

Security Sector Reform and Gender

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Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF)

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The Gender and SSR Toolkit

This Tool on Security Sector Reform and Gender is part of a *Gender and SSR Toolkit*. Designed to provide a practical introduction to gender issues for security sector reform practitioners and policy-makers, the Toolkit includes the following 12 Tools and corresponding Practice Notes:

1. Security Sector Reform and Gender
 2. Police Reform and Gender
 3. Defence Reform and Gender
 4. Justice Reform and Gender
 5. Penal Reform and Gender
 6. Border Management and Gender
 7. Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
 8. National Security Policy-Making and Gender
 9. Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
 10. Private Military and Security Companies and Gender
 11. SSR Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender
 12. Gender Training for Security Sector Personnel
- Annex on International and Regional Laws and Instruments

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DCAF

The Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF) promotes good governance and reform of the security sector. The Centre conducts research on good practices, encourages the development of appropriate norms at the national and international levels, makes policy recommendations and provides in-country advice and assistance programmes. DCAF's partners include governments, parliaments, civil society, international organisations and security sector actors such as police, judiciary, intelligence agencies, border security services and the military.

OSCE/ODIHR

The Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) is the main institution for the OSCE's human dimension of security: a broad concept that includes the protection of human rights; the development of democratic societies, with emphasis on elections, institution-building, and governance; strengthening the rule of law; and promoting genuine respect and mutual understanding among individuals, as well as nations. The ODIHR contributed to the development of the Toolkit.

UN-INSTRAW

The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (UN-INSTRAW) is the only UN entity mandated to develop research programmes that contribute to the empowerment of women and the achievement of gender equality worldwide. Through alliance-building with UN Member States, international organisations, academia, civil society, and other actors, UN-INSTRAW:

- Undertakes action-oriented research from a gender perspective that has a concrete impact on policies, programmes and projects;
- Creates synergies for knowledge management and information exchange;
- Strengthens the capacities of key stakeholders to integrate gender perspectives in policies, programmes and projects.

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ACRONYMS

CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
EU	European Union
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD DAC	Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
SSR	Security Sector Reform
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
WHO	World Health Organization

Security Sector Reform and Gender

1 Introduction

Scarcity of Afghan policewomen a threat to national security

'At present the province of Uruzgan counts two policewomen, who are based at the Governor's office in Tarin Kowt. Interviews with new male recruits for the Afghan National Police in the province illustrated the need for an increase in the number of policewomen at both police stations and checkpoints ... security at checkpoints was jeopardized by men belonging to the Opposing Military Force dressed up in a burkah like an Afghan woman. Performing a body search was simply out of the question, due to the lack of female colleagues.'

Margret Verwijk, Senior Policy Officer, Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2007)

Security sector reform (SSR) is increasingly prioritised by governments, and on the agenda of international development, peace and security communities. SSR opens a window of possibility to transform security policies, institutions and programmes, creating opportunities to integrate gender issues. Rather than an exercise in political correctness, the integration of gender issues is being recognised as a key to operational effectiveness, local ownership and strengthened oversight. For example, increasing the recruitment of female staff, preventing human rights violations, and collaborating with women's organisations contributes to creating an efficient, accountable and participatory security sector, which responds to the specific needs of men, women, girls and boys.

This tool is designed to provide a basic introduction to SSR and gender issues for the staff of national governments (including in donor countries), security sector institutions, and regional and international organisations, responsible for the development of SSR policy and programming. Civil society organisations, academics and researchers working on gender and security matters will also find it useful.

This tool includes:

- An introduction to SSR and gender
- The rationale for why integrating gender issues strengthens SSR processes

- Practical ways of integrating gender into SSR policy and programme cycles
- An overview of specific gender and SSR issues in post-conflict, transitional, developing and developed country contexts
- Key recommendations
- Additional resources

For more detailed information, see the institution-specific Tools in the Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit.

2 What is security sector reform?

Though the concept of security sector reform emerged in the late 90s, there is no generally accepted definition of the security sector or security sector reform. Different actors embrace broader or narrower understandings of SSR and a variety of terms are often used interchangeably: security sector reform, security system reform, security sector modernisation, security sector transformation, etc. However, there appears to be some convergence around the definition put forward by the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD DAC):

Security sector reform means transforming the security sector/system, *'which includes all the actors, their roles, responsibilities and actions – working together to manage and operate the system in a manner that is more consistent with democratic norms and sound principles of good governance, and thus contributes to a well-functioning security framework'*.¹

SSR is a system-wide approach that emphasises the interconnected nature of security sector institutions and has two main objectives. First, to ensure democratic and civilian control of the security sector, for example by strengthening the management and oversight capacity of government ministries, parliament and civil society organisations. Second, to develop an effective, affordable and efficient security sector, for example by restructuring or building human and material capacity.²

The **security system/sector** can be understood as comprising all state institutions and other entities with a role in ensuring the security of the state and its people. These include:

- **Core security actors:** armed forces (including international and regional forces), police, gendarmeries, paramilitary forces, presidential guards, intelligence and security services, coast guards, border guards, customs authorities, and reserve and local security units.
- **Security management and oversight bodies:** parliament/legislature and its relevant legislative committees; government/the executive, including ministries of defence, internal affairs and foreign affairs; national security advisory bodies; customary and traditional authorities; financial management bodies; and civil society actors, including the media, academia and non-governmental organisations.
- **Justice and rule of law institutions:** justice ministries, prisons, criminal investigation and prosecution services, the judiciary (courts and tribunals), implementation justice services (bailiffs and ushers), other customary and traditional justice systems, human rights commissions and ombudsmen.
- **Non-statutory security forces:** liberation armies, guerrilla armies, private body-guard units, private security companies, private military companies and political party militias.³
- **Non-statutory civil society groups:** professional groups, the media, research organisations, advocacy organisations, religious organisations, non-governmental organisations and community groups.⁴

Security sector reform processes are designed to address a variety of problems within the security sector such as corruption, lack of technical capacity, human rights violations, lack of transparency and oversight, as well as broader social problems such as crime and armed violence. In operational terms, SSR covers a wide range of activities, which can be grouped into four broad categories:⁵

1. **Strengthening civilian control and oversight of the security sector** including: reforming ministries of defence and internal affairs; enhancing the oversight capacity of legislators through training; establishing independent ombudspersons' offices; initiating public sector reviews of military expenditures; and building the capacity of civil society organisations to oversee the security sector.
2. **Professionalisation of the security forces** including: programmes designed to train soldiers, police and other security sector personnel on democratic accountability, gender issues, human rights, international humanitarian law and ethnic sensitivity; technical skills training; promoting community policing; upgrading of military or police equipment; and drawing up professional codes of conduct.

3. **Demilitarisation and peace-building** including: programmes to reduce the availability and misuse of small arms and light weapons; disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration of combatants; and strengthening regional security measures.
4. **Strengthening the rule of law** including: establishing a strong, independent legal framework that provides critical civil-democratic oversight and a better functioning penal system; capacity building for the judiciary; and establishing an independent judiciary.

Security sector reform processes vary from country to country, and each SSR context is unique. Although international or regional organisations or bilateral donors may support SSR, local and national ownership of any reform process is essential. According to the OECD DAC, SSR should be:

- *People-centred, locally-owned and based on democratic norms and human rights principles and the rule of law, seeking to provide freedom from fear and measurable reductions in armed violence and crime.*
- *Seen as a framework to structure thinking about how to address diverse security challenges facing states and their populations, through more integrated development and security policies and through greater civilian involvement and oversight.*
- *Founded on activities with multi-sectoral strategies, based upon a broad assessment of the range of security and justice needs of the people and the state.*
- *Developed adhering to basic governance principles such as transparency and accountability.*
- *Implemented through clear processes and policies that aim to enhance the institutional and human capacity needed for security policy to function effectively and for justice to be delivered equitably.⁶*

Although often associated with post-conflict contexts, SSR also takes place in developing countries and in countries in transition from a more authoritarian regime. In addition, reform processes within security sector institutions take place in developed countries, though they are not usually labelled SSR.

General challenges in implementing SSR include:

- The highly political nature of SSR processes, especially in regard to the armed forces, involving many vested personal, national and international interests.
- The need to coordinate many different actors and to include expertise from a range of different governmental departments and non-governmental organisations.
- SSR includes a wide range of activities, and can be initiated in support of a number of different objectives. This can often lead to inconsistencies

Box 1 Men, masculinities and the military

In many countries, the institutional culture of the armed forces enforces certain 'masculinised' values and behaviours, which in turn impact on the whole society's notion of masculinity. For instance, during the 1980s "The SADF [South African Defence Force] was a crucial source of ideas about what behaviour was appropriate for white South African men. A number of SADF conscripts have emphasised that the core of military training was to inculcate aggressiveness and equate it with masculinity."⁹

Military training, or 'boot camp', is often a tightly choreographed process aimed at breaking down individuality and building official military conduct and group loyalty. This process of socialisation is intimately gendered, as being a soldier is purposefully linked to being a 'real man.'

In Canada, researchers claim that new recruits face humiliation and degradation during boot camp in the form of physical brutalisation, threats of violence or verbal assaults - such as calling female recruits 'whores', and male recruits 'ladies', 'faggot', or 'nigger'. These racial, homophobic and sexist insults reflect an institutional culture that condones and perpetuates a certain form of violent masculinity.¹⁰

Another example is Israel which has three years of mandatory military service for men. According to the researcher, Danny Kaplan, 'the military attempts to mould all men in a uniform guise of masculinity. It does so through an organizational culture that encourages ideal assets of soldiery such as physical ability, endurance, self-control, professionalism, sociability, heterosexuality and the Arab enemy. These traits tap on masculine performance by contrasting them with images of "otherness" such as femininity, homosexuality and the Arab enemy.'¹¹

and unevenness in implementation, and *ad hoc* initiatives.⁷

- SSR is a long-term process, which can lead to problems with sustainability, including adequate funding.

