Priority Areas in United Nations Peace Building Fund

(Survey and Critical Analysis)

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Abstract

For a decade an exclusive United Nations (UN) Peace building Architecture (PBA) has been at work. The United Nations established Peace building fund to meet the challenges of financing peace building activities in four priority areas. Authors argue that practically the Peace building fund bypasses the lasting approach by not accommodating conflict prevention in the first place. Though, researchers found that although the funds allocated to priority areas, provide a comprehensive vision for lasting peace at policy level, yet the projects are bound under programme limitations as current focus of PBA is in post-conflict rehabilitation. The authors highlight that UN however, can make use of PBF priority areas flexibility to help and cover fragile countries as well. In addition, author’s consensus is that the management of natural resources and environmental issue should be given appropriate importance due to their leverage.

Keywords: United Nations, Peace building Fund, Post-conflict rehabilitation, Conflict prevention, Development, SSR, DDR, Natural resource, Environment

Introduction

A decade has gone since an exclusive United Nation (UN) Peace building Architecture (PBA) is at work; Peace building Commission (PBC) -the advisory body, and Peace building Support Office (PBSO) administer Peace building Fund (PBF) (United Nations, 2010).

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The expert suggests to encompass “the Secretariat, the UN’s programmes and specialized agencies, and, of course, UN operations on the ground” in UN peace building architecture for effective results (United Nations, 2015). One of PBA pillars, the PBF is set to meet the challenges of financing peace building activities. PBF provides funds to UN agencies in four priority areas.

This article discusses the diverse academic literature on PBF in four priority areas to highlight main assumptions as well as policy weaknesses to overcome the challenges for practical understandings. Authors argue that PBF priority areas comprehensively adapts the liberal peace building agenda, however, it bypasses the lasting approach by not accommodating conflict prevention in the first place. This effort will enable practitioners and readers in peace building theory and policy to foresee present knowledge, gaps between policy, its implementation and academic discourse. At the same time, it is admitted that the literature mentioned is not exhaustive but brief enough for the readers of peace studies to find mentionable concepts for the priority areas. The paper explores the sense in which academic theory and policy architecture differs from each other. Accordingly, the concepts of peace building priority areas are central to the analysis.

Subsequently section 2 of the paper examines the value of peace formations in human lives emerging from history. Section 3 deals to understand theories and practices for the purpose of maintaining peace and security viz-a-viz UN vision and practices. The literature relevant to United Nations (2010) priority areas is reviewed in section 4 that narrates the practical tools and theoretical basis for effective peace building. The conclusion is made in section 5 to summarize the discussion with recommendations.

2. Historical context: Peace building and human legacy

The history of peace efforts can be traced back since conflicts first emerged among humans. The reconciliation, dialogues, negotiations, pardons, agreements are illustrations of peace processes.

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3 The Report of the Advisory Group of Experts for the 2015
Treaties between Rome and Carthage (509 BC), border agreement between Lagash and Umma of Mesopotamia (2100 BC), treaty of Kadesh (1258 BC), pardoning people of Meccaby Muslims (629 CE), peace of Westphalia (1648 CE), treaty of Lausanne (1923 CE) are few examples in the long list (Serrati, 2006; Raymond & Kegley, 1985; Boyle, 2010; Hamidullah, 1980; Gross, 1948; Beriker & Druckman, 1991). However, none of the treaty was having the wider reach until late 20th century to encompass geography of almost the entire world. The changing nature of societal structures, level of cooperation, technology, industrial and information revolutions, quest for peace, victories in wars and saving human kind from wars can be attributed towards forming global connections.

The 20th century and earlier part of 21st century has seen peaceful revolutions around the world notable among them are colour revolutions in post-soviet states, yellow revolution in Philippines and Arab spring. However, most revolutions have never been peaceful, i.e. French revolution, Communist revolution of 1917 and the recent conflicts in Somalia, Rwanda, former Yugoslavia, Yemen, and Syria to Ukraine. Philosophers like Sharp (2010) has noted 198 methods of non-violent struggle and Galtung (1996) describes the way of developing a behaviour for a peaceful world, in order to expand peace horizons. This debate highlights the available peaceful means and the ability of masses to harness them, but at the same time there are forces which let humans fight with each other in a violent manner. Successively, this demands actions on the part of United Nations, which after the end of Second World War has dispatched a number of peacekeeping, peace enforcing and peace building missions around the world.

The path towards peace is usually associated with the birth of all major religions of the world. However, at tertiary level it was only 1948 when the discipline of peace studies was initiated at Manchester College, Indiana in United States (Harris, 2010).

