MEASURING PEACE. INITIATIVES, LIMITATIONS AND PROPOSALS

SEMINAR PROCEEDINGS
BARCELONA, MARCH 2010

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1. PRESENTATION

PRESENTATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CATALAN INSTITUTE FOR PEACE AND THE SEMINAR

TICA FONT
Director of the ICIP

The International Catalan Institute for Peace (ICIP) is a newly established center that is still making itself known. ICIP was created by the Generalitat de Catalunya, after a participatory process that took the different perspectives of the peace movement into account. It is an autonomous, independent, and public institute, whose work is shaped by the Parliament of Catalonia. The aim of the center is to provide answers to citizens, the peace movement and the academic field. ICIP is an institution dedicated to research, the dissemination of information and action that works with Catalan society, but also within the international arena.

The origins of this seminar pre-date the creation of ICIP. Between 2006 and 2009, The Study Centre for Peace J.M. Delàs of Barcelona (hereinafter referred to as the Delàs Centre) worked on a project involving a methodological proposal to tackle the difficult task of measuring peace. This project looked at whether it was possible to create a peace index based on both quantitative and qualitative measurements. As is to be expected, many debates and considerations emerged throughout the research process. After the initial presentation phase of the project (without having developed a finished product), the Delàs Centre concluded that it would be both interesting and fruitful to work towards the challenge of measuring peace, in spite of the controversies associated with developing such measures.

In order to do this, the conceptual framework of what is meant by "peace" had to be established first. Should the basis of peace be conceived of as negative, or should we understand it to be a positive concept? How should the effort made towards building peaceful societies be measured? At first, the proposal to merge the concept of peace with the parallel concept of human security was made, taking on the seven categories presented by the UN Development Program (UNDP). Many debates took place that we would like to share with you. These debates concerned ethical problems (how to choose one indicator or another; how to prioritize or give more importance to one or different aspects, etc.); political, methodological, and substantive issues (such as questioning what indicator best captures the idea that we want to develop); problems of comparisson (Is it possible to compare France to Mali, for example? Can what we define as being positive for one country also be considered valid for all the others? How do we consider questions of gender? etc.). There are also limitations stemming from subjectivity (we choose indicators according to our own previous assessments, other related estimates, and based on their utility in the past for obtaining the expected results); and difficulties in establishing what object is to be measured in relation to the indicators (What do we measure? Do we measure life conditions, the situation of States? Do we measure peace

as a process or as a situation, a circumstance? And should we use outcome indicators?) These have been the dilemmas.

Everyone present at this seminar has contemplated these questions, and many have also developed indicators with which to measure concepts related to peace (human rights, security, etc.). We have assumed that those working on these issues must have encountered similar difficulties while doing so, and we think that sharing different views on these matters could be of interest to all. It is with this aim that we have organized this seminar: to share our experiences and discuss the challenges in measuring peace.

2. PROCESS OF THE SEMINAR

PRESENTATION OF THE INITIAL PROBLEMS AND THE PROPOSAL FROM THE DELÀS CENTRE

ALEJANDRO POZO
Investigator of the Delàs Centre and coordinator of the seminar

Between 2006 and 2009, the Delàs Centre elaborated a proposal for measuring peace. This initiative, still in progress, analyzed peace based on its different elements and suggested fourteen distinct but interrelated categories.

During the process of developing this proposal, we encountered many of the dilemmas conveyed in the work material of this seminar. These include: the subjectivity of those who aspire to measure, but also of those who provide the data; the commitment to focusing the object of measurement on what is good for *people*, and not for states or companies; the recognition that, in general, it is probably not possible to compare contexts as different as Italy and Cameroon, for example; the objective pursued, that will not always follow the maxim "more is better"; the unavailability of reliable data for many of the aspects that one would like to measure, or its availability for only a few countries; the lack of credibility of many opinion polls, or the balance between the sufficient number of indicators and the viability of the initiative. There are many different points of view in regards to measures and indicators. In addressing this issue, The Spanish political cartoonist *El Roto* said: "What if an increase in car sales is not an indicator of economic improvement, but rather an indicator that everything is getting farther away?"

The proposal of the Delàs Centre involves five characteristics that have a certain novelty:

1. It contains a very high number of indicators and uses a large quantity of sources of information (126 different sources). This large number of indicators allows the study to consider more variables (both global and local) and to minimize bias when comparing countries that are *a priori* less comparable. At the same time, using the more than 600 indicators initially studied would prevent the initiative from being viable. We are, therefore, in a second phase in which we are working towards finding an intermediate solution: attempting to reduce the number of indicators significantly, while still keeping it high.

2. In regards to the question: What is the goal when we measure? The proposal opts to maximize the value of what is best for *people* (although this may be in opposition to the interests of states, companies or other actors). An indicator valued highly by the World Bank, for example, is in fact given less importance in the Delàs Centre's proposal. Take the indicator of labor rigidity, for example: although a company might have great interest in labor flexibility (the ease of finding and firing workers), these issues are not desirable for the people (workers, in this case) and are therefore given less importance in our proposal.

3. It considers a peace concept linked to positive peace and akin to human security (although they are *a priori* different concepts.) The center's peace concept, thus, takes the seven levels considered by the UN Development Program (UNDP) in its 1994 report into account, these being the ingredients of human security.

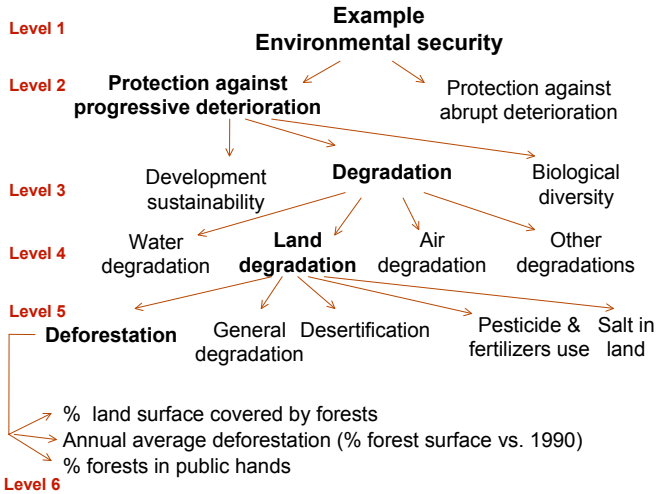
4. It not only attempts to measure the internal peace of each country, but also the contribution that each country makes towards world peace. This is to say, a country can take care of their own environment, but use aggressive practices with the global environment at the same time; or enjoy stable economic security while contributing to unjust global economic relations; or can have reduced levels of violence within its borders, but lead arms races or processes towards global militarization. This initiative, therefore, examines both perspectives.

5. It maintains a positive view. It is not just about criticism or condemnation, but also attempts to analyze how each country is improving, through the use of process indicators. To serve this end, each category has been divided into several sub-categories that, in turn, are split into sub-sub-categories (including six levels between a category (level 1) and the indicator itself (level 6)). Each of the sub-categories for each sub-level can be the object of comparisson between different countries, or between one country and the desired result. This proposal, therefore, allows us to partake in analysis not only once, but infinitely, which can grant a closer look at the strengths and weaknesses of each country.

The proposed initiative considers eight categories of "internal peace" within the states, and six other categories for contribution to global peace:

1. Internal Contribution to Peace	2. External Contribution to Peace
1.1. Economic Security	2.1. Contribution to the Reduction of Militarism
1.2. Food Security	2.2. Contribution to the Peaceful Resolution of Conflicts
1.3. Health Security	2.3. Contribution to International Justice
1.4. Environmental Security	2.4. Contribution to a Just Global Economy
1.5. Personal Security	2.5. Contribution to the Environment
1.6. Community Security	2.6. Contribution to the Cooperation between the People
1.7. Political Security	
1.8. Cultural and Educational Security	

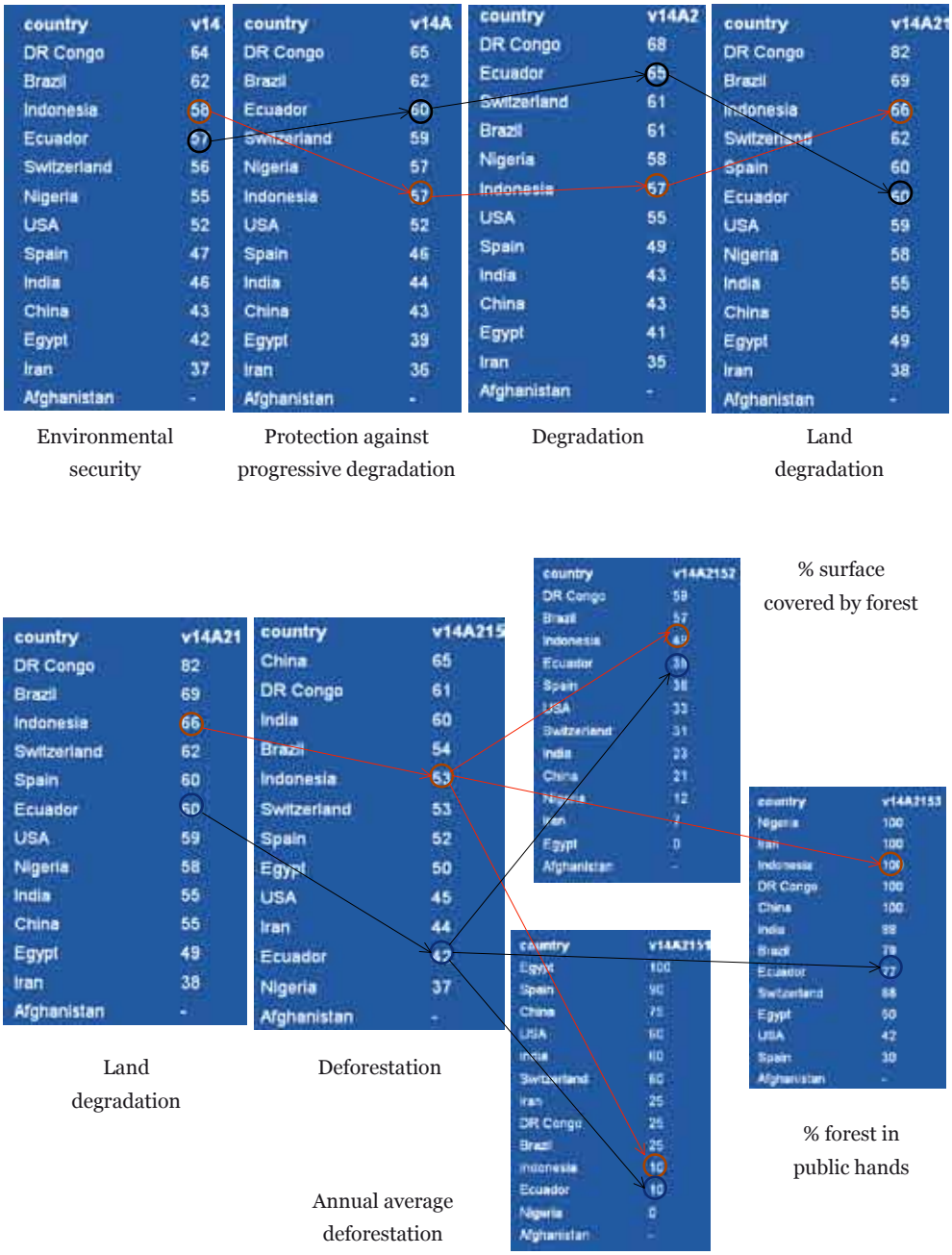
To provide an example, a breakdown of environmental security follows:



Looking at the enclosed figure, the six levels can be discerned: from the category to the indicator. The deployment level for the route (highlighted in bold) is shown only as an example since the general tree of each category is much larger.

Note that what matters is not only that countries are compared in Level 1 (or that a country is compared with the desired target) in the category (environmental security, in this example), but also that they be compared at other levels. Level 6 contains the indicators, while the other levels are considered aggregate data.

The results obtained for the example of environmental security are listed on the following page. In the test phase, data from 13 distinct countries was utilized:



The results for four of the categories analyzed are displayed below:

country	v13
Switzerland	82
USA	80
Spain	80
Ecuador	65
Egypt	64
Iran	63
China	63
Brazil	60
Indonesia	58
India	52
Nigeria	32
DR Congo	31
Afghanistan	-

Health Security

country	v21
Nigeria	69
DR Congo	69
Afghanistan	68
Switzerland	67
Indonesia	65
Ecuador	64
Brazil	63
Spain	61
India	49
Iran	47
Egypt	47
China	38
USA	22

Contribution to Global Demilitarization

country	v14
DR Congo	64
Brazil	62
Indonesia	58
Ecuador	57
Switzerland	56
Nigeria	55
USA	52
Spain	47
India	46
China	43
Egypt	42
Iran	37
Afghanistan	-

Environmental Security

country	v25
DR Congo	80
Nigeria	75
Afghanistan	72
India	68
Egypt	65
Brazil	65
Ecuador	64
Indonesia	62
Switzerland	56
China	52
Iran	48
Spain	48
USA	22

Contribution to the Global Environment

Making use of these lists, we can compare changes in two countries: Egypt and the United States (among the 13 countries analyzed). While in category 1.3 (health security) both stand out in a positive light, in category 2.1 (contribution to global demilitarization) both rank amongst the worst in their practices. Similarly, focusing on environmental issues, while Egypt could be conceived of as having a bad domestic situation (category 1.4, environmental safety), its contribution to the global environment could be deemed satisfactory (category 2.5), whereas, for the United States, the situation is the contrary. As demonstrated by the example, it is useful to compare different categories (and sub-categories, at different levels) to see how the results between countries differ. If we only consider an index of peace, on the other hand, it is not clear what the strengths and weaknesses of each country are, and therefore, not so clear what the options and means of improvement must be.

The initiative of the Delàs Centre is not a finished product and continues to be a proposal that still requires a phase in which a reduction of the number of indicators and the purification of some of its aspects takes place. At first, this study was considered to be too ambitious and, in light of the problems encountered, impractical. The results obtained at this stage, however, have made the idea of a positive contribution to the measurement of peace, and the objective of developing such a measure, possible.

FIRST ROUND TABLE: PRESENTATION OF INITIATIVES

Moderator: Manuela Mesa

MEASURING PEACE: THE GLOBAL PEACE INDEX

CAMILLA SCHIPPA

Vice-president of the Global Peace Index

This presentation on the Global Peace Index (GPI) is divided into four parts. These refer to: the problems and constraints encountered during the GPIs development, remarks about the problems and constraints, and future lines of action.

For the GPI, peace means more than the absence of war. The ideal state would have no police, no prisons, and no crime. It defines peace, therefore, as the "absence of violence", a definition that permits the measurement of both internal and external peace. "Positive peace" is revealed through the correlation of other data sets and indices.

In its fourth year of implementation, the GPI has obtained global recognition and received attention from the media. Whereas the index initially considered 121 countries, last year there were 144. The GPI consists of 23 indicators, which are both quantitative and qualitative, and there are another 33 indicators that, although not part of the index, are also checked for their connection with peace. The GPI is based on a triumvirate: first, a team based in Sydney; second, a panel of peace experts who review the various approaches; and finally, the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU), which collects and compiles the data. Highly respected sources are used, the EIU makes estimates for the data when it does not exist, and indicators are assigned weights of 1 to 5 in order to determine the relative importance of each indicator. Finally, the index determines the balance: estimated at 60% for internal peace and 40% for external peace.

Peace begins at home, because internal peace leads to external peace. The Global Peace Index measures the presence or absence of violence, and accepts a negative view of peace. Examples of indicators are: political stability, people in prison, conflicts in which the country participates, export and import of weapons, etc.

The contents of the GPI are dynamic and can vary annually. Some new indicators may be used, while others considered in the past may be rejected. To provide an example, the panel of experts decided to reject the existing indicator on the maintenance of peacekeeping troops in each country, while it agreed to include a new indicator for the financing of such operations. The sources used to gather data can also be changed. For the collection of information on heavy weapons, for example, the Military Balance (IISS) and the Register of Conventional Arms of the UN are now used as sources, and categories are measured according to destructive capacity. With regard to data on internally displaced persons, the index can suggest that the panel of experts stop the use of UN data, and that they use the information provided by the countries themselves instead.