While these may be significant challenges, SSR has the potential to reduce the risk of armed conflict, promote development and strengthen human security. The creation of a professional security sector that is democratically accountable and well-managed can lead to better provision of security and justice for all segments of the population.

3 What is gender?

'Gender' refers to the socially constructed roles and relationships between men and women. Rather than being determined by biology, gender is learned. In other words, men and women are taught certain roles and appropriate behaviours according to their sex. One example is how in many European cultures, women are traditionally responsible for food preparation. Women are not biologically predestined to cook, rather it is part of the gender role that most women learn. Gender roles, such as these, are not static and can change over time and vary widely within and across cultures.

In contrast to gender, 'sex' refers to the biological differences between females and males. These biological characteristics, such as hormones, reproductive organs and genetic differences, are commonly used to differentiate humans as female or male. Examples of the correct usage of the term 'sex' may be found on customs or application forms (sex: male or female), or when referring to statistics which

are divided into female and male as 'sex-disaggregated statistics'.

Gender roles are influenced by many different factors in addition to culture, such as class, nationality, ethnicity, sexual orientation and age. For instance, a middle-class, white, homosexual, Canadian model of masculinity will be very different from an upper-class, black, heterosexual, Liberian model of masculinity. The plural '**masculinities**' and '**femininities**' are used in order to recognise that masculinity and femininity mean different things to different groups of men and women at different times.⁸ Within each society there are multiple definitions of masculinity and femininity, however some are more valued than others (see Box 1).

Women, men, girls and boys have different security experiences, needs, priorities and actions depending upon both their gender and sex. There are certain forms of violence which are based on the socially ascribed differences between males and females, what is known as '**gender-based violence**' (GBV).¹² GBV is not only violence against women; men and boys can also be victims. For instance, men, boys, women and girls can all be victims of rape. As rape is linked to issues of power and gender identity, it is a crime that is classified as GBV. Violence against gay, lesbian and bisexual people on the basis of their sexual orientation, and against transgender people on the basis of their gender identity, is also understood to be a form of GBV, as it is based on perceived non-conformity with gender roles.

Some forms of gender-based violence affect men and boys more than women and girls (see Box 2). However, in many cases women and girls constitute the majority of victims. In the case of childhood sexual victimisation, for instance, international studies give a rate of 20% among girls and 5 to 10% among boys.¹³

Box 2 Examples of gender-based violence	
Women and girls	Men and boys
Domestic violence <i>A 2005 multi-country study by the World Health Organization (WHO) found that in most countries between 29% and 62% of women had experienced physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner.¹⁴</i>	Gun violence <i>Globally, it is estimated that every year over 1,000,000 people are injured by guns, over 200,000 are gun homicide victims and 50,000 are gun suicide victims.¹⁵ According to WHO, 90% of the casualties attributed to firearms are male.¹⁶ See Box 7 for more information.</i>
Human trafficking <i>Annually, 500,000 to 700,000 women and girls are trafficked across international borders.¹⁷</i>	Child abuse <i>WHO cites international studies that document sexual abuse of boys at a rate of 5-10%.¹⁸</i>
Sexual violence <i>Increases in sexual violence have been documented before, during and after armed conflicts; for instance in Rwanda where estimates of the number of women and girls raped range from 15,700 – 500,000.¹⁹</i>	Rape <i>A 2000 survey of inmates in seven US men's prison facilities showed that 21% of the inmates had experienced at least one episode of pressured or forced sexual contact and at least 7% had been raped.²⁰</i>
Genital mutilation <i>According to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), 130 million girls and women have undergone female genital mutilation, and 2 million girls are at risk every year.</i>	Sex-selective massacres <i>The Srebrenica massacre of July 1995, involved the killing of an estimated 8,000 Bosnian Muslim males.</i>
Anti-gay violence <i>A study by the Russian Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual or Transgender Network of over 3,500 gay and lesbian participants revealed that 26.5% of respondents had been victims of physical violence motivated by hatred based on sexual orientation.²¹</i>	

4 Gender strategies for security sector reform

Two complementary strategies can be used to integrate gender issues – the particular needs and roles of men, women, boys and girls – into SSR and security institutions: gender mainstreaming and promoting the equal participation of men and women. These strategies can be applied both to the SSR process itself (e.g. by ensuring gender training for personnel responsible for SSR policy and planning) and to the institutions undergoing SSR (e.g. by including gender training for new recruits as part of a police reform process).

4.1 Gender mainstreaming

'Understanding the role of women is important when building stability in an area... If women are the daily breadwinners and provide food and water for their families, patrolling the areas where women work will increase security and allow them to continue. This is a tactical assessment... Creating conditions for a functioning everyday life is vital from a security perspective. It provides a basis for stability.'

Brigadier Karl Engelbrektson, Force Commander of the Nordic Battlegroup ²²

Gender mainstreaming is 'the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.'²³

Gender mainstreaming means that the impact of all SSR policies and programmes on women, men, boys and girls should be considered at every stage of the programme cycle, including assessment, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. For example, mainstreaming gender into an SSR assessment involves including questions to identify the different insecurities faced by men, women, girls and boys. The results of the assessment might in turn highlight the need to include 'gender initiatives', and/or initiatives that address the particular security needs of women, men, boys or girls within the SSR process.

Gender initiatives focus on enhancing the security sector's awareness of and response to the different security experiences, needs and roles of men, women, girls and boys.

Examples

- Integrating gender issues into the core training for justice sector personnel including lawyers, judges and administration staff.
- Initiating a gender budget analysis of government public security spending to ensure that funds are being equitably allocated.

- Employing a gender expert as part of the SSR assessment team.
- Supporting a code of conduct for the armed forces that explicitly prohibits and sanctions GBV.

Men, women, boy and girl-specific initiatives are designed to deal with the particular security needs of each group.

Examples

- Funding the establishment of women's police units or stations.
- Training prison staff to prevent the rape of male prisoners.
- Encouraging collaboration with women's organisations to improve services to trafficked women and girls identified at borders.
- Conducting an assessment of measures to prevent and respond to male youth violence.

4.2 Promoting the equal participation of men and women

'Searching for weapons was a regular task in Kosovo... This is almost impossible without women in the team. If you suspect that weapons have been hidden in a village, going into houses is much easier in teams of both women and men. The female soldiers can talk to the women in the house because they often have more trust in other women, and this reduces the risk for escalation.'

Lars Wetterskog, Swedint²⁴

Measures to promote the equal participation of men and women (also known as gender balance) seek to

uphold men and women's right to participate in decision-making on SSR and security in general. As men are highly over-represented within SSR processes and security sector institutions, this strategy usually focuses on increasing the recruitment, retention and advancement of women, and ensuring the participation of civil society organisations, including women's organisations.

Examples

- Reviewing the terms of reference for SSR policy and programme positions to ensure that they are not discriminatory.
- Including separate focus groups for women and girls in SSR assessments.
- Developing gender-responsive and family-friendly human resource policies within security agencies, such as equal pay, benefits and pensions; flexible work hours; and adequate maternity and paternity leave.
- Supporting the creation of female staff associations or women's networks in security and justice institutions, such as associations of women judges and a parliamentary women's caucus.
- Funding local citizen security councils that include representatives from women's organisations.

Warning: Being a woman does not automatically make someone a 'gender expert', and increasing the number of women in the room does not necessarily guarantee gender-responsive policy and programming. However, a balance of women and men at all levels of institutions creates greater possibilities for identifying and addressing the different impacts of policy and programming on women and men.²⁵ In many cases, having both male and female personnel is an operational necessity (see Section 5.2).

Box 3 Modernisation of the Nicaraguan Police Force²⁶

The modernisation of the National Police Force of Nicaragua demonstrates the beneficial impact of initiatives to mainstream gender and increase the participation of women. A broad range of gender reforms of the Nicaraguan police were initiated in the 1990s, following pressure from the Nicaraguan women's movement and from women within the police. As part of a project backed by the German development organisation (GTZ), specific initiatives were undertaken including:

- Training modules on GBV within the police academies
- Women's police stations
- Reform of recruitment criteria including female-specific physical training and the adaptation of height and physical exercise requirements for women
- Transparent promotion requirements
- Family-friendly human resource policies
- Establishment of a *Consejo Consultivo de Género* as a forum for discussion and investigation into the working conditions of female officers

Today, 26% of Nicaraguan police officers are women, the highest proportion of female police officers of any police force in the world. Nicaragua's police service has been described as the most 'women-friendly' in the region, and is hailed for its successful initiatives to address sexual violence.

Nicaragua's modernisation programme has set an example for other state institutions, and a number of police forces in the region are seeking to replicate it. The reforms have helped the police gain legitimacy and credibility in the eyes of the general public: in a recent 'image ranking' of Nicaraguan institutions the police came in second, far ahead of the Catholic Church.

Box 4

Compliance with obligations under international laws and instruments

Integrating gender into security sector reform is necessary to comply with international and regional laws, instruments and norms concerning security and gender. Key instruments include:

- *The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women* (1979)
- *The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action* (1995)
- *United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security* (2000)

For more information, please see the Toolkit's Annex on International and Regional Laws and Instruments.

5 Why is gender important to security sector reform?

The integration of gender issues into SSR processes, in addition to being mandated by international and regional laws and instruments (see Box 4), enhances local ownership, effective service delivery, and oversight and accountability.

