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Abstract: Conflict, wars and political instability that characterised the international system and the need for international peace and security is the central idea behind the formation of the United Nations as an international institutional framework that will guarantee global peace and security. Since its establishment in 1945 the United Nations has recorded remarkable achievements in the area of peace keeping, conflict resolution /management through the instrumentality of her peace keeping missions in different part of the globe and Africa in particular. Post-colonial Africa has been characterised by all forms of political instabilities precipitated by the internal contradictions within the continent and further manifested in the forms of ethno-religious crisis, militancy, terrorism, electoral violence etc. these situations has made UN intervention inevitable. However, in the recent past the involvement of UN Peace Keepers in Sexual abuse and exploitations in Central African Republic, Darfur, Mali, Liberia, and Sierra Leone etc. poses a lot of threat to the credibility of the UN. It is based on this that this paper attempts an investigation into the involvement of UN Peace Keeper in sexual exploitation and the relationship between peace keeping and sexual abuses with a view to ascertaining the factors that instigates peace keeper into sexual exploitations and the factors that also exposes people to sexual exploitation. Bearing in mind the nature of the research problem, this paper employed both the Organski’s collective security theory and Abraham Maslow’s theory of needs to examine both the political and psychological dimensions of the phenomenon. It is the position of this paper that the participation of UN Peace Keepers in sexual exploitation is a deviant behaviour and it undermines the
credibility that the UN is known for. The paper also recommends among others the need for the UN to empower host countries to punish perpetuators of sexual exploitations.

**Keywords:** United Nations, Peace Keeping, Peace Keepers, Sexual Abuse, Exploitation, Conflict, Collective Security

**Background**

Post-colonial Africa has been bedevilled by galaxies of challenges ranging from ethno-religious conflicts, trans-border crimes, Arms Proliferations, militancy, ethnic militias, terrorism etc occasioned by the inability of the political elites to promote the culture of good leadership within the continent. The ceaseless rate of political instability within the continent has made Africa a perpetual customer for United Nations Peace Keeping Missions.

Many regions around the globe are faced with difficulties of developing stable infrastructures from the crumbling remains of their colonial predecessors. These regions have experienced series of brutal civil conflicts in the early years following independence, often leaving tens of thousands dead. It is arguable to say that, no other region in the world has experienced more civil conflict in the post-colonial years than sub-Saharan Africa (Havlik, n.d). Conflicts, such as the ethnic violence between Hutus and Tutsis in Rwanda and the clashes between local warlords over food supplies in Somalia, are merely a small representation of the overwhelming suffering and civil strife that have plagued Africa since the first colonies were able to break away from their European administrators. Sub-Saharan Africa has myriad examples of failed states that have become so mired in civil conflict since independence that few people living within those troubled borders have any idea what constitutes a legitimate state (Havlik, n.d).

Sub-Saharan Africa is at the bottom of many economic indicators measuring the relative wealth of certain regions. For example, the entirety of Sub-Saharan Africa had a gross national income of $311 billion dollars in 2001 while members of the European Monetary Union had a GNI of more than $6 trillion in that same year (World Bank, 2003). This disparity of wealth is the factor to which some scholars attribute the differing levels of civil conflict in Africa; those that are not wealthy try to become wealthy, and those that are wealthy try to hoard it from those that are not (World Bank, 2003).

As a replacement of the League of Nations the United Nations was to promote global peace and security. Since its establishment in 1945 the UN has played remarkable role in terms of peace and conflict resolutions in different parts of the world. The contribution of troops by some member states has been the instrument and channel through which the UN carries out its peace keeping missions. However, the involvement of UN peacekeepers in sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) is one of the less acknowledged negative consequences of UN peacekeeping operations, though such behaviour fundamentally undermines the very ethics of peacekeeping. Prevailing allegations of SEA risk jeopardizing the future of UN peacekeeping, as they can cause it to be viewed as an activity that does more harm than good (Chun, 2009).
This situation is becoming alarming and it poses a lot of threat to the credentials and credibility of the United Nations. One may wonder what the relationship between peace keeping and sexual exploitation, which in itself constitute serious human right violation. It was to further buttress this point that Bastick, Grimm & Kunz (2007) maintained that, human rights transgressions and abuse, whether in war or other military deployment, remain an inescapable reality. Sexual abuse in armed conflict has a long history and has always been considered normal wartime behaviour, with perpetrators acting with unreserved impunity. Perpetrators range from members of official armed and security forces, paramilitary groups, non-state armed groups to civilians, including refugees and displaced persons (Bastick, Grimm & Kunz, , 2007).

