

Gender and Early Warning Systems

An Introduction





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It is important that both women and men live in communities where they feel safe and secure, and where they share equal opportunities to take part in building such communities. Yet conflict analysis, including early warning, has traditionally not included a women's rights or gender perspective. In the development and implementation of early warning systems (EWS), little consideration is typically paid to the structural or conflict-specific differences between women's and men's situations, perceptions of threats and vulnerabilities, or experiences. When women are not included in EWS, their opportunities to fully participate in conflict prevention and post-conflict reconstruction are limited and, thus, EWS risk failing to adequately predict or prevent conflict.

Gender equality forms a key component of several commitments made by the participating States of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). These commitments have not only been reconfirmed many times, but have also been complemented by commitments addressing gender and security directly including Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/05 on "Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-conflict Rehabilitation",² and Ministerial Council Decision No. 15/05 on "Preventing and Combating Violence against Women"³. These Ministerial Council decisions, in particular, form a basis for the integration of a gender perspective into EWS.

Gender is still often ignored in efforts aimed at conflict prevention, with the result that these efforts may perpetuate stereotypes or even increase women's vulnerabilities to having their human rights violated. This is often due to longstanding discriminatory practice. Many institutions — both national and international — that deal with conflict prevention do not include men and women equally. As a result, women's contributions to informing, planning and benefiting from such efforts as EWS are missed.

Besides corresponding with international human rights standards, ensuring the use of a broader range of factors to evaluate the lead-up to conflict, including structural factors, can provide a more complete understanding of the causes of conflict and, as a result, help develop more appropriate responses to mitigating or preventing it.

Rather than looking only for incidents that occur immediately before the outbreak of armed conflict, other more long-standing factors, like social exclusion⁴, must be taken into account. Social exclusion, characterised by such conditions as economic inequality and unequal access to resources, can be one such structural basis for violence. Taking note of longstanding trends that may be present before the outbreak and escalation of acts of violence can improve early warnings and lead to a more robust response.

By bringing to light such patterns of structural discrimination, integrating a gender perspective can improve the effectiveness of early warning systems by gathering more specific information and allowing for more detailed and precise analysis. In turn, this can ensure better preparedness and, when necessary, more accurate and measurable responses — as well as preventive mechanisms — that can more directly address some of the underlying causes of a conflict.

To integrate gender into EWS, both men and women must have the opportunity to report on their security situation. Likewise, the different threats and concerns that impact men and women as a result of any conflict must be taken into account and duly analyzed. Underlying causes must also be considered for the role they play in strengthening inequalities. Inequalities that already exist in society are often exacerbated in time of conflict, and this must be borne in mind when analyzing information and data gathered in order to formulate responses.

In line with the mandate of the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) to support participating States in implementing their commitments in the human dimension, ODIHR is publishing a series of briefs to provide guidance to practitioners involved in this work to support the integration of gender into early warning systems. Targeting, in particular, national actors working in the areas of human rights, gender and security, the three briefs, of which this is the first, will cover: (1) an introduction to gender and EWS, (2) EWS gender indicators and analysis, and (3) actors involved in EWS, with a focus on follow-up and response to data collection. This first brief serves as an introduction by reviewing relevant terminology and concepts, providing background information on EWS, and demonstrating that, since men and women experience and interpret threats and violence differently, integrating gender into EWS is key to making it effective.

2. Terminology

Gender and Sex

Gender is the social interpretation of sex⁵. While a person's biological sex is determined at birth and refers to anatomical differences, gender refers to those differences that are socially defined and ascribed to men and women throughout their life-cycles: "...cultures interpret sexed bodies differently and project different norms on those bodies, thereby creating feminine and masculine persons."⁶

It should be highlighted that the question of whether biological differences contribute to shaping masculinities and femininities continues to be one for debate. The notion that some attributes are inherently male or female has been challenged. Yet biological differences are still cited when describing men's and women's differing abilities to perform certain motor skills. For example, physical brain differences have been linked to people's ability or inability to read a map. However, such differences are not in fact found in infants and visual-spatial skills can be taught — suggesting they develop over time and, thus, are perhaps related to cultural practice.

In sum, gender refers to the historically, socially and culturally constructed differences between the sexes. Yet it is not fixed and changes over time and across different cultures. Not all women or men in one particular social group are the same.

