threats	How much time do you think we have before we reach the 'point of no return'?				
	20 years	50 years	100 years	More than 100 years	Please comment
Ageing					
Air pollution					
Anarchic urbanization					
Armaments					
Chemical pollution					
Climate change					
Corruption					
Debt					
Deforestation/Desertification					
Drug trafficking					
Economic inequity					
Ecosystem dysfunction					
Energy-related issues					
Failed states					
Food insecurity					
Freshwater pollution & scarcity					
Gender discrimination					
Genetic engineering					
Health-related threats					
HIV/AIDS					
Human rights violations					
Human trafficking					
Intolerance & religious discrimination					
Lack of democracy					
Loss of biodiversity					
Loss of cultural diversity					
Malaria & TB					
Marine pollution					
Missing women					
Natural disasters					
Natural resources depletion					
New and emerging diseases					
Nuclear threat					
Ozone depletion					
Poor governance					
Population growth and movements					
Poverty					
Racial discrimination					
Sea level rise					
Social exclusion					
Space debris					
Terrorism					
Transnational organized crime					
Unfair trade					
Violence					
War and armed conflict					
Waste disposal					
Weapons of mass destruction					

17. List three areas in human security where you think there is a serious need for future-oriented studies:

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

18. Do you think enough work is being done with the aim of anticipating future risks and threats in the field of human security?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ I don't know

Please comment (max. 3000 characters)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

19. Who are your main partners with regard to anticipating future risks and threats in the field of human security (individuals / institutes / international organizations / governmental institutions / NGOs / networks)?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

20. Do you think that, in the future, human security will be a top priority issue for the United Nations system?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Please comment (max. 3000 characters)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

21. Do you think that the Millennium Development Goals are tackling major human security risks and threats efficiently?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Please comment (max. 3000 characters)

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

22. List three human security risks and threats which you think UNESCO is well positioned to address:

	Please comment (max. 3000 characters)
Ageing	
Air pollution	
Anarchic urbanization	
Armaments	
Chemical pollution	
Climate change	
Corruption	
Debt	
Deforestation/Desertification	
Drug trafficking	
Economic inequity	
Ecosystem dysfunction	
Energy-related issues	
Failed states	
Food insecurity	
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	
Gender discrimination	
Genetic engineering	
Health-related threats	
HIV/AIDS	
Human rights violations	
Human trafficking	
Intolerance & religious discrimination	
Lack of democracy	
Loss of biodiversity	
Loss of cultural diversity	
Malaria & TB	
Marine pollution	
Missing women	
Natural disasters	
Natural resources depletion	
New and emerging diseases	
Nuclear threat	
Ozone depletion	
Poor governance	
Population growth and movements	
Poverty	
Racial discrimination	
Sea level rise	
Social exclusion	
Space debris	
Terrorism	
Transnational organized crime	
Unfair trade	
Violence	
War and armed conflict	
Waste disposal	
Weapons of mass destruction	

23. List three human security risks and threats which you think UNESCO should not focus on:

	Please comment (max. 3000 characters)
Ageing	
Air pollution	
Anarchic urbanization	
Armaments	
Chemical pollution	
Climate change	
Corruption	
Debt	
Deforestation/Desertification	
Drug trafficking	
Economic inequity	
Ecosystem dysfunction	
Energy-related issues	
Failed states	
Food insecurity	
Freshwater pollution & scarcity	
Gender discrimination	
Genetic engineering	
Health-related threats	
HIV/AIDS	
Human rights violations	
Human trafficking	
Intolerance & religious discrimination	
Lack of democracy	
Loss of biodiversity	
Loss of cultural diversity	
Malaria & TB	
Marine pollution	
Missing women	
Natural disasters	
Natural resources depletion	
New and emerging diseases	
Nuclear threat	
Ozone depletion	
Poor governance	
Population growth and movements	
Poverty	
Racial discrimination	
Sea level rise	
Social exclusion	
Space debris	
Terrorism	
Transnational organized crime	
Unfair trade	
Violence	
War and armed conflict	
Waste disposal	
Weapons of mass destruction	

24. Which risks and threats do you think UNESCO should be dealing with? Rank your responses from 1 to 10 in order of importance (1 being the most important; 10 being the least important):

1 _____
2 _____
3 _____
4 _____
5 _____
6 _____
7 _____
8 _____
9 _____
10 _____

25. Explain why you think the issue you have ranked first in question 24 is the most important:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

26. UNESCO can best anticipate human security risks and threats through:

	Yes	No	I don't know
Prevention			
Preparedness			
Standard-setting			
Advocacy			
Post-conflict activities			

27. Which do you think is the most important and why?

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28. Develop your views on UNESCO's future action in the field of human security:

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Chapter 4

Emerging challenges and possible scenarios

Chapter 4

Introduction

Human security is an expansion of the original definitions of security as it includes the many non-military threats to peace and individual dignity. It means freedom from fear and freedom from want. It also means protecting people from enveloping threats, building on their aspirations and strengths, and allowing them the attainment of personal empowerment. Raising people out of poverty and allowing them the chance of a decent life is the first step to achieving both material prosperity and liberty. People are empowered and live safely (without threats of different natures) when they live healthier, hopeful, educated and fulfilling lives. Conflict, inequality, deprivation and poverty are all significant factors contributing to human insecurity.

Protecting people in violent conflict involves understanding the interlinkages that the military, political, humanitarian and development aspects entail, as well as recognizing the failures in upholding respect for human rights and respect for citizenship. Wars damage the human and social fabric of society together with the destruction of homes, economic assets, crops, infrastructure and systems of trust among communities. Poverty rises during times of conflict as people lose stability and production structures, and governments divert resources from social expenditures to arms and defence. Conflict is also the principal reason why there are massive population movements. Some people become refugees in a foreign country while others move within the territory of their state and become internally displaced. In post-conflict situations the main challenge is to rebuild a war-torn country by advancing reconstruction and development, promoting reconciliation and coexistence and encouraging effective governance. Conflicts represent severe threats and are a major challenge, all the more so as today local threats – where events lead to large-scale deaths and mass population movements, or undermine the integrity and functioning of the state, because of the increasingly interdependent world of collective security – translate into major threats to international peace and security worldwide.

Moreover, where there is extreme poverty and underdevelopment the opportunity is rife for other threats such as civil conflict to grow. Development is therefore imperative on a system of collective security as it helps to tackle poverty, environmental degradation and disease, reverse the erosion of state capacity and address the setting where terrorism and organized crime thrive. Although differences in wealth, development, power, political influence and geography determine what societies regard as threats to the individual's survival and well-being, there are six clusters of threats that affect all countries equally: economic and social (including poverty, infectious diseases and environmental degradation); inter-state conflict; internal conflict (including civil war, genocide); nuclear, radiological, chemical and biological weapons; terrorism; and transnational organized crime.[1]

Economic injustice and social inequality polarize communities and have grave consequences for human development and peaceful coexistence. About 2.8 billion people suffer from poverty, illiteracy, poor health and other disorders. In order for there to be encompassing development, poverty reduction strategies have to be considered along with equitable trade arrangements, the promotion of economic growth among the extreme poor, and a fair distribution of benefits and resources. Included in this is the right to land, access to credit, education, housing, health care and other social protection measures. The protection of women's role in society is especially critical.

Human security also includes protection from natural disasters and environmental pollution, international terrorism, global epidemics, forced and slave labour, malnutrition and genocide.

This chapter aims first to outline, in thematic order, the challenges that humanity is facing from the multiple contemporary transformations that threats and risks are currently undergoing. Secondly, it underscores possible policies and legal instruments that governments can use in order to overcome those evolving risks and threats. Finally, it takes up the challenge of adopting a prospective view of the future of human security management, by formulating three different scenarios that are respectively based on three hypotheses on the evolution of the international context.

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(1) UN, 2004, *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*, Report of the High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, New York, United Nations General Assembly, p. 2.

I. Emerging challenges

Human development reversal

Human development is about the freedom of individuals to live, strive, and achieve a long healthy and fulfilled life. The human development index (HDI), a barometer for alterations in human welfare, uses the categories of income, health and education to evaluate human well-being.[2] Between 1990 and 2003, several countries, most in sub-Saharan Africa, suffered an HDI reversal and the terrible consequences of the deadly combination of economic inertness, the spread of HIV/AIDS and slow progress in education. South Africa and Zimbabwe experienced a sharp decline in the HDI ranking, followed by Tajikistan, Ukraine and the Russian Federation, which have all undergone a devastating drop in life expectancy.

Over 1 billion people – 20 per cent of the world's population – survive on less than US$1 a day. In South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa the battle against poverty has in certain areas either stagnated or suffered a reversal. It will take until 2012 for African countries to restore average incomes to their 1980 levels at the 1.2 per cent per capita annual growth experienced since 2000.[3]

The most telling indicator of capability deprivation is the number of children who die because of preventable diseases such as measles, malaria, tetanus and diphtheria, before they reach their fifth birthday. Poor countries account for more than 98 per cent of child mortality. Children become more vulnerable and exposed to greater threats because of where they are born.

However, income alone does not guarantee progress in reducing child deaths, as seen through the cases of Viet Nam, Honduras and Bangladesh which have lower neonatal mortality levels than China and India. India's rapid economic growth, heralded as the success story of globalization, still maintains a mixed record of human development, as large sections of the population are yet to benefit. In the northern provinces of Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Bihar, extreme poverty continues to be a reality faced by the majority of people. Half of the country's children suffer from malnutrition and inequalities in the education of girls and boys are deeply entrenched.

Gender inequalities and the disadvantage of women are rooted in cultural practices, attitudes and traditional rules of conduct that diminish female empowerment and participation in public life. The education of women is an important indicator of development as it has a broader impact at the national and community levels – children of illiterate mothers are more likely to die before the age of 5, are more prone to under-nutrition, and will not benefit as much from the use of health services.

