



Project Start Date: 1.9.2016

Project Duration: 30 months

D2.1.

Summary SOTA in Evaluation, Soft Skills & Serious Games

Deliverable details	
Deliverable number	D2.1.
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Due date	31 December 2016
Reviewed By	Anne Holohan, Trinity College Dublin 30 December 2016
Dissemination level	PU
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GAMING FOR PEACE PROJECT (GAP)

Gaming for Peace (GAP) was launched in September 2016. GAP is an EU H2020 Framework Programme for Research and Innovation project and the length of the project is 30 months. The main goal of GAP is to develop a curriculum in relevant 'soft skills' (cooperation, communication, gender and cultural awareness) for personnel from diverse organizations working in the field of conflict prevention, peacebuilding and peacekeeping operations. This curriculum will be embedded in an online role-playing game and renewed and updated by returning personnel playing the game. GAP fills a gap in training and offers an efficient and inexpensive way of delivering universal and standardized training in these skills.

The requirements to effectively operate and partake in conflict and post conflict situations for preventive measures and peacebuilding, compels the best of expertise and individual skill to adapt to fraught and complex environments. The demands on peacekeepers in recent years have been unprecedented and the need for specialised and more professional training has also increased. GAP, therefore represents an essential online training game for civilian, police, military, NGO personnel, humanitarians and others involved in peace operations worldwide.

Although personnel involved in peace operations generally have 'traditional based skills', (e.g. intelligence, investigation, weapons handling etc.) soft skills such as communication, cooperation, gender and cultural awareness and negotiation are less well emphasised. The GAP project proposes to fill this recognised training gap; embedding a base curriculum of soft skills that facilitates coordination and relationship building in an environment of organisational, gender and cultural diversity.

The GAP project will therefore identify the main characteristics and concepts in the field of conflict prevention and peace building and locate new areas for improvement and enhancement in existing training. Comprehending the intricate and often dangerous environment in which peace keepers are expected to operate, also requires a keen knowledge of conflict prevention and peacebuilding. The ability to foresee and surmount social, cultural, or historical barriers necessitates the most up-to date training for peacekeeping. Gaming for Peace represents an innovative technique for the training of personnel involved in peace operations.



LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AAPTC	Association of Asia-Pacific Peace Operations Training Centres
ACMC	Australian Civil-Military Centre
ADELE	Australian Defence Education Learning Environment
ADF	Australian Defence Force
ADF POTC	Australian Defence Force Peace Operations Training Centre
APCN	ASEAN Peacekeeping Centres Network
APSA	African Peace and Security Architecture
APSTA	African Peace Support Trainers Association
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASF	African Standby Force
AU	African Union
BIPSOT	Bangladesh Institute of Peace Support Operation Training
CAECOPAZ	Argentine Joint Centre for Peacekeeping Operations
CECOPAZ	Joint Peace Operations Training Centre of Peru
CIMIC	Civil-Military Cooperation
CIPS	Centre for International Peace and Stability
COREU	Correspondence Européenne
CPCC	Civilian Planning and Conduct Capability
CPBL	Collaborative Problem Based Learning
CPCTC	China Peacekeeping CIVPOL Training Centre
CUNPK	Centre for UN Peacekeeping
CPPB	Conflict Prevention and Peace Building
CSDP	Common Security and Defence Policy
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration
DFS	United Nations Department of Field Support
DPKO	United Nations Department for Peacekeeping Operations
DRR	Disaster Relief Reduction
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EEAS	European External Action Service
ELS	E-Learning Permission Staff
EU	European Union
FPU	Formed Police Units
FYROM	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
GAP	Gaming for Peace
GPOI	US Global Peace Operations Initiative
HIPPO	High Level Independent Panel on UN Peace Operations
IAPTC	International Association of Peacekeeping Training Centres
IDP	Internet-based Distance Learning
IPCAT	International Peace Cooperation Activities Training Unit
IPSTC	International Peace Support Training Centre
ITS	United Nations Integrated Training Service
JPC	Japan Peacekeeping Training and Research Centre
KAIPTC	Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping Training Centre
KIPOCENT	Korea International Peace Operations Centre
KAIPTC	Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping Training Centre
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean



NAPCI	North Asia Peace Cooperation Initiative
NARPI	Northeast Asia Regional Peacebuilding Institute
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NTCELP	National Training Centre E-Learning Platform
OAS	Organisation of American States
OMA	Office of Military Affairs (UN)
OROLSI	Office of the Rule and Security Institutions
OSCE	Organisation for Security Cooperation in Europe
PET	Policy, Evaluation and Training Division(UN)
PKOC	Armed Forces of the Philippines Peacekeeping Operations Centre
PKO	Peacekeeping Operation
PLA	People's Liberation Army
POTC	Peace Operations Training Centre
POTI	Peace Operations Training Institute
PTP	Peacekeeping Training Programme
SIPRI	Stockholm International Peace Research Institute
SG	Serious Games
SOP	Standard Operating Procedure
SSR	Security Sector Reform
TNA	Training Needs Assessment
ToT	Training of Trainers
TPP	Training Partner Platform
TPST	Training Policy and Standards Team
UN	United Nations
UNAMID	The United Nations–African Union Mission in Darfur
UNDP	UN Development Programme
UNGSC	United Nations Global Service Centre
UNITAR	United Nations Institute for Training and Research
UNMISS	United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan
UNPOL	United Nations Police
UNPREDEP	United Nations Preventive Deployment
UNSCC	United Nations System Staff College
UNTAC	United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia
UNTSO	United Nations Truce Supervision Organisation
WANEP	West African Network for Peacebuilding
WE Act 1325	Women Engaged in Action
ZIF	Centre for International Peace Operations



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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Twenty-first century peacekeeping has evolved into a multifaceted and complex process. The demands on peacekeeping in recent decades have been unprecedented. Immersion into the conflict prevention and peacebuilding (CPPB) world requires in-depth knowledge of the practices of CPPB within several diverse contexts and at a variety of distinct levels. This can be challenging as GAP necessitates an evaluation of CPPB from many sectors in society. Firstly, from the point of view of international organisations concerned with creating conditions for international peace and security, like the UN and the EU; secondly, from the viewpoint of personnel directly involved in peace operations, including police, military, and civilian and NGOs personnel. Finally, and perhaps more importantly, from the standpoint of individuals most affected by conflict. CPPB must coexist within this framework. The GAP project needs to consider all these elements throughout the process and in the design of the game.

This review is an analysis of worldwide approaches to CPPB, looking at three distinct areas: training of personnel, soft skills and serious games. It is the first phase of research in the GAP project, assessing current methods in CPPB and determining areas for improvement. The purpose of Deliverable D2.1 is to accurately assess and summarise SOTA (State-of-the-art) approaches in CPPB. The opening section of this report, 2.4., is an evaluation of CPPB in terms of EU development, concepts and training approaches within the European context. Section two of 2.4 examines the UN approach to crisis management and peacekeeping, while section three assesses worldwide approaches to training, looking at the OSCE, (Organisation of Security Cooperation in Europe) the African Union(AU), ASEAN (Association of South Eastern Asian Nations) and other trends in CPPB training.

As 2.4 points out, there is no universally agreed definition on conflict prevention and peacebuilding; there are however, several concepts, meanings and approaches that the GAP project can build from. CPPB involves a variety of activities which usually involves a long-term process aimed at sustainable peace. Peacebuilding and peace keeping require preventive measures and mechanisms in order to prevent the outbreak of conflicts and disputes. CPPB, therefore can be seen as multi-layered process. To date, however, there is no international consensus on the best way for international actors such as the EU or the UN to promote a just and sustainable peace in their conflict prevention activities.

The characterisation and definition of CPPB as a multi-dimensional phenomenon means that it comprises of many activities and maintains an extremely varied approach in peace operations. However, even with these descriptions of peace operations, there is a constant blurring of lines between conflict prevention, crisis management and preventive diplomacy. The approach to CPPB in more recent years has been an attempt to



broaden the model of peacebuilding beyond the traditional concepts once located in the field of peace and conflict studies. Peacebuilding must continuously adapt to challenges in the environment and new political realities. Classifications now, generally emphasize different aspects to an ever evolving and expanding role conducted by local, regional and international organisations.

The 1990 edition of *'The Blue Helmets: A review of United Nations Peacekeeping,'* defined peacekeeping as an 'operation involving military personnel, but without enforcement powers, undertaken by the United Nations to help maintain or restore international peace and security in areas of conflict. These operations are voluntary and are based on consent and co-operation.' The *Capstone Doctrine* of 2008 which looked at *Principles and Guidelines* of UN peacekeeping operations, identified UN peacekeeping as 'a technique used to preserve the peace, however fragmented, where fighting has been halted, and to assist in implementing peace agreements.' According to the doctrine, 'conflict prevention involves the application of structural or diplomatic measures to keep intra-state or inter-state tensions and disputes from escalating into violent conflict. Ideally, it should build on structured early warning, information gathering and a careful analysis of the factors driving the conflict. Peacebuilding therefore, 'involves a range of measures targeted to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management, and to lay the foundation for sustainable peace and development. It works by addressing the deep-rooted, structural causes of violent conflict in a comprehensive manner. Peacebuilding measures address core issues that affect the functioning of society and the State, and seek to enhance the capacity of the State to effectively and legitimately carry out its core functions.'¹ Without UN policy developments and 'lessons learned' approach, addressing the success or failures of peace missions, it would be difficult for personnel to operate in unpredictable situations and post-conflict environments. While the protection of civilians is paramount, the concept of 'responsibility to protect' or R2P has become a central issue where states have a duty to protect citizens from war crimes, genocide, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity.

The emergence of multidimensional peace operations in recent decades, the creation of new conflict units such as the UN Development Programme and the design of new service lines in SSR (Security Sector Reform), DDR (Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration), and the rule of law, demonstrated the converging interest among humanitarian, development, political, security and human rights actors to help prevent and resolve conflict and build sustainable peace.'² Under International law, the responsibility to maintain international peace and security rests within the UN system. Peace-making, peacekeeping and peacebuilding is one of the

¹ The *Capstone Doctrine*; 'The Evolving Role of the United Nations Peacekeeping Operations in *United Nations Peacekeeping Operations. Principles and Guidelines*. 2008. p.17-19

² UN Peacekeeping: An Orientation. 2010. http://www.un.org/en/peacebuilding/pbso/pdf/peacebuilding_orientation.pdf (Accessed 18 October 2016)



many instruments available to the UN DPKO (Department of Peacekeeping) in order to create conditions for peace. Fragile states, a surge in extremist non-state group violence means that it is getting harder to maintain peace and security and protect civilian lives. These dangerous environments mean that countries are increasingly reluctant to send peacekeepers on UN PKOs (Peacekeeping Operations). Without doubt, the vast majority of personnel involved in missions are military. In 2016, there are 123 countries contributing to the 16 UN peacekeeping missions with over 120,000 personnel. Even with this number, there are inconsistencies in training of personnel across UN member states. While civilian missions are primarily a post-1990 phenomenon, there is a downward trend in the number of fatalities on UN missions. However, there is a growing need for police in UN peace operations, largely due to an increasing threat of organised crime in post-conflict environments. According to the IPI, (International Peace Institute) the UN has no difficulty in finding adequate numbers of troops, police and observers to staff its operations. However, 'the capabilities of UN contingents are inconsistent. This is due to a number of factors, including differences in training, leadership, and equipment. In many of its largest and most challenging operations, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, UN peacekeeping still lacks an array of critical enablers, which significantly limits its operational capabilities and negatively affects the implementation of mission mandates. At the same time, personnel may lack the specialised skills required to effectively implement complex mandates.'³

With the growth of peacekeeping, there has also been the growth of international organisations, and joint UN missions, especially between the UN, EU and AU (African Union). The OSCE has also been involved in peace operations. Unlike the UN, the EU is a relatively young actor in the field, with its first CSDP (Common Security and Defence Mission) crisis management operation in 2003. In 2.4's evaluation of CPPB training approaches, there are many similar approaches to training from both organisations, but there are also significant differences from classroom based and seminars to simulation, role playing, to online and e-learning. There have been attempts at the standardisation of approaches but with limited success. In addition, there can be many phases to training. In the EU, for instance on CSDP missions, pre-departure training can be arranged by seconding agencies or affiliated organisations in the member states, training can be conducted by member states themselves, or pre-deployment training can be arranged by the ESDC in Brussels. Field training is also provided when deployed to various missions, usually in the first weeks of deployment, emphasising in more detail what is expected of personnel, and specific duties to be carried out during the mission.

³ IPI. International Peace Institute. 'Enhancing European Military and Police Contributions to UN Peacekeeping.' February 2013. http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/IPI-Pearson-ZIF_E-Pub--Enhancing_European_Contributions_to_UN_Peacekeeping_Feb_2013.pdf (Accessed 15 November 2016)



There is a level of interconnectivity between the UN and other international organisations, in particular the EU, in terms of CSDP missions. Ten of the current EU missions, for example, operate where there is simultaneously a UN peacekeeping operation or a UN special political mission. Despite this, a lack of coordination and standardisation in pre-deployment training has limited the potential impact of practical cooperation in the field. These problems result chiefly from differences in the organisational culture, practice and procedures of the EU and UN at both policy and operational level.⁴ Recognising these deficiencies, the recent document on strengthening the UN-EU strategic partnership on peacekeeping and crisis management facilitated the linking of the EU 'Goalkeeper' and 'Schoolmaster' platform to recruitment and training of civilian personnel in addition to uploading information on UN training opportunities.⁵ The statement also calls for a move toward a tri-lateral training partnership with the AU in terms of supporting indigenous training and capacity building, including police and civilian components.⁶

While it is difficult to obtain up-to-date and accurate figures of training facilities, there are upwards of two-hundred and seventy centres, colleges, institutions and academies, worldwide providing training for personnel involved in peace operations or crisis management operations. Almost one hundred of these training providers are in Europe. Finding common ground within all these facilities is a daunting task. Naturally, this involves a whole range of skills in order to operate in such environments and effective training needs to incorporate specialised skills, including soft skills.

The UN Integrated Training Service (ITS), is part of the UN DPKO which issues comprehensive peacekeeping pre-deployment training standards for civilian, military and police personnel. The UN Secretariat has developed guidance and scenario-based training materials but there is no mechanism to confirm effective delivery of the training.⁷ UNITAR runs a comprehensive Peacekeeping Training Programme (PTP) alongside Core Diplomatic Training and a Peace making and Conflict Prevention Programme aimed at senior level officials.

In the EU, the ESDC (European Security and Defence College) has trained more than 13,000 diplomats, police officers and other civilian and military personnel. The college has a network that comprises of 91 national and multinational training institutes from all 28 EU member states: these include diplomatic, police and defence academies as well as peace universities.⁸ In terms of a centralised body for CPPB training in Europe, the ESDC currently provides twenty-four courses on its standardised curriculum that address a broad range of training designed for CSDP deployments. These range from generic soft skills training in mediation, approaches to

⁴ European Parliamentary Research Service (EPRS), *EU-UN Cooperation in Peacekeeping and Crisis Management Briefing* (2015): 9.

⁵ EEAS, *Strengthening the UN-EU Strategic Partnership on Peacekeeping and Crisis Management: Priorities 2015-2018* (2015): 5.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ See: UN High Level Independent Panel on Peace Operations, *Uniting our Strengths for Peace*

⁸ See the ESDC website for more information: https://eeas.europa.eu/topics/common-security-and-defence-policy-csdp/4369/european-security-and-defence-college-esdc_en



gender in operations and civilian crisis management to mission specific training for political and military legal advisors. Training is typically delivered through a combination of mandatory Internet-based Distance Learning (IDL) and residential modules, which are outsourced to national defence academies, universities and research institutions of member states. Courses are offered to all personnel involved in CSDP missions including military, police, civil servants and diplomatic staff. In addition, the majority of ESDC courses are also open to UN personnel with the UN Liaison Office for Peace and Security making regular contributions to ESDC pre-deployment training courses in Brussels.

The African Union (AU) is a unique entity in terms of peacekeeping operations in that its member states collectively contribute roughly 50% of uniformed UN peacekeeping personnel while others play host to peacekeeping and CPPB missions. Six of the UN's top ten troop and police contributing nations are AU member states, including the top contributor, Ethiopia.

In the United States, there are a number of training centres including, the Global Peace Operations Initiative, the Centre for Civil-Military Relations and the US Institute of Peace. The USIP is especially prominent in the field of CPPB. USIP offers online courses on all aspects of crisis management, dialogue, mediation and negotiation. In addition, it offers customized courses for NGO, military and civilian personnel. USIP also uses simulations and other resources in the educational field for students and teaching providers, developing CPPB skills at young age. It also runs the SENSE (Strategic Economic Needs and Security Exercise) simulation programme.

With such a diverse range of nations and cultures actively participating in peace operations, standards, methods and effectiveness of training approaches vary considerably across the geographic divide. While efforts have been made at the UN and EU level to provide standardised pre-deployment and specialised training materials for international peacekeeping contingents (through its online peacekeeping resource hub for example), the implementation of these procedures and subsequent evaluation and employment is not universally transparent. As online training has gained momentum and less classroom-based, several core topics in training of personnel have yet to be developed. Most approaches in the EU, U.S. or Asian training centres do account for courses on gender for instance but this is not consistently applied. What is lacking among most training centres, is in depth courses on cultural nuances, and culture and language differences in particular. As Latin American training centres' point out, language barriers in many respects are a significant obstacle to effective peacekeeping. Much more needs to be done in terms of reform of training procedures at all levels and developing a coherent curriculum.

The Soft Skills Approach in CPPB



The fourth section of D2.1, is from Work Package Task 2.5. The review of GAP report 2.5 gives an analysis of soft skills training in CPPB. In practice, given the evolving nature of crisis management operations, a great deal of special training and skills are required as peacekeeping has moved away from the basic military tasks for which soldiers and police are traditionally trained for. While such skills, soft skills in particular, are not easily discernible in peace operations, there are certain models and assessment of soft skills available that can be ascertained for the GAP project. For instance, the cornerstone to peacebuilding is building relationships and the element of trust is clearly important in that endeavour. Trust, like empathy, communication and negotiation can be considered a soft skill. In training for missions, all organisations give soft skills prominence, soft skills such as negotiation techniques, mediation and stress management, particularly as an in-depth knowledge of soft skills improves the chances of success in any mission. Soft skills, therefore can to be interpreted and adapted for scenarios that will fit into the design of game. Soft skills are a vital component of successful conflict prevention and peacekeeping missions and the ability of players to implement such skills paramount.

There are many descriptions of the term ‘soft skills.’ In the academic and business arena, employers provide lists of what is required of employees and academics attempt to create theoretical models. What is certain, is that the concept of soft skills is a recent phenomenon and not universally known. SOTA in soft skills are necessary in the area of CPPB, how they are considered, and how to train personnel in the improvement of such skills. As previously mentioned, the emergence of soft skills is a relatively recent development and attempts to define the concept have encompassed such phrases as “emotional intelligence,” individual skills”, “emotional competencies” “soft aptitudes” and the “soft side of work.” The early works on this area placed greater emphasis on the skills element. Matterson et al examined the various definitions of skills and in an attempt to provide precision around what ‘skills’ and associated terminology might mean, they developed some operational definitions which try to give clarity, these include⁹:

Skills: The ability to access knowledge from a domain-specific knowledge base and use that knowledge to perform an action or carry out a task.

Dispositions: Individual qualities, relatively stable over time, that influence behaviour and actions performed as part of an individual’s skill set.

Attitudes: A positive or negative judgment, based in part on emotion, about an outside entity.

Beliefs: An acceptance that certain factual evidence is true, informed by an individual’s own values.

⁹ Matteson, M. L., Anderson, Lorian & Boyden, Cynthia. 2015. ‘Soft Skills’: A Phrase in Search of Meaning’. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy*, 16 (1), pp. 71-88.



Values: General standards or principles that guide behaviours among varying situations and to which individuals feel a strong commitment.’

There is no consensus on, nor universally accepted, list of soft skills. The lack of any agreement or uniformly applied list of soft skills, clearly limits the research in this area. While there is a need for greater demarcation, within this constraint Matheson et al have provided the following examples;

- Sociability;
- Self-management;
- Communication skills;
- Ethics;
- Diversity sensitivity;
- Teamwork skills;
- Problem-solving or critical thinking abilities;
- Customer service competencies;
- Emotional intelligence;
- Leadership skills.

Emotional intelligence is often conflated with soft skills by commentators and scholars alike. The terms of soft skills, are used in a variety of different contexts with sometimes similar and sometimes variety of different meanings. An academic assessment of the concept gives rise to a degree of confusion, there is no conformity in terms of what soft skills are and as such the findings of differing analyses disparate. A number of studies relate more to character traits and emotions than soft skills per se and this lack of uniformity is troublesome.

The absence of meaningful soft skill training is decidedly absent in law enforcement training.¹⁰ This lack of training is inhibiting law enforcement agency in terms of their potential and their ability to effectively communicate, interact and inspire confidence in the communities they serve. The UK College of Policing conducted a study in 2013 on the impact of greater training in good communication and customer service. The study revealed the distinction between trained and untrained officers and the significant benefits of this form of public interaction in the improvement of public confidence and police performance. The UK Policing Professional Framework provides National Rank Profiles for Officers and Level Profiles for staff by reference to National Occupational Standards (NOS). Within the NOS there is information designed to support an

¹⁰ Alston, R. and Haley, D. 2013. The Leader's Compass for Law Enforcement Professionals: A Values-Based Approach to Influencing People, Accomplishing Goals, and Improving Your Organization. Academy Leadership Publishing



individual's understanding of the policing role, particularly in relation to ways to communicate effectively, with a significant focus on, language and speech, actions, gestures and body language and space and position. In the UK Policing Professional Framework many of the underlying competencies could be described as soft skills. The attempts by the UK Police force to instil a better level of training in communication skills have been greeted with a degree of cynicism on the need or effectiveness of such training, particularly where some describe the training as 'softy and fluffy' and an exercise in teaching experienced police to engage in 'politeness skills'. The report on policing emphasised the need for greater understanding with the public as well as within the force on to the benefits of the training.

Soft skills are the personal attributes that allow one to successfully relate to another. It is often easier to capture the meaning of soft skills by reference to what they are not, hard skills, such as technical and knowledge based skills. In terms of empathy, Trevithick states that 'empathy involves trying to understand, as carefully and sensitively as possible the nature of another person's experience, their own unique point of view and what meaning this conveys for that individual.'¹¹ It is a key inter personnel skill, a vital component of emotional intelligence and an important soft skill. It aids our ability to understand others by being able to put ourselves in their shoes but also supports and fosters a sense of teamwork and shared goals. For emotional intelligence, Salovey and Mayer first explained emotional intelligence as a form of social intelligence which involves a person's ability to monitor not only their own but others emotions, to distinguish among them and to use that information to inform responses and actions.¹² It is clearly needed in law enforcement and there remains a lack of training and evaluating in interpersonal skills.

The 2014 Hanover Research examined best practice in measuring soft skills, such as teamwork, creativity, and character, with a focus on soft skill assessment embedded into core academic curriculum being key. The Armed Services UK have offered apprenticeship to all new recruits in the UK Army, Navy, Marine and Air Force which was created using NOS. It includes elements on team work and communication placing measurable soft skills at the core of the qualification across the range of disciplines. In 2014, the UK government set up a scheme to encourage former army officers back into civilian roles, a step which reflects the significance of the training and soft skills developed while in service and the ongoing need for the application of such soft skills. Such soft skills are to be availed of within the Witness Care Units set up in the UK to aid victims of crime through the criminal justice system, to improve co-operation between agencies and improve public confidence.

¹¹ Trevithick, P. 2005. *Social work skills: A practice handbook* (2nd ed.). Maidenhead: Open University Press. p.81

¹² Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. 1990. Emotional intelligence *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, Baywood Publishing Company, Inc. 9, pp.185–211.



Serious Games

Report 2.6, Review of SOTA in Serious Games (SGs), addresses in more detail soft skills and its relevance to gaming and serious games. In understanding the role of gaming a distinction must be drawn between simulations and gaming. Simulations are defined as an attempt to provide an environment that represents or mimics reality so as to facilitate learning of the player or user. They often are built to engage the learner in situations or events that would be too costly, difficult, or hazardous in the real world or that may be deemed problematic for ethical reasons.¹³ Gaming on the other hand, as Sawyer points out, is an attempt to foster skill development by providing entertaining challenges for the player.¹⁴ Games are goal-orientated, complex and require the gamers to develop skills to achieve that goal.

As a result of the popularity of gaming professional trainers, educators and managers have all sought to utilise the activity by bringing gaming into the training room and classrooms. It is not just gaming to entertain, it is gaming with the specific purpose of educating and furthering the attainment of knowledge. The applicability of gaming for soft skills training is gaining ground given the capacity of gaming to support reflective learning, self-efficacy and reflection on performance. Yet these critical elements require central components of the game design to feature learning outcomes that are recognizable and measurable as well as feedback on performance and an opportunity to reflect.

Substantive literature, research and scholarship have pointed overwhelmingly in favour of gaming as an educational tool.¹⁵ However, several studies have pointed to a dearth of evidence regarding the design and delivery of gaming as a method for training soft skills. Gaming can be distinguished from traditional learning as games by their nature are designed to measure progress since learning is happening, and is captured in the gaming experience itself.¹⁶ An important aspect of any education tool is the ability evaluate outcomes and obtain feedback, self-reflect and build on the feedback. Gaming is particularly well suited to such self -reflection

¹³ Gredler, M. E. 1996. Educational games and simulations: A technology in search of a (research) paradigm. In D.H. Jonassen (Ed.), *Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 521-540). New York, NY: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.

¹⁴ See Ben Sawyer's white paper on 'Serious Games: Improving Public Policy through Game-based Learning and Simulation.' 2003. Quoted in Djaouti, D., Alvarez, J., Jessel, J., Rampoux, O.: 'Origins of serious games', in Ma, M., Okionomou, A., Jain, L.C. (eds.) *Serious Games Edutainment Application*, pp. 25–43. Springer, New York. 2011, and Susi, T., Johannesson, M., Backlund, P.: *Serious games: An overview*. 2007.

¹⁵ Pivec, M, and Dziabenko, O. 2004. Game-Based Learning in Universities and Lifelong Learning: "UniGame: Social Skills and Knowledge Training" Game Concept, *Journal of Universal Computer Science*, (1) 14-26

¹⁶ See GLASSlab. 2012. 'Groundbreaking Video Game Design Lab Will Research And Develop Video Games To Engage Students And Measure Learning.' *Computer Weekly News* 12 July 2012: 985

Also see <http://www.theesa.com/article/groundbreaking-video-game-design-lab-will-research-develop-video-games-engage-students-measure-learning/>



and critical learning. Within this mechanism learning soft skills avoids the linear and extends into a more complex lesson learning process.

A key study carried out as part of the GaLA: The European Network of Excellence on Serious Gaming (FP7: ICT) demonstrated a number of structural, organizational and individual barrier to utilizing gaming for soft skills training. Whilst software development and gaming development become increasingly affordable, there remains significant financial implications for any company embarking on training on soft skills through gaming. Such barriers need to be overcome and relate to issues such as IT familiarity, IT support limitations and wariness of the practical benefits of gaming. Equally gaming for entertainment is a global industry with billions spent each year in research and development resulting in increasingly sophisticated games. The report highlights some of the programmes which may be helpful in arena of soft skills are *Minecraft: Education Edition*, *Use Your Brainz Edu*, *Gamelearn* and *Merchants* all of which encompass a variety of game learning techniques. *GLASSLab* is a further well known example that seeks “to empower youth to claim their path to 21st century success through high-impact digital games”. A further well-known example is *Food Force*, the first serious game developed by the United Nations.

Training for soft skills is a critical success factor in multi-discipline, international and interagency peacebuilding in complex environments. The development of curriculum, tools and course to support peacebuilding has been extensive, particularly in the NGO and Military army spheres. However, while the development of models of practice in soft skills for peacebuilding has been extensive, there is considerable evidence that soft skills training has not always been given the priority it requires, especially in interagency contexts. At the same time, the literature confirms that there are considerable opportunities to use gaming as a way to ensure that training for soft skills is mainstreamed within conflict prevention and peacebuilding missions.

In developing thinking around key strands in soft skills, a number of gaming applications that centred on definitions and training around soft skills were explored. Key findings were that soft skills related to the person attributes that enhance their ability to relate effectively to those around them. Soft skills in a work environment relate directly to the ways in which people engage with co-workers, clients or people that they meet in their daily activities, while a key lesson drawn from this study revealed the complexities around defining what soft skills are. Reviewing existing literature and studies illustrated that there was a lack of clarity and significant debate about definitional aspects and what aspects actually represent the key foci around soft skills. In tackling this, the review highlighted a number of approaches and centred upon several key areas.

Finally, by focusing on the potentials of gaming to contribute to these key debates, the review revealed that the utilisation of this methodology offers up new horizons in terms of equity of access and supporting learning



through experience. Serious gaming is a developing area with significant research starting to emerge that helps to underpin the need for strong pedagogical frameworks in terms of learning outcomes, feedback and reflective learning. This aspect does not detract from the gaming element but serves as an important reminder that learning methods remain paramount. Highlighting a number of FP7 projects that utilised gaming as a method, illustrated that there was a growing opportunity regarding the EU's role in innovation around peace making internationally. Existing approaches to soft skills training are embedded in pedagogical design, delivery and implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation of that training.

The final section of 2.6 assesses the development of games within the conflict prevention, mediation and conflict resolution sectors as well as NGO and industry responses. Digital technologies and social media of course have advanced at such a rapid rate and to such an extent in recent years that theory and research in this area is still emerging. This is especially evident in attempting to evaluate gaming and serious games. Notwithstanding that, using smart tools such as gaming and simulations for CPPB is not a new occurrence. Role play and simulations in particular, have been frequently applied to the teaching of international relations, particularly so in crisis management, negotiation and mediation. Game based theories, and simulations as 'active learning', have frequently been applied in the teaching of conflict analysis and conflict resolution. Ultimately, the GAP project's aim is the use of serious games to train personnel in soft skills in an effective way.

Acquiring knowledge and learning through gaming or serious games is an exciting and rapidly expanding field. This type of learning is often referred to as smart play. Serious games are said to be games for learning, educating, and developing new skills. It is argued that digital games, including simulations and virtual worlds, have the potential to be an important teaching tool because they are interactive, engaging and immersive activities.¹⁷ There is a great deal of intersection in the terminology used between digital game-based learning, (DGBL) serious games, (SG) simulations, and virtual worlds. However, many authors have contested views on the definitions around serious games and simulations. Serious games go under various different names, e.g. immersive learning simulation, digital game-based learning, and gaming simulations. Zyda defines serious games as a mental contest, played with a computer in accordance with specific rules that uses entertainment to further government or corporate training, education, health, public policy, and strategic communication objectives.¹⁸ While serious games are defined by Sorensen and Meyer as digital games and equipment with an

¹⁷ Ulicsak, M. & Wright, M. 2010. 'Games in Education. Serious Games. A FutureLab Literature Review. See also Gee, J.P., 2005. 'What would a state of the art instructional video game look like?' *Journal of online education*. Smith, R, 2007. 'Game impact theory: The five forces that are driving the adoption of game technologies within multiple established industries. *Games and Society Yearbook*.

¹⁸ Zyda, M. 2005. 'From Visual Simulation to Virtual Reality to Games.' *Computer* 38(9), 25–32.



agenda of educational design and beyond entertainment.¹⁹ Simulation, on the other hand, is referred to as an artificial scenario or environment that's designed to represent, or simulate some aspects of reality. Simulations can incorporate different degrees and types of fidelity, or realism, namely, physical, functional and psychological.²⁰ Simulations therefore immerse the player in the game itself and immersion in the decision-making process of the game requires the player to learn the consequences of their decisions. It is therefore an active learning process.

For relevance within the GAP framework, it is interesting to note how companies are using simulation processes, particularly in tactical and decision making. Effective decision making is naturally an important tool for GAP. For instance, *Virtual Battlespace 3 (VBS3)* is an example of simulation software used by military personnel for training purposes. BI, Bohemia Interactive, the company who created the simulation software has customers ranging from the US Army, to NATO, the Australian Defence Force, among others. The VBS3 system has been used for a variety of training simulations including naval operation procedures, actions and behaviours, initial and advanced military crew training for battle tanks and tank platoon defence and attack and reconnaissance. The game mechanics appear directly related to the technical and tactical skills, and the aim of the simulation is to provide as realistic a mapping as possible between real-world actions and activities, and the simulated ones.

In addressing conflict resolution in serious games, *Façade* is an example of interactive drama system, where the player can assume the role of a mediator. *Façade* is particularly famous for using a sophisticated AI engine to enforce a dramatic (Aristotelian) arc of intensity, regardless of the player's actions, which means that the player will get different experiences in different ways. In addition, a method of serious games was developed by the University of Duisburg-Essen in Germany. *ColCoMa* is a game developed in 2011-2012 as an MSc project at. Its stated aim is "to train conflict management skills through a collaborative serious role-playing game based on psychological theories of conflict management."²¹ It is a two-player experience in which the players take on the role of conflicting parties. The mediator in this case is controlled by the computer. The visual representation of the characters is extremely simple, and does not appear to be animated significantly. The main interface is text-oriented, requiring players to read the utterances of each other as well as the mediator.

There are many examples where simulations and serious games are being deployed in the area of peace and conflict studies. PAXsims, for instance is a platform for peace, conflict, humanitarian and development

¹⁹ See Kraiger, Kurt; Passmore, Jonathan; Rebelo dos Santos, Nuno ; Malvezzi, Sigmar (Editors): 2014. *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Training, Development, and Performance Improvement*.

²⁰ Ibid. p.206

²¹ Emmerich, Katharina, et al. 2012. "Training conflict management in a collaborative virtual environment." International Conference on Collaboration and Technology. Springer Berlin Heidelberg.



simulation and serious games for education, training and policy analysis. In addition, Track-4, uses simulations in the art of negotiation and mediation. The simulation places the participant in the position of negotiators and mediators. 'The exercises provide you with an insider's view of a conflict and the concerns of individuals and groups involved, as well as allowing for the experience the pressures and unpredictability of diplomatic or political negotiations. Track-4 creates a "mirror universe", a true to life replica of the political and social context, the human dynamics and material realities that shape a conflict and are at play in a real negotiation.'²² Simulations in Track-4 allows participants to gain knowledge and skills.

The U.S. Institute for Peace which is prominent in the field of CPPB and has also developed 'smart tools, for smart play'. The USIP uses SENSE (Strategic Economic Needs and Security Exercise) a game developed by the U.S. Institute of Defence Analyses, for professionals, government, NGOs, working in peace and conflict. The NGO, *Search for Common Ground*, has recently created *Battle for Humanity*, a digital game intended to promote cooperation and conflict resolution among young adults.

Other games, like *Peacemaker*, simulate the violence and political turbulence of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. Players choose between the role of an Israeli prime minister or a Palestinian Authority president, making policy decisions and communicating with the international community while dealing with unexpected violent events. *Darfur is Dying* is a viral video game for change that provides a window into the experience of the 2.5 million refugees in the Darfur region of Sudan. Players must keep their refugee camp functioning in the face of possible attack by Janjaweed militias. *Foreign Ground* is a first-person perspective training game used by the Swedish military to that simulates peacekeeping operations. Instead of focusing on combat it deals mostly with solving problems using non-violent means without relying on duels and combat. The user plays the role of a UN Peacekeeper and solves various tasks while on foot or vehicle patrol.

It is clear that SGs are a rapidly growing sector in the gaming industry. Simulation and SGs have been used by government, military, industry and NGOs and the technology within these fields and continues to be developed and advanced. More refinement is needed when it comes to soft skills. While simulations and role playing in conflict resolution have been employed in various ways and at various levels for many years now, measures of knowledge requirement through gaming is still an ongoing process. Developing soft skills within SGs is also a relatively new sector, similarly, determining aspects of empathy, leadership, cooperation in CPPB in this regard.

Given the fact that peacekeeping has grown into a multidimensional phenomenon, effective training of peacekeepers in soft skills is paramount. Capability gaps in peacekeeping have been a feature of modern peacekeeping missions. Operating effectively in UN missions requires the best of expertise and skill and the UN

²² See Track-4.com. (Accessed 12 December)



as well as other organisations involved in crisis management need to have the right mix of capabilities in terms of personnel, operations and equipment. Just as the EU is making steps to strengthen training initiatives, the new UN Secretary General António Guterres will need to bring preventive diplomacy, as well as implementing training reforms to the forefront of tenure in order to improve the effectiveness of training. Moreover, the development of GAP can go a significant way to improve and advance current training approaches in the field of CPPB.



Project Start Date: 1.9.2016

Project Duration: 30 months

2.4. Review of SOTA in Training Practices for CPPB

Deliverable details	
Deliverable number	2.4.
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Due date	31 December 2016
Delivered date	23 December 2016
Reviewed by	Kirsi Hyttinen, Laurea University, 23 December 2016 Anne Holohan, Trinity College Dublin, 29 December 2016.
Dissemination level	PU
Contact person EC	Carla Rocha-Gomes



INTRODUCTION

There are few concepts in international relations more ubiquitous than the study of conflict prevention and peacebuilding. As conflicts have intensified in recent years, such as the Syrian civil war, forms of conflict prevention and peacebuilding (CPPB), for anticipating and solving violent conflict have increased. As such, defining CPPB within the copious field of international peace and security poses significant theoretical and practical challenges.

CPPB requires the converging interests of many actors, organisations, international personnel, as well as humanitarian, development, political, security, and human rights specialists, all working within the field of crisis management, preventive diplomacy, peacebuilding and conflict resolution. Peacekeeping is no longer just about 'keeping peace' between combatants in fragile states and societies. For instance, over the period of forty years (1945-1989), the UN Security Council authorised and deployed only eighteen peace operations. In recent decades, however, there has been a fivefold increase in UN peace operations with the scale of peacekeeping dramatically rising in the post-Cold War years. During the period from 1990 to 2009 the UN authorised forty-five different operations. These included; the UN Iraq-Kuwait Observation Mission, UN Observer Mission in El Salvador, the UN Advance Mission in Cambodia, UN Missions in Somalia, Uganda-Rwanda, Liberia, Angola, Haiti, Tajikistan, a UN Confidence Restoration Operation in Croatia, a UN Preventive Deployment Force and a UN Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina among others. Consequently, peacebuilding and peacekeeping has dramatically changed, developed and advanced during this period. Subsequently as peacekeeping gained momentum, different parts of the UN revised their operations, often as the result of failed peace agreements, peace operations and the evolving nature of contemporary conflicts. With the growth of peacekeeping, there has also been the growth of international organisations, and joint UN missions, especially between the UN, EU and AU (African Union) with an ever increasing civilian mission trend in peacekeeping in particular. Civilian missions are essentially a post 1990 occurrence and as such, it is equally important for GAP (and in terms of best practice) to evaluate the capabilities and skills of personnel involved in these missions.

There are of course many factors involved in a peacebuilding operation including the type of mandate, political will, disarmament of combatants, security aspects etc. so the success or failure of a mission cannot be the sole responsibility of personnel involved in peacekeeping. 'UN peace operations today are nine times larger and last



three times longer than those in the 1990s in increasingly complex environments. Yet the ability of the UN to analyse conflict-specific context into which peacekeepers are deployed has not improved much.²³

It is estimated by the WHO (World Health Organisation) that over 1.5 million people die every year due to violent conflict. The devastating impact of war, loss of lives and the subsequent restoration of housing, infrastructure, medical facilities and communications networks are far beyond the scope of local populations. This requires the very best of expertise and individual skill to adapt to conflict ridden and post-conflict environments. Although authorities in countries affected by violence or conflict have the sole responsibility of protecting their citizens, and maintaining law and order, outside intervention is often called for. As a result, the UN, EU, OSCE, AU, and other organisations have developed policies and strategies for peacekeeping operations and crisis management missions. In doing so, foreign professionals from these organisations 'must also be aware of the local conditions, the aims of the cooperation and – not least – the importance of sharing their knowledge and skills with their colleagues in the countries of service. Therefore, recruitment and preparatory training for such assignments have been more and more recognised as crucial components for sustainable progress.²⁴ Notwithstanding this, CPPB in recent decades has evolved considerably. Traditional peacekeeping has developed and matured at an ever-expanding rate. This poses lots of challenges for training personnel involved in peace operations. The task of this review is therefore to analyse worldwide approaches to CPPB, in terms of the UN, EU and other international organisations and in particular, assesses SOTA in training.

Training in the field of CPPB is a complicated process. There are many similar approaches to training but there are also significant differences from classroom based and seminars to simulation, role playing, to online and e-learning. There have been attempts at the standardisation of approaches given the range of training centres that exist. In addition, there can be many phases to training. In the EU, for instance on CSDP (Common Security and Defence Policy) missions, pre-departure training can be arranged by seconding agencies or affiliated organisations in the member states, training can be conducted by member states themselves, or pre-deployment training can be arranged by the ESDC in Brussels. On EU CSDP missions, the demands for mission personnel far exceed the availability of appropriate staff. Demanding missions increasingly require specialised professional skills and profiles which are not always matched to the mission requirements. Personnel from different sectors of society and across many skillsets, therefore, may not be compatible in terms of working coherently and effectively. In the EU, CSDP military and civilian missions are separate. This is not the same for the UN.

²³ International Peace Institute. 'The Future of peace operations: Maintaining Momentum. November 2015. Available at https://www.ipinst.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/IPI_E-RPT-Future_of_Peace_Ops.pdf (Accessed 17 October 2016)

²⁴ SIDA. Training for Service in OSCE Missions. 2004. http://www.sida.se/contentassets/83c2ff01b65c48d5bd9029b893cede09/training-for-service-in-osce-missions_1024.pdf (Accessed 02 December)



Field training is also provided when deployed to various missions, usually in the first weeks of deployment, emphasising in more detail what is expected of personnel, and specific duties to be carried out during the mission. Given the multitude of training centres, there are no up-to-date and accurate figures of training facilities, but there are upwards of two-hundred and seventy centres, colleges, institutions and academies worldwide providing training for personnel involved in peace operations or crisis management operations. Almost one hundred of these training providers are in Europe. Examining worldwide approaches to conflict prevention training will help GAP to understand and learn from existing SOTA in CPPB training. The following section analyses CPPB within the European context, examining the history and development of conflict prevention in Europe and investigating current training approaches.

1. THE EVOLUTION OF CONFLICT PREVENTION AND PEACEBUILDING IN EUROPE

1.1. THEMES AND DEVELOPMENT

It would be difficult to analyse and assess the existing operational structures of CPPB without an adequate comprehension of how CPPB evolved in Europe. It is clearly relevant today since European policy often seems more reactionary to events than pro-active in pursuing its external relations strategies. Rather, throughout the constant European treaty making, treaty amendments, EU Council conclusions, Commission recommendations, coupled with an intense trans-governmental decision making process, there are distinctive themes in European conflict prevention and peace building policy and practices.

The establishment of the European Economic Community in 1957 was created as the basis of a peace project, primarily designed to make war between European countries inconceivable. Countries that were once ardent aggressors in two ferocious World Wars came together 'determined to lay the foundations of an ever-closer union among the peoples of Europe and resolved by pooling their resources to preserve and strengthen peace and liberty.'²⁵ As a result of Europe's own history of violence and war, conflict prevention and peacebuilding became a stated key policy objective of the EU. Nonetheless, it remained considerably dormant in the initial decades of the European project. CPPB was essentially reserved for the political and military spheres of the EU and where coordination of EU foreign policy was problematic. Much like the taboo of encroaching into state sovereignty, foreign policy was left under the remit of other organisations, most notably NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation) and the OSCE (Organisation for Security Cooperation in Europe). European member states preferred to forge ahead with economic and monetary union as opposed to forming substantial policy orientations in the EU's peripheral relations with states.

²⁵ Preamble to the Treaty of Rome.



The break-up of former Yugoslavia and the Balkans wars of the 1990s put the external matters of the EU into sharp focus. Although the 1992 Maastricht Treaty incorporated the objective of a 'common foreign policy', the Petersberg tasks defined the type of military action the EU could assume in crisis management operations, including specific peacekeeping and peace-making tasks.²⁶ A reconfiguration of ideas took place in the mid-1990s with greater attention placed on 'development cooperation to civilian crisis prevention and to the socio-economic and political root causes of conflicts.'²⁷ However, progress was slow in determining how the EU would actually function in the area of CPPB.

One of the first steps taken to strengthen EU foreign policy capabilities in the international arena was the creation of the Conflict Prevention Network in 1997. CNP's role was to help the various Directorates-General and the European Parliament formulate policy-oriented analyses in the area of CFSP (Common Foreign and Security Policy) and COREU (CORepondance EUropéenne). CFSP information networks were also set up to provide an exchange of information between member states, the General Secretariat of the Council and European Commission.²⁸ Provisions for CFSP were revised by the Amsterdam Treaty in 1999 which included the appointment of a High Representative for CFSP. This process elevated the EU to a more prominent role as an international actor in conflict prevention and specifically integrated a military component which could pave the way for preventive deployment and peacekeeping missions. Under the auspices of the CFSP, the Conflict Prevention and Crisis Management Unit was created as the lead centre for conflict prevention matters in the EU.

While the 1999 EU Cologne Council outlined the Union's 'capacity for autonomous action...in order to respond to international crises without prejudice to actions by NATO,' the European Council in Göteborg cemented those actions further. Addressing the root causes of conflict became an integral element of the EU's overall strategy. The EU Programme for the Prevention of Violent Conflict, adopted at the European Council in Göteborg in 2001 stated that;

'conflict prevention calls for a co-operative approach to facilitate peaceful solutions to disputes and implies addressing the root causes of conflicts...In keeping with the primary role of the UN in conflict prevention, EU actions will be undertaken in accordance with the principles and purposes of the UN

²⁶ The Petersberg Task were subsequently incorporated into the Treaty of Amsterdam (1999) and expanded in the Treaty of the European Union.

²⁷ Thematic Evaluation of the European Commission Support to Conflict Prevention and Peace Building. Preliminary study: Scoping and Mapping. Final Report. July 2009.p.5.

https://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sites/devco/files/evaluation-cooperation-ec-conflict-ppb-1266-annex1-200907_en_2_0.pdf (Accessed 10 October 2016)

²⁸ Tobias Debiel and Martina Fischer. 2000. 'Crisis Prevention and Conflict Management by the European Union. Concepts, Capacities and Problems of Coherence.' Berghof Research Centre for Constructive Conflict Management. p.6 CNP was dismantled when other EU instruments for conflict prevention were put in place.



*Charter. Recalling that the main responsibilities for conflict prevention rests with the parties concerned, assistance to local and regional capacity building...is of particular importance.'*²⁹

This programme attempted to set clear political priorities for preventive actions as well as enhance EU instruments for long and short term prevention.³⁰ Furthermore, by adopting these principles the EU will:

- Set clear political priorities for preventive actions
- Improve its early warning, action and policy coherence
- Enhance its instruments for long-and short term prevention and
- Build effective partnerships for prevention

The EU Programme for the Prevention of Violent Conflicts and the subsequent Communication from the Commission on Conflict Prevention established the foundations for EU conflict prevention mechanisms and peacebuilding operations. From 2001 onwards the EU sought ways of mainstreaming conflict prevention with an integrationist approach seeking and implementing instruments to make CPPB more effective. Mainstreaming and integration as conflict prevention programmes are important steps to CPPB. For instance, the EU has many instruments at its disposal for 'treating the root causes of conflict. There is a need to take a genuinely long-term and integrated approach, which will address all aspects of structural stability in countries at risk.'³¹ These EU documents were bolstered by the European Security Strategy (ESS), *A Secure Europe in a Better World* adopted by the European Council in December 2003. The ESS provides the conceptual framework for the CFSP, including what would later become the CSDP and encapsulates EU thinking on CPPB. It emphasised the security-development nexus and situations of fragility along with the 'conflict-insecurity-poverty cycle.'³² The report on the implementation of the ESS in 2008, *'Providing Security in a Changing World'*, stated:

'Preventing threats from becoming sources of conflict early on must be at the heart of our approach. Peace-building and long-term poverty reduction are essential to this. Each situation requires coherent use of our instruments, including political, diplomatic, development, humanitarian, crisis response, economic and trade co-operation, and civilian and military crisis management.'

²⁹ See EU Programme for the Prevention of Violent Conflict.

http://www.eplo.org/assets/files/3.%20Resources/EU%20Documents/EU_EU_Programme_for_the_Prevention_of_ViolentConflicts.pdf (Accessed 11 October 2016)

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Communication from the Commission on Conflict Prevention. Brussels, 11.04.2001. COM(2001) 211. Final

³² 'A Secure Europe in a Better World'. European Security Strategy, 12 December 2003, p.11



This document also advocated increasing the role of civil society and NGOs as they play a vital role as EU partners in conflict prevention.³³ The EU's CPPB approach is the result of embryonic policy objectives. Naturally, given the highly institutional nature and intergovernmental decision-making process of the EU, CPPB builds upon EU Council Conclusions, the European Commission's statements and the goals and intentions of EU member states. CPPB is an essential aspect of the EU's external action but it requires a combination of human rights, democracy, rule of law and local and regional cooperation in order to achieve peace and security. As such, the Treaty of Lisbon signified the most important steps for the EU in shaping a common foreign policy that would lay the foundations for the EU's foreign relations.