Gender Identities and Roles

Gender roles define behavioural norms, such as what is expected and allowed behaviour for men and women and what is valued in men or women in a given context, including attributes and characteristics. These expectations are further linked to differences and inequalities between men and women in terms of activities, responsibilities and access to and control over resources, as well as in terms of decision-making opportunities. Gender roles and expectations, rather than biological sex, influence the division of labour or power imbalance between men and women. Specific gender expectations often hinder equality of status as well as rights between men and women.

Gender Identities and Roles in Conflict

It is important to recall that gender is not static, but changes over time and tends to differ during peace and conflict. At the time of a conflict, both men and women are generally seen as one-dimensional, as if no differences exist among them. These stereotypical views tend to be traditional, portraying men as aggressors, fighters and protectors, and women as vulnerable or victims that need to be protected. Likewise, overly simplistic depictions of men as warmongers and women as peacemakers, or of women as more oriented towards peace, are still too often maintained on many levels by both men and women. This view re-emphasizes an unequal power relationship between men and women, one that often does not correspond to actual changes in gender roles as they occur in societies entering or undergoing conflict.

Women are not just victims of armed conflict; they assume a diverse set of roles, such as survivors, caregivers, educators, leaders, economic providers and peacemakers. During armed conflict, whether by choice, necessity or force, women enter into non-traditional roles. This is particularly so in the economic sector, as sole caretakers of their families or in providing social services (e.g., health and education) to their community that the formal system is no longer furnishing. They can also engage in supporting and perpetuating violence. Respondents to a United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) survey in Central Asia's Ferghana Valley, for example, ranked women's roles in conflict first as observers, followed by organizers/direct participants, intermediaries, victims and human shields⁷.

Just as some women have resorted to participation in violent conflict, not all men in conflict are aggressors. They are, however, often at risk of being recruited into armed groups. Men and boys who are influenced by some societies' narrow "macho" leadership models (e.g., military leaders) or have few prospects for social mobility (either due to unemployment or expectations to serve in military structures) do not get the opportunity to live a life they choose.⁸ Men who do not wish to participate in conflict may be singled out for abuse, imprisonment and even death. Such treatment is disadvantageous for both men and women.

Existing inequalities and different roles during conflict can lead men and women to perceive threats and vulnerabilities in different ways. The same signs and occurrences will not necessarily elicit the same reaction in both men and women. A UNIFEM EWS programme in the Solomon Islands clearly identified some of the disparities. Men, for example, rated inter-ethnic relations as a high source of tension, while women rated them only as a medium source of tension. This could confirm the suggestion that women were better able to maintain inter-ethnic alliances, even during tense times, while men generated stronger in-group identification.⁹



It should be noted, however, that when such comparisons are made the act of comparing all men to all women removes the possibility of identifying alliances between men and women. As stated earlier in this brief, not all women are the same. They do not have the same upbringing or share the same culture and experiences. They have been influenced by factors like their social position (class), ethnic identity, religion, age or education and thus have different needs, interests and priorities. Early warnings are more effective when it is possible to take into consideration the layers that exist within a group, as this can help to identify synergies across ethnic, class, gender and other lines.

Gender Analysis

Gender analysis is based on the definition of gender as learned and as particular to a culture and community. The resulting differences lead to a gendered division of labour or gender-specific roles and identities that need to be examined and understood. Without such an analysis, important knowledge for action throughout the conflict cycle is not made available and programmes may not be evidence-based. Instead, they may be misdirected by assumptions about the relationships between men and women and, thus, less likely to achieve desired results.

A main purpose of gender analysis is to reveal political, social and economic inequalities between men and women by highlighting the gender-based roots of these inequalities. Thus, gender analysis can:

- ➔ Lead to an understanding of the underlying causes of power imbalances and inequalities between men and women [*structural inequalities*]; and
- ➔ Explain how men and women are experiencing threats, vulnerabilities and conflict differently [*conflict related inequalities*].