In order for human development to become an effective reality and for freedoms and rights to be used to their fullest potential, people cannot live in poverty, ill health, be discriminated against, threatened by violence, illiterate, or denied political and social participation in society. In other words, human development cannot be achieved without guaranteeing human security.

Integrating the most vulnerable

The universality of human rights is largely founded on the principle of equality. For without the recognition of a common humanity, the distinctions between oppressed and free, justice and injustice, empowerment and rejection, dignity and misery, would be permeable and undefined. All these opposing realities are not the privilege of one continent or culture; they are global states of social and political existence. Equality is indeed the indispensable guarantor of man's rights and opportunities as respect for 'others' is built on the realization that for someone to benefit from particular laws, characteristics and aspirations, others must possess the same. In this sense, societies must focus their attention on the quest of the healthiest balance between people, by protecting and integrating the most vulnerable groups.

Inequality of opportunity and choice greatly affect human development in that disparities based on gender, wealth, geographical location, and ethnicity are detrimental to democracy, social cohesion and economic growth. Ideas about social justice and fairness are rooted in the values of a society and the policies of its government. The majority of citizens and democratically elected governments believe that redistribution from rich to poor is of great importance, as are policies that generate the biggest return to the poor.[4] Shifts in distribution from the richest 20 per cent to the poorest 20 per cent could have a huge impact on income poverty. Greater equity and efficiency is not only beneficial to the disadvantaged but in the long term to the growth of the country. People who cannot borrow against future income to invest in

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assets, production or the education of their children will remain poor and are therefore denied the opportunity to contribute to growth. Equally as important to the advancement of the vulnerable is adequate access to the justice system and the matter of insecure land rights, which further complicates their ability to invest. More attention must be given to building up the assets of the poor, the infrastructure that serves them, to supporting agricultural areas, and the creation of micro-enterprises so that the poor can produce their way out of poverty and contribute to national wealth.

Extreme inequality also erodes a government's political legitimacy and its institutions. If the poor and most vulnerable groups – women, rural populations, indigenous communities and minorities – are not given a political voice by institutions designed to represent them, then the state will lack credibility and become associated with promoting injustice. Disputes over natural resources have, in countries such as Bolivia and Ecuador, become a focal point for disadvantaged groups that have been denied participation and a

voice.[5] Because disadvantage is perpetuated by inequality and the incapacity of these groups to influence national institutions, empowering the poor and the most vulnerable will as such guarantee a greater participation in the political process, give them recognition by the rest of society and effectively become a factor for poverty reduction.

Inequality is a wide-spectrum condition that interacts with other markers for disadvantage and tends to be passed on through generations. Certain regions of Brazil, such as the North-East, are characterized by high infant mortality rates where the per capita spending on health is inferior to other areas. In Mexico the capital has an illiteracy rate of 3 per cent whereas Chiapas, with a predominantly rural population, has 20 per cent. Education and access to health in the region where one lives have direct impact on the quality of life of the individual. One important precondition for pro-poor growth is therefore education, because disparities in this field are dominant drivers of inequalities in health, income and political participation.

Violence and conflicts

Over 800,000 lives are lost every year as a result of violence. The impact of globalization, interdependence and development gaps has created a situation where states are being stripped of their capabilities, triggering a governance crisis, and therefore become unable to control violence and create a demilitarized order.

Most wars in the past two decades have taken the form of internal conflicts, fought over competition for resources and land, triggered by identity politics, ineffective governance and corruption, political and economic transitions, as well as growing inequalities. Although there has been a significant decrease in certain types of violence since the early 1990s – the number of armed conflicts worldwide has declined by 40 per cent, genocides and politicides fell by 80 per cent, and the number of refugees dropped by 45 per cent[6] – wars on the African continent by the turn of the twenty-first century were killing more people than before. Some of the root causes of these conflicts can be attributed to pervasive poverty, discrimination, crime, unstable and unrepresentative political institutions, declining per capita GDP, poor infrastructure, an abundance of cheap weapons and porous borders.

The threat of internal conflict has to a certain extent been ameliorated by coordinated efforts of the international community, whereby mediation of disputes and negotiations brokered by the United Nations has ended many civil

wars in the last fifteen years. This has been achieved through promoting peace negotiations, diplomatic efforts, preventive deployment and the use of economic sanctions. One legal mechanism that might serve as a deterrent for war and all the atrocities that follow (crimes against humanity, infringement of the Geneva Conventions, protocols and humanitarian law, human rights abuses) has been the setting up of the International Criminal Court by the Rome Statute of 1998. There are still gaps when it comes to achieving a wide-ranging protection instrument, especially in the area of natural resources (as in the case of Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Sierra Leone).

There has been a decline in battle-deaths since the end of the Second World War, however, mainly due to the changing nature of warfare. Conflicts today are either characterized as 'low-intensity' (fought by badly trained small armies that avoid major military confrontations by targeting civilians) or 'asymmetric' (where high-tech weaponry is used against weaker opponents).[7] The cruelty and brutality with which conflicts are fought are partly due to the dependence on child soldiers, the privatization of warfare and the use of paramilitary forces. According to data from *Jane's Intelligence Review* 2005, children are involved in over 75 per cent of recent armed conflicts with an estimated 300,000 serving in some form of armed group (militias, rebel forces,

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(5) Ibid., p. 54.
(6) HSC, 2005, *Human Security Report 2005 – War and Peace in the 21ˢᵗ Century*, Human Security Centre, University of British Columbia/Oxford University Press, p. 1. http://www.humansecurityreport.info/content/view/28/63/
(7) Ibid., p. 34.

government troops), and an additional 500,000 serving in military forces that are not at war.[8]

The use of children as soldiers has been motivated by the availability of cheap, easy-to-use light weapons, by the large numbers of disillusioned and unemployed youths, and because they are considered 'expendable', easily indoctrinated and controlled by commanders. Criminal violence and the trade in illegal narcotics have also involved gangs of armed youths and children have also begun to be used in terrorist activities.

The rise of paramilitary forces is another serious threat to human security as they are heavily armed, may operate outside legal constraints, and often survive after the conflict ended. The relative independence from state authority of paramilitary groups allows repressive governments to distance themselves from human rights abuse. Besides, war is increasingly being 'outsourced' to private corporations that provide several services including operating national defence systems, training and support of armed forces, maintaining complex weapons systems, and the provision of private air forces.

War destroys infrastructures, triggers economic crises, diverts resources but also kills many indirectly by exacerbating disease and hunger. Conflict is a major contributor to HIV/AIDS infection and the surge of numerous diseases such as malaria, cholera and tuberculosis.

Terrorism and weapons of mass destruction

In the same way that poverty becomes a strong contributing factor to internal strife and conflict, so terrorism breeds in environments of despair, oppression and underdevelopment. It profits from the existence of weak states that lack the capacity to enforce law and order, and it flourishes in contexts of foreign occupation and regional instability. The terrorist attacks on US soil on 11 September 2001 highlighted the failure of states and security institutions to accompany and identify the global changes in the nature of threats.

Technological advances that changed the way people communicate, the speed of information-sharing, rapid transportation and the erosion of borders have come to expose a larger amount of people to the great danger of terror campaigns. These innovations, designed to improve daily life, also mean that small groups of people without the support of a state or territory can inflict greater amounts of damage by transforming them into sophisticated instruments of aggression. Globalization and economic integration has levelled the playing fields for the developed and developing world as both are equally vulnerable to attacks and equally affected by attacks in other parts of the world. It is estimated by the World Bank that the 9/11 attacks alone increased by 10 million the number of people living in poverty.[9]

Another catastrophic threat to human security is the proliferation and potential use of nuclear, radiological, chemical and biological weapons. Even though the 1968 Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (NPT) is widely accepted, together with the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), there are currently sixty countries that either operate or are constructing nuclear power or research reactors. A further forty states have the industrial and scientific infrastructure to build nuclear weapons.[10] Equally as destructive are chemical and biological weapons that with a single attack can inflict mass suffering.

Dealing with migrants, refugees and internally displaced persons

In 2003 over 33 million people were displaced: 9.7 million were refugees and 24 million were classed as internally displaced persons (IDPs). There are several reasons why people leave their home countries. Some leave in search of improvement of their livelihoods and to escape poverty, others are forcibly displaced due to war and repression. When displaced, people are at greater risk of succumbing to disease and malnutrition or to be targeted by the warring parties as part of their fighting strategy, especially women and children. Once civilians become strategic targets those who assist them are also threatened, humanitarian aid is blocked, and they are more exposed to torture, sexual exploitation and forced labour.

IDPs are also less likely to be protected or assisted by their governments. It was found that three-quarters of IDPs (over 18 million people) were not given adequate assistance.[11] Women who have left their homes are twice as likely to be exposed to sexual assault than those that are not displaced. Rape has increasingly become a weapon of war, and not just a private crime, with the morbid object of humiliating the enemy, destroying families and communities

(8) Peter W. Singer, 2005, Western militaries confront child soldiers threat, *Jane's Intelligence Review*, 1 January; cited in HSC, op. cit, p. 35. www.brookings.edu/views/articles/fellows/singer20050115.htm
(9) UN, op. cit., p. 14.
(10) Ibid., p. 39.
(11) Norwegian Refugee Council, Global IDP project, internal displacement: global overview of trends and developments in 2004, in *Human Security Report 2005*, op. cit.

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that abide by strict codes of honour. During the genocide in Rwanda in 1994 half a million women and girls were rape victims, and in Bosnia between 20,000 and 50,000 were sexually assaulted. Gender-based violence rises significantly during conflict because women are considered in many cultures as the bearers of identity, and therefore forced impregnation and sexual slavery is part of physical and psychological destruction of the enemy.

Migration is another global phenomenon where people generally leave their country of origin and the situation of economic and social vulnerability that inadvertently forced them to improve their condition. Millions risk their lives in search of better lives. According to the UN *International Migration Report* (2002)[12] there are 56 million immigrants living in Europe, 50 million in Asia and 41 million in North America, making one in every ten people in the developed world an immigrant. Immigrants will interact with a society where they are not given citizenship and therefore are unable to enjoy the benefits of its citizens, such as the right to join a union, receive government welfare or assistance, run for public office, or have their family join them in the new country.[13]

Refugees are normally given protection because they have fled their countries for reasons relating to conflict or politics, and those who leave for economic and social reasons are more often than not considered migrants. Major problems arise when the mass movement of people is forced due to economic misery or environmental disruption.