In the process of developing the GPI, some problems have been encountered:

- The index is new and only has three years of comparable available data. This when 20 or 30 years of data is often needed to be able to carry out a valid analysis.
- More countries are needed (this year there was the intention to add East Timor, but no reliable data was available). There is a problem of reliability of data for certain countries.
- The size of the country is also of concern, since the results for a very small country, like Iceland, can be misleading. On the other hand, an index of intra-national peace for larger countries (like the USA and India) is also being considered, so as to measure the internal situation of such according their distinct geographic zones.
- Lack of data for some indicators.
- Difficulty of measuring external peace: to what extent is a country peaceful on the surface? We know that the objective of measuring such has not been reached, and ideas are sought for improvement. It is accepted knowledge that there are countries that have many internal conflicts, but which appear to be peaceful on the surface due to the fact that they lack the capacity for external influence.
- Correlation versus causality.
- Moral judgments. There are many definitions, and many countries have expressed their disagreement with the place they have obtained in the classification process.

More studies should center their framework on the goal of peace, and less should focus on the armed conflicts of the world. To date, peace has been poorly addressed: it needs to be contemplated in depth by scholars, and to be taken more seriously.

Based on the research done during the last three years, the index has defined peaceful societies as: those which live in countries with very low levels of armed conflict; have very good relations with neighboring states; have an efficient government that is accountable; have high primary school enrollment records; show improving economic conditions and respect for human rights; and demonstrate high levels of freedom of information and low levels of corruption.

In regards to correlations between peace and economic indicators, the peace ranking of a country increases with the GDP. We have compared this data with the global economy, and this study discerns how peace affects the GDP of countries. Economic activity can improve in a situation of peace, and could increase the world GDP by 13.1%. These are, nevertheless, conservative measures and the reality could be an increase of triple this number. In relation to the benefits that companies receive with the establishment of peace: there are more business opportunities (higher market potential when living standards increase; lower costs; and more focused management on strategic issues to mitigate risk). The GPI aims to influence business schools with this message. Peace is currently not used in business analysis, although it is known to reduce costs and increase market size.

The Institute for Economics and Peace will house the GPI, which is published annually and will continue to do research on the causes of peace, the

relationship between business, businesses and peace, as well as make recommendations in the field of politics. Other objectives will include the Intra-national Index of Peace, the network among university professors with the Aspen Institute, and constructing the building blocks of peace.

TOOLS OF GLOBAL MEASURE FROM TRANSPARENCY INTERNATIONAL: LESSONS LEARNED FROM MEASURING CORRUPTION AND INTEGRITY

ROBIN HODESS
Research Director from Transparency International

The presentation is divided into four parts: How and Why Transparency International (TI) measures corruption and integrity; the dilemmas, challenges, and impediments confronted, but also the accomplishments that this initiative has achieved; the links between tools of measurement; and what we know, still do not know, and how we would like to address this.

Transparency International is concerned with corruption and how to measure it. In the process of preparing indices, it has encountered difficulties related to quantification tools. Today, Transparency International has 90 chapters and divisions worldwide. These are independent organizations that follow the general regulations of the organization and support it.

The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) is used for the classification of countries based on the degree of corruption perceived in the public sector. Corruption is considered to be too complex to be measured by a single index based on the perceptions of the people. Transparency International has two other tools available. The first is the bribery index or BPI (Bribe Payers Index), an index that ranks the richest and most economically influential countries according to the probability that their companies bribe abroad. The second is the Global Corruption Barometer (GCB), an international household survey that assesses public attitudes towards corruption and bribery.

The CPI is a poll of polls, a composite index. In 2009, it used 13 surveys provided by 10 institutions which were carried out by international and national experts. It used a minimum of three surveys per country and covered the previous two years. In it, the countries are ranked between 0 (very corrupt) and 10 (very clean). Some of the data used in the indices is provided by organizations that sell it, although the indices cannot incorporate all the available information into them. There are 180 countries in the ranking, a list that has lasted for many years.

Why does the CPI exist? The aim of analyzing corruption is for it to be combated through its inclusion on the political agenda of states. The CPI seeks to influence several sectors of society: first, employers and experts who have an influence on decisions regarding trade and investment; second, the general population so that a climate conducive to change is possible; and finally, to push for scientific research on the causes and consequences of corruption, both nationally and internationally. Transparency Interna-

tional members are activists, who strive to make an impact. In order to see changes take place over time, solid and durable research is needed. This index can serve as a reminder to political entities of the important role corruption plays.

Various challenges have been encountered in the development of the CPI. First, the CPI uses very complex methodology that may cause misunderstanding (ratings, classification, number of surveys, confidence intervals, etc.). The Index is not designed to make comparisons over time, and does not measure the effort made to combat corruption. Second, it has no diagnostic capability, and does not analyze the causes, dynamics or consequences of corruption. A third challenge has to do with political sensitivity: there is a lack of local experts or spokespeople, perceptions generate distrust, the CPI is aimed at developing countries, and corruption is linked with the destination of aid. It is, thus, important to focus more on people, consider how obtained results should be used, and acknowledge that results can be misleading. It is important to recognize how rankings may hurt others, because they can determine where international aid is sent. The activists of Transparency International are not naïve, and know that the indicators are very broad with a margin of error.

How to measure integrity? How to assume this positive approach? Governments wanted an anti-corruption index in order to assess its role in limiting corruption. On the other hand, it is also important to consider how to analyze corporate corruption, the private sector being that which pays for corruption to take place. The UN has various instruments to serve this end, such as the Global Compact. But what compromises are made when the companies that sign such initiatives boast of their good Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)? Transparency International asks how to create transparency and accountability. It has tools for this: first, the NIS (National Integrity System Assessments), a holistic evaluation of the main institutions of government within a country in terms of integrity, accountability and transparency. Second, the Transparency in Reporting on Anti-Corruption Mechanisms, TRAC, which is an assessment of the extension and quality of private sector reports concerning anti-corruption policies and programs of integrity. Finally, the Promoting Revenue Transparency project (PRT) which is an assessment of more than 40 major national and international oil and gas companies based on the transparency of their reports, including payments made by governments in exchange for the rights to resource extraction.

The NIS analyzes the institutions and actors that contribute to integrity, transparency and accountability in society. The methodology used is a process that begins with the identification of the research team by the National Chapter of Transparency International. The data is then collected and the elaboration of the country draft report is carried out. Next, the research team scores the indicators and the project's advisory group validates that score. A workshop is then carried out to validate and discuss the results, as well as generate recommendations which are then published in the NIS. This is then is tracked in terms of pressure, awareness and political activity.

The NIS provides a detailed analysis of the strengths and weaknesses that the key players of a given country have, covering their legal provisions, in-

stitutional capacities and practices, as well as the relations between them. Transparency International has conducted more than 70 NIS reports, and many of them have contributed to campaigns, initiatives for reform, and generated global awareness of deficits in governance in the countries under study. In regards to ratings and dimensions: using the indicators and these questions as a base, there is a shift from quantitative to qualitative analysis in creating a chart showing the details of each institution: how strong it is within the system, if it is well funded, if it has staff, if it is well positioned, etc.

The seminar has spoken of 600 indicators, but Transparency International believes that one must know which will be useful for achieving a particular purpose. It is advisable to consult with experts for each of the pillars, but if there are 80 or 90 questions for each pillar, this is not feasible. Each pillar assessed needs a year to produce results.

Among the challenges encountered, the following are particularly important: first, the issue of whether the tool available for measurement is sufficient, even while not perfect; second, the relationship between law and practice and their measurement; third, if the objective is to create an index, or a tool that facilitates comparisson; and on other matters such as ownership or competition (competition exists in the assessment of governments), it is important to know what it is that is produced, and question if it best to publish the most data possible. The final versions of these tools are important; this is not a matter of making reports that are not used. The success attained must be addressed: have the tools used had an impact, is the impact known, and has it been taken into account?

What do we know and what don't we know? We know that the aggregate indicators are as important as they are complicated, but also that they seem to have become less fashionable in some areas. They are used in the public sphere, and will continue to be used because they are needed, but this increasingly on a regional and sub-national level. We also know that corruption is related to many phenomena that, overall, may result from weak governance, and that there are many different ratings for governance that come from various perspectives. On the other hand, there are many things we do not know, at least not enough about: such as the elements that drive change and the political economy of corruption, or the impact that policy reforms can have. This has to do with some key conceptual issues such as political will or political influences, and the need to better understand the existing links between different phenomena, such as peace and good governance.

Transparency International would like to get the details from a local perspective and maintain a focus on the national and sub-national levels, for which its network of local chapters is crucial. A publication has been created so that students work with the organization in analyzing these local realities. There is also a need for higher levels of engagement between activists and the research community to be promoted, so that data and methodology may be shared at greater lengths. Finally, it will be important to encourage collaboration on new projects related to conflict, building peace, coexistence and governance.

CHALLENGES FOR GREATER TRANSPARENCY AND PARTICIPATION

PETER CROLL
Director of the Bonn International Centre for Conversion (BICC)

The Bonn International Centre for Conversion (BICC) has been trying to prevent violent conflict and contribute to peace for 15 years. BICC pursues peace and development through research, consultancy, and training. It tries to assist in the prevention of violent conflict and, therefore, contribute to a constructive transformation conflict. Disarmament frees up resources that can be used to combat poverty: the conversion makes for better use of resources. BICC works primarily in four areas: on peace and development; on the global trends in weapons (including small arms) focusing on both exports and control; on the relationship between resources, migration and conflict; and on conversion. It focuses on the global export of arms and has shown a particular interest in heavy weapons. Its services include applied research, consultancy (to the UN, governments, NGOs, etc...), capacity building and public relations.

What is its essence and why is the BICC devoted to stopping global militarization? More than 1,226 billion in constant 2005 dollars are spent on arms in the world, a figure that saw a 4% increase over the course of 2007. Analyzed by region, North America spent almost half that amount (564 billion), while Africa is the region that devoted the fewest absolute resources towards militarism (20.4 billion). Global military spending has increased by 45% in real terms over the period of 1999-2008. However, this increase has varied by region with: high growth in Eastern Europe (and in emerging economies), and low growth in Western Europe (and in the states with the least resources), whereas the U.S. has more than doubled its spending.

In 2008, 77 of the 192 member States granted military expenditure data to the UN. Only five African countries did, while in Western Europe there were 27. There are three reasons for low regional participation (especially in Africa and Latin America): weak management, lack of capacity, and lack of political will. The number of countries providing data is increasing, but is still too low, and participation must increase.

There are several challenges ahead. First, there is the need to make comparable, valid, and consistent military expenditure data available. It is important to increase the capacity of poor countries to report consistent data, report on their plans and military spending programs, and provide disaggregated data that would allow for greater transparency, as a means of generating public debate for the promotion of greater transparency and accountability. Second, capacity building must go hand in hand with the development of a new policy framework that responds to the worry held by some that the data released will be used as a basis for criticism. Third, to increase the participation of impoverished nations: to report their military spending is necessary in order to strengthen national capacities to collect military data. Fourth, the data provided must be consistent (and reportable to the UN including both actual expenditures, and those budgeted and planned). Fifth, there is the need to promote a generally recognized definition of military spending and simplify the reporting tools. The difficulties in comparing the simplified and complete reports must be overcome. Sixth,

to increase transparency in military spending (the data should be comparable, challengeable and analyzable); include consistent time series data for comparisons and to forecast trends (in the same way that SIPRI does this); and to overcome the presumption held by the majority of states that greater transparency will affect national security. Seventh, to add a category measuring the amount of money flowing into the military sector, and develop an indicator of military power. It should be noted that countries use different definitions of this, and disaggregated data on such is scarce. Using military spending as an indicator related to others, we can make statements regarding the level of militarization a certain country has, and combine military expenditure data with other indicators such as weapons systems, military personnel (etc.), as well as the amount of spending done on public health.

The Global Militarization Index (GMI) takes stock of all this. It makes a comparison of 150 states, focusing on funds allocated by the state to the military sector in relation to other economic and social factors. It uses reliable information from reputable sources and is a powerful tool for conducting assessments of countries. Militarization refers only to the amount of resources that the state allocates to the military sector. The more a country is militarized, the more resources will be used for this sector compared to other sectors. In itself, militarization is not "good" or "bad" insomuch as a high level of militarization does not necessarily mean a country will be aggressive, or that it will be likely to make war (not to be confused with militarism). To illustrate, some examples of countries described as "highly militarized" are: Bulgaria (position 16), Greece (17) and Finland (40), and none of these countries are considered "aggressive." This means that the GMI does not understand militarization to mean warmongering, but rather understands it in a very objective way: as the relative importance of the state military sector.

The GMI creates a ranking based on the resources available to the state for the military sector. These resources include: the state budget, the number of troops (soldiers, paramilitary, reservists) and heavy conventional weapons systems (armor, artillery with higher than 100mm caliber, combat aircraft and warships of a superior grade than a corvette). These details are considered in the budget in relation to GDP (given a weight of 5) and government spending on health services (with a weight of 3); it compares the number of soldiers and paramilitary forces to the total population (a weight of 4), the number of reservists with the total population (2), the number of soldiers and paramilitaries with the number of doctors in the country (2), and the number of conventional heavy weapons to the total population (weight of 4). The GPI is unique and is not normative.

With regard to sources, it uses SIPRI for military expenditure data, the WHO for health spending, the International Institute for Strategic Studies (IISS) for military personnel, our own BICC for weapons systems, the World Bank for GDP, and the UN for total population.

Taking the Middle East as an example, seven of the ten countries with a "very high degree of militarization" are in that region. The GMI does not value the ranking, but points to the militarization of an entire region.

Another example is Nigeria: it is ranked 145th according to the GMI, one of the least militarized countries. This country has good indicators (for example, military spending is 0.52% of the GDP, and health, 3.9%). However,

there are conflicts between Christians and Muslims, and local and regional confrontations for political power. All this shows that even where there is a low level of militarization, this does not necessarily mean that the situation is safe and peaceful for the population. This can not only be said of Nigeria, but also of other countries. A country by country analysis should, therefore, be done before drawing conclusions.

Finally, another example is Eritrea, the most militarized country in the world, occupying the first position in the ranking of the GMI (military spending is 20% of the GDP, while money intended for health is 3.7%). According to UNDP, Eritrea is one of the world's poorest countries.

SECOND ROUND TABLE: THE PROBLEMS OF MEASURING ELEMENTS OF PEACE: HUMAN AND POLITICAL RIGHTS, GOVERNABILITY AND OTHER ELEMENTS

Moderator: Lourdes Beneria

MEASURING AND MONITORING THE ELEMENTS OF PEACE. AN EVOLUTIONARY TRANSITION FROM EXECUTIVE PRIVILEGE TO SUSTAINABLE PEACE

MONTY G. MARSHALL

Director of the Polity IV Project. Professor of George Mason University (US)

I have spent 40 years working with data on peace, 12 of them with the U.S. government, which has spent $ 250 million on these issues in recent years. My vision does not necessarily reflect the views of the U.S. government. I will try to present the six obstacles to carrying out an effective monitoring program on the elements of peace and to developing a trajectory to sustain and maintain peace.

The first limitation addresses the basic premises, and the question of whether a non-discriminatory peace is possible. When I began, the paradigm was realism, based on conflict and pure violence, without trying to find a way out: the Hobbesian "natural state", or Machiavelli's "Raison d'état". This logic uses instrumental (autocratic) authority as its unit of analysis, an objective that is based on gaining strength, and an approach based on force. The basic problem with this logic is that social dialogue is necessary, and it is for this reason that we need a regulatory system. The second model serves this need: it uses associative (democratic) authority as its unit of analysis, has a target based on performance, and an approach based on power. This process takes a long time, and we need to know how long it takes. One also needs to know how the system works and if it works correctly. The objective of development is to try to minimize instrumental forces and maximize associative power, without the use of coercion or violence: the more people in society who use associative power, the better. Society can be maintained through associative links and interactive densities. Examining the interaction between the multiple groups participating in this conceptual space, a society composed of millions of associations that are working continuously is observed. Political activity serves to manage the conflict between these groups, and minimize the use of coercion and violence. Subsidiarity is carried out in more complex societies, so that these activities can be done in the most economically efficient manner. States decentralize these tasks to facilitate this process. Another goal is conflict management, for which large organizations have to set rules in order to manage small organizations. Over time this system, though complex, is viable because it manages these dynamics and is accommodating to the various associations.

The second obstacle has to do with how to analytically understand all the layers of the state: how to remove its wrapping paper. I started working on the project "Minorities at Risk" with identity groups and non-state actors.

The third obstacle is related to the conceptualization of the problem: moving from political violence incidents studied separately, to studying them as a group. To do this, I set up a scheme that examines different levels of inter-

action and political actors, in order to obtain a global vision, establish patterns and predict trends, and to be able to measure the problem. Results differ depending on how a phenomenon is measured.