In practice, the creation of intergovernmental organizations, the League of Nations and later United Nations are prime examples of human efforts to form global peace mechanisms. The League of Nations born from the ashes of First World War and human desire to live in peace, died due to conflicts within Europe, hatred Treaty of Versailles (1919) sowed and United Sates choice to remain out of it.
The United Nations on the other hand is regarded as a success that is so far to avoid a major world conflict (Bellamy, et al., 2010; Schlesinger, 2003; Northedge, 1986; Goodrich, 1947).

The United Nations purpose is to maintain peace. After the 1990s a change in UN policy from peacekeeping towards peace building can be seen as UN Secretary General Boutros-Ghali (1992) gave the famous “Agenda for Peace”. The agenda emphasized reforms in the UN system as it was understood that only prevention of conflict and absence of war does not guarantee the peace and security of the world. This shift led to new heights when Boutros-Ghali (1994) presented the Agenda for Development, noting “Development is the most secure basis for peace” (p. 4) and An Agenda for Democratization (1996).

The notion of peace and development can be ascribed to achieving goals of UN for creating peaceful resilient societies. The new dynamics of wars between states to civil wars and re-interpretation of state responsibility to protect its own citizens strengthened the need to develop local capacities to nurture an environment where people can live in peace, harmony and have freedom from want and freedom from fear (UNGA, 2005; Acharya, 2001). However, as, peace building is a time taking interventionist requires robust actions on the part of every stakeholder to maintain international peace and security (Edwards, 2013; OECD, 2010). At-least, this is what International Peace building efforts try to achieve. In a nutshell, human efforts towards peace are settled with struggle to find appropriate methods to form a civilized world.

3. Peace building in theory and practice

The United Nations core purpose is described in its charters’ Article 1; to maintain international peace and security by promoting economic, social, cultural, humanitarian character, and to encourage respect for human rights. For a prosperous world all the categories mentioned requires complementing each other. Theoretically and ideologically they pass a very close relationship. However, researchers often challenge the working mechanism of United Nations to achieve its functioning goals.

The main critic usually is direct interventions; promoting liberal market system and the manner in which policies and programming of UN is carries out. Santiso (2002) is critical of UN interventions for undermining its own principle of state sovereignty.

Nevertheless, researchers may elude the fact that among the five permanent members of UN Security Council neither all are western nor do they pursue liberal policies like western countries. However, one must be equally mind full of a victor’s organization that shaped up during World War 2. The allied powers behind the creation of UN started splitting with each other early as the negotiations started for a world order5. However, by signing the United Nations charter, countries either in east or west, north or south, principally agree to the vision of UN.

The challenges to maintain peace in a divided world are numerous. The peace building being so important in UN work necessitates concrete policies and implementation tools to achieve its goals. In the rapidly changing atmosphere and socio-politico diverse structures “best practices” (Security Council, 2005) are used – “to build a multi-partner best fit” 6(Mackenzie-Smith 2015, p. 70). Yet, the academic and practitioner world is divided on the range of peace building approaches.


Miheljak, et al. (2013) distinguishes positive peace in two important categories as fundamentals of peace and its outcomes. The authors divide the prerequisites of peace as; “1) granting of human rights, 2) equality, 3) acceptance/tolerance 4) democratic participation, 5) openness to working towards a mutual goal, 6) security, and access to resources”. Whereas, outcomes include three subcategories: “1) positive emotions, 2) calm, tranquillity, and 3) harmony.” (p. 54-55). These are the functions of a modern state towards achieving human security.

5 For more on the subject, please see Schlesinger (2009), Act of Creation: The Founding of the United Nations
6Mackenzie-Smith (2015) calls best practices as donor-centric approach and best fits as client-focused (p.59)
After conflicts when key institutions of governance, security and justice are paralyzed and hardly any mechanism is left to address human security challenges, the peace building interventions revisit and assess the needs to formulate functions required by a “state”.

This is an ideally conceived philosophy to avoid relapse into conflict. The World Bank emphasises on the legitimate institutions and governance for security, justice, and provision of jobs to doge cycles of violence (Walter, 2011). Most researchers note post-conflict reconstruction as a difficult challenge that requires vision, capacity, planning and resources to finance and implement projects of vital importance and to build key institutions that could lead towards lasting peace (Shirch, 2005; Donais, 2012; Iro, 2009; Agbu, 2006; Mason & Meernik, 2006 & Kamal, 2000). Galtung (1996) referred the ability to recognize peace building activities through blurred structural and cultural conflicts as a positive transformation of society. He finds peace as an innovative idea - articulated by peaceful ways.

In most cases the evidence associated with United Nations interventions highlights the success of UN missions. Dobbins, et al. who studied UN missions, concludes that nation-building is an effective mean to manage conflicts and nurture democracies(2005). In a landmark study, Doyle & Sambanis (2006) establishes that the UN interventions lead to longer term peace. However, some researchers show scepticism on achieving sustainable peace through international interventions (Samuels, 2006).