Improving economic security

Poverty, underdevelopment and the lack of basic needs are important security issues regarding individual survival and emancipation, and are at times the causes of conflict. When the state fails to ensure good governance, or when certain groups within states usurp or manipulate tools of survival, then violence may erupt. As already mentioned, over 1 billion people survive on less than US$1 a day, the majority living in either Africa or Asia. As many as 800 million people in the developing world are afflicted by food insecurity, and at least 24 million in developed and transition economies suffer daily from hunger.

Provision of food is vital and countries that depend on international aid to satisfy this basic need are effectively insecure. Hunger is also reflective of other societal problems. When people go hungry they pull their children out of school, and cannot afford health care, heating or safe living conditions. They are without recourse, having no means to replace earnings when confronted with economic crises, natural disasters or conflicts. An improvement in nutrition leads to a higher level of productivity, which in turn means a move out of chronic poverty and allows for active participation in political, economic and social life.

Human security improves when persistent levels of inequality are addressed, particularly when the poor benefit from a greater share in the income and wealth generated by economic growth.[14] One important enabling condition is the reduction of trade barriers imposed by developed countries, which cost developing countries around US$100 billion yearly[15] and stifle the agricultural and textile sectors of countries attempting to export to the West. Policies that empower the poor are therefore crucial, such as the availability of micro-credit and other incentives, access to land and legal protections, institutional interventions that promote social capabilities and support market arrangements, and active steps towards gender equality. Women generally face greater difficulties than any other group when it comes to economic insecurity, often being denied access to resources such as land, credit, inheritance rights, and they have limited access to services.

Governments of developing countries do have the capacity to influence distributional outcomes by using a range of policy instruments such as fiscal transfers, targeted public spending (health, education, infrastructure), and measures to extend market opportunities.[16] People need to be empowered and therefore equipping them with the conditions and capabilities required to work their way out of poverty and increase self-reliance is a very important step.

Health education

Illness and disability are critical and pervasive threats to human security, and therefore must be combated to protect human lives and guarantee social stability. Communities are greatly affected by health crises that can precipitate an economic catastrophe, destabilize society with outbreaks of epidemics, or deplete skilled workforces. HIV/AIDS-infected adults lose the capacity to work, their health costs increase, and additional pressure is put on their families' financial coping mechanisms. The HIV/AIDS epidemic is quickly eroding human capacity on an

(12) http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/ittmig2002/ittmigrep2002.htm
(13) Matthew Gibney, 2006, *Who should be included? Non-citizens, conflict and the constitution of the citizenry*, Oxford, UK, Centre for Research on Inequality, Human Security and Ethnicity (CRISE), September, p. 3. (Working paper No. 17.)
(14) CHS, 2003, *Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People*, New York, United Nations Commission on Human Security, p. 75.
(15) Ibid., 2003, p. 76.
(16) UNDP, op. cit., p. 38.

extensive front. In the African continent only 4 per cent of people affected with the virus receive anti-retroviral drugs.[17] The slow response to HIV/AIDS has contributed to deepening global health inequalities.

Access to fresh water is another important public service issue as human survival depends on it. More than 1 billion people lack access to clean water, about 2 billion lack adequate sanitation and an estimated 3 million people die each year from waterborne diseases or from ill health linked to poor sanitation.[18] The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that 8.5 million cases of tuberculosis emerge every year and that by 2020 36 million people will die from the disease.

Central to health security is the importance of people being adequately informed about threats to their health and the preventive measures or simple remedies needed to save lives. Educating the public to adopt health-conscious behaviour, seek health services, and to actively participate in the decision-making process by advocating for change in public health are the first steps to achieving health

security. The absence of health facilities is also a contributing factor to the spread of disease.

Knowledge of sanitation, immunization, HIV/AIDS, cholera prevention, landmine awareness, and nutrition directly save lives, as children from educated mothers are more likely to survive to their fifth birthday. Education is a fundamental human right as the capacity to read and write improves people's quality of life and security and improves economic prospects. Yet there are still over 800 million people worldwide who do not possess basic literary skills.[19] Basic primary education is vital, but faces three main barriers: poor quality, insufficient funding, and the lack of schooling for displaced children.[20] When people have access to information and skills, they become better equipped to address concerns that directly affect their security, by engaging in public debate and democratic action. The media and free flow of information also play an important role because when citizens are properly informed they can take action towards changing government policies and hold political leadership to account.[21]

Environmental and agricultural issues

For many developing countries, deforestation and desertification are greater threats than military incursions or external attacks. Ecological instability and insecurity directly affect food production in many developing countries, especially in Africa and Asia where 75 per cent of the population live in rural areas. Environmental resources are of vital importance to the livelihoods of many people, especially those living in rural areas whose economic and household security are intimately linked to the land. Communities rely on forests for fuel and on subsistence farming for food. Population growth, expected to reach 8.9 billion in 2050, and an increased demand for scarce resources in both the industrialized and the developing world, are accelerating environmental depletion.

Natural disasters such as hurricanes, tornadoes, drought, landslides or flooding can have a tremendous impact on people's lives by devastating coping mechanisms and plunging the poor into even more vulnerable situations. The drought in the Niger, the Asian tsunami and the change in the Amazon ecosystem are examples of how

the physical security and livelihoods of several millions are at the mercy of volatile environmental transformations.[22] The loss of arable land, deforestation and overfishing, water scarcity and the alteration of ecosystems complicate sustainable development. Because 70 per cent of the world's poor live in rural areas and depend on agriculture for their income and food security, trade barriers imposed by developed countries have devastating effects.

The World Trade Organization's Doha Declaration of 2001[23] committed signatories and WTO members to protect the needs of developing countries, but has yet to be fully implemented. Although improvements in trading opportunities will not in isolation directly promote poverty alleviation, they are important steps. They should be accompanied by efforts to rebuild destroyed or poor infrastructure, stimulate agricultural productivity and counter the crippling effects of external debt. Highly indebted countries should be given the opportunity of debt sustainability by lender governments and international financial institutions with longer rescheduling, greater debt relief and improved access to global markets.[24]

<div style="text-align: right">Chapter 4</div>

(17) Ibid., p. 27.
(18) UN, op. cit., p. 12.
(19) UNDP, op. cit., p. 20.
(20) CHS, op. cit., p. 118.
(21) See UNESCO, 2007, *Education for All Global Monitoring Report – Strong Foundations: Early Childhood Care and Education* http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001477/147794E.pdf; UNESCO, 2006, *Education for All Global Monitoring Report – Literacy for Life* http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001416/141639e.pdf; UNESCO, 2005, *Education for All Global Monitoring Report – The Quality Imperative* http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001373/137333e.pdf.
(22) Richard Jolly and Deepayan Basu Ray, 2006, *The Human Security Framework and National Human Development Report*. New York, United Nations Development Programme, p. 9. (Occasional Paper 5.)
(23) http://www.wto.org/English/thewto_e/minist_e/min01_e/mindecl_e.htm
(24) UN, op. cit., p. 28.

Increasingly, climate change is becoming an important element affecting human security worldwide, both in regard to modern economies dependent on hydrocarbons and developing economies. Efforts to formulate climate-friendly development strategies – that focus on the development of low-carbon energy sources and bio-sources, and the creation of low greenhouse gas technologies – are fundamental. Included in such measures are the drafting and ratifying of numerous international mechanisms to protect the environment, such as the 1987 Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer, the 1992 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (FCCC), the 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), the 2000 Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety, the 1989 Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal, and the 1973 Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES). If the 1997 Kyoto Protocol had been ratified and respected by more UN Member States, then the excessive dependence and use of fossil fuels would have been reduced and therefore substituted by environmentally friendly renewable energy sources.

Box 1: Environment and development in the approaches to 2020

As we approach the 21st century, our concept of environmental responsibility is based on … the practice of sustainable development. Central to this conception are the following tenets: current practice must not undermine future standards of living; economic systems must maintain or improve their resource and environment base for future generations. To ensure that future generations have the same, or better, opportunities than the present generation, there is full accord that sustainable development should cover economic growth, social development and environmental protection.

[To achieve this ideal], a number of areas could be considered for action in the next twenty or thirty years. Firstly, we must aim to devise appropriate means for empowering women, youth and the poor in the design and implementation of development policies and programs using new information technologies. This subject has aroused much discussion, but thus far no practical answer has been forthcoming. We lack methodologies for empowerment.

The promotion of democracy is, naturally, an important area for action, but we should ask if this can really be achieved. Can we impose democracy by force? Are the democracies of the developing world really democratic or do we most often see lip-service being paid to democratic ideals? We are in sore need of a frank and honest discussion. This remains the basic requirement for further development.

International water authorities must provide as much help as possible in establishing policies and strategies to efficiently manage diminishing freshwater resources. The availability of freshwater, and particularly shared resource, is going to be *the* issue of the 21st century, whether we like it or not … . We need to prepare the mechanisms for the resolution of the conflicts that are going to occur between countries sharing water resources.

Careful use of genetic engineering in food and pharmaceutical production should become an overall strategy for the development of technology. There is also much progress to be made in furthering our understanding of climate change, ozone depletion, and the loss of biodiversity.

A major role has to be given to the issues arising from the use of economic instrument for the implementation of relevant global treaties and to the setting of price tags for the services of the environment and its natural resources. Without resolving the questions that these issues raise, there can be no rational use of the environment, its components, or its natural resources.

A strategic focus must be maintained on the issue of ensuring global food security, conserving natural resources and bringing about an urgent shift in power generation to new and renewable sources of energy, within the context of a change from the irrational non-sustainable patterns of consumption that undermine the environment and natural resources.