Gender analysis can demonstrate how different roles for men and women during and after conflict will also impact their contribution to conflict-prevention and post-conflict reconstruction. Gender expert Annalise Moser has examined this issue in detail and concluded that women's newfound roles during conflict have an impact on their lives post-conflict:

... both men and women experienced economic hardship during conflict, but for women this meant they had to take on new productive roles, "men's work" and become household heads and breadwinners, while for men it meant loss of income and, ultimately, loss of status as male household heads and breadwinners. Based on these different experiences during conflict, women's and men's experiences of peace also differed. Men regained their jobs, their community roles and their self-confidence, but for women the process of taking on new gender roles was transformative, and often resulted in increased empowerment and status.¹⁰

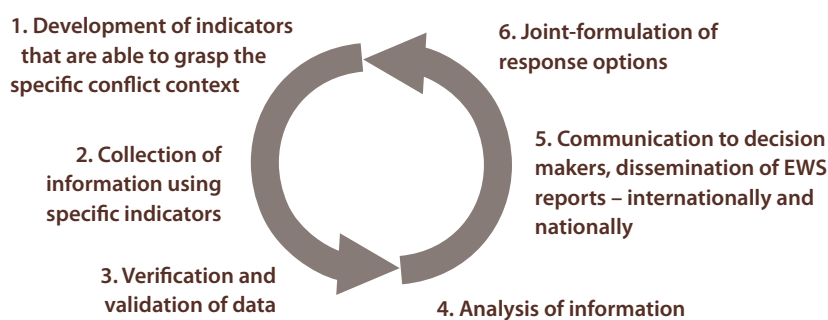
Relevant International Legal Framework

International law not only underscores women's equal participation in responding to conflict, including EWS, but also provides a basis for developing indicators and analysis. The **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women**¹¹ states that "discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, [and] is an obstacle to the participation of women, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries." The **Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action** states that "[women's] full participation in decision-making, conflict prevention and resolution and all other peace initiatives is essential to the realization of lasting peace."¹² This conclusion was echoed in **United Nations Security Council Resolu-**

tion (UNSCR) 1325, “Women, peace and security”, which reaffirms the “important role of women in the prevention and resolution of conflicts and in peace-building, and stresses the importance of their equal participation and full involvement in all efforts for the maintenance and promotion of peace and security, and the need to increase their role in decision-making with regard to conflict prevention and resolution.”¹³ Whereas UNSCR 1325 does not contain a reporting mechanism on the impact of conflict on women and girls, UNSCR 1888, “Women, peace and security” does. It was passed in September 2009 in follow up to UNSCR 1820,¹⁴ and calls on the United Nations Secretary-General to elaborate better indicators for more systematic reporting to track emerging patterns in the use of sexual violence against women in armed conflict¹⁵. The OSCE has in turn confirmed its commitment to both the Beijing Platform and UNSCR 1325 by including reference to them in OSCE Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/05 on Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-Conflict Rehabilitation¹⁶ and OSCE Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/04, adopting the 2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality, which identifies the inclusion of women in conflict prevention as a priority.¹⁷ (Women’s human rights and how they are linked to EWS is further discussed in section 4 of this brief.)

3. Early Warning Systems

Early warning systems can provide a wide array of actors with the necessary information and strategies to be proactive and not reactive to conflict, to be prepared for conflict, and to invite early action for the prevention of conflict.¹⁸



Conflict early warning systems (EWS), as mechanisms to anticipate and respond to conflicts before their outbreak or escalation, are considered prerequisites for effective conflict prevention.¹⁹ While early-warning mechanisms are ideally established and implemented before the outbreak of conflict to ensure greater preparedness, their principles can also be used to contain conflict once it has erupted in order to minimize human suffering and avoid a spill-over effect. During the post-conflict phase, EWS can be applied to prevent the resurgence of conflict.

Different strategies of EWS: Over time, there have emerged four generations of EWS, which primarily vary according to how and by whom information is collected and subsequently used. The first three generations focused on collecting and analysing information, whereas the fourth generation places greater emphasis on empowering local populations to better prepare for and respond to threats to themselves and their community. Although they vary in their approach, there is no analysis to suggest that one is more effective than the others. Simply summarized, they are as follows:



