While countering terrorism has been on the agenda of the United Nations System for decades, the attacks against the United States on 11 September 2001 prompted the Security Council to adopt resolution 1373, which for the first time established the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC). Five years later, and for the first time, all Member States of the General Assembly agreed on a common strategic framework to fight the scourge of terrorism: the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy.

The Strategy is a unique instrument to enhance the efforts of the international community to counter terrorism along four pillars:

1. Addressing conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism;
2. Preventing and combatting terrorism;
3. Building Member States’ capacity to prevent and combat terrorism and to strengthen the role of the United Nations system in this regard;
4. Ensuring the respect for human rights for all and the rule of law as the fundamental basis for countering terrorism.
At the time of the adoption of the Strategy, the General Assembly also endorsed the **Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force (CTITF)**, which had been established by the Secretary-General in 2005. Consisting of 38 entities of the UN and affiliated organizations, CTITF works to promote coordination and coherence within the UN System on counter-terrorism and to provide assistance to Member States.

Moreover, considering former UN Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon statement “World leaders understand that we must mobilize a stronger global response to counter terrorism—that is the mission of the UN Counter-Terrorism Center” many actions have been undertaken to supervise this urgent situation.

For this reason the United Nations Counter Terrorism Centre (UNCCT) was in the Department of Political Affairs to assist in meeting capacity-building needs of Member States, while strengthening United Nations' counter-terrorism expertise.

The main objectives of the centre are clear: it aims at buttressing the implementation of the pillars of the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy in a comprehensive and integrated manner through the development of national and regional Counter-Terrorism Strategy implementation plans, undertakes initiatives aimed at fostering international counter-terrorism cooperation and promote collaboration between national, regional and international counter-terrorism centre and organist
sions. To summarize it supports UN Country Teams, UN Special Political Missions and UN Peace keeping Operations with expertise to ensure that counter-terrorism is mainstreamed into the Secretary-General’s three main priorities: the prevention of deadly conflict, the promotion of social and economic development.

In addition to a wide range of provisions intended to help prevent terrorist acts from occurring, the Counter-Terrorism Committee (CTC), as the Council body responsible for monitoring its implementation by Member States, created the Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTED) to support the work of the CTC.

The Executive Directorate works to prevent the spread of weapons to terrorists and other non-state armed groups in the area of small arms and light weapons trafficking and it works with countries on ways to intensify and accelerate the exchange of operational information at the regional and international levels on issues that include arms trafficking. Established as a “Special Political Mission” by the Council, CTED consists of approximately forty experts in areas such as legislative drafting, the financing of terrorism, border and customs controls, police and law enforcement, refugee and migration law, arms trafficking, and maritime and transportation security. The team is led by an executive director, appointed at the level of Assistant Secretary-General. Its annual budget of approximately $8 million is met from the United Nations’ regular budget. Currently, CTED is divided into two sections: the Assessment and Technical Assistance Office (ATAO), which is further divided into three geographical clusters to enable the experts to specialize in particular regions of the world, and the Administrative and Information Office (AIO).
In the extraordinary political period that followed 9/11, Security Council member states showed a collective spirit in adopting resolution 1373 and reaffirming a position condemning international terrorism, such as the attacks on the US on September 11, 2001. The CTC received hundreds of first and second round reports from states detailing the measures taken to fulfill their obligations under Resolution 1373, with 191 countries submitting a first report.

However, subsequent rounds have witnessed a reduction in submissions, with only twenty-six fourth-round reports from member states. This reduction in states’ responsiveness to the CTC has been attributed to critiques of the Security Council’s counterterrorism regime, in particular, disagreement over its authority to pass binding and open-ended legislation on all member states outside the traditional consensual processes associated with the development of international law. Moreover, states have complained of reporting fatigue, given the multiple reports they are required to submit pursuant to the council’s counterterrorism-related resolutions.

Moreover Security Council resolution 1373 (2001), which established the CTC, makes one reference to human rights, calling upon States to

“take appropriate measures in conformity with the relevant provisions of national and international law, including international standards of human rights, before granting refugee status, for the purpose of ensuring that the asylum seeker has not planned, facilitated or participated in the commission of terrorist acts.”