If the Secretary-General’s zero tolerance policy is to become a reality, the UN as a whole including troop contributing countries (TCCs) must recognize that sexual abuse perpetrated by peacekeepers is not a mere disciplinary matter, but a violation of the victims’ fundamental human rights, and in many cases a violation of international humanitarian and criminal law. Regardless of whether the peacekeepers were acting under direct UN command or not, victims must be made the priority one of the central mandates of the UN’s peacekeeping mission in CAR is the protection of civilians, in particular women and children affected by armed conflict. Unfortunately in the case of the Allegations, the UN and its local partners failed to meet their obligation to protect the child victims (Chair et al, 2015).

Conceptual and theoretical issues
“Conflict related sexual violence” is understood as referring to incidents or patterns of sexual violence that include rape, forced prostitution, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity against women, men or children. Such incidents or patterns occur in conflict or post-conflict settings or other situations of concern (e.g. political strife). They may also have a direct or indirect nexus with the conflict or political strife itself, for example, a temporal, geographical and/or causal link (UN, 2017).

According to UN (2005), “sexual exploitation” and “sexual abuse” are used to distinguish those who are physically forced to have sex and those who are coerced into it owing to a lack of alternative survival tactics or through ignorance of their rights. “Sexual exploitation” is defined as “any actual or attempted abuse of a position of vulnerability, differential power, or trust for sexual purposes, including, but not limited to, profiting monetarily, socially or politically from the sexual exploitation of another” and “sexual abuse” as “the actual or threatened physical intrusion of a sexual nature, whether by force or under unequal or coercive conditions”.

Peacekeeping is defined by the United Nations (2005) as “a unique and dynamic instrument developed by the Organization as a way to help countries torn by conflict create the conditions for lasting peace”. The term “peacekeeper” is used broadly to include all international or regional troops that have been authorized or mandated by the UN Security Council to support peacekeeping missions.

Theories are important instrument for understanding political and socio-
economic phenomenon. It also serves as signpost which gives direction and clarity. To shed on the topic under investigation the theory of Collective Security and Abraham Maslow Humanistic Psychological theory is employed.

According to Asogwa (1999), collective security is a system of world order in which aggression by any state will be met by a collective response. He said it is a system which could be global or regional in which all member countries insure each other against every member, no state is singled out in advance as the enemy and each might be an aggressor in the future. In the view of Orakhelashvili (2011), he sees collective security as a collective action in response to a collectively identified threat. Hass (in Onoja, 1998) described collective security as the strategies used by inter-governmental organizations to restrain the use of force among the members. It provides the functions and the modus operandi for dealing with acts of aggression. It also includes the norms and procedures for inducing members to delay hostilities, summed up under the label “pacific settlement of disputes” (Hass cited in Onoja, 1998).

Morgenthau (1948) states that three prerequisites must be met for collective security to successfully prevent war:

i. The collective security system must be able to assemble military force in strength greatly in excess to that assembled by the aggressor(s) thereby deterring the aggressor(s).

ii. Those nations, whose combined strength would be used for deterrence as mentioned in the first prerequisite, should have identical beliefs about the security of the world order that the collective is defending.

iii. Nations must be willing to subordinate their conflicting interests to the common good defined in terms of the common defence of all member-states.

The theory of collective security as associated with Organski has been widely applied by scholars of international relations, defence and strategic studies. There are five basic assumptions underlying the theory of collective security as listed out by Organski (1958) and they include:

i. In an armed conflict, Member Nation States will be able to agree on which nation the aggressor is.

ii. All Member Nation-States are equally committed to contain and constrain the aggression irrespective of its source or origin;

iii. All Member Nation-States have identical freedom of action and ability to join in proceedings against the aggressor;

iv. The cumulative power of the cooperating members of the alliances for collective security will be adequate and sufficient to overpower the might of the aggressor.

v. In the light of the threat posed by the collective might of the nations of a collective security coalition, the aggressor nation will modify its policies or if unwilling to do so, will be defeated.