According to Dobbins, et al. (2005) “Even when successful, UN nation building only goes so far to fix the underlying problems of the societies it is seeking to rebuild. Dobbins et al. noting Francis Fukuyama suggests “that such missions can be divided into three distinct phases: (1) initial stabilization of a war-torn society; (2) creation of local institutions for governance; and (3) strengthening of those institutions to the point where rapid economic growth and sustained social development can take place.” Dobbins et al. concludes that the United Nations and international development community has been successful in the first two phases; however, they have substantially failed in achieving the third task. Vaux & Visman (2005) believes that opportunities for peace building are available at any given time; however, early interventions have a lasting impact.
Newman, et al. (2009) after highlighting the lack of a narrow characterization of peace building lists four broad spectrums to define peace building:

- preventing the resumption or escalation of violent conflict in conflict-prone societies and establishing a durable and self-sustaining peace;
- Addressing the underlying sources of conflict;
- Building or rebuilding peaceful social institutions and values, including respect for human rights;
- Building or rebuilding institutions of governance and the rule of law. (p. 8)

The report (United Nations, 2015) on peace building architecture strongly emphasizes on conflict prevention, acknowledging it as a broader intervention strategy which over the years has taken ground towards enhanced development efforts for lasting peace. This means peace building is not only a post-conflict reconstruction but it should have understood as a broader approach to prevent conflicts.


4. United Nations Peace building Fund and Its Priority Areas

The PBF though finds itself restricted in its drive due to PBCs limit to post-conflict recovery and sustainable development7. The earlier document that foresaw the PBC creation looked beyond it to countries under stress and risk sliding towards collapse8.

The Peace building Fund (PBF) of the United Nations (UN), therefore, falls to address peace building necessities in countries evolving from a violent conflict (Sriram, et al., 2014; Weiss, 2012; United Nations, 2010).

The post-conflict countries face issues of weak or destroyed social, political, economic and security structures (Junne & Verkoren, 2005). PBF helps countries in their struggle to sustain peace by “addressing critical gaps in that process”9. According to Newman, et al. (2009) peace building efforts in contemporary world focus on rule of law, human rights, democracy, market economy and security sector among other priorities of liberal peace building agenda- PBF interventions differ in no way from this doctrine.

United Nations (2010) details two funding services, Immediate Response Facility (IRF) and Peace building Recovery Facility (PRF) for countries emerging out of a conflict. Next we will discuss the literature that supports the interventions for peace building.

4.1 Peace building Fund four priority areas

Priority Area 1. Activities designed to respond to imminent threats to the peace process, support for the implementation of peace agreements and political dialogue, in particular in relation to strengthening of national institutions and processes set up under those agreements;

4.1.1. Security Sector Reforms (SSR)

The first priority demands an investment to respond in areas of imminent threats. If people feel secure from threats; they can make better choices for life and development. Having said that, security for people and communities require an overhaul of the system which is jeopardized in a conflict situation due to violence and absence of institutional structures. The fundamental institutions that guarantee the security are national military, police and judicial organs among others.

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9 see Terms of reference for the Peacebuilding Fund – General Assembly A/63/818
Capacity building of these institutions helps maintain order. SSR thus makes an important part of peace building process to address and improve security challenges through institutional restructuring (Schnabel & Ehrhart, 2005; Wulf, 2004). The United Nations (Security Council, 2014) reaffirms that “effective, professional and accountable security sector without discrimination and with full respect for human rights and the rule of law is the cornerstone of peace and sustainable development and is important for conflict prevention”.

Most of the theories view SSR as opportunities for development assistance, reforming political, social, economic and institutional dimensions for human development, and to avoid relapse in a democratically accountable society (Brzoska, 2003; Schnabel & Ehrhart, 2005; Wulf, 2004; DFID, et al., 2003).

Muggah & Batchelor (2002) finds three approaches to define a relationship between armed conflict and development that are related to security sector. First is expansion of traditional concept of security towards human security. Second is that security ensures equitable and sustainable development and third, about small arms which disrupts the development while making insecurity among community members.

With a profound impact on communities due to armed conflict, or in case of small arms proliferation, SSRs lead toward development, prosperity and ultimately to lasting peace. In the absence of security, it is difficult to have foreign direct investment; therefore, the donor community is usually concerned about security reform. This investment in SSRs, in Brzoska (2003) words, help to prevent conflicts, which surely is a contribution towards lasting peace. It is therefore, a very pre-requisite to adopt programme strategies to reform the security sector. The PBF substantially emphasis on SSRs and as noted in the Peace building Commission (2011) report, it asks for a long term strategy.