The resolution’s preamble also reaffirms the need to combat by all means, “in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations, ” threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts. In conclusion the Committee and its Executive Directorate also work with a wide variety of international organizations, regional bodies and other institutions – including intelligence services – to build cooperation and promote assistance to nations in need of assistance with the implementation of the relevant Security Council resolutions on counter-terrorism.
I. Asymmetrical Threats to UN Peace Building Operations

What do we mean by “Peacebuilding”?  

In his 1992 report, “An Agenda for Peace,” former UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali introduced the concept of peace-building to the UN as “action to identify and support structures, which will tend to strengthen and solidify peace in order to avoid a relapse into conflict.”

Over the years, various efforts have been made to elaborate on this definition.

The Brahimi Report from 2000 defined peace-building as “activities undertaken on the far side of conflict to reassemble the foundations of peace and provide the tools for building on those foundations something that is more than just the absence of war.”

This report was written in the year 2000 by a panel of ten experts in response to the dramatic failures of UN peacekeeping in the 1990s, especially in Rwanda and Srebrenica (Bosnia-Herzegovina). In alignment with Boutros Boutros Ghali’s 1992 Agenda for Peace, the Brahimi Re-

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Gray, Christine. 2001. “Peacekeeping After the Brahimi Report: Is There a Crisis of Credibility for the UN?”
port aimed at renewing the commitment of UN member states to the “maintenance of international peace and security”.

In 2007, the Secretary-General’s Policy Committee has described peace-building as:

“A range of measures targeted to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management, and to lay the foundation for sustainable peace and development. Peace-building strategies must be coherent and tailored to the specific needs of the country concerned, based on national ownership, and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced, and relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the above objectives.”

The concept was further reaffirmed in 1999 by Kofi Annan when he stated that the aim of Peace building was “to create the conditions necessary for a sustainable peace in war torn societies and to facilitate a peace that would endure long after the departure of the Peace-builders”.

Peace-building is not confined to one form of action but takes various forms arranging from demilitarization, restructuring, police and judicial reform, economic development, and elections. This range of actions has created a broad concept to peace-building, and further developed the practice to include efforts which acknowledge and resolve the root cause for the particular society’s conflict.2

The UN Peace-building Architecture has three components:

Established in 2006, the Peacebuilding Commission (PBC) is an intergovernmental advisory body to the General Assembly and the Security Council, the Peacebuilding Fund (PBF) provides rapid and catalytic funding for peacebuilding priorities and the Peacebuilding Support Office (PBSO) assists the PBC in carrying out its mandates, administers the PBF and supports the Secretary General’s efforts to coordinate the UN System in the area of peacebuilding.

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What are the most frequent peace-building needs?

• Support to basic safety and security, including mine action, protection of civilians, disarmament, demobilization and reintegration, strengthening the rule of law and initiation of security sector reform;

• Support to political processes, including electoral processes, and promoting inclusive dialogue and reconciliation;

• Support to the provision of basic services, such as water and sanitation, health and primary education, and support to the safe and sustainable return of refugees and internally displaced people;

• Support to restoring core government functions, particularly basic public administration and public finance;

• Support to economic revitalization, including creating jobs, particularly for youth and demobilized former combatants.

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The nature of threats to Peace: Terrorism

The proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, global terrorism, and problems emanating from weak and failing states constitute the main threats to global security in our time. No longer bound by the rules of a system of states, new international criminal and terrorist networks flourish in the facilitative environments of weak and failing states, cultural enclaves in strong states, and ungoverned spaces. These networks of criminals and traffickers, terrorists and radicals, and the volatile environments that enable their activities, represent an entirely different threat from that envisioned by the crafters of today’s policies and institutions meant to secure and safeguard weapons of mass destruction.

While terrorism is not a new phenomenon, the rise of extensive global networks and their sophisticated use of modern communications technologies have considerably extended its reach. No country can consider itself safe from the threat. Groups such as the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL)/Da’esh and Al-Qaida propagate and carry out indiscriminate attacks across borders and use the Internet to recruit for, finance and incite acts of terror. They find refuge in fragile States and vulnerable communities and among the disenfranchised.