5.1 Local ownership

'The imperative of local ownership is both a matter of respect and a pragmatic necessity. The bottom line is that reforms that are not shaped and driven by local actors are unlikely to be implemented properly and sustained. In the absence of local ownership, SSR is bound to fail.'

Laurie Nathan ²⁷

In practical terms, local ownership means that 'the reform of security policies, institutions and activities in a given country must be designed, managed and implemented by local actors rather than external actors'.²⁸ Women's civil society organisations, and organisations working on gender issues, are key local

security actors whose participation can help ensure local ownership of SSR. Local ownership of SSR processes is about horizontal (across government bodies and political parties) and vertical (involving civil society organisations) inclusion. Adopting local ownership as a guiding principle for SSR initiatives enhances legitimacy and trust in the SSR process; builds an SSR process that directly responds to local needs, dynamics and resources; creates a democratic process; and has a better chance of sustainability and success.²⁹

There are countless women's organisations worldwide, working at the grassroots, national and international level. Women's organisations may be security providers, for example, providing shelter and support to female and male victims of torture, or domestic or sexual violence. Working directly with local communities means that women's organisations often have access to detailed information regarding the security needs of individuals and communities, especially of marginalised groups. As such, women's organisations can serve as crucial bridges between local communities and security policymakers, strengthening local ownership (see Box 5). They also often have expertise in designing and implementing community-level security-related programming, for instance on the prevention of gang violence or human trafficking, and skills in delivering training on gender and human rights issues.

Box 5

Women's organisations and the South African defence review process ³⁰

One of the most important initiatives to ensure local ownership of SSR is to conduct a participatory consultation to understand the security context, actors, needs and priorities. The participation of women's organisations in the 1996-98 South African Defence Review process is an example of how their involvement can build consensus and legitimacy for security reform processes.

The objective of the defence review was to outline operational details such as doctrine, force design, logistics, armaments, human resources and equipment. At the insistence of women parliamentarians, the Parliamentary Joint Standing Committee on Defence called for a national consultation as part of the defence review process. A variety of measures were taken to ensure public participation, including using military planes and buses to transport religious and community leaders, NGO activists and representatives of women's organisations to regional meetings and workshops.

Grassroots women's organisations were vital in drawing attention to previously ignored issues such as the plight of dispossessed communities whose land had been seized for military use, the environmental impact of military activities and the sexual harassment of women by military personnel. To respond to these issues, two new sub-committees were formed within the Defence Secretariat. After a two year process, the participatory defence review had helped build national consensus around defence issues and generated public legitimacy for the new security structures.

Box 6 Increasing the recruitment and retention of women in the armed forces of Hungary ⁴¹

Hungary successfully raised the participation of women in its armed forces from 4.3% in 2005 to 17.56% in 2006, which is the second highest rate of all NATO countries (Latvia is the highest with 18.2%).

After combat positions were opened to women in 1996, women are now able to occupy any position within the Hungarian armed forces. Hungary's strategies to increase recruitment, retention and deployment of women include:

- Military Service Law that upholds the equal rights of men and women and guarantees non-discriminatory promotion based on professional skill, experience, performance and service time.
- An Equal Opportunity Team and Equal Opportunity Plan created within human resources.
- A Committee on Women of the Hungarian Defence Forces established in 2003 to ensure equal opportunities for men and women. The Committee conducts research and holds meetings with servicewomen to gather experiences, from which they prepare analyses of the status of gender equality, including problems and recommendations for change.
- A network of women's focal points established at unit level.
- Steps to improve resting and hygienic conditions in the units.

Increasing local ownership of SSR, women's organisations have the capacity to:

- Identify security threats and issues facing individuals and communities, especially 'marginalised groups'.
- Facilitate dialogue and negotiation between local communities and SSR policymakers and practitioners.
- Provide security policy and programming advice and technical expertise.
- Implement SSR-related initiatives as a security service provider.
- Raise awareness of security policy and SSR processes.

See Tool on Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender

5.2 Effective service delivery

Although national legislation and policy dictate the specific mandates of security sector institutions, their underlying purpose is the provision of security and justice to individuals, communities and the state. One of the central objectives of SSR is to improve this delivery of justice and security. Integrating gender issues increases the effectiveness of service delivery by:

- Creating more representative security sector institutions
- Strengthening responses to GBV
- Benefiting from collaboration with women's and men's organisations

More representative security sector institutions

'Barriers to the participation of women in the sector should be identified and addressed. Increasing their participation, especially at decision-making levels, will change the climate and culture of the organisation, reduce the incidence of discrimination against female police officers, and increase police responsiveness to women's security issues.'

OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform ³¹

A representative security institution is one that reflects, at all levels of the organisation, the population it seeks to serve in terms of ethnicity, geography, religion, sex, and language. The benefits of a representative security sector include increased ability to deliver security and justice to a diverse constituency, and improved civilian trust and local ownership. Representative security agencies are also a key indicator of democratic governance, especially in the aftermath of intra-state conflicts.³²

Security sector institutions, from relevant ministries to the armed forces, police, border authorities and private security companies, predominantly employ men. Even in countries where women have been given the equal right to participate in all positions within the security sector, including combat, women continue to be underrepresented and often relegated to low-status administrative positions. Higher rates of female participation do not necessarily correlate with levels of development, as can be seen by the low percentage of female police in Italy (0.4%) and the relatively high percentage in Zambia (17.09%). Even in countries with generally high gender parity in the workforce, women remain underrepresented: in Norway women represent just 6.4% of the police and 21.07% of the armed forces.³³ This overrepresentation of men also exists within United Nations (UN) peacekeeping operations, where women comprise less than 2% of the military personnel and less than 5% of police.³⁴ Within government, women are rarely appointed Ministers of Defence or Justice: in

2005, only 6.6% of Ministers of Defence and Veteran Affairs were female, and only 15.8% of Ministers of Justice.³⁵

However, there is growing recognition that increased female participation in the security sector is viable, necessary and operationally beneficial (see Box 6). At a general level, fully opening all positions to women and other under-represented groups increases access to additional human resources and creates the potential to select better qualified staff. The benefits of increased participation of women in policing are well documented:

*'Research conducted both in the United States and internationally clearly demonstrates that women officers rely on a style of policing that uses less physical force, are better at defusing and de-escalating potentially violent confrontations with citizens, and are less likely to become involved in problems with use of excessive force. Additionally, women officers often possess better communication skills than their male counterparts and are better able to facilitate the cooperation and trust required to implement a community policing model.'*³⁶

Not only do women often possess a useful skill set, but in certain contexts their inclusion is not only desirable but an operational imperative, as they can carry out critical tasks that men can only take on with difficulty, if at all. In the context of multidimensional peacekeeping operations, this includes:

- Screening of female ex-combatants
- Widening the net of intelligence gathering

- Performing the cordon and search of women
- Assisting in the aftermath of sexual violence³⁷

Anecdotal evidence also points to women peacekeepers as better able to:

- Gain the trust of civilians
- Ensure the full involvement of local women
- Exercise communication and crowd control skills

Women are also thought to have a positive impact on morale and behaviour within peacekeeping units, and to provide role models for increased women's participation in national security sector institutions.³⁸ For instance, UN and Liberian officials hope that the 103-strong, all-female Indian peacekeeping unit currently policing Monrovia will help to inspire Liberian women to join the police force, and limit sexual exploitation and abuse by peacekeepers. The Liberian National Police received three times the usual number of female applicants in the month following their deployment.³⁹ The unit's functions include guarding the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, patrolling the streets, controlling crowds and responding to calls for armed back-up from national police.⁴⁰

Effectively preventing, responding to and sanctioning gender-based violence

*In a 1997 study of domestic violence in Calcutta, 79% of women reported experiencing physical or sexual violence in their relationship. One in five women had experienced serious injuries such as fractured bones, impaired vision, dislocated bones, cuts requiring stitches, burns or internal cuts.*⁴²

Box 7

Effectively addressing crimes of sexual violence: post-conflict justice mechanisms in Sierra Leone⁴⁷

It is estimated that over 250,000 women were raped during Sierra Leone's decade-long civil war. In the aftermath of the war, a combination of justice mechanisms were employed, including the Special Court for Sierra Leone, a Truth and Reconciliation Commission and traditional justice mechanisms.

The Special Court for Sierra Leone was established by an agreement between the UN Secretary-General and the Government of Sierra Leone. It started operations in 2002 and continues today, with a mandate to 'try persons who bear the greatest responsibility for serious violations of international humanitarian law and Sierra Leonean law' during the war. The Special Court is located in Sierra Leone and is operated by international and Sierra Leonean judges and staff. The Court's Statute adopted a broad definition of sexual violence, including 'rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy and any other form of sexual violence', and explicitly called for the appointment of gender-sensitive staff to deal with crimes of sexual violence.

Many positive steps have been taken by the Special Court to seek to ensure that crimes of sexual violence are adequately addressed. These include:

- Developing a prosecution strategy that incorporated crimes of sexual violence from the outset.
- Specifically tasking a trial attorney to develop a prosecution plan for sexual violence crimes.
- Assigning two experienced female investigators (out of a team of ten) to investigate crimes of sexual violence.
- Adopting a gender-sensitive interview method to ensure that victims felt comfortable reporting crimes.
- Emphasising witness preparation to ensure that witnesses understood the implications of testifying.

Although it is too early to draw definite conclusions regarding the success of the Special Court's handling of sexual violence, the first judgements of the Court (delivered on 20 June 2007) included convictions for rape as a crime against humanity and sexual slavery (as well as the first conviction in an international tribunal for the recruitment and use of child soldiers).