The fourth obstacle is understanding governance, and I worked through this issue in the Polity IV Project. There are so many different quantitative and statistical models that it is difficult to convey how to treat a problem to legislators. This information must be translated for the legislators. It took us three years to translate this information and make it fit for their understanding.

The fifth obstacle is the neutralization of prejudice. In the U.S., power speaks louder than justice. When measuring fatalities in terrorist bombings in the War on Terror, we must keep the emotional component in mind, because violence mainly results from emotional impulses. Terrorists do not have the ability to attack in an organized manner, and they vent their rage on those who are closer to them. 90% of victims of terrorism are in the terrorists´ environment. They are killing each other.

Finally, the sixth obstacle is the system for monitoring and control, which deals with conflict, governance and state fragility. You cannot analyze these elements separately. Because they interact, they need to be analyzed at the same time. When the Cold War ended, we realized that the world would deal with this lack of global order. The government depends on conflict, conflict depends on the nature of development, and development depends on conflict and the government, forming a triangular relationship. The three sides of the triangle should be analyzed, and the interaction between them as well.

We do not need 600 indicators to measure conflict. Our work team only uses four indicators, and we identified 80% of the problems we were trying to predict. Selecting key elements, a lot can be learned: we can obtain a picture that is very close to reality, and we can follow security, governance, economy and social development in terms of effectiveness and legitimacy. Economic legitimacy has not changed much in terms of basic commodities. Economic theory states that when growth is achieved, it is distributed rather evenly, regardless of the point from which it comes. The world has improved a lot over the last 15 years in this respect, except for in the West, where growth must be reduced in order for progress to be achieved.

INDICATORS OF HUMAN RIGHTS

LONE LINDHOLT
Senior legal consultant at the Danish Institute for Human Rights

This presentation will begin with some general reflections on the indicators, and will subsequently deal with the continuation of the human rights indicators project begun by the Danish Institute for Human Rights (DIHR): the project's background and objectives, its methodology, the dilemmas found and decisions made. It will finish with some conclusions.

Why do we want to measure? In order to: understand the situation, to look at the profile of the "problem", to identify the appropriate actions needed to

remedy the situation, and to evaluate whether we have been effective in doing so. We need to maintain this positive motivation and these objectives. Ultimately, we want to measure in order to be able to make more effective contributions to positive change.

Why use indicators? Because the whole picture cannot be visualized easily due to its great complexity. The metaphor of a connect-the-dot drawing proves useful here, connecting the dots to extrapolate the general result and global picture The time and economic resources needed for in depth individual analysis are scarce, but one can try to connect the dots correctly so as to generate a picture of reality. To do this, indicators need to be identified or defined so that, using a minimal number of dots and the most simplicity possible, a sketch of reality is achieved faster and with greater accuracy.

One advantage of the indicators is that, once established, they are rapid, systematic, allow for spatial and temporal comparisson, and work in the same way as pieces of "Lego" do: providing building blocks for a representation of reality. As a drawback, the indicators provide a simplified and subjective idea, are shallow and detail few nuances. They can not replace reality, but provide a good starting point for further analysis.

Each of the two people on the team (Lone Lindholt and Hans-Otto Sano, both senior analysts) came from different backgrounds (law and political science), and thus provided complementary perspectives. During the DIHR project called "Human Rights Country Indicators that took place between 1998 and 2000, Lindholt and Sano developed a tool for obtaining a fast and fitting image of the human rights situation of a given country. The aim of such was not to classify, but rather to compare the situation of countries in order to categorize them: this in spite of the well known fact that such information is often used for the provision, or removal, of aid (as was seen in the case of Eritrea). The objective is to obtain information on the problem so as to correctly determine which approach is needed.

In terms of methodology, both the formal aspects and actual implementation must be considered, both on the same level. Eight rights were defined, which together provide a sketch of the human rights situation of a given place, defined negatively in terms of human rights violations. The system of "scoring" is based on the logic that the higher the score is, the worse the situation of human rights. A perfect country would get a score of zero.

In regards to the formal aspects, we look at the ratification of key international instruments, other UN conventions (genocide, torture, racial discrimination, against women, child rights and refugees), the main reservations towards any of these instruments, and aspects of law in national constitutions.

But how is this implemented in reality? It was suggested that, although the institutional level is important, the existence of compromises is not a sufficient guarantee of implementation and that it is also is necessary, therefore, to analyze the implementation process. Because measuring all human rights was difficult, eight were chosen: disappearances and extra-judicial executions, torture and maltreatment, detention without charge or trial, unfair trials, participation (or lack thereof) in political processes, denial of freedom of association and expression, and discrimination.

With respect to sources, a global model is necessary and data must be collected in a systematic way. Reports from the U.S. State Department were used, along with the annual reports from Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch, complemented by reports from the UN, treaties and/or special procedures.

As far as the dilemmas found and decisions made, several important issues take precedence: the problem of availability of reliable and systematic data sources, and the possible cultural or political bias that these may contain; the need to use graphical methods in order to show differences in statistics; the issue of using quantifiable data to arrive at qualitative conclusions; the risk of developing something that lacks control, which can then be misused for other purposes; the risk that measures will lack legitimacy, in terms of the ethical considerations involved in measuring people and contexts from outside of the location; and the risk involved in self-affirming processes of creating a "reality", which leads us to justifying the work being done. In this way, what is seen can become the *real story*, a narrower vision, and can prevent accepting or perceiving that which does not correspond to our "reality."

In conclusion, it is important to note that, despite these concerns, challenges and considerations, human rights indicators have been useful. Today, they still serve as a key reference, and grant us a preliminary view of the human rights situation of a country that can lead to further analysis. Used correctly, these indicators serve constructive purposes, but it is cannot be known, and is not possible to control, how they can be used by others. These indicators can still be developed and improved upon, and we hope that they provide a source of inspiration for similar initiatives in other fields, such as those related to peace.

INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABILITY AND THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO THE MEASUREMENT OF PEACE

LUIS JIMÉNEZ HERRERO
Director of the Spanish Observatory for Sustainability

The Spanish Observatory for Sustainability (OSE) has produced several reports using different methodology for indicators related to sustainability. There are complex relations between sustainability and peace. Without peace there is no sustainability, without sustainability there is no peace. There is an intrinsic relationship between the two. It is essential to measure sustainability with a network methodology. There are 33 observatories in Spain that measure different processes of sustainability. It is important that sustainability be measured, although we do not fully understand its significance. One concept that comes close to it in terms of meaning is resilience. It is the paradigm of the sustainability of possibility. It is necessary that this be measured, but it is difficult to do so, and we must be aware of the complexity of the system.

The indicators best suited for sustainability are the indicators of processes. Most are environmental indicators, although indicators are also available for economic, social, cultural and even global factors, because sustainability should be treated globally.

Indicators cannot be made without taking their logical framework into account. A framework is proposed to serve this end, a model that, for example, was already used by the OECD, and the European Environment Agency and OSE afterwards. This is the 'driving forces' or the 'indicators of pressure' framework. This looks at how pressure on environment issues is generated, how the state of the environment changes through a series of environmental impacts, and, ultimately, how this generates a number of social responses. These are all important indicators: pressure, as well as state and social responses. Indicators, in the absence of a framework, make little sense.

Sustainability is not a unique concept in the same way as peace is not a unique concept. Sustainability can be weak or strong: there are different frames of reference. One such frame is ecological sustainability (the strong one), and another one takes an economic perspective (the weak one). There are different types of indicators that mark these two trends. Some indicators are not well resolved, such as the question: what level of well-being can be achieved by mankind through the use of the goods and services derived from our ecosystems? A basic indicator of this is how to measure the decoupling or dissociation between progress and environmental use. More can be done with less, through the de-materialization of the economy. One must look for indicators that allow for the maintenance of the standard of living and development, while using fewer resources and having less of an impact on the environment.

The interactions between the indicators is also important, an aspect which is not usually addressed and for which there is no methodology. Underlying interactions are crucial, those which are not visible. Aggregate indices by group should be developed, and we should try to resist the temptation to summarize complex processes (sustainability processes or processes for measuring well-being, for example), in a single or a few indices. You can not fly a plane with a single indicator, nor is it possible to measure sustainability or peace with a single indicator: it is necessary to consider many elements, given their great complexity.

There are fundamental issues both in what we might call internal order (or peace), and what we might call external order. Climate change, for example, affects all aspects of life. It is important to distinguish between global challenges that are much more significant, and other partial or local challenges of another type of magnitude. Climate change is one of the effects that has greater implications for world peace, and for the prosperity, economies, and health of the whole world.

In regards to the external dimension and the required response, there is the need for further cooperation. You can not talk about the sustainability for some parts of the global system at the expense of the un-sustainability of others. The sustainability of a favored few cannot be thought about without considering the un-sustainability of many disadvantaged others. A new global economic and ecological approach should be formulated: a distinct eco-order. We have one planet that houses many societies with different levels of development, and clear indicators are needed in order to help overcome such discrimination.

A basic and fundamental indicator of peace, and also of positive peace, is the ecological footprint, much higher in rich countries than in the impoverished

ones. The ecological footprint has already exceeded the carrying capacity of the global ecosystem. If everyone wanted to live like the average European, it would take about three planets.

Energy is also important, accessibility to commercial energy in particular. Without energy, there is no development, no capacity to maintain sustainability, and there are still 2.5 billion people without access to commercial energy. In addition to climate change, which should be emphasized, the following issues should also be highlighted, among others: land use (occupation), inequality of income distribution, unemployment, immigration, aging populations and the social dependence that such implies, social cohesion, the high poverty risk rate, school failure, and other matters directly related to the environment, such as greenhouse gas emissions, energy consumption, energy efficiency, and vulnerability or foreign dependence (in the case of Spain, 80% of the energy consumed depends on the outside). There are also positive environmental indicators, such as organic farming, the improvement of natural areas, and nature conservation.

It is also important to consider governance and cooperation for global sustainability and some positive indicators related to them. It is the companies that are socially and environmentally responsible that can help eliminate the conflicts and risks. Without a doubt, an indicator of great importance at the global level is the number of companies that take on the commitment of the United Nations Global Compact (principles of human rights, working conditions, environment and the fight against corruption, among others). It is important to take these factors into account: the control of environmental crimes, socially responsible investment, and financial flows that go in this direction, spending on fair trade, and indicators on non-compliance with environmental legislation and the sentencing process. Ecological debt is undoubtedly one of the most representative indicators. It is known that the ecological debt owed to poor countries by rich countries exceeds the financial debt owed to rich countries by poor countries. The ecological footprint indicator is fundamentally related to this, together with the Human Development Index of the UN.

We should move towards other indices of individual welfare. The OECD has a project on measuring the progress of societies that goes beyond the GDP. We need a new concept that goes beyond the concept of sustainability, such as socio-economic-sustainable welfare, and to look for other national accounts that include environmental and economic issues.

In short, it is important to deal with development, not growth, and one is not to be confused with the other. Nor should welfare and development, or welfare and happiness, be confused. We should move towards a level of sustainability that provides progress to societies and that pushes towards global peace.

THIRD ROUND TABLE: THE DILEMMAS OF MEASURING HUMAN SECURITY

Moderator: Karlos Pérez de Armiño

IS A HUMAN SECURITY INDEX POSSIBLE, OR EVEN DESIRABLE?

ANDREW MACK
Director of the Human Security Center

The indices are useful in that they encapsulate a range of complex data in a single composite measure. They facilitate comparisons between countries over time, generate attention from the media, stimulate public debate and can sometimes be used to pressure governments in the form of "naming and shaming" from the International Criminal Court .

The indices generate a large amount of publicity, but are they really useful? In the Human Development Index, the media focuses on the highest ranked countries, but it makes people aware of changes that most have not noticed have taken place (Canada has lost positions without experiencing real changes). The impact of this is between countries, but countries are only concerned once overtaken by others. With all the indices, we have less information on the most problematic countries. Furthermore, composite indices conceal information that we need in order to understand the world: they conceal more than they reveal. In my view, researchers and politicians need disaggregated data, not composite indices.

In the process of creating a Human Security Index, we opted for a restrictive concept, focusing on political violence directed against individuals. Other variables were considered, but mainly physical violence was taken into account. It is an index that is not so much useful as a tool, but rather which can serve to draw attention to the reports that accompany it. We wanted to produce a report that was distinct from the reports that came before it. We focused on a restrictive approach, for pragmatic reasons, because the use of a comprehensive approach would involve knowledge from other fields, for which indices already exist (take health, for example), and we did not have the accumulated experience needed to do this. When talking about human security, there is the agreement that the focus should be on the people rather than states. But, while a human security concept that includes threats ranging from genocide to affronts to personal dignity may be useful for generating awareness and for denouncement, it has limited utility for policy analysis. For researchers and politicians, the most interesting questions are those that treat the interrelationships between variables. This means disagregation, not amalgamation. Because of this, we gave up: even considering a narrow concept of peace (freedom from fear), after a year of reflection and discussion, we arrived at the conclusion that a reliable Human Security Index was simply impossible. The problem was, and remains to be, that reliable data for the key indicators was not available.

Continuing with this problem of data, few would disagree that the following aspects should be included in a Human Security Index: the number of

deaths in armed conflicts, abuses of the principal human rights, "indirect" deaths from war, homicides, and statistics on sexual violence. The following section examines each of these aspects separately, to help examine the problem with the availability of data.

About victims of war, the available data is not bad, and is adequate to predict trends, but it is better and easier to determine whether a war has taken place than it is to estimate how many deaths have occurred. Incident reports are problematic in that they report all of the dead. Supporters of retrospective mortality surveys say they are more reliable, but also have associated problems.

In regards to the human rights measure, we used the Political Terror Scale (PTS) and CIRI indicators, data from the U.S. State Department and Amnesty International. But the PTS, organized from 1-5, is subjective, and does not explain why the number of human rights abuses does not decrease as other indices of security improve. There are many biases: policies, changes in the way reports are made, changes in coding practices, etc.

Any index that does not include the indirect deaths resulting from armed conflict is biased. In impoverished countries, most deaths from wars are caused by disease and malnutrition exacerbated by the conflict, and not because of the fighting. In some situations, the indices behave in strange ways, given that over the course of a war, there are times when mortality rates decline. The census data can be problematic, and studies with retrospective data have many problems because pre-war and subsequent mortality rates must be known. But in the majority of countries, no data exists, especially in African countries, and the average of the sub-Saharan countries cannot be used for some of them, as was done in the case of the Democratic Republic of Congo (with a pre -conflict mortality rate much higher than the mean). Changing the value of mortality to a more *real* value in this case meant that the death toll went down dramatically. An idea of mortality can be obtained by looking at the ratios of mortality among children under five years old.

The data on homicides (there are perhaps about 10 homicides per death in war), should be part of any measure of human security, but this also involves a problem: no data is provided in most cases, or statistical errors exist. Half of the states do not report these statistics, and those that do rarely provide reliable data. To provide two examples, a mortality peak was recorded for Nigeria in 1974, which was a statistical error, and another peak in Rwanda in 1994 when the Rwandan government considered the 800,000 people killed in the genocide to be homicides. INTERPOL affirms there are such a high levels of confusion that it is better not to use available data on homicides.

Finally, in regards to issues of gender and sexual violence, debate also exists here, because Canada is the country that registers the most sexual violence, given that their definition of sexual violence includes inappropriate touching. Legislation, reports and definitions are different, a fact which makes comparison and statistical analysis difficult. The Human Security Center will make a report on the Gender Impact of War on Women and Men. There is a myth that women are the main victims of wars, but women can also be considered to be the perpetrators and men be considered as victims.

In general, the most comprehensive data available to us is structural data (GDP per person, growth rates, infant mortality, etc.) which use the year and the country as the units of analysis. There is little information regarding beliefs and emotions (fear, hatred, humiliation). Data on perception based on surveys exists, but this data is also questionable. Take, for example, the survey that measured the feeling of insecurity: the most disquieting results on feelings of insecurity came from Japan, when this is not the most insecure country. More data is needed on ways to balance evidence with structural data. On the other hand, the country-year approach can obscure as much as it reveals.

Governments increasingly claim they want to base policies on evidence, but they have been very reluctant to fund the data collection necessary to provide such evidence. We are working to pressure governments, because if they want reliable data they must fund it. On the other hand, much is known about negative peace, which is a necessary but not sufficient condition for positive peace.