4.1.2. Rule of Law (RoL)

The UN Deputy Secretary General, Eliasson (2013) remarkably said “there could be no peace without development, no development without peace, and neither without full respect for human rights and the rule of law.”
Carlson (2013) makes a significant point that “a state that enjoys a ‘rule of law culture’, which reinforces public trust and participation in the civilian state— an intuitive end goal of peace building” (p. 14). Among other studies Voorhoeve (2007) notes, “The ‘role’ of law is to settle conflicts equitably, to protect people’s security and prosperity, to restrain the use of political power by subjugating it to the law, and to guarantee basic human freedoms, in order to enable individuals and society to thrive” (p. 91). To add further, Voorhoeve, asks for human rights implementation that embeds from international treaties as the purpose of RoL. At the same time, he warned about the absence of political will.

UN Secretary General report, narrates the policy on RoL by assisting countries “in establishing the rule of law by ensuring accountability and reinforcing norms, building confidence in justice and security institutions, and promoting gender equality” (United Nations, 2011) The report describes RoL to pursue fair share and equality for marginalized segment of society in areas of social, economic, health, education, ensuring property rights among others.

In 2004 report of Secretary General RoL is defined as, “...a principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards. It requires, as well, measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency” (United Nations, 2004).

Meanwhile for UN programming provides an inclusive framework to work in peace building setting Shinoda (2002) extends the fact that “In a disrupted society, it is rare and unrealistic to find a constitutional framework functioning authoritatively as a guiding principle.” Justifying the rule of law Shinoda has pointed out that “The idea of the rule of law as valuable to securing peace and justice is key to constructing a stable post-conflict society.”

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10. The rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies
11. The rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies
12. Guidance note of the Secretary General: UN approach to Rule of Law Assistance
Though Shinoda focuses on criminal tribunals in his paper, he equally understands the broader approach of RoL in post-conflict situation.

4.1.3. Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR)


Researchers are agreed that timely and an early stage implementation of DDR is a key factor in the peace building process (United Nations, 2000; Knight & Özerdem, 2004; Knight, 2008). Knight (2008) at the same time is against providing huge paybacks to beneficiaries to avoid resentment within communities. One distinct conclusion he made was about weapons for cash swap, which in his view may not work well in countries where munitions hold a cultural value. He stresses on a flexible and adjustable DDR process. Young & Goldman (2015) believes that, “The overarching goal of reintegration as a part of DDR is to contribute to security and stability through activities that support sustainable livelihoods for returning ex-combatants, their social integration within families and communities, and their participation in political process”.

UNEP & UNDP (2013) emphasis on sustainable opportunities for ex-combatants. Both organizations have viewed that if such interventions are not introduced, there is a risk that violence will continue as ex-combatant will try to control the natural resources and means of finance. Hence DDR can possibly ensure the value of natural resources for its contribution to the sustainable economy.

For Piedmont (2015), the DDR in today’s time is transforming further from cold war variant. According to him, “The monetization of DDR is creating a cottage industry for former fighters travelling across international borders re-joining armed groups as mercenaries.

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13 ‘Brahimi-Report’
Peace operations are receiving DDR mandates in areas with weak state structures and limited statehood where conflict is ongoing, state governance and rule of law are absent and insurgent groups slated for DDR are associated with “terrorist” organizations, complicating the legal and political environment.” The present day conflicts as we can see in case of Yemen, Ukraine and Syria etc. the combatants are gathering from all over the world including from western countries. This devises the need to incorporate Countering Violent Extremism (CVE) strategies that are needed not only in countries where conflict is happening but in countries that have become recruiting grounds for the combatants. Thus the shape of DDR may look different to what is placed in contemporary strategies.

Piedmont (2015) is considerate of the lack of research for DDR and CVE issues and points that International organizations “are focused on ‘classic’ approaches that may integrate security and development outcomes, but are not adapted to contemporary conflict dynamics and emerging caseloads associated with terrorism and violent extremism.”

4.1.4. Political dialogue

Political dialogue may be seen as a means of reconciliation among parties and a way forward after conflicts. UNDP (2009) notes that a better engagement in political dialogue among stakeholders helps reduce conflicts. The PBSO (2009) notes that “National dialogues have to be conceived alongside strategies for strengthening national institutions, complementing but not replacing them, and with the ultimate aim of building up national mechanisms and capacities for managing tensions and preventing conflict in the long run.”

Odendaal (2011) identifies different tiers of political dialogue, running through, “high-level negotiation to mediation to community attempts at reconciliation”. He notes four types of dialogues, top-level, high risk - involving national leadership and mediation by international community, track two, low risk - by civil society to build trust, dialogue to facilitate peace building, state building and development, and multi-level dialogue engaging citizens for a mutual consensus. For him these four types are complementary to each other.
His conclusion is based on the reason that insufficient, ill designed political dialogue process may further harm the existing trust level; therefore, the role political dialogue plays in peace building depends upon the influence it lays for the process. It is an important factor for institutional building that can sustain and legitimize the peace building process with “best fits’.