Box 8 Viva Rio – improving prevention and response to gun violence in Brazil ⁴⁸

Globally, men and boys are the overwhelming majority of gun violence perpetrators and victims. Research confirms that gender is a key factor, largely due to socio-cultural norms linking guns and masculinity. Carrying a gun can be a way of publicly demonstrating 'real manhood' to gain status and respect. Misuse of guns by men and boys is often glorified in popular culture and socially accepted or expected, especially among young, marginalised men.⁴⁹

In Rio de Janeiro, young men are more likely to be killed by guns than all other external causes of death combined, including traffic accidents, illness and other kinds of injuries. Brazil has one of the highest homicide rates in the world, with more than 35,000 firearm deaths every year. Brazilians are about four times more likely to die by firearms than the general world population.

In response to the escalating urban violence in Rio de Janeiro, the non-governmental organisation (NGO) Viva Rio was established in 1993 with the aim of promoting a culture of peace and social development. Viva Rio now has more than 500 ongoing projects, many of which specifically focus on improving the prevention and response to gun violence, including:

- Public awareness-raising campaigns to reduce the demand for guns.
- Voluntary small arms collection campaigns.
- Destruction of surplus weapons, in collaboration with police, military and local government.
- Improvement of secure storage facilities.
- Advocating for tighter gun laws.
- Free legal advice centres.

Specifically focusing on gun violence prevention amongst young men in the *favelas*, Viva Rio initiated the Fight for Peace Project. Now also open to women, the project combines professional boxing lessons with citizenship classes and group discussions with a social worker. Topics range from anger management and sexually transmitted diseases to building self-esteem. The objective is to help young men and women (12-25 year olds) cope with the violence surrounding them, and offer them alternatives to involvement in the heavily armed drug trade.

In collaboration with the Military Police, Viva Rio has also developed a training-of-trainers course for police on issues of citizen rights, ethics and community relations. Close to 200 officers have been trained, who will replicate the training to reach some 10,000 officers.

To effectively provide security to individuals and communities it is necessary to take into account that men, women, girls and boys face different insecurities based upon socio-cultural gender roles (see Box 2). Gender-based violence, including human trafficking, intimate partner violence, sexual assault and anti-gay violence, is one of the largest threats to human security worldwide. Globally, one out of every three women is the victim of GBV.⁴³ Men and boys are also victims of GBV, however global statistics are scarce. Gender-based violence has a devastating impact upon the victim, and also creates enormous costs to society. In the United States (US), for example, where it is estimated that every year 1.3 million women are physically assaulted by their intimate partner, the health costs amount to US \$5.8 billion annually.⁴⁴

Despite the high prevalence of GBV, security sector initiatives to address these crimes are often not given priority and are inadequately funded. For instance, it is estimated that 10% of the wartime rapes in Bosnia were of men,⁴⁵ but GBV programming targeting men and boy survivors is virtually non-existent among conflict-affected populations.⁴⁶

In order to fulfil its mandate as a security and justice provider, security sector institutions and oversight bodies – including police, border authorities, justice and penal institutions and relevant government ministries – must take concrete steps to effectively

prevent and punish GBV, and provide support for survivors (see Box 7).

Benefits of collaboration with women's and men's organisations

Collaboration with women's and men's organisations (and other civil society organisations that work on gender issues) can lead to a more effective provision of security and justice. Such civil society organisations have capacities, expertise and access to knowledge that can be of great benefit to security sector institutions (see Box 8).

Collaboration with civil society organisations that specialise on gender issues can:

- Build the capacity of security sector institutions and personnel to better respond to the security needs of individuals and communities.
 - For example: providing training on gender issues, such as on identifying and interviewing victims of human trafficking
- Provide complementary services to victims of violence and people deprived of their liberty, increasing their security and health.
 - For example: providing safe houses for victims of domestic violence; psychological support for victims of torture, anti-gay violence, or ex-combatants; men's organisations providing

services and support to men in maximum-security prisons

- Increase access to justice.
 - For example: through legal aid services and legal literacy programmes
- Improve intelligence.
 - For example: providing information on small arms in the community, or conflict early warning information
- Enhance research on improving security and justice delivery.
 - For example: undertaking community-level research on effective prevention and response to gang violence
- Provide policy advice on improving security and justice delivery.
 - For example: participating in local citizen security councils; having gender experts testify before parliament

5.3 Oversight and accountability of the security sector

‘Democratic accountability of the security and justice sectors is based on the principles of transparency, responsibility, participation and responsiveness to citizens. Representatives of security and justice institutions must be liable for their actions and should be called to account for malpractice. Oversight mechanisms should be designed to provide checks and balances that prevent abuses of power and ensure that institutions operate efficiently and effectively while respecting the rule of law.’

OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform ⁵⁰

Establishing democratic oversight and accountability of the security sector is an overarching objective of SSR. Ensuring that security sector institutions are transparent and accountable to democratic civilian authority prevents abuses of power and guarantees that institutions operate efficiently and effectively while respecting the rule of law.⁵¹

Representative and participative oversight

Many bodies play a role in oversight of the security sector, including the security sector institutions themselves, the executive, parliament, the judiciary, independent bodies such as ombudspersons, and civil society organisations.⁵² Men are over-represented within many of these institutions: for instance, globally 83.1% of parliamentarians are men.⁵³

See Tools on Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender, Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender

Increasing the participation of women in oversight bodies such as the parliament, the executive and the judiciary helps to ensure that they are – and are perceived to be – representative, which can increase public confidence and responsiveness of oversight to the concerns of all citizens. Involving civil society with gender expertise, including women’s organisations, men’s organisations and gender experts, can strengthen both formal and informal security sector oversight mechanisms (see Box 9). They have the expertise and capacity to:

- Provide gender-responsive policy advice on improving transparency, accountability and responsiveness.
- Monitor the implementation of international and regional agreements on gender equality as related to security sector institutions.
- Provide capacity building for governance and oversight bodies on gender and security issues.
- Help ensure that oversight is comprehensive and responsive to communities’ needs.

Box 9

Women’s organisations’ participation in Fiji’s Security and Defence Review ⁵⁴

In Fiji, women’s NGOs working with the Ministry of Women’s Affairs provided input to the national security and defence review process in 2003. They met with the Fiji Government’s National Security and Defence Review Committee to discuss:

- How the review process was being conducted.
- Who was being consulted.
- Which issues were identified as security threats.
- How international standards and norms such as *UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security* were being incorporated into defence programming.

The women’s NGOs also made concrete recommendations, including for the permanent appointment of the Minister for Women on the National Security Council and representation of women on provincial and district-level security committees.

Box 10 UK Equal Opportunities Commission and sexual harassment in the armed forces⁶⁰

The UK Equal Opportunities Commission (now part of the Equality and Human Rights Commission) was the independent, public body mandated to work towards the elimination of discrimination and to promote equal opportunity for women and men. It was responsible to the Cabinet Minister for Women and the Parliamentary Secretary for Women and Equality in the Department for Communities and Local Government.

In 2004, after several high-profile cases of sexual harassment and a high number of complaints, the Commission wrote to the Ministry of Defence (MoD) expressing its concern about the frequency and persistence of sexual harassment against women serving in the armed forces. On the basis of detailed information from the Ministry of Defence and the Armed Forces, the Commission concluded that the Armed Forces had not taken sufficient steps to meet their legal responsibilities to prevent and respond to sexual harassment. Using its powers as set out in the Sex Discrimination Act, the Commission embarked upon a formal investigation. It suspended the investigation on the condition of the Armed Forces' fulfilment of an Agreement and Action Plan to Prevent and Deal Effectively with Sexual Harassment in the Armed Forces. The Action Plan has three phases, over three years:

1. Diagnostic and data gathering.
2. Period for the Ministry of Defence to review the information collected and to propose a programme of future work, including outcomes and targets to be achieved, to the Commission for its agreement.
3. Implementation and monitoring phase.

The Action Plan specifically includes undertaking a sexual harassment survey, convening focus groups, determining a standard for recording sexual harassment complaints, appointing an external reviewer to assess the handling of complaints and increasing the number of female trainers. In June 2008 the Commission will conduct a final review of the Ministry of Defence and Armed Forces' performance to determine whether they have successfully reformed as required under the Agreement, including achieving the agreed outcomes.

Preventing and responding to human rights violations

'It is clear from the research we have conducted that we have a problem [sexual harassment] with which we must deal urgently. This is not about political correctness. It is about operational effectiveness. Our success as Armed Forces depends fundamentally on respect, trust and mutual interdependence. Anything that weakens those bonds of trust and respect weakens us as a fighting force.'

UK Chief of the Defence Staff, Air Chief Marshal
Sir Jock Stirrup⁵⁵

Preventing, responding to and sanctioning human rights abuses by security sector institutions and personnel is an important aspect of oversight. Forms of gender-based discrimination and human rights violations perpetrated by security sector personnel include sexual harassment, domestic violence, sexual assault, sexual torture, forced sex work, human trafficking and anti-gay violence. Male and female security sector personnel, as well as civilian men, women, girls and boys can be direct victims of these violations:

- In 2006, an independent study commissioned by the UK Ministry of Defence revealed that more than two thirds of servicewomen had a direct experience of sexual harassment.⁵⁶
- In the 2006 student survey of the US military institute, the Citadel, 20% of the female cadets reported being sexually assaulted.⁵⁷
- A 2006 report from Amnesty International stated that: 'Rape of women and girls by both the police and security forces, and within their homes and community, is acknowledged to be endemic in Nigeria.'⁵⁸

Eliminating discrimination and other human rights violations by security sector personnel is not only an obligation under international law, but creates more trusted and effective security institutions. Sexual harassment, for example, undermines an institution through a loss of productivity, lowered morale, absence from work, increased staff turnover, and hinders the integration of women in security agencies. In the context of the military, a study in the US has shown a strong correlation between high incidence of sexual harassment, lower combat readiness and a poor leadership climate.⁵⁹

Oversight bodies can institute preventative measures, such as codes of conduct and training, and ensure that any human rights violations are effectively investigated and sanctioned (see Box 10). Collaboration with civil society organisations that work on human rights and gender issues can be particularly valuable, through their capacity to monitor and document incidents of human rights violations, and to provide policy, training and technical advice on reducing human rights violations, including GBV.