The 21st century has witnessed unforeseen events which have altered the course of history forever. Besides the technological advancements, the biggest change undoubtedly has been the emergence of terrorism as one of the biggest global threats. Terrorism has been insidiously affecting lives all over the world and has resulted in spoiling the world peace at an alarming rate. May it be a super power like United States of America or a developing country like India, terrorism continues to spread its roots with no concrete solution. It has not only debilitated national security but has also led countries into a situation of anarchy.

All terrorist acts are motivated by two things:

- Social and political injustice: People choose terrorism when they are trying to right what they perceive to be a social or political or historical wrong—when they have been stripped of their land or rights, or denied these.
The belief that violence or its threat will be effective, and usher in change. Another way of saying this is: the belief that violent means justify the ends. Many terrorists in history said sincerely that they chose violence after long deliberation, because they felt they had no choice.

**International Terrorism:**

International terrorism refers to terrorism that goes beyond national boundaries in terms of the methods used, the people that are targeted or the places from which the terrorists operate. Since the emergence of Al Qaeda in the 1990s, international terrorism has become largely synonymous with Islamist terrorism. Terrorist groups in Syria and Iraq, including Al Qaeda and the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), possess both the intention and the capability to direct attacks against the West. The UK is a high-priority target for Islamist extremists and they pose a significant threat to our country and to our interests and citizens abroad. Despite the current main focus on terrorism originating from Syria and Iraq, the threat of terrorism also emanates from other parts of the Middle East and regions such as North, East and West Africa, South and South East Asia and Europe.
Campaigns of terrorism or specific incidents of terrorism directed against targets in the foreign diplomatic or business community have embarrassed several governments, weakened some of them, and no doubt contributed to the downfall of a few. But where national governments did fall, other factors were also present, such as grave economic problems, rampant inflation, widespread unemployment, or deep-rooted political struggles. International terrorism has also raised new questions about the feasible limits of protection a country may provide for its citizens once they are beyond its national borders as well as raised questions about national responsibility (eg. When terrorists from one nation train in another one, board a plane in a third nation who is responsible?).

The international response to fight the phenomenon needs to be effective and immediate.
II. Threats posed by foreign fighters and measures to address this phenomenon

Who are the foreign fighters?

UN Security Council Resolution 2178 defines foreign terrorist fighters as "individuals who travel to a state other than their states of residence or nationality for the purpose of the perpetration, planning, or preparation of, or participation in, terrorist acts or the providing or receiving of terrorist training, including in connection with armed conflict."

First, the term ‘foreign’ conveys the idea that these are individuals who travel abroad to a state other than their state of nationality or residence. However, the interplay between the two notions is not clear, in particular in light of the situation of members of the diaspora and dual citizens who may be traveling from their state of residency to their state of nationality or vice versa. Whether or not such individuals would be covered, will ultimately depend on implementing national legislation.
But foreign fighters are not a new phenomenon: one of the largest foreign fighter mobilizations of the 20th century took place during the Spanish civil war with foreign volunteers fighting with the International Brigades and a much smaller number of foreigners joining Nationalist factions. Yet nowadays, foreign fighters as a phenomenon are mainly associated with conflicts in the Muslim world: since the first major Muslim foreign fighter mobilization for post-Soviet invasion Afghanistan, they have been a salient feature of virtually all conflicts in the Muslim world.

The current foreign fighter mobilization for Syria and Iraq stands out for a number of reasons, both in terms of quantity and quality.

Quantitatively, the current foreign fighter mobilization took place at an unprecedented pace and is of an unprecedented scale and breadth of geographic origin. In its May 2015 report, the Analytical Support and Sanctions Monitoring Team to the Al-Qaeda Sanctions Committee reported that were more than 20,000 foreign fighters from over a 100 countries active in Syria and Iraq, including approximately 4,000 from Western countries.4

With these numbers, there are more foreign fighters active at the same time in Syria and Iraq than in any other previous conflict, and there are more European foreign fighters than during all the armed conflicts of the last twenty years combined.

As far as we know, most foreign fighters join the al-Qaeda breakaway group that calls itself the Islamic State (IS), but other groups such as the official Syrian al-Qaeda off shot Jabhat al-Nusra, Ahrar al-Sham and the free Syrian Army have also attracted foreign fighters.

However, the proclamation of the caliphate at the end of June 2014 further increased the appeal of IS and the large majority of European foreign fighters are reportedly joining it.