We should strive towards achieving an important understanding of the content and impact of the market-driven globalization that is taking place …

These reforms offer the opportunity, in the long term, to alleviate poverty and to meet basic human needs as well as to bring about the end of economic conditions that promote environmental degradation. Imagination, determination, and courage will be required if we are to oust the rigidly unfair and protectionist international economic order, eliminate commodity price volatility and overcome the crippling debt and chronic poverty that presently strangle society.

Source: Mostafa Tolba, Environment and development in the approaches to 2020,
in Jérôme Bindé (ed.), *The Future of Values: 21st Century Talks*,
UNESCO/Berghahn, 2004, pp. 210–14

II. In search of the most appropriate policies for human security

The breadth of issues that need to be included in a human security agenda – from natural disasters to the International Criminal Court – makes it difficult to generate policies that would have an impact internationally.

In order to adequately protect people in situations of violent conflict, human security needs to be placed on the security agenda, respect for human rights and humanitarian law enforced, combatants and organizations disarmed, humanitarian action strengthened, and respect for citizenship upheld.

Necessity of international cooperation

Regional organizations such as the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), the African Union (AU), the Organization of American States (OAS), the Union of the Arab Maghreb and the League of Arab States can take the front line in emphasizing the importance of human security and devising comprehensive strategies. It has been suggested that peacekeeping operations from either the UN or regional bodies should include in their mandate specific references to combating the trafficking of women and children, as part of a wider strategy to protect the most vulnerable elements of a conflict zone (elderly, disabled and indigenous people or those on the move).

Multilateral and bilateral agreements between states, aimed at devising coordinated action, have begun to develop with regard to protecting certain elements of human security. The Economic Cooperation Organization (ECO) comprised initially of the Islamic Republic of Iran, Turkey and Pakistan, and then enlarged to include six former Soviet states (Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan) now represents about 300 million people and aims to advance transport and trade capabilities.[25] An equivalent of the ECO, the Central Asian Cooperation Organization (CACO), was established to deal with conflict, the rise of radical movements, and devise political solutions to faltering economies. The Chinese Government has also taken steps to improve regional cooperation regarding security issues, especially through the Beijing-led Shanghai Cooperation Organization.

The countries of East Asia have developed the Asian Regional Initiative Against Trafficking (ARIAT) in Women and Children where human trafficking is given a policy uplift. The action plan proposes to establish a sound partnership among governments, civil society, the media and the private sector to devise strategies to prevent, protect, prosecute and repatriate. The issue of how to eradicate poverty led Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia, Timor-Leste and Viet Nam to create the East Asia Forum on Poverty Reduction in 2002 by taking action at grass-roots level, such as the promotion of education among women.

In Latin America, there are two main documents that provide protection, the Inter-American Democratic Charter of 2001 and the American Convention on Human Rights (Pact of San José) of 1969. The OAS has initiated a valuable debate over the changing concept of security, as seen in 1998 at the Second Summit of the Americas when the presidents instructed the Committee on Hemispheric Security to identify the common positions needed to generate a shared concept of security for the region. The reformulation of the concept led to the Bridgetown Declaration in 1992, where it was agreed that a multidimensional approach to security would be established, that new threats and challenges to security were transnational, and the need was reiterated to enhance cooperation and coordination so that threats could be addressed in a targeted way.[26] In addition, the mechanisms created towards disarmament – the treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America and the Caribbean of 1969, the American Treaty on Pacific Settlement of 1948, and the Inter-American Convention against the illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms (ICMTF) of 1998 – have been of great value in tackling a fundamental cause of human insecurity in Latin America.

Transnational institutions through which justice can be sought are essential to the protection of human security. The African Commission on Human and People's Rights, the African Court of Human Rights, the ECOWAS Community Court of Justice, and the Constitutive Act of the African Union that creates additional bodies to which civil society can address peace and security issues are just some of the mechanisms in Africa. An alternative model for reconciliation is that of the truth and reconciliation commissions.

(25) Anara Tabyshalieva, 2006, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative, and Educational Frameworks in Central Asia,* Paris, UNESCO, p. 78.
(26) Claudia Fuentes and Francisco Rojas Aravena, 2005, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in Latin America and the Caribbean*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 42.

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Founding transitional justice

The last fifty years have witnessed many countries, from Argentina to South Africa, make the difficult transition from authoritarian and violent rule to democratic practice and good governance. Some transitions have focused on dealing with the atrocious past by establishing truth commissions, others by trying perpetrators of human rights abuses, others by granting amnesty to former perpetrators or expelling from government service those who were involved in the previous regimes. Newly elected governments have three major concerns when considering how to deal with past human rights violators: maintaining physical security in the country; bringing perpetrators to justice and addressing the population's need for an accounting of the past; and asserting their legitimacy by obeying the rule of law.

There is no right or wrong way to deal with the past and initiate the processes of truth, justice and reconciliation. Some countries choose a purely reconciliatory process based on forgiveness and truth-telling, while others advocate the purist line of criminal justice for all perpetrators of human rights abuses. Because absolute justice is both rare and difficult due to political and social stability considerations, countries in transition often strive for a balance between truth-telling, criminal justice, reconciliation and compensation. Dealing with the past, in whatever manner, has the ultimate goal of closing that chapter in history and beginning a new one by instituting the respect for human rights that was previously missing, and revitalizing a populace's faith in the rule of law.[27]

In many cases, people often knew what had happened and who had committed abuses, but the desire to have personal pain and suffering officially acknowledged is often essential if an individual and a society are to move from the past into the present and future. The South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) was established after the end of apartheid to uncover the truth about abuses committed under white rule and to create a record of those abuses. Because information was entrusted in a setting that was not legal in the sense that criminal trials are, and because amnesty was guaranteed for those who made full disclosure of their political crimes, many truths were uncovered which may not have been if amnesty guarantees had not been on the table.

The case of Rwanda is a good example of problems encountered when a country aims for criminal justice ahead of truth-telling or fact-finding. For the last nine years, Rwanda has been trying to process through its courts over 100,000 suspected perpetrators of the 1994 genocide who will not be tried before the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, based in Arusha (United Republic of Tanzania). Due to the large quantity of detainees and the logistical problems faced by the courts, including lack of funds and qualified legal representatives, the process has been slow and Rwanda has had to look at other ways of punishing those who participated in the genocide. The government has turned to traditional courts, known as *gacaca*.

Inequality and discrimination have first to be remedied in the official discourse and action of the government, as well as in the memories of the population, in order that reconciliation may begin to take shape. A step in this direction would involve dealing with the deep-rooted causes of the conflict.[28]

Land redistribution – another powerful tool in restoring lost citizenship, dignity and nationhood – would have both immediate and long-term effects. On the one hand, it would contribute to reducing poverty and inequality, and on the other hand it would provide post-conflict victims with a relevant basis for physical, cultural and social recovery.

Monitoring post-conflict reconstruction

In post-conflict settings, freedom is achieved when development helps to enhance people's capabilities and choices. The liberties that people enjoy are a combination of civil and political rights, and social and economic arrangements. Protecting individuals in order to allow them the possibility of participating in all spheres of social, economic and political life can be achieved by promoting a culture of human security and advancing the infrastructure to support it. This broad and encompassing structure that shields people's lives must include police systems, safety nets and workfare programmes, environmental regulations, health care networks, education systems, vaccination campaigns, diplomatic engagements and early-warning systems for crisis or conflict.

Political, social and economical integration. Inclusion in political and social life is a way of guaranteeing groups' right to difference while promoting integration and social cohesion. This can be done by giving people the guarantee of equal access to socio-economic institutions; affirmative action and quota systems are an option in the stages of peacebuilding.[29] Land redistribution and the equitable

(27) Richard Wilson, 2000, Reconciliation and revenge in post-apartheid South Africa, in *Current Anthropology*, Vol. 41, No. 1, February.
(28) CHS, op. cit,, p. 132.
(29) *Human Security in Africa*, report of UN Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (OSAA), December 2005, p. 10.

sharing of revenue from natural resources is another elemental way of harmonizing relations between citizens and communities. In post-conflict situations, the protection of human rights and the re-establishment of the rule of law are also critical.

Respect for the rule of law in a society exiting a period of civil war and chaos is a fundamental step towards the reconstruction of a country and the reconciliation of its people. It is the basis on which trust, acknowledgement of duties and obligations, respect for fellow citizens and a culture of human rights can prosper. Law can be a tool for structural change, provided that the tools for communication are intelligible to all, giving citizens hope that they can protect and defend themselves by means of the law, and change the system by means of the law. Law can therefore be considered an instrument of social engineering. In societies where a great part of the population is illiterate, underprivileged, not possessing any material belongings, whose indigenous systems of law are sabotaged by modernization pressures emanating from the city, and for whom the imposition of a modern and centralized law has decreased their access to traditional law, a form of consensus that interplays with all interests and senses of justice must be devised if the law is to spread throughout the national territory. In order for this to be achieved, the focus should be on the interaction of people and their 'legal perceptions' as well as on the formalization of the legal system. By taking into account the ideas that people entertain about justice and legality, problems of administering the law will decrease. The building of a nation-state could be achieved with what Meister[30] has described as 'constitutional politics based on reidentification as opposed to constitutional politics of representation'.

A constitution written in an open spirit and looking towards unification and prosperity, similar to the 1996 Constitution of South Africa, can perform the spiritual work of recovery, where the legal framework will serve as a determinant for truth and justice. This step of writing the law will be part of the official acknowledgement of past atrocities by attempting to remedy previous injustices and horrors with the present recognition of a future enabled by a sense of justice towards a whole nation. This legal document will therefore lay to rest the divisions between those that won the war and those that lost it, by placing both in an equal framework of citizens empowered to maintain peace and unearth their country from the burials of war and poverty. It will also embody the history of struggles against injustice, as it will allow history to be recovered by the establishment of the rule of law.