1.2. EU OPERATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND PARADIGMS IN CPPB

The Lisbon Treaty was implemented in December 2009 and delineated a comprehensive framework for EU external actions. The Treaty made innovations to make CFSP more coherent and to build on the peacebuilding potential of the EU. Lisbon stipulates that the EU's aims are to "promote peace, its values and the well-being of its peoples" (Art. 3.1) and to "preserve peace, prevent conflicts and strengthen international security" (Art. 21.2(c)). It has several important provisions relating to foreign policy, especially in relation to CSDP. Above all, it allowed for the creation of the European External Action Service (EEAS). The EEAS is also under the authority of the HR/VP (High Representative for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy / Vice-President of the European Commission).

The lack of consistency and coordination at policy level is a constant concern for the EU. The establishment of the EEAS in 2010 was therefore critically important in terms of tackling the lack of coherence in CPPB. The EEAS is the diplomatic service of the Union. With its headquarters in Brussels, it has 139 delegations worldwide. Civilian and military crisis management structures which were previously part of the Council's duties, now migrated to the 'new hybrid service that brings together officials from the commission, the Council Secretariat and member states diplomats. The EEAs was created to enhance and coordinate EU external action.'³⁴ The EEAS works closely with the HR/VP who is tasked with devising and implementing EU CFSP. The HR/VP is also head of the European Defence Agency and has the right of 'initiative in CFSP/CSDP matters and ensures the

³³ Report on the Implementation of the European Security Strategy. Providing Security in a Changing World. Brussels, 11 December 2008 S407/08. https://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/EN/reports/104630.pdf (Accessed 13 October 2016)

³⁴ Fernanda Faria. 2014. 'What EU Comprehensive Approach? Challenges for the EU action plan and beyond.' European Centre for Development Policy Management. p.7



civilian and military aspects of CSDP, under the authority of the Council.³⁵ The EUSRs (European Union Special Representatives) are also responsible for developing a more effective CFSP.

The EEAS provides the EU with an excellent platform for conflict prevention. Crisis management structures, planning and conduct all come under the remit of EEAS. The EEAS is responsible for communications and public diplomacy, drafting of country and regional papers, and election observer missions. The Directorate for Conflict Prevention and Security of the EEAS includes the Conflict Prevention, Peace Building and Mediation Instruments Division and the Security Policy Division.

Other instruments involved with coordination and planning within the EEAS, include the Civilian Planning Conduct Capability (CPCC) and CIVCOM (Committee for Civilian Aspects of Crisis Management). The CPCC has the mandate to provide 'input into the Crisis Management Concepts (CMC) of civilian CSDP missions, contribute to the development of the concepts, plans and procedures for civilian missions etc.'³⁶ Important elements of CSDP's structure also include the Political and Security Committee (PSC), the EU Military Committee (EUMC), the Crisis Management and Planning Directorate (CMPD) and the EU Military Staff (EUMS).

The PSC coordinates all strategic and policy decisions for the Council of the EU. It keeps track of all international crisis developments and prepares a response while the EUMC provides the PSC with advice on all military matters. CIVCOM also advises the PSC and drafts information on civilian aspects for CSDP missions. The EU's Situation Centre (INTCEN) is the "intelligence centre" of the EU and is located in the EEAS as the focal point of Situation Centres based in Member States as well as third countries. 'It monitors the international situation, with a focus on particular geographic areas and sensitive issues such as terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and exchanges information with the foreign, intelligence, security and defence bodies of Member States. It provides early warning, situational awareness and intelligence analysis to inform timely policy decisions under CFSP and CSDP.'³⁷ Even though the EEAS has only been in existence a few short years, it has managed to coordinate activities within the different institutions of the EU. It also firmly recognises where the short falls are and areas for improvement. In its EU Council conclusions of the December 17, 2013 review on the EEAS, the council stated:

[It] recognises the need to further strengthen integrated approaches in CSDP and in crisis management within the EEAS, aiming, notably through ensuring a clear chain of command, at improving the effectiveness and efficiency of CSDP mission and operations, as well as promoting civil-military synergies

³⁵ EPLO Briefing Paper 1/2012. 'Common Foreign and Security Policy structures and instruments after the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty.'

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid.



*and closer coordination with other policy departments of the EEAS, while bearing in mind the specificities of the crisis management structures.*³⁸

The European Council recognises the need for a ‘comprehensive approach’ to address sustainable development, peace and security and to work to further streamline planning and decision making procedures. The organisation recently advocated for a more comprehensive approach to crisis and conflict situations and in fragile states in its Council Conclusions in 2014 and 2015.³⁹

As previously mentioned, the EU has increased its role as a global actor involved in CPPB in recent years with a greater involvement in peacebuilding missions. While countries voluntarily contribute in different degrees to the UN, other regional organisations, like the African Union (AU) and ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) and inter-governmental bodies have engaged in peacebuilding missions, jointly and bi-laterally with the UN and EU. The OSCE in Europe represents a long-standing tradition of supranational mediation with a view to overseeing fair elections and the promotion of human rights. The EU has consistently sent monitors to tense situations in a similar capacity as the OSCE, notably combining with the OSCE in the rebuilding of the Balkan states. One of the systems the EU uses to assess areas of conflict and potential conflict is the early warning system.

1.3 CONCEPTUALISING EARLY WARNING AND RESPONSE

Early warning mechanisms are part of the overall conflict prevention architecture attempting to thwart conflict from happening in the first place and protecting peoples’ lives. Early warning is an attempt to gather information, knowledge and analysis thereby predicting the size, scale and timing of potential risks and threats of violence. As such, it analyses the nature of these threats and communicates them to the appropriate authorities, i.e. decision-makers. The European Commission’s Communication on Conflict Prevention in 2001, stated:

‘A capacity for troubleshooting depends crucially on the existence of a proper EU early-warning mechanism, not only to alert EU decision-making and operational centres to an imminent crisis but also to study its causes and possible consequences and identify the most appropriate response.’

Early warning and response (EWR) systems can be defined as: ‘systematic data collection, analysis and/or formulation of recommendations, including risk assessment and information sharing,” and early response

³⁸ Council of the European Union. 2013. *Council Conclusions on the EEAS Review*. Doc. ST 17973

http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/EN/genaff/140141.pdf

³⁹ See Council Conclusions on EU’s Comprehensive Approach May 2014 and Taking forward the EU’s Comprehensive Approach to external conflict and crises Action Plan 2015.



*normally "occurs in the latent stages of a perceived potential armed conflict with the aim at reduction, resolution or transformation."*⁴⁰

Efficient EWR systems or EWS (early warning systems) tackle various threats to human security such as: (1) wars and armed conflict; (2) state failure; 3) genocide and politicide; (4) other gross human rights violations; and (5) humanitarian emergencies caused by natural disasters.⁴¹ Functioning EWR mechanisms are grounded on the "subsidiary" principle that, in a bottom up approach, the lowest level should be the starting point, entrusting the next higher level only when the local authorities are not capable of handling the conflict.⁴² EWS in Europe is demonstrated in the following diagram.⁴³

Figure 1.1 – The Early Warning System (EWS)



⁴⁰ Herbert Wulf and Tobias Debiel. 2010. 'Systemic Disconnects: Why Regional Organizations Fail to Use Early Warning and Response Mechanisms.' *Global Governance*, Vol. 16, No. 4 (Oct.-Dec. 2010), (pp. 525-547). p.527 Wulf and Tobias argue that the 'crucial, yet so far under-reflected, issue is the question of who is going to be warned and who is supposed to act on this warning...Little thought is given to warn those who are about to be attacked. The underlying assumption of early warning systems is that international actors will take over responsibility as protectors as soon as adequate information is being processed. This assumption, however, has so far not been confirmed in practice.'

⁴¹ Ibid. p.527. Separate to EWS, ARGUS is the Commission's own internal rapid alert system.

⁴² Ibid. p.539

⁴³ EWS in Europe.

http://eeas.europa.eu/archives/docs/cfsp/conflict_prevention/docs/201409_factsheet_conflict_earth_warning_en.pdf
(Accessed 20 October 2016)



However, as Wulf and Debiel suggest, ‘even if an early warning system is accurate and timely, it does not automatically lead to timely action...The various decision makers who deal with governance and human rights abuses, reconstruction programs, mediation in conflicts, deployment of peacekeepers, planning and implementation of humanitarian and military programs, or preventive diplomacy all of whom are engaged in peace and security missions need tailor made information rather than general reports on the potential emergence of violent conflict.’⁴⁴ Furthermore, if accurate information is not collected and disseminated to the appropriate decision maker, it becomes of little use and there is a disconnection between early warning advisers and early action decision makers. Of course, having the information and acting upon that information are very separate problems for organisations like the EU. Despite the use of these systems into the EU’s CPPB management strategy, early warning systems have rarely resulted in early preventive action.

To date, there have been several attempts at improving the infrastructure within the EU’s Rapid Response Mechanism (RRM). The Seville European Council Conclusions (2002) stated that the CFSP and CSDP should devote ‘greater efforts to conflict prevention; strengthening arrangements for sharing intelligence and developing the production of situation assessments and early-warning reports, drawing on the widest range of sources.’⁴⁵ The RRM allowed for the use of a wide range of short-term actions which would otherwise require more cumbersome decision-making procedures. For example, in a crisis situation, the Commission was able to

⁴⁴ Herbert Wulf and Tobias Debiel. 2010. ‘Systemic Disconnects: Why Regional Organizations Fail to Use Early Warning and Response Mechanisms.’ *Global Governance*, Vol. 16, No. 4 (Oct.-Dec. 2010), (pp. 525-547) p.541

⁴⁵ See Seville European Council Conclusions. 24 October 2002. 13463/02
http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_DOC-02-13_en.htm?locale=en (Accessed 20 October 2016)



undertake short-term operations, such as targeted assistance (e.g. the 1999 Energy for Democracy' programme in Serbia).

EU instruments for long and short term prevention were later strengthened, through the development of civilian and military CSDP, including the rapid deployment and security sector reform pools, and the establishment of the Instrument for Stability. EUSRs (European Union Special Representatives) have also played an important role in assessing, preparing, and drafting recommendations in conflict prevention and peacebuilding work.

On December 19, 2013, the European Council adopted significant conclusions on CSDP, emphasising the need to plan and deploy the 'right civilian and military assets rapidly and effectively', along with improving 'the EU rapid response capabilities, including through more flexible and deployable EU Battle Groups.'⁴⁶ In 2014, the Instrument for Stability (IfS), which had been the main provider of funding for supporting CPPB changed its name to include peace in its title. The objective of the new IcSP – Instrument contributing to Stability and Peace was to 'contribute to stability and crisis response, to increase conflict prevention and preparedness capacities of the EU.'⁴⁷ Article 3 of the IcSP defines the crisis response component of the EU, to be applied in situations of urgency, crisis, or instability (i.e. conflict prevention).

The EU currently deploys 17 CSDP missions, ranging from civilian police missions in Afghanistan to capacity building in Mali.⁴⁸ The typical aspects of a CSDP mission naturally vary depending on the specific circumstances. The wide range of political, economic and military instruments available to the EU, as a supranational organisation, gives the EU an effective platform on which to undertake and implement crisis management operations. The concept of peacekeeping and peace operations of course has widened to include the return of refugees, the promotion of human rights, policing and monitoring elections, aspects necessary to stabilise social order.⁴⁹

Since the launch of the first police mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2003, the EU has deployed more than thirty CSDP missions (civilian and military) in Europe, Africa, Asia and the Middle East. EU monitoring missions

⁴⁶ European Council Conclusions on Common Security and Defence Policy. 19 December 2013. Part I paragraphs 1-22 of the European Council conclusions (already adopted). https://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/140214.pdf (Accessed 19 October 2016)

⁴⁷ EU Policy Briefing on Whole of Society Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding. <http://www.woscap.eu/documents/131298403/131553554/Scoping+Study+-+EU+Policy+Brief.pdf/c7236e1f-1341-49f8-a6c8-f86cdc8a196a>

⁴⁸ See 2016 CSDP Missions table included in Annex III of this report.

⁴⁹ Jair Van Der Lijn, Xenia Avezov. Stockholm International Peace Research Institute. (SIPRI) 2015. 'The Future Peace Operations Landscape.' SIPRI. Final Report of the New Geopolitics of Peace Operations Initiative. According to SIPRI, UN descriptions on peacekeeping, 'excludes good offices, fact-finding or electoral assistance missions; it neither includes peace operations comprising non-resident individuals or teams of negotiators nor operations not sanctioned by the UN... Similarly, the concept responsibility to protect (R2P) is usually not directly used in peace operations.'



in Georgia (in response to the crisis in 2008) and the antipiracy operation named EU NAVFOR or Operation Atlanta off the Somali coast represented a growing role for the EU in international security.⁵⁰

1.4 CURRENT TRAINING APPROACHES IN THE FIELD OF CPPB

In 2011, the European Commission reviewed training on the CSDP for military, police and civilian personnel. While the report noted that the European Security and Defence College (ESDC), a virtual network for strategic defence training, had offered 25 courses of 17 different types, training civilian and military participants from EU Member States, EU Institutions, International Organisations and Third Countries on CSDP-related topics in line with the EU policies in 2010/2011 academic year (Council of the European Union, 2011) and extensive work through CEPOL on policing, the report noted that there were specific training issues to be addressed ranging from administrative, financial and procurement procedures to issues of mentoring, monitoring and advising, and from human rights and gender aspects to security awareness. Overall, the Report conveyed a general sense of inadequate co-ordination between member states and between military, police and, especially, civilian preparation.

Likewise, an OECD review of international support for peace processes concluded that weak co-operation among development, mediation and security actors combined with a lack of “conflict sensitivity” and the ability to learn from mistakes remained key weaknesses of international action. Too often, co-operation on peace building missions depended on individual personalities:

“Mediation, development or security activities occurring in isolation lack sufficient understanding and knowledge... Mediators usually focus on politics, process and getting to an agreement. Security actors are more likely to zoom in on security issues, ceasefire agreements, disarmament, and stabilisation and force projection. Development actors will tend to look at governance, socio-economic issues and inclusiveness. Such different foci are not weaknesses in and of themselves, but demand co-operation. A lack of co-operation can lead to international efforts being dominated by a particular perspective”.

The review found that few international actors regularly shared conflict analysis to support peace processes. Analysis appeared to be poorly integrated within developing strategies and programmes for peacebuilding making it difficult for international actors to learn and share lessons in a systematic manner. Clare Castillo found that this led to a failure to differentiate between local norms and customs that need to be respected on

⁵⁰ Eva Gross and Ana E. Juncos. (eds) 2011. *EU Conflict Prevention and Crisis Management: Roles, Institutions and Policies*. London: Routledge.



the one hand, and aspects of the pre-conflict society that contributed to conflict on the other, including tensions between local norms and global norms, such as the violation of women's rights.⁵¹

EU Training Approaches

Although there have been numerous attempts at harmonisation of training approaches to CPPB across Europe, there is currently no standardized curriculum or coordinated approach. Training is subjected to the diplomatic culture of countries and given varying degrees of weight. For instance, 'some diplomatic services such as those of Italy or Spain, involve diplomats in extensive and varied training, while others, such as the United Kingdom, opt for shorter, concentrated training prior to placement in the field – based on the credo that 'doing is learning'. Decisions on how to prepare diplomats are predominantly determined by national perspectives and attitudes.'⁵² Training is further complicated by a lack of standardised pre-deployment training, particularly in relation to the requisite soft skills required to effectively operate in a CPPB environment.

There are currently over ninety national and multinational institutions/colleges offering CPPB related training in Europe. Within this, there are over fifty distinct institutions primarily offering CPPB training. Most of these institutes tailor courses toward either military *or* civilian personnel rather than a more holistic approach. There is evidence, however, of a shift by some member states toward a more integrated training regime such as the German Training Partner Platform (TPP), which promotes a comprehensive approach to training by integrating military, police and civilian personnel in addition to training courses offered by the European Security and Defence College (ESDC) and the UN.

Given the large amount of decentralised CPPB training facilities, it is difficult to assess the impact and effectiveness of current training approaches in a concrete way. According to Thierry Tardy of the European Institute of Security Studies (ISS) this has led to a certain degree of 'hybridisation' of operations, whereby operations are no longer the product of one single institution but rather the result of the interaction of several conflict management policies and/or cultures.⁵³

There is a level of interconnectivity between the EU and other international organisations, in particular the UN, in terms of CSDP missions. Ten of the current EU missions, for example, operate where there is simultaneously a UN peacekeeping operation or a UN special political mission.⁵⁴ Despite this, a lack of coordination and

⁵¹ Castillejo, C. 2011. "Building a State that Works for Women: Integrating Gender into Post-Conflict State Building", (Madrid: FRIDE, Working Paper, No. 107, 2011) available at http://fride.org/descarga/WP107_Building_state.pdf

⁵² Simon Duke. 2011. 'Diplomatic Training and the Challenge Facing the EEAS.' *The Hague Journal of Diplomacy*. Vol. 7 (2011) 95-114. p.96

⁵³ Thierry Tardy, "CSDP in Action – What Contribution to International Security?" European Institute for Security Studies (ISS) *Chaillot Papers* (2015): 11.

⁵⁴ p.29.



standardisation in pre-deployment training has limited the potential impact of practical cooperation in the field. These problems result chiefly from differences in the organisational culture, practice and procedures of the EU and UN at both policy and operational level.⁵⁵

While the coordination and exchange of unclassified intelligence appears sufficient between both organisations, cooperation in relation to CPPB training lacks a formal structure or synergised approach, particularly in relation to soft skills training. According to a policy briefing by the Centre for International Peace Operations (ZiF) in Germany:

*[...] cooperation on training has been rather ad-hoc and unstructured, even though both organizations often deploy to the same countries, e.g. CAR, Somalia, Afghanistan or Kosovo; often, there is a lack of systematic joint guidance and harmonized curricula.*⁵⁶

Recognising these deficiencies, the recent document on strengthening the UN-EU strategic partnership on peacekeeping and crisis management facilitated the linking of the EU 'Goalkeeper' and 'Schoolmaster' platform to recruitment and training of civilian personnel in addition to uploading information on UN training opportunities.⁵⁷ The statement also calls for a move toward a tri-lateral training partnership with the AU in terms of supporting indigenous training and capacity building, including police and civilian components.⁵⁸

1.5 EU SECURITY AND DEFENCE COLLEGE (ESDC)

Since its establishment in 2005, the ESDC has trained more than 13,000 diplomats, police officers and other civilian and military personnel. The college has a network that comprises of 91 national and multinational training institutes from all 28 EU member states: these include diplomatic, police and defence academies as well as peace universities.⁵⁹ In terms of a centralised body for CPPB training in Europe, the ESDC currently provides twenty-four courses on its standardised curriculum that address a broad range of training designed for CSDP deployments. These range from generic soft skills training in mediation, approaches to gender in operations and civilian crisis management to mission specific training for political and military legal advisors. Training is typically delivered through a combination of mandatory Internet-based Distance Learning (IDL) and residential modules, which are outsourced to national defence academies, universities and research

⁵⁵ European Parliamentary Research Service (EPRS), *EU-UN Cooperation in Peacekeeping and Crisis Management Briefing* (2015): 9.

⁵⁶ Wanda Hummel and Tobias Pietz, "Partnering for Peace: Lessons and Next Steps for EU-UN Cooperation on Peace Operations", *ZiF Policy Briefing* (2015).

⁵⁷ EEAS, *Strengthening the UN-EU Strategic Partnership on Peacekeeping and Crisis Management: Priorities 2015-2018* (2015): 5.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

⁵⁹ See the ESDC website for more information: https://eeas.europa.eu/topics/common-security-and-defence-policy-csdp/4369/european-security-and-defence-college-esdc_en



institutions of member states. Courses are offered to all personnel involved in CSDP missions including military, police, civil servants and diplomatic staff. In addition, the majority of ESDC courses are also open to UN personnel with the UN Liaison Office for Peace and Security making regular contributions to ESDC pre-deployment training courses in Brussels.

The ESDC runs certified courses on 'Peacebuilding', 'SSR', and the 'Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict' in conjunction with the Geneva Centre for Security Policy (GCSP), Austrian Study Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution (ASPR) and the Austrian Ministry of Defence. In terms of methodology, 'adult learning principles' underpin delivery of the modules, which is intended to facilitate the transfer of knowledge both cognitively and experientially.⁶⁰ Practically, in terms of the peacebuilding module for example, this includes a strategic planning exercise that runs for the duration of the course. The 'Protection of Civilians in Armed Conflict' course is particularly relevant as it has both ESDC and UN certification by the Department for Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO). As previously mentioned, the ESDC utilises a web-based platform named 'Goalkeeper' in support of its training programmes for civilian personnel that assists training, recruitment, capability development and institutional memory for EU/international crisis management. This is bolstered by an information hub called 'Schoolmaster' that acts as a centralised information repository on training opportunities relevant to CSDP.⁶¹ Some of the courses currently offered by the ESDC as standardised curricula in 2016 include:

- CSDP Orientation Course
- Civil Military Co-Ordination Course
- Course on EU Comprehensive Management
- Course on Fragility, Security and Development
- Cyber Security and Cyber Defence
- Basic course on SSR
- Comprehensive approach to gender in operations
- Civilian aspects of crisis management
- Course on fight against piracy
- Course on protection of civilians in armed conflict
- Strategic Planning Process of EU missions and operations

⁶⁰ "Training Programmes: Civil-Military Training Cooperation", Austrian Study Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution (ASPR), (Accessed 15 October, 2016) <http://www.aspr.friedensburg.at/training-programmes/civil-military-training-cooperation/courses/>

⁶¹ "European Initiative for the exchange of Military Young Officers (Accessed 19 October, 2016) <http://www.emilyo.eu/> The college is also active in attempting to create a novel 'common training culture' across the EU through the European Initiative for the Exchange of Young Military Officers, more commonly known as the 'Military Erasmus' programme. Much like the standard 'Erasmus' programme, this involves the exchange of junior officers to enhance EU military education and training institutions in terms of quantitative and qualitative exchanges of knowledge.



- Challenge of space for the EU and CSDP
- Military and Civilian Capability
- Course for political advisors on the wider context of CSDP

1.6 EUROPE'S NEW TRAINING INITIATIVE FOR CIVILIAN CRISIS MANAGEMENT

ENTRi is an initiative funded by the European Commission that provides accredited CMC pre-deployment and specialisation training courses intended for civilians involved in crisis management missions.⁶² Specialisation courses focus primarily on soft skills training in diverse areas such as child protection, monitoring & rehabilitation, leadership & gender and mentoring in civilian crisis management.

Much like the ESDC, training courses are outsourced to various EU institutes and centres, such as the Folke Bernadotte Academy in Sweden and the Centre for International Peace Operations (ZIF) in Germany. The ENTRi approach to training is significant as it aims to facilitate European and wider international harmonisation and standardisation of courses, with a view to creating synergies between European and international institutions such as the UN and the OSCE. In terms of training delivery, a pedagogical and interactive method is employed that includes role-playing, formal and informal lectures, problem based learning, small-group work and maintenance of a 'learning diary'. In addition, ENTRi have developed a relatively novel 'in control app' based on the ENTRi training handbook, that can be accessed 'off-line' when in the field.

In addition to ENTRi, the Austrian based IPT (International Civilian Peacekeeping and Peacebuilding Training Programme), has provided generic and function-specific courses for over 1,500 civilian experts since 1995.⁶³ Core courses on peacebuilding are complemented by specialised courses that include child protection, monitoring and rehabilitation, election observation, gender in conflict and conflict-sensitive project management. Courses are delivered through a combination of 'complex situation' training exercises based on authentic field scenarios, lectures, working groups, narrative reports, workshops and readings. More novel approaches to peace operations training are also incorporated such as drama techniques designed to promote sensitivity and inter-personal conflict resolution skills.⁶⁴ According to IPT, delivery of training is designed to 'stress the importance of active involvement in the host society and promote a reflective and critical approach'.⁶⁵

⁶² Police and Military personnel can apply also.

⁶³ "Training Programmes: Civil-Military Training Cooperation", ASPR.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Ibid.



European NGO platforms are also actively involved in CPPB training in Europe. The EPLO is the primary provider of training to civilian NGO staff and promotes the central role NGO's should play in sustainable EU efforts for peacebuilding, conflict prevention, and crisis management. Much like other peace operations training institutions, the EPLO offers a 'core course for peacebuilders' in addition to several soft skills and specialised courses including a Certificate of Advanced Studies (CAS) in 'Civilian Peacebuilding', 'Navigating diversity through dialogue' and a Professional Certificate in 'Strategic Gender Equity Planning'.⁶⁶ Courses are typically divided between preparatory readings followed by onsite training at a European partner institution. Training methods involve a combination of expert inputs, peer exchange, case studies, exercises, skills training and self-study.

While the majority of these courses are tailored specifically for civilian personnel, they are open to all professional practitioners engaged in CSDP missions. However, given the different scenarios likely to face police personnel for example, specialised training in addition to generic soft skills training is also required. The EU Agency for Law Enforcement Training (CEPOL) is responsible for implementing transnational training for applicable national police agencies⁶⁷ through the development of a 'common curricula'. The agency offers a number of courses which include soft skills training in mentoring, monitoring and advising and CSDP nexus, structures and instruments to enable the more fluid exchange of information among staff deployed on EU CSDP missions.⁶⁸

CEPOL courses are delivered in three ways: (i) via a free to use online learning platform that utilises webinars, online modules and communities of practice; (ii) residential activities including courses, seminars and conferences and (iii) exchange programmes designed to contribute to the creation of a 'European law enforcement culture' in terms of practice-related training programmes.⁶⁹ Aside from the online distance learning modules, all residential courses are only open to CEPOL member states police agencies.

Unquestionably, civilian training systems and infrastructure vary considerably across EU member countries. In general, the EU tends to put a greater emphasis on training on human rights issues and gender and into mainstreaming these aspects into CSDP missions. In 2016, minimum standard training elements were agreed to be used by member states and their training providers when preparing CSDP missions and operation personnel. Several pilot training activities were launched at EU level within the framework of the ESDC and the ENTRI

⁶⁶ "Upcoming Training Courses given by EPLO Member Organisations", European Peacebuilding Liaison Office (EPLO), , <http://eplo.org/activities/training/> (Accessed on 16 October, 2016)

⁶⁷ Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom are notable exceptions.

⁶⁸ "External dimension of the area of Freedom, Security and Justice", European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Training (CEPOL), <https://www.cepol.europa.eu/education-training/what-we-teach/external-dimension-freedom-security-justice>.

⁶⁹ "Types of learning", CEPOL, <https://www.cepol.europa.eu/education-training/our-approach/types-learning>. (Accessed on 18 October, 2016)



projects.⁷⁰ Some of the findings in the 2012-2013 ITS Training Needs Assessment that are relevant to GAP include the need for more or improved training in the following areas:

- Capacity building
- Mentoring
- Skills/knowledge transfer
- Interoperability
- Communications (oral and written)
- Analytical problem solving
- Negotiation
- Decision-making⁷¹

EAPTC (European Association of Peace Training Centres) are also vital in facilitating the exchange of effective training methodologies. EAPTC is a loose association of training institutions fostering training cooperation and coordination at the European level while promoting a "*comprehensive approach*".⁷² In terms of curriculum, there have been significant advances toward inclusion of gender in conflict training as a core competency in both EU and UN courses. However, there is no oversight mechanism to ensure states involved in peacekeeping related missions send personnel for such training prior to deployment.

1.7. CONCLUSIONS

Constructing comprehensive training platforms that embody all the pre-requisite for best practice in CPPB, when CPPB itself is substantially varied is challenging. In addition, there are many training centres in Europe offering similar courses. This makes any degree of coherence and coordination between them highly improbable. Producing best practice among several training centres remains a significant obstacle. GAP needs to create a standardised approach that results in a central training platform for civilian, military and police. This also needs to include sub-sections for effective training. This would go a long way to alleviate current obstacles. It also needs to produce the best outcome in terms of a knowledge based system. Better post-deployment

⁷⁰ Andres de Guty, Emanuelle Sommaris and Lijiang Zhu. China's and Italy's Participation in Peacekeeping Operation: Exiting Training. p.234

⁷¹ 2012-2013 ITS Training Needs Assessment. They list the following areas: Cross-Cutting Training Needs for All Peacekeeping Personnel; Cross-Cutting Training Needs for Senior Managers; Cross-Cutting Training Needs for Civilian Personnel; Cross-Cutting Training Needs for Uniformed Personnel; Assessment of Current Training Activities and Mechanisms. <http://repository.un.org/bitstream/handle/11176/89581/2012-2013%20Global%20TNA%20Report.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y> (Accessed 25 October 2016)

⁷² See EAPTC at <http://www.eaptc.org/> (Accessed 25 October 2016)



‘lessons learned’, and information sharing mechanisms which will develop best-practice and a ‘repository of knowledge.’

Training approaches across Europe are somewhat undermined by a lack of ‘quality assurance’ mechanisms to measure effectiveness. Training methodologies vary across the different institutions (both at a national and regional level) and the ToT (Training of Trainers) is not standardised. Generic core courses for peacebuilders are widely offered across training institutes in Europe but there is, however, no best practice approach. Centralised online repositories of ‘best-practice’ training material should be improved in this regard, but it is nevertheless difficult to gauge compliance and implementation. There is a need for centralised intelligence sharing structures to adequately inform training practices across Europe. In addition, there is an issue with the low deployment of trained personnel.

Methodologically, there has been a move toward institutionalising e-learning and internet based distance learning platforms to promote harmonisation of syllabus, access to material and to compensate for a lack of qualified instructors. This is a positive move and would be reinforced by initiatives such as the GAP project. Given the variety of training actors and methods, it is also necessary to ensure a level of continuous assessment, feedback and co-ordination in terms of the qualitative nature of such training. Training courses should be multi-lingual, particularly in terms of online/ distance learning courses.

Problems have arisen in areas of cooperation and consolidation of training methods - since the EU has usually encouraged the use of different training models and learning tools for CSDP. Standardised pre-deployment training at all levels relating to sexual and gender-based violence - through certification by UN or through the EDSC – in *addition* to mission specific/regionally relevant pre-deployment training. This should be mandatory. Enhanced integrated training regimes – based on the German TPP for example. At present, there is no evaluation of skills and knowledge for pre-deployment training. There is also no evaluation of skills used in crisis management operations or self-assessment test once personnel have returned from missions. Comprehensive training for new starters as well as refresher training for existing staff is needed, both of which GAP could address.

Not only do European states differ in terms of their strategic culture and national approaches toward conflict prevention and peace operations, but crucially within those states, military, police and civilian organisations differ in terms of *their* operational culture, internal mechanics and understandings of conflict/post-conflict environments. Furthermore, as each CPPB related mission brings together civilians from a variety of backgrounds as well as TCC and PCC (Troop and Police Contributing Countries) coordination at all levels can be



arduous. Since this occurs within a unique local context in terms political conditions, ethnicity, language, gender, customs etc., it is therefore apparent that a 'one for all solution' to CPPB training is not suitable or indeed feasible. Aside from providing the context for the current debates on peace building and training, an essential issue underpinning this report is how best to train personnel involved in peace missions. Assembling comprehensive training platforms that embody best practice in CPPB is a daunting task but not an impossible one.



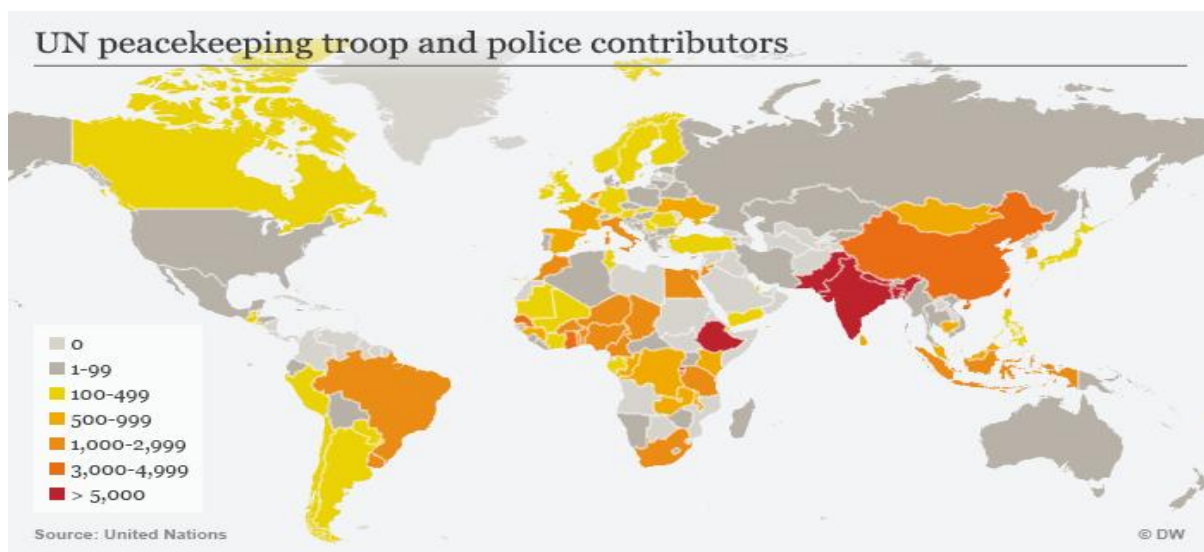
2. THE UN SYSTEM OF CONFLICT PREVENTION AND PEACEKEEPING

‘The world is changing and our support to peacekeeping, and indeed all peace operations, must keep pace.’

- UN Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon.

‘There are currently more peacekeepers on the ground than ever before, and they increasingly operate in contexts where the UN is being asked to manage conflict rather than restore or keep peace.’⁷³

Figure 2.1 – UN Peacekeeping Troop and Police Contributions



Conflict prevention, peace-making, peacebuilding, along with mediation dialogue are regularly stated objectives of the United Nations. The firm aspiration of the UN was to create conditions for international peace and security and to promote universal human rights, a common language of social progress, while improving relations among states. Although the UN Charter offered guiding principles for peace and security, peacekeeping is not directly referred to in the UN Charter, and it has become the central focus of much of UN activities, both in responding to conflict and attempting to prevent and resolve conflict. The UN reaches every corner of the globe and deals with a broad range of issues from environment and refugee protection to international health and sustainable development. However, the UN is probably best known for peacebuilding, conflict prevention, peacekeeping and humanitarian assistance. The UN Security Council (UNSC) authorises the establishment of peacekeeping operations, international sanctions and military actions and has the power to work with other organisations to resolve disputes and maintain international peace and security.⁷⁴

⁷³ Arthur Boutellis and Lesley Connolly. 2016. *International Peace Institute*. 'The State of UN Peace Operations Reform: An Implementation Scorecard.'

⁷⁴ *Un Peacekeeping PDT Standards, Core Pre-Deployment Training Materials*. 1st Ed. 2009.



UN peacekeeping personnel are usually part of multidimensional operation, consisting of hundreds and often thousands of individuals. Given the increased complexity of missions, it is paramount that all peacekeeping personnel 'understand their own work, but also how it affects, and is affected by the work of other components in the mission.'⁷⁵ This can be an area of contention since many different groups involved in PKOs can have very different views on the operation. In general, multidimensional peacekeeping will have very different mandates across several peace operations. While their primary function is to assist at a variety of diverse levels, the duties peacekeeping personnel are expected to perform varies considerably. In some instances, PKOs are mandated to assist Governments to organise national or local elections, while in other instances, they may be mandated to observe the elections. Also, different tasks can be allocated to different parts of the mission under the same mandate. For example, 'military and police components may help ensure security while civilian components in cooperation with the UN Development Programme (UNDP) may assist the Government in registering voters or organizing the elections. Integrated Support Services in missions may provide logistical support in cooperation with, or in support of civilian electoral personnel in missions and in UN agencies.'⁷⁶ As a result, mandated tasks related to elections often traverse several different components and illustrate why different components of the peacekeeping operation and UN Country Team need and should work together.⁷⁷

Figure 2.2 – United Nations Peacekeeping Operations



⁷⁵ *Un Peacekeeping PDT Standards, Core Pre-Deployment Training Materials*. 1st Ed. 2009. In addition, 'all peacekeeping personnel need to understand authority, command and control structures and the coordination and management structures which direct and guide their work.'

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Ibid.



Source: http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/images/PKD_Infographic_web.jpg

Each UN mission therefore is mandated for a specific purpose and authorised under the UNSC. 'The mandate itself is geared to the unique situation of the conflict of the country in question. Therefore, there is no standard structure of a UN peacekeeping operation, nor is there a standard organizational chart for a traditional or multidimensional peacekeeping operation. Each peacekeeping mission is different.'⁷⁸ Peacekeeping operations need to understand the contribution of all other components to the mandate. 'For all UN peacekeeping operations, it can be difficult to ensure that all components and units work together in a coherent and effective manner. For that reason, peacekeeping operations require clear command and control structures to ensure that decisions are effectively transmitted from the head of the mission down to the relevant components.'⁷⁹

2.1 THE UN DPKO (DEPARTMENT OF PEACEKEEPING) AND DEPARTMENT OF FIELD SUPPORT (DFS)

Given the emergence of many non-traditional tasks to peacekeeping, it was necessary to create a coordinated and logical approach for peacekeeping within the UN system. The UN DPKO (Department of Peacekeeping) was established in 1992 to plan, manage and implement all peacekeeping operations for the UN in an effective manner. UN DPKO, 'is dedicated to assisting the Member States and the Secretary-General in their efforts to maintain international peace and security.' As such, 'it provides political and executive direction to UN peacekeeping operations around the world and maintains contact with the Security Council, troop and financial contributors, and parties to the conflict in the implementation of Security Council mandates. The Department works to integrate the efforts of UN, governmental and non-governmental entities in the context of peacekeeping operations.'⁸⁰

Although the DPKO offers guidance and support on military, police, mine action and additional matters of concern to other UN political and peacebuilding missions, there are shared responsibilities and capacities with the Department of Field Support (DFS). Due to increase in peacekeeping missions, UN DPKO restructured its operation and administration procedure and created the DFS in 2007. DFS runs the Field Personnel Division, the Logistics Support Division, ICT and all field related budgetary and financial matters. DPKO for its part manages the office of operations for Africa, Middle East, Europe and Latin America as well as the Offices of Military Affairs (OMA) and Rule of Law and Security Institutions (OROLSI).

The UN Secretary General (UNSG) gives responsibility to the Under-Secretary General (USG-DPKP) for all peacekeeping operations. The USG-DPKO therefore directs and controls UN PKOs; develops policies and

⁷⁸ *UN Peacekeeping PDT Standards, Core PreDeployment*. Training Materials, 1st ed. (2009)

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ See UN DPKO: <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/about/dpko/> (Accessed 08 October 2016)



operational guidelines, prepares reports and advises UNSG on all aspects of planning, coordination and establishment of UN DPKO. In addition to the DPKO and DFS, the Department of Political Affairs, (DPA) UN Development Programme, (UNDP) and OCHA (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs) work on CPPB related concerns. The DPA plays a critical role in peace-making, preventive diplomacy and peacebuilding, through monitoring and assessing global political developments and advising the UNSG on all matters that could advance the cause of peace: providing support and guidance to UN peace envoys and political missions in the field; DPA 'contributes to UN efforts worldwide that span the spectrum from conflict prevention to peacebuilding to post-conflict peacebuilding.'⁸¹

2.2 CRISIS MANAGEMENT IN THE UN

Crisis management techniques operate within the UN system through the DPKO, DFS and UNDP. As most crises have multi-dimensional causes and symptoms, and multiple solutions, these departments often overlap. However, the strategic goals of crisis management have implications for the skills required of civilian staff, whether that is in conflict prevention, peacebuilding, conflict management, mediation and intervention. Certainly, different types of skills are needed and at different levels, from political negotiation to security sector reform. Coordinated responses, comprehensive and integrated missions need the expertise from many sections in society. However, there must be a willingness of behalf of member states to provide voluntary military, police and civilians to crisis management operations. In the case of Europe, in particular, this is currently not happening. For examples, although Germany is the fourth largest donor to UN-led peace missions, it came forty-eight on the list of top UN troop providers in 2012. It only provided 51 civilian employees, 12 police officers and 220 soldiers and military observers.⁸² In relation to the UN peacekeeping, Ireland is ranked forty-eight in 2016 with 385 peacekeepers. Italy has the most troops on UN missions (1,114 peacekeepers) while the UK is ranked fifty-second with 336 peacekeeping personnel.

UNDP's work on CPPB 'promotes social cohesion and empowering nations and communities to become inclusive and resilient to external and internal shocks. This is done by supporting and strengthening of key governance institutions needed to peacefully navigate countries away from potential conflict and ensure durable societal transformations occur.'⁸³ While there are certain linkages between peacebuilding and humanitarianism in terms of helping a society recover from conflict at a local level (OCHA) and building the resilience at the societal and political levels (DPKO), 'peacebuilding often has an explicitly political alignment, in support of national strategies. Humanitarian action is neutral, independent and guided by need. Humanitarians

⁸¹ *UN Peacekeeping PDT Standards, Core PreDeployment*. Training Materials, 1st ed. (2009)

⁸² Ibid.

⁸³ See UNDP; <http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/democratic-governance-and-peacebuilding/conflict-prevention-and-peacebuilding.html> (Accessed 10 November 2016)



seek to assist national actors in developing the ability to cope with current and future crisis – as do peacebuilders. Humanitarian assistance providers, after addressing core needs, focus on building the capacity to cope with future humanitarian emergencies. DPKO, DPA, UNDP and others focus on preventing reversion to violence – which can be a trigger of humanitarian crisis.⁸⁴

UNDP also works towards ‘deepening gains made at the political and diplomatic level by providing strategic analysis, policy and programme support to the broader UN system and government partners.’ UNDP works on three main areas of policy, sustainable development, democratic governance and peacebuilding, and climate and disaster resilience. Under democratic governance and peacebuilding, UNDP works on conflict prevention and peacebuilding. This includes conflict analysis, risk assessment, infrastructures for peace, dialogue and mediation and development solutions to prevent solutions to violent conflict. UNDP supports trends to enable early appropriate response; this is often referred to as early warning response or ‘golden hour’ and is a necessary component in conflict prevention. The term ‘golden hour,’ is borrowed from the medical literature and represents a crucial moment that could mean the difference between life and death for a critically ill patient. In the world of post-war transformation, there is also a golden hour when the international community and the affected country can act either to lay a foundation for a full recovery [or] . . . set the path for a recurrence of fighting.’⁸⁵

Moreover, Kofi Annan, as UN Secretary General from 1996-2006, pledged to move the United Nations from a culture of reaction to a culture of prevention in the global effort against armed conflict.⁸⁶ Some of the basic premises of the report are the following:

- ‘The primary responsibility for conflict prevention rests with national Governments, with civil society playing an important role. The main role of the UN and the international community is to support national efforts for conflict prevention and assist in building national capacity in this field.
- Preventive action should be initiated at the earliest possible stage of a conflict cycle in order to be most effective. One of the principal aims of preventive action should be to address the deep-rooted

⁸⁴ OCHA Occasional Policy Briefing Series Brief No. 7: *Peacebuilding and Linkages with Humanitarian Action: Key Emerging Trends and Challenges*. <https://docs.unocha.org/sites/dms/Documents/Occasional%20paper%20Peacebuilding.pdf> (Accessed 16 November 2016)

⁸⁵ Johanna Mendelson-Forman and Merriam Mashatt. 2007. ‘Employment Generation and Economic Development in Stabilization and Reconstruction Operations’. S & R Series No. 6. Washington, DC: US Institute of Peace. The authors argue that ‘it seems logical that improving the lives of those who have suffered from conflict would include a program to generate economic well-being in the immediate period after hostilities subside...An obvious reason for this relegation to a lower priority is that security, humanitarian needs, and restoring the rule of law often overtake the economic development priorities of any peace-building mission. Even in Iraq... restoring livelihoods and getting people back to work remains unresolved.’ https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/101745/2007_march_srs6.pdf (Accessed 15 November 2016)

⁸⁶ UN Secretary-General says global effort against global armed conflict needs change from ‘culture of reaction to culture of prevention.’ 29 November 1999. Security Council Press Release. See <http://www.un.org/press/en/1999/19991129.sc6759.doc.html> (Accessed 15 November 2016)



socio-economic, cultural, environmental, institutional and other structural causes that often underlie the immediate political symptoms of conflicts.

- A successful preventive strategy depends on the cooperation of many United Nations actors, including the Secretary-General, the Security Council, the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, the International Court of Justice and United Nations agencies, offices, funds and programmes, as well as the Bretton Woods institutions. The United Nations is not the only actor in prevention and may often not be the actor best suited to take the lead. Therefore, Member States, international, regional and sub-regional organizations the private sector, non-governmental organizations, and other civil society actors also have very important roles to play in this field.⁸⁷

The Brahimi Report (2000) was a 'turning point' for UN peacekeeping in terms of reform practices, improving peacekeeping capabilities and making it more effective. While reform initiatives have continued within the UN system, they have not always led to implementation. For instance, some 'critical aspects of past reform have yet to be tackled by Member States, such as the provision of additional capacity to reinforce missions during crises. Other reforms have been only partially implemented by the Secretariat, such as a global logistics strategy or effective integrated planning mechanisms.'⁸⁸ In 2006, the UN General Assembly created a 'robust peacebuilding architecture, including the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC), the Peacebuilding Fund (PBF) and the Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO), to improve the effectiveness of the UN in peacebuilding. They work through political support and advocacy (PBC), funding (PBF) and policy coordination and leveraging of knowledge (PBSO).⁸⁹ In light of the need to make progressive changes to peacekeeping, the DPKO published the *United Nations Peacekeeping: Principles and Guidelines* (2008), also referred to as the Capstone Doctrine, which was intended to learn lessons from the past peacekeeping operations. As well as operational guidelines and the basic principles of UN peacekeeping; *consent, impartiality and the non-use of force except in self-defence and in defence of the mandate*, it outlines several factors important for success in peacekeeping, including:

- **Genuine commitment to a political process** by the parties to work toward peace
- **Clear, credible and achievable mandates**, with matching resources
- **Unity of purpose in the Security Council**, with active diplomacy in support

⁸⁷ Kofi Annan. 2001. *Prevention of armed conflict. Report of the Secretary-General*. General Assembly Fifty-fifth Session Agenda item 10. Report of the Secretary-General on the work of the Organization. See

<http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan005902.pdf> (Accessed 16 November 2016)

⁸⁸ A New Partnership Agenda: Charting a New Horizon for UN Peacekeeping.

<http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/newhorizon.pdf> (Accessed 12 October 2016)

⁸⁹ OCHA Occasional Policy Briefing Series Brief No. 7: *Peacebuilding and Linkages with Humanitarian Action: Key Emerging Trends and Challenges*. <https://docs.unocha.org/sites/dms/Documents/Occasional%20paper%20Peacebuilding.pdf> (Accessed 16 November 2016)



- Supportive **engagement by neighbouring countries** and regional actors
- **Host country commitment** to unhindered operations and freedom of movement
- **Integrated UN approach**, effective coordination with other actors and good communication with host country authorities and population
- Missions need to demonstrate their **credibility**, strengthen their **legitimacy** and promote national and local ownership.⁹⁰

In 2014, the UNSC unanimously adopted Security Council Resolution 2171, reaffirming an international commitment to the effective use of “negotiation, inquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, and resort to regional and sub-regional organizations and arrangements, as well as the good offices of the Secretary-General. In the same year, UN Secretary Ban Ki-Moon undertook a new review of peace operations, in order to ‘take stock of evolving expectations of UN peacekeeping and how the organisation can work toward a shared view of the way forward.’⁹¹ It was clear that given the changing global environment, the UN needed to adapt to new security issues. The nature of peace operations has developed beyond the UN’s original principles as confirmed in the 2015 UN High Level Independent Panel on Peace Operations (HIPPO) report. The HIPPO report acknowledged a need for more robust and multidimensional peace operations. This would address existing gaps in preventing conflict and mediating peace, protecting civilians, using force for peace and protection, and sustaining peace.

However, UN peacekeeping missions operate across continents and consist of large operations, and often these missions operate in increasingly hostile and dangerous environments. Fragile states, a surge in extremist non-state groups and violence means that it is getting harder to maintain peace and security and protect civilian lives. These dangerous environments mean that countries are increasingly reluctant to send peacekeepers on UN PKOs. Without doubt, the vast majority of personnel involved in missions are military. See figure 2.3.