About 30,000 fighters from at least 85 countries have joined the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) as of December 2015. Although the great majority of ISIS recruits come from the Middle East and the Arab world, many foreign fighters also come from Western nations, including most members of the European Union, as well as the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

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Thousands of fighters from Russia and hundreds from Indonesia and Tajikistan have also joined ISIS. The recruitment of foreign fighters to join ISIS is a global phenomenon.

Because of the threat ISIS poses to other nations, it is critical to understand the factors that lead foreigners to join this Islamic jihadist state.

Foreign recruits represent a threat to the international community for a number of reasons. After joining ISIS, they engage in combat in Syria and Iraq against ISIS enemies. They also can easily return home from combat largely unnoticed on their government-issued passports.

Foreign fighters also provide ISIS with the human capital needed to operate in foreign countries. Once in Syria or Iraq, they can recruit operatives and lead them to commit attacks in Western countries without even returning home.

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Will the U.N. resolution help stop the fighters?

Security Council Resolution 2178 has been heralded as a major step in bringing a measure of uniformity into individual state actions against terrorism. It freezes the assets of a number of designated foreign terrorist fighters and financiers living abroad.

It requires states to stop suspected fighters leaving or entering their borders. It requires states that don’t have laws in place for these issues to establish them. Since the resolution, 30 countries have combined their foreign terrorist fighter database and information-sharing program Interpol said, bringing a total of 1,300 names to the database.

The question how to prevent and suppress the flow of foreign fighters to Syria and Iraq led to a legislative activism on both the national and international level. Most importantly, the Security Council adopted two resolutions on so-called ‘foreign terrorist fighters’. In addition to setting out measures to cut the financial resources of IS and other groups associated with al-Qaeda in Syria and Iraq, Security Council Resolution 2170 condemns the recruitment of ‘foreign terrorist fighters’ by IS, al-Nusra and other entities associated with al-Qaida; and requires States to take measures to suppress their recruitment.

Yet, Resolution 2170 was limited to ‘foreign terrorist fighters’ of IS, al-Nusra and other entities associated with al-Qaeda. In contrast, Security Council resolution 2178 is broader in scope: adopted under Chapter VII, Security Council Resolution 2178 is not limited to a particular situation or group and imposes general obligations to prevent the movement of ‘foreign terrorist fighters’, defined as ‘individuals who travel to a State other than their States of residence or nationality for the purpose of the perpetration, planning, or preparation of, or participation in, terrorist acts or the providing or receiving of terrorist training, including in connection with armed conflict’.
Following the Paris attacks of November 2015, the UN Security Council adopted Resolution 2249(2015) urging 'Member States to intensify their efforts to stem the flow of foreign terrorist fighters to Iraq and Syria and to prevent and suppress the financing of terrorism'. It also called for a further update of the 1267 Committee sanctions list, in order to counter the threat posed by ISIL/Da'esh. The list was first introduced in 1999, initially focusing on Taliban-controlled Afghanistan, and then including a broader range of individuals and entities connected to Al-Qaida. UN Security Council Resolution 2253 (2015) renamed the list 'ISIL (Da'esh) and Al-Qaida Sanctions List', in order to add individuals and entities supporting ISIL/Da'esh.

In order to suppress and prevent the flow of such ‘foreign terrorist fighters, states are required, amongst others, to adopt the necessary legislation to prosecute their nationals and other individuals who travel abroad to perpetrate or participate in terrorist acts, including to provide or receive training; the financing of such travel; and the organization or other facilitation of such travel, including recruitment of ‘foreign terrorist fighters’. Two aspects of the resolution deserve further comment. First, the Resolution introduces new terrorism related offenses beyond what is provided for in any universal treaty and without providing a definition of terrorism. Second, the scope of the concept of ‘foreign terrorist fighter’ remains vague and ambiguous.
The European Response: Prevention of Radicalization

In the aftermath of the attack at the Jewish museum in Brussels, the 2005 EU Strategy for Combating Radicalization and Terrorism was revised in June 2014. The European Commission Radicalization Awareness Network (RAN) collects data on existing initiatives addressing foreign fighters (such as the Cities Conference on Foreign Fighters). In this connection, RAN issued the Declaration of Good Practices for Engagement with Foreign Fighters for Prevention, Outreach, Rehabilitation and Reintegration. RAN has recently been transformed into a Centre of Excellence and granted €25 million in funding.7