There is some good news, such as the data collection efforts of Uppsala / PRIO and the Center for Systemic Peace. It is interesting look at developments in the long-term. According to the University of Uppsala, the number of armed conflicts has gone down 40% since the end of the Cold War (and the most severe conflicts by 70%). In regards to peace agreements, the UN is not at all effective. The success rate of 40% or 50% is interesting when compared to what we had before, which was nothing. Thus, if the UN does well with bad mandates and insufficient data, the question becomes: what would be the outcome if it had good and effective strategies at its disposal? We know very little about the causes of war, and little has been written about the changes occurring in regards to the dead in wars. Most researchers have assumed that the causes of peace are the opposite of the causes of war, which is only partially true. But such explanations can not explain the reduction in number of the victims in armed conflicts in the post-Cold War period.

THE MISMEASURE OF PEACE?

J. L. LINSTROTH
Peace Research Institute Oslo (PRIO)

This presentation will address the problematic referred to in the seminar from an anthropological point of view and philosophy. It could be named “The mismeasure of peace?” in reference to the book “The Mismeasure of Man”, written by the evolutionary biologist Stephen Jay Gould, which questions the objectivity of using quantitative data and the correlation between intelligence with race (there is no correlation whatsoever). The author criticizes the myth that science is so objective that only scientists can overcome cultural constraints and see the world as it really is.

Where are the boundaries to measuring peace? From an anthropological point of view, not much is said about non-Western actors, of how the indigenous dispute systems function, or of pacific cultures that exist in the world. Not much is said about how people are socialized to end up killing, or about the processes of military and ideological training either. No one is violent by nature, even though the opposite interpretation is abused.

Some notes on peaceful societies follow. Douglas Fry from Finland cites a wide range of people throughout the world with conflict resolution strategies very different from those we are accustomed to in the West. These people make a concerted effort to avoid violence. This does not mean that they do not experience violence or that they do not have conflicts, but rather that they use strategies to create a peaceful society. In his book, "Beyond War", Fry lists five different criteria used by natives: 1) limiting conflict, avoiding it, limiting the interaction between people in conflict, 2) tolerance, there being a higher tolerance for disputes in some societies 3) negotiation, to reach compromise and solutions, 4) self-repair, when one of the parties makes a unilateral decision to prevail in a conflict, 5) and local strategies, which are also used for conflict resolution, mediation, arbitration, and even for repressive pacification. To provide an example, some groups use drugs to calm down, or even work through conflicts when they are drunk. These are practical forms of building a peaceful society. There are many different ways of thinking about peace.

There is a problem associated with the challenge of measuring peace. If the idea is to create indices for measuring peace, there are many elements that are perhaps measurable, but many others that are not, and one wonders where the limits are or should be. For example, how are we to assign a weight to the past, or to the suffering of the victims of the past that has come out in reconciliation commissions for these victims, as took place in South Africa? We should be careful when defining concepts such as reconciliation or reparation, and when deciding on what measures to use when we reflect upon the past.

With regard to human security, I wonder how violence is thought about theoretically. There are three frames for the conceptualization of violence: the socialization of violence, the imagery of violence, and the generalization of violence. The socialization of people refers to how they become violent. For example, when one becomes trained as a soldier, they learn to distance themselves from murder. This is socialization, through an unnatural and aberrant process. The conceptualization of violence (or of peace) is a more complex process. One wonders how an image materializes, how it is embodied, and what the aspects of space and discourse are. In political violence, for example, one author warned that the slang that was used to think and talk about death in Northern Ireland contributed to the generalization of violence.

Underground economies also have a clear impact on human security. One should consider the less known aspects of such: how should the black markets and their impacts be measured, along with small arms and trafficking in drugs. There are many factors that are poorly understood and which occur with great frequency, even in societies that are not engaged in conflict. Trafficking in human organs or biopiracy, for example, are practices that are not well understood, but which are commonplace in many places, lack adequate regulation, and cross multiple borders in both rich and poor countries. The question of how to measure the informal economy, the black market, and the need to examine the least understood aspects of violence must also be addressed. We should focus on civil wars and terrorism, but also on the least understood aspects of conflict and violence.

Another important element is the notion of mercenaries, another area in need of further study, closely related to human security. In the last twen-

ty years, companies of mercenaries have emerged, although the concept is much older. The private military sector is not well regulated at all in terms of human security. The fact that it is not regulated and is not held accountable for its actions is problematic from the standpoint of international law. The atrocities in Abu Graibh and others in Iraq exemplify this problem.

All of this aims to say that, when we think about creating an index which can measure war, violence, or peace, the question becomes: what types of measurement of peace are we talking about? People have different ideas of what a peace process is, and this idea changes depending on many different factors. I think that many qualitative aspects should be taken into account when measuring and creating indices.

INDICATORS OF THE REPORT 'ALERT!'

VICENÇ FISAS
Director of the School for a Culture of Peace

This presentation will not focus on human security considerations, but will explain the type of indicators used by the School for a Culture of Peace in the report *Alert! 2010,* which examines conflicts, human rights, and peace building. In the eight years that we have been doing this report, these indicators have changed.

When we began writing this report, we had a very specific objective for developing indicators. They were intended to address the European Union's Code of Conduct on Arms Exports, which prohibits exporting arms to countries that are in armed conflict, in situations of political unrest, or which violate the human rights of their people, for example. Countries interpret these issues in their own ways. For this reason, we decided to focus on each point of the Code of Conduct and use them as indicators, as guidelines for public policy in authorizing and/or refusing arms exports. In Spain this report was very useful, as it was in other countries of the European Union.

The decision to base indicators on the Code of Conduct resulted from the fact that, at that time, the School for a Culture of Peace was coordinating the campaigns of the major NGOs to control arms exports (Amnesty International, Intermón, Greenpeace and Doctors without Borders). Once these campaigns were completed, it was decided that a change in the indicators should be made, and to use others related to development, eventually reaching the number of 30 indicators. In those years, the report was linked to the idea of human security, because we had many indicators not only of conflict, but also of development, gender, etc.

In recent years, specifically in 2010, there has been a functional change in methodology. We now use the indicators that serve to develop the analysis in which the *Alert!* engages, and discard those that do not help in this task. In the latest report of *Alert!* the following ten categories of indicators have been developed and used:

1. *Existence of armed conflict*. This category keeps track of the international situation itself, without using other sources, and has a particular criterion. It considers countries that have one or more armed conflicts. Armed conflict is defined here as any confrontation featuring regular or irregular armed groups with perceived incompatible goals and which use continued organized violence: a) causing at least one hundred deaths in one year and/or having a large impact on the territory, through the destruction of infrastructure or of the environmental and human security. Examples of such are injured or displaced people, sexual violence, food insecurity, and the impact of violence on mental health and the social fabric or disruption of basic services; and b) when seeking objectives distinguishable from those of common crime, often linked to demands of self-determination, self-government or aspirations of identity and/or opposition to the political, economic or ideological system of a state or internal policy of a government. In both cases, these objectives serve to motivate the struggle for access to (or the taking apart of) power structures and to control the resources and the territory.

2. *Countries in a situation of tension (involving one or several tensions)*. This category also tracks the international situation itself using the reports prepared by UN agencies, international organizations, NGOs, research centers and regional and international media. A situation of tension is taken to mean any situation in which the pursuit of certain goals, or the non-fulfillment of certain demands raised by various sectors, leads to high levels of political, social or military mobilization, and / or the use of violence that does not reach the level of an armed conflict. It can include fighting, repression, coups, bombings or other attacks whose escalation could degenerate into armed conflict under certain circumstances.

3. *Peace processes*, which includes countries with an established peace process, those in the course of formalized negotiations, and those in the exploration phase. A peace process refers to a situation in which the parties of an armed conflict have reached an agreement to continue negotiations that permit finding a peaceful solution to conflict and regulate or resolve the basic inconsistencies between the parties. A peace process or negotiation is in an exploratory phase when the parties are at an examination stage and are engaged in consultation, without having reached a definitive agreement to begin negotiations. In this sense, the School for a Culture of Peace carries out another report about peace processes.

4. *Humanitarian crises*, focusing on countries with food emergencies. A situation is considered to be a food crisis when a country faces (or faced at one time of year) unfavorable prospects for the same year's crop and/or a shortage of food supplies not covered, and that has requested external assistance of an exceptional character during the year.

5. *Countries in which one of each 1,000 people are displaced internally*.

6. *Countries of origin where at least one of every 1,000 people is a refugee*.

7. *Countries included in the process of UN consolidated appeals for 2010 and countries that have made emergency calls in 2009 through the United Nations system*. If a country or region is included in the consolidated appeals process, the international community considers it to be in state of grave humanitarian crisis.

8. *Human rights and transitional justice*. The countries considered have examples of human rights violations classifiable under the Human Rights Index developed by our own School for a Culture of Peace. Sources used are Amnesty International, Human Rights Watch, the Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, the United Nations High Commissioner on Human Rights, and our own studies drawing on information from the UN, international organizations, NGOs, research centers and national and international media. The Human Rights Index measures the degree of vulnerability and breach of the obligations of States regarding human rights and international humanitarian law in 195 countries, classified by a ranking system. It consists of 22 specific indicators divided into three dimensions: a) non-ratification of the main instruments of international law of human rights and international humanitarian law; b) violation of international law of human rights and c) violation of international humanitarian law.

9. *Countries with serious gender inequality*, according to the Gender Equity Index, which measures it on the basis of three dimensions: education (literacy and enrollment at all levels of education), economic activity (income and employment rates) and empowerment (participation of women in elected and technical positions). This index does not measure the welfare of men and women, but rather the inequalities between them at a given time and in a given country.

10. *Countries that fell in the Gender Equity Index for the year 2004*.

In sum, these are the indicators being used, which are very focused on the contents of the Alert! 2010 report, and have been designed to support the analysis which the report contains.

3. EMERGING DEBATES

Many debates emerged throughout the workshop. These can be grouped into the following four categories:

1. The approach or framework. What exactly is the peace that we intend to measure?
2. Why do we want to measure it? Who demands that it be measured? What do we hope to achieve?
3. How are we going to do it? Presented in this category are problems with data sources, ways of assessing the reality under study (paying attention to subjectivities related to cultural differences between peoples, gender issues, technical aspects and statistics), and with the weight assigned to each of the elements of peace, which are an estimate and always dependent on the profile of who has valued it.
4. Why have we carried out this seminar? What is expected to come of it?

3.1. WHAT IS PEACE? FRAMEWORK

PEACE AS A COMPLEX CONCEPT

It is as evident as it is complex. If we do not know what it is exactly we mean by "peace" its measurement will be difficult. The starting point of the seminar was to hold up a definition of peace associated with the human security concept defined by the UNDP in its Human Development Report of 1994. The organizers of the conference understood that peace includes this concept and that measuring human security could, therefore, provide a measure close to that of a more ambiguous concept of peace. However, certain discrepancies were highlighted during the seminar in reference to consideration that these concepts are almost synonymous. To illustrate, Owen Green conceived of peace as being an end so great that the idea of using human security as a means of measuring it would be insufficient. On the other hand, but still along these same lines, Camilla Schippa reminded us that there is a project underway that is aimed at assessing progress, including peace in this assessment.

Peace is understood by different people and different groups in different ways. In respect to this, Professor Tom Woodhouse expressed his joy in still not knowing how to define peace after so many years. Although Juan Codorniu said that there are proposals aimed at achieving agreement on a definition of peace, Luis Jiménez Herrero said that there are over 130 definitions of sustainable development (a different, but related, concept), and presented consensus as a challenge that is perhaps unattainable. Monty Marshall asked

if the various people and groups involved could convey or publish their own definitions of "peace", since there is an institute in the U.S. that collects the different definitions. To draw parallels, Robin Hodess mentioned an initiative designed to look at the different understandings of corruption held by people of different countries, done through the practice of noting frames (some societies even consider some levels of corruption to be desirable, as she stated). Owen Green was of the opinion that we are very heterogeneous beings and that each person interprets peace according to their own priorities within their particular framework for action. He gave the example of a recently designed survey on security issues done in Ethiopia, in which people were asked what their conception of peace was. Green said that the responses to such could be understood as indicators that reflect the priorities of the people. Similarly, Peter Croll asked which definition of violence had been considered in the various initiatives presented. Violence, like peace, is also understood by people and different groups in different ways.

As noted by Karlos Pérez de Armiño while moderating the third round table of the seminar, when we speak of measuring human security it is frequently pointed out that there are two different approaches for doing so: one broad approach, *the freedom from need*, and one restricted approach, *the freedom from fear*. We choose what will be measured based on which approach we have assumed. Human security could be conceptualized as a shopping list that includes a large quantity of immeasurable aspects/items. We do not know the interrelationships between different components of human security. These difficulties have resulted in taking on the task of trying to make human security more measurable, more workable, but during this process some of the transformative potential that was intrinsic to the concept of human security has been lost.

Owen Green stated that the debate associated with the human security concept and its definition would not be solved during the seminar. Even though it is important to delimit this definition so that an index can interpret (and measure) it, Green decided to be pragmatic, recognizing that the development of an index of human security is a critical and controversial idea. In his opinion, rather than complaining, it is important to think of what can be measured, even in the absence of the perfect definition of human security, and to be tolerant of differences in interpretation. Lone Lindholt agreed that it is interesting to accept the principle of diversity from the start, given that we aim for common definitions, we will kill the process before it begins. Thus, he considered the best option to be to have several definitions and to work with the complexity and diversity that stems from this approach.

PEACE AND HUMAN SECURITY AS POSITIVE CONCEPTS

Juan Codorniu defended the measure of "positive" peace, not only for evaluating the possible respect for human rights, but also for addressing other issues, such as: considering how people are trained to follow rules to resolve conflicts through dialogue and nonviolence; gender equality; understanding, tolerance, solidarity and mutual understanding, which provide a basis for social cohesion; the strength of civil society; the existence of an open, transparent and accountable society; the integration of all groups; government policies for promoting peace and solidarity; and harmony with the environment. Owen Green acknowledged that many of these issues, as well as

others such as the empowerment or participation of the population, have not been properly addressed in terms of measurement, and said that a follow up on these issues was necessary.

Olawale Ismail remarked that there is probably a commonly held idea of what peace means throughout the world. However, in regards to more local perspectives, he noted how in his country, Nigeria, they often define peace as *peace of mind*, as *inner* peace. From his studies in Africa, he has reached the conclusion that there are different points of view with which to define peace. He noted that these are broad concepts that are different between countries, and which vary as the interpretations of the concepts related to peace do, but acknowledged that cross-comparisons are interesting. He, therefore, suggested that the same indicators could be used in looking at understandings of peace on a global level, but that specific cultural dynamics must be taken into account when analyzing the data obtained on a local level. For his part, Peter Croll asked himself "when is someone 'poor'?" and about the relationship that this question could have with peace of mind, warning that sometimes our eyes do not capture basic concepts. In this regard, Cécile Barbeito wondered whether the Delàs Centre had considered this inner peace in its initiative (degree of solidarity, happiness of the people, etc.). The answer was yes, but not without questioning the reliability of surveys in which people are asked about happiness and related variables.

Pere Ortega warned that the majority of centers specialize in negative peace work (militarization and direct violence), including the same Delàs Centre that proposes a measure of peace understood in a broader sense. He warned that considering only the negative side of peace means excluding many forms of violence and, therefore, inhibits reaching conclusions that bring us closer to peace. He advocated not only to seek answers, but also to raise questions. In this same vein, Juan Codorniu considered the recognition of peace experiences to be the necessary starting point for the construction of peace. He recommends pushing for an epistemological shift towards a conceptualization of peace that comes from the perspective of peace itself, not from violence, and to develop peace indicators, rather than solely constructing indicators for violence.

NEGATIVE PEACE

Nonetheless, the positive approach has its limitations. Tom Woodhouse was pleased with this positive approach to peace, but acknowledged that it complicates our work, partly because it dismantles what we have done so far. Indeed, Andrew Mack agreed that everything is connected to everything else, but even while true, this circumstance does not help in the measurement process, but rather complicates it. For example, Lourdes Beneria, J. P. Linstroth and Owen Green stressed the importance of economic insecurity and its relationship to general human security and/or daily insecurity, particularly in terms of physical violence. Monty Marshall noted that the links between different concepts form part of the dilemmas, warning that if we cover a lot, we end up doing nothing. In response to this trend, he proposed starting with a minimum, and expanding upon this minimum with time as more information is gathered, polishing and clarifying our terms as we go along. In the same vein, Peter Croll suggested abandoning the last attempt to find a definitive definition of what peace is. To paraphrase Andrew Mack in respect to human security: it is good to talk, even in the absence of a definitive definition.