Cousens, et al. (2001) finds community’s’ own ability to be engaged in political process as fundamental for lasting peace. Such ability makes a society resilient when facing with multiple crises. The researchers have concluded that “Without stable political processes, even useful efforts to rebuild the economy, the environment, or infrastructure will come to little long-term effect.” (p. 184)

McEvoy-Levy (2001) with a likeminded view is certain that a vibrant political and ideological commitment can increase resilience among youth. However, the researcher warns that from violence towards political evolution is not an easy thing, the best thing to do is to involve young into “politics of peace”. Samuels (2006) has identified “more participatory and inclusive process” that can help to avoid divisions in constitution making process. However, for him the challenge is how to deal with the threatened exiting “power structures” and warrant their participation in the process that results in people empowerment.

The activities under priority area one are an essential part of peace building to bridge the gaps between parties, gaining trust, reforming institutions, disarming and rehabilitating belligerents, while considerably emphasising on the transformation process to attract development assistance. The literature surveyed basically maintains the same provision for accountability wherein inequality can be pursued justly while sustaining an order. Arguably, bleak situations for combatants finding no place of integration in societies let them remain as extremists. Therefore, demand for DDR in post-conflict situations becomes a necessity for sustainable peace. Political dialogue like most of the peace building interventions is a complex phenomenon for external actors. It requires transparency and the collective effort of all stakeholders.

Priority Area 2: Activities undertaken to build and/or strengthen national capacities to promote coexistence and peaceful resolution of conflict and to carry out peace building activities;
4.2.1. National reconciliation

Reconciliation is all about forgiveness, as Tutu (1999) lauds, “No future without forgiveness.”

The concept has been defined in terms that can help in developing mutual trust or relations between various actors from people to state – that are damaged by conflicts (Sánchez & Rognvik, 2012; Kriesberg, 2007), as it is not effectively possible to work together in the absence of trust among people (Govier, 2002). Long & Brecke (2003) on the other, found the success of reconciliation process by means of rational choice.

The General Assembly\(^{14}\) asserts that “reconciliation processes are particularly necessary and urgent in countries and regions of the world which have suffered, or are suffering, situations of conflict that have affected and divided societies in their various internal, national and international facets” (United Nations, 2007).

Quinn (2009) has pointed five intervening concepts in the process of reconciliation:

a. Developing a shared vision of an independent and fair society  
b. Acknowledging and dealing with the past  
c. Building positive relationships  
d. Significant cultural and attitudinal change  
e. Substantial social, economic, and political change

In his anthropological research of national reconciliation processes Wilson (2003) concludes by stating that “legal pluralism and criminality” by state is important to help citizens avoid taking their own revenge.

National reconciliation guides through political change for good governance that is indeed a necessary item for internal and external credibility (Lerche, 2000). At the same time the researcher notes that “such a change is without precedent in societies characterized by historical cycles of violent conflict.”

\(^{14}\) Resolution A/RES/61/17
Daly & Sarkin (2007) while noting the complexity of some conflicts undoubtedly felt the necessity for neutral external actors in starting the reconciliation process. Henk-Jan Brinkma\textsuperscript{15}, has been of the view that national actors should play an active role in the reconciliation process without interference from outside.

Resultantly, in the absence of national willingness, the international community cannot play any better role (Sánchez & Rognvik, 2012).

Lerche (2000) believes that parallel economic interventions along with reconciliation efforts can soothe the hard feeling. He is also conscious to note that, “National reconciliation, as a political exercise, may through ‘coming to terms with the past’, save the state but not necessary to heal the society; and post-conflict societies run the risk of exchanging political for criminal or structural violence” (p. 73). The reconciliation process is full of challenges, as it is difficult to forget the atrocities. These challenges include agreements on establishing truth commissions, reparations and war crime tribunals etc.

4.2.2. Democratic governance

UNDP (2014) defines democratic governance “as a set of values and principles that underpin state-society relations, allowing people — in particular the poor and marginalized — to have a say in how they are governed, in how decisions are made and implemented.” In a nutshell it is about empowering people. According to UNDP (2014), this encompasses human rights values, accountability of leaders, Institutional quick response, and provision of quality services, able justice system and valuing international norms.”

Brinkerhoff (2007) writing on governance and its links with other dimensions has stated that “Governance concerns the rules, institutions, and processes that form the nexus of state-society relations where government and citizens interact. This domain combines public administration and state structures, politics and the exercise of power and authority, and policy-making, and implementation. The quality of governance is widely acknowledged as affecting the performance of economic, social, and rights-based functions.” (p. 2)

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On practical application of intervention, Santiso (2002), however, believes that UNDP even with its broader understanding of democratic governance, usually refrain itself from participating directly in the reform process. Their interventions are based on technical solutions, while ignoring basis of power structures and national politics.