Radicalization is also being addressed through initiatives concerning the internet. These include developing counter-narratives to extremist propaganda, internet-safety education in schools and high-level dialogue with internet companies. In July 2015, the Internet Referral Unit (IRU) was set up at Europol, aimed at reducing the impact of online terrorist and violent extremist propaganda. By early November 2015, it had contributed to the removal of 511 items of terrorist content with a success rate of over 90%.8 In December 2015, the EU Internet Forum was established to explore paths for improved monitoring and removal of online content and to create counter-narratives. The Forum is a public-private partnership gathering together ministers of the interior, major internet companies, Europol, the EU CTC and the European Parliament.

III. Supporting women in countering extremism

When most people superficially picture the stereotypical terrorist, they usually think of a male, between the ages of 18 and 30, perhaps of Middle Eastern or Arabic descent. Few people immediately associate terrorism with women even though women have always been involved in terrorism and political violence.

Historically women’s primary contribution to political movements was to give birth to the future generation of fighters and raise them to be ideologically steadfast and perfect soldiers. In the modern period, to the extent that women were involved, they tended to play a more peripheral role by providing support to terrorist groups.

Issues relating to women, peace, and security have increasingly been brought to the attention of the Security Council, the Counter-Terrorism Committee, and the Committee’s Executive Directorate (CTED). There is a growing awareness of the significant role played by women in countering and assisting in terrorism and violent extremism. Because women are often highly influential in fami-
lies, communities, and Governments, their proactive participation in counter-terrorism efforts can effect positive change. However, there has also been a steady increase in the radicalization and recruitment of young girls and women by female terrorists.8

Policymakers seeking to address the role of women in countering violent extremism must take an equally layered, multi-pronged approach to gender, according to experts from government, the United Nations and civil society. A comprehensive strategy to address extremist violence requires marrying the best thinking from the sphere of counter-terrorism with the world of peace building. Expertise on women in conflict situations has evolved since the U.N. Security Council 15 years ago passed Resolution 1325, calling for an understanding of how war has different effects based on gender and urging a role for women in seeking to resolve armed conflict. Over roughly the same period, the U.S. government has focused energetically on terrorism.

Although often viewed as passive vessels, women can play multiple roles in terrorism and counter-terrorism efforts. How drivers of violent extremism affect or are affected by women remains a knowledge gap for many policymakers. Women may play the role of supporter or participant in terrorist groups for a variety of reasons, some of which may have little to do with their gender.

Although the role of women as terrorist actors remains relatively unexplored, studies suggest that most of the same factors that prompt men to become terrorists drive women in the same way grievance about sociopolitical conditions; grief about the death of a loved one; real of perceived humiliation on a physical, psychological, or political level; a fanatical commitment to religious or ideological beliefs or a desire to effect radical societal change.

In many instances, women can be more vulnerable than men to being drugged, raped, physically coerced, and emotionally and socially blackmailed, especially in traditionally patriarchal societies where they have little recourse to alternative mechanisms of empowerment or independence. Like some of their male counterparts, women can also be influenced or coerced to participate in terrorism by male family members to avenge a sense of persona or familiar dishonor, or to transform their

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status from victims of sexual violence into ideological icons. It is often more difficult or unusual for women to do so in societies where they are not encouraged to take on public or combat roles.

**The importance of being a woman**

Women’s vital role in efforts to prevent and resolve conflict is increasingly recognized. They should be supported and empowered to challenge violence – by all actors – that threatens their communities. However, there is a risk that their efforts could be undermined by the countering violent extremism (CVE) agenda.

In 2015, UN Security Council Resolution 2242 was adopted, which sets out to increase women’s role in CVE and to mainstream gender in the activities of Security Council counter-terror and CVE bodies. The former UN Secretary-General’s Action Plan on Prevent Extremism (PVE) also states that counter-terror and CVE strategies should protect and empower women. Yet attempts to deliver on the CVE agenda risk to undermining women’s rights.