Since the establishment of the first UN mission in 1956, more than 3,300 people have died serving under UN mandates. While there is a downward trend in fatalities, there is reluctance on the part of many UN member states to become more involved in peacekeeping. The UN DPKO manages 16 missions worldwide, with more than 80,000 troops, 13,000 police officers, nearly 2,000 military observers and approximately 20,000 personnel. The U.S., Japan, and the EU together fund around 80 percent of the UN peacekeeping budget, (which exceeds

⁹⁰ A New Partnership Agenda: Charting a New Horizon for UN Peacekeeping.

<http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/newhorizon.pdf> (Accessed 12 October 2016)

⁹¹ United Nations, Ban Ki-moon, Secretary General’s remarks at Security Council open debate on trends in United Nations peacekeeping, 11 June 2014. See also (SIPRI) 2015. ‘The Future Peace Operations Landscape.’ SIPRI. Final Report of the New Geopolitics of Peace Operations Initiative.



\$8 billion) however, only a small percentage of the troops come from the U.S., Japan and the EU. The vast majority of personnel come from African and Centre and South Asian member states, 'which together provide 71 percent of the UN's uniformed personnel.'⁹²

In 2016, there are 123 countries contributing to the 16 peacekeeping missions. Uniformed personnel accounts for 100,019. In civilian personnel: 16,471 (as of 31 July 2015), international: 5,256 and local: 11,215. In addition to this, there are UN Volunteers: 1,559 (as of 31 August 2016).

Figure 2.3 – UN Uniformed Personnel: Troops, Police and Military Observers

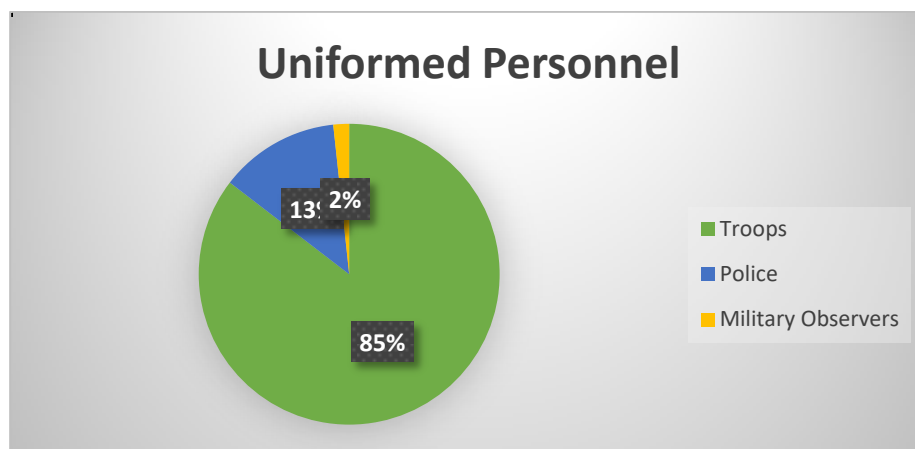
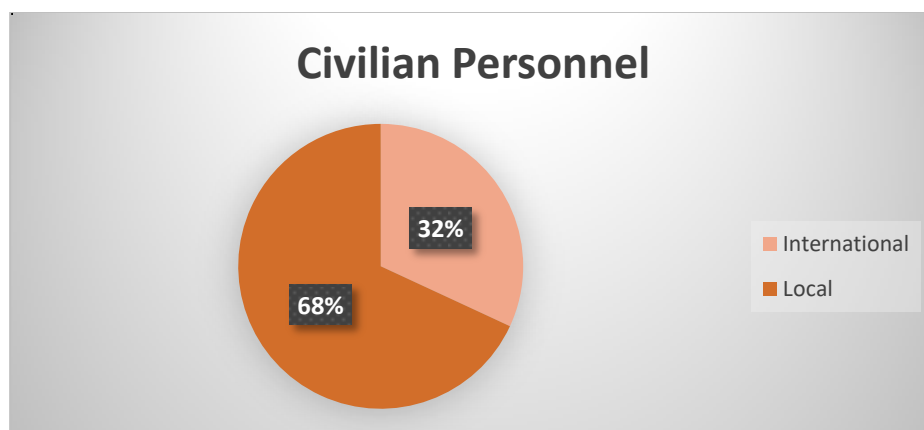


Figure 2.4 – UN Civilian Personnel: International and Local



2.3 BEST PRACTICE AND GUIDANCE IN UN PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS

⁹² IPI.(International Peace Institute.) 'Enhancing European Military and Police Contributions to UN Peacekeeping.' February 2013.

http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/IPI-Pearson-ZIF_E-Pub--Enhancing_European_Contributions_to_UN_Peacekeeping_Feb_2013.pdf

(Accessed 15 November 2016)



Although best practice and guidance in peacekeeping was developed and outlined in the Capstone Doctrine, UN member states are not legally bound to use it in their preparations for contributing military, police and civilian personnel to UN peacekeeping operations. However, it was created with broad consultation with Member States in order to create a substantive document for UN peacekeeping operations. The document is thus the primary source for guidance regarding UN-led peacekeeping as an internal document of the UN Secretariat. UN Member States are encouraged (but not legally bound) to use it in their preparations for contributing military, police and civilian personnel to UN peacekeeping operations.’ In the introduction, Mr Guéhenno writes:

“...In order to meet the challenges posed by the unprecedented scale and scope of today’s missions, the UN DPKO and UN DFS have embarked on a major reform effort, Peace Operations 2010, aimed at strengthening and professionalizing the planning, management and conduct of UN peacekeeping operations. A key objective of this ongoing reform process is to ensure that the growing numbers of United Nations peacekeeping personnel deployed in the field, as well as those serving at Headquarters, have access to clear, authoritative guidance on the multitude of tasks they are required to perform.’⁹³

The Capstone Doctrine represents ‘the first attempt in over a decade to codify the major lessons learned from the past six decades of United Nations peacekeeping experience. It is intended to help practitioners better understand the basic principles and concepts underpinning the conduct of contemporary United Nations peacekeeping operations as well as their inherent strengths and limitations...”⁹⁴

The following guiding principles are the core values of the UN personnel. In attempting to maintain international peace and security, individuals deployed on UN missions must behave in a manner appropriate to UN principles and code of conduct. Aside from the central principles of UN peacekeeping, including consent, impartiality and non-use of force, these principles are based on how peacekeeping personnel are expected to behave on peace operations;

- **Impartiality:** Even-handedness. Not being favourable, preferential or supportive of any group, person or plan over another.
- **Integrity:** Honesty. The ability to know and do what is morally right.
- **Respect:** Acceptance of others’ ways. Giving value to others’ rights, customs, behaviours and wishes even if they are very different from your own.

⁹³ United Nations Peacekeeping Operations. Principles and Guidelines.

http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/capstone_eng.pdf (Accessed 12 October 2016)

⁹⁴ Ibid.



- **Loyalty:** Unqualified support. Fully and always supporting someone or something even when circumstances or others may challenge this support.

Within these guiding principles, peacekeepers are expected to perform several functions, such as,

- Meet the highest standards of efficiency, competence and integrity
- Are impartial
- Are mindful of the need to prioritize peaceful solutions
- Are aware of local history, customs and culture
- Are able to analyse and report on their operating environment
- Use good judgment and are able to communicate the reason for their actions
- Are able to manage local expectations and explain the mission mandate
- Promote national and local ownership while remaining inclusive and Impartial.⁹⁵

2.4 UN POLICE IN PEACEKEEPING ROLES

‘Through the newly established Global Focal Point for justice, police and corrections in rule of law, UNDP and DPKO are committed to building on each other’s comparative strengths to improve the quality, effectiveness and timeliness of UN support in post-conflict and crisis situations. We have heeded the call from Member States for greater coherence in the UN rule of law work...’⁹⁶

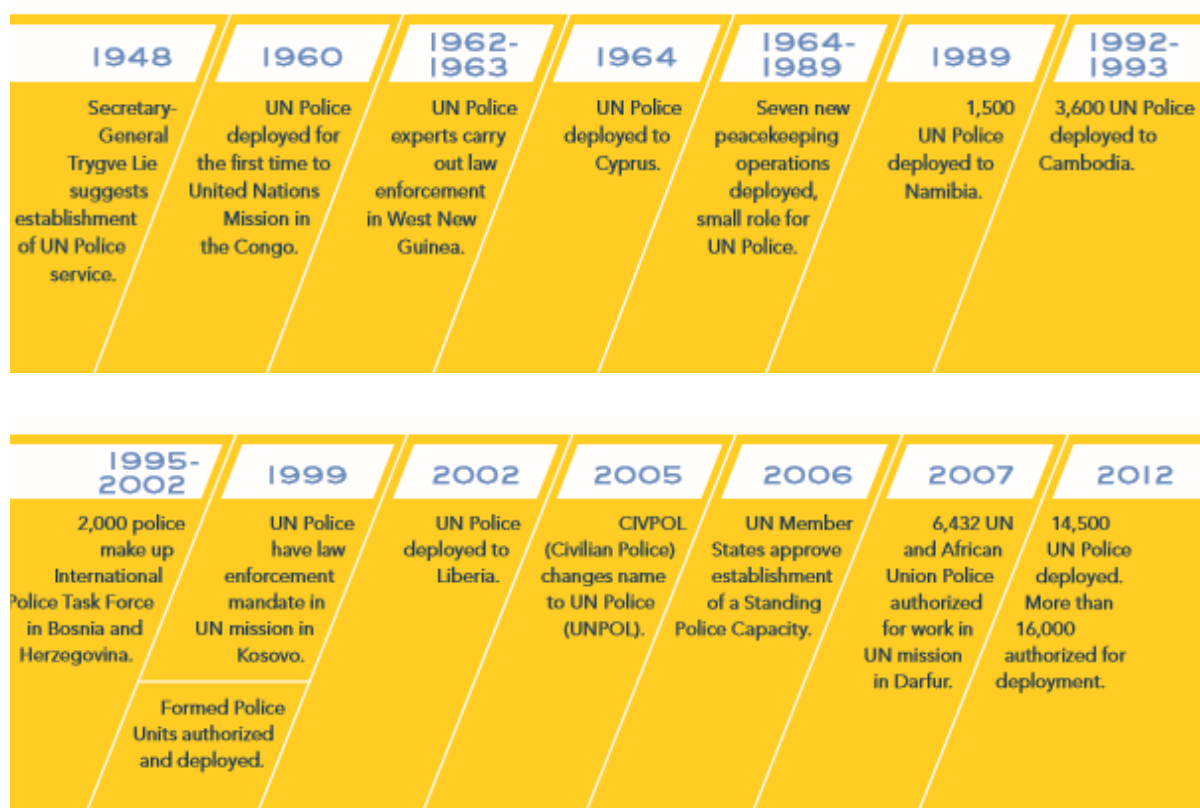
The UN first deployed police officers under the UN Operation in the Congo (ONUC) in 1960. This was a small police contingent under the auspices of the military, however, between 1964 and 1989 the UN only deployed seven new peacekeeping operations.⁹⁷ It was not until after the Cold War, that UN peacekeeping roles increased dramatically as well as missions, and as result, a new role for police was further developed. More recently, the role of police in peace operations has greatly expanded under UN mandates and particularly from ‘lessons learned’ on previous missions. During the 1990s, UN Police were deployed to Angola, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cambodia, Croatia, El Salvador, Haiti, Mozambique, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and elsewhere and in 1999, the UN SC authorized two large police components: 4,500 UN Police were sent to the UN mission in Kosovo (UNMIK); 1,640 officers deployed to Timor-Leste and the largest police contingent was authorized for the African Union/ UN Hybrid Operation in Darfur in 2007.⁹⁸

⁹⁵ UN Peacekeeping PDT Standards, Core Pre-Deployment Training Materials. 1st Ed. 2009.

⁹⁶ Quote from Jordan Ryan, Assistant Administrator, UNDP. See *United Nations Police on Duty for Peace. 2008-2012*. United Nations Police Division.

⁹⁷ Ibid. p.12

⁹⁸ Ibid.

Figure 2.5 – Timeline of UN Policing 1948-2012⁹⁹

Just as UN peacekeeping operations have mushroomed in recent years, UN policing duties have also multiplied. This has stretched the meaning of what it means to be a peacekeeper in the twentieth -first century. UN policing have largely moved beyond the early mandates of monitoring and reporting and incorporate a larger agenda of promoting human rights and protecting civilians as well as strengthening the rule of law, in order, to build sustainable peace.¹⁰⁰ Modern UN policing duties fall into three general categories:

- i) support for the reform, restructuring and rebuilding of host-state police and other law enforcement agencies;
- ii) operational support to host-state police and other law enforcement agencies, including through the deployment of Formed Police Units; and
- iii) interim policing and other law enforcement.¹⁰¹

⁹⁹ See *United Nations Police on Duty for Peace. 2008-2012* United Nations Police Division.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid. In addition, 'the evolution of UN Police deployment mirrors and is an instrumental part of modern peacekeeping. Several reports and reviews were drafted to capture the implications of the evolution of UN peace operations in general and UN police in particular, and to recommend how to perform mandated tasks more effectively and efficiently. The conclusions they drew were similar and taken to heart by the UN Police Division: greater focus on planning, more engagement with Member States, more emphasis on partnerships, capability-driven approaches and the need to approach peacebuilding more strategically.'

¹⁰¹ Ibid.



In 2008, the DPKO undertook a comprehensive review of the Police Division following a decade of unprecedented growth. This review was undertaken with the intention of trying to streamline a centre of excellence for international policing but also to better communicate and coordination between policing in the field, DFS and UN police division headquarters.

While demand for UN policing continues to grow, the UN Police Division¹⁰² has set an agenda for being the leading organisation able to provide professional advice about police reform and policing mandates. For instance, 'specialized rosters will make it possible to send expertise to UN missions when and for as long as needed, Member States will develop expert groups that can deploy and rotate rapidly, a pool of innovative senior police managers, who understand political dynamics and can work with mission leadership, will be available and at least 20 per cent of these leaders will be female.'¹⁰³ Currently, there are 12,885 police working in UN peacekeeping operations. While a top priority for the UN is to increase female police, there are still only limited numbers of female police on peacekeeping missions. The following is a list of the top ten Member States contributing to UN police in peacekeeping operations.

Table 2.1 – Top ten Member States contributing to UN Police in Peacekeeping Operations.

Country	UN Police
Jordan	1,438
Bangladesh	1,366
Senegal	1,091
India	977
Nepal	790
Rwanda	606
Pakistan	466
Egypt	446
Nigeria	427
Burundi	389

2.5. THE UN PEACEKEEPING TRAINING STRATEGY

'Given the dynamic nature of peacekeeping and the unique challenges that peacekeeping personnel face on an everyday basis, there is a need to ensure that they are adequately equipped with the knowledge, skills,

¹⁰² Diagram of UN Police Division from *United Nations Police on Duty for Peace. 2008-2012*.

¹⁰³ Ibid.



and attitudes required to perform their duties. Peacekeeping training is a strategic investment that enables UN military, police and civilian staff to effectively implement increasingly multifaceted mandates.¹⁰⁴

Training personnel within CPPB for peace operations and missions is a relatively recent phenomenon. Although, training was seen as important for peacebuilding, very few training centres were established before 1990. Consequently, members of the police and military have habitually been deployed on peace operations without specific CPPB training. While efforts have been underway to standardise training with the UN and EU contexts for some time, pre-deployment training while desirable, is still not compulsory for personnel. As late as 2008, the DPKO set out a three-year “UN Peacekeeping Strategy,” accompanied in October of that year by the first “Strategic Peacekeeping Training Needs Assessment.” Policy, documents, strategy papers and recommendations for common standards and approaches to training are copious. Implementation of these strategies is less so. However, these documents are part of a larger effort for a coherent and consistent approach to training, by the UN and other organisations.

The 2010 Policy on Training for all United Nations Peacekeeping Personnel set by the DPKO-DFS, determines that the Integrated Training Service (ITS) has the responsibility to conduct periodic training needs assessments (TNAs), to identify what priority training is required to implement Security Council mandates. The *2012-2013 Global Peacekeeping TNA* was conducted by ITS with the objectives of 1) determining the knowledge, skills and behaviours required for effective mandate implementation, 2) identifying performance and skill gaps that can be addressed through training and 3) assessing current peacekeeping training activities and mechanisms. ‘The TNA assessed cross-cutting training needs of military, police and civilian personnel at all levels in peacekeeping missions, service centres and at Headquarters.’¹⁰⁵ It included all three phases of peacekeeping training: pre-deployment, induction and ongoing training.

Modern UN peacekeeping requires a multidimensional workforce. It is therefore necessary for UN personnel to have a variety of skills to effectively operate across all levels of peacekeeping duties. Without question, ‘today’s peacekeeping personnel perform a wide range of tasks: creating a secure and stable environment; strengthening state institutions, including those required for rule of law and respect for human rights; fostering dialogue, reconciliation and political processes; and supporting “early peacebuilding” to promote social and economic recovery and development.’¹⁰⁶

¹⁰⁴ Training: A Strategic Investment in UN Peacekeeping Global Peacekeeping Training Needs Assessment, Final Report - 2012-2013. p.1

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

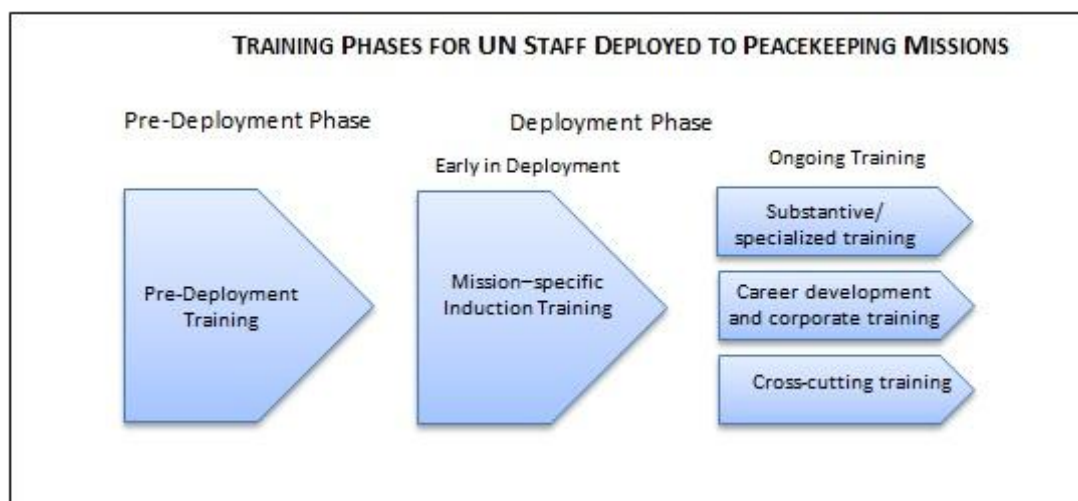
¹⁰⁶ Training: A Strategic Investment in UN Peacekeeping Global Peacekeeping Training Needs Assessment, Final Report - 2012-2013. Integrated Training Service Department of Peacekeeping Operations and Department of Field Support United Nations. From the United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld Library. p.14



Given that the priority is to achieve a successful outcome in their designated roles and often negotiating and traversing difficult situations, dexterity in skills is paramount. To operate efficiently, personnel ‘must interact coherently with an array of actors, including local, international and regional institutions. Some mandated tasks, such as protection of civilians and measures to defend and promote human rights, as well as capacity-building and skills-transfer require peacekeepers to have the knowledge and skills to integrate efforts across mission components while collaborating effectively with a diverse set of partners outside the mission.’¹⁰⁷ Meticulous operational training and application of the critical skills needed for such missions is needed for peacekeeping to be effective.

The UN General Assembly resolution 49/37 (1995), recognized Member States responsibility for the training of uniformed personnel for UN peacekeeping operations. This resolution requested the ‘Secretary-General to develop training materials and establish a range of measures to assist Member States in this regard.’¹⁰⁸

Figure 2.6 – **Training Phases for UN Staff Deployed to Peacekeeping Missions**



Source: UN Peacekeeping Resource Hub <http://research.un.org/en/peacekeeping-community/Training>

2.6. UN INTEGRATED TRAINING SERVICE (ITS)

The UN Integrated Training Service (ITS), part of the DPKO, issues comprehensive peacekeeping pre-deployment training standards for civilian, military and police personnel. In terms of training military personnel

¹⁰⁷ Ibid. p.13

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.



for CPPB related missions, the UN Secretariat has developed guidance and scenario-based training materials but there is no mechanism to confirm effective delivery of the training.¹⁰⁹

The ITS, in collaboration with CPPB training institutes and member states, provides two types of training material: (i) Core pre-deployment training materials aimed at civilian, military *and* police and (ii) Specialised training materials aimed at *either* civilian, military or police personnel engaged in task-specific CPPB field activity. The ESDC also contributes to the core pre-deployment training, a further example of developing continuity in cross-organisation training. Core topics include multidimensional peacekeeping, consent and impartiality, understanding the importance of other components' work (i.e. military, police and civilian), women, peace & security, common differences & practicing respect in addition to the essential qualities of a peacekeeper.¹¹⁰ Specialised material focuses on topics such as Civil-Military Cooperation (CIMIC), child protection and responses to conflict-related sexual violence.

Pre-deployment training is delivered either online or through a combination of presentations, case studies, scenario activity and learning assessments, although experienced instructors are given the option of using alternative methods and activities. Mission specific preparations include basing learning activity on current mission mandates. If the training is not mission specific, it is recommended that previous mandates that represent the diversity of CPPB missions are used. Importantly, the pre-deployment training material recommends some gender balance in terms of allocating instructors, particularly in relation to sexual exploitation and gender modules. The training material is open-access and available online through the UN Dag Hammarskjöld Repository facilitating ease of access by the various agencies involved in CPPB missions. ITS also offers technical support and field assistance through Mobile Training Support Teams.

2.7 UNITAR - UNITED NATIONS INSTITUTE FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH

The United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) runs a comprehensive Peacekeeping Training Programme (PTP) alongside Core Diplomatic Training and a Peace-making and Conflict Prevention Programme aimed at senior level officials. The PTP is delivered online through a virtual learning platform that includes free-to-use open access materials alongside fee based material designed for UN field volunteer training. It is divided into five thematic areas: Peacekeeping, Peacebuilding, Rule of Law, Crisis Management and Institutional Capacity Building & Advisory. In addition, formal degree programmes are available including a Masters in Humanitarian Action and Peacebuilding in partnership with Oxford Brookes University. Methodologies vary across the multiple courses offered by UNITAR. Approximately one-third are delivered online through various e-

¹⁰⁹ [UN] High Level Operations Report (2015)

¹¹⁰ UN Peacekeeping PDT Standards, Core Pre-Deployment Training Materials, 1st ed. (2009).



learning methods with the remainder face-to-face via interactive workshops and presentations.¹¹¹ It is evident that the institute is attempting to build the capacity and availability of e-learning to streamline access and impact of its training material. UNITAR currently offered the following courses for volunteers:

- Introduction to peace operations
- Protection of civilians in peace operations
- Child soldiers and security forces
- Sécurité électorale (in French only)
- Human security in post-conflict environments
- Strengthening civilian capacities to protect civilians
- Transitional justice and peacebuilding
- UN approach to disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration
- Women, leadership and peacebuilding
- Understanding conflict and conflict analysis
- Conflict resolution
- Leadership, team and self-management
- Introduction to peace operations
- Protection of civilians in peace operations
- Child soldiers and security forces
- Sécurité électorale (in French only)
- Human security in post-conflict environments
- Strengthening civilian capacities to protect civilians
- Transitional justice and peacebuilding
- UN approach to disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration
- Women, leadership and peacebuilding
- Youth and peacebuilding
- Understanding conflict and conflict analysis
- Conflict resolution
- Confronting stress and trauma
- Leadership, team and self-management

¹¹¹ <https://www.unitar.org/event/> (Accessed 25 October 2016)



While UNITAR training courses are open to both military and civilian personnel, specialised civilian pre-deployment training is available through the UN Global Service Centre in Brindisi, Italy via a five-day residential course. The training focuses on institutional knowledge, core competencies, security and ethical awareness delivered through a combination of classroom based presentations, case studies and practical exercises.¹¹² Significantly, UNITAR has contributed to strengthening the capacity of national and regional CPPB training institutions through a 'Training of Trainers' (ToT) approach.¹¹³

Adequate ToT is important in effectively delivering the necessary soft-skills training, particularly in sensitive subjects matter such as the prevention and response to conflict-related sexual violence. Taking the EU funded ToT training manual for promoting participatory approaches to peacebuilding in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Federally Administered Tribal Areas in Pakistan, it is evident that ToT adds an additional layer of complexity to CPPB missions. The course is divided into six core modules broadly covering all aspects of CPPB mission preparation. These are: (i) Exploring context: participatory conflict analysis (ii) Conflict sensitivity, (iii) Dialogue: mediation, negotiation and peacebuilding (iv) Advocacy for conflict transformation (v) Understanding and measuring change and (vi) Community-driven initiatives for peace and security.¹¹⁴ The document highlights that approaches should be flexible and training should be adapted to local context where possible. Much like methods for training personnel, the instructors learn through presentations, small group work, group discussions and role-plays.

Critically, the DPKO/DFS published a practical guide on peacekeeping training evaluation in 2015. This divides training evaluation into four levels: reaction, learning, application and impact, based on the Kirkpatrick and Return on Investment evaluation methodologies.¹¹⁵ Evaluative data is captured through a combination of online surveys, paper-based questionnaires, comprehension tests, focus groups, interviews, control groups and observations at all stages of the training process. Ultimately, evaluation is a central element in improving the quality of instructors and effectiveness of training programmes, and in streamlining the distribution of funds for CPPB missions.¹¹⁶ Online learning is also available through the Peace Operations Training Institute (POTI) based in the United States: the Peace Operations Specialized Training Certificate and the National Training Centre E-Learning Platform. Delivery is predominantly through distance e-learning, a resident course at an affiliated organisation (mainly in Europe), and finally assessment based on a thesis. Once again, the online distance learning element facilitates wider impact, standardisation and dissemination of course material. The POTI offer a useful overview of their training approaches for CPPB missions (see below).

¹¹² See: UNGSC Course Catalogue (July 2015 – Jun 2016).

¹¹³ See for example: UN Institute for Training and Research Strategic Framework 2014 – 2017, p. 15.

¹¹⁴ CAMP & Saferworld, *Training of trainers manual: Transforming conflict and building peace* (2014).

¹¹⁵ UN DPKO/DFS/ITS, *Practical Guide to Peacekeeping Training Evaluation* (2015), p. 2.

¹¹⁶ Ibid. p. 53.



Figure 2.7 – Peace Operations Specialized Training Certificate Areas of Specialization

Peace Operations Specialized Training (POST) Certificate Areas of Specialization						
	Military Studies	Police Studies	Civilian Service	Gender Awareness	Logistical Support	Human Rights
3-Course Common Core	Principles and Guidelines					
	An Introduction to the UN System					
	Core Pre-deployment Training Materials					
Select 2 Electives	Commanding UN Peacekeeping Operations					
	Ethics in Peacekeeping					
	Gender Perspectives in UN Peacekeeping Operations					
	Protection of Civilians					
Select 3 from Area of Specialization	UN-CIMIC	UNPOL	UN-CIMIC	Any WPS course	Logistical Support to UN Peace Ops	UN-CIMIC
	Mine Action	UN-CIMIC	Conduct of Humanitarian Relief Ops	Preventing Violence Against Women	Operational Logistical Support	Human Rights
	IHL	IHL	Mine Action	UN-CIMIC	Advanced Topics in UN Logistics (COE)	Human Rights and Peace-keeping
	DDR	DDR	DDR			DDR
	MILOBS					

Source: Peace Operations Training Institute <http://www.peaceopstraining.org/peacekeeper-training/>

There are also police specific training materials, guidance and frameworks available through the UN for CPPB related missions. The Strategic Guidance Framework for International Police Peacekeeping (SGF) is the first framework of its kind to define the core functions and organisational structure of police peacekeeping. In terms of soft-skills training, guidelines on police capacity-building and development highlight the need for appropriate treatment of victims and witnesses with respect for dignity and psychological well-being in addition to mainstreaming human rights, gender and anti-corruption into training.¹¹⁷ It emphasises the importance of practical training alongside classroom based and e-learning to test trainees' reactions and responses to real-life situations. Specialised training materials for 'Formed Police Units' is also available from the DPKO and includes training related to protection of civilians, child protection and conflict related sexual violence.

In an attempt to better integrate gender skills into police CPPB training activities, the UN has created a comprehensive 'Police Gender Toolkit' training package. Module one, in particular, focuses on capacity building of UNPOL officers on gender mainstreaming and is subdivided into three lessons (i) Gender mainstreaming and the UN policy framework (ii) Integrating gender-specific activities in UN police plans, mentoring and training,

¹¹⁷ See: UN DPKO/DFS, *Guidelines on Police Capacity-Building and Development* (2015)



and (iii) Increasing the participation of female police officers in UN CPPB operations.¹¹⁸ The ‘toolkit’ is a standardised training methodology developed from best practice in policing from previous CPPB related missions and grounded on scenario-based exercises and case studies. Such training approaches illustrate the increasing awareness of the importance of soft skills training for both civilian and military personnel undertaking CPPB missions. Peace Operations Training Institute currently offers the following courses:

1. **Common Core Courses:** Core Pre-Deployment Training Materials; Principles and Guidelines for UN Peacekeeping Operations; Introduction to the United Nations System: Orientation for Serving on a UN Field Mission
2. **Humanitarian Concepts and Human Rights Courses:** Ethics in Peacekeeping; Human Rights; Human Rights and Peacekeeping; Peacekeeping and International Conflict Resolution; International Humanitarian Law and the Law of Armed Conflict; Protection of Civilians
3. **Mission Components, Operations, and Procedures Courses:** Commanding UN Peacekeeping Operations; The Conduct of Humanitarian Relief Operations; Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR): Principles of Intervention and Management in Peacekeeping Operations; Ebola Virus Disease: Awareness and Precautions for Peacekeeping Personnel; Methods and Techniques for Serving on a Peacekeeping Mission as a UN Military Observer; Mine Action and Explosive Hazard Management; Humanitarian Impact, Technical Aspects, and Global Initiatives; Security for Peace Operations Personnel; United Nations Civil-Military Coordination (CIMIC); United Nations Police: Restoring Civil Order Following Hostilities
4. **Gender Awareness Courses:** Gender Perspectives in UN Peacekeeping Operations; Preventing Violence Against Women and Gender Inequality in Peacekeeping; Implementation of the SCRs on the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda in Africa; Implementation of the SCRs on the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda in Latin America and the Caribbean; Implementation of the SCRs on the Women, Peace, and Security Agenda in Asia and the Pacific
5. **Logistics courses:** Logistical Support to UN Peacekeeping: An Introduction; Operational Logistical Support of UN Peacekeeping: Intermediate Logistics; Advanced Topics in UN Logistics: The Provision of Troops and Contingent-Owned Equipment (COE) and the Method for Reimbursement
6. **History of Peacekeeping Operations courses:** History of UN Peacekeeping Operations During the Cold War: 1945 to 1987; History of UN Peacekeeping Operations Following the Cold War: 1988 to 1996; History of UN Peacekeeping Operations from Retrenchment to Resurgence: 1997 to 2006.¹¹⁹

¹¹⁸ See: UNPOL, *UN Police Gender Toolkit: Standardised Best Practices on Gender Mainstreaming in Peacekeeping*, 1st ed. (2015).

¹¹⁹ Peace Operations Training Institute <http://www.peaceopstraining.org/peacekeeper-training/> Accessed 15 November 2016



2.7 CONCLUSIONS

‘The changing nature of diplomacy itself, the expanding number of non-state actors in the international system, the advent of the mass communications and transport, the globalized nature of economies...the penetration of the internet and mass media, which can force the pace of international developments, all raise profound questions about how best to prepare diplomats for a rapidly changing environment.’¹²⁰

The very nature of conflict prevention and peacebuilding has rapidly expanded in recent years. While the core themes and definitions of CPPB are essential to the overall context of GAP, the landscape on which individuals involved in peace operations is constantly evolving. This poses potential impediments to GAP, especially given the current variety in missions and the large scale and diversity of skills needed to effectively operate in these missions. The fact that CPPB incorporates so many activities not only makes principles of CPPB difficult to define, but also, specific and unique attributes of those activities need to be ascertained in relation to GAP. It seems likely that future personnel working in peace or crisis management operations will need skills, i.e. non-cognitive skills and expertise far beyond those currently offered in training centres.

According to the IPI, (International Peace Institute) the UN has no difficulty in finding adequate numbers of troops, police and observers to staff its operations. However, ‘the capabilities of UN contingents are inconsistent. This is due to a number of factors, including differences in training, leadership, and equipment. In many of its largest and most challenging operations, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, UN peacekeeping still lacks an array of critical enablers, which significantly limits its operational capabilities and negatively affects the implementation of mission mandates. At the same time, personnel may lack the specialised skills required to effectively implement complex mandates.’¹²¹

A high-level UN report on peacekeeping highlighted how ‘peacekeepers often lack training on how to deal with traumatized people and communication challenges are often compounded by language barriers’.¹²² Therefore, language competency and awareness of the impact of trauma on peacebuilding should also be incorporated into the soft skills element of pre-deployment training. In addition, mandatory induction training, both pre-deployment and in-mission, should incorporate ‘context-specific and scenario-based gender training’ while

¹²⁰ Simon Duke. 2011. ‘Diplomatic Training and the Challenges Facing EEAS.’ The Hague Journal of Diplomacy 7. pp.95-114 p.96

¹²¹ IPI. International Peace Institute. ‘Enhancing European Military and Police Contributions to UN Peacekeeping.’ February 2013. http://www.zif-berlin.org/fileadmin/uploads/analyse/dokumente/veroeffentlichungen/IPI-Pearson-ZIF_E-Pub--Enhancing_European_Contributions_to_UN_Peacekeeping_Feb_2013.pdf (Accessed 15 November 2016)

¹²² UN High Level Independent Panel on Peace Operations, Uniting our Strengths for Peace [...]: p.66







reflecting human rights responsibilities.¹²³ While UN training has advanced in recent years, more needs to be done in terms of cooperation among centres, delivery and standardisation of training programmes.

3. CPPB STRUCTURES IN INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ORGANISATIONS

3.1. INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL: THE APPROACH TO CPPB

Figure 3.1 – Organizations and Personnel

Organizations and Personnel (total as of September 2015)

	UN Peacekeeping Missions	92,299	13,095	5,315
	UN Political and Peacebuilding Missions	269	23	1,019
	European Union	3,705	749	788
	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe	0	0	993
	Others (with or without UN mandate)	57,153	1,411	271
	Total personnel strength (all organizations)	153,426	15,278	8,386

Source: www.zifberlin.org

International agencies are frequently sending civilian, police and military personnel on peacekeeping operations. In recent decades, regional or sub-regional agencies and organisations have assumed an increased importance in the area of CPPB. According to the UN Charter, 'nothing, precludes the existence of regional arrangements or agencies for dealing with such matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security as are appropriate for regional action provided that such arrangements or agencies and their activities are consistent with the Purposes and Principles of the United Nations,' (Art. 52.1).¹²⁴ Regional organisations have an intrinsic interest in preserving peace and security and in working with the UN to promote global stability. While regional organisations can operate simultaneously, separately, or within joint UN multidimensional peace operations,

¹²³ Ibid. p.60

¹²⁴ Wulf, Herbert. 2009. Still Under Construction. Regional Organisations' Capacities for Conflict Prevention. INEF-Report 97/2009. Institute for Development and Peace. p.5



different regions of the world have different perceptions of CPPB. Emerging powers, for instance, perceive challenges to international peace and security and how to participant and respond to these challenges in diverse ways. African or Middle Eastern countries concerns on conflict, security and peacebuilding are distinct from European or Asian concerns. Regional powers that operate in Africa, such as AU, African Union or ECOWAS, Economic Community of West African States, are preoccupied with CPPB in relation to failing states, civil wars, weak governments, armed insurgent groups, non-state actors or organised crime networks. Despite Russia being a permanent member of the UN Security Council, the country can play a decisive role in shaping global conflict prevention strategies. However, unlike other states, for Russia to intervene in conflict, 'its national interests must be at stake. When this is not the case, Russia is most likely to oppose any type of peace operations or armed intervention in its immediate neighbourhood.'¹²⁵ For the United States, traditional security fixations dominate any approach to CPPB, in addition to the threat of China and its large military capabilities.

3.2 THE OSCE - (ORGANISATION FOR SECURITY AND COOPERATION IN EUROPE)

The OSCE is also evident in the field of CPPB, through conflict resolution and post-conflict security building. OSCE mandates, size of deployments and activities can vary depending on country specific circumstances. The OSCE first field missions were conducted in Kosovo, Sandjak, and Vojvodina and the CSCE (Commission Security and Cooperation in Europe) mission to Skopje in 1992 which was aimed at the prevention of violent conflict. OSCE field operations focus on 'good governance', the promotion of democratic practices', 'free elections' and 'the rule of law.' In addition, one of the early attempts at conflict resolution by the OSCE came in relation to the conflict between Armenia and Azerbaijan over Nagorno-Karabakh. In April 1992, the OCSE deployed an advance team to prepare for the deployment of OSCE to observe a ceasefire between the conflicting parties.¹²⁶ The OSCE has a great deal of experience in peacekeeping missions and has worked alongside other international organisations like the EU and UN. 'The mandating and deployment of the initial OSCE mission to FYROM (Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), in coordination with the small military United Nations Preventive Deployment (UNPREDEP) helped shield the former Macedonian republic from the violence that swept much of the northern portions of federal Yugoslavia.'¹²⁷ OSCE current missions in South-eastern and Eastern Europe, Central Asia and South Caucasus include: OSCE (SMM), Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine,

¹²⁵ Van Der Lijn, Jair and Xenia Avezov. Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI.) 2015. 'The Future Peace Operations Landscape.' SIPRI. Final Report of the New Geopolitics of Peace Operations Initiative. p.7

¹²⁶ Hill, William. 2013. 'OSCE Conflict Resolution and Peacekeeping, Past and Future.' Paper from National War College, Washington D.C.

p.3

¹²⁷ Ibid.



missions to Skopje, Montenegro, Albania, Serbia and an observer mission at the Russian checkpoints, Gubovo and Donetsk among others.

Training for the OSCE is conducted with national training institutions that provide expert advice on curricula and methodology; share training material and dispatch training experts as well as maintaining a set of common training standards and best practices.¹²⁸ States involved in the OSCE are responsible for training candidates in their own countries. The OSCE has its own code of conduct – or principles of conduct which refer to the underlying values of the organisation to guide behaviour on missions. In addition, ‘OSCE officials are introduced to the relevant policy framework and given guidance on how to approach and resolve ethical issues through an interactive online ethics training course.’¹²⁹

OSCE has been particularly prominent in the field of election observation. The OSCE along with the ODIHR (Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights) provide an e-learning training course for election observers. Accessible through the ODIHR website, the course is open to all and free of charge. ‘The aim of the course is to further enhance the preparation and professionalism of election observers, while contributing to greater transparency and understanding of ODIHR’s election observation methodology.’¹³⁰ The function and focus of OSCE’s field missions has changed over time. In particular, the OSCE’s failure of prevent conflict between Russia and Georgia in 2008, has meant less attention on CPPB and more on implementing the human dimensions of OSCE principles.

NATO

Although, NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation) is not traditionally associated with peacekeeping, given its mandate and preoccupation with security of its members, it has in recent years valued the merits of crisis prevention. ‘The potential development of civilian capabilities can change the operational possibilities of the alliance in crisis management and with it the interaction with other actors.’¹³¹ The 2010 Strategic Concept broadened NATO’s thinking on crisis management, envisaging NATO’s involvement at all stages of a crisis: “NATO will therefore engage, where possible and when necessary, to prevent crises, manage crises, stabilise post-conflict situations and support reconstruction.” NATO has played a role in training and education as well. The NATO school in Oberannergan in Southern Germany is its main operational student facility, focusing on planning NATO operations. It also provides the necessary level of education and training to increase the effectiveness of multinational forces and their ability to work together, to improve “interoperability” at all

¹²⁸ See www.osce.org (Accessed 02 December)

¹²⁹ Ibid.

¹³⁰ <http://www.odihrobserver.org/> (Accessed 12 October 2016)

¹³¹ ZIF and the German Institute for International and Security Affairs. 2012. *The Crisis Management Toolbox. From Civilian Crisis Prevention to Peacebuilding: Principles, Actors, Instruments.*



levels.¹³² The NATO School provides training courses to police or armed forces in post conflict areas and assistance to NATO partners in security related activities.

Russia

Russian contribution to UN-PKOs has declined since the 1990s. More recently, the Russian administration has resisted the report of UN HIPPO as a sign of increasing UN encroachment on the sovereignty of its member states.¹³³ This has resulted in a focus on addressing conflict in littoral spaces, which explains its large troop deployments in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) region compared to its low participation in UN peacekeeping operations. Currently, Russia contributes just 98 personnel to UN-PKOs as of August 2016, but recently announced its intention to double this number in relation to the participation of Russian police personnel.¹³⁴ The Police Peacekeeping training Centre at the All-Russian Advanced Training Institute of the Ministry of the Interior offers pre-deployment training for both Russian and international police engaged in peacekeeping operations, but focuses primarily on more traditional police training roles such as counter-terrorism, transport security and drug trafficking.¹³⁵ Approximately 1500 Russian personnel and over 150 foreign students from 18 countries have received training at the Centre, although recent reports suggest an updated figure of 250 foreign students from 55 countries.¹³⁶ A UN Peacekeeping Observers course is also available at the Vystrel Military Training College near Moscow.

Training approaches are modelled on standard UN training materials, but supplemented by Russian experiential approaches. The pre-deployment courses at the facility have been certified by the UN as conforming to these standards. However, there appears to be little emphasis on soft skills training, despite a recent suggestion by the Russian Interior Minister Vladimir Kolokoltsev that a special program for policewomen could be organised under the aegis of the Peacekeepers Training Centre.¹³⁷ The lack of soft skills training can likely be explained by Russia's traditional military culture and training approaches based on "quantitative parameters, high firepower,

¹³² http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_49206.htm

¹³³ Olga Abilova. 2016. "Peacekeeping Contribution Profile: Russia". Available at Providing for Peacekeeping. <http://www.providingforpeacekeeping.org/2016/10/31/peacekeeping-contribution-profile-russia/>. [Accessed 14 Dec. 2016].

¹³⁴ UN Peacekeeping. 2016. "Contributions by Country". Available at <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/resources/statistics/contributors.shtml> [Accessed 26 Nov. 2016]; TASS News Agency. 2016. "Interior Ministry to Double Russian Forces in UN Peacekeeping Missions". <http://tass.com/politics/879946> [Accessed 14 Dec. 2016].

¹³⁵ Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Russian Federation. 2016. "Training of Foreign Experts". http://xn--80agvg.xn--b1amgt.xn--b1aew.xn--p1ai/International_cooperation/Training_for_foreign_experts [Accessed 14 Dec. 2016].

¹³⁶ Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Russian Federation. 2016. "The Training Center for staff of Internal Affairs Agencies and military units of Ministry of the Interior for participation in peacekeeping operations". http://xn--80agvg.xn--b1amgt.xn--b1aew.xn--p1ai/Institute/Structure/Center_mirotvorcev. [Accessed 14 Dec. 2016]; RBTH News. 2016. "Russian Interior Ministry ready to expand its participation in UN missions". https://rbth.com/news/2016/06/03/russian-interior-ministry-ready-to-expand-its-participation-in-un-missions_600019 [Accessed 10 Dec. 2016].

¹³⁷ RBTH News. 2016. "Russian Interior Ministry ready to expand its participation in UN missions".



and manpower-intensive operations” which has, according to Isabelle Facon, “stimulated the Russian predisposition to blur the distinction between combat and peacekeeping missions”.¹³⁸

3.3. THE U.S. AND CANADA

“The journey from war to sustainable peace is not possible in the absence of stronger civilian capacity (...) Without this capacity, there may be breaks in the fighting, but resilient institutions will not take root and the risk of renewed violence will remain.” -- Jean-Marie Guéhenno, former UN Under-Secretary General for Peacekeeping Operations.

The U.S. is increasingly investing in its civilian crisis management capabilities. This primarily arose out ‘of the demand for civilian contributions on the part of the military as a result of the experience in Afghanistan and Iraq.’¹³⁹ This also grew out of concern from U.S. military operations in Haiti, Somalia, Bosnia...where military forces were tasked with a variety of state-building tasks, such as creating justice systems, assisting police, and promoting governance.¹⁴⁰ The U.S. took steps to develop civilian capabilities within the U.S. State Department with the creation of the Civilian Response Corps (CRC). The CRC is almost like a roster and has available manpower necessary for post-conflict reconstruction activities. ‘The active (250 personnel) and standby (2000 personnel) components include personnel from eight U.S. departments and agencies with appropriate civilian expertise; and consisting of personnel from the private sector as well as state and local government with expertise not available in the federal government.’¹⁴¹ The Obama Administration in 2011, established a new State Department Bureau of ‘Conflict and Stabilization Operations’ (CSO) to provide the institutional focus for policy and “operational solutions” to prevent, respond to, and stabilize crises in priority states.¹⁴² However, while the U.S., similar to the E.U., has gone to great lengths to train civilian experts for missions, the U.S. has had issues over delays due to recruitment and funding policies. For the U.S., funding delays have limited the U.S. ability to engage in crisis response, and implies a continued reliance on contractors particularly for large-scale civilian missions.¹⁴³ Furthermore, the demand for staffing is always challenging.

In regards to training, there are a number of training centres including in the US, including the Global Peace Operations Initiative, the Centre for Civil-Military Relations and the US Institute of Peace. The USIP is especially

¹³⁸ R.E. Utley (ed.) 2006. *Major Powers and Peacekeeping Perspectives*. Ashgate: London: 32.

¹³⁹ Eva Gross, Daniel Hamilton, Claudia Major, Henning Riecke, (Editors.) 2011. *EU-U.S. Cooperation in Crisis Management: Transatlantic Approaches and Future Trajectories*.

¹⁴⁰ Nina M. Serafino. 2012. *Peacekeeping/Stabilization and Conflict Transitions: Background and Congressional Action on the Civilian Response/Reserve Corps and other Civilian Stabilization and Reconstruction Capabilities*. Congressional Research Service.

¹⁴¹ Eva Gross, Daniel Hamilton, Claudia Major, Henning Riecke, (Editors.) 2011. *EU-U.S. Cooperation in Crisis Management: Transatlantic Approaches and Future Trajectories*.

¹⁴² Ibid.p.46

¹⁴³ Ibid. p.46



prominent in the field of CPPB. USIP offers online courses on all aspects of crisis management, dialogue, mediation and negotiation. In addition, it offers customized courses for NGO, military and civilian personnel. USIP also uses simulations and other resources in the educational field for students and teaching providers, developing CPPB skills at young age. It also runs the SENSE (Strategic Economic Needs and Security Exercise) simulation programme. Originally developed by the Institute for Defence Analyses, SENSE is a computer facilitated simulation that focuses on negotiation and decision making in a post-conflict world.

Global Peace Operations Initiative (GPOI)

'GPOI is a U.S. Government-funded security assistance program intended to enhance international capacity to effectively conduct UN and regional peace support operations (PSOs) by building partner country capabilities to train and sustain peacekeeping proficiencies; increasing the number of capable military troops and formed police units (FPUs) available for deployment; and facilitating the preparation, logistical support, and deployment of military units and FPUs to PSOs.'¹⁴⁴

GPOI was launched as the U.S. contribution to the broader G8 Action Plan for Expanding Global Capability for Peace Support Operations, adopted at the 2004 G8 Sea Island Summit. The primary objectives for the program's first five years (Phase I) included training 75,000 peacekeepers and building regional capacity to conduct peacekeeping operations. In Phase II, program emphasis has shifted from the direct training of peacekeepers to assisting partner country efforts to build sustainable, indigenous peacekeeping training capacity.¹⁴⁵

Canadian Peacekeeping Experience

Canada has been an important contributor to UN peacekeeping, but in recent years Canada has experienced a marked decline in its participation to UN missions. In 2007, it ranked as 59th in 114 countries in terms of military and police contributions to UN operations.¹⁴⁶ In 2016, Canada is ranked 67th in terms of number of peacekeepers. While Canada has consistently been a proponent of UN peacekeeping in the international community, it has not backed this up in monetary terms. In 2006, Canada's contribution to the UN peacekeeping budget was just 3%. So as the extent and demand for peacekeeping has increased exponentially in recent years, Canada is contributing less.

Surprisingly then, a poll conducted by Pew Research Centre in 2013, showed that Canadians have the most favourable view of the UN out of thirty-eight countries surveyed, with 62 percent holding a positive opinion

¹⁴⁴ See <https://www.state.gov/t/pm/ppa/gpoi/> (Accessed 12 October 2016)

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

¹⁴⁶ United Nations Association in Canada.



towards the UN.¹⁴⁷ According to Walter Dorn, Canadians continue to support UN peace operations and peacekeeping because they provide unparalleled legitimacy to international efforts even when Canada is at an all-time low in contributions of personnel.¹⁴⁸

Moreover, Trista Grant, who reviewed Canadian peacekeeping from the 1960s to the late 1990s, found that while soldiers extolled the virtues of strong basic military training, ‘they were also expected to engage with the local population and essentially win the hearts and minds of the population, significant tasks which soldiers had not been trained.’¹⁴⁹ As well as the local population, there is also a requirement for coordination from a multiplicity of actors who are not directly linked to the mission, (civilians, governments, humanitarian aid workers who all have a role to play. Coordination within all these sectors is central to peace operations.

