

# Approaching Peace Through Health with a Critical Eye

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# Approaching Peace Through Health with a Critical Eye

NEIL ARYA

It has been a privilege to be asked to edit this edition of *Peace Review* and to see such interests in the connections between peace and health. Peace through Health (PtH) was developed at McMaster University in Canada in the 1990s as a theoretical concept with practical applications such as field projects. Building on the Health as a Bridge to Peace (HBP) policy and planning framework of the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) and the World Health Organization (WHO) in the 1980s, the framework encouraged collaboration, policy development, training, and service delivery across borders and lines in conflict, integrating peacebuilding “concerns, concepts, principles, strategies, and practices into health relief and health sector development.”

PtH was formally recognized by the 1998 World Health Assembly as part of its “Health for all in 21st Century.” At McMaster University, Yusuf, MacQueen, Santa Barbara, and others developed a taxonomy of mechanisms, capacities, and stages of conflicts where peace promotion, prevention, peacemaking, and peacebuilding might occur. The formation of the Red Cross, International Physicians for the Prevention of Nuclear War (IPPNW), humanitarian ceasefires, and collaborative health work across borders in Central America were each examined as Peace through Health ventures. At the turn of the century, the WHO convened meetings and the Lancet McMaster Peace through Health Challenge conferences developed a community of practice that offered alternative approaches to war in Afghanistan and Iraq. Soon after, courses, a book, and an endowed Chair on Peace through Health were developed; however, momentum then stalled and dissipated.

After a hiatus of a decade there has been resurgent interest in the Peace through Health mode over the last couple of years. This renewed interest is perhaps fueled by a climate of fear with issues and challenges related to migration, refugees, terrorism, racism, religious intolerance, threats of war, and failures of limitless War on Terror by various U.S.

41 administrations, leading to a search for alternative approaches. With  
42 IPPNW playing a lead role in development of the 2017 Nobel Peace Prize  
43 recipient, International Campaign against Nuclear Weapons (ICAN), the  
44 revival of interest in WHO Eastern Mediterranean Region (EMRO) to  
45 develop work on health as a Bridge to Peace, and a newly launched  
46 Lancet SIGHT Commission just launched on Peace, Gender, and Health  
47 as interrelated to sustainable development goals (SDGs), and development  
48 of a new organization of health workers and academics in war zones, the  
49 field in burgeoning.

50 Academically, a few conferences have developed during this time  
51 such as: in Britain—Medact Health through Peace conferences, in Shiraz,  
52 Iran—the International Conference on Health for Peace, and in Canada—  
53 the PEGASUS Conference on Peace Global Health and Sustainability. A  
54 series of online teaching modules were also developed with the support of  
55 Erasmus from the European commission. Work with the American Public  
56 Health Association (APHA) with an extended article in the *American*  
57 *Journal of Public Health* (AJPH) as well as publications such as  
58 *Medicine, Conflict and Survival* and *Conflict and Health* have occurred  
59 more recently, all of which support revived interest in the field.

60  
61 **B**ut have we really moved beyond the challenge placed by Alex Voss  
62 in the *British Medical Journal* and developed more evidence beyond  
63 ideology, to offer more analysis than opinion? We cited top down, macro-  
64 level, humanitarian ceasefires as arguably both a health and peace success  
65 in El Salvador in the late 1980s, getting people together to discover their  
66 superordinate goals and building an environment of trust. Galli noted that  
67 in Sudan in the mid-1990s, however, such ceasefires may not have been a  
68 “bridge to peace,” but rather, allowed for the re-arming, and repositioning  
69 of forces as well as the smuggling of weapons. Hendrickson and Macrae  
70 found that NGOs delivering aid were forced to sign agreements with the  
71 government or rebels, which severely limited their independence, so much  
72 so that the ICRC refused to participate. Jabbour expressed concerns that  
73 getting people to work together on health projects, failing to consider his-  
74 torical context or current issues of inequity and justice, might merely  
75 paper over differences, rather than being real peacebuilding. This work  
76 begs the question—how do we evaluate whether humanitarian ceasefires  
77 can lead to sustained peacebuilding or whether collaborative health work  
78 will lead to peace?