4.2.3. Management of natural resources

Natural resources management as a mean of peace building is highly valued in academic and theoretical perspectives, yet underutilized as a practical solution. UNEP & UNDP (2013) particularly noted that, “if natural resource sectors are not managed in an equitable and inclusive manner, many of the grievances that led to conflict in the first place may continue to exist or resurface.” Young & Goldman (2015), UNEP & UNDP (2013), Lujala & Rustad (2012) & UNEP (2009) understands that natural resources significantly holds necessary possibilities to create opportunities for peace building, including much needed sustainable livelihoods, employment and economic revitalization. However, one must be cautious about the equal potential of conflict due to natural resources.

Unruh & Williams (2013) notes the complicated challenges of land and property during the peace building process. On water resources being one of the basic necessities Weinthal, et al. argues for quick provision of basic needs in post-conflict societies, especially access to water and sanitation (2014). In the field of peace building, natural resource and environment issues are being taken together. The United Nations Environmental Programme, the University of Tokyo, the Environmental Law Institute (ELI) and McGill University lunched a global initiative in 2008 under the theme of Environmental Peace building. The said portal describes, Environmental Peace building in terms that “... incorporates natural resource management into peace building activities and strategies to support security, humanitarian, and development objectives.”

The wider and deeper approach (Lederach & Appleby, 2010) places natural resource and environmental issues at the heart of peace building interventions. UNEP (2009) & Le Billon (2005) have made no mistake arguing importance of environmental peace building and resource governance being security imperative.

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16 See more at: http://www.environmentalpeacebuilding.org/about/about/#sthash.xibLCS1m.dpuf
accessed 10.07.2015
In fact, conflicts directly or indirectly impact on natural resources and environment. It thus makes advantage of the interventions in environmental issues a peace building niche. Despite these conceivable impact of conflicts over environment and natural recourse, Maurer (2009) has highlighted that the “current debate on environmental security and peace building remains an often fragmented, uncoordinated and sometimes even ideological debate over issues such as state sovereignty, good governance and technology transfer.”

However, Bruch, et al. (2009) have clearly noted the need to distinguish between peace time natural resource management from post-conflict interventions due to different priorities, nature of funding, available capacity, institutional base and government authority.

This prominence of environment and natural resource - their potential leverage to achieve lasting peace consequently argue for investing in environmental peace building. This in fact becomes more important when the use of fossil fuels increases CO2 emissions. During COP21 the global community has agreed to keep the temperature levels below 2°C\(^{17}\). Nevertheless, the natural resources are not confined to fossil fuels but, land, water and renewable energy sources among others. However, fossil fuels with changing weather patterns may considerably impact on the water and land quality for further production.

The second priority area, for example the reconciliation process may sound achievable but it introduces some tough challenges when dealing with past atrocities of fighting groups. A careful programming and intervention can guide through the process, where every stakeholder is looking to protect their own interest. Though, General Assembly\(^{18}\) points towards suffering communities, meaning fragile, the activities are only designed in post conflict situations. While the policies of interventions and matching ‘best fits’ may be a challenge, there is no doubt in the mind of researchers like Pouligny (2005) that “consolidation of peace structured by a durable democratic system” uphold the value for a lasting peace.


\(^{18}\) Resolution A/RES/61/17
People empowerment is an essential element along with economic, social and political reforms for sustainable peace building. From an economic, social and political dimension, the natural resources and environment have an utmost importance. They generate much needed livelihoods, lead to a dialogue when other means fail and bridge the gaps between parties. This particular leverage, it holds, becomes a necessary condition for peace building and security. Nevertheless, it has to be kept in mind that if natural resource and environment interventions are not managed in a transparent and just manner they could be the reason of unavoidable consequences.

**Priority Area 3: Activities undertaken in support of efforts to revitalize the economy and generate immediate peace dividends for the population at large;**

**4.3.1. Short term employment generation**

Short term employment in post conflict situation can provide two important benefits; 1. Help to clean, revive and establish basic necessary services 2. Provide means of income to population to restart economic activity as well as earning a livelihood. The short and long term employment generation with provision of skills without discriminating among members of society is vital for reducing vulnerabilities, promoting peace and sustainable economic recovery (United Nations, 2009; Sweetman, 2005; Stahn, et al., 2014; Ginty, 2013).

Newman (2013) found that, “rapid marketization is unhelpful in volatile conflict-prone societies which have been characterized by inequality and social grievances. Contrary to a liberal economic approach, the evidence suggests that the emphasis - at least in the short term - should be upon poverty alleviation and employment generation, on the basis of local provision” (p. 318).

4.3.2. Sustainable livelihoods

The approaches in peace building are so vitally interrelated that one cannot ignore one over other. Sustainable livelihood is an important component that comes under the long term strategy to provide people with opportunities of freedom from want.