6 How can gender issues be integrated into security sector reform?

This section provides examples of concrete steps to integrate gender issues into SSR policy and programming cycles. As SSR processes are highly context-based and thus have different challenges and opportunities when it comes to the integration of gender, the following suggestions should be adapted to the specific context. See Section 7 for more specific information on these issues in post-conflict, transitional, developing and developed contexts.

6.1 Gender-responsive SSR policy

The development of a policy framework to guide security sector reform processes may be the first step taken towards implementation of SSR. Those providing external assistance to SSR may also do so within a specific SSR policy framework. Taking into account gender issues from the initial stage of policy formulation creates a solid foundation for a gender-responsive SSR process. Depending upon the specific context and type of policy, a broad range of actors can be involved in policy-making including international, regional, national and local stakeholders. Different types of policies and agreements that address SSR include:

National, regional and international policies

- National security policies
 - *Examples: Securing an Open Society: Canada's National Security Policy, National Security Concept of Georgia*
- Peace agreements (while not 'SSR policies', they serve as a framework for SSR in many post-conflict contexts)
 - *Examples: Liberian Comprehensive Peace Agreement, Guatemalan Peace Accords*
- National, regional and international codes of conduct
 - *Examples: OSCE Code of Conduct on Politico-Military Aspects of Security, UN Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials*
- Donor policies and strategies
 - *Examples: Security Sector Reform: Towards a Dutch Approach, The Norwegian Government's Action Plan for the Implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000)*
- International and regional organisations' policy frameworks
 - *Examples: OECD DAC Ministerial Statement: Key Policy and Operational Commitments from the Implementation Framework for Security System Reform, Commission of the European Communities' A Concept for European Union Support for Security Sector Reform*

Institutional and municipal level policies

- White papers on security, defence, intelligence, police
- Local citizen security plans

Depending on the type of policy and the local context, different measures can be taken to ensure that gender issues are integrated through gender mainstreaming initiatives and measures to promote equal participation of men and women.

See Tool on National Security Policy-Making and Gender

! Tips for gender mainstreaming

- ✓ Involve gender experts in drafting the SSR policy such as representatives from women's ministries, parliamentarians with gender expertise and experts from civil society organisations or academia.
- ✓ Build the gender capacity of the personnel responsible for drafting, implementing and evaluating the security policy, for instance through gender training.
- ✓ Identify and mobilise gender champions, i.e. senior level decision-makers who support the inclusion of gender issues.
- ✓ Conduct a gender impact assessment of the proposed security policy and continue to monitor the gender impact in implementation and evaluation (see Box 11).
- ✓ Review existing security and gender legal and policy frameworks, and ensure that the SSR policy is in line with international, regional and national mandates.

! Tips for promoting the equal participation of women and men

- ✓ Hold an inclusive consultation process with the involvement of civil society, including representatives from women's and men's organisations and other gender experts.
- ✓ Ensure representation of women and men in the team(s) responsible for the assessment, drafting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the security policies.

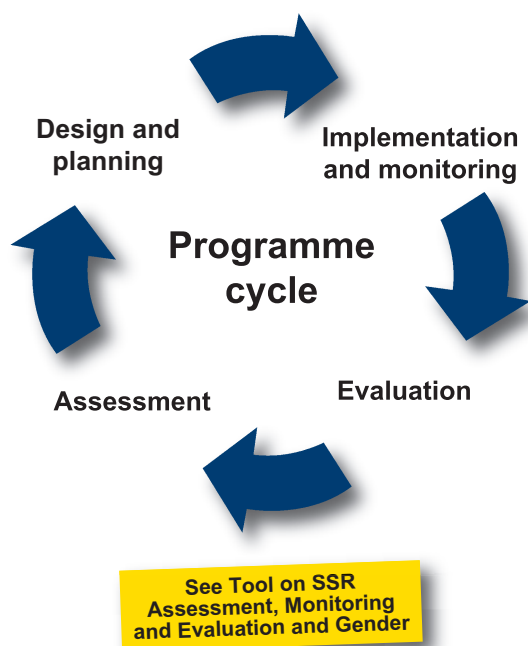
Gender impact assessments of security policies can be conducted by oversight bodies, such as parliamentarians and civil society organisations, to determine how security policies will specifically affect men, women, girls and boys (see Box 11). Assessments can be carried out on existing or proposed policies. However, they are more successful when carried out at an early stage so that the policy can be changed or redirected.⁶¹

Box 11 Gender impact assessment of security policy ⁶²

Steps:	Questions to ask:
Step 1: Define issues and goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ What is the policy trying to achieve, and who will it benefit? ■ Does the policy meet the different security needs of men, women, boys and girls? Are GBV issues, such as domestic violence and human trafficking, being addressed? Is prevention included? ■ Is the emphasis on national or human security? ■ Is the policy in line with international, regional and national mandates on gender issues? ■ Is the policy meant to overcome gender inequalities or eliminate barriers and, if so, should there be a gender equality objective? ■ Is gender-specific and gender-sensitive language included? ■ What do men and women, including gender/women's CSOs or the Ministry of Women, say about the issues and outcomes?
Step 2: Collect data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ How are stakeholders and different groups of women and men going to be consulted? ■ Do representative organisations truly reflect the voice of the men and women expected to benefit from the policy? If not, what is the strategy for reaching them? ■ What is the gender make-up of the people affected by the policy? ■ How can data and statistical information be collected by sex, ethnicity, disability, age, religion and sexual orientation? ■ What other information apart from sex-disaggregated data is needed to understand the issue? ■ What are the risks of early consultation – how are expectations and conflicting interests going to be managed?
Step 3: Develop options	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ How does the recommendation or each option impact positively or negatively on women and men? ■ Do the recommendations or any of the options reinforce or challenge traditional or stereotyped perceptions of women and men? ■ Which option gives men and women real choice and an opportunity to achieve their full potential in society? ■ Is there a need to consider mitigation where there will be a negative impact on one group over another, and what action can be taken to reduce the impact or to create a more gender-balanced policy?
Step 4: Communicate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ What message needs to be communicated? ■ How will the message reach different groups of women and men? ■ Are separate approaches necessary? ■ How does the policy reflect the government's commitment to equality and is a specific message about equality to be included? ■ Have gender-sensitive language, symbols and examples been used in the materials communicating the policy? ■ How will you communicate with women and men who speak other languages or who are illiterate?
Step 5: Implement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Will the policy or service be experienced or accessed differently by a woman or man, and will the difference be affected by ethnicity, disability, age, religion or sexual orientation? What arrangements are in place to reach those who may be excluded? ■ Can the service be delivered jointly – i.e. can other government departments, locally, nationally and internationally-based organisations help deliver the service to the women and men targeted? ■ Do those implementing/delivering the policy or service represent the diversity of the community being served? Are women equally involved in implementation? ■ Have specific and sufficient resources (financial and human) been allocated to enable the achievement of gender equality objectives? ■ Are the implementers gender-responsive and aware of the specific gender issues?
Step 6: Monitor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Do female and male beneficiaries participate equally in the monitoring process? ■ Do monitoring requirements include a measure for gender equality, a measure for customer satisfaction, and do they reveal the extent to which the policy is successfully addressing the different needs of women and men? ■ How can external organisations representing different groups in the community help in monitoring the policy outcomes? ■ Are measures in place to initiate an investigation or to change the policy if it is not delivering either the equality objective defined at the outset of the project or equality of opportunity for women or men?
Step 7: Evaluate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Is the policy promoting and delivering equality of opportunity for women and men? Have the objectives been met for women and men? ■ Did one group receive greater benefit than others – if so how will the imbalance be addressed? Were inputs allocated equitably? ■ What was the overall impact on the status and quality of life for women and men? ■ Did the process involve women and men? Did it seek out and value their views equally? ■ Is there a need for additional data collection and do targets and indicators need adjusting in the light of experience? ■ What lessons are there for improving future policies and services, who needs to be informed and how is the information to be presented?

6.2 Gender-responsive SSR programme cycle

SSR programme cycles can vary according to the specific context, although the general phases remain the same in most development programmes:



SSR assessment

The first step in initiating reforms in the security sector is to conduct an assessment to establish a comprehensive understanding of the current situation and priorities for reform. Initial assessments also serve as a baseline indicator from which to gauge the impact of reforms. Gender can be integrated into various types of security assessments in order to increase their accuracy and relevance.

There are different types of assessments that can be undertaken:

- **Full assessment** is a comprehensive assessment of the national context for SSR that focuses on the entire range of security sector actors. Questions can address political economy and conflict analysis; governance and capacity of security and justice institutions; security and justice needs of citizens; and links to other frameworks and programmes.⁶³
- **Sector or problem-specific assessment** focuses specifically on one security sector institution, such as the police, or addressing a specific problem, which might involve looking at various security sector institutions.⁶⁴

See Tools on Defence Reform and Gender, Police Reform and Gender, etc.