79 This issue of *Peace Review* is meant to advance the field, turning a  
80 critical eye to evidence for Peace through Health. Included here are con-  
81 ceptual pieces that address macro-level health diplomacy; using global  
82 health, health care, disease, and vaccine campaigns that address the  
83

84 question, what is level of evidence required to show that health can be an  
85 instrument to promote peace? We then have pieces on humanitarian  
86 assistance, cholera, and peacekeeping in Haiti, and the role that disease,  
87 the health sector, and situations of conflict play in terms of their interac-  
88 tions and impact on peace and health during the Ebola crisis' in West  
89 Africa and Congo over the last decade. Finally, we end with a piece on  
90 micro-level use of peace training in a social medicine course held in  
91 Uganda and the US. The following situates the various essays that com-  
92 prise this issue on Health and Peace:

93 Séan Brennan's "Biopolitical Peacebuilding—Peace through  
94 Health," reflects on the history of the development of Conflict Resolution  
95 and Peace Studies in response to the Cold War nuclear buildup. This  
96 work explores the parallels in development of Peace through Health in the  
97 context of what might be seen as failure of post conquest peacebuilding  
98 in many parts of Africa and the Middle East, even with the barely hidden  
99 neocolonial goal of resources resource exploitation. "Biopolitical  
100 Peacebuilding" is defined as building peace through societal health objec-  
101 tives work and data on health of a population, along with peacebuilding  
102 concepts, principles, strategies, and practices to direct health care and  
103 social services to the most in need. As a form of soft power it aspires to  
104 move beyond negative peace, tackling direct and structural violence to  
105 create a positive peace in order to transform local power relations and  
106 resource provision. Vijay Kumar Chattu and Andy W. Knight's "Global  
107 Health Diplomacy as a Tool of Peace" describes various examples of how  
108 Global Health, vaccine, disease, and medical diplomacies, each bring  
109 together a wide range of actors to promote health and prevent disease  
110 through collaboration but also to promote peace.  
111

112 **A**rguing the opposite is Ilan Kelman in his essay, "Does Disaster  
113 Diplomacy Succeed for Health?" Scrutinizing disease, vaccine and  
114 disaster diplomacy, Kelman finds poor evidence for the effectiveness of  
115 either to promote peace. While conceding that there may be short term  
116 catalysis, Kelman asserts that no case studies have shown that lasting  
117 peacebuilding (influence on conflict, violent and non violent or cooper-  
118 ation, inter-state, intra-state, and non-state) that was initiated or fully sup-  
119 ported by humanitarian ventures. Acknowledging the examples of Banda  
120 Aceh, where post 2004 tsunami disaster diplomacy may have supported  
121 but not initiated peacebuilding providing political space, he contrasts this  
122 with Sri Lanka, where it may have been an excuse to continue violence.  
123 Kelman uses the rejection of the U.S. offers of aid following the  
124 Hurricane Katrina from countries such as China, Cuba and Russia, seen  
125 as politically hostile, as representing failure of disaster diplomacy. With  
126

127 regard to vaccines and disease eradication he recognizes that conflict and  
128 health systems breakdown affects the ability to eradicate disease, but feels  
129 that humanitarian ceasefires generally failed, only temporarily stopping  
130 fighting, with warring parties ignoring the opportunity to build trust. In  
131 fact, Kelman indicates that ceasefires may have offered false hope to pop-  
132 ulations. A poorly done trial with the antibiotic Trovan to deal with men-  
133 igitis in Nigeria, and use of a hepatitis B campaign to get DNA to  
134 positively identify Bin Laden set back trust in the health system and  
135 efforts to eradicate polio in situations of conflict. Kelman asks if actively  
136 linking eradication programs and conflict resolution has helped or hin-  
137 dered health goals.