The CVE/PVE agenda is presented as a ‘softer’ approach than counter-terror efforts, focused on addressing the reasons people may join ‘terrorist’ or ‘violent extremist’ groups. Yet hard security measures by both national and international actors to combat such groups remain dominant. These include the use of force, cover killings, and proxy wars carried out via partners. The violence generated by such responses undermines efforts to build sustainable peace and promote gender equality, and have particular impacts on women and girls. Counter-terror agendas have been used to justify heavy-handed crackdowns on civil society, including women’s rights activists. In particular, human rights abuses are being committed in the name of counter-terrorism, leaving women and girls particularly vulnerable to increased insecurity and violence.

The main purpose is to expect women to play an “intelligence-gathering” role in their communities can increase risks for them and their families. It can also undermine the work of women’s activists.

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on gender equality by focusing on women’s roles as mothers and sisters, rather than promoting the empowerment of women in the variety of roles they play in society.

Solutions: Integrate a Gender Perspective into Policy Design

According to a 2009 report by the UN Special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms while countering terrorism,” It is important to appreciate that women have a role in the design and implementation of counter-terrorism measures, as well as to recognize their contributions in combating terrorism”.

It is therefore necessary to ensure that women are able to participate and be represented in policy development discussions and that gender expertise is included at the very outset of program design. The inclusion of a slender dimension in multilateral terrorism privation efforts requires a clear and consistent message from the UN and its members.
UN counterterrorism bodies, such as CTED (Counter-Terrorism Committee) and the CTITF (Counter-Terrorism Implementation Task Force), would benefit from having dedicated gender advisers with the responsibility among others of coordinating efforts around women in peace and security, including counterterrorism. These advisers should be empowered and encouraged to take a proactive role in interacting with entities such as UN Women, civil society organizations, and other stakeholders in the development of projects and initiatives where terrorism and violent extremism are relevant considerations.

Member states might consider acknowledging the language of Resolution 1325 in the mandates of these bodies and bringing greater coordination to international conflict prevention efforts.

**Building Community Resilience**

Women also act as dynamic purveyors of change across the MENA region, including helping to detect early warning signs of radicalization and building social cohesion and resilience networks as entrepreneurs, advocates, law enforcement officers and community leaders.

The 2016 Global Entrepreneurship Summit highlighted the US administration’s emphasis on building community resilience by empowering female entrepreneurs in the Middle East and North Africa12. The World Bank followed suit, launching a new Women for Resilience Initiative to provide

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business support services to female entrepreneurs in the region as a means of bolstering resilience value chains.

A great body of research affirms the value of this work, demonstrating a definite positive correlation between women’s empowerment and a reduction in acts of violent extremism. For example, a 2013 Brookings study13 conducted in Morocco and Bangladesh confirms that when women are given access to education and are empowered economically, socially and legally, violent extremism is less likely to spread. The study reports that “in micro lending, for every $1US a woman earns, she reinvests 90 percent back into her family … and has 2.2 children who are healthier and better educated.”

These positive outcomes, when coupled with targeted CVE interventions—including training moderate female imams on promoting religious moderation and tolerance—have created effective counter narratives to radical ideologies at a grassroots level.

In general there is a growing awareness on the significance of mainstreaming women into Prevention and Countering of violent extremism (P/CVE). The UN Security Council in several of its resolutions has affirmed the importance of including women in P/CVE processes and their implementa-
tion. For instance, Security Council resolution 2129 reaffirms the Council’s objective to “increase its attention to women, peace and security issues in all relevant thematic areas of work on its agenda, including in threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts.”

The importance of women in the P/CVE process cannot be overemphasized as women occupy several twinning roles within the community, and their perception and reaction differs. However, the counter insurgency strategy in Nigeria so far has not seized the opportunity of women’s unique roles and, importantly, their perspectives in the prevention andcountering of violent extremism.

Efforts to build the capacity of women and girls to counter violent extremism should draw and expand on existing initiatives in fields such as women, peace, and security; economic growth; religious tolerance and non-discrimination; and human rights education. Building networks and creating safe spaces often are effective capacity-building strategies, allowing women and girls to exchange experience in confidence, share good practices, develop common solutions and pool resources to address this dynamic. Such platforms can also be created to facilitate dialogue on CVE among women from different backgrounds, including inter-faith and inter-cultural dialogue.
Sitography


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