Andrew Mack warned that structural violence is also responsible for deaths, and in great numbers. HIV and AIDS, for example, kill more people than wars do. If peace means the avoidance of death (and not only to avoid war), is it possible to compare AIDS and war as two similar ways of dying? According to Mack, if we were to include psychological violence, cultural violence and many other things that harm and destroy people in our peace concept, we would need a coherent approach, and each of these elements would entail a problem for such. To illustrate, he recalled how in a study of the conceptions of security held in the Asia-Pacific, the concept was radically different in each country, depending on their particular experiences. If we need definitions that fit all of these interpretations and we open the field to such a great extent, he said, we could become lost. He therefore suggested that the considered idea of peace not be too broad, given that otherwise it is not manageable. He believed in a limited definition for reasons of pure pragmatism. Consistent with this view, Rafael Grasa warned that people do not understand our contemplation of negative and positive peace, and that we were discussing human security at the seminar, as had already been done in 1960s and 1970s.

Rafael Grasa went on to say that in the social sciences, neither an indicator nor an index serve any purpose if they are not inserted into a context within a system of reference. We must, therefore, try to establish a shared framework of reference between different institutes in which to give each index a context. This is not to be done with the intention of creating a general index, but rather to continue working with the indexes already in existence. In this same vein, Pablo Pareja suggested to ICIP that, before starting to create a new indicator, it be worth trying to define benchmarks for the indicators already in existence so as to check whether there are other frameworks, which do not appear at first sight, that can be considered and defined for future use. It is important to try to identify what issues cut across all of the indicators (gender, sustainability, cultural diversity, etc.) and to try and study the connections between some indicators and others, the correlations between them, and identify any gaps that emerge in the process.

According to Olawale Ismail, there has been a change in the interpretation of what is meant by peace in recent years. In the past, the debate was focused on negative aspects of peace. Now, we are trying to manage an idea of positive peace. But perhaps there is an intermediate point between positive and negative peace, such as pragmatic peace, defined as the ability to maintain the peace in a specific place. This has some epistemological implications and involves two challenges. First, increasingly qualitative methods are being used. The question is: what is the best way to use quantitative indices to understand peace? Second, peace research has attempted to react more quickly to general demands and political demands, which is where quantitative data is most needed. The focus must now be on using indicators that clearly show the problem, outlined on a single page, in order to be able to rapidly visualize the solution.

3.2. WHY DO IT?

During one of the first debates, Ignacio Espinosa wondered about the meaning of measuring peace. What is the reason for this measure? Why measure peace? Juan Codorniu said we want a system of indicators in order to assess

peace precisely so as to increase the capacity to build peace. The discussions that took place regarding this point led to four related debates:

ARE THE INDICES USEFUL?

The first of these debates has to do with the utility of the indices. As Manuela Mesa explained, indices are imperfect, but they provide a useful picture. In spite of all their associated challenges, indices are useful and serve to put issues on the table that otherwise may not be focused on, such as the topics of militarization and corruption, which were reviewed in the presentations of this seminar. Luis Jiménez Herrero said that the ultimate goal is to improve the management of systems. Measurement is necessary because what is not well known is not valued, and that which is not valued results from its not being measured well. Aida Guillén explained this utility through use of the example of a project done by the institute that she directs and the Barcelona Provincial Council. This project focuses on rights at the local level. For each of the rights detailed in the *European Charter of Safeguarding Human Rights in the City* a series of indicators are presented that assesses whether there is a correlation between the changes in that which is being measured. The indicators are multidimensional. When selecting an indicator, the capacity, political will, perception and the actual impact of the indicator must be taken into account, as should be the question of how to combine the qualitative with the quantitative. The series of indicators are passed on to the council, are given a weight so that they can be quantified by a number, and are provided to participatory forums within the community, where a report is produced. The indicators are not an end in and of themselves, but are a means with which local governments can carry out action plans for the future.

To be able to do that which is mentioned above, however, it is not necessary to create indices: the indicators themselves are enough. Owen Green said that an index is a very structural thing that facilitates classification, but that they must be constructive in order to have a particular effect. Pablo Pareja stated that, coming from the perspective of one who uses indices and does not create them, indices are useful because they help us better understand the reality we see as being complex and multidimensional. But these indices should serve to help us understand this reality, and not establish rankings that lack purpose. Manuela Mesa said that it is not necessary to measure what happens in the Congo to know that terrible things are happening; it is not necessary to go into detail in some cases. Andrew Mack, while agreeing with Mesa, said that it was nevertheless very important to measure certain things: sexual violence, for example. To measure it may result in its limitation in some conflicts, while not meaning it will be avoided in others. Empirical research, or good data, grants us the ability to better understand. Continuing the debate on the desirability of creating rankings, Alejandro Pozo mentioned that, in the development process of the project of the Delàs Centre, the establishment of rankings is the least important thing, compared to the dilemmas that are found.

DO THEY LEAD TO ACTION?

In spite of that which is mentioned in the previous paragraph, the shock that the creation of rankings has produced in society (and the media) is clear. Monty Marshall defended a practical perspective on this, arguing that part

of the reason why we create indices is because they allow us to provide information to policy makers so that, in a very short amount of time, they can gain an understanding of the information at hand. Peter Croll appealed to training and awareness-building in society, but also to the media. Manuela Mesa had a similar perspective on this matter, who suggested working towards an understanding of the technical discussions (which are difficult to interpret) that would facilitate the informative effort. Luis Jiménez Herrero said that we must move from indicators to models, and towards building models for the future, while insisting on the importance of the educational effort by means of repetition. Owen Green said that indices should be used for action, and Robin Hodess agreed on the idea that indices are created to be used politically. Another issue is that indices may also encourage more research, an effect that has been demonstrated, as in the case of the indices of Transparency International, which have sparked research that has permitted the identification of gaps that make the enhancement and elaboration of the indexes possible through a feedback process. Furthermore, as stated by Cristina Carrasco, the study of local models provides the pressure to address elements of reality through the creation of new indicators that were non-existent before, and which would not have been possible to ascertain in the absence of such studies. While recognizing the limitations of measurement, these local indicators address some situations of importance for different people. For example, indicators based on surveys on how time is used were difficult to achieve at the beginning. Thus, while pursuing political objectives, some indicators can encourage the creation of new indicators or indices that enable new political goals. In this regard, according to Camilla Schippa, most researchers are not interested in aggregated data, but rather in raw data. To serve this end Schippa, along with other participants, proposed creating a website where this raw data would be made available to researchers to facilitate the continuation of their research, a tool that could, in turn, stimulate further investigation.

With the aim of achieving this political impact, rankings have earned greater acceptance: in terms of their simplification of reality (probably in excess), by the media, and by powerful groups. For example, Lourdes Beneria recalled that the Human Development Index, although imperfect, resulted in many positive things and had a great impact within the press, generating more debate in the media than the data provided by the World Bank had before. Indeed, as Owen Green says, rankings act in the same way beauty contests do: governments want to see what place they come in. For this reason, Ignacio Espinosa noted that, in many cases, rankings are perhaps not the best means of seeking change, since those who are mentioned in rankings can instrumentalize their rank based on the position they have been granted. He proposed modeling as the best option (which would show, for example, that if one were to stop spending so much money on militarization, this money could be used in different more productive ways).

Pere Ortega warned that the indicators will be increasingly more important in political and social centers of power. The work done by the various institutes and groups, he said, has little impact on the media and the centers of power, but that indicators are a good way to reach them. It is, therefore, important to ask how their impact can be increased. Andrew Mack agreed on the importance of reaching the media, since that which is published has much greater of an impact on politicians than that which is not. He recommended making powerful executive summaries and press releases and the

use of a variety of communication strategies so that we can reach the majority of journalists, through the use of blogs on the Internet, for example, among other mediums. Sometimes, Mack said, a project can be so vast, so rich and so complex that when you issue an annual report, the choice of the key messages to be conveyed is central, for those who read such reports are researchers, not policy makers. He also said that we need to develop indicators of the impact of these reports. Owen Green wondered, for example, if a group that is trying to create a performance index on the prevention of conflicts does so with the intention of avoiding conflicts, or in order to have an impact on the media. He argued that the approach is very different when you focus on performance than when you focus on results. In this regard, Andrew Mack said that a distinction should be made between performance and impact. From a strategic standpoint, Robin Hodess noted that this year marks the anniversary of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and can be seen as a good time to reach the media and point to existent gaps in the areas of security and peace. In this regard, Andrew Mack said that the World Bank will soon release its report on state fragility and security, which does not have the purpose of adding more goals to the MDGs, but which will discuss the existence of issues that are complementary to the Millennium Development Goals, in recognition of the error of not having included security issues as MDGs beforehand. As he said, the G-77 did not want to include security in the debates, but now things have changed a bit. The fact that the World Bank talks about security in the MDGs is a clear sign, and now the World Bank is considering the inclusion the issue of security, recognizing that it is difficult for it to address security issues being that it is an institution dedicated to development.

DO THEY HAVE THE DESIRED EFFECT?

Although the indices are tools for action, voices warning that such action was not necessarily positive were heard during the seminar. Thus, José Ángel addressed Robin Hodess in reference to the protests in which various people have engaged regarding the work done by Transparency International, accusing it of being an index file that does a disservice to states (which means, on the other hand, attention is paid to them), since it asks very direct questions requiring very direct answers. José Ángel wondered if this index had been found positive in terms of transparency and accountability of states. Robin Hodess responded that, indeed, countries may be disappointed to see very distant standards, but that it is good to have such standards. This because of the existence of the basic values of fairness, equality and justice that everyone holds. From an activist point of view, we must agree on these values, in order to have more hope when it comes to reaching them. Monty Marshall assured that, through use of the indices, we are pushing countries to reflect absolute standards that can overwhelm or seem difficult to achieve, so difficult that there is the possibility that some give up in the process. To address this problem, he suggested that the challenges of a particular state be addressed and its capacities coordinated in order to move towards these meeting standards. In any case, Robin Hodess said that, although it is difficult to assess whether the world has become less corrupt (although there is less corruption within particular fields), they have had success, for example: in being jointly responsible for the chapter of Indian law regarding access to information that individual governments have become interested in, wanting to know how to improve their score in the index, or with negotiation taking place within the private sector as a result of complaints about the ratings.

Robin Hodess, however, warned that the media can be constructive or destructive, even while being considered an ally, when taking into account who the owners of different media sources are. Peter Croll acknowledged that not enough work has been done in order to educate the media as a group, so that they will convey what we want to say to the public. According to Ananda Millar, the media can be a transmitter of violence, and she recalled an example of a headline in which the police chief of Guatemala said the dead who were wanted by the police for murder should not be included in statistics (she also mentioned that, in Guatemala, the media justifies killing a certain type of person.)

Given that each index involves implicit objectives, perspectives, and different methodologies, a proposal that was well received at the seminar, made by Ignacio Espinosa, was to map the different indices and to make a "critical index of indices", which would present the advantages and disadvantages of each index. There are policy makers who already know the nuances, but it is very important that all be summarized, not only for policymakers, but also for the rest of society.

One example of a debate that arose during the seminar was in regards to the relevance of assessing whether membership in an international treaty or a gentleman's agreement should or should not be considered as positive in itself. In respect to this, Pablo Pareja said that conceptualizing the signature, ratification or accession to an international treaty as being of positive value is a Western bias, because we assume that there is a link between the degree of adherence to a treaty and its implementation. Camilla Schippa coincided with Pareja in her belief that treaties do not have any conclusive meaning, in that ratifying or signing them does not guarantee anything. According to Pareja, in the West such might work, but in Asia it is quite the opposite. When establishing an indicator that depends on adherence to a treaty, the problem becomes that the correlation between signature and adherence is not found on a universal level, although perhaps seen in the West. Luis Jiménez Herrero said that in the framework of agreements made between businesses (the UN Global Compact, for example), it is preferable that companies make this commitment, although their degree of compliance with such would have to be considered separately. The verification of compliance would serve to eliminate these companies from the list of those that have not complied. Along these lines, Alejandro Pozo affirmed that, in general, gentlemen's agreements have three characteristics that invalidate their utility as mechanisms for controlling such abuse: first, they are usually voluntary; second, there usually aren't independent mechanisms for their verification (companies themselves would confirm that they are complying); and third, if violations of the covenants are discovered, there are usually no instruments for sanctioning, no repetition and no reparation of harm done. With these agreements, there is more of a focus on image (marketing) than control mechanisms. That is why we should consider indicators of compromise, and, most importantly, indicators of results, in relation to the signing of treaties. This means doubling the number of indicators (commitment + outcome), although outcome indicators are conspicuous due to their relative absence.

WHO DOES IT AFFECT?

During the seminar, there seemed to be consensus on the important role that the media plays in showing the results of research done in the form of indicators, indices or rankings. But the question of where the pressure gen-

erated by the media's portrayal of such results should be directed, and what role we should play in such a process, were topics of debate. Indeed, who we want to direct our work to (who our 'client' is) determines how we do research.

Monty Marshall admitted that his main client is the U.S. government, and that he uses many of the indices when implementing policy. In this regard, he said that, in his opinion, many scholars fear their own governments, and even think that someone who works for the government could be considered an enemy. Following this line of thought, he commented that it is civil society that controls the government in a democracy, and not vice versa, and posed the question: how are we to work if we are afraid of the government of a democratic society? Owen Green acknowledged the importance of making policy makers and politicians aware of these issues. If the indices are to have an influence on policy makers, their end would be to establish policies. This is possible if the indices are focused and what is needed to provide good data is known, so that countries can make informed decisions. Ignacio Espinosa said that the aim of his group is to influence former heads of state and government to, in turn, influence the current world leaders.

Camilla Schippa, in contrast, recognized that companies and governments can also be pressured by the economic effects of war. She, therefore, proposed to link violence with its effects on the economy, pointing out which sectors could gain from the reduction of such violence, in order to make this reduction more attractive. In fact, she said her group has spoken with these economic sectors to raise awareness of the fact that, if the level of war or conflict is reduced, they may have opportunities for peace. As Manuela Mesa put it, ask them "how much does violence cost?" In this regard, Ananda Millard affirmed that we should present these measures from the economic point of view, and recover the studies that examine the cost of war. She warned, however, that although it is said that violence is expensive, it can also be profitable for some. Not only for manufacturers of weapons, but also for security companies that provide employment for ex-combatants, among others. While a large part of the population loses, a small but powerful group of people can benefit from war. On the other hand, even donors (those who fund the research that produces indicators and indices) may require specific models (and results). One example was cited by Robin Hodess, who referred to various documents produced on corruption in relation to gender issues, a topic that donors have gone so far as to demand be taken into account.

In contrast, and unlike some of the aforementioned projects, Tica Font affirmed that ICIP does not have *clients*, a circumstance that grants them the freedom to measure peace as they see fit, given that they do not need to adapt their proposals or results to the needs (or tastes) of the client. This allows ICIP to look into how a particular person feels safe, irrespective of where this person may be, because the client addressed is not the state, but are the people. The state might be interested using indicators to track what they perceive as being insecurity, a perception usually based on what takes place outside its borders (poverty in another country, the militarization of the other, organized crime, etc.). The state must manage these situations, but we do not necessarily need to. In this regard, she wondered if it was useful to address other positions when thinking about the development of indicators that are not designed to respond to the state. Font argued that the

world is transformed not only by states, but also by society. So the question becomes: how can we help society find their answers, not addressing the problem from the global perspective, but assuming a local perspective? Along these same lines, Luis Jiménez Herrero remarked that the idea is that states and governments are not the only ones who make decisions, but that we all do through participatory democracy and with the help of new technologies.

On the other hand, Alejandro Pozo warned that global indices of peace have become a reality and that their dissemination may be inevitable, in spite of the existence of dilemmas that suggest such an aim may not become a reality. In respect to this, he suggested that a critical assessment of the existence of global indexes may be compatible with advice for their extension. That is, if it is inevitable that these global indices exist, we should at least ask that the different variables that would make this measurement more respectful of different perspectives be considered, and avoid their conversion into a military and / or police framework. As remembered by Pere Ortega, peace is already considered to be a right (of the third generation of rights), so we should respond to the challenge of measuring it with indicators and indices that treat it as such, working together towards building a global peace index that can help us all.

However, it became clear at the seminar that the number of indices should not increase if not necessary, despite this trend being "fashionable." The relevance of creating an index of human security was even questioned- as done by Andrew Mack and Rafael Grasa- being that the development of such an index is not only not possible, but may not even be desirable.

3.3. METHODOLOGY

How are we going to do it? Presented here are the problems related to data sources, the means of valuing reality, subjectivities related to cultural differences between peoples, the issue of gender, and related to the weight assigned to each of the constitutive elements of peace, among others, the values given to such always being dependent on profile of he who is engaged in the valuation process.

WHAT ARE WE GOING TO MEASURE?