- **Local security surveys** can be implemented to feed into security decision-making, prioritising, and deployment and resource allocation at the local level. Conducted through interviews with a representative sample of individuals, focus groups or community organisations, questions can be asked regarding security threats and services.⁶⁵

Gender-responsive assessments should include:

Gender mainstreaming

- ✓ An assessment team with gender capacity
- ✓ Terms of reference for the assessment that include gender issues
- ✓ Data disaggregated by sex and age
- ✓ Surveys that include questions regarding men, women, girls and boys' different:
 - security and justice needs and perceptions
 - ability to access security and justice services
 - opportunities to improve security and justice
 - priorities for reform
 - participation in security sector institutions
- ✓ Mapping of existing gender-responsive security and justice programmes and projects to determine local capacity and identify potential partners, including civil society initiatives
- ✓ Assessment of the gender-responsiveness of existing security and justice policy and legal frameworks at the national, institutional and local levels to determine needed revisions and gaps
- ✓ The assessment team held accountable for the integration of gender issues

Promoting the equal participation of women and men

- ✓ Women and men in the assessment team, including local female translators where necessary to speak with local women
- ✓ Inclusive consultation processes with civil society that involve men, women and representatives from women's and men's organisations
- ✓ Focus groups and meetings at times and locations that are accessible for women and other marginalised groups
- ✓ Women-only and men-only focus groups if necessary to hear local women, provide child care and transportation, as needed
- ✓ Communication tools for non-literate groups

It is also important to undertake specific assessments of gender issues before initiating gender mainstreaming activities or gender reforms, for instance to determine the prevalence of sexual harassment, obstacles to increased female recruitment or work-family life balance (see Box 12 on a model assessment process for increasing the recruitment and retention of women in law enforcement agencies).

Box 12 Recruiting & Retaining Women: A Self-Assessment Guide for Law Enforcement

The US National Center for Women & Policing received a grant from the US Department of Justice to develop a self-assessment guide to assist agencies seeking to recruit and retain more women in sworn law enforcement positions. An Advisory Board was established consisting of state, county and municipal law enforcement executives and members of law enforcement organisations. In addition, the draft guide was field tested in two different police departments.

The assessment process recommended by the guide for medium-to-large agencies:

1. **Establish an assessment committee** consisting of: agency managers and field personnel, representing a cross-section of units and functions; women from all ranks; labour union representatives; personnel experts with experience working to increase women in non-traditional jobs; community representatives; liaisons from the public entity that controls the law enforcement budget; and elected officials or their representatives.
2. Convene a **full-day meeting** to discuss the assessment process, introduce all members of the committee and make committee assignments.
3. Establish **working committees** by subject matter on: job descriptions, the selection process and promotion; recruiting; training, mentoring, performance evaluation and awards; and family issues, sexual harassment, retaliation, internal affairs and the discipline system.
4. Establish a **timeline** for assessment and the development of recommendations, preferably six months.
5. Assign adequate **staff** to provide information and participate in the assessment process.
6. Designate one command-level person to provide the agency administrator with **monthly briefings** and ensure that a comprehensive review is conducted.
7. Designate a person from the law enforcement agency to **coordinate all requests for information** from the committee.
8. Hold a **staff meeting** with high-ranking law enforcement personnel to explain the task to the committees and the commitment of the agency to cooperate with the process.
9. The committees should **present their assessments and final report** to the entire assessment team.
10. Determine which changes will be made and develop a **detailed time/task plan** for implementation which assigns specific responsibilities.
11. Assign an **implementation committee and a chairperson** to monitor the process of implementing recommended changes and report quarterly to the agency head and elected officials.

The Guide is available online at <http://www.womenandpolicing.org/sag.asp>

SSR design and planning

The initial assessment can lay the ground for a strategic design and planning process. In order to ensure local ownership, stakeholders, including civil society organisations, should continue to be actively involved. This stage of any SSR programme should set out a gender-responsive logical framework for programme design:

■ Objectives

- Do the objectives include: The improved delivery of security and justice services to men, women, girls and boys? Increasing the representative and participatory nature of security sector institutions? Increased accountability and a reduction of human rights violations?

■ Beneficiaries

- Are the beneficiaries clearly defined, including specifying whether they are men, women, girls and boys?
- Are women, girls and marginalised men and boys specifically identified as beneficiaries?

■ Activities

- Are gender initiatives included (see Box 14)?
- Do the activities clearly correspond to the objectives? Will they increase security and justice

for women and girls as well as marginalised men and boys?

■ Outputs

- Are specific outputs directed towards women, men, girls and boys?
- Are there outputs that focus on preventing, responding and prosecuting GBV?
- Are there outputs that increase the recruitment, retention and advancement of women?

■ Indicators

- Are there specific indicators to monitor gender related objectives?
- Are there specific indicators to monitor the impact of gender activities?
- Are indicators sex-disaggregated?

■ Time frame

- Does the time frame allow for flexibility, monitoring and stakeholder participation?

■ Budget

- Are specific funds earmarked for gender objectives, activities and outputs?

Box 13 Gender initiatives within SSR programmes		
	Internal activities	External activities
Gender mainstreaming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Gender awareness training ■ Sexual harassment training ■ Codes of conduct ■ Gender focal points ■ Resources, such as manuals, on how to integrate gender issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Technical training on interviewing victims of GBV, preventing human trafficking, responding to sexual assault of men ■ Capacity building for civil society organisations on gender ■ Specific initiatives to prevent, respond to and penalise GBV
Equal participation of women and men	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Measures to increase female recruitment, retention and advancement ■ Human resources policies and practices that are gender responsive and family friendly ■ Female staff associations/ women's caucus/unions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Collaboration with women's and men's organisations for information gathering, referral of victims, drafting security policy, security sector oversight etc. ■ Capacity building of women's organisations on SSR and security issues in general

■ Monitoring and evaluation

- Is sufficient time and funding allocated to ensure participatory monitoring and evaluation processes?
- Do monitoring requirements include measures for gender equality and customer satisfaction?
- Will monitoring and assessment processes reveal the extent to which the programme is successful in addressing the different security and justice needs of men, women, girls and boys?

■ Partners

- Are women's and men's civil society organisations, and organisations specialised on gender issues included as potential partners for programme implementation?
- Do identified partners have the commitment and capacity to work in a gender-responsive manner?
- Are responsibilities and expectations regarding gender clearly spelled out in programme documents, agreements and contracts?

Specific gender initiatives may need to be included in the SSR design and planning phase in order to ensure that gender issues are adequately incorporated (see Box 13).

SSR implementation

Specific steps can be taken to ensure that gender issues, once included in assessment and programme design, are not marginalised in the implementation phase:

- ✓ Involve gender experts, such as the Ministry of Woman's Affairs, women's civil society organisations and individual specialists on gender and security issues.
- ✓ Include measures to build support and capacity as regards gender issues – e.g. through 'gender coaching' initiatives at the upper management level

or the provision of gender training and materials/tools for project staff (see Box 14).

- ✓ Establish accountability mechanisms to ensure that all personnel are responsible for the integration of gender issues.
- ✓ Involve civil society in implementation activities, including women's and men's organisations.

SSR monitoring and evaluation

Comprehensive, gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of SSR programmes is necessary to determine the impact of the reforms on their beneficiaries – women, men, boys and girls – and to identify lessons learned. The baseline data and key indicators from the initial programme assessment and programme design can serve as a starting point for M&E. Monitoring can be used as a programme management tool to adjust the SSR activities to respond to changing contexts, local needs and identified good and bad practices. Monitoring mechanisms can be built into the programme as an ongoing process or through periodic reviews. In contrast, evaluations take place at the end of the programme to identify broad lessons learned in order to adjust subsequent programming accordingly.⁶⁷

The OECD DAC criteria for evaluating development assistance programmes includes:⁶⁸

- **Relevance:** the extent to which the activity is suited to the priorities and policies of the target group, recipient and donor.
- **Effectiveness:** a measure of the extent to which an activity attains its objectives.
- **Efficiency:** a measure of the outputs – qualitative and quantitative – in relation to the inputs.
- **Impact:** the positive or negative changes produced by the development intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended.

- **Sustainability:** a measure of whether the benefits of an activity are likely to continue after donor funding has been withdrawn.



Key questions to ensure that the monitoring and evaluation processes are gender-responsive include:

Gender mainstreaming

- ✓ Do M&E staff have the capacity to integrate gender issues?
- ✓ Is M&E sex and age data disaggregated?
- ✓ Have the gender-related objectives, indicators and benchmarks been reached? Are measures in place to initiate change if these are not being met?
- ✓ What was the overall impact of the programme on men, women, girls and boys? Has the programme increased their security and access to justice?

- ✓ What good and bad practices related to gender issues can be identified? How can these feed into future programming?
- ✓ How are the results of the evaluation being communicated to men and women involved in the SSR process and in affected communities?

Promoting the equal participation of women and men

- ✓ Do male and female beneficiaries participate equally in M&E?
- ✓ Are specific measures taken as part of the M&E processes to reach marginalised beneficiaries such as rural communities and non-literate groups?
- ✓ Did the SSR programme adequately involve men and women? Were their views incorporated into the programme?
- ✓ How has the programme affected participation of men and women in security sector institutions and security sector oversight?