UNEP (2009) claims that, “Durable peace fundamentally hinges on the development of sustainable livelihoods, the provision of basic services, and on the recovery and sound management of the natural resource base.” (p. 19). UNEP further draw a detail impact of livelihood approaches as follows, “Sustainable livelihoods approaches provide a framework for addressing poverty and vulnerability in all contexts. They have emerged from the growing realization of the need to put the poor and all aspects of their lives and leans of living at the centre of development and humanitarian work, while maintaining the sustainability of natural resources for present and future generations.” (p. 22)

Sustainable livelihoods, natural resource management, governance, short term employment, re-integration etc. closely links the fact to pursue the challenges communities face in post-conflict arena. Of course, importance of livelihoods cannot be ignored.

The third priority area shares value of employment and livelihoods for the peace building process. As often researchers find the economic inequality at the basis of conflicts, no one can deny the role employment and livelihoods can play in reviving societies. While it is important to note the resource management, establishing institutions, democracy and having security - they serve for the means of availability of decent living conditions with work availability. In the absence of essential livelihoods as opportunity for survival, nothing works well.

Priority Area 4: Establishment or re-establishment of essential administrative services and related human and technical capacities which may include, in exceptional circumstances and over a limited period of time, the payment of civil service salaries and other recurrent costs
4.4.1. Public administration

Public administration is about efficiently managing the services people need in their everyday life. In a post-conflict situation when most of the institutions are damaged or at the verge of extinction, investing in capacity building of public servants and re-establishing public administration is important. Bergling, et al. (2008) truly notes that, “Conflicts have damaging effects on the public administration.” For them the reform process, “the search for administrative (public service) structures and processes that are more responsive to the needs of citizens” (p. 8) is important to manage the recovery and reconstruction process.

The public administration is about running the day to day affairs. During conflicts infrastructures, public records, archives and facilities may have been destroyed and no more functional (Brinkerhoff, 2005). Brinkerhoff tries to show the impact after capacity building of public sector by emphasizing good governance, “Good governance in this area means, for example, adequate and functioning municipal infrastructure, widely available health care and schooling, provision of roads and transportation networks and attention to social safety nets.”

Bergling, et al. (2008) details, “The rationale for intensified international efforts to incorporate and promote rule of law dimensions in public administration are thus straightforward: 1) the public administration is the main interface between the state and its citizens; 2) there is a strong relationship between the quality of the public administration and the protection of individual rights; 3) improved protection of the rule of law is reflected in increased legitimacy for the state and makes it a more effective promoter of peace and reconstruction; 4) rule of law in the public administration enhances the effectiveness of international aid and assistance.”

4.4.2. Public service delivery

Vaux & Visman (2005) proclaims the link between service delivery and peace buildings are multifaceted. They conclude, “It is clear that early government prioritisation of and commitment to policy reform and allocation of resources for service delivery are critical to development actors.”
Brinkerhoff’s (2005) concern is incapacity of failed and war torn states in provision of services that “impacts on both the immediate prospects for tending to citizens’ basic needs and restarting economic activity, and long-term prospects for assuring welfare, reducing poverty, and facilitating socio-economic growth.” (p. 6). He looks beyond government in service delivery by stating, “Effective basic services depend on more than government, the functions and capacity of the private sector and civil society are also critical.” (p. 6)

Wild, et al. (2012), while indicating hurdles to service delivery, noted five categories of governance constrictions, “political market imperfections; policy incoherence; lack of performance monitoring; collective action challenges; and issues of moral hazard.” For them, these features shape the system (p. 24).

Boyce, et al. (2002) indicated that, “If public services and support can reach the most vulnerable in society, especially in difficult circumstances such as low intensity conflict, then processes, systems and relationships are established whereby lesser forms of vulnerability and their social impacts may also be addressed.”

Rushton (2005) has established the link between reconstruction of health sector and peace building in Sierra Leone. The author has concluded that “Assisting the government to deliver public services is an important step towards building a long-term environment of peace and stability in which the government is recognised as legitimate and as a provider of security, economic opportunity and public services. However, post-conflict health crises require immediate action…” (p. 452)

The fourth priority focuses on public administration and service delivery. One of the first things that become ineffective in the wake of a violent conflict is public administration. Its revival, immediately finding trained public servants and running day to day affairs is a challenge as public expectations are much higher.

4.2 Discussion

In an analysis of peace building theory and practice, it is evident that there are gaps in academic narration, policy and implementation process. For example, while some academic narration finds post-conflict and prevention aspects separately, the policy, most importantly of UN asks for combining the both.
However, next comes the challenges of implementation. The implementation of projects for post-conflict and prevention of conflict can only be dealt separately, as both occurs at different times and due to limitation of requirements to work in post-conflict and fragile situations. Moreover, the UN with its specialized agencies and programmes has become such a bureaucratic organization, coordination within programmes, across agencies and in thematic areas is absolutely a challenge in itself.