As mentioned explicitly in the working document attached to the report, one of the difficulties in measuring the peace is to determine what the object being measured is. For example, the methodology varies greatly if we take the conditions of life of a person, or the situation of the state (or business), as the object of measurement. The initiative of the Delàs Centre –and the working paper—proposed taking on a perspective that is focused exclusively on individuals, not states or companies. From a certain point of view, one can assume that if a measure is good for a state (meaning that it will result in greater global power, from the geopolitical or strategic perspective, or assuming a macroeconomic perspective, for example) it will end up having a positive impact on its citizens. Similarly, from a business standpoint, some people would agree that a measure that increases the power of businesses has an indirect positive impact on people (for example, the creation of jobs). However, these interests (those of states / companies and of people) some-

times can not be satisfied at the same time as a result of being opposites. To give an example, the ability to fire someone easily or flexible working hours may be favourable for a company, whereas, in contrast, for the workers they may not be. An option for measuring peace and human security would, therefore, be to dispose of macro indicators as much as possible, and prioritize indicators of results in the way of life of populations. On the other hand, we could negatively value that a population of a state enjoys privileges above its needs, basing this assessment on population and on basic needs criteria, or on geographic location (for example, the colder a place, the higher the consumption needs will be).

HOW TO OVERCOME INTERPRETATION AND SUBJECTIVITIES

As acknowledged by Pablo Pareja, we project our vision of the universe onto the indicators, paying attention to some elements and not others, and deciding which indicators contribute to our view of the world. We talk about sustainability, human rights, peace, etc., but we forget that these are specific perspectives which are not universally shared. It would, therefore, be worth looking for a definition that is more or less shared before creating a global indicator. In this regard, Lone Lindholt commented that, initially, his work was the result of something internal, not universal, but upon going to work in other countries, his approach served as a point of departure.

These subjectivities and interpretations are very evident in two areas: the cultural framework and in androcentrism. Regarding to the first, Olawale Ismail said that he would have liked the seminar to have involved more people from impoverished countries, a circumstance that would have helped highlight cultural differences. In relation to data, for example, Ismail stressed that it would be interesting to establish links with institutions in impoverished countries in order to validate existing data, checking whether it is compatible with the lived realities in these countries, and thus try and look at peace from a more comprehensive perspective. This would also serve as a means of improving the quality of the data received. He proposed a tectonic shift in the concept of peace, from a *big* peace to a *globa*l peace, when now we can speak of a small peace, of pieces of peace at a local level. In any event, Ismail suggested that we should distinguish between the source of data and how it is used, noting that when attempting to measure peace, the values of a country and a society inevitably become manipulated (a simple fact of military spending being used for making general assessments, for example). Ismail also spoke of the need to observe what happens between different generations during different historical periods, and recommended working with young people to serve this end.

Ananda Millard considered that sometimes we have a definition and concept of a problem, which is accepted in an international arena, but that when we go to a particular country, a small village, we might find that their conception of the problem is very different. To illustrate, she argued that in a given country, x number of people could register human rights violations, which would result in requests to amend the legislation. This, however, would not change anything if, to use the example if Guatemala, homicide were somehow approved of (the homicide of 'undesired' people is accepted), and the changes required to change this would have to be quite profound. Thus, she warned that local law is quite different from international law, and that the interventions by use of indicators could have the problem that, upon reach-

ing a particular country, the indicator would not be useful for assessing the local situation. She acknowledged, however, that the indicators can serve as a good starting point for discussion, a goal to reach, and so on. Millard, therefore, said that this is a more complex and extensive a problem than previously thought, and that it must be humbly recognized that what is said of a country can sometimes be wrong.

In a similar vein, Lone Lindholt agreed that if you look at human rights as a global issue, many cultural differences can be found. This is not so simple, nor is it possible to simplify, and one must reach the right balance between these differences. According to Monty Marshall, indicators must be defined explicitly, and areas requiring investigation must be found, in order to use the most useful indicators in the policies of each place. These should address reality at the local level, and all of the factors that cause changes in human behaviour cannot be identified. To provide an example, he explained that, after a crisis somewhere in the world, the reaction of the U.S. is to go to that place and increase the sense of security held by the people. The U.S. bases such action on the idea that weapons provide security, whereas, in reality, this measure has the opposite effect in undermining the ability of societies to respond for themselves. If violence is encouraged from the outside, it can be sustained forever.

Following cultural relativism, J. L. Linstroth stated that power relations, cultural and legislative differences between countries must be taken into account when measuring violence, and the topic of gender should considered as well. Linstroth affirmed that the debate between human rights and cultural rights has been going on for some time, pointing out that clitorectomy is also practiced in many European countries. Aida Guillén replied by saying that using female genital mutilation as an example of cultural relativism was to do a disservice to human rights. In her view, one can speak of the right to education or to political participation, but any practice that threatens the physical integrity of a person should not be used as an example of cultural relativism.

It is common practice for the various initiatives to develop rankings and later modify the criteria if they obtain results that are perceived as being inconsistencies. The seminar demonstrated the possibility of correcting situations that do not fit in, or which are seen to be distortions, such as when a certain country is listed under another, for example, which we think should not be done. In this respect, there is the intention to revise measurement practices and criteria to try to get closer to reality. Doing so, however, runs the risk of ignoring the results obtained by the indicators and indices, and altering ad hoc criteria in order to obtain results resembling what we (those who made the indices) understand to be "reality". This risk is particularly high when we intend to adjust the results to the will of our "clients", as discussed in the previous section and during the seminar.

The second important area of subjectivity is androcentrism. Cristina Carrasco has worked with non-androcentric indicators that go beyond what we understand as gender equity. Regarding the ideas of global peace and positive peace, which refer to a broad social framework of justice, reciprocity, understanding, education and other values, Carrasco asked, ¨from what perspective should these be addressed?¨, pointing to the need for a non-androcentric vision. Values are determined by the dominant group: white rather than black, men rather than women. In a patriarchal society, it is the

dominant (male) values that reign. Men and women are embedded in this society in different ways, and the awareness that one has of the other is distinct. Indicators must capture this reality, Carrrasco continued, adding that indicators are always taken from the public sphere and outside of the home, when it is *inside* the home where life develops most. Thus, indicators can speak to us of equality, but this according to the male model. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP), for example, argues that women are achieving greater equality because of higher levels of activity, with more female entrepreneurs, etc., that is to say: in imitation of the male model. But, are we interested in this male model, or do we want to break away from it and reach something made for both men and women? When we speak of positive peace, a comprehensive term that suggests more than the mere absence of violence, we should talk about violence against women, patriarchal violence that occurs both at home and in the workplace. It is also fundamental that we capture the experience of women who take care of the lives of others, which occurs in different areas of our society, but primarily inside the home. We need to be taken care of throughout our lives. The emotional support offered by those who care for others is fundamental for developing human life and welfare. The sustainability of life would be impossible without these jobs done at home (it is estimated that more time is devoted to unpaid work than to paid employment). Positive peace is left in the hands of women, poor women, immigrants. We must retrieve the value of this work, its *dignity*, which is a political issue. We need to grasp the distinction between men and women, the value of that which is feminine in our daily lives, and not just the separation of data by sex.

THE PROBLEM WITH SCALES

One element that was barely discussed, even though it is probably of primary importance in the process of measurement, is the determination of the scale of indicators. That is, once indicators are obtained, they must be grouped in order to obtain an index. During this process, an assessment of how much weight to give each indicator inevitably takes place (even if all indicators are assigned an equal weight, an assessment and acquisition of error occurs, because it is very likely that these indicators are not as relevant as they were before). As is known, the assignment of weights to an indicator depends on a perspective and subjective interpretation of reality, and is based on values that are also subjective. As explained in a previous section, it one thing to focus on states or companies (for which the gross domestic product per person or dismissal capabilities, for example, can have a significant weight), and another to make people the center of attention. During the seminar, it was made clear that the perspective used (and therefore the scales assigned) determines which results are obtained. In this respect, during her presentation Camilla Schippa defended that there is a high correlation between the Global Peace Index (GPI) and GDP. Lourdes Beneria showed her surprise with this, however, given that the U.S. was associated with a very high GPI, whereas in her view, it was a highly aggressive country engaged in the process of waging several wars.

Alejandro Pozo believed that weighing was the main factor responsible for manipulation or error in the results of the indices. In fact, in the proposal of the Delàs Centre they ran tests in which the weights were modified according to different viewpoints, and concluded that the results varied greatly. With regard to this matter, Robin Hodess said that at times they came to

prefer not to weigh the data at all, given that such is always controversial. In any case, Peter Croll warned that data must always be assigned a weight.

AVAILABILITY AND CREDIBILITY OF THE DATA

The data and sources which we draw on in order to set indicators, which then inform the indices, were subject of debate in two distinct but related areas: data availability and reliability.

In regards to availability, Tom Woodhouse noted that data is needed to justify potential interventions and actions. Continuing along these lines, Andrew Mack mentioned that, when a military operation starts, no data exists in spite of its being necessary, and he denounced the absence of a research culture within the UN. For her part, suggesting a set of indicators that show that a society cares for its people, Cristina Carrasco demonstrated that she understood the problem of measurement in the absence of data, but stated that this circumstance should not paralyze us. She argued that the lack of indicators or data on something (related to caretaking and non andro-centric assessment) is an indicator in and of itself of why there are no indicators or data for these issues. Manuela Mesa also presented the experience of the Global Peace Index, in which a panel of experts and the Intelligence Unit of *The Economist* are involved. They debated the issue of how to include that which is not measured, such as violence by men against women, or the degree of social cohesion within a society. According to them, there is a lack of data on positive elements, and whenever the option of considering a positive element appeared, *The Economist* said that there was no data available. The challenge, she said, is to gradually measure the things that have not yet been measured, and to measure them qualitatively, not quantitatively, and from a local perspective.

Furthermore, another variant of the lack of availability of data is the need for it to be updated, as mentioned by Alejandro Pozo. Indeed, not all data is offered every year, and different countries may even consider data from different years or periods when writing annual reports, a circumstance that makes comparing them difficult. A partial solution might be to prioritize the sources that provide data that is updated every year, but this should not mean neglecting other sources. In regards to the general lack of data, Pozo said that the proposal of the Delàs Centre, which considered more than 120 sources, opted to consider only those sources which provided data from 90 countries or more. Including the countries for which no data is available in the rankings represents another dilemma.

In any case, Lone Lindholt warned that, despite the obvious problems related to the availability of data, this issue was much more difficult 10 years ago. As noted, things can be done today that ten years ago were impossible, and progress has been made with regard to human rights in particular.

On the issue of reliability, this can be affected by the choice of methodology used, but also by the perspective of the person who collects the information, which may have an effect on credibility. As an example of influence on methodology, Monty Marshall showed how their data on mortality in armed conflicts differed greatly from that of the University of Uppsala, given that a different measurement of the same phenomenon can generate different results (his data, for example, does not only take the dead in combat into ac-

count, but rather looks at all the deaths that occur). Second, Alejandro Pozo showed how there are indicators for happiness based on surveys, which may be of questionable reliability given that the results could be affected by the culture of each place, the environment in which questions are asked, and the time of their formulation, all of which can result in wrong answers being given (due to pressure or the way of formulating the questions). The third measure affecting reliability (and, in this case, also affecting credibility), is point of view. Alejandro Pozo gave the example of the GDP of a country per capita, which does not include unpaid work, domestic work, volunteer work, or the informal economy. Considering these aspects, the resulting GDP would be very different, especially for poor countries. Indeed, continued Pozo, we take sources from some places without considering what criteria are used for obtaining the information at hand. Under such circumstances it becomes possible that, even in the case that special care is taken to make indicators reliable, if the data used to create such indicators is obtained from sources that manipulate it (consciously or unconsciously), the indicators could provide us with results that are equally unrepresentative of reality. In this same vein, Olawale Ismail noted that some official data does not capture the informal information of countries, as is the case with data from the World Bank. Decisions are made based on official data, that is to say, using information that may very well be very different from reality.

Tom Woodhouse noted the importance of there being dialogue between those responsible for developing the data, and the need for data to be open. Peter Croll responded to this proposal saying that his organization is working on a project that offers a different methodology for managing databases, and proved willing to provide information on this methodology for treating data, data related to militarization in particular. Monty Marshall said his group has a global database of 1,500 indicators (having eliminated another 3000), which is a lot of information when speaking globally, but which must be summarized (in the form of an index, for example) in order for it to be of practical use: so that policy makers can make sense of it in very little time. Nonetheless, he said that his database has been made intellectual property and therefore can not be shared freely. In his view, the more indicators one has, the more it costs to distribute them due to intellectual property rights, whereas the fewer indicators there are, the easier it is for the available information to circulate. This is one of the reasons why the use of fewer indicators is preferable: in order to facilitate the transmission of information. Faced with questions about this intellectual property, Marshall said that they devote a lot of time to obtaining permits for the dissemination of indicators, but remarked that gray areas exist. It is once these indicators are integrated into an index and 'packaged' that they are ready to be made public, for example.

Ananda Millard expressed concern about this issue regarding the quality of information and wondered what being a reliable source means, or when information is considered to be good or bad. Sometimes, she said, we use information that was compiled in a manner that runs contrary to the way we interpret it. Perhaps giving more detailed information on the sources of information used would help in this regard.

Robin Hodess proposed creating a kind of agora for accessing data, to facilitate sharing it, and said that it would be important that such access, and the resulting analysis, not remain only within the academic setting, but go

beyond it. In this regard, Camilla Schippa mentioned that most researchers are not interested in aggregated data, but rather in raw data. If copyright laws permit it, we can access these records of raw data, and create a website that makes this information available to researchers so they can continue their work. This measure would encourage more research.

In conclusion, Tica Font acknowledged that, in so far as realities change, there is the need to collect new data that has not been collected up until now. There is the need to generate political pressure to be able to obtain the data that addresses these new realities. This can not be the work of a single center. We must all work together to move towards this goal. Font also warned that no indicator is perfect, and said that we use what we have to describe the situations that arise: we do what we can obtain an image of reality. We create a profile of reality, using data which may be flawed or indirect, but which allows us to approach this reality. Font concluded by saying that we cannot aim to create new data or establish new ways of thought. What we can ask is that each participant provide the databases that they use so that these databases may be combined. We will see whether this helps us discover the existing gaps and to identify what aspects may be lacking for the future, determine if these prove to be useful, and see whether a portal based on a common database can be built, which would allow us to work together.

CONTRIBUTION TO INTERNATIONAL PEACE

As already mentioned in the working paper, it may be useful to analyze not only the internal situation of countries, but also their contribution to global welfare. That is, not to limit our analysis to factors that contribute to internal peace, but also to evaluate the external contributions of the various states to "global peace" or international peace. While many other areas or focuses could be considered, in the Delàs Centre's presentation, six contributions to global peace were proposed: a reduction of militarism (which considered reduced amounts of military assets, military spending and exports of weaponry to be desirable, among other things); contribution to the peaceful resolution of conflicts (external conflict prevention and mechanisms of management and resolution); contribution to international justice (international courts against crime, cooperation between states and protection against trans-national criminal practices) ; contribution to a just global economy (responsible foreign investment, economy in the interests of individuals and fair international relations); contribution to the environment (ecological footprint, respect for international agreements and reduced pollution), and contribution to cooperation between nations (multilateral and bilateral cooperation and cooperation within the international civil society). As an example, the presentation mentioned that it was conceivable that a country enjoy economic security or environmental satisfaction, for example, but be contributing to worsened global economic relations or more environmental deterioration at the same time. Camilla Schippa pointed out that some countries have good results on external contributions to peace because they cannot have an external impact due to domestic issues: because they do not have the capacity necessary to do so. In any case, she says that it is a priori interesting to evaluate internal and external contributions to world peace. It is of interest to consider the various elements of peace, as said by Luis Jimenez Herrero, who noted that global peace (or sustainability) does not always correspond to the sum of partial peaces.

On this topic, José Ángel Ruiz Jimenez said that when targets are measured, it is advisable to separate the state and individuals in order to measure peace. A state may contribute little to international peace (through high levels of militarization, for example), but have a vibrant civil society that contributes in its capacity to international peace at the same time (NGOs, solidarity, volunteerism, etc.). Catherine Charette and Jimenez both questioned how social efforts should be measured. Alexander Pozo replied that the proposal of the Delàs Centre considers both indicators that analyze the performance of states and the performance of civil society for each category, while recognizing the difficulties in both the availability and the reliability of the data in relation to civil society. For his part, Pere Ortega insisted on the importance of analyzing peace in a global, positive way.

QUANTITATIVE OR QUALITATIVE INDICES?