Generation ²⁰	Monitors/observers	Focus	Level	Primary recipients of data	Possible response and actions	Examples
First	Not nationals of the country where the research is being conducted; often based on media reports	Systemic collection and analysis of data	International	International Headquarters	Diplomatic actions, "quiet diplomacy," sanctions, "name and shame"	Large international NGOs and inter-governmental organizations, Foreign governments and their development programs
Second	Tend not to be nationals of, but are based in the country where research is carried out	Systemic collection and analysis of data	International; National	International headquarters	National actions, such as debates and roundtables	IGOs/ international NGOs – sometimes with field presences; foreign development programmes
Third	Tend to be national and based in the country where research is carried out; must have influence and built-in trust with the national stakeholders	Systemic collection and analysis of data	National; Community	National governmental actors, security institutions and civil society (duty holders), National headquarters and local offices (for analysis)	Monitors are directly involved, acting as mediators; they engage in direct interventions and advocacy with relevant national stakeholders	National NGOs, field-based international NGOs
Fourth	Are nationals, living in and of the community that is being monitored (Monitors and observers are not pre-designated)	Empower individuals and communities to act in sufficient time and in an appropriate manner to reduce loss of life and livelihood, and damage to property**	Community-based	Rights-holders, members of the community	Conflict preparedness and contingency planning directly with the population/rights-holders at risk	Community-based initiatives with support and capacity building from national/ international NGOs, or government support

** Early warning systems must be 'people-centred': They have to support and empower people in protecting themselves. In order to 'go the last mile', an integrated approach to early warning has to be based on the needs, priorities, capacities and cultures of those at risk. People at risk must be partners in the system, not controlled by it.²¹

To conclude, **definitions** of early warning vary but, in general, they all agree on a system of monitoring, recording, analysing and communicating information about escalating conflict to encourage responses that prevent or mitigate destructive consequences.

Responses to EWS will depend upon the original intention behind setting up the programme (e.g., to increase external attention, to establish a broader preparedness in the community, to address specific concerns, etc.) Responses usually correspond to actors, as certain types of responses are only available to specific actors. For example, economic sanctions or military action tend to be steps that can only be successfully enforced by states or international/regional organizations, whereas NGOs and other civil society actors will have better access to grassroots, community-based actions. Recent developments in the area of EWS are

focused on working more with the local community and ensuring its preparedness and resilience, rather than elaborating external actors' actions. Negotiations are not limited to states but can, — and should — be performed by a multiplicity of actors. Ideally, all actors should work together in order to strengthen their collective impact.

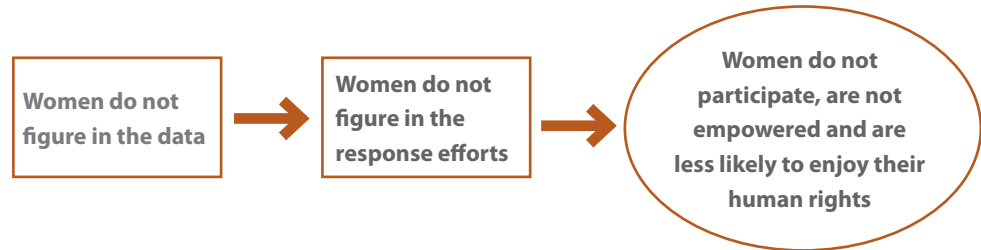
Examples of EWS projects

- The National Ombudsperson's Office of Colombia operates an EWS that has provided alerts to the Colombian military, national police and other state institutions on 254 different occasions²². In 2007, UNIFEM Colombia teamed with the Ombudsperson's Office to elaborate gender-specific indicators to be integrated into the EWS. The manual "Because the conflict strikes... but it strikes differently"²³ was produced by UNIFEM and the Ombudsperson's Office, outlining recommended indicators and explaining why gender ought to be included as a factor.
- The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Crisis Prevention and Recovery in Europe & CIS initiative²⁴ produces regular early warning reports on developments concerning both conflict and natural disasters in the OSCE region, including in South-Eastern Europe. Some of their reports have included some gender analysis. For example, the UNDP's June 2007 report²⁵ on Kosovo²⁶ stated that, among the Kosovo-Serb population, a larger percentage of women than men voiced and interest in emigrating from Kosovo, while for the non-Serb population the opposite was the case.
- UNIFEM CIS' project and concluding report "The Ferghana Valley: Current Challenges" (2005) demonstrates how women's human rights and gender can be integrated in a study on threats and vulnerabilities. The report uses qualitative and quantitative research and finds that "women face significant hurdles in this region, where there is not only increasing poverty and few women represented in central and local authorities, but a revival of numerous patriarchal traditions and continued dominance of men controlling major economic resources."²⁷ The report concludes with a set of recommendations for national and regional response.
- The Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism (CEWARN) is an initiative of the seven-member Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), promoting peace and security in the Horn of Africa. A protocol²⁸ establishes the range of areas on which CEWARN can collect information, including conflicts over grazing and water points, smuggling and illegal trade, and forced migration. Specific indicators²⁹ have been elaborated to monitor emerging conflicts; some include a gender perspective³⁰.
- Ushahidi³¹ is software allowing organizations to establish EWS using basic information technology. The software allows anyone to report incidents via SMS or the Internet and to receive information by the same means. It offers a wide variety of ways to integrate gender, including by ensuring that both women and men are aware of the systems launched using Ushahidi and know how to use them.