The new complexity of peacekeeping missions and the challenges encountered by peacekeepers on the ground, has led to additional requirements to training needs. ‘These include, but are not limited to: gender issues, children’s rights and child protection, sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA), human trafficking, civil-military cooperation (CIMIC), and cultural awareness and sensitivity. For example, the need for gender training was recognized as a priority area by the UN to ensure that peacekeepers learn about gender issues as articulated in Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security.’¹⁵⁰

Canada’s past engagement in peace operations was largely devoted to first generation, or traditional peacekeeping, which was made up of units of “blue helmets” that were armed only for self-defence. However, Canadian academic Cristina Badescu claims that Canada’s role in peace operations is not limited to deploying military personnel, but that Canada is in a position to contribute specialized expertise and equipment, as well as skilled planning, administration, and training personnel.¹⁵¹ Although once highly impressive in training capacity, Canada has gone from having 3,300 troops in 1993 as one of the UN’s top contributors, to just 113 peacekeepers this year. However in 2015, the Liberal Party of Canada led by Prime Minister Justin Trudeau made re-engagement with the UN in general, and peace operations in particular, core aspects of Canada’s new foreign policy¹⁵².

¹⁴⁷ Athiyya Amir et al. *Pathway to Peace: Canada’s Re-Engagement with UN Peace Operations*.

¹⁴⁸ Ibid.

¹⁴⁹ United Nations Association in Canada. ‘Peacekeeping to Peacebuilding: Lessons from the Past Building for the Future.’ The Report on the UNA-Canada 50th Anniversary of UN Peacekeeping International Panel Series 2006 –2007. <http://unac.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/UN-Report.pdf> (Accessed 16 November 2016)

¹⁵⁰ United Nations Association in Canada. ‘Peacekeeping to Peacebuilding: Lessons from the Past Building for the Future.’ The Report on the UNA-Canada 50th Anniversary of UN Peacekeeping International Panel Series 2006 –2007. <http://unac.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/UN-Report.pdf> (Accessed 16 November 2016)

¹⁵¹ Cristina G. Badescu, “Canada’s Continuing Engagement With United Nations Peace Operations,” *Canadian Foreign Policy Journal* 16.2 (2010): 45-60.

¹⁵² See ‘Canada needs a new UN peacekeeping training centre’. Editorial. 2016.



Figure 3.2 – Canada Average Monthly UN Personnel Contribution



3.4 ORGANISATION OF AMERICAN STATES (OAS)

Multilateral organisations like the OAS play an important role in preventive diplomacy, mediation dialogue, peacebuilding and strengthening institutions of governance in post conflict societies. Over the past two decades, the Organization of American States (OAS) 'has accumulated a wealth of experience in post-conflict peacebuilding, dialogue promotion and conflict resolution, providing, in turn, invaluable lessons for strengthening democratic systems of governance.' Beginning in the early 1990s, the OAS's commitment to democracy led the organization to assist countries such as Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua and Suriname, all of which were undergoing important political processes in the area of post-conflict reconciliation, reconstruction and democratic consolidation.¹⁵³

The OAS is one of the oldest regional organisations having been established in 1948 with its Charter coming into force in 1951. It was set up in an effort to achieve for its members states, as stipulated in Article 1, "an order of peace and justice, to promote their solidarity, to strengthen their collaboration, and to defend their sovereignty, their territorial integrity, and their independence."¹⁵⁴ Its membership consists of 35 independent states of the Americas with its primary aim to implement common pillars based on human rights, democracy, security and development. Strengthening democracy and security through conflict prevention is clearly a cornerstone of the OAS. A number of new initiatives were taken in recent years with the creation of the

<https://www.thestar.com/opinion/editorials/2016/04/25/canada-needs-a-new-un-peacekeeping-training-centre-editorial.html>

(Accessed 14 December 2016)

¹⁵³ Yadira Soto. 2016. *The role of the Organization of American States in conflict-affected states in the Americas*. International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance.

¹⁵⁴ http://www.oas.org/en/about/who_we_are.asp



Department for Crisis Prevention and Special Missions as well as a programmes on confidence and security building measures (CSBM).¹⁵⁵

The OAS implemented a number of conflict prevention mechanisms in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) in the 1980's and early 1990's in conjunction with UN supervision. In regions such Guatemala, Central America, El Salvador and Nicaragua these mechanisms proved effective and the OAS undertook other initiatives such as organised dialogue in interstate disputes (Belize-Guatemala and Guyana- Suriname) and the OAS Program for the Promotion of Dialogue and Conflict Resolution in Central America. The OAS also attempted to prevent violent conflict in Haiti with initiatives headed by the Secretary General and Assistant Secretary General of the OAS. However, after the UN peacebuilding process in the 1990's in Haiti, violent conflict resumed and the OAS again attempted a resolution, in collaboration with the UN Stabilization Mission in Haiti, (MINUSTAH), (deployed in 2004 and still active). In Columbia the OAS, EU (Recent Mediation attempts) and the UN have all undertaken different initiatives in efforts to counteract violence, however, as in Haiti, it is clear that the OAS remains largely ineffective.

Latin America in general has history of participating in UN peacekeeping missions and Latin American countries largely enjoy domestic political support for deploying their troops to the UN.¹⁵⁶ Latin American personnel are trained by several training centres including, the 'Argentine Joint Centre for Peacekeeping operations (CAECOPAZ) and the Joint Peace Operations Training Centre of Peru (CECOPAZ) as well as through bilateral support from member states, such as the U.S., through the Global Peace Operations Initiative.'¹⁵⁷ However, language barriers have been cited as an obstacle for Latin American countries. The UN Secretariat's Integrated Training Service, which is responsible for setting standards, has not provided timely access to relevant training standards, material, tools and guidance documents in the official languages of the UN.¹⁵⁸ Language barriers are also identified in terms of deployment of Latin American police. As multidimensional peace operations continue, more engagement with host communities directly by personnel seems set to continue. This can be an obstacle when Latin American personnel are deployed to host countries with insufficient knowledge of culture, customs and language. 'Language impediments among peacekeepers themselves, differing rules of engagement, and different training backgrounds have also made it much more difficult to bring different

¹⁵⁵ http://www.operationspaix.net/DATA/DOCUMENT/4183~v~Latin_America_and_Peace_Operations_Partners_and_Perspectives.pdf

¹⁵⁶ IPI. (International Peace Institute). 2014. 'Beyond Haiti: Enhancing Latin American Military and Police Contributions to UN Peacekeeping.' <https://www.ipinst.org/2014/04/beyond-haiti-enhancing-latin-american-military-and-police-contributions-to-un-peacekeeping>. (Accessed 15 November 2016)

¹⁵⁷ IPI. (International Peace Institute). 2014. 'Beyond Haiti: Enhancing Latin American Military and Police Contributions to UN Peacekeeping.' <https://www.ipinst.org/2014/04/beyond-haiti-enhancing-latin-american-military-and-police-contributions-to-un-peacekeeping>. (Accessed 15 November 2016)

¹⁵⁸ Ibid.



contingents together in the field, emphasizing the need for a level of commonality in training across contingents.¹⁵⁹

Since the early 1990s, and especially in the last decade, Latin America has contributed to a number of missions and as military involvement in UN missions nearly tripled (from 30,446 to 86,231) from 2000 to 2010, the participation of Latin American military also saw a ten-fold increase (from 753 to 7,523). Brazil, Argentina and Uruguay contributed the largest contingent of troops from Latin America.¹⁶⁰ While the OAS provides training in peacekeeping, in 2008 a number of Latin American states and Caribbean Countries came together to create the Latin American Association of Peacekeeping Operations Training Centres (ALCOPAZ), based in Rio de Janeiro.¹⁶¹ While it is multifunctional in nature it is predominantly a group of military centres, over which both the US and Canada have observer status. Latin America countries have increased substantially their participation in UN operations as the following diagrams below demonstrates.

Figure 3.3- Latin American uniformed personnel contributions to UN peacekeeping operations (1990-2014).

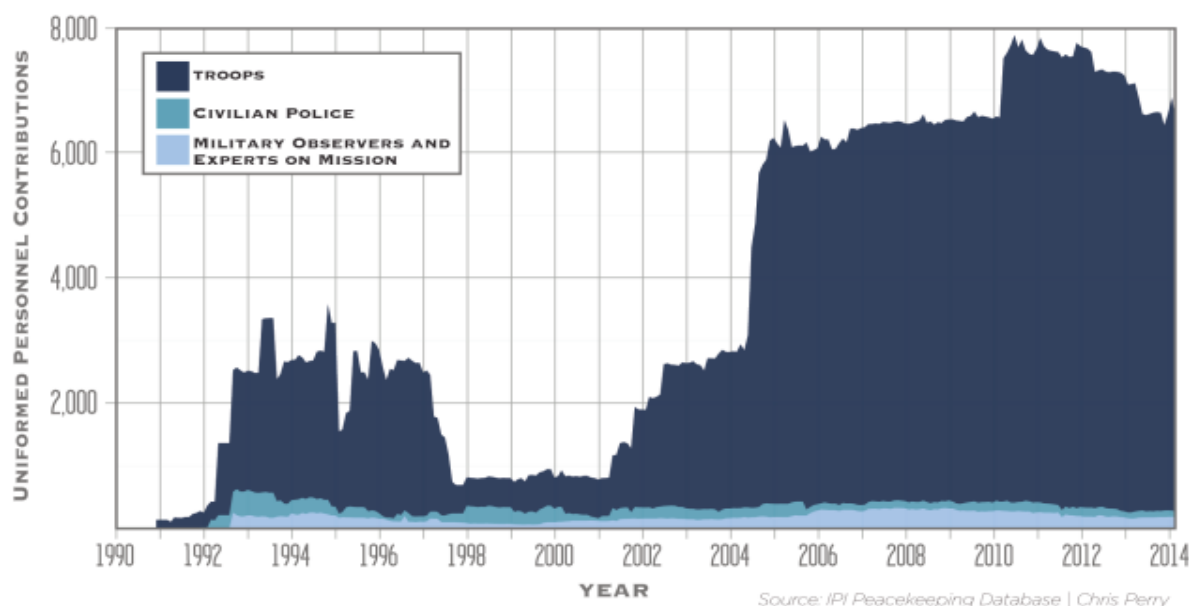
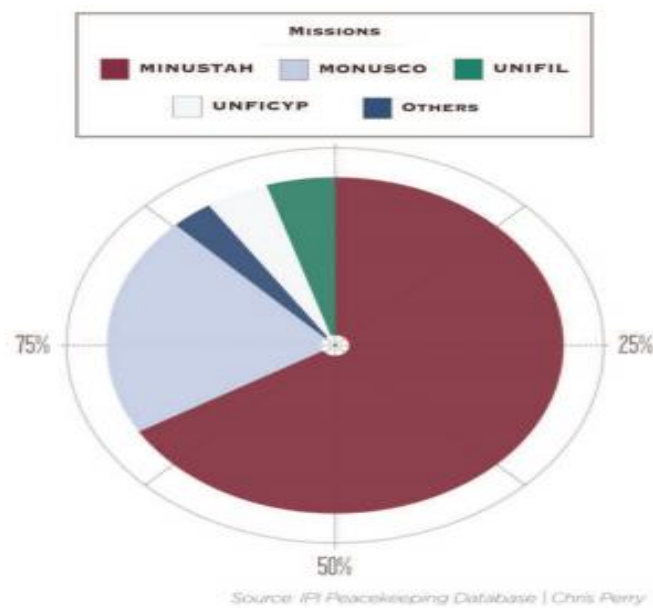


Figure 3.4 - Latin American contributions to UN peacekeeping missions by percentage

¹⁵⁹ United Nations Association in Canada. 'Peacekeeping to Peacebuilding: Lessons from the Past Building for the Future.' The Report on the UNA-Canada 50th Anniversary of UN Peacekeeping International Panel Series 2006 –2007. <http://unac.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/UN-Report.pdf> (Accessed 16 November 2016)

¹⁶⁰ Ibid

¹⁶¹ Peacekeeping on military operations by Latin Americas Militaries, Council on Hemispheric Affairs.



Argentina

The Argentine Joint Peace Operations Training Centre (CAECOPAZ) in Buenos Aires was founded in 1995. It is the main centre for the training of the Argentine personnel assigned to take part in peacekeeping operations. It provides training to military and civilian personnel. Since 1992 Argentina has contributed troops to peacekeeping operations and participated in operations in the former Yugoslavia, Kuwait and Eastern Slavonia. Argentine contingents are presently deployed in Haiti (MINUSTAH) and Cyprus (UNFICYP). CENAMEX, also based in Buenos Aires, forms part of the National Argentinian Gendarmerie Forces and focuses on training security and police personnel to take part in peace operations.¹⁶²

Brazil - The main training centre in Brazil is Brazilian Peacekeeping Operations Joint Centre known as (CCOPAB). Since the very beginning of MINUSTAH (June 2004), until the post-earthquake recovery and reconstruction (2010), Brazil has had the largest contingent of troops in Haiti, as well as the political leadership and the command of the mission. Brazilian battalions have a long history of involvement in UN missions and were deployed to the missions in Suez, Angola, Mozambique, Timor Leste and Haiti. Both the first and the current missions set precedents for Brazil: in its experience in Suez, Brazil sustained its longest participation in any UN mission (10 years), and in MINUSTAH (2004–present), Brazil has surpassed its own.¹⁶³ There are also a number of training facilities in Bolivia, Chile, Uruguay, Ecuador, Peru and Guatemala.¹⁶⁴ It is no accident that the bulk of the training centres in Latin American have a military leaning, particularly given the region's involvement in UN missions. Far less attention appears to be given to more nuanced approaches to peacekeeping and training.

¹⁶² <http://www.zif-berlin.org/en/training.html>. Accessed 12 December 2016

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ <http://www.zif-berlin.org/en/training.html>. Accessed 12 December 2016



Latin America has seen a gradual receding of armed conflicts which have been accompanied by rising social unrest and conflicts that are multiplying in number and complexity, challenging the capacity of the region's response. In recent times the peace talks between the Colombian government and the Revolutionary Colombian Armed Forces (the FARC) marked the regional agenda in peace-making advances in 2013 with substantial EU involvement. The UN has been involved in the implementation of a wide range of concrete initiatives in many countries in LAC.

A number of countries in the region have institutional limitations and where training facilities exist the focus appears to be on the military as opposed to civilian. The UNDP has worked on different mechanisms designed to encourage conditions for the creation of peace infrastructures through technical assistance for strategic conflict prevention and resolution interventions.¹⁶⁵ The UNDP has participated in more than 30 prospective missions, providing conditions analysis, and technical support or evaluation of the existing institutions for prevention and conflict management. In diverse contexts such as Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, and Peru, UNDP worked with human rights defence/Ombudsman's offices to make these conflict analysis instruments available and provide training courses for those who participate in the dialogue and mediation processes, and promote the use of software for the monitoring and follow-up of social conflict.¹⁶⁶

On a regional level, UNDP developed and launched, through a Virtual School Platform, a pilot version of a Virtual Course about Conflicts and Peace Building in Latin America, orienting the development of conceptual abilities and applying tools for the identification, prevention, and intervention in conflict situations, with a focus on conflict transformation and peace building. On a global scale the UN recently introduced an e-learning facility for all military personnel, police, and civilians serving on all UN, AU, or hybrid missions, the E-Learning for Mission Staff program (ELMS), which grants free access to 11 courses.¹⁶⁷ The focus of LAC has been on developing their own curricula, which are in turn informed by the nations primary interests and experience in peacekeeping and conflict prevention. The UN has no direct role in such national programs but it clearly has the greatest capacity to give coherence to the training architecture and progression in terms of training in the region.

3.5. ASEAN'S (ASSOCIATION OF SOUTHEAST ASIAN NATIONS) TRAINING ARCHITECTURE

¹⁶⁵ Conflict Prevention What does the UNDP do for conflict prevention in Latin America and the Caribbean.

¹⁶⁶ Ibid.

¹⁶⁷ <http://www.peaceopstraining.org/programs/elms/>



The ASEAN Political-Security Community Blueprint 2025 outlines ASEAN's CPPB related training strategy. This includes plans to strengthen extra-regional capacity building, establish a peacekeeping/ peacebuilding database, development of best training practice through collaboration with international institutes, prioritise and develop training materials, conceptualise and implement systematic training programme for instructors and finally, initiate joint training and planning activities, including table-top and scenario-based planning exercises.¹⁶⁸ Meeting these goals would essentially align ASEAN training with EU/UN training approaches. However, in terms of CPPB training, there is nothing particular innovative or novel in the strategy.

Currently, ASEAN lacks the necessary frameworks and operational mandate to engage in any combined peacekeeping missions, particularly in terms of training, which is limited to a small number of national institutions. There are currently six peace operations training institutes in Southeast Asia, a negligible amount in comparison to Europe. This is indicative of the relative infancy of CPPB training in the region. It should also be noted that several Southeast Asian nations, including the Philippines and Thailand, are susceptible to internal conflict and instability including political and ethnic related violence, which has the potential to undermine investment in collaborative CPPB training moving forward. Indeed, a hypothetical conflict in Cambodia is used as a training simulation resource by the US Institute for Peace.¹⁶⁹ According to a SIPRI report on the 'new geopolitics of peace operations': 'ASEAN prefers a focus on conflict and crisis management rather than traditional peacebuilding approaches'.¹⁷⁰ While a regional peacekeeping force remains unfulfilled, individual nations within ASEAN have contributed unilaterally to UN peacekeeping missions both in terms of training and contribution of personnel with Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines making up the largest contributors.

The centre, which is the largest of its kind in Southeast Asia, focuses primarily on military pre-deployment training; however, an Indonesian National Police training complex is also being established on the site. Approaches to CPPB training are based on UN-DPKO guidelines and include English and French language courses, joint exercises, PSO training and Point Of Care training in addition to soft skills training approaches such as 'Negotiations and Mediations', which is designed to prepare personnel to "confront and resolve the conflict situation with as much as possible using persuasive means and avoiding the use of weapons".¹⁷¹ A 'Training Management Directorate' serves as an evaluative mechanism to determine if military personnel meet

¹⁶⁸ ASEAN. 2015. "Political-Security Community Blueprint 2025". Jakarta: 24-5.

¹⁶⁹ USIP. "Simulation on the Cambodia Peace Settlement". <http://www.usip.org/sites/default/files/resources/cambodia.pdf> [Accessed 10 Nov. 2016].

¹⁷⁰ Xenia Avezov. 2014. "The New Geopolitics of Peace Operations: A Dialogue with Emerging Powers". *SIPRI Workshop Report*: 3-4.

¹⁷¹ PMPP-TNI. "Pre-deployment training". <http://www.pkc-indonesia.mil.id/en/training/pre-deployment-training> [Accessed 01 Nov. 2016].



the standards for peacekeeping missions presumably adhering to UN-DPKO protocols.¹⁷² There is no means of assessing this externally however. Lack of a civilian training component is a notable shortcoming.

The Malaysian Ministry of Defence, in collaboration with UN Development Programme (UNDP) and the governments of Japan and Norway, launched the 'Capacity Building Support for Malaysia's Role in Multidimensional Peacekeeping Training' project in 2014. The initiative aimed to strengthen training approaches and research capacity on issues relating to gender, cultural diversity and protection of civilians in conflict and post-conflict environments.¹⁷³ In this regard, a gender training manual was produced and a new CIMIC module was made permanent on the peacekeeping training centre curriculum. In addition, a total of 174 participants were trained in 'Training of trainers' (ToT) courses.

Training is delivered through the Armed Forces of the Philippines Peacekeeping Operations Centre (PKOC), which was opened in 2002. CPPB training is divided into (i) Contingent Training, which includes Peacekeeping Operations Training and UN Core Pre-deployment training (ii) Individual Deployment Training that includes Peacekeeping Force Staff Course, UN Military Observer course and UN CIMIC course (iii) Training with the GPOI through US Pacific Command and (iv) Multi-National Peace Support Operations training exercises.¹⁷⁴ The close training relationship with the United States may be jeopardised given recent public announcements by Philippine President Rodrigo of a military and economic "separation" from the US.¹⁷⁵

The Philippines has been notable in its inclusion of gender and women in CPPB related training approaches across Southeast Asia. The We Act 1325 (Women engaged in action) was established to help implement UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 relating to women, peace and security. The programme has facilitated the training of over 3,000 Philippine peacekeepers since 2010 on upholding the rights of women in conflict or transition into post-conflict situations in addition to raising awareness of broader issues such as gender, human rights, International Humanitarian Law and the importance of female peacekeepers in the field.¹⁷⁶ This type of training is directed primarily toward national peacebuilding initiatives in the Bangsamoro

¹⁷² PMPP-TNI. "Training". <http://www.pk-indonesia.mil.id/en/training> [Accessed 01 Dec. 2016].

¹⁷³ UN Development Programme in Malaysia, Singapore & Brunei Darussalam. 2015. "Capacity Building Support for Malaysia Role in Multidimensional Peacekeeping Training Phase II". http://www.my.undp.org/content/malaysia/en/home/operations/projects/crisis_prevention_and_recovery/86622-peacekeeping-phase2.html [Accessed 30 Oct. 2016].

¹⁷⁴ Armed Forces of the Philippines PKOC. "Newsbits". <http://www.afp.mil.ph/intralinks/pkoc/index.htm#> [Accessed 01 Nov. 2016].

¹⁷⁵ See for example: Emily Rauhala. 2016. "Philippines' Duterte called for a 'separation' from U.S. He is now backtracking". *The Washington Post*. Available at <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/worldviews/wp/2016/10/21/the-backtracking-begins-duterte-ally-softens-philippines-separation-from-u-s> [Accessed 31 Oct. 2016].

¹⁷⁶ Royal Norwegian Embassy in Manila. 2016. "Training peacekeepers in the Philippines". <http://www.norway.ph/news/Events/Training-Peacekeepers-in-the-Philippines/> [Accessed 01 Nov. 2016].



region of the Philippines but also international CPPB related missions.¹⁷⁷ The WE ACT 1325 network have published two soft skills training manuals entitled *Women Working for Normalization* (2014) and *Women's Leadership in Politics, Peace and Security* (2015). According to a WE Act 1325 Project Officer: "Training sessions [are] also accompanied by interactive games and group activities such as quizzes and group dynamics aimed at debunking gender stereotypes, in order to break away from the regularly more rigid modules the soldiers are used to".¹⁷⁸

Thailand

In 2010, Thailand agreed to deploy around 800 military personnel to Darfur as part of UNAMID. By December 2011, it had 852 personnel active in UN-PKOs including 20 Police and 10 civilian staff.¹⁷⁹ However, since the withdrawal of these personnel in 2012, Thailand's contribution to UN-PKOs has been limited. Despite this, in 2015 Thailand committed to deploying more peacekeepers with a focus on development work in line with the UN High-level Independent Panel on Peace Operations (HIPPO) Report. This also illustrates Thailand's 'distinctive approach' to peacekeeping that emphasises the connection between peacekeeping, peacebuilding, and sustainable development, especially in development assistance and in bolstering women's participation in peacekeeping operations.¹⁸⁰ Thailand has no formal institutional process for responding to UN requests for peacekeepers. Unsurprisingly then perhaps, the provision of training is relatively improvised. Despite this, Thailand is one of only four Southeast Asian nations (aside from Australia and New Zealand) that hosts an IAPTC member Peace Operations Centre. The Thai Peace Operations Centre participates in the National Training Centre E-Learning Platform (NTCELP) in association with the Peace Operations Training Institute (POTI) to supplement annual training courses. This is open to military, police and civilian students. Peacekeeping training includes soft skills in negotiation, humanitarian professionalism and cultural awareness/ code of conduct training. Thailand also trains its peacekeepers in a specialised English language programme developed by the British Council that aims to bolster English proficiency through a mixed and integrated programme of direct teaching and trainer development.¹⁸¹

¹⁷⁷ See for example: Nikita Blanes. 2016. UN Women Asia and the Pacific. "Putting women at the heart of peacebuilding in the Bangsamoro, in the Philippines". <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/news-and-events/stories/2016/10/putting-women-at-the-heart-of-peacebuilding-in-the-bangsamoro> [Accessed 04 Nov. 2016].

¹⁷⁸ Royal Norwegian Embassy in Manila. 2016. "Training peacekeepers in the Philippines".

¹⁷⁹ UN Peacekeeping. Troop and Police Contributors Archive (1990-2014). "Monthly Summary of Contributions (Police, UN Military Experts on Mission and Troops) As of 31 December 2011": 2.

¹⁸⁰ Ministry of Foreign Affairs for the Kingdom of Thailand. Press Release. 2016. "Thailand's Contributions to UN Peacekeeping and Peace-Related Operations". <http://www.mfa.go.th/main/en/media-center/14/65042-The-Exhibition-%E2%80%99Thailand%E2%80%99s-Contributions-to-UN-Pea.html> [Accessed 04 Nov. 2016].

¹⁸¹ British Council Thailand. "English for UN Peacekeepers". <https://www.britishcouncil.or.th/en/teach/our-work/english-for-peacekeepers> [Accessed 05 Nov. 2016].



Thailand hosted a large CPPB exercise called PIRAP JABIRU in May 2016 co-organised with the Australian Defence Force Peace Operations Training Centre that included over 100 military, police and civilian participants from 22 indo-pacific countries. In terms of soft skills CPPB training approaches, the exercise emphasised the importance of cultural awareness and linguistic skills. These are not only important for effectively operating in conflict/post-conflict environments, but also in communication between peacekeepers from different ethno-cultural backgrounds where English is not a first language. Training was delivered through a combination of scenario-based simulations that reflect current UN peacekeeping operations, syndicate work, lectures and access to an online learning management system.¹⁸² The simulations included approaches to addressing vulnerable non-combatants in CPPB missions such as women and children in addition to human rights issues and humanitarian assistance.

Historically Vietnam has opposed deploying troops overseas primarily because of its military history and sensitivity over sovereignty. In 2014, there was a move toward a more integrated global strategy, which resulted in the opening of a Peacekeeping Training Centre in May followed by the deployment of two officers to UNMISS in South Sudan in June - the first deployment of its kind by Vietnam. By November 2016, Vietnam has twelve officers deployed in UN mission including three in South Sudan and two in the Central African Republic in addition to 83 officials on short-term UN training courses.¹⁸³

In terms of developing its CPPB training curricula, Vietnam sent delegations to liaise with experienced CPPB training regimes in France, Germany, Japan and Nepal to adopt training models and mechanisms.¹⁸⁴ Currently, the centre provides training for troops, police and civilian military experts in addition to specialised training courses for female officers in response to calls from the UN. However, there has been a reliance on outsourcing CPPB related training, particularly in terms of English language training. The Australian Defence Forces, in particular have been active in training Vietnamese troops for UN peacekeeping missions with over 17,000 trained in English language competency.¹⁸⁵ Currently Vietnam is engaged in training personnel and acquiring assets for deployment of a mobile field hospital for UN peacekeeping missions. In this regard, 67 civilian and military medical personnel completed training in military and medical English in addition to pre-deployment

¹⁸² Australian Embassy in Thailand. 2016. "Press Release". Available at http://thailand.embassy.gov.au/bkok/PR2016_2016_Pirap_Jabiru.html [Accessed 09 May 2016].

¹⁸³ "Vietnam actively participates in UN peace-keeping activities". 2016. *Hanoi Times*. <http://hanoitimes.com.vn/social-affair/2016/08/81e0a783/vietnam-actively-participates-in-un-peace-keeping-activities/> [Accessed 01 Nov. 2016].

¹⁸⁴ Alotrip. 2014. "Vietnam Peacekeeping Centre comes into practice". <http://www.alotrip.com/vietnam-news-daily/vietnam-peacekeeping-centre-comes-practice> [Accessed 28 Oct. 2016].

¹⁸⁵ Brendan Nicholson. 2013. "Australian Defence Force to train Vietnamese troops for United Nations peacekeeping role" in *The Australian*. <http://www.theaustralian.com.au/national-affairs/defence/australian-defence-force-to-train-vietnamese-troops-for-united-nations-peacekeeping-role/news-story/a4469b51727b3201b597d27d3ac941b8> [Accessed 29 Oct. 2016].



field exercises in October 2016.¹⁸⁶ This training was supported by the Australian Defence Attache Office to Vietnam.

This type of mobile bespoke training is beneficial as a standardised curriculum can be delivered by experts thereby creating some continuity in terms of peacekeeping training internationally. However, evaluating the impact of this training and learning outcomes is challenging. Utilising online distance learning is another (more cost effective) alternative, however, once again quality control in terms of disseminating the training material is difficult to assess or manage.

3.6. AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

The ADF POTC (Australian Defence Force Peace Operations Training Centre) is the primary peace operations training institution in Australia and offers training to both national and international contingents from civilian, military and police agencies. The centre runs UN Military Expert on Mission training courses and UN Staff Officer courses alongside seminars and exercises that focus on both generic and specific peace operations missions such as humanitarian emergency and Disaster Relief Reduction (DRR). In addition, the POTC engages with international partners through mobile UN-accredited training teams and international instructor exchanges to strengthen capacity building and exchange of best practice.¹⁸⁷

The centre places an emphasis on E-learning approaches and has partnered with the POTI to provide free multi-lingual E-Learning on CPPB related courses. This enables ADF personnel to download course materials, study off-line, take self-assessment quizzes, and finally take the end-of-course examination. To pass a minimum of 75% is required. Successful candidates are awarded a certificate of completion by the ADF POTC and the POTI.¹⁸⁸ The POTC has also created an online Defence Education Learning Environment known as (ADELE) that provides both trainers and trainees an interactive platform to engage collaboratively both during and after training. The resource contains course materials, background reading and crucially allows for real-time feedback.

In addition to the ADF-POTC, the Australian Government Civil-Military Centre is a key provider of integrated civil, military and police courses for a broad range of CPPB issues. Onsite training programmes are divided into 'introductory', 'practitioner' and 'leader', with the aim of promoting more effective civil-military-police

¹⁸⁶ Hong Thanh (translator). 2016. "English training course for Vietnamese peacekeeping force wrapped up". *People's Army Newspaper*. <http://en.qdnd.vn/defence-cooperation/english-training-course-for-vietnamese-peacekeeping-force-wrapped-up/423545.html> [Accessed 02 Nov. 2016].

¹⁸⁷ Australia Department of Defence College. Peace Operations Training Centre. "Australians in Peace Operations" <http://www.defence.gov.au/adc/acsc/peacekeeping/about.asp> [Accessed 28 Nov. 2016].

¹⁸⁸ POTI. ADF-POTC. <http://www.peaceopstraining.org/programs/ntcelp/australian-defense-force-peace-operations-training-centre/> [Accessed 20 Nov. 2016].



coordination at all levels. At the ‘practitioner’ level, for example, the centre runs a 5-day ‘Civil-Military Interaction Workshop’ that builds working relationships and understanding of the cultures, practices and capabilities of the military, police, UN and NGOs involved in disaster management, humanitarian, policing, stabilisation and peacekeeping operations.¹⁸⁹

Of particular relevance to the GAP project, is the ACMC ‘Preparedness programme’ that aims to develop national civil-military-police capabilities to prevent, prepare for and respond more effectively to conflicts and disasters overseas.¹⁹⁰ Methodologically, this is divided into four approaches:

- development of a ‘collaborative culture’ across civilian, military and police actors
- development of networks to increase knowledge of respective roles and responsibilities
- improving the capacity of agencies to operate in a whole-of-government setting
- increasing the ability of civilian, military and police actors to work together during a conflict or disaster response.

Ultimately, this will contribute to what the centre terms an ‘Australian Preparedness model’ which will “identify effective and sustainable mechanisms to build civil-military-police preparedness and to develop a framework for evaluating the outcomes.” GAP could contribute significantly to such a pedagogical approach.

North Asia Peace Cooperation

Programmes such as the North Asia Peace Cooperation Initiative (NAPCI) are attempting to foster greater trust and confidence through multilateral dialogue and regional cooperation. While the NAPCI is predominantly focused on enhancing approaches to regional security, it has a role to play in strengthening regional contributions to global peacekeeping issues. Northeast Asian states are significant financiers of UN-PKOs, with China, Japan and South Korea collectively contributing almost 20% of the total UN-PKO budget in 2015. Indeed, NAPCI emphasises non-traditional and soft security issues through open participation in areas such as DDR.¹⁹¹ This is important and could be extended to engaging in joint or combined training for CPPB related missions, particularly in soft skills, which could circuitously transfer to building greater regional cooperation and trust. Such approaches could constitute an ancillary utility for GAP.

There are currently ten centres offering peacekeeping training in Northeast Asia: China (3), Japan (4), South Korea (2) and Mongolia (1). In contrast to Europe, all of these centres (aside from a police training centre in

¹⁸⁹ Australian Civil-Military Centre (ACMC). 2016. “Learning & Development”. <https://www.acmc.gov.au/learning-development> [Accessed 02 Dec. 2016].

¹⁹⁰ ACMC. 2016. “Preparedness”. <https://www.acmc.gov.au/preparedness/> [Accessed 02 Dec. 2016].

¹⁹¹ Ministry of Foreign Affairs Rep. of Korea. 2013. “Northeast Asia Peace and Cooperation Initiative: Moving beyond the Asian Paradox towards Peace and Cooperation in Northeast Asia”. http://www.mofa.go.kr/ENG/North_Asia/res/eng.pdf [Accessed 16 Nov. 2016].



China) focus on training military personnel for deployment on UN-PKOs. Indeed, much like Southeast Asia, there is limited deployment of civilian or police personnel from Northeast Asian states. This suggests participation in peacekeeping missions and training exchanges likely has as much to do with enhancing national military operational experience and soft power projection in addition to contributing to global peacebuilding.

3.7. CHINA PEACEKEEPING CIVPOL TRAINING CENTER (CPCTC)

The police training centre has responsibility for the selection and training of peacekeeping police and Formed Police Units (FPU). Training focuses on reconstructing local legal systems, training of local officers, protection of civilians and humanitarian assistance.¹⁹² To be eligible for pre-deployment training, police officers must have basic English language competency and be educated to degree level.¹⁹³ China has worked closely with the UK in terms of police training for peacekeeping operations. Between 2009 and 2011, for example, UK police trainers from the National Policing Improvement Agency delivered UN police-development courses in Beijing with the aim of preparing Chinese peacekeeping police to compete for senior positions at the UNDPKO in New York or in mission fields.¹⁹⁴

In June 2016, Beijing hosted a 10-day UN female military officer's course jointly organised by UN Women, Peacekeeping Affairs Office and the Peacekeeping Centre of the Chinese Ministry of National Defence. This included 40 female military officers representing 24 countries.¹⁹⁵ In addition, at the UN SC meeting in March 2016 on the 'Women, peace and security' agenda, China advocated a greater role for women in building a "culture of inclusiveness" and stated its intent to provide training for technical specialists to create new opportunities for women in conflict/post-conflict societies.¹⁹⁶

Japan

As mentioned, Japan has fallen behind China and is (as of July 2016) the third highest financial contributor to UN Peacekeeping Operations, yet supplies no police or civilian personnel and only a relatively small contingent of peacekeeping troops. Japan's approach and contribution has been restricted by its constitution and post WWII position of international pacifism. However, recent indications are that this position is evolving and with it a change in approaches to CPPB training.

¹⁹² Fanie Herman. 2015. *China's African Peacekeeping Decision-making in the Hu Jintao Era*. Vij Books: India: 72.

¹⁹³ Ibid.

¹⁹⁴ Miwa Hirono and Manshu Xu. 2013. "China's Military Operations Other than War". *The RUSI Journal*. 158.6: 77.

¹⁹⁵ Ministry of National Defence The Peoples Republic of China. 2016. "China, UN Women train female peacekeepers". http://eng.mod.gov.cn/DefenseNews/2016-06/27/content_4683055.htm [Accessed 29 Nov. 2016].

¹⁹⁶ UN Security Council. 2016. "Meetings coverage and press releases". SC/12304. 7658th Meeting. <http://www.un.org/press/en/2016/sc12304.doc.htm> [Accessed 20 Nov. 2016].



The IPCAT is the primary provider training for Japanese 'Stand by troops' for UN-PKOs (including peacebuilding), international disaster relief operations, non-combatant evacuation operations and counter-piracy operations in the Gulf of Aden. Training is delivered through a customary mix of classroom experiential learning and practical exercises and based on standardised UN Core Pre-Deployment Training Material. In addition to training, the IPCAT also conducts research into the efficacy of its training methods through collaboration with academic partners such as the Japanese Institute of International Affairs. According to Masakazu Karube, IPCAT unit commander, "An important point is to verify whether the training now being conducted can really be useful in theatres of activity overseas and to develop unified know-how for personnel education."¹⁹⁷ While the IPACT is a military training facility, it hosts an annual CIMIC conference to promote operational understanding between both groups.

South Korea

The Republic of Korea has been a more active contributor to peacekeeping following the passage of national legislation on Participation in UN Peacekeeping Operations in December 2009. South Korea created a standing peacekeeping force of 1000 troops - known as *Onnuri* - in 2010, but has also continued small number of police and civilian personnel. The idea of the force was somewhat novel in that all personnel would receive basic pre-deployment tactical training followed by specific language and cultural competences when the mission had been identified.¹⁹⁸ Military peacekeeping training is delivered primarily through the Korea International Peace Operations Centre (KIPOCENT) at the National Defence College. As this diagram highlights, the centre extends beyond CPPB training to research and planning activity also.

¹⁹⁷ "The GSDF Central Readiness Force - This Year's Aim is "Personal Training". *Japan Focus*: 6. <http://www.mod.go.jp/e/jdf/no06/special.html> [Accessed 22 Nov. 2016].

¹⁹⁸ Song Sang-ho. 2010. "Military launches unit for overseas deployment". *The Korea Herald*. <http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20100701000625> [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].



Figure 3.5 – PKO Centre



Source: KIPOCENT. <https://www.kndu.ac.kr/pkoeng/index.jsp?mid1=00000171&mid2=00000837> [Accessed 20 Nov. 2016].

Training is divided into individual and unit level pre-deployment courses in addition to a Khaan Quest Exercise observer course and a police staff Course. Delivery focuses on practical and experiential educational approaches through case studies and classroom discussion. CPPB related training curricula in South Korea is relatively innovative in its scope. Several pre-deployment courses include modules on ‘understanding Islam’ and lessons in ‘practical Arabic’ for example - important soft skills for engaging with diverse cultural understandings and practices that might be experienced during peacekeeping missions. There are also regional specific courses, such as the ‘Cheonghae Unit Course’, which is designed to train personnel specifically for peacekeeping activities in Somalia/Gulf of Aden and the ‘Hanbit Unit Course’ for South Sudan. In addition to the Police Staff course at KIPOCENT, the UN Police Research Centre at the Korean National Police University conducts research in policing for peacekeeping in three primary areas: (i) PKO management system of international organisations and countries (ii) delivery of Korean police systems to developing countries (iii) education program of consular operation through police resident officers abroad.¹⁹⁹ Despite an obvious interest in advancing training for policing in conflict/post conflict zones, the Police Staff Course at KIPOCENT did not run in 2016, a reflection perhaps of the small number of police personnel deployed by South Korea on UN peacekeeping missions in 2016.

South Korea published a ‘national plan’ for the Implementation of UNSC Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security in 2014. The plan outlined a detailed framework to integrate gender perspectives into conflict prevention and the peacebuilding process. In terms of training, the plan committed to strengthening pre-deployment training on gender equality and the elimination of sexual violence in order to prevent gender-

¹⁹⁹ Korean National Police University. “Center and Research”.

http://www.police.ac.kr/police/eng/html/academics/center_research.do?mdex=eng10 [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].



based violence as well as to deepen understanding of local culture and religions.²⁰⁰ This appears to have been implemented as modules in 'International law, Human rights and the Prevention of sexual abuse' now appear throughout the KIPOCENT curriculum.²⁰¹

South Asian states, in contrast to North Asia, consistently contribute the highest percentage of UN peacekeeping personnel, but shoulder only a minute percentage of the financial burden. Collectively Bangladesh, India and Pakistan contributed approximately 32% of all UN peacekeepers in 2016.²⁰² Therefore, effective training approaches, implementation and accountability are arguably more important for these countries given their greater level of contribution. Interestingly, according to Anit Mukherjee, assistant professor at RSIS, "when South Asian soldiers are deployed as UN peacekeepers, they often gain in terms of training, experience with new technologies and combat techniques, as well as the ability to learn from other countries' military practices".²⁰³ This suggests UNPKOs are utilised as a sort of ad-hoc training opportunity to further national interests. There is little regional cooperation in terms of CPPB training frameworks, although national training centres are aligned with the IAPTC.

While South Asian states contribute a high number of peacekeeping personnel, there is a notable imbalance in the ratio of females to males – more so than other top personnel contributing nations. As of August 2016, India contributes just 39 female personnel from a total deployment of 7,471, whereas Pakistan contributes just 21 females from a contingent of 7,161.²⁰⁴ While this is an obvious deficiency in terms of gender balance, India, for example, has shown its awareness of the importance of female peacekeepers by creating the first all-female Formed Police Unit on the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) in 2007.

3.8. PEACEKEEPING IN INDIA AND PAKISTAN

Since 2005, India has assumed secretariat responsibilities of the IAPTC and has taken a lead in setting training standards and contributing to establishing norms in training approaches and curricula.²⁰⁵ The Centre for UN Peacekeeping in New Delhi is the primary peacekeeping training facility in the country and delivers national and

²⁰⁰ 'The National Action Plan of the Republic of Korea for the Implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security'. 2014. Available at

http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/NationalActionPlans/republicofkorea_nap_2014.pdf [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].

²⁰¹ See: Korea National Defense University: Korea International Peace Operations Center (KIPOCENT). "Curriculum".

<https://www.kndu.ac.kr/pkoeng/index.jsp> [Accessed 20 Nov. 2016].

²⁰² Cedric de Coning and Chander Prakash. 2016. "Peace Capacities Network Synthesis Report: Rising Powers and Peace Operations". Oslo: Norwegian Institute of International Affairs: 9.

²⁰³ Gabriel Domínguez. 2016. "What drives South Asians to peacekeeping". *Deutsche Welle*. <http://www.dw.com/en/what-drives-south-asians-to-peacekeeping/a-18970732> [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].

²⁰⁴ UN Peacekeeping. 2016. "Contributions by Country". <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/resources/statistics/contributors.shtml> [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].

²⁰⁵ Dipankar Banerjee. 2014. "Peacekeeping Contributor Profile: India". Available at <http://www.providingforpeacekeeping.org/2014/04/03/contributor-profile-india> [Accessed 01 Dec. 2016].



internal CPPB related training programmes. Training at CUNPK (Centre for UN Peacekeeping in India) is provided for contingent officers to train troops (and follow up monitoring and evaluation) alongside training for Military Observers, Staff Officers and Logistic officers. In addition, there is a seven-day national training course designed specifically for Indian personnel. Pre-deployment training is mission specific and ‘draws heavily’ from the extensive experience of Indian peacekeeping – an important and unique experiential training approach.²⁰⁶ In addition, all courses at CUNPK are conducted in English, which enhances the interoperability of personnel in the field.

Aside from delivering training programmes, CUNPK also hosts seminars, joint working group meetings, workshops, and multinational peacekeeping exercises to facilitate exchange of best training practice and enhance interoperability in the field. It also is engaged in CPPB research to enhance and update the doctrinal aspects of training, such as the ‘Rising Powers Project’ that examines the values, content and impact of peacebuilding initiatives of rising powers.

The UN Women's Office for India, Bhutan, Maldives and Sri Lanka in collaboration with CUNPK has initiated an innovative ten-day course dedicated exclusively to female military officers. The course aims to train the officers to prevent and address sexual and gender-based violence in armed conflict while also attempting to address the shortage of qualified female military peacekeepers. The Course Director Vasant Mande commented that ‘victims of sexual violence [...] open up to females far more easily’.²⁰⁷

The course includes a variety of soft skills training approaches to sexual and gender based violence such as communication techniques for interacting with survivors, warning signs of conflict-related sexual violence, information/intelligence-gathering to identify risks, threats, and vulnerabilities, knowledge of child protection and gender-responsive peacekeeping.²⁰⁸ A central element to this training is a two-day scenario-based module that utilises videos, photos, stories and authentic mission experiences to enhance female officers’ ability to detect, report, and prevent sexual violence.²⁰⁹ This method is essentially a rudimentary version of what GAP could potentially deliver in a more accessible and impactful way. Indeed, India is actively researching gaming and simulation of strategic scenarios for training of its military personnel. This includes techniques such as scenario building, crisis gaming, politico-military gaming etc. to evaluate options, efficacy of research findings or to evaluate complexities of military competition.²¹⁰ While it doesn’t appear that this focuses on CPPB

²⁰⁶ Centre for UN Peacekeeping (CUNPK). 2014. <http://www.claws.in/cunpk.php>. [Accessed 01 Dec. 2016].

²⁰⁷ Peacekeeping Training for Female Military Officers. 2016. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wjZvyGp6KW4> [Accessed 26 Nov. 2016].

²⁰⁸ UN Women. 2016. “Female peacekeepers take the helm, to end gender-based violence”. <http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2015/5/female-peacekeepers-take-the-helm> [Accessed 26 Nov. 2016].

²⁰⁹ Ibid.

²¹⁰ United Service Institution of India (USI). Centre for Strategic Studies and Simulation. <http://usiofindia.org/CS3/>.



training presently, it is apparent that it is an area that the largest contributor of troops to UN peacekeeping operations is interested in exploring.

In 2016, India, as one of the largest troop contributing nations, argued that nations contributing the most troops should be directly consulted when constructing mission mandates. According to India Minister of State for External Affairs MJ Akbar, "Mandates must recognise ground realities. A peacekeeping missions strategic goals must be laid down in clear and precise terms, and only after taking realistic stock of the resources should we make a commitment".²¹¹ This is important when considering the GAP project and especially in training approaches that fit with the reality of modern conflict situations. The National University of Science and Technology hosts Pakistan's only dedicated Department of UN Peacekeeping Training at the Centre for International Peace and Stability (CIPS), which was established in 2013. This is despite the large amount of personnel deployed by Pakistan on UN-PKOs. Courses are offered to military, police and civilian personnel from Pakistan and from international states. The training courses are a blend of UN core and specialised training materials informed by national operational experiences and best practice including scenario based situation oriented exercises.²¹² Supplementary peacekeeping operations training is also provided to military personnel at the Military School of Infantry & Tactics.

Pakistan had reduced the number of police personnel it has deployed in UN-PKOs since 2010 due to domestic security concerns. Just recently, In October 2016, the police-training centre at Quetta was attacked resulting in over 60 fatalities for example, inciting the precarious nature of Pakistan domestic security situation and, moreover, how domestic issues can directly affect peacekeepers training and ability to deploy.²¹³ One author suggests that Pakistani police personnel use the missions themselves as a sort of soft skills training tool – "UN missions serve as a vital opportunity for police personnel to gain financial stability and an avenue for infusing modern concepts pertaining to human rights, gender mainstreaming, the handling of vulnerable persons, and community policing".²¹⁴ This suggests limited engagement with soft skills training approaches prior to deployment.

²¹¹ Firstpost News India. 2016. "India seeks better training for UN peacekeepers". <http://www.firstpost.com/world/india-seeks-better-training-for-un-peacekeepers-2915040.html> [Accessed 26 Nov. 2016].

²¹² National University of Science and Technology (NUST). Center for International Peace and Stability (CIPS). Department of UN Peacekeeping Training.

²¹³ Mohammad Zubair Khan. 2016. "At least 58 killed as Pakistan militants storm police training centre in Quetta". *The Telegraph*. Available at <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2016/10/24/pakistan-police-training-centre-in-quetta-raided-by-militants-wj> [Accessed 09 Dec. 2016].

²¹⁴ Alex J. Bellamy and Paul D. Williams. 2013. *Providing Peacekeepers: The Politics, Challenges, and Future of United Nations Peacekeeping Contributions*. Oxford University Press. Oxford: 220.



3.9 THE MIDDLE EAST AND CONFLICT PREVENTION

In 1998 the Turkish Partnership for Peace (PfP) Training Centre opened in Ankara and is the main peacekeeping training facility in the Middle East. It was the first recognised partnership centre by NATO in 1999.²¹⁵ Its aim is to provide training and education support to NATO, Partner Nations, National Personnel and when required, other countries in order to contribute to the attainment of interoperability objectives and to enhance military cooperation in accordance with NATO and Turkish General Staff (TGS) policy and principles. The Centre has been awarded “NATO Quality Assurance Unconditional Accreditation Certificate” which essentially means it has been assured that the organizational process and procedures used meet the education and training quality assurance standards developed by NATO.²¹⁶ As an accredited centre, although not part of the NATO Command Structure, it is part of a wider framework supporting NATO.