138 So is health diplomacy useless and should health and health work  
139 design be independent of understanding conflict? Part of the answer relies  
140 on the metrics of evaluation. With the presence of confounders and multi-  
141 factorial reasons for violent conflict to end or to be perpetuated deep ana-  
142 lytical tools are required. What is the threshold to define success? Are  
143 subtle effects or mitigation of damage sufficient to be defined as success-  
144 ful? Is macro-level political peace the only worthwhile objective? How do  
145 we attribute causation if effects are years down the line?

146 Building an environment of trust, establishing communication chan-  
147 nels, and finding common goals may not see results for many years and  
148 the more distal this is the more difficult is it to relate to the health ven-  
149 ture. Some have pointed to a rapprochement between Greece and Turkey  
150 after a series of earthquakes and to a lesser degree, reduction in tensions  
151 in India/Pakistan after the earthquake in Kashmir as evidence of such of  
152 disaster diplomacy. But are these enough to consider disaster an opportu-  
153 nity? Those supporting efficacy of peace through health most often see it  
154 as only one component of multitrack peacemaking or peacebuilding, not  
155 as a sole initiator or perpetuator of peacebuilding. Though it may be diffi-  
156 cult to prove or disprove that the health action may or may not have miti-  
157 gated damage, it is even more difficult to prove that health diplomacy is  
158 counterproductive or diverts resources or attention in some situations.  
159 Absence of evidence as Donald Rumsfeld famously said is not evidence  
160 of absence.

161 Social scientist Lynne Woehrle, teaching and research peacebuilding  
162 within a college of nursing in “Connecting Health and Peacebuilding in  
163 Theory and Practice,” reflects on a review of the literature, together with  
164 exploratory dialog with peace studies and health sciences faculty identify-  
165 ing commonalities, divergences, and interconnections in approaches. She  
166 sees a shared interest in both direct and structural violence problems;  
167 similar theoretical insights; and agreement on the importance of applied  
168 interventions and community engagement. Woehrle feels that health and  
169

170 peace come together as both utilize: a socio-ecological worldview; com-  
171 plexity thinking/problem mapping; the continuum of resilience and trauma  
172 focusing on assets rather than deficits; as well as seeing the community as  
173 a place of practice. She believes that “Bridging disciplines through con-  
174 cepts such as social justice, forms of violence, engaged practice, and sys-  
175 tems theory opens new opportunities for collaboration and team science.”  
176 and that together health and peacebuilding may challenge power  
177 hierarchies.

178  
179 **A** Complex Humanitarian Emergency (CHE), described by Barry  
180 Pakes in *Encyclopedia Britannica*, is a type of disaster caused by  
181 and results in a complicated set of social, medical, and often political cir-  
182 cumstances, usually leading to great human suffering and death and  
183 requiring external assistance and aid. CHEs are associated with a variety  
184 of factors, including war, poverty, overpopulation, human-caused environ-  
185 mental destruction and change, and natural disasters. The next three  
186 essays relate to humanitarian situations, beginning with mine: “Making  
187 Health Work for Peace in Humanitarian Situations,” which focuses on  
188 dilemmas faced by humanitarian health workers. It points out major chal-  
189 lenges, but also how the study of peace principles and concepts (along  
190 with human rights, ethics, development, participatory approaches, cultural  
191 sensitivity, etc.) can assist humanitarian health workers. My piece  
192 includes a bit on history of peace through health projects at McMaster.