Involvement of the armed forces in reconstruction efforts. The armed forces, entrusted to maintain national stability and the security of citizens, can play an important role in development. Military personnel, who in many countries make up a significant portion of the working population, can participate in social work,[31] such as agriculture (preparing land for cultivation), health (building clinics in rural areas), and post-conflict reconstruction (demining, rebuilding infrastructure, public works). But in parallel, programmes that aim at curbing the spread of small arms and light weapons and focus on disarming civilians and combatants should be linked with strategies to advance human security. Education, the changing of attitudes about the role of small arms and the neutralization of social stigmas regarding those who fought, may reduce interpersonal conflict in the stages of post-conflict reconstruction.

Humanitarian action, when executed rapidly after a crisis begins, can save many lives by providing the most essential needs of food, water, sanitation, shelter and basic health care to groups most at risk before they reach a stage of advanced vulnerability. When political solutions are unattainable in the near future, whole sections of the population are left unprotected and without relief assistance. A humanitarian strategy that includes a human security approach focuses on enhancing people's capabilities, choices and general security.[32] Inclusive policies that advocate the principle of non-discrimination and equality coupled with the rights of specific groups, such as refugees, IDPs, minorities, indigenous people, women and children, furthers this agenda. During the return and resettlement process in Bosnia and Herzegovina, communities accepting the return of minorities and the restoration of their property were given priority in the rehabilitation of infrastructure and water and electricity services.

Preventive strategies to curtail conflict and decrease the possibility of loss of citizenship may include early-warning mechanisms, targeted sanctions, diplomatic missions and the deployment of peacekeeping forces.[33] When the state is ineffective and its institutions are weak and incapable of law enforcement, the protection of its citizens is greatly reduced. In the last two decades the fall of the Soviet Union and the collapse of the former Yugoslavia left citizens unprotected overnight and open to violence and abuse. The right to citizenship and nationality, 'the right to have rights' is essential for without it people are stateless, unable to receive health care, go to school, find employment, own property, or participate in politics.[34] The denial of citizenship also becomes a poverty issue

(30) Robert Meister, 1999, Forgiving and forgetting: Lincoln and the politics of national recovery, in Carla Hesse and Robert Post (eds), *Human Rights in Political Transitions: Gettysburg to Bosnia*, New York, Zone Press, pp. 135–175.
(31) Gabriel Siakeu, 2000, Peace and human security in Africa, in *What Agenda for Human Security in the Twenty-first Century?*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 29.
(32) CHS, op. cit., p. 27.
(33) Ibid., p. 31.
(34) Ibid.

and therefore should be specifically included in development strategies.

In order to protect people who migrate internally, whether through choice or by force, steps have to be taken to provide them with opportunities for orderly and safe movement. This could include developing norms for the rights and obligations of migrants, the formulation of strategies to combat human trafficking, and protecting the settling groups from racism and intolerance. Refugees are the responsibility of states but are also protected by international organizations such as the UNHCR, UNDP, IOM and civil society groups. Once the conflict ends, they need to be assisted in either resettling in a third country or to voluntary repatriate and reintegrate with their home communities. Guaranteeing their safety is fundamental both in times of war and of peace as many combatants infiltrate these groups, compromise their security and use the refugee camps as recruitment centres, particularly recruitment of children.

Internally displaced persons are internationally protected by the Geneva Conventions and the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. Problems arise when they are regarded as a humanitarian issue and their protection and empowerment is excluded from national development strategies.[35] For migrants, the granting of citizenship should be facilitated, especially when the family has lived in the host country for several generations.

Encouraging ethical perspectives and prospective analysis

In the implementation process of the recommendations formulated during the human security regional meetings organized by UNESCO, it should never be forgotten that the added value of UNESCO interventions in this field lies in the Organization's emphasis on the ethical foundations of human security. Indeed, UNESCO has consistently made it clear that concern for human security is inseparable from:
> ethical questions about what is right and wrong, and
> policy questions about what ought to be done.

That added value of UNESCO has to be sustained and fine tuned in order to entrench the values underlying human security (such as solidarity, tolerance, openness, dialogue, transparency, accountability, justice and equity, sanctity of life, generosity) and foster the commitment of states and communities to these values. Providing a solid ethical foundation for human security and buttressing it by long-term policies at the service of human security does, however, present its share of tough challenges. One of them has to do with the dynamic nature of the challenges as well as the opportunities associated with human security. There can be no better illustration of this dynamic than the changes that have affected the field of conflict.

In recent years, traditional inter-state wars have been largely replaced by intra-state warfare and struggles for self-determination and national identity in the post-Cold War world. Of the fifty-eight major armed conflicts in forty-six locations throughout the world during the period from 1990 to 2002, all but three (95 per cent) were civil or communal conflicts fought within the borders of a sovereign state.[36] Civilians, making up more than 90 per cent of casualties in the conflicts that have broken out since the end of the Cold War, have been the greatest victims, in particular women and children, who are often the targets of assault and hostility in times of violence and war. The proliferation of threats from within in the form of intra-state conflicts and challenges to intra-national stability in the wake of the Cold War was a factor that played a key role in increasing awareness of the need to broaden the traditional concept of security and was instrumental in bringing human security issues to the forefront.

In this new context, Nobel prizewinner Amartya Sen argues that one of the advantages of considering human security as a fundamental human right is the associative connection that rights have with the corresponding duties of other people and institutions. As such, human security would also take on the characteristics of universality, interdependence and inalienability.

In the last two decades the growing universalization and binding effect of the UN Declaration of Human Rights and the advancement of international law towards the protection of individuals have given the concept of human security a newly acquired strength and leverage. The international order is no longer restricted to matters dealing with the prevention of inter-state wars. Several conventions and protocols are used as legal tools for the enforcement of universal principles that deal with the promotion of personal freedom and citizens' rights, welfare and empowerment. The international doctrine of human rights has recently recognized that democracy is a universal value and a right in itself, being the principle of the self-determination of peoples and the expression of popular sovereignty. The right to democracy encapsulates the right to have rights and can be seen as both a means and an end in the struggle for human rights.

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(35) Ibid., p. 50.
(36) Shin-wha Lee, 2004, *Promoting Human Security: Ethical, Normative and Educational Frameworks in East Asia*, Paris, UNESCO, p. 19.

Throughout the last fifty years several international treaties and documents have promoted making democracy a human right: the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR, Preamble, Art. 29(2), Art. (8)); the 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR, Art. 14, 15); 1948 American Declaration of Rights and Duties of Man (Art. XXVIII); 1950 Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (Council of Europe, Art. 11); the 1969 American Convention on Human Rights (ACHR, Art. 29). In 2000, the Commission on Human Rights passed resolution 2000/47 confirming that democracy is not a regional value nested in particular cultural, social or religious traditions, but rather a universal value ingrained in the rich nature of the community of democracies.

In the political sphere the individual is protected by the following documents: the 1998 Statute of the International Criminal Court, the ICCPR, the 1989 Optional Protocol to the ICCPR on the abolition of the death penalty, the 1949 Geneva Conventions, the 1984 Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (CSR), the 1965 International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) and the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).

In terms of international and regional security, various treaties have provided the cornerstone of global peace and stability. Among these are the 1968 Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, the 1972 Convention on the Prohibition of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons (CPBW), the 1993 Convention on the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (CPCW), the 1997 Ottawa Convention on Anti-Personnel Mines, the 2000 United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the 1999 International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism (ICSFT).

Mechanisms that can be used to protect the individual in the socio-economic sphere are the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the 2000 Optional Protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in armed conflicts, the 2000 Optional Protocol of the CRC on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, and the ILO Convention No. 182 of 1999 concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour.

Finally, if we wish to be able to anticipate and prevent risks and threats in the field of human security, a very simple question may be asked: what are the future sources of tension and who will be the main players? To answer this question, states and societies have to be equipped with capacities to look to the future.

In this respect, the Great Horn Horizon Initiative recently launched in Djibouti, which has been facilitated by UNESCO, is to be commended. The main originality of this initiative is its focus on future-oriented studies and the use of anticipatory approaches and scenario-building methodologies in the analysis of regional issues. Employed in a number of countries to assist in the reconstruction of post-conflict societies, these approaches include often-neglected positive elements that can foster dialogue and reconciliation dynamics.

UNESCO would be well inspired to bring the expertise of institutions or networks of institutions which have specialized in future studies. Mapping them out and networking them would be a significant step in the right direction.

III. Future challenges: three scenarios

Over the last seven years, UNESCO has accorded importance to the innovative human security approaches to deal with contemporary challenges confronting our societies and this publication mainly aims to take stock of what has been achieved so far by the Organization and its partners in this field. But, beyond that, it is necessary to elaborate a prospective view of the forthcoming years during which following generations will incontestably continue to face human security challenges in an unceasingly evolving world. This prospective could start from a very simple question: what are the possible futures for human security?

Indeed, this concluding section attempts to glimpse the future challenges through envisaging scenarios.

To construct the scenarios, hypotheses are made on the drivers of change.[37] Three of these drivers of change, which are already active, are assumed to have the potential to contribute to shaping the future:

> dominance of market forces;
> state security concerns;
> concerns for policy formulation and implementation.

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(37) African Futures, 2002, *A Guide to Conducting Futures Studies in Africa,* African Futures and Phylos IPE.

Market-first scenario

The dominant view is that the most effective and efficient way to tackle human security challenges is through allocation of resources based on market mechanisms. According to this conception, conditions for security would be gathered by self-regulation of the market, without state or any other institutional body needing to intervene. Each person would thus be responsible for their own security of living which would be somehow determined by their role and place on the economic scene. In this scenario, throughout the developing world, a variety of businesses, either traditional or capitalist, are developing and providing a livelihood for a large segment of the population. However, a significant differentiation takes place within the developing world. While some emerge and consolidate their position in global trade, for many others past increases in productivity have come to a standstill, banishing them to the sidelines among capitalist countries, while debt overhang remains difficult to handle. In fact, this scenario also presents a potential danger: very often, as economy does not function as a closed circuit, market mechanisms are disturbed and impeded by several side-factors (that may be sanitary, natural, demographical, political …), and from there emerge all sorts of human insecurities.