Xavier Badia pointed out that many of the contributors to the seminar held up the need to take qualitative elements into account. He noted that, when constructing an index (based on quantitative elements), the problem of the lack of viability may arise, and he wondered if qualitative richness can be incorporated into an index. Tom Woodhouse replied that, although it is good to take patterns into account, done through quantitative analysis, the base of an index is qualitative, and that it is important to find the connections and balance between the local and the global, and between the qualitative and the quantitative. Alejandro Pozo said that certain indicators were easy to measure, the ratification or signing of international treaties, for example. In the case of ratification, a "1" could be assigned to the indicator, whereas otherwise it would be given a "0". Many other indicators are difficult to measure, however. Lone Lindholt noted that, in general, reports are used to tell whether a violation of human rights has occurred in a specific location this year. For example, if such a violation were to exist, it could be assigned a zero or a one. The quantitative and qualitative dimensions overlap, he said, because the documentation must be read in order to decide on a valuation. In any case, Pozo said that since each indicator has a very specific way of being calculated, it would be desirable for the approach or methodology that corresponds to each indicator to be explained in a manual. This would facilitate the correct interpretation of indicators and indices.

Another topic of discussion was related to examining the general characteristics that would be desirable for indicators to have. In respect to this, Aida Guillén said capacity, political will, perception and actual impact, should be taken into account when selecting an indicator; and Rafael Grasa believed that these indicators should be consistent, measurable and inter-objective, explaining that they are measured in a given moment in time. For his part, Luis Jiménez Herrero added that the new indicators should be geo-referenced in order to gain different layers of information for the same territory, and mentioned the second-generation of indicators based on new technologies. Indicators are of interest when looking at the evolution of processes, to see how much they have strayed from the objectives they were originally designed for, and to assess the degree of compliance. Finally, the number of indicators to be considered was also discussed. Referring to the Delàs Centre's initiative, which has a large number of indicators in its proposal (to be reduced in subsequent revisions), Lindholt Lone said that from his point of view, to have 600 indicators was not a weakness but a strength. However, Monty Marshall said that some indicators are of better quality and more

credible than others, and warned that combining different quality indicators could confuse the margin of error. Marshall said the strategy his team used was to analyze all the indicators, to know which ones they could trust, and determine those that show greater consistency and give more stable results. After this step, he added, they invest in methods to improve them (the U.S. government has allotted a large amount of money to serving this end).

3.4. WHY THIS SEMINAR?

As stated in the seminar's working paper, the objective of the meeting was "to bring together different people and entities that, coming from different parts of the world, have reflected on the subject or have tried to measure various elements of peace, so as to discuss some of the constraints and challenges that this task involves, try and reach conclusions, and make proposals that move us in the direction of finding more synergies".

SPACE OF GATHERING AND DIALOGUE

Owen Green highlighted one advantage of participating in the meeting as having met people whose work he was familiar with, with the objective of building a network. Other participants expressed similar views, such as Peter Croll, who appreciated the gathering and the facilitation of interaction amongst participants. Tom Woodhouse expressed a preference for a non-technical outcome to the workshop, and was against searching for a single template

Green asked ICIP if, as an organizing body, it intended to convene more meetings in the future or if it would follow up on the discussions that had emerged during the seminar. In Green's view, it would be worth it to prepare discussions more often, and asked if ICIP would be willing to facilitate that these meetings and information exchanges take place. In this regard, Peter Croll expressed that he was very willing to cooperate in the future, but expressed a preference for a type of cooperation that would be fruitful on a practical level. He hoped, like Green, that these meetings be monitored, and that ICIP would take responsibility for reviving the discussion. Moreover, the creation of working groups was also seen in a positive light, even though perhaps not everyone attending the seminar would be willing to participate in them.

Camilla Schippa said that it was an excellent idea for the participants to maintain contact, speak about their projects and share information. She also explained, however, that she preferred that these meetings not be limited to the explanation of projects already underway, but that they should also serve as a forum for discussing what is wanted, what is needed, what is looked for. In other words, the purpose of the meetings should not be to create a large structure, but to facilitate collaboration between people who share a line of work.

Owen Green was very favorable to the idea that the seminar be continued. However, he asked what the framework for such a continuation should be. In his view, a challenge should be conceptualized as the basis for further meetings. That challenge, according to Green, could be the development of indices, although at Bradford they see themselves more as index users,

rather than creators, but in the future they will begin to generate some. The challenge could also be the use of indicators to serve a particular end, but in his opinion a common understanding of what that end may be still does not exist. As the debate progresses, he said, a subset of priorities will become necessary. If this is to be a collective project, we must find some common ground. Green proposed beginning by: sharing the power-point presentations, creating a summary of what was agreed upon at the seminar, and thinking about how to work in the following six months so that the topics that have been brought to the table take shape. In his opinion, we still lack months of dialogue, and the content of a possible network could not be decided upon during the seminar. The participants formed a very heterogeneous group, and each interprets peace depending on their particular priorities within their own framework. Their experiences are different. Green continued to say that, even with ICIP having provided a concept of peace, with this being a common project, it is important that we take a common position in defining peace, without going into detail, and for each person to interpret it according to their priorities. At the same time, he felt that dialogue is good, as long as it does not become too repetitive.

Tom Woodhouse noted that all databases and indexes will continue to operate irrespective of our criticism and regardless of the impact they have or the methodology they use. He noted, however, that it would be advisable to attempt to improve upon the methodologies used. In his opinion, this work must be continued by groups that examine these issues and share their ideas with others, which would be a means of taking advantage of technology to discuss what methodology is the most appropriate. Woodhouse said it was important to ask how technology can best be used for peace, and felt that we should make better use of our knowledge and technology. Perhaps we could even create a network to discuss how to best use technology and how to benefit from it.

SHARING INFORMATION

The aim of sharing information, ideas and efforts was one of the objectives that emerged from the seminar. This objective would form the basis for the continuation of the seminar in the future. To facilitate this, Lone Lindholt proposed the creation of a portal that would link the various proposals that we have worked with. In regards to this idea, Camilla Schippa said that, before starting on a new job, she would like to have a way of knowing if that same work has already been attempted by others. Taking the perspective someone who uses the existing indices, José Angel Ruiz Jimenez made a request for content he would like to find on this possible site. This would include:

- A system of reference that would be comprehensible for scholars, the media and politicians, among others.
- All of the indices that wish to participate in the initiative, so that they be made available to the user.
- An explanation of the limitations of the indices, and the advantages that may be gained in consulting them.
- The criteria used for each of the indices.
- Criteria for knowing how to use indices and how to benefit from them.

In his view, a website would be a useful means of working together and could serve as a forum. As such, it should have the following characteristics: be a cheap and simple instrument, permit easy access by the public, journalists, academics, etc.

Lone Lindholt acknowledged that, whereas talking about databases and websites seems very complicated, there are more simple and modest alternatives, such as social networks on the Internet, for example, and suggested that an online space could be created to share our work and concerns.

COMMITMENTS MADE BY THE ICIP

In response to various requests that arose during the seminar, Tica Font, as director of the organizing entity, assumed the duties of:

- Developing this publication as a summary of the seminar.
- Compiling a list of emails.
- Distributing the power-point presentations used in the seminar by the speakers.
- Adding the websites of the indicators discussed during the seminar.
- Facilitating the manual of methodology that is already on the websites of the initiatives presented. In the case that these are not available and are not confidential, those responsible would be asked.

Tica Font insisted that a network be maintained and said that it makes sense for all members to take advantage of this networking. Otherwise, networks die. If a network does not perceive a challenge that must be addressed, it will die, and we need to be conscious of this fact. To keep this network alive, we must find a common challenge.

In the medium term, Font opted for seeking the possibility of realizing and continuing this work together. She also highlighted the need to take stock of the commitments that can be made to continue working on measuring peace. On the other hand, she also mentioned the possibility of making a publication that addresses the debates dealt with in the seminar, from a more analytical and comprehensive perspective. This would be in addition to this report of the seminar. In regards to the realization of a more ambitious publication, Owen Green said that a period of time for reflection may be needed before the results can be consolidated within a book.

For his part, Tom Woodhouse was in favor of publishing the results of the seminar and of sharing the tools that were discovered while it took place. He also expressed an interest in explaining the length at which the various topics were discussed and, in this way, somehow define what the participants understand the meaning of *peace* to be. He felt, however, that a publication in book form was perhaps too much of an ambitious project, but agreed the main designers of indices coming together in a meeting was a good start.

Tica Font closed the session by commenting that ICIP could be conceived of as being the petry dish for the opinions of the participants, and that time will tell if the seminar bears fruit. She appreciated the presence, efforts and contributions of the participants and concluded the seminar by stressing the expectation for it to be continued in the future.

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1: CONCEPT PAPER

INSTITUT CATALÀ INTERNACIONAL PER LA PAU

1. INTRODUCTION

Between 2006 and 2009, the Centre d'Estudis per a la Pau J. M. Delàs (Peace Studies Centre J.M. Delàs), affiliated with the department of Justícia i Pau (Justice and Peace) in Barcelona, undertook a project aiming to propose an adequate methodology for measuring peace; talking about positive peace. During this attempt, a number of debates and reflections arose; some of them are present in this document. In 2009, the Institut Català Internacional per la Pau (ICIP), created by the Catalan parliament, decided to evaluate and approach these debates from a multidisciplinary and international perspective, bringing together the main actors in peace measurement or in the elements that help to attain it.

2. THE AIMS OF THE SEMINAR

The main aim of this seminar, organized by the ICIP, is to unite different people and organizations from around the world who have reflected on or who have tried to measure different elements of peace; to debate some of the limitations and challenges that this question undoubtedly implies, in order to try and reach a number of conclusions and proposals regarding the direction we should take in order to gather synergies.

3. PRESENTATION OF THE 'PROBLEMATIQUE': IS IT POSSIBLE TO MEASURE PEACE?

Up until the now, no index has been produced with the aim of measuring human peace or freedom taking into consideration the two traditional fields of study, the *Freedom from Want* and the *Freedom from Fear*. The best-known, except for the Human Development Index and some environmental initiatives, only bear in mind the F*reedom from Fear*. In other words, political and human rights indicators. However, we all are aware that peace or human security imply many other factors. In fact, in 1994, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) broke the traditional outline and it widened the concept of security, until then considered as political and personal, to include other aspects: the economical, nutritional, health, environmental and community securities, making this concept closer to the one of positive peace.

Measuring political liberty and the compliance with human rights can imply three kinds of challenges. The first kinds are **ethical problems** (measuring humiliations, degradations and suffering can be debatable, and it is not always easy to determine what kind of violation is worse). The second kind are **political problems** (many organizations have refused to categorize countries according to their respect of human rights, and the UNDP itself was criticized from many fronts when it used indicators to this effect). Finally, the third kind of challenge is **methodological problems** (derived from the problem of **how** to measure ethical problems). These three challenges impact other spheres of human peace and security. Among these limitations, we must stress the following ones:

a) The first one is **subjectivity**, in a twofold sense: the option of considering a proposed indicator and the way we consider convenient to evaluate the weight of each indicator on the complete result. In other words, even

if we consider the available data valid (there is always something questionable in statistics), the way we assign coefficients (which indicators have more specific weight in the total), already implies a subjective way of evaluating the world: out of ideological principles, stereotypes, prejudice or even interests. There is no evaluation study (and there cannot be any) that is not characterized by subjectivity. Thus, our outlook is not always adequate when we evaluate situations in countries that are very remote from us. For instance, is the percentage of women who reach company boards a valid indicator of gender strength throughout the world? Avoiding a western outlook while elaborating a study from Barcelona is impossible. However, efforts can be made in order to try to analyze reality from other viewpoints; asking ourselves, for each indicator, if what is positive for some societies is also seen in the same light by others.

b) A second difficulty is determining **what is the object we intend to measure**, if we should consider the individual living conditions or the situation of the state (or company) as the object to be measured. In general, the degree of commitment of the states can be measured through their acceptance of international laws and treaties, for instance. We can also measure their efforts (policies, programs, raising awareness...) or the real situation of its inhabitants (difficulties in having their human rights respected, number of violations, impunity...) To measure them all, the indicators can be *structural indicators* (ratification or approval of judiciary tools, the existence of institutional mechanisms...); *process indicators* (they relate the policy instruments of the states with the aims that become result indicators); and *result indicators* (they reflect the status quo of a right. A result indicator of a human right can be a process indicator of another right).

c) **Comparison.** The idea of comparing different countries and to even obtain a peace index for every country (to be compared with those obtained by other countries) is polemic, because we can consider a comparison between France and Australia, for instance, but the idea of comparing Germany to Botswana, for example, would undoubtedly create more debate. There are, of course, a number of indicators that can be compared, like life expectancy. However, other indicators more deeply related to the different ways of understanding and living life may present a number of doubts.

d) **Desired aims.** There are indicators in which the desired aim is "the more, the better", such as life expectancy. However, others may be more problematic. For example, putting European countries as a reference in terms of wealth and consumer goods is in contradiction with environmental sustainability. In other words, it would not be possible for all of the countries to live like Canada or Japan, and this means these countries cannot be a reference as far as general consumption is concerned.

Some (but not all) of the related problems are a result of a **lack of data** (the various sources are normally incapable of supplying data for all of the countries in the world, and resolving this problem always implies an associated error), the use of **opinion polls** (the questions and answers may be conditioned by pressures and by cultural and educational factors); and the **quantity of indicators** (if there are more indicators, there is more subjectivity, but there are also more variables and parameters to be taken into consideration. Thus, theoretically, the result will be more reliable, -even if this is not necessarily true- it can also lead to unworkable indexes and updates).

So, is it possible to measure peace in the world? Obviously not, if what we are looking for is an index that is truly objective and respectful with the local point of view. It would be impossible, especially with present day resources, to do an estimate on peace and its elements, not only because the pre-established criteria will be invariably subjective, but also because interest, narrow-mindedness, the lack of data and the lack of reliable and thorough global polls about people's feelings, among other limitations, are all too obvious. However, it is also obvious that the yearbooks and rankings of countries according to various aspects of their lives will become more numerous, refined and credible. Due to this and because, in a certain way, an adequate and constructive use of the indexes can be of great help in understanding the world, we propose four aspects that could help already existing initiatives. These four points have been developed within the project on peace measurement recently prepared in Barcelona by the Centre Delàs. One of the intentions of this seminar is to put them to debate. These proposals are:

I. **To concentrate on people, not on states or companies.** Certain points of view consider that if something is good for a state (increasing its geopolitical or strategic power, or improving its macroeconomic standings, for instance), it ends up having a positive influence on its citizens. A similar idea, from a business outlook, is to consider that what increases a company's power has an indirect positive impact on people (for instance, by creating new jobs). These interests, however (those of the companies/states and those of the people) cannot always be satisfied simultaneously, because often they are going in opposite directions (for instance, making it easy to dismiss workers or flexible timetables are good for the company, but not for the workers). Due to this, one of the options in measuring human peace and security would be to discriminate against macro indicators and prioritize indicators measuring results in people's lives. On the other hand, there could be a negative evaluation of the fact that a country has more privileges than it should; based on criteria like population and basic needs or its geographical situation (for example, in a colder climate, there a more consumer needs).

II. **Widen the concept of 'peace' in the fields of Human Security and Positive Peace**, or, in other words, to take into consideration both the Freedom from Fear and the Freedom from Want. The seven categories proposed in 1994 by the UNDP could be relevant (economical, health, food, environmental, personal, political and community securities), and we would even add a few more, like educational or cultural security. On the other hand, a more positive outlook could also be applied, proposing situations (based on the indicators) more than -or not only- criticizing them. In other words, based also in the efforts that the states and other actors have made towards achieving a situation of positive peace, specifically evaluating process indicators and improvements.

III. **Not only analyzing the internal situation of the countries but also their contribution to global well-being.** This is to say, no to limit the analysis to the factors that constitute internal peace, including also the evaluation of the external contribution of the different states in the achievement of "global peace". Some of the factors that could be taken into consideration would include the contribution to the reduction of militarism (reduced military forces, military budget and arms exports); contribution in the peaceful resolution of conflicts (prevention of external conflicts and management and resolution mechanisms); contribution in international justice (international jurisdiction against crime, cooperation between states and protection against transnational criminal activities); contribution in the protection of the environment (ecological footprint, respect for international treaties and reduced pollution); and its contribution in the cooperation between countries (multilateral and bilateral cooperation and among international civil society). We must consider that a country may, for instance, be giving its citizens a satisfactory economic or environmental security while also contributing to unfair global economic relations or a more degraded environment for example.