The foregoing clearly shows that but for collective security sake, there would not be such thing as UN peace keepers or peace keeping Force. The peace peeping force becomes inevitable when the internal security mechanism of a state cannot curb or counter aggressor from within or without. Peace keeping
operations are products of collective security framework which could be regionally or globally based depending on the scope and geo-politics of the institutions. As part of the fundamental objectives of the United Nations, states contribute troops to help address security threats in any part of the international system. However, sexual exploitation is not part of the mandate of peace keepers. In fact it is a violation of the rules of engagement in military operations.

The Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a theory is also used to attempt a psychological explanation to sexual exploitation by UN Peace Keepers and the psychology of the exploited in relations to their political and socio-economic material conditions that also makes them vulnerable. This theory is sometimes called "A Theory of Human Motivation" or Maslow Humanistic theory of Needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory in psychology proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper "A Theory of Human Motivation" in Psychological Review. Maslow subsequently extended the idea to include his observations of humans' innate curiosity. His theory parallel many other theories of human developmental psychology, some of which focus on describing the stages of growth in humans. Maslow used the terms "physiological", "safety", "belongingness", "love", "esteem", "self-actualization", and "self-transcendence" to describe the pattern that human motivations generally move through (Maslow, 1943).

The most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called "deficiency needs" or "d-needs": esteem, friendship and love, security, and physical needs. If these "deficiency needs" are not met – with the exception of the most fundamental (physiological) need – there may not be a physical indication, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. Maslow's theory suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire (or focus motivation upon) the secondary or higher level needs. Maslow also coined the term "metamotivation" to describe the motivation of people who go beyond the scope of the basic needs and strive for constant betterment (Goble, 1970:6). This theory suffered a lot of criticisms especially on Maslow’s position on sex and motivation in the pyramid. He placed sex in the physiological needs category along with food and breathing; it lists sex solely from an individualistic perspective. For example, sex is placed with other physiological needs which must be satisfied before a person considers "higher" levels of motivation. Some critics feel this placement of sex neglects the emotional, familial, and evolutionary implications of sex within the community, although others point out that this is true of all of the basic needs (Kenrick, 2010). These criticisms notwithstanding, this theory is very pivotal for understanding human behaviour in relations to human needs. Human military sexuality can be better understood generally within the context of human sexuality. Sex is a psychological need of humans which is usually responded to. Troops who engage in sexual activities are only attempting to meet their basic need for sex. This is not to say that sexual satisfaction should not be done within the ambit of the law or rules of engagement. It is also important to note that need for security and other socio-economic needs of the victims of sexual
exploitation increases their vulnerability. If hitherto victims of sexual abuses have their basic needs met, the chances of being sexually abused will be very minimal. This view was corroborated by Ndulo (2009, 144) when he posits that:

Victims are strongly influenced by their tough local conditions during and after the armed conflict. They live in abject poverty, so they have a lack of livelihood options and a consequent inability to meet basic survival needs. They are also exposed to a high unemployment rate. As a result, prostitution in such environments sometimes becomes the only source of income for girls and women (Ndulo 2009, 144).

The report of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and Save the Children UK (SCUK) (2002: 8), confirms that in West Africa the involvement of children and women in sexually exploitative relationships has become a mechanism for survival for many refugee families. This situation is exploited by some peacekeepers who abuse their power to get what they want (Ndulo 2009, 145).

**Peacekeepers, sexual exploitation and its implications for the United Nations**

Sexual misconduct has been identified by Aoi, De Coning and Thakur (2010) as one of a number of unintended consequences of peacekeeping operations. They contend that while peace operations are considered to be an indispensable instrument in the international conflict management toolbox, the post-Cold War shift of focus and modification in the role and scope of peace operations have exposed them (especially UN operations) to a new range of what they refer to as “potential unintended consequences”.

In the context of a country experiencing extreme conflict, the primary and most important purpose of a peacekeeping operation, whether authorized or mandated by the Security Council, is to protect the civilian population. Where peacekeepers exploit the vulnerability of the very people they have been sent to protect by sexually abusing members of the local population, it is a fundamental betrayal of trust. When the United Nations (the “UN” or “Organization”) fails to address such crimes quickly and decisively, that betrayal is compounded and the important contributions of peacekeeping missions are undermined. This is precisely what occurred in the UN peacekeeping mission in the Central African Republic (CAR) in the spring of 2014 (Chair et al, 2015).