Box 14 Genderforce Sweden – a multi-layered approach to integrating gender issues into Swedish security sector institutions ⁶⁶

Genderforce Sweden has as its starting point the implementation of UNSCR 1325. It is funded by the European Union's Equal Initiative and is a partnership of:

- Swedish Armed Forces
- Swedish Police
- Swedish Rescue Services Agency (SRSA)
- Kvinna till Kvinna (a women's civil society organisation)
- Association of Military Officers in Sweden
- Swedish Women's Voluntary Defence Organisation

Its core objectives are to improve the gender balance and promote the integration of gender perspectives into Swedish military and civilian relief operations and into post-conflict peacekeeping operations. In order to meet these objectives, eight projects have been initiated:

1. **Increasing female recruitment:** Recruitment processes in the partner organisations have been assessed from a gender perspective and recommendations have been established. One example is how the SRSA has altered its recruitment methods, for instance by advertising in women's magazines. According to its Gender Advisor, Susanne Axmacher: 'We are definitely sending more women into operational areas nowadays.' Another example is how the Nordic Battle Group has set a goal of 8% female recruitment (the Swedish Armed Forces currently has approximately 5% women).
2. **Gender-responsive policy documents:** Government and institutional policy documents underwent gender analysis in order to identify concrete areas of improvement with the end goal of having mission and operations mandates that contained clear directives on gender equality and the active participation of women. New topics of reporting were suggested including: 'What local women's organisations have been contacted for interaction?' and 'What security threats to women have been observed?'
3. **Civilian-military cooperation in the field:** A study was conducted by the Swedish National Defence College to clarify the different roles of civilian and military actors, and methods of civilian-military cooperation in implementing UN Security Council Resolution 1325. One of the study's recommendations was to form a network of Swedish civilian and military actors to enhance cooperation.
4. **Gender field advisor:** A training programme has been developed for gender field advisors in order to create a pool of advisors for international operations.
5. **Gender coach programme:** As top management have the power and ability to influence structures and behaviours in the organisations, 12 senior officials were selected for the gender coaching programme. Major General Sverker Göranson, the Swedish Army Chief of Staff, stated that the programme had been a very positive experience and had changed the way he thinks, talks and acts which, among other things, had contributed to more effective communication.
6. **Preventing trafficking:** A training programme was developed for personnel in international operations on how to recognise signs of trafficking.
7. **Gender training:** Training methods and tools were developed on gender issues and UN Security Council Resolution 1325. The Swedish Armed Forces have already adopted this training for personnel in international peace support operations. The goal is to also integrate gender training into the curriculum of Swedish Military Academies, the Swedish National Police Academy and the Swedish National Defence College.
8. **Empowerment of local women:** A report was commissioned which focuses on good and bad practices of including local women in the planning, implementation and evaluation phases of military and humanitarian operations. The aim is to integrate the findings into pre-deployment training.

7 Integrating gender into SSR in specific contexts

Security sector reform varies according to the specific reform context. In principle, each country engaged in SSR constitutes a special case and hence a different reform context. Nonetheless, for analytical purposes, a number of broad SSR contexts may be distinguished such as: post-conflict, transitional, developing and developed contexts (see Table 1).

7.1 Post-conflict countries

In post-conflict environments, SSR is essential to prevent the re-occurrence of conflict and enhance public security, which in turn is necessary to initiate reconstruction and

development activities. Depending upon the context, SSR might include either the reform of existing security institutions or building entirely new security sector institutions. There is often considerable public demand for change in these contexts, and by supporting SSR transitional governments can help signal a break from the past. There may be strong interest from international organisations and donors in supporting SSR processes, including through development assistance and peace support operations. In the post-conflict context there is a wide range of important opportunities to link SSR with related initiatives, including the negotiation and implementation of peace agreements; disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR); transitional justice and small arms control.⁷⁰

Gender roles undergo massive change during conflict, with men and women taking on new responsibilities. This can open up opportunities for a greater involvement of women in public life, including within security institutions and in security decision-making. In the post-conflict period, there is often pressure to return to traditional gender roles. SSR processes

	Developing countries	Transitional countries	Post-conflict countries	Developed countries
Key criteria	Level of economic development.	Nature of political system.	Specific security situation.	Political will.
Key challenges	Development deficit. Excessive military spending; poorly managed/governed security sector leads to ineffective provision of security, thereby diverting scarce resources from development.	Democratic deficit. Oversized, over-resourced military-industrial complex; strong state, but weak civil society institutions; deficiencies in implementing SSR policies.	Security and democratic deficits. Government and civil society institutions collapsed; displaced populations; privatisation of security; possibly pockets of armed resistance; abundance of small arms and anti-personnel mines.	Political will. At times, relatively oversized, over-resourced armed forces.
Possibilities for conducting SSR	Mixed (depending on political commitment to reform, strength of state institutions, role and state of security forces, regional security environment, donor approach to SSR, etc.).	Rather good (strong state institutions, professional security forces, broader democratisation process), even better if external incentives available (e.g. accession to EU or NATO).	Rather poor (weak and contested state institutions, privatisation of security, dependence on peace support/intervention forces).	Mixed (depending on the political commitment to reform, and the relative strength of the military-industrial complex); strong state institutions and CSO community, but great distance between the two.
General reform process	Transition from underdeveloped to developed economy.	Transition from authoritarian to democratic system.	Transition from violent conflict to peace.	Responding to a change in the security environment.
Nature of external involvement	Development assistance coupled with political conditionality.	Accession to multilateral institutions as incentive for reform.	Military intervention / occupation; mostly UN-led peace support operations.	Usually none.
Key external actors	Development/financial actors: multilateral donors (e.g. OECD, UNDP, World Bank); bilateral donors; non-state actors.	Security actors: international (e.g. EU, NATO, OSCE); governments; non-state actors (e.g. international NGOs, private military companies).	Security actors: intervention forces; peacekeeping forces under international auspices; non-state actors (e.g. private military companies).	Usually none.

Box 15 Women's groups involvement in DDR in Liberia

In recent years the need to integrate a gender dimension into DDR programmes has emerged from a greater awareness of the magnitude and various forms of women's and girls' participation in armed conflicts, and recognition that they were being excluded from DDR.⁷² An estimated 88% of girl soldiers were denied access to DDR programmes in Sierra Leone between 1998 and 2002.⁷³ The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) Checklist on *Gender-aware Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration* and the UN Integrated DDR Standards (IDDRS) now provide detailed guidelines on addressing the particular needs of women and girls during DDR processes.⁷⁴

In Liberia, local women's organisations were key partners in the design and distribution of DDR information. Initial needs assessments estimated that some 2,000 female combatants would undergo DDR.⁷⁵ In 2003, women's groups rallied under the banner 'Concerned Women of Liberia' and became involved in DDR. Working with the UN Mission and the Ministry of Gender and Development, women's groups helped design an awareness campaign using print media and radio to encourage women and girls to participate in the DDR process.⁷⁶ By February 2005, 22,370 women and 2,440 girls had been disarmed and demobilised, of a total of 101,495 persons in the DDR programme. 'Women associated with fighting forces' as well as female combatants were recognised.⁷⁷ By the end of 2006, 13,223 of these women had been 'reinserted', mainly into agriculture, formal education or vocational training.⁷⁸

should support the positive changes that might have occurred during the conflict while seeking to address high levels of post-conflict GBV.

Challenges for the integration of gender issues

- DDR processes⁷¹ often fail to include women and girls (see Box 15).
- Pressure to quickly build security sector institutions may result in gender issues being insufficiently prioritised in recruitment, training and logistics.
- Lack of infrastructure and capacity can hinder women's access to justice.
- Security sector institutions often lack civilian trust due to previous human rights abuses, which increases the difficulty of recruiting women.
- Women may lack the educational requirements or skills to join security sector institutions.

Opportunities and tips for the integration of gender issues

- The participation of women's organisations in peace processes can lay a foundation for the involvement of women and the integration of gender issues into SSR processes:
 - Involve women's and men's organisations in security policy making and building the gender capacity of new security sector staff.
- Comprehensive reform of security sector institutions, including large-scale recruitment and training of security sector personnel, creates opportunities for the integration of gender issues:
 - Provide gender training to all security sector personnel.
 - Screen new personnel for human rights violations, including GBV.
 - Integrate gender issues into the UN and other international organisations, and into bilateral actors' training of police, military, justice, penal and government staff.
- Fluidity in gender roles during the armed conflict can create the space for increased female participation in the security sector:

- Set clear targets for female recruitment, retention and advancement.
- Provide incentives for female ex-combatants to join the military and the police.
- DDR processes can be a potential entry point to address gender issues:
 - Ensure that DDR processes meet the needs of men, women, girls and boys.
 - Integrate programmes to prevent GBV against male ex-combatants during DDR processes.
- International institutions and donors may provide resources to support gender-sensitive SSR processes
 - Encourage donors to fund gender initiatives, including logistics and equipment for female security sector staff.

7.2 Transitional countries

'Transitional countries' are defined in an economic sense as those countries in transition from centrally planned to market economies, such as countries in the Commonwealth of Independent States and some countries of South Eastern Europe.⁷⁹ They are often characterised by an oversized and over resourced military-industrial complex, a strong centralised state system and weak civil society organisations.⁸⁰ Hindrances to SSR can include authoritarian political leadership, nepotism and police involvement in criminal acts and corruption. Civilian oversight is often almost non-existent. SSR has come mainly through external pressure, for instance from the EU or NATO, and is triggered by bilateral or multilateral arrangements.⁸¹

Challenges for the integration of gender issues

- In the face of corruption and human rights violations, gender issues are often not prioritised in SSR processes.
- Lack of accountability mechanisms.
- Low levels of public trust of the security sector can make female recruitment and collaboration with women's organisations difficult.

Box 16 Gender training for judges ⁸³

The International Association of Women Judges brings together more than 4,000 judges from 87 countries.