IV. **Facilitate the analysis by sectors or the in-depth study of a country**, allowing the analysis and classification of different countries in different ways: in general (taking into consideration all of the categories), separating the internal and external contribution to peace, analyzing a specific category or even comparing between countries the different subsections (or even sub-subsections) within each category. This will make it easier to identify the problems (or strengths) that a specific country presents. If we analyze each country in each category, the rankings may vary considerably; a country may have outstanding economic security but an unsatisfactory contribution to the global environment; or a country may defend the physical security of its citizens satisfactorily while having an attitude and a behaviour that may obstruct the physical security of people who live in other countries. So, in the same way that we may consider the internal situations positive or negative, we can also evaluate the international contributions.

4. METHODOLOGY

In setting up these debates, the ICIP has chosen to have multidisciplinary participants. Four groups of people have been invited:

- **Indicator experts.** Individuals or entities who work with specific indicators and with the

measurement of different elements related to human peace or security (like human rights, democracy or gender or environmental questions, among others).
- **Index creators.** Centres that propose indexes with which to measure peace or elements of peace.
- **Peace specialists.** People who have worked for human security and peace; not necessarily through indicators.
- **Representatives of the peace centres.** Reference centres in peace work.

The process of the seminar

First part. Brief presentation from the Centre Delàs and of the debate points, concentrating on the weaknesses and the strengths of the proposal. This presentation will fix the starting point for the debates. After that, there will be a presentation of the dilemmas of some of the existing initiatives (by the centres who have created indexes), in short interventions that will deal with the following questions:
– What ethical/political/methodological difficulties have you found when working on your proposal?
– What are the weak and strong points of your proposal?
– Other suggestions that the participants wish to share.

Second part. In the round-table format, the experts will make a short presentation and they will participate in a session of debate with all those present. There will be two tables, one related to the measurement of human rights and to political and governmental matters; the other table will deal with other aspects (basic needs, development, environment, gender...). These tables will set what has been the history and what is the actual situation of peace measurement; the ethical, political and methodological problems and suggest which route with has the greatest possibility of success. Some of the questions that will be presented are:
– Comments and opinions about the four limitations (a-d) considered in section 1. How can they be overcome?
– Pros and cons of the four proposals in section 1 (I-IV). Must these elements be considered for a correct measurement of peace?
– Which other factors can contribute to obtaining peace indexes that are more objective and respectful with the world's plurality?
– Other proposals that the participants may have.

Third part. Round table on the measurement of peace in the positive, in which the most outstanding points from the previous day will continue to be debated. There will be debate facilitators and all those present will participate. The debates will last the morning, finishing after lunch with the final conclusions of the seminar and proposals for improvement.

ANNEX 2: BIOGRAPHIES OF PANELISTS

Lourdes Benería has been a Professor in the Department of City and Regional Planning and the program on Gender and Feminist Studies at Cornell University since 1987. She has also taught at Columbia University, Rutgers University, the New School University and various universities in Spain. She is the author of *The Crossroads of Class and Gender* (1987), with Martha Roldán, of *Gender, Development and Globalization* (2003), and the editor of several other books, including the two-volume *Gender and Development: Theoretical, Empirical and Practical Approaches* (2001), *Global Tensions. Challenges and Opportunities in the World Economy* (2003), with Savitri Bisnath, and *Rethinking Informalization; Poverty, Precarious Jobs and Social Protection* (2006), Cornell e-publishing (with Neema Kudva). Her work on gender and international development began in 1977-79, as coordinator of the Programme on Rural Women at the International Labor Office in Geneva, Switzerland. Since then, she has continued to be involved with projects at the UN and other international organizations. She is a former president of the International Association for Feminist Economics (IAFFE) and an associate editor of *Feminist Economics,* of *The European Journal of Development Research*, and a member of the *Editorial Board of Economia Crítica*. Beyond academic work, she has been involved with a variety of international networks, with peace, solidarity groups, and women's organizations.

Cristina Carrasco is a professor in the Department of Economic Theory at the University of Barcelona. Her research has focused mainly on commercial and non commercial work and the development of non-androcentric indicators. Her most recent publications are *"Women, Sustainability and Social Debt "*, *Journal of Education*; Ministry of Education and Science, Special No. 2009 and "Beyond Equality: Towards a System of Non-Androcentric Indicators" in Harris, Galvez and Machado (ed.), *Gender and Well-Being in Europe*, Ashgate Publishing LTD, 2009. She participates in the Interuniversity Institute for Women and Gender Studies of the Catalan Universities (iiEDG), the International Association for Feminist Economics (IAFF) and the feminist movement in Barcelona (Ca la Dona).

Peter Johannes Croll is since 2001 the director of the Bonn International Center for Conversion (BICC) – Internationales Konversionszentrum, BICC – which as an independent, non-profit organization is dedicated to promoting peace and development. He graduated (M.A.) in Economics and Applied Linguistics in Germany. After working in several international companies in Germany and the Netherlands, he was engaged as an associated expert in the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA). Since the early 1980's, he has been working for the German Technical Cooperation (GTZ) in several positions in Germany and abroad, i.e. country director in Zimbabwe and Kenya. Mr. Croll is internationally recognized for his expertise in development policy, conflict prevention, crisis management, program- and project planning, human resource development, policy advocacy, and as facilitator. A special focus lies in his widely-known expertise in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Vicenç Fisas is Director of the School of a Culture for Peace of the Autonomous University of Barcelona (UAB), holds the UNESCO Chair on Peace and Human Rights at the UAB and is Director of the Diploma in Culture of Peace at the UAB. He holds a PhD in Peace Studies from Bradford University (UK), was awarded the National Human Rights Award in 1988 and an award for Solidarity Initiative in 2008. He is the author of 40 books on issues of peace, disarmament, alternative security, conflict and peace culture. His latest published books are: *Peace Process Yearbook 2010*; *Peace Processes and negotiations in armed conflicts; Peace is Possible*; *Culture of Peace and Conflict Management* and *Adiós a las armas*.

Tica Font Gregori has a degree in Physics from the University of Valencia. She was founder of the Peace Research Centre J. M. Delàs and is the Vice president of Justice and Peace. She has been president of the Catalan Federation of NGOs for peace. Since March 2009 she has served as the director of the International Catalan Institute for Peace (ICIP). She is an expert in arms trade and the military economy and has taken part in numerous research and publications on the subject. Most recently: (2009). *Atlas del militarismo en España 2009. El comercio de armas español*; *40 años de Justicia y Paz, retos y alternativas en la España de hoy* (2008); *Informe 2008, Exportacions de Material de Defensa 1998-2007.*

Rafael Grasa, President of the International Catalan Institute for Peace**.** He lectures International Relations at the Autonomous University of Barcelona, where he does research in international relations theory, peace research, conflict resolution, peace processes, security and human development. He was Director of the Center for International and Intercultural Studies and Secretary General of the University January 2002 to January 2009. He has worked in consulting on issues of international negotiations, development processes and electoral observation.

Owen Greene is Chair of the Centre for International Co-operation and Security (CICS) and also, between 1994 – 2008, Director of Research at the Department of Peace Studies – both at the University of Bradford UK. In addition to a wide range of research projects and publications on conflict prevention, reduction and peace-building issues, he has widely advised, facilitated or worked as a consultant on these issues for the UN, EU, OSCE, numerous (developed and developing) governments, sub-regional organizations (in Africa, Europe and Asia), and NGO networks. He has been a (founder) member or chair of the Board of several NGOs working in these areas: for example he is Chair of the Board of the NGO Saferworld.

Robin Hodess is the director of Policy and Research since December 2003, joined TI in June 2000 to establish the Global Corruption Report. She came to Berlin from New York, where since 1998 she had developed a programme on economic globalization, “Justice and the World Economy” for the Carnegie Council on Ethics and International Affairs. Prior to this, she taught media and politics at the Free University Berlin and Leipzig University (1997-98) and served as assistant director for international security programs at the Center for War, Peace and the News Media at New York

University (1992-94). Ms. Hodess holds a Ph.D. and M.Phil in international relations from Cambridge University (UK) and a B.A. in history from the University of Pennsylvania (USA).

Luis M. Jiménez Herrero is executive director of the Observatory of Sustainability in Spain (OSE). He holds a Doctorate in Economic Sciences, and is professor at the Universidad Complutense de Madrid. He was a pioneer in the teaching and research on economy, environment and sustainable development, with several books and numerous publications on these subjects. As director of the OSE, he manages several generic and thematic reports based on indicators on sustainable development processes in Spain.

Olawale Ismail is at Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI) working on the Military Expenditure, and Security and Governance in Africa projects. He holds a PhD in Peace Studies (University of Bradford, UK, 2007). His recent publications include *Post-war Regimes and State Reconstruction in Liberia and Sierra Leone, CODESRIA (2009),* West Africa and the Global Dynamics of Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Peacebuilding, *Nordiska Working Paper Series 41 (200)*; and 'The Dialectics of Junctions and Bases: Youth, Livelihoods and the Crises of Order in Downtown Lagos', *Security Dialogue* Vol. 40, No. 5.

Lone Lindholt, Master of Law (1988) and Ph.D, Law (1994), Copenhagen University. Senior analyst/manager/adviser at the Danish Institute for Human Rights since 1997, working with research and international programming. The latter includes, in particular, the development of academic human rights programmes in Africa and Asia, but also involves issues around rule of law, as well as tools and processes such as capacity building, networking, partnership, empowerment and institution building. Focus of analytical work on e.g. human rights and policing, national human rights institutions and other human rights actors, human rights in processes of development/transition and the question of universality/relativity. Study on human rights indicators (with Hans-Otto Sano), resulting in the development of a format and a method for assessing country status (formal as well as in reality) in relation to human rights standards.

J. P. Linstroth is a Senior Researcher of the Conflict Resolution and Peacebuilding Programme at the International Peace Research Institute, Oslo (PRIO). He obtained his Ph.D. in Social Anthropology from the University of Oxford, UK and has published widely on a variety of issues. Recently, he was awarded a U.S. Fulbright Foreign Scholar Award to study urban Amerindians and their problems with discrimination in the city of Manaus, Brazil. He has also written about the Basque Conflict, and U.S. immigrants (Cubans, Haitians, and Guatemalan-Mayas), and is especially interested in post-accord Guatemalan society. His two forthcoming books are respectively titled: *Marching Against Gender Practice: political imaginings in the Basqueland*; and, *Violence and Peace Re-Imagined: a new interdisciplinary theory for cognitive anthropology*.

Andrew Mack is the Director of the Human Security Report Project at Simon Fraser University, Vancouver, Canada. He was Director of Strategic Planning in Kofi Annan's Executive Office in the UN Secretariat from 1998 to 2001. Prior to that he held the Chair in International Relations and was Head of the Department of International Relations at the Australian National University from 2001 to 1998. He has also held appointments at the University of California (San Diego, Berkeley and Irvine), the LSE and research institutes in China, Japan, and Denmark. Prior to becoming an academic he was a pilot in the Royal Air Force, a meteorologist in Antarctica and a diamond prospector in Sierra Leone. He has written or edited some 15 books and monographs.

Monty G. Marshall is Research Professor of Public Policy at George Mason University. He specializes in complex societal-systems analysis, examining the critical nexus among societal and systemic conflict, governance, and development dynamics with emphasis on the problem of political violence. He established and directs the Center for Systemic Peace (www.systemicpeace.org) and serves as a senior consultant with the U.S. Government's Political Instability Task Force. Dr. Marshall's global systemic theory is detailed in *Third World War: System, Process, and Conflict Dynamics*. He produces an annual report series monitoring global system performance: *Global Report: Conflict, Governance, and State Fragility*.

Manuela Mesa is the director of the Center for Research and Education for Peace (CEIPAZ) of the Foundation for a Culture for Peace. She is president of the Spanish Association for Peace Research (AIPAZ). She directs the CEIPAZ yearbook on peace and conflict. Her research interests currently focus on social and transnational violence in Latin America and the role of civil society in building peace. She is a professor and teacher in various Masters programs, courses and seminars. She is member of the International Network of Global Action to Prevent War and the Committee of Experts on the Global Peace Index. Among her recent publications include Manuela Mesa (ed.): *Escenarios de crisis: fracturas y pugnas en el sistema internacional, Anuario 2008-2009*, y "La cooperación al desarrollo y la violencia transnacional: respuestas y retos pendientes" en *Pensamiento Iberoamericano*, nº 2, Fundación Carolina, Madrid 2008.

Ananda S. Millard (Ph.D.) is a Senior Researcher at the Bonn International Center for Conversion where she works on research on wartime rape. She has extensive field research experience from conflict and post-conflict zones in multiple countries worldwide, primarily Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and South East Asia. Over the last 15 years she has conducted research on issues related to child soldiers, the impact of landmines on civilian populations, small arms and light weapons and armed violence. Throughout her career, she has worked extensively on the development of methodological tools for use in difficult field research environments.

Karlos Pérez de Armiño is a professor of International Relations (University of the Basque Country, Bilbao) and researcher at the HEGOA-Institute of Development Studies and International Cooperation. He holds a PhD

in Political Science (1995), a BA in History and a Masters in Humanitarian Action. He has researched on food security, humanitarian action, conflict and post-war rehabilitation (Mozambique and Angola) and human security. He has authored numerous articles and several books, including (as director), a *Dictionary of Humanitarian Action and Development Cooperation*.

Alejandro Pozo is a researcher on peace, armed conflict and disarmament for Peace Research Centre J. M. Delàs for Justice and Peace of Barcelona and holds a UNESCO Chair of Philosophy for Peace from the Jaume I University of Castellón. He has worked as a coordinator of humanitarian projects and conducted field work and research in various areas of armed conflict, and has conducted several studies, reports and publications on militarism, armed conflict and humanitarianism. He holds a PhD in peace and conflict from Jaume I University and participates as a lecturer in several courses, postgraduate and masters on peace and war. Between 2006 and 2009 he worked on a proposal for the measurement for peace, at the Delàs Center.

Camilla Schippa is the Senior Vice President of the Global Peace Index, a tool for measuring the peacefulness of countries and identifying the drivers of peace. She manages the development of the Index as well as the research carried out, internationally, on and around the index. Camilla also directs the Peace and Security portfolio of The Charitable Foundation, a private trust aimed to improve the quality of life for as many people as possible through interventions that are substantially life changing. In supporting peace building activities and development in the poorest areas of the world, Camilla is focused on developing metrics to better understand what leads to peace. In her role of Regional Adviser to the United Nations Office for Partnerships Camilla provides advice and support to the United Nations in efforts to build new partnerships with civil society, foundations and the private sector in South East Asia.

Tom Woodhouse is the Professor of Conflict Resolution at the Department of Peace Studies University of Bradford UK. He is the Director of the Centre for Conflict Resolution at Bradford, and the academic director of Bradford's Rotary World Peace Fellows programme. He has written on peacekeeping, peacebuilding, conflict theory and conflict resolution. He is co-author with Hugh Miall and Oliver Ramsbotham of the book *Contemporary Conflict Resolution*, and is currently working on a third edition of this book.

ABOUT THE INTERNATIONAL CATALAN INSTITUTE FOR PEACE

International Catalan Institute for Peace –ICIP
www.icip.cat

At the end of 2007 the Parliament of Catalonia passed the "Law for the Promotion of Peace" resulting in the creation of the International Catalan Institute for Peace (ICIP). The parliament chose, at the request of civil society and after a long period of deliberation and consensus building, to create a public organization, which would be institutional by nature, but also independent of government and private entities. It would maintain its own legal individuality with full capacity to work both in public and private sectors. In addition, the ICIP would be a public entity, a public company, with full autonomy, but subject to private law. The Institution is thus independent with the capacity to act in a manner, which is both accountable to Parliament, to the Catalan Government, to civil society as well as to all of its patrons.

The law which produced the ICIP states that it must provide services for and respond to citizens, the peace movement, universities, the academic world in general and public administrations, through the collaboration and organization of activities such as research, teaching, transfer of knowledge, dissemination of ideas and awareness and intervention in the field. It should do so, with conviction and by mandate, seeking synergies, collaborations, practicing the principle of subsidiarity and avoiding redundancies and duplications.

The principle purpose of the ICIP is to promote a culture of peace in Catalonia as well as throughout the world, to endorse peaceful solutions and conflict resolutions and to endow Catalonia with an active role as an agent of peace. The ICIP, seeking consistency between ends and means, is governed by the principles which promote peace, democracy, justice, equality and equity in relationships between individuals, peoples, cultures, nations and states. It holds the aim of working for human security, disarmament, the prevention and peaceful resolution of conflicts and social tensions, and strengthening the roots of peace and coexistence, peace building and advocacy of human rights.

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