The ill-discipline engendered by SEA also degrades the effectiveness of the peacekeeping operation, especially in times of crisis. Instances of sexual exploitation and abuse may also constitute violations of international humanitarian law, international human rights law, or both. A peacekeeping operation cannot legitimately advise any government on adherence to international human rights standards and legal and judicial reform if its own peacekeeping personnel are engaging in acts of sexual exploitation and abuse, including such crimes as rape.

Most recently, UN troops in Haiti and Sudan have been accused of sexual abuse of children (Williams, 2015). In Central African Republic at least 98 girls said they had been sexually abused by international peacekeepers (Oakford, 2015). According to Nichols (2016) the UN identified 41 troops from Burundi and Gabon accused of sexual abuse and exploitation in Central African Republic in 2014 and 2015. The identified troops
have now left the country. In 2015, a UN report interviewed over 200 Haitian women a third of whom were minors who told how they were forced to have sex with UN soldiers in exchange for material aid (Yigal, 2015).

A UN study on the impact of Armed Conflict on Children, prepared by Ms. Graca Machel (former first lady of Mozambique) clearly showed several ways in which children are sexually abused during armed conflict even by UN Peacekeepers. According to the UN report (1996) Children may also become victims of prostitution following the arrival of peacekeeping forces. In Mozambique, after the signing of the peace treaty in 1992, soldiers of the United Nations Operation in Mozambique (ONUMOZ) recruited girls aged 12 to 18 years into prostitution. After a commission of inquiry confirmed the allegations, the soldiers implicated were sent home. In 6 out of 12 countries studies on sexual exploitation of children in situations of armed conflict prepared for the present report, the arrival of peacekeeping troops has been associated with a rapid rise in child prostitution (UN, 1996:24). The table below shows the several peace keeping operations in Africa by UN and AU.

Table 1: UN and AU Peacekeeping Operations Deployed in Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Mission Name</th>
<th>Mission Name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Start Date</th>
<th>End Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>MINURSO</td>
<td>United Nations Mission for the Referendum in Western Africa</td>
<td>Western Sahara</td>
<td>April 1991</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>MINUSMA</td>
<td>United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilization Mission in Mali</td>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>April 2013</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>UNAMID</td>
<td>African Union-United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur</td>
<td>Darfur, Sudan</td>
<td>July 2007</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>UNMISS</td>
<td>United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan</td>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>July, 2011</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>UNOCI</td>
<td>United Nations Operation in Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>April 2004</td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the United Nations (2017), allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse have continued to come up to a total of 107 allegations in 2007, 60 in 2012 and 103 in 2016 (United Nations 2017). The phenomenon of sexual exploitation and abuse by peacekeepers obtained global media attention after the British non-governmental organization, Save the children, together with the UNHCR released a report in 2002 on “Sexual Violence & Exploitation: The Experience of Refugee Children in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone” (Kent 2005, 87). The report brought to light, that young girls where forced by peacekeepers and humanitarian workers to have sex with them, compensated by food, money or shelter (Kent 2005, 87). Countries like Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic) have recorded high cases of sexual abuse by peacekeepers.

The existence of sexual exploitation by Peacekeepers was confirmed when the United Nations Secretary-General, António Guterres cited in UN (2017:2) posits that:

Indeed, the vast majority of UN troops and personnel serve with pride, dignity and respect for the people they assist and protect, very often in dangerous and difficult conditions and at great personal sacrifice. Yet our Organization continues to grapple with the scourge of sexual exploitation and abuse, despite great efforts over many years to address it. We need a new approach. One of my most unforgettable experiences has been listening to the victims of rape, sexual violence, exploitation and abuse. Their haunting stories and chilling testimony will stay with me forever. Such acts of cruelty should never take place. Certainly no person serving with the United Nations in any capacity should be associated with such vile and vicious crimes.

This view was further corroborated by Atul Khare, when he claimed that:

The wrongdoings of some people should not tarnish the sacrifice of the more than 100,000 peacekeeping personnel, and their respective countries. “Protectors cannot be predators. Protectors cannot be somebody who is exploiting the people. When blue helmets, or troops supported by the UN, violate the fundamental human rights of others, they defile the precious legitimacy that is critical to the UN’s effectiveness and for which their comrades laid down their lives (Khare cited in UN, 2017:2).

The report led former Secretary-General Kofi Annan to declare that:

SEA by humanitarian staff cannot be tolerated. It violates everything the UN stands for. Men, women and children displaced by conflict or other disasters are among the most vulnerable people on earth. They look to the UN and its humanitarian partners for shelter and protection. Anyone employed by or affiliated with the UN who breaks that sacred trust must be held accountable and, when the circumstances so warrant, prosecuted (OIOS, 2002:9-13).