In 2006 the number of Turkish uniformed personnel in UN-led peacekeeping operations surged with the expansion of UNIFIL in Lebanon and the mission was extended in June 2012 for the sixth time. Prior to this, Turkish participation in UN-led peacekeeping remained limited to contributions in Haiti, East Timor and a few African states. To a large extent the increase was more connected with the political agenda at the time, but the level of activity has decreased in recent times, largely as the domestic focus has centred more on the fight against terrorism than UN peacekeeping. In fact, the Turkish armed forces (TAF) see this as a greater priority and as a result the number of Turkish police personnel involved in UN Peacekeeping is greater than the number of TAF.

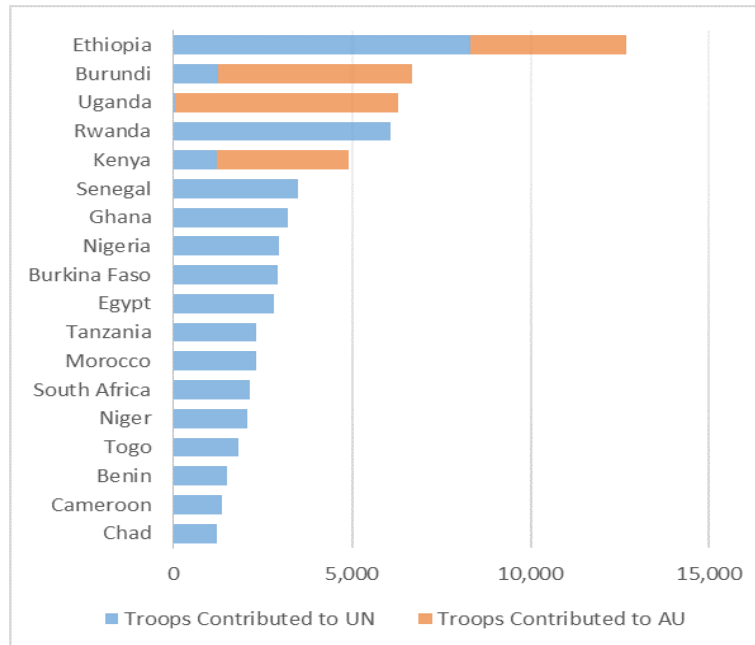
²¹⁵ <http://www.bioem.tsk.tr/>

²¹⁶ <http://www.bioem.tsk.tr/>



3.10 TRAINING APPROACHES OF THE AFRICAN UNION AND ECOWAS

Figure 3.6 - Top African peacekeeping contributors (personnel) as of Dec. 2015



Source: Michael D. Rettig. 2016. The Evolution of African Peacekeeping. <http://africacenter.org/spotlight/evolution-african-peacekeeping/>

The African Union (AU) is a unique entity in terms of peacekeeping operations in that its member states collectively contribute roughly 50% of uniformed UN peacekeeping personnel while others play host to peacekeeping and CPPB missions. Six of the UN's top ten troop and police contributing nations are AU member states, including the top contributor – Ethiopia. It is little surprise then perhaps, that the UN Under-Secretary General for Peacekeeping Operations Hervé Ladsous described the AU as “the most important partner of the UN in peacekeeping” in May 2016.²¹⁷ Currently there are nine active UN peacekeeping missions in Africa in addition to eight EU CSDP missions, seven AU missions and one Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) mission.²¹⁸ This makes Africa and the AU central in understanding the effectiveness, development and implementation of CPPB related training strategies.

The AU and sub-regional economic communities, such as ECOWAS, have outlined five joint strategic priority areas for building peace on the continent by 2020, which are important in understanding AU approaches to CPPB training. The five areas are (i) conflict prevention (incl. early warning systems and preventive diplomacy)

²¹⁷ UN News Centre. “African Union ‘most important partner’, UN peacekeeping chief tells Security Council”.

<http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=54033#.WEWaPNWLTIU> [Accessed 05 Dec. 2016].

²¹⁸ Centre for International Peace Operations (ZIF). 2016. “New ZIF Map Peace Operations 2016/2017”. Available at <http://www.zif-berlin.org/en/about-zif/news/detail/article/neue-zif-weltkarte-friedenseinsaetze-201617.html> [Accessed 02 Dec. 2016].



(ii) crisis/conflict management (incl. African Standby Force (ASF) and mediation interventions) (iii) post-conflict reconstruction and peace building (incl. SSR and DDR) (iv) strategic security issues (incl. counter-terrorism and transnational organised crime) and (v) coordination and partnerships.²¹⁹ In addition, the roadmap highlights cross-cutting issues such as gender mainstreaming and the importance of integrating it into the curricula of training institutions for example. Indeed, the term ‘training’ is specifically mentioned 187 times in the roadmap document, which indicates it is an area of strategic importance for the AU.

In terms of multinational training approaches, the African Peace Support Trainers Association (APSTA) is the only independent Pan-African body for the promotion of harmonisation and standardisation of PSO training. APSTA is currently comprised of sixteen member institutions including centres in Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa.²²⁰ The centre has facilitated multilateral training programmes that promote harmonisation in training, such as the Police Pre-Deployment Training Harmonisation Workshop within the context of APSTA and the ASF. This workshop aimed to update and standardise police pre-deployment training for UN and AU peace operations, which included harmonisation of UN and AU doctrinal terminology.²²¹ The organisation also publishes key literature on CPPB related training activities such as a set of *Revised Harmonized Standards for Civilian Peacekeepers Foundation & Police Pre-Deployment Training* in 2015.²²²

A sub-regional economic organisation within the AU – ECOWAS – plays an important role in promoting CPPB in West Africa. The Directorate of Political Affairs, Peace and Security is responsible for implementing ECOWAS’s approaches to CPPB in terms of mandates and training. This is augmented by the ECOWAS Standby Force and Mission Management and Planning Cell that facilitate peace operations training activities, which supplements training programmes at designated regional ‘centres of excellence’, including the primary African peace operations training facility - the Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping Training Centre (KAIPTC).

The KAIPTC was opened in 2004 and is one of three regional peace operations training facilities designated a ‘centre of excellence’ by ECOWAS. The centre provides generic, specialised and integrated training programmes for national and international military, police and civilian personnel. The centre offers a wide range of courses including UN pre-deployment training for national forces, conflict management courses, peace support operations course and peace and security courses. A wide range of soft skills are imbedded in this curricula

²¹⁹ African Union Commission. Peace and Security Department. 2015. *African Peace and Security Architecture Roadmap 2016-2020*. AU Peace and Security Department: Addis Ababa: 22.

²²⁰ See: APSTA. “Member Institutions”. <http://www.apsta-africa.org/member-institutions> [Accessed 07 Dec. 2016].

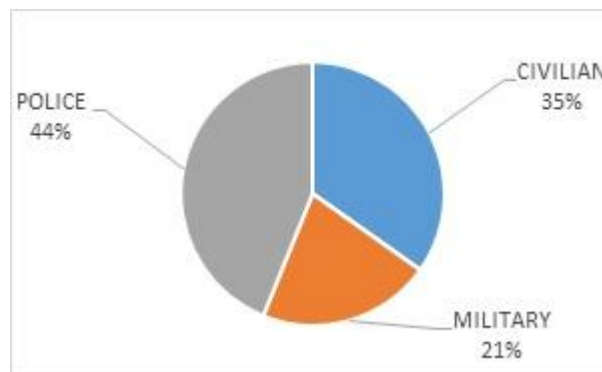
²²¹ APSTA. 2015. *Report on the Police Pre-Deployment Training Harmonization Workshop*. KAIPTC, Accra, Ghana, 6-9 May 2014.

²²² See: Festus B. Aboagye (ed.). *Revised Harmonized Standards For Civilian Peacekeepers Foundation & Police Pre-Deployment Training*. African Peace Support Trainers Association (APSTA): Nairobi.



including human rights training, addressing conflict related sexual violence, and conflict analysis and mediation.²²³ In addition, the centre collaborates with the West African Network for Peacebuilding (WANEP) in running specialised and culturally sensitive training courses on regional specific issues with a focus on early warning, conflict transformation and peacebuilding mechanisms.²²⁴

Figure 3.7 - Breakdown of CIV/MIL/POL attending KAIPTC in 2015



Source: KAIPTC. 2015. <http://www.kaiptc.org/Training/Statistics.aspx>

The KAIPTC has established a new Training and Development unit, which replaced the Integrated Training and Planning Office in 2009. The unit undertakes evaluation and assessment of the training programmes offered at KAIPTC through user based feedback and internal review. In addition, the unit manages the centres 'E-Learning Project' and new 'Learning Management System', which is an online portal for students and alumni to apply for courses or access information on upcoming courses.²²⁵ In terms of pedagogical and methodological approaches, the KAIPTC uses Collaborative Problem Based Learning (CPBL) that contextualises training to reflect contemporary regional and continental conflict/post conflict scenarios. Additional emphasis is placed on 'autodidactic' or self-directed learning, which encourages small group discussions informed by a range of academic cultural, religious, gender and experiential backgrounds and perspectives.²²⁶

Figure 3.8 - Number and Type of Courses Run by the Training for Peace Programme (TfP)

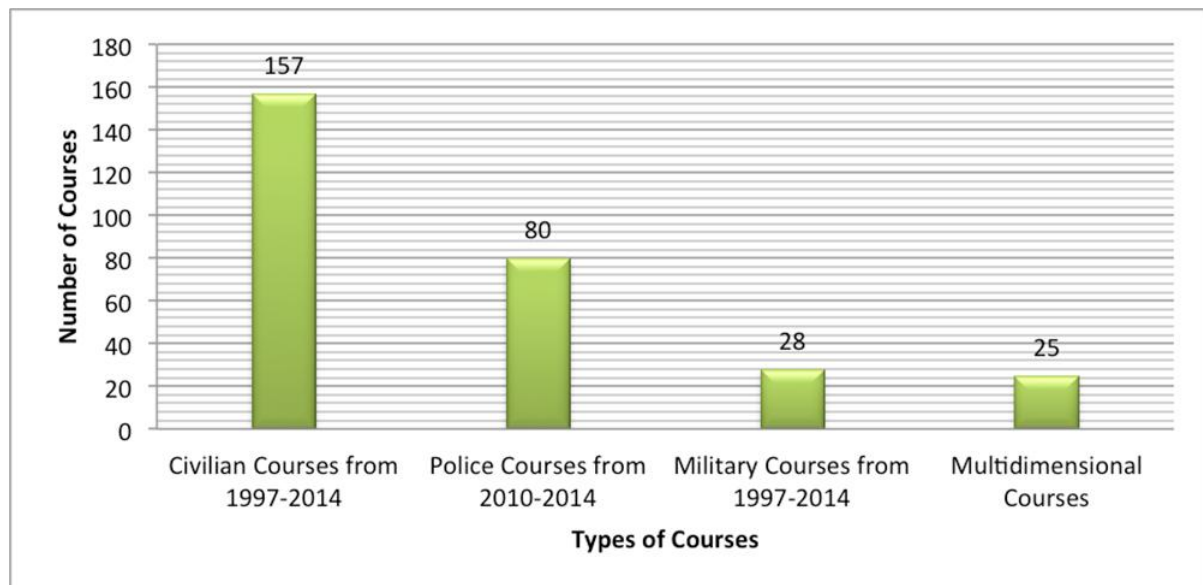
²²³ See: KAIPTC. 2016. "KAIPTC Core Training Courses Brochure".

http://www.kaiptc.org/Training/Documents/150211_KAIPTC_BROCHURE_FINAL.aspx [Accessed 07 Dec. 2016].

²²⁴ Ibid: 42.

²²⁵ See: KAIPTC. "Learning Management System (LMS)". <http://lms.kaiptc.org/moodle/> [Accessed 08 Dec. 2016].

²²⁶ KAIPTC. "KAIPTC Training Philosophy". <http://kaiptc.org/Training.aspx> [Accessed 06 Dec. 2016].



[Source: Olivia Victoria Ajax and Ndubuisi Christian Ani. 2015. "Beyond Numbers: The Impact of TFP Training on Peacekeeping in Africa". *Conflict Trends* (2): 31.]

Civilian CPPB training in Africa only materialised in a meaningful way following the development of the ASF Civilian Dimension Policy Framework in 2006 by the AU Peace Support Operations (PSO) Division with support from APSTA, KAIPTC and the African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD) under the auspices of the Training for Peace (TFP) in Africa Programme. In terms of civilian training approaches the framework highlighted the need to address the staffing, recruiting and rostering aspects of the civilian dimension of the ASF.²²⁷ This ultimately resulted in the creation of the African Standby Capacity Roster in 2015, which facilitates the identification, recruitment and deployment of civilian experts.²²⁸

In terms of developing civilian training courses, APSTA organised and facilitated a workshop on the harmonisation and standardisation of a 'Civilian Peacekeepers Foundation Course' in 2013. This resulted in agreement on five key thematic training areas: introduction to conflict and PSO, legal and institutional frameworks, mission structures and mandate implementation, cross-cutting PSO issues (including gender dimensions) and practical skills.²²⁹ Civilian CPPB training courses are offered at KAIPTC, ACCORD and through ISS Africa Centre for Peace and Security Training for example. These range from generic courses, such as Gender and Conflict Prevention, CIMIC, Peacebuilding, DDR, and Election Monitoring at KAIPTC, to more

²²⁷ Cedric de Coning and Yvonne Kasumba (eds). 2010. *The Civilian Dimension of the African Standby Force*. ACCORD: South Africa: 58.

²²⁸ Zinurine Alghali and Yvonne Akpasom. 2015. "Development of Civilian Capacities for African Peace Support Operations". *Conflict Trends* (2): 13.

²²⁹ APSTA. 2013. "Civilian Peacekeepers Foundation Course: Reviewing, Updating, Harmonization and Standardization Workshop": 5. Available at <http://www.apsta-africa.org/template/default/pdf/Report%20on%20the%20Civilian%20Peacekeepers%20Foundation%20Course%20Harmonization%20Workshop-Nairobi.pdf>. [Accessed 14 Dec. 2016].



specialised civilian courses such as 'Civil Society's Role in Mali's Post-Conflict Reconstruction' course offered at ISS Africa.

Despite several advances in civilian training policy, implementation of these training strategies has been problematic, particularly in assessing the impact of civilian training in the field. To address this, ACCORD, for example, has moved from conducting training activities to training processes, which includes conducting training needs analysis and evaluation.²³⁰ A TFP report also identified a 'training-deployment gap' where the level of deployment of trained civilian personnel does not correspond with the financial and capacity investment.²³¹ This has resulted in a move from pre-deployment to in-mission training. AU missions, such as AMISOM, now have joint mission training cells to coordinate specialised training in line with AU mission mandates.²³²

While the AU hosts a number of 'centres of excellence' for peace operations training, such as the KAIPTC, there have been significant shortcomings in collective AU approaches to peacekeeping training, ranging from a lack of equipment, expertise, investment and inadequate facilities to an over-reliance on donor support. According to a report of the joint AU-UN review of available mechanisms to finance and support AU peace support operations of September 2016, "...[AU] military and police contingents sometimes do not deploy with the requisite training or the major equipment and self-sustainment capabilities expected and required to deliver on their mandates...".²³³ In addition, the report highlights the lack of standardisation and requisite skill-sets across the AU in training approaches for CPPB related missions - "Training provided by troop and police-contributing countries is often tailored to national requirements and does not encompass the full spectrum of skills required in contemporary peace support operations".²³⁴

Daniel Hampton has highlighted the issue of "perishable skills" in that effective peacekeepers require continual training that becomes institutionalised and reflects the evolving nature of regional conflict. Hampton has suggested a building block model for sustained capacity that essentially attempts to formulate methods to train regional AU contingents to UN standards for PKOs:

- Train the trainer: Build African NCO capacity,
- Train the contingent: Africans train Africans,
- Institutionalise: dedicate training facility or mobile training team concept,

²³⁰ Training for Peace Programme (TFP). 2014. "Training for Peace in Africa: Consolidated Annual Progress Report 2013": 19. Available at <http://trainingforpeace.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/TFP-Annual-Report-2013.pdf> [Accessed 15 Dec. 2016].

²³¹ Alghali and Akpasom. 2015. 15.

²³² Ibid. 16.

²³³ UN General Assembly Security Council. 2016. "Report of the joint African Union-United Nations review of available mechanisms to finance and support African Union peace support operations authorized by the United Nations Security Council". A/71/410. S/2016/809: 10.

²³⁴ UN. A/71/410. S/2016/809: 21.



- Retain expertise: maintain professional instructor cadre within the defence force,
- Sustain: integrate instructor cadres and curricula within African PME systems,
- Adapt: capture and analyse operational lessons,
- Update training curricula: Optimise resources: coordinate donor support to ensure complementarity.

AU peace operations training facilities are heavily reliant on donor support in terms of both financial and intellectual capital. Chief donors include the EU, UN, regional organisations, NATO, and the World Bank. The EU's 'African Peace Facility', for example, funds a large percentage of African-led peacekeeping operations, which had a budget of €900 million for the period 2014-2016.²³⁵ In September 2016 the EU signed a contract with the AU for EUR178 million to cover allowances for AMISOM troops, police, and civilian staff salaries alongside operational costs.²³⁶ This was the fifteenth such contract between the EU and the AU. Despite the frequent provision of training and equipment to meet capability gaps for AU PSOs, a UN report observed, "such support was often ineffective at improving the capability of contingents once they had been deployed [...] In many cases, contingents were unable to effectively operate or maintain partner-provided equipment."²³⁷ In addition, there are related problems in verifying if donated equipment and trained AU units are actually deployed for peace operations.

A reliance on donor support and UN mandates has eroded the effectiveness and independence of African led peace support operations and has resulted in the AU essentially becoming a subsidiary force of the UN, or as Lesley Connolly states, "The AU does peace enforcement; the UN does peacekeeping".²³⁸ The AU has recognised the limitations of such a heavy reliance on donor support and has made a commitment that its Member States should contribute 25% of the total cost of AU efforts on peace and security, including AU-led peace operations by 2020.²³⁹

²³⁵ European External Action Service (EEAS). Delegation of the European Union to the African Union. "Peace and Security". https://eeas.europa.eu/delegations/african-union-au/866/the-african-union-and-the-eu_en [Accessed 07 Dec. 2016].

²³⁶ AMISOM. 2016. Press Statements. "The AU Secures EU Funds For The Au Mission In Somalia". <http://amisom-au.org/2016/09/8695/> [Accessed 07 Dec. 2016].

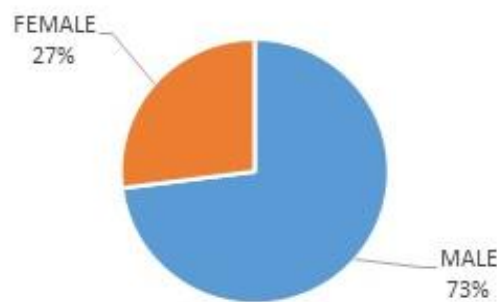
²³⁷ UN. A/71/410. S/2016/809: 31-2.

²³⁸ Lesley Connolly. 2016. "African Funds for African Peace: Assessing the African Union's New Financing Plan". African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD). <http://www.accord.org.za/conflict-trends/african-funds-african-peace/> [Accessed 07 Dec. 2016].

²³⁹ African Union. 2016. 'Decision on the Domestication of the First Ten-year Implementation Plan of Agenda 2063 Doc. EX.CL/931(XXVIII)'. Assembly/AU/Draft/Dec.1-17(XXVI): 7.



Figure 3.9 - Gender representation at KAIPTC course 2015.



Source: KAIPTC. 2015. <http://www.kaiptc.org/Training/Statistics.aspx>

In 2015, the AU, 'Common African Position on the UN Review of Peace Operations' document committed to work proactively with security and armed forces of Member States to make training programmes on women, peace and security alongside accountability a mandatory part of the curricula for regular training and not only when they are being prepared for peace support operations. The AU has already begun to integrate such training into its ASF programme.²⁴⁰

3.11 GLOBAL APPROACHES TO GENDER TRAINING AND CULTURAL TRAINING

While gender - and to a lesser extent cultural training - are widely available on the curricula of peace training institutions worldwide, the effectiveness and subsequent impact of this training in the mission space is difficult to systematically gauge. Indeed, the UNDPKO has recognised this deficiency in its *Gender Looking Forward Strategy 2014-2018* and highlights the need to "Systematise gender training for all personnel with corresponding performance frameworks"²⁴¹ As this report has highlighted, the countries that contribute the largest percentage of peacekeeping personnel struggle the most in terms of material capacity and financial resources for training. This has regularly resulted in the omission of gender modules that are part of the training standards by DPKO/DFS from pre-deployment training.²⁴²

In Southeast Asia, for example, approaches to gender and cultural training for CPPB missions vary considerably. The *Gender Global Gap Report* of 2015 ranked The Philippines 7th on the global index with 79% of 'gender gap closure' compared with Malaysia, which ranked 111th.²⁴³ This is reflected in CPPB training with the Philippines spearheading initiatives designed to strengthen training approaches and research capacity on gender and

²⁴⁰ AU. Peace and Security Council. 'Common African Position on the UN Review of Peace Operations'. PSC/PR/2(DII):13-4.

²⁴¹ UN DPKO/DFS. 2014. *Gender Looking Forward Strategy 2014-2018*. New York: 9.

²⁴² UNFIL. 2014. *Women, Peace and Identifying Security: Piloting Military Gender Guidelines in UNFIL*. New York: 7.

²⁴³ See: World Economic Forum. 2015. *THE GLOBAL GENDER GAP REPORT 2015*. World Economic Forum. Available at <http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR2015/cover.pdf> [Accessed 13 Dec. 2016].



cultural diversity such as the WE Act 1325 Network. Malaysia, in contrast, has required external assistance from the UNDP and the governments of Japan and Norway, through the 'Capacity Building Support for Malaysia's Role in Multidimensional Peacekeeping Training' project in 2014 that specially focuses on strengthening gender and cultural training approaches, creating, for example a gender training manual.²⁴⁴ This illustrates to some degree how cultural approaches toward women and gender issues in a nation likely impact on the effectiveness of gender training for CPPB missions.

In Australia, despite the inclusion of gender training as a key thematic area of interest at the ACMC, and the production of conflict based sexual violence and gender literature, there has been some criticism of Australia's approach to gender training. One recent report has highlighted that Australian training on gender conforms to UN standards, but is inadequate as "gender is only considered in relation to the peacekeeping mission to which personnel are deployed, rather than peacekeeping practices".²⁴⁵ In addition, the report highlighted that separate gender training is not conducted for ADF military, navy and air force personnel.²⁴⁶

In terms of cultural training, both Australia and several ASEAN states have engaged in exchanges and cultural awareness training through multinational CPPB related training exercises, such as KERIS AMAN in Malaysia, PIRAP JABIRU in Thailand and GARUDA KOOKABURRA with Indonesia at the ADF-POTC. These exercises provide a platform for the exchange of organisational culture, operational techniques and procedures to inform best practice in the field and, moreover, help in communication between peacekeepers from different ethno-cultural backgrounds, particularly where English is not a first language. In South Asia, and to a lesser extent, Northeast Asia, there is a heavy military focus in national approaches toward peacekeeping training, which has resulted in an underdeveloped capacity for gender and cultural training - areas traditionally outside the remit of militaries. While South Asian states contribute a high number of peacekeeping personnel, there is a notable imbalance in the ratio of females to males – more so than other top personnel contributing nations with Pakistan, for example, contributing just 21 females from a contingent of 7,161 as of August 2016.²⁴⁷

While this is an obvious deficiency in terms of gender balance, India, for example, has shown its awareness of the importance of female peacekeepers by creating the first all-female Formed Police Unit on the UN Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) in 2007 and, more recently, a training course dedicated exclusively to female military officers.

²⁴⁴ UN Development Programme in Malaysia, Singapore & Brunei Darussalam. 2015. "Capacity Building Support for Malaysia Role in Multidimensional Peacekeeping Training Phase II". http://www.my.undp.org/content/malaysia/en/home/operations/projects/crisis_prevention_and_recovery/86622-peacekeeping-phase2.html [Accessed 30 Oct. 2016].

²⁴⁵ Lisa Carson. 2016. "Pre-deployment 'gender' training and the lack thereof for Australian peacekeepers". *Australian Journal of International Affairs*. 70: 3: 283.

²⁴⁶ Carson. "Pre-deployment gender training [...]". 286.

²⁴⁷ UN Peacekeeping. 2016. "Contributions by Country". <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/resources/statistics/contributors.shtml> [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].



This course, as previously mentioned, includes a variety of soft skills training approaches to sexual and gender based violence such as communication techniques for interacting with survivors, warning signs of conflict-related sexual violence and gender-responsive peacekeeping.²⁴⁸

India's approach is relatively novel in South Asia and mirrors efforts by the Republic of Korea – a regional leader in terms of promoting gender and cultural training in Northeast Asia. The National Action Plan for the Implementation of UNSC Resolution 1325, for example, commits to strengthening pre-deployment training on gender equality and the elimination of sexual violence as well as to deepen understanding of local culture and religions.²⁴⁹ China has also emphasised the importance of women in building a “culture of inclusiveness” and stated its intent to provide training for technical specialists to create new opportunities for women in conflict/post-conflict societies.²⁵⁰

This emphasis on cultural training is illustrated in several South Korean pre-deployment courses that include modules on ‘understanding Islam’ for example. Wider regional cultural training and awareness is promoted through NARPI in areas such as peacebuilding, conflict transformation, restorative justice and mediation that aims to transform “the existing culture of animosity and militarism into a culture of peace and reconciliation”.²⁵¹ For both South Asia and Northeast Asia, cultural awareness and gender training is important, not only in creating more effective international peacekeepers, but also in contributing to regional peace and security.

While training centres such as KAIPTC have advanced regional approaches to gender training introducing, for example, an MA in Gender and Security, the wider mainstreaming of gender training from policy to practice has been problematic in Africa. According to a report by ACCORD, “Despite the predominance of women in crisis spots, peacekeepers are seldom trained in gender issues [...] more often, the integration of gender training in national and regional training curricula in support of peace support operations is ad hoc”.²⁵² This complicates and hinders the implementation of international frameworks such as UN Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.

²⁴⁸ UN Women. 2016. “Female peacekeepers take the helm, to end gender-based violence”.

<http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2015/5/female-peacekeepers-take-the-helm> [Accessed 26 Nov. 2016].

²⁴⁹ ‘The National Action Plan of the Republic of Korea for the Implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security’. 2014. Available at

http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/NationalActionPlans/republicofkorea_nap_2014.pdf [Accessed 24 Nov. 2016].

²⁵⁰ UN Security Council. 2016. “Meetings coverage and press releases”. SC/12304. 7658th Meeting.

<http://www.un.org/press/en/2016/sc12304.doc.htm> [Accessed 20 Nov. 2016].

²⁵¹ Northeast Asia Regional Peacebuilding Institute (NARPI). “About NARPI”. http://www.narpi.net/01_About_Narpi/AboutNARPI.html [Accessed 16 Nov. 2016].

²⁵² Irene Limo. 2015. “The Training for Peace Programme’s Contribution to Gender Mainstreaming in Africa’s Peace Operations”. *Conflict Trends*: 2: 44.



The AU has attempted to address some of these issues by developing an AU 'Gender Policy' in 2009 and publishing a *Gender Training Manual for AU Peace Support Operations* in 2013 to strengthen awareness and knowledge of gender in conflict and post conflict zones to be utilised for pre-deployment training, missions and debriefing sessions. Training institutions, like the IPSTC in Kenya, have also taken steps to institutionalise gender training across its courses; however, gender training is still predominantly limited to basic courses with gender discourse omitted from the more technical programmes such as the Joint Campaign Planning course.²⁵³

In terms of cultural specific training, missions such as AMISOM provide an 'African solution to an African problem' approach by providing African personnel to address African conflict and post-conflict scenarios. The rationale is that indigenous peacekeepers would be more culturally sensitive/aware than non-African personnel. While efforts are ongoing to enhance regional soft skills training, there is a clear need for more political engagement and investment at a national and sub-regional to implement and institutionalise gender and cultural training for AU and UN peace operations.

Moving forward, a UNMIL report identified six key areas for improving the delivery of gender training following a series of interviews with mission staff and research by the Gender Unit. These were:

- (i) Need to know: Learning outcomes must be clarified
- (ii) Foundation: Experience provides the basis for learning activities
- (iii) Self-concept: Participant involvement in planning and evaluation of instruction
- (iv) Readiness: Subject should have immediate relevance to their work
- (v) Orientation: Learning is problem-centred rather than content-oriented
- (vi) Motivation: Prioritise internal versus external motivators

This corresponds to some extent with the results of gender training fieldwork carried out by Angela McKay who states: 'The principal lesson learned from this pilot is that material needs to be presented in the utmost simplicity. Language, concepts, and examples need to be discussed in the most basic of formats and a variety of different training techniques need to be used to convey the material'.²⁵⁴ Courses such as 'Integrating Gender into Peacebuilding Training' spearheaded at the Centre for International Peace Operations (ZiF) in Berlin, are

²⁵³ Ecoma Alaga and Emma Birikorang. 2012. "Integrating Gender in Peacekeeping Training: An Approach from the ECOWAS Subregion". *Gender and Peacebuilding in Africa Occasional Papers* (2): 18.

²⁵⁴ Angela Mackay. 2003. "Training the Uniforms: Gender and Peacekeeping Operations". *Development in Practice*. 13: 2-3: 220.



vital in this regard by attempting to enable trainers in CPPB to mainstream gender training into all aspects of pre-deployment training, and therefore, no longer teach it as one multifaceted module.²⁵⁵

3.12 CONCLUSION

Finding common ground within all these training centres is a challenging task. With such a diverse range of nations and cultures actively participating in peace operations world-wide, standards, methods and effectiveness of training approaches vary considerably across the geographic divide. While efforts have been made at the UN level to provide standardised pre-deployment and specialised training materials for international peacekeeping contingents (through its online peacekeeping resource hub for example), the implementation of these procedures and subsequent evaluation and employment is not universally transparent.

Indeed, as previously mentioned, implementation of training, and maintenance of standards, is at the behest of national governments and is, therefore, likely tailored and influenced by a variety of national policy interests. Cases of peacekeeper misconduct (such as the recent finding of a UN Response Team of evidence of transactional sex and sex with minors in the DR Congo²⁵⁶) are likely, at least to some degree, a reflection of insufficient soft skills training and a predominantly male orientated military culture in some of the key troop contributing nations.

Several regions have produced multilateral strategic frameworks, which include developing more cross-cutting and standardised approaches to CPPB training, such as the ASEAN Political-Security Community Blueprint 2025 and the APSA Roadmap 2016-2020. Currently, however, multilateral CPPB training approaches are far less developed in other regions of the world in comparison to Europe. This is a significant shortcoming in developing regional approaches to peace operations training, transparency and creating an informed pool of expertise. While South Asian states, for example, currently supply the largest number of personnel for UN-PKOs, they shoulder only a minute percentage of the financial burden and have limited regional CPPB training facilities. GAP could potentially fill the training deficiency here.

Aside from some post-colonial states, such as Pakistan, English and French language competency skills for peacekeepers is universally underdeveloped. This can negatively impact effective communication on CPPB missions. Apart from Africa, where multilateral approaches to CPPB training are further developed, several regions lack meaningful multinational engagement in term of peace operations training. This is typically due to

²⁵⁵ See: Centre for International Peace Operations (ZiF). 2016.

²⁵⁶ See: UN News Centre. 2016. "UN sexual misconduct investigation in DR Congo finds violations and cases of abuse". <http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=53609#.WEIgbWePMpE> [Accessed 07 Dec. 2016].



regional tensions over sovereignty, political instability, ethnic strife, civil unrest etc.; issues that affect the EU far less in terms of engaging with neighbouring states multilaterally.

So what does this all mean in terms of SOTA of CPPB in training for GAP? The purpose of the report was to establish the current training approaches and operation mechanisms of CPPB in many of the two- hundred and seventy plus training centres/ institutions/ academies/ college around the world. While it would be difficult to mention every single country specific method of CPPB worldwide, it is interesting to analyse ‘lessons learned’ across a wide spectrum of countries. Regional approaches were examined in an effort to ascertain how GAP could be operational within the field of CPPB. Naturally, given the importance of UN in peacekeeping, it was given prominence in the early section of the report.

First and foremost, there are certain conclusions (some mentioned previously) that can be gleamed from the report. In terms of training:

- Training is extremely varied. From the case study method, to classroom based seminars, to online e-learning and simulation.
- There are diverse peace operations but also similar approaches
- Training Models are often based on UN materials, tools and guidelines
- Plethora of innovative approaches currently being applied.
- Given the dominance of ICT – information, communication, technology, most training courses now incorporate some level of distance based learning and often these courses are free and thereby cost effective. UNITAR, for instance offers a good standard of e-learning courses.
- What is essential is that effective training requires continual training, re-training.
- Courses on gender and culture are varied and much more work needs to be done in this area.
- While Asian countries send large numbers of personnel to the UN, they are less experienced in training than the EU for example.
- Specialised pre-deployment training could be more cognisant of national intricacies.

In terms of GAP, this could mean a generic universal training game in addition to regional/national specific games that can be informed by national training centres. As illustrated in the analysis, large-scale peacekeeping training exercises are a preferred approach in several regions, but are expensive and logistically complicated. GAP could potentially overcome some of these obstacles by facilitating multi-lingual remote access and mission tailored training programs.



Interestingly, a SIPRI workshop report from 2013 identified that Northeast Asian states would be more likely to continue contribution if they could commit to less controversial, non-lethal areas of peacekeeping and peacebuilding such as infrastructure, education, and health.²⁵⁷ This is an area GAP can contribute to, particularly in the advancement and promotion of remotely accessible soft skills training. More collaborative training for peacekeeping missions, particularly in soft skills, would not only increase trust and confidence in politically sensitive regions but also build more effective peacekeeping personnel internationally. There is a notable gender imbalance in deployment in some regions of the world, notably in South Asia. Taking the total contribution of military and police personnel by Pakistan and India as of August 2016 - just 60 personnel out of 14,572 were female.²⁵⁸ This is startling figure. Anecdotally at least, this would suggest that gender awareness and sexual violence training, for example, is less likely to be effective or impactful given such male dominated deployments. However, some advancement in training approaches has been initiated, such as the all-female officers course that was piloted in India in 2016. Clearly, more needs to be addressed in this area.

²⁵⁷ Xenia Avezov. 2013. "The new geopolitics of peace operations: a dialogue with emerging powers: North East Asia Regional Dialogue". *SIPRI Workshop Report: 4*.

²⁵⁸ UN Peacekeeping. 2016. "Contributions by Country".



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Folke Bernadotte Academy (FBA), <http://folkebernadotteacademy.se/>

European Initiative for the exchange of Military Young Officers, <http://www.emilyo.eu/>

European Peacebuilding Liaison Office (EPLO), <http://eplo.org/activities/training/>

European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Training (CEPOL), <https://www.cepola.europa.eu/>

FINCENT, <http://puolustusvoimat.fi/>

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Project Start Date: 1.9.2016

Project Duration: 30 months

2.5.

Review of CPPB relevant SOTA (state-of-the-art) in Soft Skills

Deliverable details	
Deliverable number	2.5
Author(s)	Jonny Byrne, University of Ulster
Due date	31 December 2016
Delivered date	27 November 2016
Reviewed by	Rowena Timms, UpSkill Belfast Anne Holohan, Trinity College Dublin, 29 December 2016
Dissemination level	PU
Contact person EC	Carla Rocha-Gomes

History of Changes			
Date	Version	Person in Charge	Description
27/11/2016	v0.1	Jonny Byrne, UU	First draft of document
13/12/2016	v0.2	Rowena Timms, Upskill	Second draft of document
15/12/2016	v0.3	Jonny Byrne (UU)	Third version of document
23/12/2016	v0.4	Vincent Wade and Anne Holohan (TCD)	Fourth version of document



4. REVIEW OF CPPB AND SOTA (STATE-OF-THE-ART) IN SOFT SKILLS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding are inevitably interagency activities. Military and security deployments are usually required to support political, social and economic goals and the intercultural nature of peacebuilding deployments are stretched by the need to operate in culturally challenging and politically sensitive environments. The requirement to work across technical and cultural boundaries engages skills and makes demands on personnel, which go beyond normal professional or technical competence and skills. Indeed, the ultimate success or failure of conflict prevention and peacebuilding missions may depend on the capacity of teams to recognise and utilise so-called 'soft' skills extensively, including empathy, listening, facilitation, mediation and team building.

The purpose of review 2.5 was to accurately and extensively define the State of the Art (SOTA) for soft skills and associated methods of training based on an evaluation of the literature and the past and on-going FP7 projects. More specifically the task was focused on examining what was considered to be the existing SOTA in the approach to soft skills training in the worldwide, EU, national and organizational contexts, exploring the development, implementation and evaluation of that training. Furthermore, the task was also focused on examining the SOTA of soft skills in CPPB in relevant serious games.

The review commences with an overview of theoretical concepts of peacebuilding, and an exploration of international organisations that have historically embraced the principles of peacebuilding within the operational design of their missions. There is also a focus on the European Union and its specific approach to peace building in terms of delivering programmes across its multiple missions. Following this is a comprehensive review of soft skills through both an academic and practitioner lens. The review considers the complexities surrounding definitions, concepts and assessing qualities associated with soft skills.

The review then moves to focus on the relationship between soft skills and law enforcement with an emphasis on how soft skills play a role in the operational delivery of policing. The analysis also encapsulates the training for officers and the assessments used to measure the impact of soft skills. Finally, the review concludes with a reflection of soft skills and gaming developed under the auspices of FP7.

4.2. EUROPEAN UNION, NGOS: PEACEBUILDING AND SOFT SKILLS

While 'peacebuilding' drew attention to the need to address a wide variety of socioeconomic and political issues underpinning violent conflict, there was no precise shared view of the extent or nature of this



engagement. For many activists and non-governmental organisations, peacebuilding became a synonym for processes of radical transformation in traditional power relations involving inter-connected socioeconomic, security and political actions to address the many contested issues of conflict, power and violence that underlie deep rooted political conflicts.

Within this context, peacebuilding described a form of reflective practice with personal, relational, structural and cultural dimensions in which the extent and nature of change was to be explored through experience-based theory developed in the field. As an engaged activity, theorists of activist peacebuilding emphasized that “Peacebuilding requires the building of relationships and trust, without which little can be accomplished. Yet neither relationships nor trust are easily measured in objective or quantitative ways”.²⁵⁹ Progress therefore depended on building a capacity for “active learning” including constant evaluation, where possible within collaborative learning communities and including an ability to put learning into action as analysis changed.

Within the NGO field, the literature and course development on peacebuilding training for non-military skills is extensive. Training courses are widely available, almost all including extensive focus on soft skills, usually including reflective learning and collaborative inter-sectorial practice. Typical of this kind of NGO training was the work of the highly regarded Centre for International Peace Operations (ZIF) in Berlin:

“As a comprehensive knowledge of different soft skills greatly enhances the ability to perform efficiently in a mission, the training covers topics like mediation, negotiation techniques and stress management, whereas people centred-approach, inter-cultural communication and gender, for example, are streamlined throughout the various training modules.”²⁶⁰

Modules on almost every NGO-based course cover soft-skill elements such as peace-building, cultural awareness, cross-cultural communication, conflict analysis, methods of third party intervention, gender and peace building, stress management, and working with trauma and mediation alongside more security and policy focused skills such as human rights and democratization, organized crime, personal safety, mine awareness and first aid. Similarly, consultancy organisations provide support for peacebuilding through negotiation, communication and conflict management, described as the keys to collaborative relationship management.

Inevitably, however, the transition from peace-keeping to peace-building by international organisations

²⁵⁹ Lederach, JP. 1997. *Building Peace: Sustainable Reconciliation in Divided Societies*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Institute of Peace Press

²⁶⁰ Lederach, JP, Reina Neufeldt, and, Hal Culbertson. 2007. “Reflective Peacebuilding: A Planning, Monitoring and Learning Toolkit,” Notre Dame, IN: Joan B Kroc Institute for International Peace Studies



involved complex inter-agency collaboration in highly sensitive political settings, including military, security and civilian aspects, and an uncertain process of transferring responsibility from international organisations to local institutions. Already in 1995, the challenges of inter-agency co-operation collaboration and negotiation were causing concern in the UN:

“Co-ordination has to date proved difficult to achieve. Each of the agencies concerned has its respective intergovernmental legislative body and its own mandate. In the past, there also has been insufficient interaction, in both directions, between those responsible in the Secretariat for designing and implementing peace-making, peace-keeping and peace-building activities and the international financial institutions, who often have an all-important say in making sure that the necessary resources are available.”²⁶¹

As the currency of ‘peacebuilding’ as an umbrella term for wider international intervention spread, the challenges of definition and practice increased. Peacebuilding missions were inherently “wicked problems”.²⁶² Peace missions were usually launched over short time periods and operated in unstable theatres, so that planning and operational management could not easily be standardized. Commitments to substantive institutional and social reform in weak post-conflict states generated unpredictable dynamics. And in every case they involved multiple actors and stakeholders co-operating across borders and usually operating in contested settings where small changes could have unpredictable consequences.²⁶³

A comprehensive review by Barnett et al in 2007 underlined this point: “Because there are multiple causes of conflict, almost any international assistance effort that addresses any perceived and real grievance can arguably be called ‘peacebuilding’. Even UN agencies appeared to adopt different definitions. The Japanese government even used peacebuilding to describe its overarching general approach extending from conflict prevention to reconciliation.

In international organisations, peacebuilding had therefore evolved into an umbrella term describing all external interventions that are designed to prevent the eruption or return of armed conflict with four broad categories of intervention- security and military, socioeconomic, political and diplomatic and justice and reconciliation- deployed in varying combinations by different organisations in different settings.”²⁶⁴

²⁶¹ Supplement to An Agenda for Peace’. New York: United Nations, 1995 available at <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/docs/50/plenary/a50-60.htm>, 22.

²⁶² Weber, E, and Khademian, A. 2008. “Wicked Problems, Knowledge Challenges, and Collaborative Capacity Builders in Network Settings,” in *Public Administration Review*, 68: 334-349.

²⁶³ Bossong, R. 2012. EU civilian crisis management and organisational learning, Economics of Security Working Paper 62, (Berlin: EUSECON, 2012), 10, available at https://www.diw.de/documents/publikationen/73/diw_01.c.399451.de/diw_econsec0062.pdf

²⁶⁴ Barnett, Michael; Kim, Hunjoon; O'Donnell, Madalene; Sitea, Laura. 2007. "Peacebuilding: What Is in a Name?" *Global Governance*. 13: 44.



Yet, as if to underline the difficulties, an OECD Report in 2008 noted that: “Achievements in conflict prevention and peacebuilding cannot be evaluated without a clear vision of what kind of peace should be built – making it all the more important for those planning, implementing or evaluating peace work to be clear about what meanings or implicit definitions are in use. Making implicit understandings of peace explicit will be useful to both evaluator and planner and will help co-ordination.”²⁶⁵

The EU and Peacebuilding

Much of this conceptual complexity and uncertainty was reflected in the evolution of peacebuilding within the European Union. EU Peacebuilding was inherently complex, requiring co-ordination across the various Directorates of the Commission, member states, co-ordination between military, security and civilian elements and the demands of institutions, politics, geography, culture and language of each mission²⁶⁶. Although the EU formally embraced a multidimensional and comprehensive approach to peacebuilding, with an emphasis on long-term and integrated prevention activities addressing root causes of conflict, the development of policy did not result in a single coherent doctrine of peacebuilding. Indeed Barnett et al found that the European Agencies were more likely to avoid the term peacebuilding “in favour of alternative monikers such as civilian crisis management.”²⁶⁷

While the Peacebuilding programmes of the European Union were premised on liberal priorities of strong political democratic institutions built on elected political representation and a market economy as necessary conditions for establishing a lasting peace, the priority attached in individual missions to establishing institutions of government and rule of law, democratic liberal governance, and reforms to welfare and social justice varied. According to a comprehensive review of EU Activities in 2011:

“the EU approach to peacebuilding evolved into a myriad of practices and concepts that included such diverse types of activities as dialogue and mediation (including preventive diplomacy), law enforcement and reform of the justice sector, tackling trans- regional and cross-border threats such as terrorism, illegal immigration, trafficking of drugs and arms and human trafficking, piracy, democratization, elections and electoral reform, human rights, security aspects of climate change, and governance of natural resources in conflict.”²⁶⁸

²⁶⁵ OECD. 2008. Guidance on Evaluating Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding Activities, Paris: 2008, 15.

²⁶⁶ Merket, H. 2016. “The EU and the Security-Development Nexus: Bridging the Legal Divide”, Leiden: Brill-Nijhoff, 2016, 153.

²⁶⁷ Ibid.

²⁶⁸ Natorski, M. 2011. “The European Union Peacebuilding Approach: Governance and Practices of the Instrument for Stability”, PRIF Report No.111, Frankfurt: Peace Research Institute, 2011, 2.



The resulting picture was of iterative and gradual change rather than strategic coherence:

“The current EU peacebuilding approach is the result of evolving policy practices and not of a preconceived general policy. As a reaction to the international debates on peacebuilding, the EU adopted a mosaic of dispersed documents on specific priorities that later were progressively incorporated into EU activities.”²⁶⁹

Raphael Bossong found little evidence of a systematic capacity for learning lessons.²⁷⁰ An evaluation of Commission support for Conflict Prevention and Peace Building (CPPB) found that there was no systematic approach to conflict analysis, conflict sensitivity or mainstreaming. Clear concepts of peace building at policy level were not always reflected at operational, or even strategic, level. While the Commission reacted quickly to conflicts, the transition to long-term prevention was poor.

In practical terms, the report found that fragmentation of responsibility on CPPB issues obstructed the development of a common and coherent approach to CPPB. This was reflected in the absence of appropriate Human Resources policy in relation to hiring specialised staff and inadequate attention to training, the impact of CPPB in career development and the knowledge management on CPPB. Although the Commission developed a series of tools and guidance for CPPB, the toolbox did not bridge gaps between high-level policy commitments and concrete implementation, as it “lacked operational, clarity and comprehensiveness and was not widely used or known within the Commission.”²⁷¹

Finally, the report concluded that the Commission’s support was generally not geared to tackling the root causes of conflict, but rather to mitigating their consequences or to provision of “classic” development support in a conflict context and that while the Commission offered training in HQ in various CPPB-related fields (e.g. conflict prevention, mediation, SSR, LRRD, anti-corruption, Early warning systems, etc.), the training events were not compulsory for the staff working on CPPB issues and many staff interviewed had not taken part in CPPB-related training.²⁷²

²⁶⁹ Ibid.

²⁷⁰ Bossong, R. 2012. EU civilian crisis management and organisational learning, Economics of Security Working Paper 62, (Berlin: EUSECON, 2012), 10, available at https://www.diw.de/documents/publikationen/73/diw_01.c.399451.de/diw_econsec0062.pdf

²⁷⁰ Barnett, Michael; Kim, Hunjoon; O'Donnell, Madalene; Sitea, Laura. 2007. "Peacebuilding: What Is in a Name?" *Global Governance*.

13:

²⁷¹ Ibid.

²⁷² Ibid.



4.3. TRAINING AND SOFT SKILLS FOR EU PEACEBUILDING

In a review of EU Foreign Policy, the European Council highlighted the unique ability of the EU to “combine, in a coherent and consistent manner, policies and tools ranging from diplomacy, security and defence to finance, trade, development and human rights, as well as justice and migration” (Brussels Foreign Affairs Council Meeting, 12th May, 2014). Within this commitment, the Council highlighted the need for a “coherent, coordinated, comprehensive and effective EU approach” involving multiple partners and stakeholders.

An International Alert report found that managers in peacebuilding missions were limited in their ability to provide innovative and dynamic leadership during peacebuilding periods because their job responsibilities tend to be narrowly defined and because internal management systems are time-consuming. The OECD found that external actors, who provide support to peace processes needed to incentivise collaborative leadership, support a learning culture and improve institutional flexibility. The report called on all peace missions to “ensure that experts engaged in international support to peace processes complement expertise in a functional area with a broader and more varied skill set that includes strong interpersonal skills and the ability to see the bigger picture. Recruitment, training and roster composition should reflect this.”²⁷³

Both the academic literature and field reports repeatedly underline the central importance of effective collaboration and interagency co-ordination and co-operation between security, police and civilian personnel on complex and challenging missions in pursuit of this goal. The predominant picture emerging from the literature on EU peacebuilding is of continuing weaknesses in definition, co-ordination, collaboration and consistency of training and lesson learning. The participation of personnel from different states and the complexity of stakeholders and management institutions at the international level generated high demands for operational and political coordination. In addition to professional competence (‘hard skills’), the reports through the National College for Teaching and Leadership on CPPB point to the need for collaborative teams functioning in complex environments to be competent to respond to persistent relational, intercultural and intellectual challenges, combining social, analytical and emotional intelligence.