In this trend-based scenario, Africa is the continent facing the greatest challenges in terms of human security. Significantly, the attainment of the MDGs is encountering serious, if not insurmountable, obstacles at this stage. On the continent, HIV/AIDS remains a major threat for which no lasting end is yet in sight, especially among the poorer nations. The problems arising from this scenario are increasingly social, transcending the political and economic, creating basic insecurity. Through its impacts on the labour force, households and enterprises in Africa, HIV/AIDS slows economic growth and development. The epidemic, which already has had a major effect on Africa's economic development, is further affecting its ability to cope with human security challenges (*HIV & AIDS in Africa*, 2007).[38] Many families lose their income earners. The surviving partners who are themselves infected need care. They leave orphans behind who grieve and struggle to survive without a parent's care. Orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) become a heated political issue.

Schools are seriously affected by HIV/AIDS which threatens the education sector as a whole. This is a major problem, because schools can play a vital role in reducing the impact of the epidemic, through education and support (*HIV & AIDS in Africa*, 2007). Moreover, threats to schools are certain to be perceived as threats in general, given the significant role played by education in most societies.

HIV/AIDS strikingly affects labour, hampering economic activity and social progress (*HIV & AIDS in Africa*, 2007), as the vast majority of people suffering from HIV/AIDS in Africa are between the ages of 15 and 49, in the prime of their working lives. Employers, schools, factories and hospitals have to train other staff to replace those at the workplace who become too ill to work.

These threats and insecurities require societal change at a high level of generality. Such change requires economic, political and legal reform as well as drastically improved education that links to global demands. Moreover, many of the changes required are dependent on changes in the political will of leaders. In the nature of things, these changes will take a long time to implement as they require major identity changes in the most important role-players.

In this scenario, other continents will also face tough challenges. A case in point is Europe where demographic and economic changes will become a major cause of concern. Europe's demographic challenges are quite acute, in as much as it is difficult for great powers to retain their leadership or hegemony if their population is shrinking (Samuelson, 2005). Birth rates in Europe have dropped well below the replacement rate of 2.1 children for each woman. For Western Europe the rate is 1.5. Even if we assume some increases in the birth rate and continued immigration, the outlook for Western Europe's population is expected to deteriorate seriously. At present approximately one-sixth of the population is 65 and older. By 2030 the figure could be one-quarter, and by 2050 almost one-third. It is not well known how modern economies will perform with so many elderly people dependent on government benefits (Samuelson, 2005).

Europe is also facing quite acute challenges on the economic front. In the 1970s annual growth for the twelve countries now using the Euro averaged almost 3 per cent; from 2001 to 2004, the annual average was 1.2 per cent. In 1974 the unemployment rate in these countries was 2.4 per cent, while in 2004 it was 8.9 per cent. This is due mainly to competition with the United States. Today not only does this competition continue to the advantage of the United States, but Europe's position is also challenged by the emerging economies of Asia and Latin America, which are making inroads in countries which were, until recently, the strongholds of Europe.

Unless Europe reverses two trends – low birth rates and low economic growth – it faces a bleak future of rising domestic discontent and falling global power. In fact, the future has already arrived in this respect. One solution to a low birth rate

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(38) http://www.avert.org/aafrica.htm

is greater immigration. But immigration fuels xenophobia, which is quite common in certain categories of the European population.

Concerning possible responses to the economic challenges, there is no easy way out. While indeed one way to revive economic growth would be to reduce social benefits, taxes and regulations, in fact such a policy would endanger Europe's 'social model'.

Some experts adopt a different point of view however, considering the decline in birth rate to be a necessary step towards sustainable development, which is the indispensable condition for the effective implementation of the MDGs. Indeed, Europe's specific case must not hide another reality in the world today, that of the persistent high birth rate and economic boom and acceleration in some developing countries. In the market-first scenario, where decision-makers privilege economic growth, would our societies and the planet be able to bear a situation where the world population would unceasingly increase, needing continuous economic growth which, in its turn, requires excessive exploitation of natural resources? In other words, is the sustainable development model compatible with the neoliberal conception of economic development?

Box 2: Demographic, economic and environmental impact on MDG implementation

An international group of scientists who took part in a major new international study… wants to see greater attention paid to population in future discussions about environmental sustainability. The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, launched by UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan in 2000 to assess the impact that environmental changes would have on achieving the Millennium Development Goals, involved the work of 1,360 scientific experts who aspired to measure the environmental impact that people are having on the Earth.

One document to emerge from the assessment process is *Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: Synthesis*, released in March 2005, which is one of several periodic reports scheduled for release through the end of 2005. This report examined the 'services' that ecosystems provide (for example, fish from the ocean and pollution filtration from wetlands) and concluded that 15 of the 24 services are being degraded or used unsustainably. It suggested that the various environmental declines comprise a roadblock to achieving many of the Millennium Development Goals, including those calling for insurance of global environmental stability, poverty alleviation, and food security…

Walter V. Reid, director of the assessment project, says ecosystem health is affected by two kinds of pressures that humans exert: changes in demand for (and consumption of) an ecosystem's specific services, and changes in emissions that might harm the ecosystem. 'Obviously, both change in demand and change in emissions are closely tied to the combination of population change and economic growth,' he says.

To Reid, the most troubling development regarding population trends and their environmental impact is the fact that the greatest population growth is now occurring in environmentally fragile areas, like drylands and mountainous regions, where water is scarce and the soil is generally poor… Another population trend emphasized in the March report is the movement of people to coastal areas around the world. Coastal ecosystems – marshes, mangroves, reefs – are extremely important contributors to human well-being, serving as breeding and nursery grounds for many species and as erosion prevention buffers between land and sea. Yet these benefactors are rapidly being destroyed… Discussions about burgeoning human populations and their impact on health and the environment abound in gloomy data and prospects of doom. But experts also suggest there are reasons to be somewhat optimistic. First, they say, humanity has proven itself to be more resourceful than Malthus and Ehrlich gave it credit for being. 'Basically, forty or fifty years ago, the whole world was growing rapidly,' Bongaarts[39] says. 'There was a huge concern about potential food shortages and environmental problems. But birth rates have declined, so growth is not as rapid as people thought it would be.' Even though the rates are declining in poor countries, they are still higher than the acknowledged replacement figure of 2.1 children per woman. Still, Asian, Latin American, and Caribbean women are bearing children at a rate of 2.6 children per woman in 2004 compared to about 5 per woman in 1970, according to the UN Population Division. African women still have 5 children on average, but that is down from 6.7 in 1970. Europe has dropped from 2.2 children per woman to a population-slashing 1.4. In the major world regions, only North America has not seen declining birth rates. North American women averaged 2.0 children in 1970 and the figure was the same in 2004…

As the scientists who conducted the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment conclude, a broad international response is necessary to deal with the environmental declines caused by increasing human pressure. They did not make predictions about what may happen, but they did offer **four possible future scenarios**. The first, 'Global Orchestration', depicts a world that makes economic development a priority and emphasizes solving environmental problems rather than preventing them in the first place. The second, 'Order from Strength', represents a fragmented world concerned primarily with security and protection, where the approach to the environment again is reactive. The third, 'Adapting Mosaic', would de-emphasize economic development and put priority on the health of ecosystems, largely through the strengthening of local management strategies. The fourth scenario, 'TechnoGarden', describes a future in which a unified world relies on environmentally sound technology and highly managed, often engineered, ecosystems to deliver ecosystem services, and that achieves both strong economic growth and a healthier world.

Walter V. Reid believes that the work on which direction the world should go must start soon. And he believes the debate must focus more on population than it has to date. 'Population is one of those issues that are so central and so politicized,' he says. 'Sometimes you worry that people are ignoring it because of the political side of it, but it's critical that people keep thinking about it and about steps that can be taken to address population problems.'

Adapted from: Richard Dahl, Population Equation: Balancing what we need with what we have, *Environmental Health Perspectives*, Vol. 113, No. 9, September 2005.
http://www.ehponline.org/members/2005/113-9/ehp0113-a00598.pdf

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(39) John Bongaarts, demographer, vice president of policy research at the non-profit Population Council.

While the need for large-scale reform is acknowledged globally and at various other levels, socio-economic and political challenges remain almost unabated for several reasons. Chief among these are issues pertaining to political leadership and democracy and its role in creating an enabling environment for entrepreneurship and development. The organization of a reform agenda is however difficult. It is impeded in some cases by state collapse and state failure with its accompanying woes such as political and social exclusion of minorities and indigenous people and leadership through the exercise of personality politics. But in most cases, the impediment will be located in the risk-averse nature of the political powers, which will adopt or consolidate rent-seeking behaviour rather than strategies aimed at maximizing productivity.

When considering the interconnection between a state's good governance and economic development, the situation of Asia, particularly Central Asia, may be mentioned. In particular, reference should be made to the outcomes of the 2002 Round Table on Transition and Human Security in Central Asia, organized by the Commission on Human Security in Turkmenistan.[40] For this region, critical uncertainties pertaining to this scenario will evolve around political reform issues, four of which have been identified:

> promotion of democracy and empowerment of people;
> advancing a responsible media and mass information;
> curbing corruption; and
> understanding the underlying dynamics of the rise of Islamic activism.

Regarding the promotion of democracy and the empowerment of people, many countries in transition experience the suppression of democratic and human rights as governments struggle to maintain stability. Many of the Central Asian countries have experienced this dilemma and have paradoxically attempted to promote human and democratic rights by preventing the development of multiple political parties, media and other forms of civil society. However, this tends to close the political system to alternative viewpoints and often creates more opposition.

Regarding the mass media, there has been a trend in Central Asia to limit freedom of the media and access to plural sources of information. At times, 'independent' journalists and opposition members making use of the opposition press have even received government threats of physical violence, thus blocking a primary means of peacefully expressed opposition.