In 1997, it launched a 3-year human rights training programme for judges and allied professionals in five South American countries on the application of international and regional human rights conventions to cases arising in domestic courts involving discrimination or violence against women. Since 2000, its Jurisprudence of Equality Programme (JEP) has expanded to Central America, East Africa and Southern Africa. In total, more than 1,300 judges, male and female, have taken part in JEP training in 12 countries.

JEP workshops and seminars bring judges together to focus on the concrete meaning of abstract guarantees of equal protection and non-discrimination. Through case studies and problem-solving exercises, judges share insights with colleagues and deepen their understanding of international law as applied to domestic contexts.

The JEP has:

- Developed an international human rights judicial community. JEP-trained jurists now form the nucleus of regional networks that can support one another and encourage their colleagues to follow suit.
- Changed points of view and practices. Many JEP-trained judges credit the programme with alerting them to the nature and scope of domestic violence and gender discrimination; to hidden biases – their own and those of others – and stereotypes that sustain these biases; and to more effective and sensitive ways to question witnesses.
- Adapted their curriculum to non-judicial contexts. JEP participants have incorporated JEP materials in curricula they use for teaching students, at secondary and tertiary levels, as well as for training programmes for police, lawyers, social workers, physicians and other professionals.
- Garnered support from courts, government agencies and the judiciary. In Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, for example, the Chief Justices publicly announced support for the JEP and adopted the programme as an official offering of their judicial training institutes.

Opportunities and tips for the integration of gender issues

- Goals of NATO or EU membership, or acting as a police or troop-contributing state for UN peacekeeping, may provide incentive to address gender issues in SSR.
- Concern over the prevalence of trafficking of women and girls can be an entry point to address the particular security needs of women and girls, and the need for female security sector personnel.
- In certain transitional countries the post-Soviet legacy includes more equal participation of women and men in security sector institutions, such as within the armed forces and police.
- Transition from conscription to fully professional armed forces, and high levels of education for women, may open opportunities for women to be included. In turn, high unemployment levels may make the armed forces a more attractive career for women than previously.

7.3 Developing countries

The term ‘developing countries’ generally describes those that have a low gross national income and that rate low on the Human Development Index. The UN describes Africa, Asia (excluding Japan), the Caribbean, Central America, Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) and South America as ‘developing regions’.⁸² There is often a scarcity of funding for SSR in developing countries, a tendency to lack the resources required for a functional security sector, a dependency on corruption in the absence of

a living wage, vested interests, limited transparency and weak structures of democratic governance. Security sector reform processes in developing countries focus on reforming existing institutions to create a professional, accountable and properly sized security sector through the reduction of corruption and human rights violations, building technical expertise and increasing democratic oversight.

Challenges for the integration of gender issues

- Lack of state resources and oversight can contribute to low levels of prevention and accountability for human rights violations by security sector personnel, especially in terms of GBV.
- Because women are generally poor, high levels of corruption particularly hinder women’s access to justice.
- In many countries, adequate national legislation criminalising all forms of GBV is not in place.
- A legacy of imposed development projects may result in the perception that gender equality issues and SSR are foreign impositions.

Opportunities and tips for the integration of gender issues

- Development initiatives can be an entry point for increasing security and access to justice for men, women, girls and boys, addressing GBV and involving women’s and men’s civil society organisations.
- Civil society organisations are likely filling many of the gaps of the state in providing security, such as supporting prisoners, and providing community-level policing and justice. They can be partners for

Box 17 SSR agenda for the North ⁸⁴

Donor governments and multilateral organisations view SSR as a critical need exclusively in developing countries. Yet the need for security reform is just as great in many industrialised countries, including many donor countries. The development of an agenda for ‘SSR in the North’ could encompass the following issues:

- The violation of international law prohibiting the use and threat of force.
- The limited role of parliament when governments decide to engage in war, and the manipulation of intelligence and public opinion in these decisions.
- The failure to abide by the Geneva Conventions and the prohibitions against torture.
- Arms sales and other forms of security support to repressive regimes.
- Secret funding of security services in developing countries, fuelling corruption and conflict.
- Infringements of civil liberties in industrialised countries and encouragement of repressive measures in developing countries as part of the ‘war on terror’.
- Double standards in relation to weapons of mass destruction.
- The maintenance of outdated and inequitable power arrangements in the UN Security Council.

identifying and addressing the particular needs of women, men, boys and girls.

- Establishing a gender-sensitive municipal-level citizen security plan that includes the participation of women’s organisations can be a cost effective measure.

7.4 Developed countries

The term ‘developed countries’ generally describes those that have a high gross national income and that rate high on the Human Development Index. The UN describes Australia, Canada, Israel, Japan, New Zealand, Western and Northern Europe and the US as developed.⁸⁵ Although the concept of SSR is not commonly used in relation to developed countries, reform of the security sector is often needed and may be occurring at different levels. Reforms in developed countries are often institution specific and can focus on issues of efficiency, increased oversight, management and operational procedures such as instituting community-based policing. Developed countries may also undertake reforms in order to address under or over-investment in their security sector, or failure to use resources efficiently. The security sector in developed countries, in many cases, has yet to effectively prevent and respond to GBV or attain gender parity for men and women employed in security institutions.

Developed countries are also key actors in supporting SSR processes in post-conflict, transitional and developing contexts.

Challenges for the integration of gender issues

- External security threats such as terrorism may be prioritised over internal threats to security, leading to the exclusion of issues such as GBV from the security agenda.
- There may be greater complacency as regards the need for gender equality, from both men and women.

- In some countries, opposition to ‘affirmative action’ may hinder initiatives to increase the recruitment, retention and advancement of women in security agencies, and to increase women’s participation in parliament and security decision making.

Opportunities and tips for the integration of gender issues

- State responsibility under anti-discrimination, hate crime and gender equality laws can be the basis for measures to build the capacity of security sector institutions to address gender issues – both internally and operationally.
- Human resources practice may be better developed, supporting measures to address sexual harassment and discrimination and other forms of GBV within security sector institutions.
- Increased recruitment difficulties for certain security sector institutions can create added incentive to increase the recruitment, retention and advancement of women.
- Lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) civil society organisations are likely to be more visible and active, and can be partners in combating violence and discrimination against LGBT people, including within security sector agencies (see Box 18).
- Those countries that are SSR donors have the ability to integrate gender into their support for SSR. They should, for example:
 - Ensure that SSR initiatives they support fully integrate gender issues and that women fully participate in these initiatives.
 - Ensure that SSR staff within international development and foreign affairs ministries have the requisite gender expertise.

Box 18 LGBT staff association in UK Prison System ⁸⁶

The HM Prison Service *Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Staff Support Network* (GALIPS) in the UK serves as an example of how staff associations can be effective in combating discrimination. Initiated in 2000 by an openly gay prison staff member, the UK Prison Service Operational Policy Group granted formal recognition, support and funding to GALIPS in 2004. During those four years, business cases were formulated and research compiled, a working group was established, a survey of those interested in participating in the network was conducted and a facilitation event was held to discuss the need for an LGBT network. Currently GALIPS has four full-time staff and a membership of over 2,000.

GALIPS' aim is 'to provide a professional support network for LGBT staff and provide support in combating any discrimination within the Prison Service'. It conducts a wide range of activities including:

- Establishing focal points within the different prisons.
- Holding training and awareness-raising events for prison service staff.
- Providing a confidential telephone service for staff to report anti-gay bullying and harassment, access support and advice on how to proceed.
- Supporting policy teams to ensure that LGBT issues are mainstreamed into their policies.
- Creating links across other government departments, criminal justice agencies, their networks and other links within the LGBT community.
- Supporting prison managers and others handling LGBT issues in the workplace.

8 Key recommendations

1. Build local ownership through the **full involvement of civil society organisations**, including national and local women's organisations, in assessing, designing, implementing and monitoring/evaluating SSR policies and programmes.
2. Review and **revise existing security-related legislation, policies and protocols** to ensure that they are not discriminatory, and take into account the specific security needs of women, men, boys and girls.
3. Implement **specific policies, mechanisms and programming to prevent, address and sanction gender-based violence** against women, girls, men and boys as part of SSR.
4. Establish **codes of conduct** and other internal policies and mechanisms that enforce zero-tolerance of gender-based violence, including sexual harassment, by security sector personnel.
5. Establish strategic targets and specific initiatives to increase the **recruitment, retention and advancement of women** and other under-represented groups in security sector institutions.
6. Include specific **gender training** as part of the core training curriculum of security sector personnel at all levels. Mainstream gender issues into training for security sector personnel.
7. Strengthen oversight of SSR processes and ensure that **security sector oversight bodies** are gender-responsive and collaborate with women's civil society organisations.

8. Include **sex-disaggregated data and questions on gender issues**, including on the security needs, priorities and capacities of men, women, girls and boys in any SSR assessment, research or monitoring/evaluation.
9. Build the **gender awareness and capacity** of personnel involved in SSR through gender training, working with gender experts and including gender-responsiveness in the terms of reference for positions as well as personnel assessments.

9 Additional resources

Useful websites

Centre for Security Sector Management - <http://www.ssronline.org/>

DCAF Gender and SSR Project - <http://www.dcaf.ch/gender-security-sector-reform/>

Global Facilitation Network for SSR - <http://www.ssrnetwork.net/>

OSCE/ODIHR - <http://www.osce.org/odihr/>

UNIFEM Portal on Women, Peace and Security – <http://www.womenwarpeace.org>

UN-INSTRAW Gender and SSR - <http://www.uninstraw.org/en/gps/general/gender-and-security-sector-reform-5.html>

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