Peacebuilding literature therefore both points to a requirement to provide training and learning support for teams which can solve complex problems, communicate accurately and efficiently, work in multi-cultural and inter-professional groups to common purposes and share analysis of lessons learned and consistently notes its weakness. The demands on CPPB missions can be understood as particularly complex examples of challenges

²⁷³ OECD. 2012. “Improving International Support to Peace Processes”, (Paris: OECD, 2012), 52.



facing all inter-disciplinary teams including managing gender and human rights issues, establishing ethical behaviour and negotiating complex issues.

“The message for professionals is that they have to work together in a more co-operative way. What exactly this means in practice poses big questions. Professionals are trained to operate in cadres of ‘expertise’, who are associated with being able to be specialised in relatively small domains of knowledge though with great depth and highly developed skills. In a professional world of experts, individuals become keen on supporting their own fields and their individual attachments. What the new governance imperatives demands from these professionals was the ability to move beyond such fields, learn and share knowledge and skills with each other.”²⁷⁴

The initial scoping exercise on peace building revealed that ‘sharing learning, best practice and experiences’ on missions was not common practice between NGOs and the variety of state actors. Furthermore, it was consistently recognised that narratives surrounding the catalysts for international involvement in particular missions were not shared internally at the operational aspect of the missions. In terms of training there was still a common view that ambiguity underpinned terms and actions associated with the delivery of peacebuilding work, and there was limited consistency in ensuring international actors trained their personnel in similar approaches.

4.4. UNDERSTANDING SOFT SKILLS

Competencies and Soft skills for CPPB

The type of skills necessary for successful complex collaboration in CPPB missions are difficult to teach in conventional educational settings. Such new skills and competences are commonly defined as “21st century skills” in opposition to the 20th century skills (Wisniewski, 2010) based on the 3Rs of Reading, wRighting, and aRithmetic. The 21st century requires a new set of competences beyond the obvious information and communication technology (ICT) literacy: communication, collaboration, social and cultural skills, creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, productivity in a globalized world, e-learning to learn skills, self-direction, planning, flexibility, risk taking, conflict management and a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship.

Redecker et al in the Joint Research Center report for the European Commission looked at the issue from the perspective of three general categories: (1) personal skills (Initiative, resilience, responsibility, risk taking and

²⁷⁴ Bristol’s Children Fund.2004. University of the West of England, A Review of Partnership and Multi-Agency Working: An Inquiry Funded by the Bristol Children’s Fund, (Bristol, UWE, 2004), 10. <https://skillsforjustice-ppf.com/home/>



creativity); (2) social skills (team, networking, empathy, compassion, and co-constructing); and (3) learning skills (managing, organizing, metacognitive skills and failing forward). From an ICT perspective, Dede included the following in a list of newly acquired abilities: “information problem solving” or “the ability to rapidly filter huge amounts of incoming data; extracting information valuable for decision making”.²⁷⁵

The 21st century CPPB mission, with multiple causal factors and diverse organizations struggling to respond to multiple demands in a chaotic environment, clearly demonstrates the need for flexibility, communication, and collaboration that underpin the idea of ‘soft skills’. This is particularly challenging when the training within each organization and the task they are responsible for in CPPB mission is highly structured with clearly defined roles and responsibilities, and a clear chain of command and communication structure.

The exploration of soft skills from an academic perspective reveals the distinct lack of clarity around the concept, and some frustration around defining outputs associated with the various skill sets. It quickly becomes apparent that a significant number of measurement processes are conducted in a non-standardised format and that some of the supposed skills being tested are not actually skills per se but instead viewed more independently as emotions and traits.

Research on ‘Soft Skills’

It is suggested that the term ‘soft skills’ is a ‘phrase in search of meaning’.²⁷⁶ Widely used in the lexicon of business, management, communication, education and social studies, it is often presumed that the individual understands what ‘soft skills’ actually are, even though the term itself lacks scope, definition and instrumentalisation.²⁷⁷ The skills are presumed to be interpersonal in nature, with a strong emphasis on the social, communicative, emotional, and empathetic side but there is no shared understanding of what each skill is - at least, not in academia.

National Careers Service have said that the top ten core soft skills that employees should seek to develop over the course of their careers are:

²⁷⁵ See Wisniewski, M. A. (2010). Leadership and the millennials: Transforming today’s technological teens into tomorrow’s leaders. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 9, 53–68.. Voogt, J., & Roblin, N. P. (2012). A comparative analysis of international frameworks for 21st century competences: Implications for national curriculum policies. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 44, 299–321. Redecker, C., Leis, M., Leendertse, M., Punie, Y., Gijsbers, G., & Kirschner, P. (2011). *The future of learning: Preparing for change*: JRC-IPTS. Retrieved July 25, 2013, from <http://ipts.jrc.ec.europa.eu/publications/pub.cfm?id%4719>. Dede, C. (2010). Comparing frameworks for 21st century skills. In J. Bellanca & R. Brandt. (Eds.), *21st century skills: Rethinking how students learn* (Vol. 20, pp. 51–76). Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.

²⁷⁶ Bristol’s Children Fund.2004. University of the West of England, A Review of Partnership and Multi-Agency Working: An Inquiry Funded by the Bristol Children’s Fund, (Bristol, UWE, 2004), 10. <https://skillsforjustice-ppf.com/home/>

²⁷⁷ Ibid.



- Communicating;
- Making decisions;
- Showing commitment;
- Flexibility;
- Time management;
- Leadership skills;
- Creativity;
- Problem-solving skills;
- Being a team player;
- Accepting responsibility;
- Ability to work under pressure.

While there appears to be no tension within employer and executive level interpretations of what soft skills mean to them even if the key skill sets differ slightly. Robles suggests that integrity, communication, courtesy, responsibility, social skills, positive attitude, professionalism, flexibility, teamwork, and work ethics are the skills thought most important by executive level managers;²⁷⁸ and Dixon et al who suggest that there are only five key soft skills needed for corporate finance – teamwork, problem-solving, decision-making, communication skills, and working under pressure, as examples), the tensions within academia are evident and there exists very limited agreement.

Academics researching this area have created various typologies and taxonomies, which they believe have greater significance given the methodological rigour which underpins such research exercises. Because of this, the University Forum for Human Resource Development (UFHRD) has pointed out that some think ‘this means that the field of soft skill is forever destined to be a confused one; a morass of traits, attitudes and qualities, emanating from the idealised and normative wish lists of employers or the theoretical models of academics. The fact is that constructs of soft skill have still come to prominence, and with that a need to demarcate an area of assessment and development.’²⁷⁹ Because of this it is important to ask specifically: what are the soft skills that we are trying to develop throughout the course of this research? How might we measure them? And how might we train people with a view to enhancing their soft skills, and any perceived deficiencies within certain skillsets?

The emergence of soft skills as an area of study

One of the key early theorists around this area was Robert L. Katz, a social psychologist from Harvard who is most noted for his work from 1974 on ‘Skills of an Effective Administrator’. In this work, Katz identified three

²⁷⁸ Robles, M. 2011. ‘Executive Perceptions of the Top 10 Soft Skills Needed in Today’s Workplace’ *Business Communication Quarterly*, 75 (4), pp. 453-465.

²⁷⁹ University Forum for Human Resource Development (UFHRD) (no date) ‘The Crux of Candour; Assessing and Developing Soft Skill. P.4. Available online at: <http://www.ufhrd.co.uk/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2012/11/UFHRD2012Vocational18.pdf>



skill sets – technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills – as key to the effective management of any organization. While he did not use the language of ‘soft skills’ in this seminal piece, it is clear to contemporary writers that the characteristics contained in his definition of human skills and conceptual skills have overlap and synergy with contemporary writers. That said, the emergence of soft skills as an area of study is still a fairly recent phenomenon, at least if measured by the frequency of the use of the term in journal article titles over the course of the years.

In part, this is because soft skills have been defined at different times as “emotional intelligence”, “individual skills” “emotional competencies” “soft aptitudes” and the “soft side of work” among other things.²⁸⁰ The earliest references to ‘soft skills’ specifically in literature date back to the early 1970s and references within the US Army Training Manuals which stated that soft skills were ‘job related skills involving actions affecting primarily people and paper, e.g inspecting troops, supervising office personnel, conducting studies, preparing maintenance reports, preparing efficiency reports, designing bridge structures’. At the heart of the early literature is an emphasis on ‘skills’ in general and then drawing on the related terminology.

In their consideration of ‘skills’, Matterson et al’s review of the literature begins with the competing definitions of ‘skills’ and highlights Tim Peterson and David Van Fleet’s (2004) definition as: “the ability either to perform some specific behavioural task or the ability to perform some specific cognitive process that is functionally related to some particular task.”²⁸¹ Scott Hurrell, Dora Scholarios, and Paul Thompson suggest that a skill is something that ‘develops over time, with practice; involves cognitive processes and manipulation of knowledge . . . and includes an element of discretion that allows performance with economy of effort’. In their own analysis, Matterson et al conclude that ‘Among the various definitions of *skill*, the concept of execution is central in all of them. That is, *skill* implies the prerequisites of having and accessing certain knowledge, processes, or sequences of behaviour leading to a specific performance. However, for something to be considered a skill, it must contain an element of action’.²⁸² Conscious that the linguistic precision around what ‘skills’ and associated terminology might mean, Matterson et al. have developed some operational definitions which try to give clarity to this complexity. These include:

‘Skills: The ability to access knowledge from a domain-specific knowledge base and use that knowledge to perform an action or carry out a task.

²⁸⁰ Ibid

²⁸¹ Matteson, M. L., Anderson, Lorien., & Boyden, Cynthia. 2015. ‘Soft Skills’: A Phrase in Search of Meaning’. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy*, 16 (1), pp. 71-88

²⁸² Ibid



Dispositions: Individual qualities, relatively stable over time, that influence behaviour and actions performed as part of an individual's skill set.

Attitudes: A positive or negative judgment, based in part on emotion, about an outside entity.

Beliefs: An acceptance that certain factual evidence is true, informed by an individual's own values.

Values: General standards or principles that guide behaviours among varying situations and to which individuals feel a strong commitment.'

Where the literature moves to consider 'soft skills' more particularly, ***there is no consensus nor universally accepted list of soft skills.***²⁸³ By drawing on lists from a range of authors, Matteson et al suggest that the following 'skills' are good examples:²⁸⁴

- Sociability;
- Self-management;
- Communication skills;
- Ethics;
- Diversity sensitivity;
- Teamwork skills;
- Problem-solving or critical thinking abilities;
- Customer service competencies;
- Emotional intelligence;
- Leadership skills.

What is clear is that there are problems with some of the research conducted in the area of 'soft skills' because some of the supposed skills being tested are not actually skills per se but instead become confused with traits or dispositions, behaviours, and knowledge sets. As Matteson et al have argued this necessitates the need for better constructs and clarity in soft skills research.

Subsets of soft skills

Many subsets of soft skills have been studied and considered including the term 'interpersonal skills' by Cameron Klein, Renee DeRouin, and Eduardo Salas.²⁸⁵ The relationship between emotional intelligence and

²⁸³ Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Adriane Arteche, Andrew J. Bremner, Corina Greven, and Adrian Furnham, (2010) "Soft Skills in Higher Education: Importance and Improvement Ratings as a Function of Individual Differences and Academic Performance," *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology* 30, 2 (2010): 221–41

²⁸⁴ Matteson, M. L., Anderson, Lorie., & Boyden, Cynthia. 2015. 'Soft Skills': A Phrase in Search of Meaning'. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy*, 16 (1), pp. 71-88

²⁸⁵ Klein, C., Renee E. DeRouin, and Eduardo Salas 2006. "Uncovering Workplace Interpersonal Skills: A Review, Framework, and Research Agenda," chap. 3 in *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, eds. Gerard P. Hodgkinson and J. Kevin



soft skills has been highlighted regularly, by scholars including who presented a model of emotional intelligence with twenty-five competencies arrayed in five clusters:

1. The Self-Awareness Cluster (incl. emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence);
2. The Self-regulation Cluster (incl. self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability and innovation);
3. The Motivation Cluster (incl. achievement drive, commitment, initiative and optimism);
4. The Empathy Cluster (incl. understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity and political awareness);
5. The Social Skills Cluster (incl. influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation and team capabilities.

Many of the characterisations of emotional intelligence overlap with other scholar's interpretations of soft skills. This is echoed in the ways in which soft skills has been considered in the literature in a range of very bespoke subject areas such as soft skills in procurement soft skills in total quality management, soft skills in higher education, soft skills and surgical performance to soft skills in software development.²⁸⁶ The subject heading of 'soft skills' is actually the only main point of commonality between each of them since each focus on slightly different, sometimes complementary and sometimes-contradictory skill sets in practice.

4.5. COMPETENCE, COMPETENCY AND SOFT SKILLS FOR CPPB

Competence can be defined as skills (or abilities) and the knowledge possessed by that person. Competency, however, is be defined as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes applied appropriately to a context in order to achieve a desired outcome. The importance of this distinction is that the knowledge, skill and attitude is being considered as a behaviour (i.e. it combines the use of knowledge, skill and attitude) within a context. Thus competence can be considered as a skill and standard of performance, while competency references the behaviour by which it is observed. From the perspective of the GAP Project, we are focused on the competencies which encompass soft skills and focused on assessing the competency of agents (i.e. learners in the GAP curriculum) demonstrating those behaviours.

Ford (West Sussex, U.K.: Wiley), 79–126.

²⁸⁶ See Dubey, R., & Gunasekaran, A. eds. 2016. *Strategic Management of Sustainable Manufacturing Operations*. Hershey, PA; IGI Global. García, M.G., López, C.B., Molina, E.C., Casas, E.E. & Morales, Y.A.R. (2016), "Development and evaluation of the team work skill in university contexts. Are virtual environments effective?", *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 13, pp1-11

Maschuw, K., Schlosser, K., Kupietz, E., Slater, E.P., Weyers, P. & Hassan, I. 2011, "Do Soft Skills Predict Surgical Performance?", *World journal of surgery*, 35 (3), pp. 480-486. Ahmed, F., Capretz, L.F., Bouktif, S. & Campbell, P. 2012. "Soft skills requirements in software development jobs: a cross-cultural empirical study", *Journal of Systems and Information Technology*, 14, (1), pp. 58-81.



In industry and academia, competence and competency models have emerged as valuable tools employed by training departments or human resources departments. They are used to define skills and knowledge requirements of specific jobs, to assess competency and performance, and to help set business strategy. They typically consist of the identification of the specific competences (skills and knowledge) and behaviours (activities) linked with each competence. Use of such competences and competency models are emerging in business and workforce management. For example, the US Department of Labour sponsor a 'Competency Model Clearing house' to understand and identify the skills set and competencies that are essential to education and train a globally competitive workforce. There is growing application of competency assessment for workplace skills. Such assessment focuses on the assessing the observable behaviour which combines the use of knowledge, skill and attitude within particular contexts.

An example of the application of competence and behaviour ratings can be seen in University of Berkley's performance management toolkit.²⁸⁷ The university, for certain job descriptions such as managers and supervisors, defines core competence groupings (e.g. Inclusiveness Problem Solving and Decision Making, Communication etc.) and specific competences in each grouping. It also defines behavioural anchors matrix for each of these specific competencies and a rating which describes which behaviours is associated with which rating of a competence. In this system the performance assessment is manual. The assessed competencies include soft skills as well as domain specific skills.

As mentioned earlier, in general industry does not have a common agreement on how competencies or skills are defined or represented. Organisations use different models with various ways of labelling and categorising competencies depending on their context of use. Current practice in assessing competency are typically embedded in talent management systems or Learning Management systems and involve a range of evaluation assessments, reflections and 360⁰ feedback.

EU Research initiatives in Competency Assessment

Several EU projects have focused on different aspects of Competency Assessment. The EU DEVELOP Project focuses on Developing Careers through Social Network and Transversal Competencies.²⁸⁸ It is seeking to develop an online personalized learning environment for transversal competencies As part of the project, it is defining a framework for the assessment of transversal skills using game-based assessment, social network analysis and self-reporting tools. Work is in its early stages with results not expected until 2018.

²⁸⁷ <http://hr.berkeley.edu/sites/default/files/attachments/behavioral-anchors-matrix-core-competencies.pdf>

²⁸⁸ Transversal Competencies are competencies which occur across jobs and occupations which can be acquired through formal and informal learning as well as work and non-work activities (Develop Project <http://www.develop-project.eu/project>) . Thus Transversal Competencies include many 'soft skills' including for example communication, decision making, collaboration & teamwork etc.



Another related EU project in the area of Competencies is CompAssess which is seeking to develop an Open Framework for Transversal Competence Assessment. The project is seeking to establish a European network in the field of transversal competences and identify best practice experience, tools and assessment methodologies. The open framework, focused on seven competencies, is still in beta-version and some early implementation feedback is being reported.

The exploration of soft skills from an academic perspective reveals the distinct lack of clarity around the concept, and some frustration around defining outputs associated with the various skill sets. It quickly becomes apparent that a significant number of measurement processes are conducted in a non-standardised format and that some of the supposed skills being tested are not actually skills per se but instead viewed more independently as emotions and traits.

4.6. LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SOFT SKILLS

“Law enforcement professionals are very proficient when it comes to technical skills. They're trained and tested on numerous processes, procedures, and competencies including firearm handling, search and seizure, arrest protocol, emergency vehicle operations, traffic laws, and much more. But one thing is notably missing from most training programs, especially for leaders is an emphasis on, so-called soft skills and that lack of skill is keeping many officers (and by extension, their teams) from reaching their full potentials.”²⁸⁹

Effective policing occurs when officers and members of the public partner to create safe and crime-free communities. This partnership requires that officers display not only strong technical capabilities but also interpersonal skills. Therefore, law enforcement agencies must train their officers on how to interact effectively with the public. The concept of police legitimacy is central to this motivation. This relationship helps foster a sense of obligation and shared values.

Police legitimacy is primarily fostered by perceptions of police fairness, and more so than by perceptions of police effectiveness. Thus, by interacting with members of the public in ways the police are regarded as procedurally fair, and in turn the police should be able to help reduce crime by ‘winning hearts and minds’, and encouraging voluntary cooperation and compliance from the public. Furthermore, by reducing overall demand levels, fairness might also enable the police to concentrate their resources on the areas of greatest harm.

²⁸⁹ Alston, R. and Haley, D. 2013. The Leader's Compass for Law Enforcement Professionals: A Values-Based Approach to Influencing People, Accomplishing Goals, and Improving Your Organization. Academy Leadership Publishing. P.41



Donohue²⁹⁰ relates that, ‘in order to successful counter criminal behaviour through law enforcement activity, combined agency projects need to cooperate to counter criminal enterprise’.

The United Kingdom (UK) College of Policing undertook a survey in 2013 amongst UK Police Officers in order to determine, ‘the importance of good communication and customer service. (UK College of Policing: The Impact of Communication Skills Training on Officers and Victims of Crime.) The report highlighted that improving the communication and customer service skills of police officers can significantly improve ‘quality of interaction’ and how the public and the victims of crime feel about their experience and treatment by the police during their interactions. The same study also highlighted significant differences in approach between the trained and untrained officers.

The trained officers in general showed a distinctly different approach to interactions with the public and held more positive views about delivering a quality service. They showed greater awareness of the need to listen, recognising the value of building empathy and rapport with victims, and reported making decisions that involved the victim in the process. Pertinent aspects highlighted that the right communications and customer service training could make a significant difference to how police officers and police staff interact and engage with the public and could considerably improve both public confidence and police performance. The training requirement highlighted was captioned, ‘Soft skills or core skills’ and was initiated to provide the police service with the opportunity to gain deep insight in how to develop outstanding customer service in policing and specifically how their Communications and Customer Service learning programme (CCS) could assist all UK police forces, large and small to transform the quality and effectiveness of their in house learning and delivery of customer service force wide.

The UK Policing Professional Framework provides National Rank Profiles for Officers and Level Profiles for staff based on National Occupational Standards (NOS). NOS are statements of the standards of performance individuals must achieve when carrying out functions in the workplace, together with the underpinning knowledge and understanding, often including behaviours and soft skills. NOS are designed with a representative sample of employers and other key stakeholders and subject to regulatory processes across the UK before being released for general use. The National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA) decided to take the Policing NOS and embed them, through the professional framework, in all their roles to provide a standardised approach across different regions, and to bring together in one place the standards of practice

²⁹⁰ Donohue, L.K. 2006. *Anti-Terrorist Finance in the United Kingdom and United States*. Georgetown University Law Centre. Georgetown Public Law and Legal Theory Research Paper No. 12-031. Georgetown Business Economics and Regulatory Law Research Paper No.12 010. P.347



linked to NOS and supplementary skills sets linked to each Rank or Level. Through skills for justice one can access an example of a Constable with soft skills present in both the NOS, and manage conflict.

Personal Qualities: **Table 4.1: Policing Professional Framework Roles:**

Policing Professional Framework (PPF)	Constable: The frontline of the criminal justice system and community engagement. Under general supervision, but often operating independently. Responsible for the protection of life and property, the prevention and detection of crime and the maintenance of public order through a range of sworn powers in line with organisational standards
National Occupational Standards (NOS)	Personal Qualities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision making • Leadership • Professionalism • Public service • Working with others

Taking 'Manage Conflict' as an example the NOS states, this unit covers managing conflict i.e. recognising and dealing with a range of behaviours and actions. The first element is about responding in ways that do not provoke conflict, and seeking to defuse situations where such behaviour is present. The second element is about the appropriate use of personal safety skills and equipment. Personal safety skills include self-defence and restraint. This unit has been developed primarily for use within the policing and law enforcement sector. There are then 16 performance criteria, which include, as an example:

- P4 communicate with people in a way that
 - P4.1 shows respect for them, their property and their rights
 - P4.2 is appropriate to them
 - P4.3 is free from discrimination and oppressive behaviour
- P6 ensure that your own actions and words signal non-aggression at the appropriate times
- P7 remain alert to verbal and non-verbal communication pertaining to danger cues
- P8 take action to defuse conflict that
 - P8.1 will not make the situation worse and promotes calmness and reassurance
 - P8.2 is consistent with your organisations policies, procedures, and your legal responsibilities and training



Underpinning knowledge supports this and understanding statements to ensure individuals are able to complete the performance criteria, including as an example:

Table 4.2: Performance Criteria

• K1 the importance of showing respect for people, their property and their rights, and how to do so
• K2 behaviour or languages that may show other people you are being discriminatory or oppressive
• K3 the use of actions, gestures and body language to manage conflict
• K4 how to gather information necessary to manage conflict
• K5 how to assess signs, behaviour and actions, and identify those which may lead to conflict
• K6 the types of constructive behaviour you can take to defuse situations
• K7 your legal responsibilities with regard to dealing with behaviour that may lead to conflict

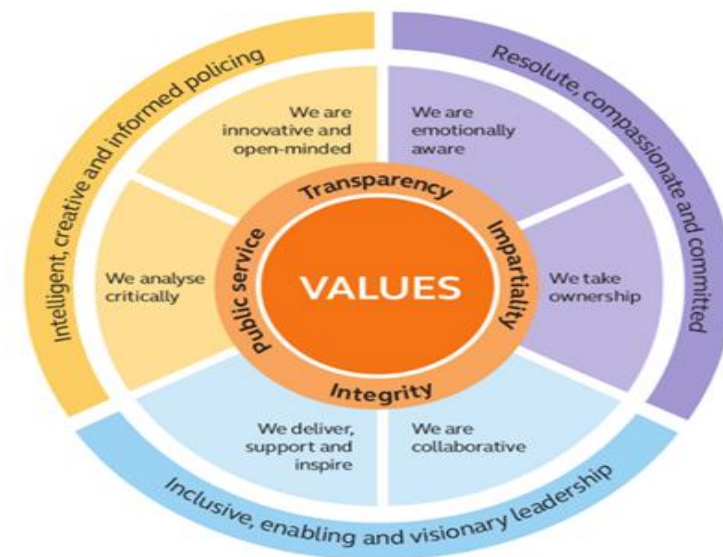
In the NOS there is additional information to support individual's understanding of what is expected. More specifically this relates to the various ways to communicate, with a specific emphasis on:

- Language and speech;
- Actions, gestures and body language;
- Space and position

Within the UK Policing Professional Framework underlying competencies and values have also been identified, many of which could be described as soft skills.



Figure 4.1 - UK Policing Professional Framework



Purpose and Aims

Police Constable Andy Mills one of the authors of the research, UK College of Policing: The Impact of Communication Skills Training on Officers and Victims of Crime commented, 'so why does customer service in policing continue to have such a bad rap and why do many still see this topic as just 'soft and fluffy' stuff or as one media outlet recently described it as 'politeness skills'. He further suggested that, 'it is my belief that there are two main reasons for this, firstly there is a lack of a common understanding as to what good customer service really is and its value to an organisation and secondly there is some confusion about what these skills actually are and how to develop them. There is also a cultural belief within the police service that many officers already possess outstanding communication skills and this type of learning is teaching experienced officers to suck eggs'.

The report survey interacted with individual officers and identified through comments expressed therein, 'that the majority will talk openly about the importance of good communication skills, although when you ask them how they could improve their own communication skills they will suggest that they don't really need to as they already possess these skills, often gained through years of experience and little if any structured learning on the subject, although they are not slow in identifying other officers who in their opinion lack these kind of skills'. (The Impact of Communication Skills Training on Officers and Victims of Crime. Further to this the importance of police strategy and behaviour has been emphasised, with researchers recommending that all members of



the public be treated equally, fairly and with dignity and respect. Research also recommends that police officers should strive to engage and work with local communities, communicating with the public showing empathy, understanding and building trust.²⁹¹ Mills believes that police officers often gain these skill sets with public encounters, and can improve their individual ability thereby improving 'quality of interaction'. This is specifically relevant when police officers are:

- Conducting street/traffic stops
- Carrying out Stop and search
- Dealing with victim/offender
- Dealing with victims of crime, repeat victims and Anti-Social Behaviour
- Handling 101 and 999's calls
- Attending community meetings and events
- During public initiated contacts

Mills opines that, 'learning designed to improve the quality of interaction is the single most effective way to improve the experience of people who use police services and integral to this is how the customer feels they have been treated during the interaction' further suggested, 'this requires real leading edge learning and development and not half a day event talking about the theory of service and then expecting everyone to suddenly become professional communicators and advocates of customer service'. A common recommendation in the police training literature is to ensure that training initiatives are consistent with the principles underlying adult learning. This in turn impacts directly on individual behaviours and reactions through problem-based learning activities which tap into the complex skills related to the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy²⁹², including the critical thinking and communication skills that are at the core of a police officer's everyday job responsibilities.²⁹³

²⁹¹ Girling, E., Loader, I. and Sparks, R. (2000). *Crime and Social Change in Middle England: Questions of Order in an English Town*. London: Routledge. Bradford, B., Jackson, J. and Stanko, E. 2009. 'Contact and Confidence: Revisiting the Impact of Public Encounters with the Police', *Policing and Society*, 19: 20–46

²⁹² Bloom, B.S., Engelhart, M.D., Furst, E.J., Hill, W.H. and Krathwohl, D.R. 1956. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Book 1 Cognitive Domain*, Longman, White Plains, NY.

²⁹³ Cleveland, G. 2006. "Using problem-based learning in police training", *The Police Chief*, Vol. 73 No. 11, www.policchiefmagazine.org/magazine/index.cfm?fuseaction=display_arch&article_id=1051&issue_id=112006



4.7. SO WHAT ARE 'SOFT SKILLS' IN POLICING?

Soft skills are the personal attributes that allow all persons to effectively relate to others. These skills enhance personal interactions and lead to greater job performance and satisfaction. Unlike hard skills, which are the technical and knowledge skill set we bring to our work, soft skills are interpersonal and can be applied in a broad array of situations. Soft skills encompass both personality traits, such as optimism, and abilities, which can be practiced, such as empathy. Like all skills, soft skills can be learned. Alston suggests that, "there's a common misconception that law enforcement leaders don't really need to refine their people skills; after all, who cares how 'nice' you are when you're hooking and booking bad guys?"²⁹⁴

Specifically, Alston underpins the mind-set that law enforcement leaders need to be able to cultivate productive relationships with subordinates, peers, supervisors, and members of the public (all of whom may want different things) while meeting objectives, overseeing training, boosting morale, staying focused on the mission, and (hopefully) being guided by a set of core values... and those things don't just happen they require well-developed soft skills. "But the truth is, there's a lot more too effective leadership than knowing rules and regulations and being able to assign tasks to squad members, for example."²⁹⁵

However soft skills are personal attributes that also allow one person to effectively relate to another and applying these skills helps build stronger work relationships, work more productively, and maximise career prospects. Often the individual and the organisation place the focus of career development efforts on hard skills – technology²⁹⁶ skills, knowledge, and other skills that specifically relate to ability to get work-related tasks done. This means that an individual and an organisation neglect the development of soft skills. However, soft skills are directly transferrable to any job, organisation, or industry.

Soft skills can include:

- Communication
- Emotional Intelligence
- Listening
- Showing Empathy
- Networking
- Self-confidence
- Giving and receiving feedback

²⁹⁴ Alston, R. and Haley, D. 2013. The Leader's Compass for Law Enforcement Professionals: A Values-Based Approach to Influencing People, Accomplishing Goals, and Improving Your Organization. Academy Leadership Publishing. P.51

²⁹⁵ Ibid. P.53

²⁹⁶ ibid



Empathy

An early definition of empathy, by Dymond involves the, 'imaginative transposing of oneself into the thinking, feeling, and acting of another person, so structuring the world as he/she does'.²⁹⁷ Writing in a similar vein Trevithick states that 'Empathy involves trying to understand, as carefully and sensitively as possible the nature of another person's experience, their own unique point of view and what meaning this conveys for that individual'. Referring to empathy Rogers emphasised the importance of an empathic understanding of an individual's internal frame of reference and to communicate this experience to the individual.²⁹⁸

Empathy is an important soft skill that can be developed for better interpersonal interactions, as empathy is the ability to identify with another person's experience. Whilst empathy is often identified with an individual's pain or negative experience, empathy can be applied to a variety of situations. Developing empathy allows us to imagine ourselves in another person's shoes, to respond to others, and even to vicariously experience others' feelings of emotions. When we demonstrate empathy, we create connections with others, which can help to build teamwork or otherwise create shared goals. Empathy also helps to forge stronger interpersonal connections between team members and colleagues, which is as important as shared goals or complementary skills when it comes to accomplishing work. Empathy is one component of what is known as Emotional Intelligence, and is the ability to recognize and manage our feelings so that they are expressed appropriately.

Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer first explained emotional intelligence considering it to be a form of social intelligence which involves a person's ability to monitor not only their own but others emotions, to distinguish among them and to use that information to inform responses and actions.²⁹⁹ Furthermore, Goleman further typified it as 'being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope.'³⁰⁰

Exercising emotional intelligence helps to create harmonious, productive relationships.

There are four key components to Emotional Intelligence:

- **Self-awareness:** The ability to recognize our own feelings and motivations
- **Self-management:** The ability to appropriate express (or not express) feelings

²⁹⁷ Dymond, R. F. 1949. A scale for the measurement of empathic ability. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 13; p.127.

²⁹⁸ Rogers, C. R. 2007. The necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, Practice, Training*, 44,240–248. (Original publication: *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1957, 2, pp. 95–103).

²⁹⁹ Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. 1990. Emotional intelligence *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, Baywood Publishing Company., Inc. 9, pp.185–211.

³⁰⁰ Goleman, D. 1995. *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.



- **Social awareness:** Our ability to recognize the feelings and needs of others, and the norms of a given situation
- **Relationship management:** Our ability to relate effectively to others.

Unfortunately, many law enforcement agencies do not concentrate on training and evaluating officers' interpersonal skills (e.g., active listening, problem solving, persuasion, and conflict management) even though officers need them to competently execute tactical and legal tasks. If officers cannot communicate with the public, poor community relations will hinder even the most technically proficient departments. Miller illustrates the tension that exists within the United States when the African American community and the police interact³⁰¹. He claimed that, these difficulties exist because of the different expectations and attitudes that each group brings to the encounter. This conundrum continues to this day as, 'officers try to navigate their responsibilities amid police-community tension and increased expectations of privacy'.

4.8. COMMUNICATION IN COMMON POLICE PRACTICES

Miller further suggests that, 'fundamentally police officers do two things, 'they talk to people and they touch people'³⁰². The majority of police interaction with the community involves one of these actions. The "touch factor" in police training, driven by concern for officer safety, encompasses instruction in firearms, motor vehicle stops, self-defence, arrest and control, and responses to crimes in progress. The "talk factor" in police training focuses on verbal interactions during criminal investigations, traffic stops, interviews, and interrogations. Unlike technical skills, however, police instructors cannot easily witness and evaluate officer performance in these competencies. Yet, officers need these skills to ably execute tactical and legal tasks.

Law enforcement officers cannot avoid interactions with the public because they occur so frequently in common areas of police work: motor vehicle stops, criminal investigations, and domestic violence and conflicts. Officers' interactions with the community as part of these duties illustrate the need for interpersonal skills training in law enforcement academies. Motor vehicle stops are considered one of the best ways to prevent crime, and they present the primary opportunity for communication between officers and the public; unfortunately, traffic stops also serve as the most frequent source of complaints against the police when they lead to conflict between the stopped individuals and officers. While law enforcement cannot avoid all hostility from motorists, the outcome of such conflicts depends on how officers approach the situation, even when the incident requires enforcement action. Officers cannot predict the exact behaviours they will encounter during

³⁰¹ Miller, G. (1983). "On the Construction and Production of Ideology: The Question of Police Civility" (paper presented at the 35th Annual Meeting of the American Society of Criminology, Denver, Colorado, November 9-13, 1983). P.17

³⁰² Ibid. p.19



motor vehicle stops, and, thus, they need strong interpersonal skills to minimize hostility and misunderstandings in these situations.

Within criminal investigations, the community calls upon police officers to assist individuals who have suffered negative experiences, and the outcomes of these investigations dramatically impact those involved. During these cases, the investigating officers' interpersonal skills significantly influence the community's impression of the police. Public perception, in turn, affects the success of investigations by impacting community members' willingness to provide information. Domestic conflict often involves physical violence coupled with strong emotions. Officers who respond to these situations must secure the scene and gather information to determine probable cause. A strong foundation of verbal and nonverbal skills allows officers to accomplish these tasks in a sensitive environment.

Essential Techniques

To improve officers' performance in common police practices, agencies can instruct personnel on basic competencies that ease communication between the police and the public during motor vehicle stops, criminal investigations, and domestic conflicts. These skills fall into three categories: setting the stage, gathering evidence, and confirming information. To set the stage for effective communication, officers should practice crucial verbal and nonverbal conversation habits. These include eye contact, body position, voice tone, facial expressions, gestures, physical distance, and physical contact. Police also should use open invitations to talk, such as encouragers and closed and open-ended questions.

When gathering evidence, four communication skills assist officers in collecting pertinent information:

- Focusing,
- Paraphrasing,
- Reflecting,
- Confronting.

Focusing helps with reframing and reconstructing problems. When paraphrasing, officers restate someone's thoughts in different words and in a non-judgmental manner. Reflecting involves feelings as officers articulate an individual's emotions, whether stated or implied. Finally, confronting aids police in identifying discrepancies in a story. To confirm information, officers use two strategies to pull together relevant data and ensure that they accurately capture an individual's story. Clarifying confirms that the officer and the individual agree on the exchanged information, and summarizing establishes that all information gathered is accurate.



4.9. TRAINING INITIATIVES

Within the UK, The Greater Manchester Police (GMP) performed a procedural justice training experiment in 2013 on the impact of communication skills training on officers and victims of crime in conjunction with The College of Policing in August 2013. Here, 'The Randomised Controlled Trial' (RCT) reported that the impact of training on the perceived quality of interactions between the police and crime victims in Greater Manchester. The intervention focused on developing officers' practical communication skills. In total, 339 officers were randomly assigned to the treatment group (to receive the training) and 237 to the control group (to not receive the training).

The RCT found officers to hold positive views about delivering a quality service recognising the value of building empathy and rapport with victims; and making decisions that involved victims in the process. Officer Behaviour was found to have had a positive impact, with officers in the treatment group scoring significantly higher than those in the control group on a 'quality of interaction' scale. In terms of fair treatment, these officers were more likely to give victims a choice about how the incident was to be dealt with (a 14 percentage point difference). A higher proportion was also rated as 'good/excellent' in terms of their overall performance (48% compared to 22%).

An existing force survey was used to measure the perceptions of crime victims who had contact with officers in the trial. The intervention was found to have had a positive effect on a 'quality of interaction' scale. No effect was found for overall victim satisfaction and willingness to cooperate with the police. Given that most victims were already satisfied and cooperative, it was unlikely the training could produce an effect size large enough to be detected by the survey. It is possible, therefore, that the training might have had a bigger effect in more challenging encounters where public perceptions of the police are more varied.

Measuring and assessing soft skills

Through their interactions with organisations across many sectors, Upskill Enterprise, has encountered the concerns and trepidation of employers in measuring and assessing soft skills. As soft skills are often linked to behaviours and values many may feel that the measurement of these intangible and subjective skills are problematic, or are very specific to their own context and therefore not transferable. However, the examples explored within Policing and the other best practice from law enforcement agencies shows that measures can be put in place and agreed. National Occupational Standards (NOS) offer a sector approved, common language measurement system which consider not only the performance requirements, but also the underpinning



knowledge and understanding, and scope of the measurement. NOS will be used in the development of the game as a benchmark and to support the development of assessment protocols. There are also key lessons to learn from others who have approached the measurement and assessment of soft skills as explored below.

In 2014, David McKenzie of the World Bank presented a paper on the hard measurement of soft skills written in collaboration with three colleagues, and considering the labour market in Jordan.³⁰³ Together, they produced a series of interactive exercises for soft skills measurement including:

A. Group Exercise: *The group discussion was centred on the design of an amusement park. Five to eight participants were tasked to redesign a failing amusement park in Jordan. Each participant was given a pre-defined role in marketing, HR, finance, customer service, and management with specific responsibilities and often conflicting goals. By creating an opportunity for job candidates to interact in a group in a structured manner, evaluators could evaluate how job candidates work in groups. Two trained evaluators evaluate each candidate on 10 soft skill categories during the group discussion.*

The soft skills identified for the evaluative purposes of the exercise included the following:

- (1) Listening – maintains eye contact; does not cut off speakers
- (2) Responsiveness – asks follow up questions; probes; gets clarification
- (3) Presentation – speaks concisely; clear voice; transitions from topic to topic
- (4) Self-confidence – speaks up; no rambling; asks for examples
- (5) Influence – seeks agreement; non-aggressive style
- (6) Leadership – creates positive atmosphere; goal orientated
- (7) Supportiveness – recognises other's contributions
- (8) Initiative – makes good impression; high quality ideas
- (9) Organisation – sticks to time limits; defines problems; sets tasks
- (10) Teamwork – holds good relations with members

B. Role-playing exercise: *a one on one exercise with the evaluator and the job candidate that is intended to test the candidate under pressure. The job candidate plays the role of a customer service associate and the evaluator plays the role of an angry customer who just bought a computer that broke down the past night. The job candidate has to calm down the customer and come up with a solution within the framework of the companies' rules against skills 1-5 above.*

³⁰³ McKenzie, D. 2014. <http://blogs.worldbank.org/impactevaluations/hard-measurement-soft-skills>



C. Skills-based interview: *where the evaluator asks questions to elicit examples of leadership, teamwork, and overcoming obstacles. This last component was assessed by one evaluator on the soft skill components 6 through 10 in the table above. The group exercise lasted 40 minutes, and the individual exercises lasted 5 to 10 minutes each. We then average the scores in each of the 10 soft skill categories and form a principal component of the average scores in the 10 soft skill categories to create a soft skills index.*

There are a number of examples of research that has examined the assessment and measurement of soft skills in practice. For example, in 2014, Hanover Research examined best practices in measuring soft skills, such as teamwork, creativity, and character, with a focus on soft skill assessments embedded into core academic curriculum being key. Furthermore, in Workforce Connections: Key Soft Skills (June 2015) working with the Agency for International Development (USAID) concluded that measurement of soft skills is key to productivity and workforce development. They state that common measures, which take account of culture, education, age and gender, are vital. They also highlight that objective measures and assessments are key to address the biases often found in self-reporting or self-reviewing, with ICT interactive tools most likely to provide this as well as portability for on-going assessment.

It is also interesting to note that the Skills Towards Employability and Productivity (STEP) program was designed by the World Bank, to better understand the interplay between skills on the one hand and employability and productivity on the other. The STEP program developed survey instruments tailored to collect data on skills in low- and middle-income country contexts. However, there are some lessons to learn in the measurement of skill, including behaviours and values, which often relate to soft skills, especially through end user self-assessment of their capabilities. The below extract from the STEP program note, which is publicly available through the World Bank's Microdata Catalog, describes an interesting part of the design of the survey instruments and the constructs measured as well as the technical standards and implementation protocols adopted to ensure data quality and comparability across countries. It also provides guidance to users for the construction of aggregated skills indicators. The STEP program is also recognised by EPALE, the Electronic Platform for Adult Learning in Europe:

Translating Complex Scoring Scales into Interpretable Objects: Scores obtained for the different questions measuring individuals' skills can be transformed into interpretable objects. This not only facilitates the analysis but also secures the intuitive communication of the main results to a general



audience. Depending on the characteristics of the specific domain, researchers can develop the following two strategies to construct easily interpretable scales.

For Binary Sub-domains: In some cases, the scoring scales are based on binary answers. Consider for example question 2.05 in the STEP employer survey: “Does their job regularly involve reading?” The associated answers are “YES” or “NO”. In this case, researchers can simply label “YES” as “the individual possesses the skill” and “NO” as “the individual does not possess the skill.”

For Continuous or Multi-valued Scoring Scales: In general, sub-domains in the STEP surveys will be measured using continuous or multi-valued scoring scales. For a fraction of them, the scoring scale will be simple, allowing an intuitive interpretation. This is the case with many behavioural and personality trait measures that have already been used and validated in previous studies. In such cases, researchers will not need to modify the original scales. Good examples are the scoring scales associated with the individual items forming the Big Five personality scale [conscientiousness, openness, neuroticism (or its opposite: emotional stability), agreeableness, and extraversion]. In other cases, the scoring scale might be complex (multiple values without a clear interpretation). The complexity of the scoring scales should not discourage researchers from developing more interpretable alternatives. Consider, for example, the following case.

Let $T(j)$ be the results associated with the sub-domain j . Furthermore, assume that the scoring scale is complex, and researchers cannot easily determine the specific value defining a “low,” “medium,” or “high” use or

$$R(j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if Low Use} \\ 2 & \text{if Medium Use} \\ 3 & \text{if High Use} \end{cases}$$

proficiency on the sub-domain. With individual-level data on $T(j)$, researchers could generate the following ranking where:

$R(j) = 1$ for those individuals with scores in the bottom 25 % of the distribution
 $R(j) = 2$ for individuals with scores between 25 and 75 % of the distribution, and $R(j) = 3$ for those with scores in the top 25 % of the distribution.

4.10. BEST PRACTICE FROM OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES



The Armed Services UK have a Level 2 (EQF Level 3) Apprenticeship offered to all new recruits in the Army, Navy, Marines and Air Force. This was created using NOS including units on team work and communication putting measurable soft skills at the core of the qualification across the range of disciplines.

A scheme launched by the UK Government in 2014 to encourage the employment of former armed services personnel in civilian roles, recognises the depth and importance of soft skills developed gained whilst in service. As the Ministry of Defence explained in an article published January 2016³⁰⁴ 'The pledges of support to the Armed Forces Covenant make commercial sense as well as making a commitment to society'. The Services invest heavily in training their personnel in specialist and soft skills, which make veterans a great recruiting pool and organisations more successful. The benefits of employing Defence personnel include:

- World class transferrable training – paid for by Defence;
- Military training develops exactly the core skills which employers value in employees; self-confidence, determination, teamwork, problem solving, leadership and ability to work under pressure. The Chartered Management Institute estimates that comparable training would cost £8,000 [€9,500] to implement;
- Fit and resourceful employees: Military trained personnel are fit, focused and positive with a can-do attitude. Many operate in locations and situations that require sound judgement, adaptability, respect for others, good communications skills, loyalty, integrity, and courage;
- Effective teams: Individuals with experience in military service have exceptional team spirit and the ability to lead and follow, qualities that are seamlessly transferred to organisation'.

This Advanced Level Apprenticeship framework is aimed at apprentices who work within Witness Care Units. The aim of Witness Care Units is to provide a single point of contact for victims and witnesses, minimising the stress of attending court and keeping victims and witnesses up to date with any news in a way that is convenient to them. Witnesses are essential to successful prosecutions and it is therefore important to make the process as straightforward as possible.

The aim of this framework is to ensure that those working within Witness Care Units provide a high quality of service to victims and witnesses, in line with the aims of the No Witness, No Justice (NWNJ) project (2003). NWNJ is a joint CPS / Police initiative that aims to improve the experiences of prosecution victims and witnesses and ensure they are better informed, better prepared and better supported when attending court.

³⁰⁴ Cameron, D 2016 <https://www.gov.uk/government/news/prime-minister-thanks-employers-supporting-the-armed-forces>



The service provided to victims and witnesses through NWNJ is tailored to meet their individual needs, so that they are able and willing to attend court, and feel more confident in doing so. This in turn should reduce the number of trials either abandoned or adjourned, help bring more offenders to justice, improve public confidence in the Criminal Justice System and help reduce public spending.

This support is provided primarily through the dedicated Witness Care Units, staffed by Crown Prosecution Service and Police Witness Care Officers. This Apprenticeship framework is designed to complement and reinforce the desired outcomes of the Witness Care Units, which include:

- Increased victim/witness satisfaction;
- Improved public confidence;
- Better performance at bringing more offences to justice;
- Preventing money being wasted on ineffective trials.

This framework also complements the aims of the Code of Practice for Victims of Crime (the Victims' Code), which was launched on 3 April 2006, and the Witness Charter. This UK witness care approach gives another example of how to put soft skills at the centre of learning, to improve cooperation between agencies and improve public confidence. As part of the framework qualification, in England, learners must complete personal, learning and thinking skills, which are additional soft skills, which will support those embedded with the unit of learning. These include:

- ***Creative Thinking involves:*** generating ideas and exploring possibilities; asking questions to extend thinking; connecting own and others' ideas and experiences in inventive ways; questioning own and others' assumptions; trying out alternatives of new solutions and following ideas through; adapting ideas as circumstances change;
- ***Reflective learning involves:*** assessing yourself and others; identifying opportunities and achievements; setting goals with success criteria for your personal development and work; reviewing progress, acting on the outcomes; inviting feedback and dealing positively with praise, setbacks and criticism; evaluating experiences and learning to inform future progress; communicating your learning in relevant ways for different audiences.

The UK Border Agency describes the skills required to work as a Border Control officer as, 'the ability to manage challenging situations in a calm and professional manner; excellent spoken and written communication skills;



leadership skills³⁰⁵. In the first year of the role employees will receive continuous training and assessment to give them the skills and knowledge, as well as confidence, to complete the role.

4.11 THE MILITARY AND SOFT SKILLS

In military terms, soft skills are very much seen as transferrable skills and developmental areas for post service life covering issues such as ³⁰⁶:

- **Leadership** - During an enlisted member's time in the service, he or she learns critical leadership (How to lead and be led);
- **Strong work ethic** – Most experts value service members because they tend to be motivated, loyal and mission-focused. These skills have become habits for most service members;
- **Organisation** - From saving time and money to reducing stress and problems with customers, organizational skills are essential to any role as a soldier, organizing people to equipment, the army instils how to organize and manage as second nature;
- **Management** - From delegating and coaching to training and mentoring, Military personnel possess a variety of essential skills that are core obtaining maximum efficiency and accountability;
- **Communication** - In the military, the lives of team members depend on effective communication. From clearly providing instructions, writing a report to directing your team on patrol, being able to communicate effectively is vital.

Sun Tzu an ancient Chinese general, philosopher and author of an influential book on military strategy, claimed that the 'softest things in the world overcome the hardest things in the world.' Building on this interpretation of the role of soft skills it is possible to reflect on contemporary military approaches to the concept, specifically around 'communication'. Military units, by their very nature, are trained to respond to and operate in a 'low context culture' relying on directives, specific orders, and standard operating procedures that are communicated clearly down the hierarchy (Hall, 1976). This stands in stark contrast to the 'high context' cultural and operational requirements of complex emergencies where nonverbal signals, family or tribal status, age, gender, or ethnic differences, or social roles and expectations carry a lot of meaning. The concepts of low

³⁰⁵ Gov. UK (2016) <https://nationalcareersservice.direct.gov.uk/job-profiles/border-force-officer#skills-required>

³⁰⁶ Ho-Won, J. 2005. Peacebuilding in Post-conflict Societies: Strategy & Process. Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner.



and high cultures were first articulated by anthropologist Edward Hall (1976) in his theory of cultural differences, which assumed a strong linkage between culture and communication.