Kofi Annan view is similar to that of Humberto Loitey when he asserts that:

Despite the United Nations (UN) zero-tolerance policy against sexual exploitation and abuse, continuing reports of allegations of sexual
exploitation and abuse against uniformed peacekeepers contradict the principles upon which peacekeeping is based. Sexual exploitation and abuse inflicts irreparable damage on the very people the UN is sworn to protect (Humberto cited in UN, 2017:2).

In an editorial by the New York Times when marking the sixtieth anniversary of UN says:

Nothing discredits the United Nations more than the continuing sexual abuse of women and girls by soldiers belonging to its international peacekeeping missions. And yet almost a year after shocking disclosures about such crimes in Congo, far too little has been done to end the culture of impunity, exploitation and sexual chauvinism that permits them to go on. The whole purpose of these missions is to help countries ravaged by civil or international conflict restore stability, guarantee public security and instil the rule of law. When United Nations peacekeepers rape the people they were sent to protect and coerce women and girls to trade sex for food, as they were found to have done in Congo last winter, they defeat the purpose of their mission and exploit some of the world’s most vulnerable people (New York Times, October 24th).

Allais (2011:3) corroborated the above views when he posits that:

Sexual violence and abuse constitute atrocious violations of the human rights of the victims of the abuse. Regardless of the degree of overt physical force, there are severe physical and psychological consequences for the victims. Direct injuries include chronic pain, infection and infertility. Brutal rape can result in traumatic gynaecological fistula. Rape may also lead to abortion, which carries its own risk. The psychological implications are equally serious. Survivors often experience severe trauma and depression, sometimes leading to suicide. Some victims are infected with sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV. Many have little or no access to care or counselling (Allais, 2011:3).

The sexual exploitation and abuse of women is viewed as something tightly, naturally and inevitably linked to the breakdown of law in a conflict-ridden state. Moreover, it is well known that the systems, the infrastructure and the attitudes operating during a conflict are likely to continue in peacetime. Especially for women, harsh conditions get even worse in the aftermath of war. Far from being integrated, they are socially stigmatised and even rejected by their families for having being raped by the enemy. It is reasonable to bear in mind that sexual crimes are not natural or inevitable at all. Rather, they are conscious and evitable political acts deeply rooted in the political economy of war (Martin, 2008).

Sexual misconduct by peacekeeping personnel can also expose both themselves and the mission to blackmail and violent retaliation, especially during times of breakdown of law and order in the country. Sexual misconduct also increases the incidence of medical problems. This includes the risk of contracting or transmitting sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS. The consequences for victims include possible psychological trauma as a result of their experiences. Babies born from liaisons between victims and peacekeepers may face stigmatisation by their families and communities, which may deprive them of economic, social
and emotional support, which in turn may result in victims being driven into further exploitative relationships with peacekeepers in order to survive (UN, 2005).

Chair et al (2015) was of the view that where allegations of sexual abuse by peacekeepers are reported to the UN, two distinct policy frameworks may apply. The first framework consists of policies adopted by the Secretary General specifically to respond to sexual exploitation and abuse (“SEA”) by UN staff and related personnel, including troops under UN command. They further claimed that:

The institutional failure to respond immediately and effectively to incidents of sexual violence is not only damaging to victims, but also allows the actions of a few predatory individuals to taint the important and valuable work of peacekeepers as a whole, many of whom risk their lives to bring peace and stability to populations at risk. This seriously threatens the relationship of trust between civilian populations, troop contributing countries (“TCCs”), the UN, and the international community, and undermines the sustainability of peacekeeping missions in the longer term (chair et al, 2015:5).

For instance the revised MoU 2007 (Doc A/61/19 Part III) provides as follows:

Military members and any civilian members subject to national military law of the national contingent provided by the Government are subject to the Government’s exclusive jurisdiction in respect of any crimes or offences that might be committed by them while they are assigned to the military component of [United Nations peacekeeping mission. The Government assures the United Nations that it shall exercise such jurisdiction with respect to such crimes or offences (Annex, paragraph 3, article 7 quinquens 1).