In academic work, researchers push for a wider and deeper approach. At the same, one must be equally aware of the limitations of project evaluation studies as they study a controlled environment.

The difference between policy and academic account thus merely traces an ease of action and conceptual building block. In a deeper exploration, however, one may find that the PBF priority areas lack a sense of outcome. In all four areas, the focus is on response, build, initiated and re-establish, but does it guarantees logic of prevention and re-escalation? According to common sense, it may be understandable that strengthening capacities and responding to threat to peace will have a positive outcome, but conceptually it is not offered as a term in priority areas. The broader definition used in academic circles, however, have used words preventing and addressing, which focus on outcome of the peace building activity as post-conflict reconstruction. It apparently means that PBF lacks a conceptual understanding of the peace building essence in its four priority areas or may be missed out intentionally for the ease of project interventions.

On the other hand, it can be argued that the broader definition used by Newman, et al. (2009) is only applicable in post-conflict situations; however, the PBF priority areas could be adjusted for preventing conflicts at first hand. The question is when PBA finds it appropriate to use PBF in a fragile country rather than only in post-conflict situations? In the view of the authors both have some confusing material to understand peace building in terms of conflict prevention or only post-conflict reconstruction.

In further PBF priority areas provides a comprehensive approach for lasting peace at policy level, although the projects are bound under programme limitations. PBA's current focus is on post-conflict rehabilitation; however, UN can make use of PBF priority areas flexibility to help fragile countries as well.
The challenges regarding availability of sufficient funds and political will for this gruesome work, nonetheless, will remain frustrate the academicians, diplomats, policymakers, practitioners and communities alike.

Additionally, the focus of PBF is on first priority area. The management of natural resources and environmental issues are not given appropriate importance despite its leverage. See chart below\(^1\).

![Approved Project Budgets by Priority Area and Outcome Area as at 31 October 2011](chart)

**Source:** Peace building Fund

5. **Conclusion**

The links between all categories of peace building are interconnected. Though, it is equally understandable that from country to country some interventions may need enhanced priority, a parallel approach in designing peace building strategy is essentially a success, “wider and deeper”, that shall start much earlier than in post-conflict situations.

Most literature proves to indicate that liberal peace building interventions may be the only solution after conflict. This is noted in Newman, et al. (2009) study and that forms the basis for UN Peace building Fund interventions.

It may seem right if understood from the commonly western point of view as we see the most contemporary literature has been put through western lens, but what about eastern point of view. Perhaps, that is shadowed under the much dominated views of other side.

A study from that perspective may help to identify the gaps between two schools of thought and why one perspective is more dominated while employing these strategies in the eastern and southern parts of the world. Though authors have assessed that priority areas can accommodate peace building activities in fragile countries, the PBF own version and practice limits itself to post-conflict countries. The researchers are afraid that wider calls by UN own circles to include conflict prevention in peace building strategy may subdues over the coming years while PBF becomes only a post-conflict package.

At the same time, flexibility is required to adopt traditional local practices to be part of peace building interventions. It is believed that while local ownership is part of policy, one can argue about the practice. However, to overcome the challenges of defining priority areas in local context, general consensus on it and to convince northern donors, one can assume the limitation of policy narration. Hence, the literature and priority areas must not be viewed from narrowly perceived notions of liberal interventions and post-conflict reconstruction but in a broader perspective to start building societies in the wake of early warnings where everyone can live in harmony - a society free of wars - efforts to turn negative peace into positive peace. For that we can consider the human security approach, as Futamura, et al. (2010) emphasize on the same, viewing security and stability as prime action but to meet welfare goals - basic needs to address grievances.

Based on discussion, research finds a disconnect between peace building broader approach including understanding on prevention and the projects initiated under PBF priority areas. More or less, the priority areas do not offer to address the root causes of conflicts per se, but are reactionary interventions. They are narrowly focused on cases of post-conflict situations. Much difference can be made if international community and UN in particular focus on prevention strategies that could save not only millions of lives but resources.
Therefore, the peace building priority areas should not be limited to post-conflict reconstruction but PBF should use priority area language flexibility to cover fragile countries. Of course, the preventive measures cost less.

The prevention shall not limit to relapse into conflict but be activated in a delicate situation at first hand. Boutros-Ghali (1992) and United Nations (2015) rightly noted both prevention and post-conflict reconstruction, though at present the PBF interventions in its priority setting does not offer projects in preventive context.

Thus it is recommended to focus on situation of fragile states in PBA agenda and in the priority areas of PBF. Moreover, environmental peace building should be given due consideration for its multipurpose effectiveness.

Bibliography


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