Interactions and communication in a given culture are determined by the social context in that culture, i.e., the network of social expectations that shape a person's behaviour. The following observations are relevant when considering the relationships between 'soft skills' and the military in terms of CPPB missions.³⁰⁷

- In terms of the role of the military, a number of observers have suggested that the presence of units of civilians or reservists with civilian skills made collaboration easier, as it helped bridge the cultural gaps between the military and civilian relief providers and also to the local population.³⁰⁸ Due to their transferable civilian skills, reservists may indeed be better prepared for undertaking CIMIC duties than combat-trained fulltime professional soldiers;
- In addition, to address the issue of lack of institutional memory as a result of frequent personnel rotation schedules, it has been suggested that military deployments should be extended to more than the typical 6-12 months' duration and to limit rotations to ensure consistency and continuity and build trust with NGOs and locals. In a recent analysis of U.S. stability efforts in Iraq, Fallows³⁰⁹ concluded that 'the career patterns of the U.S. military were a problem. For family reasons, and to keep moving in rank, American soldiers rotate out of Iraq at the end of a year. They may be sent back to Iraq, but probably on a different assignment in a different part of the country. The advisor who has been building contacts in a village or with a police unit is gone, and a fresh, non-Arabic-speaking face shows up'. Counterinsurgency manuals usually emphasize the need for long-term personal relations. Obviously, it is impractical to advocate that entire units remain in place for extended periods of time—especially if they are composed largely of reservists who may resist longer-term assignments—but it might be possible to specifically train civilians alongside the military to function as CIMIC liaisons and ask them to remain in place for extended periods to provide continuity and operational consistency. This could also create an important stability interface in the relationship between the peacekeepers and the local population and between military and civilian aid providers. Nodes of Understanding Leadership Training;
- The outcome of communication is 'what is understood'. To have effect, all great ideas and strategies must be communicated clearly. Focussing on understanding rather than what is said is a useful way for

³⁰⁷ Mockaitis, T. 2004. "Civil-Military Cooperation in Peace Operations: The Case of Kosovo." Carlisle, Pa: United States Army War College, Strategic Studies Institute monograph. <<http://www.carlisle.army.mil/ssj/>>

³⁰⁸ ibid

³⁰⁹ Fallows, James. 2005. "Why Iraq has No Army." The Atlantic Monthly, December, p 70.



leaders to consider their methods of imparting information. Leaders should think about what they are going to say before saying it and then use the most appropriate medium to impart it succinctly and logically³¹⁰ (NATO, 2003). They should be wary of falling back on the 'easiest' means (often email) and should not use the written word to communicate bad or difficult news; it takes moral courage to look someone in the eye when conveying such information. Communication should always be timely; 'bad news does not improve with age';

- Non-verbal Messages: When communicating face-to-face leaders should be aware of the impact of non-verbal communication - the messages that are passed by mannerisms, body language, attentiveness and the like. By being 'active listeners, leaders can make the communicator feel valued and involved as well as ensuring that they pick up all the nuances of what is being communicated. Even on the radio much can be gleaned that is not mentioned in words. Most leaders will need to communicate in written and spoken form and they should become confident with electronic communication such as emails, text and presentations. Communication skills can be improved by practice and by study, such as taking an English course or reading about or attending a course on public speaking;
- Negotiating can prevent conflict, or bring its cessation. It can prevent an Army leader having to rely on command authority to impose a solution that may not be mutually acceptable. Army leaders may well find themselves negotiating a settlement to an issue in barracks, training or on operations. Effective negotiating can bring all sides to an agreeable and workable solution. The method of each negotiation will be different, but there are certain human factors that transcend personal motivations, culture and overt recognition, which influence thinking and behaviour. An understanding of these factors and how they impact on individuals are useful when negotiating.
- Vision: It is a leader's responsibility to provide a vision of shared goals so that individuals and the team are inspired, have a shared sense of direction and pull together to achieve results. The vision can be expressed both through communication and being a role model. Words and deeds must be consistent, complementary and reinforcing. As always, the Core Values and Standards are at the fore in 'role-modelling'. Through action and example, leaders convince people to "Do the right thing on a difficult day";

³¹⁰ NATO Civil-Military Co-Operation (CIMIC) Doctrine AJP-9. <<http://www.nato.int/ims/docu/AJP-9.pdf>>



- **Support:** It is only possible to inspire extraordinary actions when there is mutual knowledge - and trust - within the team. Leaders should care for and about the people who serve under them. By being fair, consistent and showing confidence in others, leaders provides a platform for their people to excel beyond normal standards and achieve their maximum potential. The level of trust required can take time to develop. It can be generated by scrupulous application of Mission Command, empowering subordinates and allowing them to take ownership of decision making commensurate with their abilities. An appropriate balance of incentive and sanction motivates people. In contrast, weak behaviours (favouritism, vindictiveness, dishonesty, evasion, bullying etc) always have a disruptive and counterproductive effect on individuals and teams.
- **Challenge:** People only reveal their true potential when challenged. To reach these levels of achievement, leaders must not only test themselves, modelling the highest standards, but also challenge and inspire their people. Needless to say, a balance is required³¹¹. Driving people too hard will dent morale; the key is to help individuals commit to achievable 'stretch targets'. Through this, the self-confidence of individuals and teams is enhanced, enabling them to go beyond the norm and achieve more than was originally thought possible.

4.12. CONCLUSION

In recent years many people have reported experiences with police that have been less than acceptable. They recount exchanges that were gruff, impolite or indifferent. In some cases, citizens have felt officers were not only uninterested in them and their issues, but also that they were rude. That's not the way policing should portray itself as a profession³¹².

As espoused by Moore if not careful, policing will neglect the chance to foster good people skills in officers trusting an increased reliance on technology to solve cases and prevent crime.³¹³ In the process, police will lose public support, as well as valuable information resources. Police managers and training regimes must consider and implement soft skills, as a minimum to keep staff at optimal levels when it comes to dealing with the public. There must be an emphasis on politeness and courtesy where good soft skills will be helpful not only in showing the department's best side to the public, but in actually encouraging people to come forward.

³¹¹ Raj, R. 2004. "Contemporary Challenges in the Civil-Military Relationship: Complementarity or Incompatibility?" *International Review of the Red Cross*, Vol. 86, No. 855, pp. 565-591.

³¹² Moore, C. 2013. "*Don't leave your people skills behind*", *Law Enforcement Technology*, vol. 40, no. 6, pp. 54.

³¹³ *ibid*



Police Colleges and Academies need an effective structure for teaching essential interpersonal skills. To guide them in this endeavour, education programs provide various methods for teaching and evaluating these skills, which Police Services can tailor for their current curriculum. Then, when recruits become probationers, they will have the interpersonal capabilities to enhance their legal and practical skills. Entering the work force with this solid foundation enables officers to remove some of the barriers between the police and the public.

Police Officers need interpersonal training that their instructors easily can witness and evaluate. With this preparation, police recruits enter the service feeling competent and confident. This ensures that they will communicate civilly and respectfully with others, which ultimately leads to better public partnerships and safer communities.

Communication skills training can improve the victim experience. In other words, in the right context, communication skills training can improve attitudes and behaviour. Most importantly, victims of crime received a better quality of contact from officers as a direct result of this training. As training encourages a general shift in the way officers approached interactions with the public. Officers potentially developed a greater awareness of the need to listen to, and build rapport with, victims of crime. Training which teaches Police Officers how to communicate and build rapport with victims may provide an 'entry point'.³¹⁴

As articulated by Westera et al we now know that soft skills such as, communication, emotional intelligence, listening, empathy, networking, self-confidence, and feedback strategies are extremely important attributes of an effective Police Officer.³¹⁵ The challenge is now for academics and police to work together to ensure that Police Officers with these attributes are recruited, trained and retained.

There are over 20,000 NOS for a range of skills and occupations. Many standards exist which incorporate a range of soft skills including communication, mediation, networking, empathy, emotional intelligence and active listening. By incorporating these in NOS employers and key stakeholders have made soft skills measureable meaning that their assessment is achievable in daily practice. Whilst these are UK specific many nations have developed NOS including Australia, South Africa, Saudi Arabia and more. The European Skills/Competences, qualifications and Occupations (ESCO) is launching an online system mid-2017, which identifies and categorises skills, competences, qualifications and occupations in a standard way, using standard terminology in all EU languages and an open format based on the best practice in NOS development. This will

³¹⁴ Wheller, L. and Morris, J. 2011. *What Works in Training, Behaviour Change and Implementing Guidance?* National Policing Improvement Agency, London. P.18.

³¹⁵ Westera, N., Kebbell, M., Milne, B. and Green, T. 2014. *Towards a more effective detective. Policing and Society*, 26(1), pp.1-17.



launch with an estimated 13,000 standards of which many are likely to incorporate or address soft skills collated from across Europe.

The review of the literature highlighted three inter-related issues in relation to training for soft skills in peacebuilding. Firstly, training for soft skills is a critical success factor in multi-discipline, international and interagency peacebuilding in complex environments. The development of curriculum, tools and course to support peacebuilding has been extensive, particularly in the NGO and Military army spheres. However, while the development of models of practice in soft skills for peacebuilding has been extensive, there is considerable evidence that soft skills training has not always been given the priority it requires, especially in interagency contexts. At the same time, the literature confirms that there are considerable opportunities to use gaming as a way to ensure that training for soft skills is mainstreamed within conflict prevention and peacebuilding missions.

Reviewing existing literature and studies illustrated that there was a lack of clarity and significant debate about definitional aspects and what aspects actually represent the key foci around soft skills. In tackling this, the review highlighted a number of approaches and centred upon several key areas. Picking one – empathy, the evidence suggests is a very relevant soft skill for peace and conflict related activities. For example, empathy facilitates a richer understanding of an individual's experience and this becomes particularly relevant in the context of peacebuilding in an operational sense.

This review also highlighted that soft skills involve a high level of exercising emotional intelligence as this helps to create harmonious, productive relationships. A key contribution offered up by this review to existing debates is that the challenges around defining, feed forward into a difficulty around measuring and evaluating people's progression within soft skills.

Furthermore, collaboration and partnership are central facets of the development of soft skills in responding to conflict situations. This review highlighted that working collaboratively enhances the effectiveness of soft skills in the case of policing with non-policing partners. Likewise, the paper demonstrated that legitimacy was an important dimension that helped to foster a stronger outworking of soft skills by promoting a sense of obligation and shared values.



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Project Start Date: 1.9.2016

Project Duration: 30 months

2.6. Review of the State of the Art in Serious Games

Deliverable details	
Deliverable number	2.6
Authors	Mads Haahr, Haunted Planet Systems Jonny Byrne, University of Ulster Róisín Smith, Maynooth University Anne Holohan, Trinity College Dublin Rowena Timms, UpSkill Belfast
Due date	31 December 2016
Delivered date	23 December 2016
Reviewed By	Anne Holohan, Trinity College Dublin, 29 December 2016
Dissemination level	PU
Contact person EC	Carla Rocha-Gomes

History of Changes			
Date	Version	Person in Charge	Description
10/12/2016	v0.1	Mads Haahr	First Draft of document
23/12/2016	v0.2	Mads Haahr	Second draft of document



5. REVIEW OF SOTA IN CPPB RELEVANT SERIOUS GAMES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This deliverable reviews the state of the art in Serious Games that are relevant to CPPB missions. Firstly, the report reviews projects that are used by militaries and law enforcement, as well as companies and academies working with such organisations for training in relation to tactical skills and decision-making; and secondly, reviewing EU projects, academic research as well as games developed by industry, governments and NGOs to facilitate the acquisition of soft skills as well as the use of games for CPPB training. The report constitutes a current and historical snapshot of work in this domain.

Research into serious games has addressed a wide spectrum of application domains, ranging from game-based learning, simulation and training, through games for health, well-being and behaviour change, marketing and business, to games for tourism and cultural heritage, and even games intended to raise awareness and provoke questioning on environmental, moral and social issues. This deliverable presents a state of the art view in the area of serious games with a specific focus on games for simulation and training, but even this is a wide area in its own right, so for that reason we focus our particular attention to games that are intended to facilitate (or, as in a few instances, happen to facilitate) the acquisition of soft skills, in particular in the area of conflict resolution and mediation.

In the first section, we define important terminology required for the rest of the review. The report is concerned with key aspects such as:

- Skills: Identify the types of skills it is intended to help acquire.
- Technology: Review the technical aspects, including feature set, platform, presentation, controllers and technical performance.
- Game Design: Identify the game mechanics used, the types of scenarios adopted, etc.
- Performance: Summarise the evidence (if any) related to the skills acquisition, i.e., whether there is data available.

5.2. WHAT ARE SERIOUS GAMES (SGS)

By definition, a ‘serious game’ is an application that uses technologies from computer games that serve purposes other than pure entertainment.³¹⁶ Modern educational SGs are thought to be effective teaching tools for enhancing learning as they use action, encourage motivation, accommodate multiple learning

³¹⁶ Arnab, S., Brown, K., Clarke, S., Dunwell, I., Lim, T., Suttie, N., de Freitas, S. 2013. The development approach of a pedagogically-driven serious game to support relationship and sex education (RSE) within a classroom setting. *Computers & Education*, 69, 15-30. doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2013.06.013



styles, reinforce skills and provide an interactive and decision-making context.³¹⁷ Serious Games are suitable for training hierarchical organizations in 'soft skills' for a number of reasons. Firstly, in a game, knowledge is contextualized, which is a better way of learning, i.e., situated learning as decontextualized knowledge gathering is not an effective way of learning and understanding things. Secondly, virtual games enhance 'experiential learning' which engages individuals in real-life experiences that result due to interaction between humans and their environment in the form of seeing, feeling, and doing, and this can be done in real life or artificial environments.³¹⁸ Thirdly, learning through Serious Games is interactive and able to achieve specific learning goals and accomplish specific tasks within the context of a story. This is done by assuming roles and using different resources within different scenarios. Learning by doing is a way of learning factual information in the context of how this information can and will then be used, but must be relevant, meaningful and interesting to the students³¹⁹ (. Fourthly, SG offer the opportunity for 'discovery learning' which has been identified as being where students 'interact with their environment by exploring and manipulating objects, wrestling with questions and controversies, or performing experiments'.³²⁰ Based on this it is suggested that if individuals discover things on their own they are then likely to remember the concepts that they are trying to learn.³²¹ Finally, Thomas and Macredie claimed that the core characteristics of games is that actions have no real-world consequences; this enables learners to practice safely without fear of failure.³²² Lastly, the most common underlying game characteristic, complex collaboration, contributes the most to the development of 21st century skills.

In sum, Serious Game researchers agree on the value of games as tools to develop the skills needed in the complex knowledge society.³²³ (A virtual role-playing game offers an inexpensive yet experientially focused means of providing training in complex collaboration or 21st century skills).

³¹⁷ Charles, D., & McAlister, M. 2004. Integrating ideas about invisible playgrounds from play theory into online educational digital games. In M. Rauterberg (Ed.), *Entertaining computing* - ICEC 2004 (pp. 598-601). New York: Springer Berlin Heidelberg. Holland, W., Jenkins, H., & Squire, K. 2003. *Theory by design*. In B. Perron, & M. Wolf (Eds.), *Video game theory* (pp. 25-46). New York: Routledge.

³¹⁸ Kebritchi, M., Hirumi, A., & Bai, H. 2010. The effects of modern mathematics computer games on mathematics achievement and class motivation. *Computers & Education*, 55, 427-443. doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2010.02.007

³¹⁹ Schank, R. C., Berman, T. R., & Macpherson, K. A. 1999. *Learning by doing*. In C. M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional-design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructional theory* (pp. 633-651). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

³²⁰ Omrod, J. 1995. *Educational psychology: Principles and applications*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall

³²¹ Kebritchi, M., Hirumi, A., & Bai, H. 2010. The effects of modern mathematics computer games on mathematics achievement and class motivation. *Computers & Education*, 55, 427-443. doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2010.02.007

³²² Thomas, P., & Macredie, R. 1994. Games and the design of human-computer interfaces. *Educational and Training Technology International*, 31, 134-1

³²³ See Romero, Margarida, Mireia Usart, and Michela Ott. 2015. 'Can Serious Game Contribute to Developing and Sustaining 21st Century Skills?' *Games and Culture*, Vol. 10(2) 148-177. Kickmeier-Rust, M. D., & Dietrich, A. 2012. *A domain model for smart 21st century skills training in game-based virtual worlds*. ICALT 2012 Proceedings, 680-681. Rome, Italy. Pivec, M. 2007. Editorial: Play and learn: Potentials of game-based learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 38, 387-393.



5.3. THE DIGITAL WORLD AND GAMES

In the digital world, there are various types of educational games or games described as educational. However, it would be challenging to describe the underlying pedagogy in educational games or an assessment within games without deciphering the relationship between the digital world, digital game-based learning, (DGBL) serious games, simulations, and virtual worlds. While there is a great deal of intersection in the terminology, many authors have contested views on the definitions around serious games and simulations. Serious games go under various different names, e.g. immersive learning simulation, digital game-based learning, educational games. For clarity and operational terms, the following section gives an overview of definitions in this area.

Simulation: A simulation is an artificial scenario or environment that's designed to represent, or simulate some aspects of reality. Simulations can incorporate different degrees and types of fidelity, or realism, namely, physical, functional and psychological. Simulations therefore immerse the player in the game itself and immersion in the decision-making process of the game, requires the player to learn the consequences of their decisions. It is therefore an active learning process.

Serious Games: Zyda defines serious games as a mental contest, played with a computer in accordance with specific rules, that uses entertainment to further government or corporate training, education, health, public policy, and strategic communication objectives. While serious games are defined by Sorensen and Meyer as digital games and equipment with an agenda of educational design and beyond entertainment. Serious games have also been described as immersive learning simulations, game-based learning and gaming simulations.

Virtual worlds: These are multiplayer (and often massively multiplayer) 3D persistent social environments, but without the focus on a particular goal, such as advancing to the next level or successfully navigating the scenario. Clark Aldrich sees virtual worlds, games, and simulations as points along a continuum and all are highly interactive virtual environments, all with their own affordances and purposes and all can be set in 3D worlds with 3D avatars.³²⁴(See following diagram for examples of continuum).

³²⁴ Definitions of serious games, simulation, virtual world are from Kraiger, Kurt; Passmore, Jonathan; Rebelo dos Santos, Nuno ; Malvezzi, Sigmar (Editors): 2014. *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Training, Development, and Performance Improvement*.

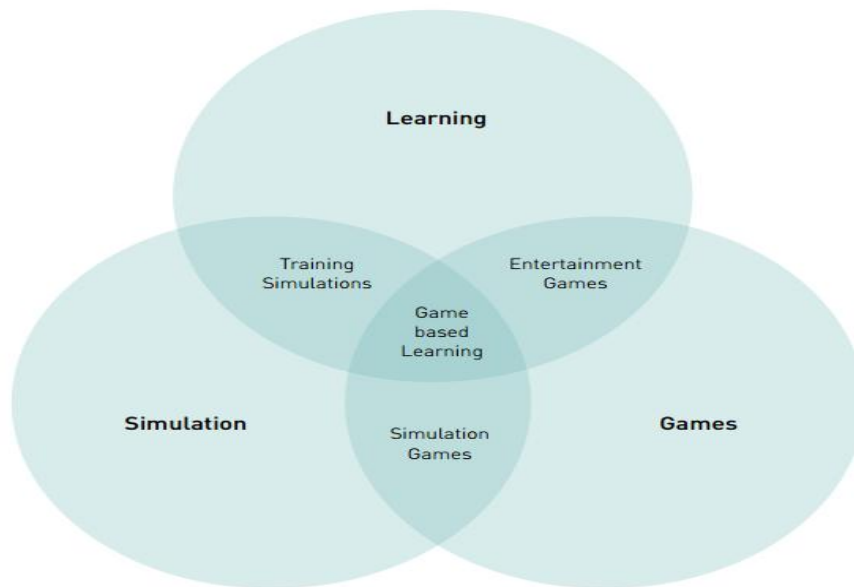
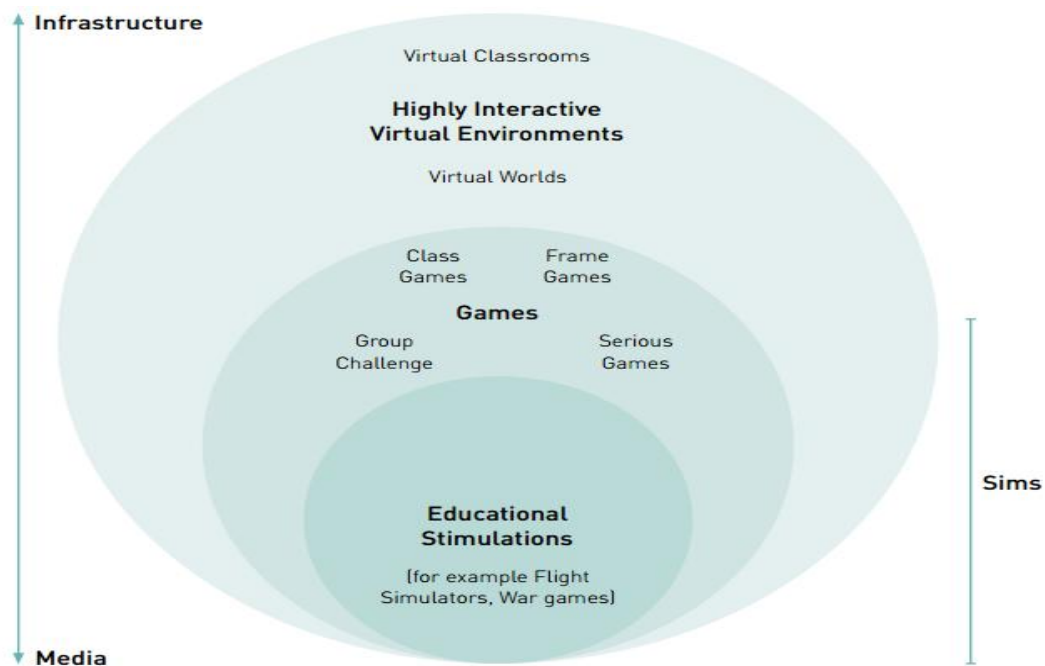
Figure 5. 1. Interplay of pedagogy, computer science and games³²⁵

Figure 5.2. Continuum of Serious Games, Sims and Virtual Worlds



Gamification is also used within the digital world to describe serious gaming which can confuse the terminology around SGs, although it generally refers to the mechanics used in the design of the games. The term gamification only started to attract world –wide attention in 2010. Gamification is defined as ‘the

³²⁵ Both diagrams from Ulicsak, M. & Wright, M. 2010. ‘Games in Education. Serious Games. A FutureLab Literature Review.’



application of game design principles in non-gaming contexts'. For instance, Xerox employed gamification to train managers who collaborate online to complete quests, and Microsoft has gamified the important aspects of translating its Window 7 operating system into different languages and adapting it to work in different cultures).³²⁶

Naturally, when we 'play' serious games, we learn. In this context, play can be seen as a construct of innovation – 'connecting, reorganizing and redeploying from small groups and *organizations to hundreds of thousands of players around specific endeavours and enabling them to self-organize based on their capabilities, interests and reputation capital.*'³²⁷

5.4. TACTICAL AND DECISION-MAKING LEARNING

There are gaming and simulation projects whose main intent is to facilitate the acquisition of tactical and decision-making skills, rather than soft skills. While these projects are not core to the GAP project *per se*, we discuss them because some of them are of very considerable industry importance and have reached widespread adoption as tools for training. Their adoption means that knowledge about them is useful for the GAP consortium in order to place the GAP work in its wider industry context, but also because there might be a future potential for extending the scope of these projects with GAP-pioneered techniques to learning soft skills. The review therefore is a representative sample of significant work in the context of which the output from GAP can be situated.

Virtual Battlespace 2 and 3

Bohemia Interactive (BI) is a global simulation software company headquartered in Florida. They produce a series of simulation engines, most recently the flagship product Virtual Battlespace 3 (VBS3), which are intended for training of primarily military personnel. The company's customers include the United States Army, the United States Marine Corps, the United Kingdom Ministry of Defence, NATO, the Australian Defence Force, the Canadian Armed Forces, and the Swedish Armed Forces. Today, the company has offices in the United States, the United Kingdom, Poland, the Czech Republic, and Australia.³²⁸ The VBS3 system has been used for a variety of training simulations including naval operation procedures, actions and behaviours (the Italian Navy), initial and advanced military crew training for battle tanks and other armoured vehicles (Rheinmetall Defence Electronics in Germany), combat operation exercises, infantry platoon defence and attack, tank platoon defence and attack, reconnaissance, leadership training for

³²⁶ Robson, Karen et al. 2015. 'Is it all a game? Understanding the principles of gamification.' *Business Horizons*. 58. pp.411-420

³²⁷ IBM. 'Serious Games: An Innovative Way to Accelerate Deep Skills.'

http://www-935.ibm.com/services/multimedia/IBM_Serious_Games_Capabilities.pdf (Accessed 12 December 2016)

³²⁸ See Bohemia Interactive; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bohemia_Interactive_Simulations



platoon and squad leaders, and peace support operations (Military Academy of Land Forces in Poland), testing of the compatibility of information systems (NATO and TELDAT in Poland).³²⁹

The VBS3 platform supports a range of presentation devices (primarily screen-based) as well as controllers (from mouse and keyboard up to highly customised controllers as those found in real military equipment). We were not able to find any mention of Virtual Reality (VR), but it would be surprising if BI is not already working on support for this platform for their engine. In terms of technology, the platform appears to be high-performant with the ability to load many textures rapidly and to procedurally generate terrain. The visual fidelity in the landscapes and vehicles is also impressive, although the simulations appear to focus less on the expressive capabilities of the individual characters, i.e., in order to show emotion and affect, than on more coarse-grained physical behaviours. This is in accord with the simulation's focus on technical and tactical skills, rather than soft skills.

The game mechanics appear directly related to the technical and tactical skills, and the aim of the simulation is to provide as realistic a mapping as possible between real-world actions and activities, and the simulated ones. For example, the support of highly realistic controllers indicate that driving and shooting mechanics are the main focus. In terms of learning performance, the VBS3 platform seems sufficiently sophisticated that measuring the learning achieved must be a real concern. However, the available documentation did not discuss or mention any formal specification of learning outcomes or measuring of learning achieved.

VIRTRA V - 300

VirTra is a company that produces combat and shooting simulators from portable single-screen simulators up to highly advanced firearms training simulators.³³⁰ The company was founded in 1993 and is based in Arizona, USA. It supplies mainly to law enforcement and military and in terms of skills, deals with decision-making and an environment for tactical firearms training. Its flagship product is the V-300, which is intended to provide a training simulation for these purposes. The setup consists of five screens and a 300-degree immersive training environment (see figure).

³²⁹ <https://bisimulations.com/showcase>

³³⁰ <http://www.virtra.com/v-300/>



Figure 5.3 - VirtTra V-300 Training Platform - Typical Configuration



Source: <http://www.virttra.com/v-300/>

The New York Times writes about the V-300:

The simulator feels like the video games in which each player is part of the action. The screens are tall and wide, arranged side by side in a pentagon. The gun, a Heckler & Koch semiautomatic pistol, was real but had been retrofitted to shoot laser beams when you pull the trigger. Instructors can see where the virtual bullets hit and what should happen next.³³¹

On the experience itself, the reporter writes,

In this virtual reality role-playing exercise in a Border Patrol simulator, my job was to keep an eye on the man.

He seemed nervous. His legs twitched. His eyes darted from side to side, as if he were searching for a chance to escape.

Suddenly, he walked to the driver's side window of the sedan and reached inside.

I pulled my pistol from its holster, pointed it at him and yelled: "Sir, get back to the hood of the car! Get back to the hood of the car!"

³³¹ <http://www.nytimes.com/2016/09/13/us/the-time-i-went-on-border-patrol-in-a-virtual-reality-world.html>



The whole thing felt real, and that was exactly the point. The idea of the simulator is to immerse agents in the type of tense situations that they are likely to face on the job, and put their judgment and reactions to the test.

Will the suspect comply with a command? Will the agent pull the trigger?

The situations are based on real-life events. The difference is that, on the simulator screen, the interactions unfold based on the agents' responses.

The technology relies on a pentagon-shaped configuration of screens and hence does not require a VR headset. The scenario is shown on the screens in the form of recorded video footage, recorded with actors, and intended to depict real conflict situations, which the trainee has to navigate through making decisions, giving voice commands to the simulated characters as well as using firearms.³³² The simulation also supports directional audio (which can come from one of the five screens) as well as above (e.g., thunderstorms or helicopter sounds), and transducers in the floor allow the simulation to track the position of the trainee precisely. The trainee is equipped with a box that uses electric shock to simulate knife stabs or gunshot wounds on the trainee, as described in the Arizona Republic, VirTra makes a stun gun-like device called Threat-Fire that clips to the user's belt. It has various settings on the size of jolt it delivers to simulate some of the stress associated with the threat of being shot or stabbed. The device can deliver 80,000 volts for 0.2 to 2.5 seconds.³³³ The simulation is controlled by an operator, who has the ability to control the simulation's responses to actions performed by the trainee, e.g., create audio distractions, control character actions to escalate and de-escalate conflict tension in real time, as documented on CNN.³³⁴ The result is a highly realistic experience as witnessed by the New York Times reporter.

In terms of game mechanics, the trainee moves through the scene, addresses the characters, which include friendly (e.g., other officers), neutral (e.g., innocent bystanders) and antagonistic (e.g., gunmen) and has the ability to shoot the characters too. From news coverage of VirTra's technology, it seems there is a good degree of freedom/flexibility in the simulations in terms of branching storylines. Different starting scenarios can develop in different directions, such as shown in coverage on ABC.³³⁵ As noted above, the learning experience is operated by a human operator, not automatically by the game engine. Judging from the news coverage of the experience, it appears the human operator also acts as a trainer, instructing the trainees and debriefing them and rating their performance. The material reviewed does not list specific

³³² <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=78WkQPPSenc>

³³³ <http://www.azcentral.com/story/money/business/tech/2016/12/01/tempe-tech-company-virta-helps-train-law-enforcement/93923662/>

³³⁴ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=odk6u5R8Cy0>

³³⁵ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Dulj19PGLDM>



performance measures in relation to skills acquisition, but there can be no question that this is of interest to the agencies involved, so it is likely that figures exist, even if they are not published. The system appears widely adopted with one source stating 50 agencies within a single state (Utah) alone having used the simulation for training their staff.

5.5. THE GAMING INDUSTRY IN EUROPE

Gaming in Europe represents a central aspect of European citizens lives with between 40% (UK) and 61% (France) of citizens playing games on any format/device.³³⁶ Increasingly, this is evenly split across genders and across generations, although most common on the 6-44 age groups with a drop in engagement after 44 years old. Gaming is accessible on a number of platforms, but computers, consoles and smartphones remain the device of choice for the majority.³³⁷ For example, in France, 21.1 million people access games via computer, closely followed by 15.6 million people playing games via a console. Undoubtedly, gaming remains a key pastime and activity for a sizable majority of European citizens; therefore, considerations regarding its applicability as an educational and training mechanism is particularly pertinent.

The Videogames in Europe 2012 Consumer Study was a multi-country survey run by Ipsos MediaCT and commissioned by ISFE³³⁸. It was designed to provide a better understanding of the societal context in which games are being played today in 16 European countries. It provides detailed consumer statistics about gaming habits, broader media interests, online gameplay, gaming in a family context and the PEGI age rating system. Below are some indications of game use (total sample 15,142 people 16-64 years of age), which will help support the targeting of GAP outputs.

- 25% of people play games at least once a week;
- 54% of males and 43% of females play games at least once a week;
- The most frequent age group of players is 16-24 years;

Frequency of gaming by country

Table 5.1 – Frequency of Gaming by Country

³³⁶ Game Track Digest (2016) Quarter 1 2016, Game Track, Ipsos Connect, http://www.isfe.eu/sites/isfe.eu/files/attachments/gametrack_european_summary_data_2016_q1.pdf

³³⁷ Ibid.



Country	Frequency of gaming
Sweden	62%
Finland	60%
France	57%
Czech Republic	56%
Netherlands	54%
Norway	53%
Belgium	53%
Poland	49%
Denmark	45%
Germany	42%
Austria	42%
Italy	41%
Switzerland	41%
Great Britain	40%
Spain	40%
Portugal	40%

5.6. GLOBAL UNDERSTANDING, GAMING AND SOFT SKILLS

Internationally, and in an oft-cited study, the Pew Internet and American Life Project measured and analysed the impact of gaming and entertainment technology on the lives of college students.³³⁹ Some key findings illustrated not only high levels of gaming, but that the regularity with which people played games

³³⁹ Jones, S. 2003. Let the games begin: Gaming technology and edutainment among college students. Pew Internet and American Life Project, Washington, DC. Retrieved April 10, 2004, from <http://www.pewinternet.org/reports/toc.asp?Report=93>.



demonstrated a high likelihood of repeat occurrence. This key finding illustrates that gaming offers a mechanism for practice, improvement and enhancement of skills, whether for educational or entertainment purposes. The Jones study also revealed an important point: gaming is social³⁴⁰. The social aspect of gaming recognized in these studies provides a key point when thinking about the usefulness of gaming for soft skills training: it involves social connection; it is interactive and often inter-connected. These processes are also growing and deepening as the quality and accessible of connections, for example using the Internet for voice connection during gaming, are improving.

The development of soft-skills training through digital platforms and gaming has emerged as an innovative and robust pedagogic intervention across a range of learning and teaching experiences. Web-based educational resources have profoundly changed the ways in which people access learning materials, reflect upon their learning and enhance their knowledge. The intervention of gaming into this skills development and knowledge promotion adds in a practical and applied dimension into concepts and theories of soft skills. Indeed, the creation of games to support soft skills training is deemed to be a 'relatively low cost, highly engaging alternative to traditional forms of soft skills training'³⁴¹ Research and development in the area of serious games has been increasing dramatically, for example, John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation, in collaboration with the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, donated \$10.3 million dollars to the GLASSLab Project) (discussed below).³⁴²

Research studies and projects are typically driven by a key focus on how technology can be harnessed more generally for educational purposes³⁴³. Specifically thinking about soft skills and gaming a number of key considerations emerge: what role can gaming play in soft skills development; at a European level, what projects exist, specifically FP7, that have utilized gaming for soft skills training and development. In reflecting upon the use and construction of gaming for successful training in soft skills, this piece considers the following question: what is the role of gaming in training soft skills and how can it be designed and tested with training and educational games? To address this question, this piece includes a review of the current literature around gaming and soft skills and presents examples of how FP7 programmes have previously spearheaded innovation in this regard.

³⁴⁰ *ibid*

³⁴¹ Linehan, Conor ; Lawson, Shaun and Doughty, Mark (2009). Tabletop Prototyping of Serious Games for 'Soft Skills' Training. Paper presented at the Conference in Games and Virtual Worlds for Serious Applications, see http://eprints.lincoln.ac.uk/2270/1/published_PDF.pdf

³⁴² GLASSLabs (2014). Students playing SimCityEDU made statistically significant gains in systems thinking. Learning Impact Report. Available at http://about.glasslabgames.org/downloads/SCE_ResearchShortV2.pdf

³⁴³ Squire, Kurt D. 2008. "Video Game-based Learning: An Emerging Paradigm for Instruction." *Performance Improvement Quarterly* 21.2: 7-36.



Soft Skills in Gaming

The following section outlines the role that soft skills have been played in gaming and outlines key examples and studies before moving on to explore different FP7 experiences of soft skills and gaming.

The role that gaming plays in enhancing skills is best understood by clarifying distinctions between different types of games and simulations. Several key studies illustrate a link between gaming and practice-based learning. For Sawyer simulations and games provide an opportunity to foster strategic thinking and benefit learning through repetition and experience of different contexts. Simulations are defined as an: Attempt to provide an environment that represents or mimics reality so as to facilitate learning of the player or user. They often are built to engage the learner in situations or events that would be too costly, difficult, or hazardous in the real world or that may be deemed problematic for ethical reasons.³⁴⁴

The focus here however is not on simulations or scenario-based e learning, but instead on gaming. Gaming is a different pedagogic construct and a different experience to simulations. Gaming can be defined as: An attempt to foster skill development by providing entertaining challenges for the player.³⁴⁵

These different approaches illustrate that there is a distance between simulations and gaming with different learning outcomes and pedagogic principles considered. For Malone, games are goal-orientated, complex and require the gamers to develop skills to achieve that goal.³⁴⁶ How then does the game best achieve this skills acquisition and enhancement to help achieve the learning goal? Three components are key according to Ju and Wagner):

- 1) A story: with characteristics, characters, resources, tasks and setting
- 2) Development approach: the design of outcomes and learning experience
- 3) Implementation: the visual interface of the game and opportunities for feedback³⁴⁷

These key characteristics identified in this study remain relevant to current day gaming for soft skills development as they not only shape user awareness and access but the learning experience. They are extended by Pivec and Dziabenko who contend that to create a successful game-based learning opportunity the following steps of design need to be considered:

³⁴⁴ Gredler, M. E. 1996. Educational games and simulations: A technology in search of a (research) paradigm. In D.H. Jonassen (Ed.), *Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 521-540). New York, NY: Simon & Schuster Macmillan.

³⁴⁵ See Ben Sawyer's white paper on 'Serious Games: Improving Public Policy through Game-based Learning and Simulation.' 2003. Quoted in Djaouti, D., Alvarez, J., Jessel, J., Rampnoux, O.: 'Origins of serious games', in Ma, M., Okionomou, A., Jain, L.C. (eds.) *Serious Games Edutainment Application*, pp. 25–43. Springer, New York. 2011, and Susi, T., Johannesson, M., Backlund, P.: *Serious games: An overview*. 2007.

³⁴⁶ Malone, T. (1981). Toward a theory of intrinsically motivating instruction. *Cognitive Science*, 4, 333-369.

³⁴⁷ Ju, E., & Wagner, C. 1997. Personal computer adventure games: Their structure, principles, and applicability for training. *The DATA BASE for Advances in Information Systems*, 28(2), 78-92.



- 1) Determine Pedagogical Approach (how you believe learning takes place)
- 2) Situate the Task in a Model World
- 3) Elaborate the Details
- 4) Incorporate Underlying Pedagogical Support
- 5) Map Learning Activities to Interface Actions
- 6) Map Learning Concepts to Interface Objects³⁴⁸

This extension of the Ju and Wagner model helps to further clarify the sophisticated and rigorous way in which gaming can be linked firmly into soft skills development.

5.7. THE ROLE OF GAMING IN DEVELOPING SOFT SKILLS

The growing trend of pedagogical interventions through gaming is particularly relevant given the extent to which gaming is utilized by European citizens. Following on from this trend, professional trainers, managers and educators have tapped into this activity by bringing gaming into the training room and classrooms as a mechanism for targeting different learning styles as well as enhancing the practical sides of knowledge acquisition. For Bers, the genre of 'Serious Games' belies much of the content, but serves as a reminder that the essential purpose of the gaming initiative is educational, rather than simply a focus on entertainment value.³⁴⁹ 'Serious Games' are utilized to train employees and students alike on a range of skills such as maths, language, history but also on the soft and transferable skills such as communication, empathy and emotional intelligence. Zyda maintains that scenario games extend beyond software, visuals and story and move into a more serious nature due to the inclusion of pedagogy to educate, elucidate and give knowledge or skills to the gamer. In other words, it is gaming with a purpose beyond entertainment.

James and James (2004) defined hard skills as task-oriented competencies learned through education and/or training and soft skills as aspects of attitude and emotion that are demonstrated through effective communication and interaction with clients, customers and employees. It is how gaming can be utilised to develop, extend and engage with these soft skills that this piece now focuses. There is increasing consideration for the applicability of gaming for soft skills training given the ability for games to support reflective learning, self-efficacy and reflection on performance. Yet these critical elements require central components of the game design to feature learning outcomes that are recognizable and measurable as well

³⁴⁸ See Pivec, M, and Dziabenko, O. 2004. Game-Based Learning in Universities and Lifelong Learning: "UniGame: Social Skills and Knowledge Training" Game Concept, Journal of Universal Computer Science, (1) 14-26

³⁴⁹ Bers, Marina Umaschi. 2010. "Let the Games Begin: Civic Playing on High-tech Consoles." *Review of General Psychology* 14.2: 147-53.



as feedback on performance and an opportunity to reflect. Donlinger adds that gaming that facilitates gamers to not only improve soft skills through gaming, but also develop interpersonal skills is a key success facilitated through gaming. Elsewhere, Azadeagan et al) echo this point, stating that:

‘Serious Games are proven as a learning method for conveying skills on complex tasks by incorporating sound learning and pedagogical principles into their design and structure.’³⁵⁰

How does gaming offer with credibility and comprehensively the ability to deliver on these core objectives of sound learning and pedagogical principles of self-efficacy and reflective learning? Does using games to train on soft skills work? Can gaming design include effective learning opportunities for soft skill development? Can gaming enhance the process of learning by experience and what does this mean for soft skills enhancement? Substantive literature, research and scholarship have pointed overwhelmingly in favour of gaming as an educational tool.³⁵¹ However, several studies have pointed to a dearth of evidence regarding the design and delivery of gaming as a method for training soft skills. For example, DeFreitas and Routledge contend the lack of research and scholarship that focuses on gaming for soft skills training in mature education, professional development and lifelong learning is less well established than other e-learning or gaming for education geared toward young people because the practice and pedagogy remains in its infancy. Yet, they too note a growth in this work due to ‘game development tools become cheaper and more pervasive, and as expectations of learners to be more engaged during learning increase over time.’ In addition to this, part of the lag around soft skills and gaming is that soft skills tend not to be a key component of curriculum in a way that hard skills are.

Whilst developments around soft skills and gaming are a relatively new area for growth, studies have contended that there has been accompanying lack of interrogation around pedagogic principles and practice. As has been noted:

a large number of educational, or serious, games appear to have ignored the principles that typically inform educational materials, particularly in regard to two issues; 1) embedding learning

³⁵⁰ Aida Azadegan, Johann C.K.H. Riedel, and Jannicke Baalsrud Hauge. 2012. Serious Games Adoption in Corporate Training. In: Minhua, Ma; Oliveira, Manuela and Baalsrud Hauge, Jannicke eds. Serious Games Development and Applications: Third International Conference, SGDA 2012, Bremen, Germany, September 26-29, 2012. Proceedings. Lecture Notes in Computer Science (7528). Berlin: Springer, pp. 74–85

³⁵¹ Pivec, M, and Dziabenko, O. 2004. Game-Based Learning in Universities and Lifelong Learning: "UniGame: Social Skills and Knowledge Training" Game Concept, Journal of Universal Computer Science, (1) 14-26



outcomes within the game mechanics, and, 2) providing immediate and specific feedback to participants regarding their behaviour.³⁵²

This raises three important dimensions: how games for soft skills are designed, delivered and how feedback is delivered. Therefore, in thinking about how gaming can be best utilized to deliver training on soft-skills the components of design need to incorporate the pedagogic principles of learning outcomes and feedback: elements that are critical in any traditional learning and teaching experience. As has been noted: Unlike traditional measurement tools, video games are by nature designed to measure progress since learning is happening, and is captured, in the gaming experience itself.³⁵³

In other words, the digital realm is well suited to this, e.g. feedback can be instant, tracked through digital interaction and built into the very design of games, e.g. from sophisticated eye-movement tracking or use of body sensors through to tracking clicks or time spent on task. To this end, gaming offers significant opportunities for outcome and evaluation through feedback tracking in different fields including biological feedback, emotional engagement or change, and hard skills. Put another way, feedback can be 'real-time, personalized, and actionable'.³⁵⁴

Self-reflection, building on feedback and self-efficacy also represents one critical form of lesson learning. Gaming is particularly well suited to self-reflection, self-efficacy and critical learning when developing soft skills because, games:

...become effective for learning when the gap between game-specific skills and real-life applications is bridged by the ability to generalize – comprehend and reapply – one's knowledge fitting the situation. For instance, the task of driving a car is not the same as in a driving simulator as in real life, since a simulation is only one representation of what it is like to drive a car, under constrained conditions. But if self-efficacy for driving a car in real life is promoted by driving in a simulator, by making the driver more *attentive, judicious, etc*, as reflected in an actual improvement of performance, then there is learning above the limitations of the simulator...."³⁵⁵

³⁵² Linehan, Conor ; Lawson, Shaun and Doughty, Mark (2009). Tabletop Prototyping of Serious Games for 'Soft Skills' Training. Paper presented at the Conference in Games and Virtual Worlds for Serious Applications, see http://eprints.lincoln.ac.uk/2270/1/published_PDF.pdf

³⁵³ Press Releases: Groundbreaking Video Game Design Lab Will Research and Develop Video Games to Engage Students and Measure Learning, cited at <http://www.theesa.com/article/groundbreaking-video-game-design-lab-will-research-develop-video-games-engage-students-measure-learning/>

³⁵⁴ See GLASSlabs <http://about.glasslabgames.org>

³⁵⁵ Backlund, Per, Mikael Lebram, Henrik Engstrom, Mikael Johannesson, and Bjorn Sjoden. "Designing for Self-Efficacy in a Game Based Simulator: An Experimental Study and Its Implications for Serious Games Design." Proc. of Visualization, 2008 International Conference, London. 106-13



In this insight, the role of gaming within developing soft skills can be an appropriate and a valuable intervention due to the facilitation of self-efficacy of soft skills with direct impacts not only on skills but improvement of the performance of key skills. The development of soft skills requires practice and there is therefore a natural synergy with gaming due to the vast opportunities for practice, simulated and experiential learning, and tracking such practice. The practice element is a crucial component of the lesson learning and gaming facilitates particularly effectively when training soft skills because emotions tend to accompany interpersonal interactions and thus make it harder to follow learned rules.³⁵⁶ Also, in keeping with this approach, gaming provides opportunities for emotional engagement and self-reflection that is suited better to soft skills than hard skills.³⁵⁷ (Within this approach, the pedagogy underpinning soft skills avoids the linear and extends into a more complex lesson learning process. Moving away from a mnemonic teaching and learning style, the development of soft-skills through experience and practice allows a stronger engagement with these skills. For Morgan and Adams (2009), gaming is particularly effective due to its capacity for the approach to be learner driven, theory and practice and more flexible to account for the complexity inherent in the soft skills situation.

5.8. GAMING FOR SOFT SKILLS TRAINING: OBSTACLES AND BARRIERS

A key study carried out as part of the GaLA: The European Network of Excellence on Serious Gaming (FP7: ICT) demonstrated that there exist a number of structural, organizational and individual barrier to utilizing gaming for soft skills training. Whilst software development and gaming development become increasingly affordable, there remains significant financial implications for any company embarking on training on soft skills through gaming. Barriers that make this costly investment difficult to judge the success on remain key as well and exacerbate the financial challenge:

- IT familiarity: older members of staff, outside of the average age of gaming familiarity as shown in section 4, may believe a serious game is not for them or beyond their technological capabilities despite the learning objectives. This can cause a self-exclusion or wariness to participate as experienced by consortium members when engaging with police and military actors. The game will be designed with all users in mind, with intuitive processes to follow, and tested with the full range of end users, taking into consideration gender, age, experience, race, and psychosocial impacts and identifiers;

³⁵⁶ Kotlyar, I, and Saks, A. 2001. The hard facts on soft skills and e-learning, Canadian HR Reporter, 13-27

³⁵⁷ Morgan, Gareth, and Jean Adams. 2009. "Pedagogy First: Making Web-Technologies Work." *Journal of Interactive Learning Research* 20.2 (2009): 129-55



- Practical benefits of the game can be unclear: this requires the strong marketing of the benefits of both serious gaming and the final end product of the GAP game. Clear communication strategies, with an agreed common language amongst consortium members, which reflects the language and terminology of the end user is key to engagement;
- IT support limitations: within the field of peacekeeping many key actors will have strict IT security protocols which may limit the type of access users have to different systems e.g. an online platform. Some key actor IT systems may be older than others, and connection to the Internet, especially when out in the field, may be challenging. Many of these issues will be considered within the State-of-the-Art research both into existing training delivery, and serious gaming. A security group advises the work of consortium, will the end user advisory group being able to provide additional support to overcome any major or typical IT support obstacles.

Furthermore, gaming for entertainment is a massive industry with billions spent each year in research and development resulting in increasingly sophisticated games. Electronic Arts (EA) which produces well known titles such as *Fifa Soccer* and other sports games, *The Sims*, *Battlefield*, *Need for Speed* has more than 220 million registered players and operates in 75 countries and earns about \$4.1 billion annually. EA is only the world's fourth-largest gaming company by revenue after Tencent, Sony and Microsoft. This poses a financial challenge as the expectations of those using 'serious games' is that they too should be of the quality of blockbuster entertainment gaming titles which are often the product of years of development, massive teams of developers and extensive budgets.