As for corruption in Central Asia, it is fed by a number of factors: low wages, an often unprofessional state bureaucracy, decades of patronage and clientelism, lack of confidence in the state and weak state capacity, due to partial economic and political transition.

Security-first scenario

Such a scenario could thrive on the socio-economic crises associated with globalization, but may also be driven by failures in the political or cultural spheres. Without being pessimistic, causes for serious concern that could lead to a security-first scenario can be found in different parts of the world. Cases in point include South-East and Central Asia, the situation in some Arab States, or the Horn of Africa.

The 1997 economic crisis in South-East Asia has left behind many social and political problems. Even ten years after this major event, some countries are still recovering. And it is precisely this period of 'reconstruction' that can trigger critical change in the way South-East Asian countries understand and implement the human security approach. In the face of slow economic recovery, social tensions and unequal redistribution, voices and opinions among the people and the political scene may indeed rise to demand a stronger state, which could orient society in a stricter and firmer manner. This evolution could then of course endanger a multidisciplinary and participatory approach to development, as advocated by a human security approach.

The economic situation in Central Asia has become more unfavourable since shortly after the fall of the Berlin Wall and the end of the Cold War. Although the majority of the region's labour force and population is rural, with the exception of Kyrgyzstan, very little land reform or land privatization has taken place. Rather, some Central Asian states have recently adopted a heavy-handed, less democratic approach. Since 1995, the Central Asian elites have all attempted to consolidate their power, appease various clan and regional groups and control ethnic, Islamic and other political dissent. Although this is often done in the name of 'national security', excessive consolidation of centralized power brings with it a special kind of anxiety, one that starts with fear of one's own government.

The Arab States are another region where security concerns may be top priority. In global terms the region's share of world trade has declined. It also continues to produce few processed materials and concentrates on the production of low technology. There are also serious inequalities between men and women, rich and poor, in

(40) Rapporteur's Summary for the Commission on Human Security, Round Table on Transition and Human Security in Central Asia, Ashgabad, Turkmenistan, 22–24 April 2002.
http://humansecurity-chs.org/activities/outreach/ashgabat_report.pdf

some Arab countries. Moreover, the flow of capital is hampered by political instability, inadequate infrastructure and corruption. Arab countries also remain subject to the inequalities, instabilities and failures of the free trade areas, in particular where free trade is limited to capital and manufactured goods but is unable to produce free movement of labour.

However, some of these states have one resource that has the potential to threaten human security: oil. As oil is a diminishing resource, unless significant alternative sources of energy are found the Arab States will have no alternative but to preserve whatever oil reserves they have left, with critical security implications for the rest of the world. This does not bode well for the future sense of security of many countries that are largely dependent on the Arab States for their oil supplies.

This situation is made more complex by the role the Arab States play in the context of the war on terror, a context in which Islam and terrorism are wrongly equated. A dominant view in large segments of the population is that the Arab nations will have to be on their guard in future as they may be military targets under cover of fighting terrorism. In response to this warning and its populist tones, security concerns may be top priorities of regimes whose legitimacy is sometimes challenged by 'fundamentalists' thriving on disparities notable in various oil-producing countries.

In Africa, state collapse and state failure continue to bring insecurity in their wake, including in the most drastic form of genocide, as experienced in Rwanda. Until the devastating genocide of 1994, Rwanda was the most densely populated country in Africa and had the highest fertility rate. The genocide claimed millions of lives in addition to destroying the infrastructure that once provided food, housing and public services to the population. This has had devastating effects on the citizens of the country and the Great Lakes Region.

Less spectacular but just as devastating as genocide, protracted conflicts in Sierra Leone and Liberia have had a terrible impact on human security. Not only psychological damage goes deep but even basic needs such as food cannot be met in war situations, as amply demonstrated by the crisis in 1980 in Ethiopia. In the 1980s, agrarian communities in Ethiopia were almost destroyed when the farmers went to fight in a devastating civil war. Similar patterns can be recorded in the Sudan, where populations are at present affected by conflict of the most basic and widespread nature in spite of the intensive efforts of the international community to negotiate peace.

Few analysts expect that governments or communities in these countries will be able to cope with the effects of the crisis in the short term, which is creating more and more stressful insecurity. None of the basic insecurities experienced by the African nations can be said to have obvious, short-term solutions. But fear of relapse into war or activities of rebel groups which are not parties to the peace agreement brokered by the international community may lead governments in these countries to invest a significant portion of their resources in state security rather than in human security, particularly in cases where the dominant perception is that peace remains fragile.

Policy-first scenario

This scenario consists in considering the geopolitical context in which human security would have to be tackled tomorrow. Evolution and change in terms of human security very much depend on the evolving strategies of some countries that have high political and economic weight. The policy-first scenario thus makes the hypothesis that human security would be somehow deeply impacted, either directly or indirectly, by international geopolitical changes that would determine the political strategy of large countries. This strategy would, in turn, have worldwide effects on societies.

But beyond mere political or economic conjunctures that could determine major evolution in the policy-first scenario, a key area, the environment, which is not region-specific, can best illustrate the importance of policies and other factors relevant to human security. The emerging universal threat of environmental degradation is much more worrying than the other issues discussed above, because international consensus must be reached, and because the ethical responsibility of each of us is great. Very clearly indeed, irrespective of the scenario that will prevail in the future, climate change and the risks associated with it will affect the well-being of humanity. Climate change is expected to exacerbate all these problems by causing large-scale changes in sea temperature, sea level, sea-ice cover, currents and the chemical properties of the seas, according to recent reports from UNEP and IPCC. In a policy-first scenario, the legal and political instruments to address the challenge of climate change will occupy the centre stage and their negotiations as well as their implementation will be a major battleground.

Chapter 4

The warming of the Earth's climate system is unequivocal. According to the Fourth Assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), most of the observed increase in global averaged temperatures since the mid-20th century is very likely due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations… Climate change is one of the most critical global challenges of our time: its effects range from agricultural impacts and endangered water and food security to sea-level rise and the spread of vector-borne diseases. While the ice continues to melt, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is facing significant difficulties on agreeing on what needs to be done once the first commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol expires after 2012.

International discussions to build a long-term climate regime are constrained by a fundamental disagreement on how to move forward. It is difficult to generalize the position of different groups of parties, as national circumstances relating to global warming vary widely. In essence, developing countries suffer most of the negative climate-related impacts but fear that emission limitations could compromise their economic development. On the other hand, industrialized countries, driven by competitiveness concerns, are reluctant to agree to taking on new emission reduction commitments without any move from developing ones.

Climate change is a global problem and, as such, needs a global response which embraces the interests and needs of all countries. In its absence, individual actions face the risk of fragmentation and limited effectiveness. The international community needs a common and long-term agreement to address climate change, and a consensus on the direction that such a framework should take. The need for such a multilateral response is the main reason why the climate change debate within the United Nations must be revived.

More than ten years of diplomacy have delivered a mature process and have put in place the carbon market, which is one of the most powerful tools for international environmental policy… In order to provide the carbon market with political certainty, the international community should seek the involvement of economic and financial decision makers, since emerging concerns with energy security and economic growth are closely linked to actions to combat global warming. To build confidence, parties could set boundaries of their deliberations by agreeing on important elements of consensus in the form of principles. These could include:

> The need for a long-term global response in line with the latest scientific findings and compatible with private sector long-term investment planning strategies;
> The importance of industrialized countries continuing to take the lead by substantially reducing their emissions, given their historic responsibility and their economic power and capabilities;
> Further engagement of developing countries, in particular major emitters;
> The requirement that developing countries get incentives to limit their emissions and assistance to adapt to the impacts of climate change, so as to safeguard socio-economic development and poverty eradication; and
> Full flexibility in the carbon market to ensure the most cost-effective implementation and to mobilize the resources needed to provide incentives to developing countries…

It is the international community's responsibility to lead these initiatives into common action and to avoid their fragmentation. Governments ought to devote substantial efforts to move international politics towards this end.

Source: Yvo de Boer, Executive Secretary of the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change,
Magazine of the United Nations Environment Programme, May 2007, p. 13.
http://www.unep.org/pdf/Ourplanet/2007/may/en/OP-2007-05-en-FULLVERSION.pdf

If this scenario in which the climate change issue would determine international policy is to become a reality, international cooperation and global action based on solid agreement will be of crucial importance. Because action in the struggle against global warming is still possible today, decision-makers and international organizations are called upon to urgently take appropriate steps to safeguard the planet for following generations.

In this regard, UNESCO has offered an arena for high-level discussions, as its Executive Board recently added to its agenda a thematic debate on 'The multidisciplinary challenges of knowledge societies and global climate change',[41] held in September 2007.[42]

The outcomes of the latest United Nations Climate Change Conference in December 2007, held in Bali (Indonesia), show that the international community has heard the scientists' warning, and is aware of the necessity of setting up a global action plan that would replace the Kyoto Protocol ending in 2012. In this sense, there is indeed a form of agreement on the scientific founding of the phenomenon and for the general objective of reducing greenhouse gases. But still, the fact that parties to this international conference did not succeed in fixing a binding target for developed countries and, at the same time, called for 'nationally appropriate mitigation actions by developing country parties', as stated in the Bali Action Plan adopted by

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(41) UNESCO, 2007. 177th Session of Executive Board, Item 61. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001533/153373e.pdf
(42) UNESCO, 2007. 177th Session of Executive Board, Decision 61.5.

the Conference,[43] shows that the imposition of the climate change issue brings together two worlds whose economic and political interests diverge.

This situation really reveals the challenge that a policy-first scenario would need to take up: in the face of a large-scale problem implying a fundamental change in human behaviour, beyond national economic and political interests, how would large emerging economies arrive at a common ground acceptable to all parties? A geopolitical question of the utmost importance on this topic is what ethical and political foundations would be put forward in future negotiations, either to justify non-action, or to ask why one country should be more legitimate than another

to benefit from flexible measures? A new geopolitical map of the world may emerge from this deep shift in the way international relations are dealt with. In this new context, would international organizations at last be able to assemble countries around a common accord founded on a strong consensus?