In relations to the UN zero tolerance for sexual misconduct, TCCs are still unable to prosecute defaulters. Hence the UN is still grappling with and struggling to encourage state to sanction accused soldiers. It is based on this that Stecklow and Lauria (2010) claimed that:

The lack of action can be ascribed to both TCCs and the United Nations itself. The record of TCCs in addressing matters of SEA has been very mixed. Many troop-contributing countries are still slow to take appropriate measures, both preventative (consisting of training of troops prior to deployment) and punitive (where personnel are repatriated because of misconduct). Troop contributors have also been slow in accepting the need for training and enforcement of the uniform designed rules due to cultural difference in the acceptance of certain types of behaviour (UN, 2006).

The allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse by UN peacekeepers of those they have been mandated to protect are particularly disturbing because of the unique nature of peacekeeping. The UN Security Council deploys military troops in order to protect vulnerable populations from the violence of civil conflict and the UN “should not in any way increase the suffering of vulnerable sectors of the population which has often been devastated by war or civil conflict” (UN, 2005).

The violation of codes of conduct may damage the impartiality of missions in the eyes of the local population, which, in turn, may impede the implementation
of its mandate. UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan, issued a bulletin in 2003. The bulletin, Special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse (ST/SGB/2003/13) (UN, Secretary General’s Bulletin 2003), characterises sexual exploitation and abuse as acts of serious misconduct and subject to disciplinary action. The bulletin sets forth several specific standards to clarify the already existing obligations of UN staff with regard to sexual exploitation and sexual abuse, and specifies that:

i. acts of sexual abuse and exploitation are prohibited, and constitute serious misconduct that

ii. will be subject to disciplinary action including summary dismissal;

iii. sexual activity with children under the age of 18 is strictly prohibited;

iv. any exchange of money, employment goods or services – including any exchange of assistance due to beneficiaries of assistance – for sex is prohibited;

v. sexual relationships between UN staff and beneficiaries are based on inherently unequal power dynamics and therefore undermine the credibility and integrity of the work of the United Nations;

vi. United Nations staff members who suspect other UN workers must report concerns; and

vii. Managers at all levels have a responsibility to support and develop an environment that prevents sexual exploitation.

Table 2 Do’s and Don’ts when serving in United Nations Peacekeeping Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>DO’S</th>
<th>DON’T’S</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Protect civilians against any form of sexual exploitation.</td>
<td>Do Not engage in any form of exploitative behavior or sexual acts with the local community regardless of local culture.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Dress, think, talk, act and behave in a manner befitting the dignity of a disciplined, caring, considerate, mature, respected and trusted peacekeeper.</td>
<td>Do Not get involved with prostitution, even if it is legal in the host country, and do not visit any areas that are out of bounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Promptly report any allegation(s) of sexual exploitation and abuse by fellow United Nations colleagues to the Conduct and Discipline Team (CDT) or other sexual exploitation and abuse Focal Point.</td>
<td>Do Not rely on self- judgement as to what conduct should be considered as sexual exploitation and abuse. If you suspect there has been possible sexual exploitation and abuse, you must report it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Familiarize yourself with the existing guidelines and procedures that are mission specific.</td>
<td>Do Not harbour or protect perpetrators of sexual exploitation and abuse. Failure to respond or report misconduct is a breach of the UN standards of conduct and may result in sanctions against you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Cooperate with the investigating officer.</td>
<td>Do Not retaliate against alleged perpetrator(s), complainant(s), victim(s) or investigator(s) when confronted with an allegation of sexual exploitation and abuse. Act according to the rules.</td>
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</table>

Conclusion and Recommendations
It is the position of this paper that the United Nations as a collective security mechanism its achievements in international peace and security particularly in Africa is highly commendable. These achievements notwithstanding, the involvement of Peace Keepers in sexual exploitation and abuse does not only increase the suffering of an already vulnerable population, but it also undermines UN’s credibility. This paper therefore recommends that:

i. There is the need to establish a coordinating unit/centre within the UN that will address all issues associated with conflict related sexual exploitations whether by peacekeepers, militia groups or terrorist organizations
ii. Civil societies need to increase advocacy in areas of sexual exploitations by peacekeepers and victims of sexual violence should also report without hesitation cases of abuse.
iii. The UN must ensure that TCCs take drastic measures on troops that perpetuate sexual violence and abuse so as to ensure that TCCs prosecute crimes of sexual violence by peacekeepers
iv. There is a need to emphasize that sexual violence by peacekeepers is a violation of human rights.

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