A good example of this, although not wholly about soft skills, is the game *Battlefield 3* used to train troops in the US and UK military, and several other armies. One of the challenges the game developers have had is that "troops are so used to playing high-quality commercial games set in combat zones that they tend to lose concentration unless the MoD simulations look equally realistic".³⁵⁸ The game itself must be continually developed and enhanced, at great cost, to keep up to speed with commercial titles such as *Black Ops* or *Call of Duty*. This will inevitably mean over time a closer relationship will be needed between commercial game developers and the entertainment industry. This will have its benefits in terms of funding and sustainability, but could also blur the line between entertainment, moneymaking and learning outcomes. Ideally, of course, it would be interesting to explore if this offers a route to sustaining serious educational projects.

³⁵⁸ See British Soldiers Can't Look Past 'Realism', cited on 24 November 2016 at <http://undertheradar.military.com/2012/01/british-soldiers-cant-look-past-realism/>



There are examples of this such as the EA's involvement in *GLASSlab*, which is developing video games that engage students in innovative ways and validate student learning of the core skills deemed critical by states for college and the 21st century workplace (discussed below).³⁵⁹ That said, these issues remain fundamentally structural, developmental and organizational and therefore are open to remedy. It also suggests that gaming, even if linked to education outcomes, is potentially lucrative and self-sustaining and explains why commercial developers are branching out into education. In fact, GLASSlabs is now based at EA's HQ, and is sponsored by EA.

A more problematic challenge was identified in this study, which was around the awareness of the e-benefits of gaming as an educational tool, as well as an inability to discern the mechanism in the game, that makes them educational. Whilst not damning in and of themselves, together these barriers co-exist to create challenges for the utility and effectiveness of gaming within different settings and contexts.

5.9. EXAMPLES OF GAMING FOR SOFT SKILLS

There are not an extensive number of FP7 programmes that have used gaming for soft skills. The ones, which have been located, are summarized below. However, before doing this it may be useful to outline some other programmes, as indicators of what might be helpful in the soft skills arena, in addition to the FP7 programme. There are ranges of examples of gaming initiatives that have developed soft skills. Some well-known examples include: The launch of *Minecraft: Education Edition* is probably one of the most famous international examples that has focused on the multiple benefits of education through digital platforms and gaming. *MinecraftEdu* represents one way in which gaming can be utilized purposefully to deliver interactive and experiential learning on a number of disciplines from history to chemistry, as well as soft skills such as communication, leadership and teamwork. For example, some of the lesson plans designed by *MinecraftEdu* focus specifically on spatial planning, geometry, design and working with fractions – however, others (such as games of deforestation or alien exploration) focus on softer skills such as campaigning, raising awareness and building culturally diverse communities.³⁶⁰ Other commercial games have also branched out into the educational space. The popular game *Plants vs. Zombies 2* also received a makeover into a title called *Use Your Brainz Edu*, the title is designed for math students ages 11 to 18. The

³⁵⁹ Press Releases: Groundbreaking Video Game Design Lab Will Research and Develop Video Games to Engage Students and Measure Learning, cited at <http://www.theesa.com/article/groundbreaking-video-game-design-lab-will-research-develop-video-games-engage-students-measure-learning/>

³⁶⁰ See <https://education.minecraft.net/how-it-works/in-the-classroom/>



game is described as similar to the main version, but is able to gather data on a child's problem solving skills thanks to its analytics engine, that can then be assessed by a teacher to record their progress.³⁶¹

Gamelearn is an initiative that specifically focuses on game-based learning with a specific focus on the learning and development of management skills or soft skills. Some areas covered would include putting oneself in the position of others, the development of analytical and communicative skills, and rapid decision taking. *Merchants* is a game based in 15 Century Venice in which the player has to develop a trading business. It specifically focuses on negotiation and conflict resolution. According to the company website the game has a 92% completion ratio and 97% of students apply what they learned to their jobs. *Gamelearn* also offer *Triskelion*, which is a time management, and personal productivity game in which the player (a Professor) essentially travels through time learning the secrets of time management from various historical characters and through learning interactions.

GLASSLab is a further well known example that seeks "to empower youth to claim their path to 21st century success through high-impact digital games". They primarily focus on developing educational games but are also built around a range of partners both commercial and educational. They offer a range of games, many which focus on skills such as mathematics and spatial arenas. However, *SimCityEDU*, for example, and based on the popular commercial *SimCity* games, puts students in charge of several busy cities in order to teach and assess systems thinking. The game supports learners in mastering three core systems thinking skills: identifying, investigating, and operating on multiple independent variables in complex economic and environmental systems. Research on the game being used in over four hundred middle school students from across the US found:

revealed major gains in performance on tough challenges. As a part of the eight-day pilot, students participated in four 45-minute class sessions working with the game and another four 45-minute class periods with more traditional instruction introducing Common Core English Language Arts standards for reading informational text and creating models as aids for reasoning about complex systems.³⁶²

A further well-known example is *Food Force*, the first serious game developed by the United Nations. Although information on the game does not highlight soft skills directly, it certainly attempts to change attitude and approach to world hunger. The game was developed in 2005 and players must undertake

³⁶¹ See 'Plants vs. Zombies 2 invades schools as educational tool' cited at <http://www.develop-online.net/news/plants-vs-zombies-2-invades-schools-as-educational-tool/0208169>

³⁶² GLASSlabs (2014). Students playing SimCityEDU made statistically significant gains in systems thinking. Learning Impact Report. Available at http://about.glasslabgames.org/downloads/SCE_ResearchShortV2.pdf



missions (managing convoys, helicopters, drops, etc.) to relieve famine impacted societies and undertake activities to promote self-sufficiency to prevent future famine. Part is also educational about United Nations World Food Programme (WFP) and its work. The game cost approximately \$475,000 and the game has been downloaded more than 2.1 million times, with more than 10 million impressions.³⁶³ In 2011 the game moved from a downloadable game to a Facebook game, and is the first games ever to feature a real-world impact through virtual goods. In other words, for the young people playing (targeted at 8-13 year olds) they often engage in fundraising and other work outside of the game due to the attitudinal shifts and awareness raising that takes place in the game. The above are just some examples of a wider phenomenon of gaming for soft-skills. Part of this phenomenon has been driven by a number of FP7 initiatives which are outlined below.

FP7 SUPPORTED INNOVATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

As Pivec and Dziabenko) point out some key initiatives at the start of the 21st century was driven forward by a number of EU projects including UniGame, GAMENET, GAMERESEARCH-NET and PROMETO-CG.³⁶⁴ More recently, there have also been several initiatives within the EU that centre on learning and skills acquisition through gaming. Yet, it is clear that these projects coalesce around a range of pedagogic issues: experiential learning and feedback; innovate to generate and embed skills;

Several European and FP7 projects have centred on enhancing the pedagogic focus and working specifically to enhance the learning experience within the game. For example, *DREAD-ED*, as part of the Leonardo project, funded by the EU Lifelong Learning Programme (see <http://www.dread-ed.eu/>) centred upon teaching soft skills through problem solving scenarios that provided clear, timely and specific feedback for disaster readiness. This project revealed two critical dimensions to gaming for soft skills training:

- 1) That the desired learning outcomes must be embedded within the game play mechanics.
- 2) Secondly, simple and short learning experiences, which fit into larger and more complex challenges, help to reinforce and embed learning.

These two key findings underpin the pedagogy of training and classrooms and translate them to the virtual gaming environment.

³⁶³ DeMaria, Rusel. 2005. Postcard From The Serious Games Summit: How the United Nations Fights Hunger with Food Force at http://www.gamasutra.com/view/feature/130861/postcard_from_the_serious_games.php

³⁶⁴ Pivec, M, and Dziabenko, O. 2004. Game-Based Learning in Universities and Lifelong Learning: "UniGame: Social Skills and Knowledge Training" Game Concept, Journal of Universal Computer Science, (1) 14-26



EntrinnO is an EU funded project for addressing the need for optimizing the development of entrepreneurship and innovation in Europe. It's key purpose is to enhance the skills of young EU citizens, which are a crucial population of a progressive, entrepreneurial and market-based economy and society. They realize this objective through the development of an interactive online game, accessible online and offline and adaptable in various contexts. The project revealed that when utilizing gaming to train soft skills, the game equipped the gamer/learner with skills such as creativity, communication, leadership, risk-taking, time management, problem solving, taking initiative and flexibility. This project also embedded the pedagogical practice inherent in soft-skills training- collaboration. Reinforcing the findings from *DREAD-ED*, *EntrinnO* found that participants enjoyed shorter sessions rather than longer repetitive gaming. Their research has also identified self-reflection and assessment as a key element in the game. This innovative approach to skills development recognized the benefits of soft skills development through a gaming. Project number: 2015-1-CY01-KA204-011868

L4S (Project ID 225634 FP-Security), sought to provide a clear understanding and to further develop existing know-how, in both interdisciplinary scientific / academic models and best / worst practices and experiences in the field of transportation. It focuses on the factors inhibiting effective collaboration dynamics in crises and leading to the failure of effective crisis management and of the interventions required to reduce these risks. Again, utilizing innovative gaming software, this project implemented state-of-the-art highly interactive and experiential learning solutions that enable the effective understanding and management of the challenges in crisis situations. This included soft skills development such as:

1. Acting under extreme time pressure;
2. Facing the lack, ambiguity, and / or asymmetries of information;
3. Dealing with human factors like cognitions, attitudes and emotions; and
4. Addressing the interpersonal relationship dimension like fast relationship building and activation for the mobilisation of social resources, trust building, cohesion and role definitions and also handling diversity and conflicts.

Relating firmly a link between innovative training methods and soft skills development, *L4S* represents a growing evidence base of research and practice where solutions to societal problems are increasingly tackled through developing the skills of practitioners through gaming technology.

Two other key projects are worth reporting on: *ETCETERA* (261512 FP7 Security) and *SIMID* (268272 FP7-People). Both projects utilize technology and gaming to enhance soft skills. *ETCETERA* developed methodologies and applied, e.g. a "serious gaming" approach and a new economic model to assess high risk, high pay-off research options. These activities were closely accompanied by work on ethical aspects, as

This project has received funding from the EU Framework Programme for Research and Innovation HORIZON 2020 under the agreement 700670. Agency is not responsible of any use that may be made of the information it contains.



decisions about research funding should take into consideration all possible implications of novel technologies on society. *SIMID* likewise garnered gaming to improve decision making in the presence of dynamic complexity, which is a challenging task. In utilizing gaming and simulations, *SIMID* represented a further extension of education and training of soft-skills through gaming.

The review has revealed that there are a minimal number of FP7 programmes, which have used gaming for soft skills. However, aside from these programmes, the academic evidence and research suggests overwhelmingly, that gaming as a vehicle, is a positive educational tool. The findings from the review would also suggest that over the last decade the development of soft-skills training through digital platforms and gaming has emerged as an innovative and robust pedagogic intervention across a range of learning and teaching experiences. Whether engaging children and youth, young people or adults, the acquisition and ability to utilize soft skills is increasingly important for education, as well as the workplace. The growing trend of pedagogical interventions through gaming is particularly relevant given the extent to which gaming is utilized by European citizens. Following on from this trend, professional trainers, managers and educators have tapped into this activity by bringing gaming into the training room and classrooms as a mechanism for targeting different learning styles as well as enhancing the practical sides of knowledge acquisition.

5.10 GAMES ON CONFLICT RESOLUTION AND MEDIATION

In this review of games in conflict resolution and mediation, there are two separate sections. The first looks at industry and the second, more academic projects. They are reviewed separately from industry and NGO efforts because the merits of academic projects are typically different, and their findings are typically well documented, mandating longer and more in-depth reviews. Much of this work deals with conflict in social situations, schools or offices, but even if such settings are more mundane than those we will use for the GAP scenarios, we expect the ideas presented in the research could easily apply to GAP-relevant contexts too—and for this reason include them in this review.

Façade



Façade) is undoubtedly the most well-known example of an interactive drama system.³⁶⁵ It was developed by Mateas and Stern at Georgia Tech in USA. It is a single-player game in which the player takes on the role of an old friend of a married couple who are on the verge of a marital breakdown. Effectively taking on the role of marriage counsellor, the player can try to help the couple resolve their differences and disagreements through careful interaction and mediation between the two characters. Façade is particularly famous for using a sophisticated AI engine to enforce a dramatic (Aristotelian) arc of intensity, regardless of the player's actions, which means that the player will get different experiences.

Figure 5.4 - Screenshot from Façade (2005)



Source: <http://www.interactivestory.net>

In terms of skills, Façade's was not intended as an educational experience, and the authors' focus is clearly on innovation in relation to narrative structure and discourse mechanics, rather than on providing a new tool for learning. For this reason, they do not discuss specific skills required for or acquired during the game.

In terms of technology, Façade uses a natural language parser to parse player utterances (which are typed on the keyboard) and maps them to a range of predefined discourse acts. The discourse acts then affect the characters and the dramatic intensity of the situation, and an AI planner is used to pick dramatic "beats" (units of action) that advance the drama. Within each beat, a number of behaviours for the characters are available, and the AI planner is also responsible for selecting the next behaviour for each of

³⁶⁵ Mateas, Michael, and Andrew Stern. 2003. "Façade: An experiment in building a fully-realized interactive drama." Game Developers Conference. Vol. 2.



the characters. Despite the amount of attention *Façade* has received, the technology behind it has not been made available as a general-purpose framework or even used in other games.

In terms of game design, *Façade*'s discourse acts (e.g., agree, express sad, comfort) are the fundamental actions that the player can perform and therefore constitute game mechanics. There are about 40 of such acts in total, and the natural language utterances typed by the player are mapped to these. The game also uses a very simple 3D environment that allows the player to move around in the space, pick up objects, etc. Such physical actions are mapped to discourse acts too (e.g., kiss, wanderAway). The visual style chosen for the characters is very simple—essentially 2D characters in a small 3D environment. The characters are cartoony but moderately expressive. The characters respond with voice rather than text, which makes for a more immersive experience. *Façade* is not an easy game, and preventing the marital breakup is not a straight forward task. The player must choose their words carefully and avoid siding with one of the two. However, it encourages exploration of the possible methods and therefore has good replay value. As noted, the authors of *Façade* were not concerned with learning per se, so no performance figures exist.

Office Brawl

The interactive story *Office Brawl* is a short game developed in the Scenejo interactive storytelling tool, developed by a team at Hochschule RheinMain in Wiesbaden, Germany.³⁶⁶ It is a single-player experience in which the player takes on the role of project manager for a team of two computer-controlled characters Lucy (a designer) and Ben (a programmer) who are fighting over the development of an interactive storytelling platform. The player attempts to mediate between the two characters by typing utterances addressed to each of the characters and “wins” the game if the conflict is resolved.

Figure 5.5 – Screenshot from *Office Brawl* (2011)

³⁶⁶ Glock, F., et al. 2011. "Office Brawl." A Conversational Storytelling Game and its Creation Process. In: Proceedings of the Eighth International Conference on Advances in Computer Entertainment Technology (ACE 2011), Lisbon, Portugal



Source: <http://iris.interactive-storytelling.de/CaseStudyOfficeBrawl>

Office Brawl is clearly focused on helping the player learn how to mediate between the two characters, but the exact skills intended for acquisition are not explicitly stated in publications related to the project [6, 9]. However, the two characters insult each other and a considerable amount of the player's utterances should be to get the two to restrain their insults. The characters generally respond well to this, such as in the gameplay video³⁶⁷ where the player says "Ben, please discuss reasonable" and the character responds "Okay, you're right." It seems safe to say that the player's main job is to exercise basic negotiation skills, e.g., calm the situation and make both of the characters see that the other one has a valid point.

In terms of technology, the game is relatively simple. It uses a 2D view where the characters are implemented as chatbots that trigger pre-recorded video snippets. The visual design of the characters is based on a distorted photo cut-out aesthetic where the key facial expressions as well as hand and body movement are deliberately exaggerated, much like a cartoon. This works well for the game, making it clear to the player what emotions the characters are feeling. In terms of game mechanics, Office Brawl uses a textual natural language interface in which the player types their utterances in the form of direct speech. The utterances can be directed specifically at each of the characters by prefixing the name of the intended receiver, e.g., "Ben, please discuss reasonable" to which the characters can respond. The basic action in Office Brawl is therefore a dialogue act. At the design stage, the creators of Office Brawl mapped out the range of basic dialogue acts and then created three variations of dialogue for each and attached numeric values to them, corresponding to a strong (+2) or weak (+1) argument, or no argument (-1). The numeric values were used to affect an argument counter in a manner that encouraged the player to challenge weak or no arguments presented by the characters. Each character was also equipped with an explicit mood

³⁶⁷ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=clf86hmsz4E>



barometer to make each character's emotional state more transparent than if the player were to rely on the animations alone. Office Brawl seems primarily intended as a demonstrator for the Scenejo game engine, and it does not appear that any specific measurements were made in order to assess whether players learned anything about mediation or project management from the experience.

ColCoMa

ColCoMa is a game developed in 2011-2012 as an MSc project at the University of Duisburg-Essen in Germany. Its stated aim is "to train conflict management skills through a collaborative serious role-playing game based on psychological theories of conflict management".³⁶⁸ It is a two-player experience in which the players take on the role of conflicting parties: a sales representative Mr Meier who spends a lot of time on the phone interacting his clients, and his boss Mrs Schmidt who feels the time used is excessive and wants him to be more efficient. The mediator in this case is controlled by the computer.

Figure 5.6 – Screenshot from ColCoMa (2012)³⁶⁹



The main paper documenting ColCoMa is not highly specific about the skills that the game is intended to enable learning, but simply states that that it aims to train conflict management skills. The approach is quite different from Façade and Office Brawl in that the player learns through enactment and re-enactment of an actual conflict, rather than taking on the role as mediator. The idea is to "provide the possibility to explore, experience, and learn about conflict management and resolution without affecting the real world".³⁷⁰ The approach is also novel in its use of separate phases for conversation and reflection. In the conversation phase, the players play through the conflict, interacting with each other and the mediator. In

³⁶⁸ Emmerich, Katharina, et al. 2012. "Training conflict management in a collaborative virtual environment." International Conference on Collaboration and Technology. Springer Berlin Heidelberg,

³⁶⁹ Ibid.

³⁷⁰ Ibid.



the reflection phase, the system adds highlighted feedback to the utterances that the players produced during play with a view to help the players understand why these utterances were not as good as they could have been.

In terms of technology, the underlying structure is a quite sophisticated combination of chatbots configured in a multi-agent architecture, which communicate via a blackboard using a tuple-space abstraction. The agents themselves are expressed in Artificial Intelligence Markup Language (AIML), and it appears that the authors have really stretched this rather limited language to its limits. This framework is intended to be generic and easily applicable to other games, but the degree to which the authors went out of their way to get the AIML chatbots to produce the desired effect would indicate that other technologies might be more suitable. The visual representation of the characters is extremely simple, and does not appear to be animated significantly, although we were unable to find video recordings to examine this further. As you would expect, the main interface is text-oriented, requiring players to read the utterances of each other as well as the mediator.

Other than the switching of roles from mediator to participant in a conflict, the game mechanics are similar to those of *Façade* and *Office Brawl*. The core mechanic consists of dialogue actions that are interpreted and responded to by the system and the other player. A big difference between the other two projects reviewed is that *ColCoMa* is a two-player game. In terms of learning performance, the *ColCoMa* game was not really evaluated to see if player achieved any improvement in their knowledge about conflict management. The user study presented [10] was conducted with a small sample size of eight students and was intended as a usability test of the system, rather than its effectiveness as a learning tool.

A Breathtaking Journey

A Breathtaking Journey (ABJ) is “an embodied and multisensory mixed-reality game providing a first-person perspective of a refugee’s journey” developed by a team of researchers from Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences and Eindhoven University of Technology in the Netherlands.³⁷¹ The game was developed based on the authors’ prior collaboration with Amnesty International in order “to explore how interactive media could help motivate people to change or reinforce attitudes towards human rights related issues.” The player takes on the role of a refugee hiding in the back of a virtual truck in order to flee from a war-torn country.

³⁷¹ Kors, Martijn JL, et al. "A Breathtaking Journey. 2016. On the Design of an Empathy-Arousing Mixed-Reality Game." Proceedings of the 2016 Annual Symposium on Computer-Human Interaction in Play. ACM



Figure 5.7 – Setup for A Breathtaking Journey (2016)



Source: <http://abreathtakingjourney.com>

In terms of skills, ABJ is concerned mainly with exploring the degree to which empathy can be invoked, e.g., through mixed-reality VR setups. For this reason, it is not a learning game per se and does not list specific skills that were the target of acquisition. In terms of technology, ABJ is sophisticated for a research project, using not merely a virtual reality headset but also mixed reality features, such as “real world gravity, acceleration, wind, mass, materials, scent and temperature”.³⁷² As its platform, the game used an Oculus VR headset with over the ear headphones, which is a typical VR setup, but additionally placed the player inside an actual wooden crate in order to provide a realistic tactual representation of the game elements experienced through the VR setup. Furthermore, the crate was placed in a suspension system that allowed the authors to simulate the movement of a heavy motor situated underneath the player in a highly realistic manner. The player was also equipped with a gasmask type device that allowed the authors to provide olfactory stimulation (the smell of mandarins) as well as to measure the player’s breathing.³⁷³ The visual effects were modeled in the Unreal Engine 4.

In terms of game mechanics, the play experience is short, spanning a total of five minutes across two scenes. The first scene features a disembodied experience where the player hears the main character’s own voice (in the gender they chose to play) describing the kidnapping of his/her brother and subsequent journey by sea. In the second scene, the player is situated in a moving truck loaded with mandarins, which is stopped for inspection. Depending on the player’s breathing and the amount of noise he/she makes, the

³⁷² Kors, Martijn JL, et al. "A Breathtaking Journey. 2016. On the Design of an Empathy-Arousing Mixed-Reality Game." Proceedings of the 2016 Annual Symposium on Computer-Human Interaction in Play. ACM

³⁷³ <https://vimeo.com/130994421>



player is caught or not. The specific mechanics are related to looking around (in the initial part of the game) and to looking and staying quiet (in the second part of the game).

The performance of the game was evaluated through a user study, intended to measure the level of empathy that players felt with the main character, specifically to “probe[s] how participants recounted their experience as a refugee in ABTJ.” Their findings show that the players felt highly embodied as evidenced by their use of language referring to body parts and physical sensation to describe their experience. This helped create empathy for the main (embodied) character.

Green Acres High

Green Acres High is a browser game developed by a team of researchers from Coventry University in the UK, West University in Sweden, Friedrich-Alexander University Erlangen in Germany, and Limburg Catholic University College in Belgium with a view to combat adolescent dating violence (ADV).³⁷⁴ The game is a browser game in which players take on the roles of a friend of someone who has experienced a scenario of possible ADV. The player interacts with the game through a series of questions, giving advice to the computer-controlled friend character. It is structured into five chapters of increasing sophistication in the material and stated learning outcomes. Green Acres High is highly specific about its skills focus and states the following specific learning outcomes:

- Have a clear understanding of the characteristics of positive and negative relationships
- Be able to identify some of the warning signs of potentially abusive relationships.
- Have obtained knowledge about the nature of abuse
- Be able to correctly identify different forms of abusive behaviour
- Be able to identify warning signs of abuse in relationships
- Be able to describe the cycle of abuse
- Be able to identify risk factors for abuse
- Be able to describe how gender stereotypical attitudes can facilitate abusive behaviour
- Be able to identify the individual steps within the process of conflict resolution
- Be able to identify sources of help within their schools and communities
- Be able to consider appropriate courses of action should a friend be involved in an abusive relationship

³⁷⁴ Bowen, Erica, et al. 2014. "It's like you're actually playing as yourself": Development and preliminary evaluation of 'Green Acres High', a serious game-based primary intervention to combat adolescent dating violence+." *Psychosocial Intervention* 1.23: 43-55.



- Be able to consider appropriate courses of action should they themselves be involved in an abusive relationship³⁷⁵

In terms of technology, the game is simple, running as a Flash game within a standard web browser. The graphics are simple too, taking the form of cartoon style visuals with speech bubbles superimposed on the graphics in order to convey dialogue.

Figure 5.8 - Green Acres High (2014)



Source: <http://www.ebgd.be/green-acres-high/>

The game's mechanics are standard non-linear storytelling mechanics in the form of a branching narrative tree where the player chooses an utterance option at each node in the tree. It is of interest that the role served by the player is that of supporter of one of the story's characters, i.e., a third party, although not exactly a mediator as in *Façade* and *Office Brawl*. For that reason, the learning appears to be achieved through experimentation and reflection, rather than empathy or immersion.

In terms of learning performance, the authors present an initial analysis of a user study with 13 individuals. They conclude that, "[i]nitial findings do suggest that those who played this serious game had a positive learning experience, which led to perceived improvement and development of their understanding about ADV, which would enable them to identify and manage problematic elements of their own and other people's relationships."³⁷⁶

5.11 GAMES ON CONFLICT PREVENTION AND PEACE

In addition to the primarily academic work discussed in the previous chapter, there is also a body of work developed by industry, government organisations and by NGOs for educational purposes. We summarise

³⁷⁵ *ibid*

³⁷⁶ *Ibid.*



this work in this section, using a shorter format of project profiles, rather than the longer analytical format we used for the academic projects. As for the academic projects, we cast a wide net, reviewing work that takes place in a wider range of settings than the GAP settings themselves.

Example of Games

Battle for Humanity

Developer: Search for Common Ground (NGO)

Year: 2016

The NGO, Search for Common Ground, has recently created Battle for Humanity, a digital game intended to promote cooperation and conflict resolution among young adults.³⁷⁷ Whilst it is aimed at a young audience, it is useful to note for the GAP project in their approach to conflict resolution as well as the technological platforms and systems used. The game will: Combine a social media platform, mobile and web App, and real-life video game; B4H will engage youth living close to violence constructively in their community. Backed by a positive psychology framework, B4H uses the same tactics that make video games like Call of Duty and movies like the Avengers popular today. Terrorist organizations and gangs offer youth camaraderie and a chance to feel powerful. Battle for Humanity will do the same, but shape leaders for tomorrow.³⁷⁸

The first phase takes users on a real-life adventure to stop destructive conflict around them using the mobile and web app. It's like a video game that plays out in the real world. Players receive on and offline missions and trainings while gaining points and moving up the ranks for completing positive actions in their community. Missions are on- and off-line, ranging from sharing a video on Facebook to leaving an anonymous letter of encouragement to a bullied classmate, from hosting an online dialog session to raising awareness on gender-based violence through a street performance. Some missions are 'multi-player' so youth can complete them with their local squad

Track4

Developer: Track4

Year: 2010-present

Summary: Track4 uses simulations in the art of negotiation and mediation. The simulation places the participant in the position of negotiators and mediators. 'The exercises provide you with an insider's view of a conflict and the concerns of individuals and groups involved, as well as allowing for the experience the pressures and unpredictability of diplomatic or political negotiations. Track4 creates a "mirror universe", a true to life replica of the political and social context, the human dynamics and material realities that shape

³⁷⁷ See; <https://paxsims.wordpress.com/2016/12/17/battle-for-humanity-beta-testers-required/> Accessed 21/12/16. More info: <https://www.sfcg.org/tag/battle-for-humanity/>

³⁷⁸ Ibid.



a conflict and are at play in a real negotiation.³⁷⁹ Simulations in Track4 allow participants to gain knowledge and skills.: <http://track-4.com/>

Strategic Economic Needs and Security Exercise (SENSE)

Developer: The US Institute for Peace and IDA (Institute for Defence Analysis)

Year: 2009-present

Summary: The U.S. Institute for Peace which is extremely prominent in the field of conflict prevention and peacebuilding, has also developed 'smart tools, for smart play'. This is a simulation games for professionals, government, NGOs, working in peace and conflict: <http://www.usip.org/events/strategic-economic-needs-and-security-exercise-sense-1>

Zhobia

Developer: &RANJ Year: 2016

Summary: 'A consortium of international peacebuilding institutions (ACCORD, GCSP, PeaceNexus, UNITAR, UNSSC, USIP) have joined forces with serious gaming company &ranj to create a game for peace practitioners from all corners of the world. The game aims at creating awareness and trains local and international professionals in manoeuvring through complex, ever changing socio- political problems. Soft-skill topics like these aren't easily captured in existing training methods like classroom training and e-learning. A serious game can immerse the players in a compelling storyline. It provides a safe environment to experiment behaviour and practice competencies. After playing the peacebuilding practitioners should be able to execute their learnings in their real-life quest to peace.' GAF van Baalen is noted as the Game Director and co-owner of the game through his company &RANJ. However, at present there is no example of this game on either the &RANJ website or the UNSSC, though this is not surprising as some of the content may be security sensitive.

³⁷⁹ See www.track-4.com (Accessed 12 December 2016)



Figure 5.9 – Zhobia



<http://www.accord.org.za/news/groundbreaking-peacebuilding-game-developed-peacebuilders-peacebuilders/>

Peacemaker

Developer: Impact Games. Year: 2007

Summary: Simulates the violence and political turbulence of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. Players choose between the role of an Israeli prime minister or a Palestinian Authority president, making policy decisions and communicating with the international community while dealing with unexpected violent events. The game was developed for teaching high school and college students about the complexities of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict by focusing on the goal of cohabitation rather than on occupation and destruction.

More info: www.peacemakergame.com

Figure 5.10 - Peacemaker





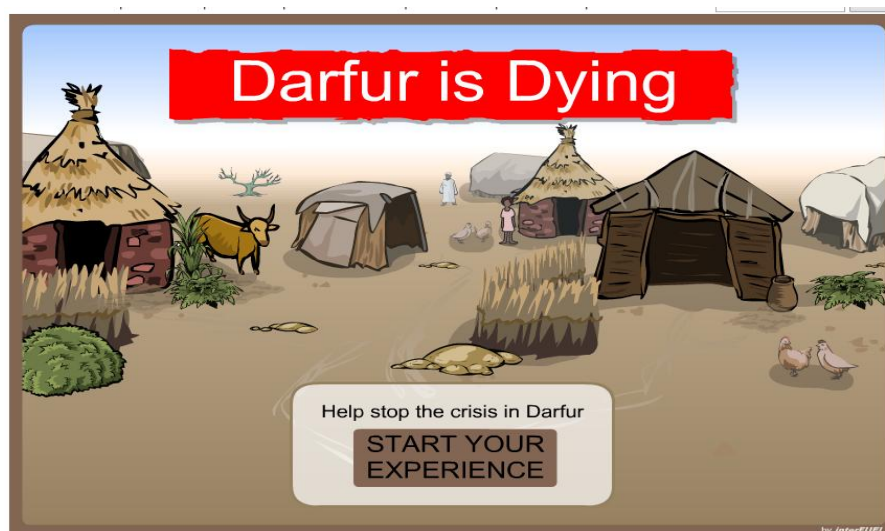
Darfur is Dying.

Developer: mtvU

Year: 2006

Summary: Darfur is Dying is a viral video game for change that provides a window into the experience of the 2.5 million refugees in the Darfur region of Sudan. Players must keep their refugee camp functioning in the face of possible attack by Janjaweed militias. Players can also learn more about the genocide in Darfur that has taken the lives of 400,000 people, and find ways to get involved to help stop this human rights and humanitarian crisis. www.darfurisdying.com

Figure 5.11 - Darfur is Dying



Foreign Ground

Developer: Swedish National Defence College.

Year: 2005

Summary: A first-person perspective training game used by the Swedish military to that simulates peacekeeping operations. Instead of focusing on combat it deals mostly with solving problems using non-violent means without relying on duels and combat. The user plays the role of a UN Peacekeeper and solves various tasks while on foot or vehicle patrol. <http://www.gamespot.com/articles/spot-on-swedens-military-trains-for-peace/1100-6137237/>



The World Peace Game

Developer: John Hunter.

Summary: The World Peace Game is a hands-on political simulation that gives players the opportunity to explore the connectedness of the global community through the lens of the economic, social, and environmental crises and the imminent threat of war. The goal of the game is to extricate each country from dangerous circumstances and achieve global prosperity with the least amount of military intervention. As “nation teams,” students will gain greater understanding of the critical impact of information and how it is used. Created by John Hunter and presented at the 2011 TED Conference. <https://worldpeacegame.org/>

Figure 5.12 - **The World Peace Game**



Cool School : Where Peace Rules

Developer: The Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service.

Summary: Trying to reduce violence in schools, this game was introduced to teach children how to resolve familiar interpersonal conflicts peacefully. A gameplay video.³⁸⁰

Figure 5.13 - **Cool School: Where Peace Rules**



<http://www.coolschoolgame.com/>

³⁸⁰ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=m0eX4td3j0s>



5.12. GAMING IN CPPB TRAINING

As explored already in 2.4. on CPPB training, there are many organisations offering a range of topics and delivery models to train peacekeepers. At this point of the research the consortium is interested in the current status of gaming/serious gaming as a training delivery methods within CPPB. Initial research began using the following keywords and phrases to access open source data:

- Gaming UN peacekeepers
- Gaming NATO peacekeepers
- Gaming EU peacekeepers
- Conflict resolution training serious game
- Peacebuilding training serious game
- Conflict prevention training serious game

The PAXSims blog is devoted to the development and effective use of games and simulation-based learning concerning issues of conflict, peacebuilding, and development in fragile and conflict-affected states, as well as to the policy application of gaming and simulation techniques. Some of the research behind PAXsims is funded by the Social Science and Humanities Research Council of Canada. Other information seems to be self-published and perhaps peer-reviewed. Through PaxSims several games were identified through predominantly these are paper-based/board/classroom games. This is encouraging as it shows that gaming as a methodology is accepted and used, however it doesn't give strong examples of serious gaming to learn lessons for GAP developments. Below are a few examples of the types of games highlighted by PaxSims:

Peacekeeping the Game is a relatively simple 3-4 player board game developed by Michael Goon (Yeshiva University) that explores the challenge of long-term peace building in fragile and conflict-affected countries.³⁸¹ The game was published in the International Studies Perspective journal and the author's website in 2011:

- a. Aimed at political science (a field where many peacekeepers start from) students face the difficult challenge of understanding the obstacles to resolving intrastate conflict. The long-term challenges of directing peacebuilding and ensuring security are as equally important parts of intrastate conflict resolution as the commonly taught negotiation skills, and can remain unaddressed in current simulations. Board-game-like rules that present realistic obstacles to students as they try to balance the various needs of their assigned state provide opportunities for a fuller approach to conflict resolution.

³⁸¹ <https://paxsims.wordpress.com/2012/02/27/peacekeeping-the-game/> Accessed 21/12/16



- b. It contains specific learning objectives; understanding strategic planning and risk taking faced by leaders in post-conflict societies; evaluating the role of peacebuilding and reconstruction in conflict resolution; understanding insecurity and uncertainty in conflict resolution; exploring the importance of a long-term peacekeeper presence in the gradual reduction of militarism; understanding vulnerabilities in peacebuilding; understanding uncertainty in elections, including the potential for extremism; considering the difficulty of transitioning from a welfare state to market economy; exploring the role of external actors in conflict resolution, including the potential for third parties to sabotage peace. The game contains a debriefing sheet to maximize learning outcomes from the game.
- c. In its conceptualization and approach, Peacekeeping the Game explicitly draws from Roland Paris' book *At War's End: Building Peace After Civil Conflict*. This is especially true in the way that it views the relationship between economic and political transition, in the focus on the importance of sectoral institution-building, and in the view that a rush to premature elections can be dangerously destabilizing.

Civil Defence Day 1³⁸²: Educating youths and adults about disaster awareness information. The author, Mr. Francis Josef C. Gasgonia is a professional Environmental Planner specializing in Urban Planning and Disaster Risk Reduction Management Planning currently involved in developing plans for local government units felt in the past such training was uninspiring, often drowning in complex concepts, terminologies, and technicalities. He instead developed a crowdfunding campaign for a game:³⁸³ The Goal (Scheme): The game puts players in the shoes of disaster risk reduction and humanitarian action professionals to engage youths and adults in becoming advocates of disaster risk reduction and humanitarian action.

PaxSims also highlights relevant research in the related fields of both peacekeeping and serious gaming. Two studies worth noting within the GAP developments may include: 'Representing qualitative social science in computational models to aid reasoning under uncertainty: National security examples'; Paul K Davis and Angela O'Mahony: 2016 and 'Representing social science in national-security-related modeling and simulation': Paul K Davis and Angela O'Mahony: 2016. The People Power Game.³⁸⁴ Again this is aimed at a slightly different audience to the GAP but may suggest some considerations to take into account. People Power is about politics, strategy and social change. Within the game players are a leader of a popular movement fighting against tough adversaries who control the police, the army and bureaucracy, even the media, 'the only weapon in your hand is your strategic skill and ingenuity.' It advertises itself as an

³⁸² <https://boondocksandcities.wordpress.com/2016/11/25/crowdfunding-civil-defense-day-1/> Accessed 21/12/16

³⁸³ <https://www.thesparkproject.com/projects/view/Civil-Defense-The-Board-Game.>

³⁸⁴ <http://www.aforcemorepowerful.org/game/index.php> Accessed 21/12/16



interactive teaching tool in the field of nonviolent conflict, People Power was produced for The International Center on Nonviolent Conflict (ICNC) by York Zimmerman Inc.

For instance, A Force More Powerful simulated nonviolent struggles to win freedom and secure human rights however, the game was retired due to incompatibility with newer soft and hardware, and replaced by the new and improved game, People Power, which runs on PCs, Apple and Linux; which highlights the importance on future-proofing GAP from technical advances wherever possible.

From Game Design to Service Design; A Framework to Gamify Services, Sol Klapztein, Carla Cipolla, discusses gaming as a learning tool suggesting a framework to gamify services which may be useful to GAP.

³⁸⁵ The authors noticed that, ‘game designers have long been developing strategies to foster engagement, pleasure and a variety of sensations in game experiences, increasingly applying their research to areas beyond games. This has led to a growing recognition of the use of game elements in non-game settings. In parallel, service designers have been seeking to improve user experience and engagement in services. Drawing on relevant literature about game design, the authors develop a framework that gathers a variety of game design research endeavours to form a practical tool to support service development from a user experience perspective. Its application is exemplified and simulated in a methodological approach to Action Design Research on a selected service.’ Serious Games for Teaching Conflict Resolution: Modeling Conflict Dynamics³⁸⁶ by Yun-Gyung Cheong, Rilla Khaled, Christoffer Holmgard, Georgios N. Yannakakis: 2014 is a research report detailing the development by the authors of the serious game ‘Village Voices’. As part of this research they also considered other serious games within conflict resolution. Again this game is aimed at a young audience, where many of the online immersive serious gaming developments seem to originate from, however lessons can be taken on the models used and the incorporation of different soft skills as well as conflict prevention and resolution. The report explains, ‘Village Voices, an adaptive serious game designed to support children in learning about conflict resolution, in the context of conflict situations that are likely to arise in a school setting. Relying on experiential learning as an underlying learning philosophy, and based on Bodine and Crawford’s six-phase model of resolving conflict, Village Voices puts players in the role of interdependent villagers who need to work through the various conflicts that arise in the game world. To gradually earn conflict guru status, players must successfully complete various personalized quests, which require cooperation between players.

³⁸⁵ <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/1046878116641860> Accessed 21/12/16

³⁸⁶ <https://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&source=web&rct=j&url=http://yannakakis.net/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/conflict.pdf&ved=0ahUKEwi6je7VjonRAhXcdFAKHt0XCcEQFggaMAA&usg=AFQjCNGGjaySHN2N9JDQNhHLSraYWNplyQ> Accessed 21/12/16



The research report then highlights the following existing games which place players in the role of conflict mediators seeking to find a win-win solution to conflict and of mentors teaching conflict resolution skills. Village Voice is different to these by creating, 'situations for players to experience conflicts first-hand, and relies on an accurate player model that drives the adjustment and selection of quests for each player. As such, it provides a personalized learning experience for its players, providing them with quests appropriate to their conflict resolution abilities. In developing this form of personalized experience, it is necessary to capture how players react to conflict, identify detectors of conflict through the game and, thereby, understand the dynamics of conflict. An innovation of Village Voices is the data-driven approach for assessing children's perception about conflict through a Game'. Existing games quoted in the report include: The Global Conflicts series developed by Serious Games Interactive concern games set in different locations around the world dealing with major conflicts for the purpose of challenging players' beliefs and ideas about conflict. In Global Conflicts: Palestine, for example, the player takes on the role of a journalist who is collecting information for a newspaper article, and must balance trust building with information collection.³⁸⁷

- FearNOT! is another example of a serious game about conflict, but specifically focuses on bullying. In this game, the player is an invisible friend of a virtual character who is a victim of bullying, and the player's task is to interact with the friend and advise him on how to cope with bullying-related problems. ³⁸⁸.
- Choices and Voices is a role-playing game in which players can experiment with peer pressure management and resistance strategies, decision making in moral dilemmas, and critical assessment of advice³⁸⁹. The interactive scenarios are integrated into a narrative, where players must make a range of decisions and consider different points of view. Quandary is a digital card-based game that presents ethical issues and conflicts involving non-player characters for the player to reason through from a mediator perspective, requiring critical thinking, perspective taking, and decision making. ³⁹⁰.

What is not clear is how much any of these games are used to date by any of the agencies or staff in various roles within peacekeeping. The USIP works directly in conflict zones with local partners to prevent conflicts from turning to bloodshed and to end it when they do. The Institute provides training, analyses and other

³⁸⁷ Serious Games Interactive (2007) Global conflicts: Palestine

³⁸⁸ Aylett R, Vala M, Sequeira P, Paiva A (2007) Fearnot! - an emergent narrative approach to virtual dramas for anti-bullying education. In: International Conference on Virtual Storytelling, Saint Malo, France.

³⁸⁹ PlayGen (2010) Choices and voices. <http://playgen.com/choices-and-voices/>

³⁹⁰ FableVision (2012) Quandary. <http://www.quandarygame.org/>



support to people, organizations and governments working to build peace. Part of the offered training is through simulations, including:

- The Case of "Palmyra": This simulation focuses on a conflict in the territory of "Palmyra" in the fictional country of "Siwa." The aim of the simulation is to demonstrate for the participants some of the challenges facing peacemakers in their efforts to resolve violent international conflicts.
- The Israeli-Palestinian Conflict: This simulation focuses on a U.S.-led effort to bring together many elements of both Israeli and Palestinian society to hold discussions about the needs and interests of both sides before entering into formal negotiations.
- Nepal: Governance, Corruption, and Conflict: The simulation will be based on a fictional summit held in Kathmandu to address critical issues of governance and corruption that fuel divisions and hamper peace and progress in Nepal. The summit will launch a new body, the Governance Monitoring and Implementation Commission, which will produce a roadmap on how to improve governance and initiate reforms.
- Public Roles: Private Roles: The Paris Peace Talks of December 1972–January 1973: This simulation focuses on a brief phase in the Paris Peace Talks when the United States, North Vietnam, South Vietnam, and the Soviet Union were meeting in Paris to salvage peace in Vietnam.

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Whilst all these to date appear to have been classroom based with and without e-learning modules, this highlights a key international actor's reliance on simulation as a method to learning delivery. The USIP also published an article entitled, 'Serious Games and Simulations for Peacekeeping'³⁹². The Centre of Innovation for Science, Technology, and Peacebuilding has partnered with Education and Training Centre/International (ETC/I) to explore in-depth serious gaming and simulations as tools for improved decision-making by peacebuilders. This is part of the Centre's Smart Tools for Smart Power initiative. The July 16, 2009 "Smart Tools for Smart Power" event featured presentations from such innovators as IBM, the Army War College, EBay, Lockheed Martin, Second Life, and USIP's own Education and Training Centre. U.S. Deputy Chief Technology Officer Beth Noveck presented the keynote address, in which she noted that the Obama administration sees "serious" games as an important, largely untapped way to enable innovation in government and civic engagement. This public event was followed by an experts working group meeting hosted by Lockheed-Martin's Centre of Innovation. The Centre and ETC/I has also held meetings with simulation and gaming experts at the World Bank and the National Defence University to understand state

³⁹¹ See USIP: www.usip.org

³⁹² <http://www.usip.org/node/5229> Accessed 21 December 2016.



of the art and discuss possible collaborations'.³⁹³ This suggests that with a wealth of experience in simulations, USIP is looking to the future with the developments of serious gaming.

Within Europe a FP7 funded project, SIREN, aims to create a new type of educational game, the conflict resolution game, which takes advantage of recent advances in serious games, social networks, computational intelligence and emotional modelling to create uniquely motivating and educating games that can help shape how children think about and handle conflict. Again aimed at a younger audience but some of the emotional modelling and the technological development may be of interest and use some of the same actors in its development.

The software developed by the SIREN project will be able to automatically generate conflict scenarios that fit the teaching needs of particular groups of children with varying cultural background, maturity, and technical expertise, and the desired learning outcomes as specified by a teacher. This will enable the system to be used by school teachers all over Europe, without specific technical training. To realize this vision, a number of advances to the state of the art will be made throughout the various disciplines that members of our thoroughly multi-disciplinary consortium specialize in. The key aim of the Siren project is to create an intelligent interactive software system, specifically a serious game, which supports teachers' role to educate young people on how to resolve conflicts.

Finally, in considering gaming within CPPB and finding international as well as European initiatives, research was carried out to consider any potential best practice or state-of-the-art serious gaming in Australia. The Australian Defence Education Learning Environment (ADELE)³⁹⁴ is the 'nexus that brings our students, facilitators and guest lecturers together. ADELE is the online hub for much of the material utilised for Australian Defence Force (ADF) Peace Operations Training Centre's courses and seminars: presentations, background reading information, student discussion, and real-time feedback. ADELE creates a student and facilitator network for each training activity, with contact details to foster ongoing discussion, peer-to-peer learning and friendship. ADELE allows for ADF and international students to operate in the same online environment, access the same materials, and work collaboratively together – during and after training.' 'The export or supply of some types of simulation software (sometimes referred to as serious games) may require approval to comply with the Customs (Prohibited Exports) Regulations 1958, the Weapons of Mass

³⁹³ See www.usip.org

³⁹⁴ <http://www.defence.gov.au/adsc/acsc/peacekeeping/elearning.asp> Accessed 21/12/16



Destruction (Prevention of Proliferation) Act 1995, or Sanctions Regulations.³⁹⁵ This may explain the lack of open source data on the ADF's approach.

5.13. CONCLUSION

The findings from the review would also suggest that over the last decade the development of soft-skills training through digital platforms and gaming has emerged as an innovative and robust pedagogic intervention across a range of learning and teaching experiences. Whether engaging children and youth, young people or adults, the acquisition and ability to utilize soft skills is increasingly important for education, as well as the workplace. The growing trend of pedagogical interventions through gaming is particularly relevant given the extent to which gaming is utilized by European citizens. Following on from this trend, professional trainers, managers and educators have tapped into this activity by bringing gaming into the training room and classrooms as a mechanism for targeting different learning styles as well as enhancing the practical sides of knowledge acquisition.

Finally, by focusing on the potentials of gaming to contribute to these key debates, the review revealed that the utilisation of this methodology offers up new horizons in terms of equity of access and supporting learning through experience. Serious gaming is a developing area with significant research starting to emerge that helps to underpin the need for strong pedagogical frameworks in terms of learning outcomes, feedback and reflective learning. This aspect does not detract from the gaming element but serves as an important reminder that learning methods remain paramount. Highlighting a number of FP7 projects that utilised gaming as a method, illustrated that there was a growing opportunity regarding the EU's role in innovation around peace making internationally. Existing approaches to soft skills training are embedded in pedagogical design, delivery and implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation of that training.

Gaming has increasingly been sought out, developed, utilised and evaluated as a key mechanism for training soft and hard skills for professional environments. In the form of a number of FP7 investments, EU citizens have benefited in terms of education, training and practice from the application of serious gaming to a range of working environments. The nature of gaming as vehicle for reaching a wider number of individuals enhances accessibility and equity of training. Furthermore, gaming has offered up an opportunity for meaningful learning experiences particularly where there is a strong pedagogical underpinning. In this sense, gaming provides the pedagogic platform for learning initiatives that would otherwise be contained to a classroom. The examples outlined throughout the review provide compelling

³⁹⁵ <http://www.defence.gov.au/exportcontrols/simulation.asp> Accessed 21/12/16



evidence that gaming shores up the opportunity for individuals to identify, learn, reflect and practice various soft-skills.

This review of scholarship and application of serious gaming has identified a number of key barriers that limit the effectiveness of games to deliver training. It remains vital to identify the structural, developmental and organisational challenges surrounding utilisation of gaming for training purposes in order to ensure effective learning experiences. In recognising the pitfalls, it is now possible to design and deliver training through gaming. This review identified the key benefits of using gaming to train and educate in the opportunities for practice, feedback and reflection. These facets underpin key elements of pedagogic interventions and allow the learner to more fully embed the key lessons in a more self-sustaining and effective way.



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