4. Gender in Early Warning Systems

Longstanding discriminatory practices can bar women from being included in decision-making structures throughout the conflict cycle and in shaping important response mechanisms. As a result, women's contributions to informing, planning and benefiting from such efforts as EWS are missed.



Women as actors in EWS

For an EWS to integrate gender there must also be a gender balance among those that plan the EWS, collect the data and formulate the responses.

Women as informants: Conflict-response mechanisms still have a distance to go in developing and applying a broadened understanding of security that does not limit it to military matters or ignore human rights and women's rights. Such thinking has also defined what constitutes security information and who provides it. This has often restricted women from reporting such information, especially women who live in remote areas. Yet the perspectives of women are invaluable — not only because without them monitors will not capture the entire picture of the situation, but also because women are often socialized differently than men, and thus may experience conflict very differently. As a consequence, women tend to ask different questions and focus on different aspects of the conflict cycle and, therefore, can provide different and enriching perspectives to early warning and conflict prevention. Men's and women's contributions complement each other.

Women as rights-holders: Social inequalities existing in pre-conflict society are typically exacerbated in times of conflict; those between men and women are no exception. Not being included in EWS can further exacerbate these inequalities as responses are developed without actually considering the different needs of men and women. The influence of existing gender-based power relations on women's situation during conflict and on the level of women's enjoyment of their human rights needs to be recognized. As stated earlier, men and women experience security differently and their needs for feeling safe are different. Location is one key factor; women experience insecurity in different places than men. Knowing and understanding these differences and patterns of discrimination is important when elaborating a response to EWS data in order to be sure that the response does not inadvertently reinforce existing inequalities and that it reaches all rights-holders equally. This makes it more effective and can potentially address underlying root causes of the conflict that would otherwise not be dealt with.

Discrimination: Social, cultural, economic and political factors have generated discrimination against women; by paying attention to these, it is possible to better understand how women suffer disproportionately from some human rights violations and how to respond better. Some of the benefits from gaining such an understanding include the abilities to:

- Elicit different (and new) questions about the causes of conflict and its effects on a broader spectrum of society;

- Draw attention to traditionally vulnerable groups who are often targeted early in the conflict cycle, before the spread of violence³²; and
- Allow practitioners to reflect on the different ways in which conflict escalation and violence affect different members (men and women) of a community.

Reporting on women’s rights: In the development and implementation of EWS, policy-makers and practitioners generally have not given recognition to the structural or conflict-specific, gender-based differences between women’s and men’s situations, perceptions of threats and vulnerabilities, and experiences. Unequal gender hierarchies, women’s compromised situations, inequality and oppression are all characteristics of societies that may be prone to or are already involved in conflict.³³ Gender-neutral analysis or reporting on human rights violations are not always able to adequately illustrate the different impact of violence on men and women. Because threats that are regarded not as public but as private matters (including sexual violence and domestic violence) are often perceived and treated as non-political matters,³⁴ there is a risk that EWS reporting disproportionately highlights security threats that affect men. Gender analysis in EWS, however, can raise factors related to the violations of women’s rights that cause conflict or are direct results thereof. The lower status that most women generally hold relative to most men may cause them to be among the first to experience the weakening of security levels. Thus, their experiences can potentially serve as foreshadowing of more widespread armed conflict. An important step towards addressing this was made in September 2009 when the UN Security Council passed Resolution 1888 on Women, peace and security. It calls for more detailed and systematic reporting to detect trends on sexual violence against women in conflict. It is worth reiterating that monitoring should encompass economic, social and cultural rights (ESC), as well as civil and political rights.