In terms of human security, the policy-first scenario signifies a real renewal of the opportunity for a people-centred approach to be promoted and implemented by decision-makers, who would act with full awareness of the necessity for a global, interdisciplinary and participative approach to world-changing challenges.

(43) Bali Action Plan, 2007, Decision/CP.13, UN Climate Change Conference, 3–14 December.
http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/cop_13/application/pdf/cp_bali_action.pdf

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Anti-poverty
http://www.unesco.org/shs/antipoverty
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001415/141598E.pdf

Anti-terrorism
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Climate change
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001548/154880e.pdf
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001533/153373e.pdf
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Cultural diversity
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Culture of peace
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http://www.un.org/documents/ecosoc/res/1998/eres1998-31.htm

Democracy
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001310/131056e.pdf

Disaster risk reduction
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Education for All
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Food security
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Gender
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Heritage and post-conflict
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HIV/AIDS
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Human rights

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Human rights education

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Human Security Network

http://www.humansecuritynetwork.org/

Human Security Unit (Office of Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs)

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Intercultural dialogue

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Millennium Development Goals

http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/MDGs-FACTSHEET1.pdf

Post-conflict reconstruction

http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=35518&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
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Press freedom

http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en/ev.php-URL_ID=1530&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
http://portal.unesco.org/ci/en/ev.php-URL_ID=18538&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

Priority Africa

http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=19521&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO Medium-Term Strategy for 2002–2007

http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001254/125434e.pdf

UNESCO Prize for Peace Education

http://portal.unesco.org/shs/en/ev.php-URL_ID=2126&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD)

http://www.desd.org/
http://www.unesco.org/education/desd

Water resources

http://webworld.unesco.org/water/wwap/pccp/index.shtml

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Chapter 4

Acronyms

ABC	Assisting Bioethics Committees project (UNESCO)
ACCC	Adaptation to Climate Change in Coastal Zones project
ACHR	Asian Centre for Human Rights
ADB	Asian Development Bank
AFR	Africa Department (UNESCO)
AHSC	ASEAN Human Security Council
AHSI	African Human Security Initiative
AJK	Azad Jammu and Kashmir (Pakistan)
ALECSO	Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization
AMIS	African Union Mission in Sudan
APCEIU	Asia Pacific Centre of Education for International Understanding
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
ARF	ASEAN Regional Forum
ARIAT	Asian Regional Initiative Against Trafficking
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASEAN-ISIS	ASEAN Institute of Strategic and International Studies
ASF	African Standby Force
AU	African Union
BFC	Bureau of Field Coordination (UNESCO)
BPI	Bureau of Public Information (UNESCO)
BSEC	Black Sea Economic Cooperation
BSP	Bureau of Strategic Planning (UNESCO)
CACO	Central Asian Cooperation Organization
CAFC	Central American Armed Forces Conference
CASD	Centro di Alti Studi per la Difesa (Italy)
CASS	Chinese Academy of Social Sciences
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CCNE	Comité Consultatif National d'Ethique (France)
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CERI	Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches Internationales
CESEDEN	Centro Superior de Estudios de la Defensa Nacional (Spain)
CHS	Commission on Human Security
CI	Communication and Information Sector (UNESCO)
CIEFFA	International Centre for Girls' and Women's Education in Africa
CLT	Culture Sector (UNESCO)
CODESRIA	Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COSMAR	Coastal and Marine Sub-theme of the Environment Initiative of NEPAD

CPAF	Children's Performing Arts Festival of East Asia
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSI	Environment and Development in Coastal Regions and in Small Islands
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration process
DESD	United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2014)
DFAIT	Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (Canada)
EAPC	Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council
EBT	Enterprise-Based Training
ECO	Economic Cooperation Organization
ECOSOC	UN Economic and Social Council
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ED	Education Sector (UNESCO)
EDUCAIDS	UNAIDS Global Initiative on Education
EFA	Education for All
ENP	European Neighbourhood Policy
ERNO	Eurovision Regional News Exchange for South-East Europe
EU	European Union
EUISS	European Union Institute for Security Studies (replaced Western European Union Institute for Security Studies in 2001)
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FLACSO	Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales (Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences)
FRESH	Focusing Resources on Effective School Health
FRIEND	Flow Regimes from International Experimental and Network Data programme (UNESCO)
GCOS	Global Climate Observing System
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GED	Gender Equality and Development programme (UNESCO)
GEOS	Global Earth Observing System
GIEWS	Global Information and Early Warning System on Food and Agriculture (FAO)
GIS	Geographical Information System
GLOOS	Global Sea Level Observing System
GLR	Great Lake Region (Africa)
GOOS	Global Ocean Observing System
GRS	Global HIV & AIDS Readiness Survey (UNESCO Education Sector)
GWES	Groundwater for Emergency Situations project (UNESCO)
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HRBA	Human Rights-Based Approach
HSC	Human Security Centre
HSN	Human Security Network

Appendices

Human Security: Approaches and Challenges -- Appendices

HSQ	Human Security Questionnaire (UNESCO)
HSU	Human Security Unit (Office of Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, OCHA)
HUGE	Human, Gender and Environmental Security
IADC	Inter-American Defense College (United States)
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IATT	UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team
IBT	Institute-Based Training
ICAM	Integrated Coastal Area Management
ICG	Intergovernmental Coordination Group
ICHS	International Centre for Human Sciences
ICT	Information and communication technologies
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
IFSP	International Forum on the Social Science – Policy Nexus
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IGCP	International Geological Correlation Programme (UNESCO)
IGHS	Intersectoral Group on Human Security (UNESCO)
IGO	Intergovernmental Organization
IHEDN	Institut des Hautes Études de Défense Nationale (France)
IHP	International Hydrological Programme
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
ILO	International Labour Organization
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
IOC	Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (UNESCO)
IODE	Ocean Data and Information Exchange
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IOTWS	Indian Ocean Tsunami Warning and Mitigation System
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IPDD	International Panel on Democracy and Development
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
ISESCO	Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ISS	Institute for Security Studies (South Africa)
ISSJ	International Social Science Journal
ISWG	Intersectoral Working Group (UNESCO)
IWRM	Integrated Water Resources Management
IYCP	International Year of Culture of Peace
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LAS	League of Arab States
LIFE	Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (UNESCO)

LINKS	Local and Indigenous Knowledge Systems
MAB	Man and the Biosphere programme (UNESCO)
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MED	Ministry of Education
MERCOSUR	Southern Common Market (Latin America)
MOST	Management of Social Transformations programme (UNESCO)
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NESP	National Education Strategic Plan (Afghanistan)
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NRC	National Reconciliation Commission (Asian Centre for Human Rights)
NUSOJ	National Union of Somali Journalists
NWFP	North West Frontier Province (Pakistan)
OAS	Organization of American States
OCHA	Office of Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
ODG	Office of the Director-General (UNESCO)
ODINAFRICA	Ocean Data and Information Network for Africa
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OPT	Occupied Palestinian Territories
OREALC	Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe (Regional Education Office for Latin America and the Caribbean)
OSAA	Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (UN)
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
OUC	Open University of Catalunya (Spain)
PAP	Pan-African Parliament
PCCP	From Potential Conflict to Co-operation Potential programme (UNESCO)
PCPD	Post-Conflict and Post-Disaster
PEER	Programme for Education for Emergencies and Reconstruction (UNESCO)
PROFORGE	Projet intégré de formation à la gestion de l'éducation
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (UNESCO)
PWRDC	Palestinian Women's Research and Documentation Center
QVA	Quo Vadis Aquifers?
RTP	Responsibility To Protect
RUSHSAP	Regional Unit for Social and Human Sciences in the Asia-Pacific (UNESCO)
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAHRIT	Human Rights Trust of Southern Africa
SAIIA	South African Institute of International Affairs
SARPN	Southern African Regional Poverty Network
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

Appendices

SC	Natural Sciences Sector (UNESCO)
SECI	Southeast European Cooperative Initiative
SHS	Social and Human Sciences Sector (UNESCO)
SICA	Sistema de la Integración Centroamericana (Central American Integration System)
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SOFFE	Somali Forum for Freedom of Expression
TAPE	Technology for Poverty Eradication
TFYR Macedonia	The Former Yugoslavian Republic of Macedonia
TRC	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
TTISSA	Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UN-DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDG	United Nations Development Group
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNISOL	Universities in Solidarity with the Disadvantaged
UNITWIN	University Twinning and Networking scheme (UNESCO)
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UNSGS	United Nations Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Children
UNSSC	United Nations System Staff College
UNTFHS	United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security
UNU	United Nations University
UNU-CRIS	UNU Comparative Regional Integration Studies
UNU-EHS	UNU Institute for Environmental and Human Security
WANEP	West Africa Network for Peacebuilding
WEUISS	Western European Union Institute for Security Studies – established in July 1990, replaced in 2001 by European Union Institute for Security Studies (EUISS)
WHO	World Health Organization
WICS	World Islamic Call Society
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	World Trade Organization
WWAP	World Water Assessment Programme (UNESCO)

Human Security: Approaches and Challenges illustrates three types of interdisciplinary action taken by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) between 2000 and 2007 for promoting human security. In light of the goals and standards set forth by UNESCO in its fields of competence, this action involved:

> enhancing opportunities for sustainable development by empowering individuals and communities – through Education for All, training, networking, and building inclusive and participatory knowledge societies – to tackle threats to their livelihoods and the enjoyment of their human rights;

> identifying and promoting – through research and interaction with a wide range of partners – national and local policies designed to counter the aggravation of existing and emerging vulnerabilities and help secure progress already achieved;

> mobilizing regional organizations, research institutions, civil society and non-governmental organizations to target the needs of the most vulnerable populations in a long-term and integrated way, focusing on the contributions that education, the sciences, culture, and communication and information can make to that end.

Also included in the present volume are recommendations on regional priorities and challenges in the field of human security, the results of an online questionnaire on the topic, and a reflection on emerging challenges and possible future scenarios.