193 Komlan Agbedahin’s “Haiti beyond Complex Humanitarian  
194 Emergencies” begins with discussion of the politics of humanitarianism.  
195 Agbedahin examines challenges related to UN peacekeepers  
196 (MINUSTAH) in Haiti post the 2010 earthquake. Agbedahin believes that  
197 beyond the mandate to assume security duties and disarming gangs, there  
198 was a mandate to ensure social justice and issues such as sexual abuse  
199 and exploitation by peacekeepers. In addition, the cholera outbreak was  
200 found subsequently to be related to Nepali peacekeepers who affected this  
201 mission. Rather than health and humanitarianism being a connector, it  
202 actually led to a breakdown of trust. MINUSTAH’s loss of credibility  
203 affected its ability to be effective. The lack of accountability, the assump-  
204 tion of diplomatic immunity, grudgingly accepting only limited “moral  
205 responsibility” rather than much financial (dependent on voluntary contri-  
206 butions from donors) further exacerbated this.

207 Peter Mameli in “Collaborative Public Health Management of Ebola  
208 in Africa,” contrasts Ebola responses in West Africa and the DRC over  
209 the last few years. It seems obvious that conditions of peace with a better  
210 functioning health care system, supported internally and externally should  
211 lead to better health outcomes. As Mameli states Nigeria was fortunate  
212

213 that its Ebola outbreak in 2014 was in the Lagos area at a time when no  
214 Boko Haram incidents occurred in that region. This year, attacks on health  
215 workers and medical facilities in northeast DRC hinder efforts at disease  
216 containment, raising the possibility of spread to neighboring countries.  
217 The potential of the Ebola crisis management to reduce violence to create  
218 positive peace—which for Mameli includes” bonds of support emerging  
219 from crisis settings that expand politically, socially and economically  
220 beyond disease,” is underutilized. He explores Global public health partners  
221 hips and the roles of Leadership, Local engagement, INGOs, and  
222 Public Health experts.

223  
224 **M**ameli only touches on the effects of structural violence on disease  
225 containment. What happens to vulnerable individuals, families, and  
226 communities affected by Ebola who are in precarious settings? What are  
227 the benefits and harms of reporting in terms of ostracization, quarantine  
228 affecting the ability to cultivate fields or do other work? What happens to  
229 farmers when to prevent zoonoses, for example, pandemic flu in which  
230 global fears cause wholesale destruction of livestock? Would these affect  
231 individual’s willingness to report and communities to follow up on  
232 recommendations?

233 Teaching social and structural determinants of health, including sexual  
234 orientation, gender norms, reproductive health, the role of medicine  
235 and health professionals in society, to trainees of diverse religious, ethnic,  
236 socioeconomic, and racial backgrounds is challenging. Amy Finnegan,  
237 with U.S. and Ugandan colleagues, discusses the value of peace education,  
238 in particular teaching environments. She creates a constructive dialog  
239 with medical students to help them prepare for future careers in  
240 “Teaching Constructive Dialogue as a Social Medicine Tool for Peace.”  
241 The impetus for this was the opportunity to teach a mixed group of medical  
242 students from the U.S., Netherlands, and Uganda during a one month  
243 course on social medicine in Gulu, Uganda at a time of legal issues and  
244 security challenges for LGBTQ2+ individuals in Uganda. Divergent perspectives  
245 were also found in U.S. inner city contexts experiencing structural  
246 inequality and historical disadvantage.

247 Constructive dialog involved listening, understanding positions, and  
248 examination of values and beliefs within a safe space where rapport could  
249 be built. Students could develop communication skills for having difficult  
250 conversations through a lens of curiosity. Teaching “the importance of  
251 paying attention to emotions, and acknowledge that facts rarely change  
252 minds but relationships can,” seeking “to infuse an approach grounded in  
253 humility,” “feeling discomfort is ok, but that feeling unsafe is not.”  
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256 The willingness to change one's mind is important and may provide  
257 a lesson in the U.S. today with polarized debates on migration, ethnic and  
258 religious tensions, abortion, capital punishment, guns with Left and Right,  
259 Red and Blue States, Urban and Rural. We hope you enjoy this issue and  
260 use this as a time to reflect on your own values and ways of peace prac-  
261 tice and to recognize the potential to help in teaching, research,  
262 and practice.

## 263 264 265 **RECOMMENDED READINGS**

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