Structural factors: Monitoring ESC rights provides important insight into existing structural factors for discrimination. Yet the link between such violations and gender is still often ignored in the context of conflict prevention; not making this link can perpetuate stereotypes and potentially increase risks facing women in conflict. When states move to limit the equal rights of men and women to the enjoyment of ESC rights, exacerbating the discrimination women might already be facing, this can serve as an important factor to indicate increased instability. It is therefore essential that a broad range of indicators, which also cover ESC rights, are developed as a part of the EWS. In addition, a more balanced team has a greater chance of ensuring that a more diverse set of indicators is developed to monitor and address rights violations.

Women’s human rights that are affected throughout the conflict cycle — prior to the outbreak, during the actual conflict and in the time following — can include the following manifestations of violations. (The chart below includes a selection of relevant references):

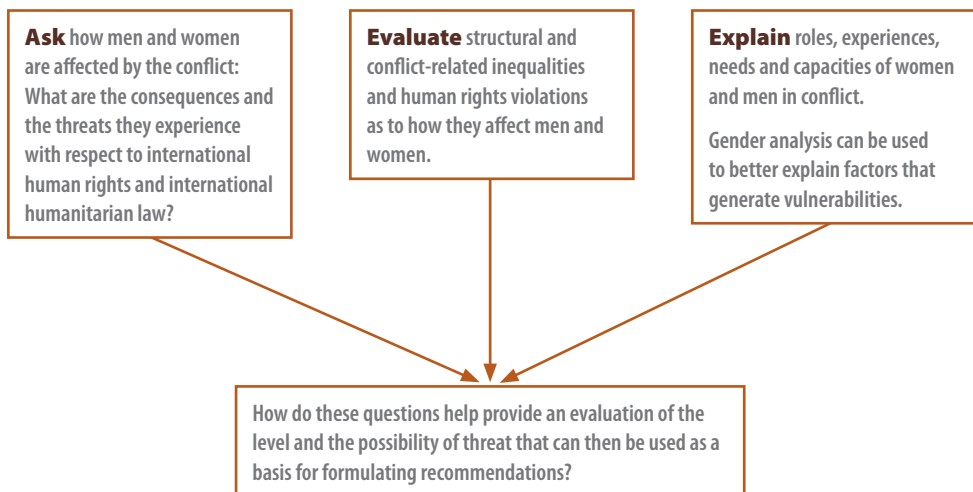


Manifestation	Reference
<p>Limitation or loss of right to life, liberty and security</p> <p>Deliberate and indiscriminate attacks on civilians</p> <p>Gender-based violence</p> <p>Cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR Art. 3, 5, 12 • Geneva Convention, Additional Protocol I, Art. 57, 58 • ICCPR Art. 6 (life), 17 • ECHR Art. 8 • UNSCR 1325, para. 10, UNSCR 1820, UNSCR 1888 on Women and peace and security • OSCE Vienna Document 1989 • OSCE Paris Document 1990 • OSCE Budapest Document 1994; Decision VIII • OSCE Ljubljana Document 2005 Decision 15/05 • OSCE Brussels Document Decision 14/06
<p>Exclusion from decision making and political participation</p> <p>Gender-based discrimination</p> <p>Loss of access to participation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ECHR Art. 14 • ICCPR Art. 3, 26 • CEDAW Art. 2, 15 • UDHR Art. 1, 2, 6, 7, 21 • UNSCR 1325, para. 1, 2, 4, 15 • Preamble to UN Charter • OSCE Madrid Document 1983; Principles • OSCE Vienna Document 1989; Principles • OSCE Ljubljana Document 2005, MC Decision 14/05 • OSCE Sofia Document, MC Decision 14/04
<p>Restriction of human development</p> <p>Limitation or loss of right to health (medical, psychological, sexual)</p> <p>Loss of access to livelihood</p> <p>Loss of access to social services and social protection</p> <p>Loss of access to income-generating activities</p> <p>Loss of access to information</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR Art. 23, 25 • CRSR Art. 17, 23 • ICESCR Art. 6 (work/gain a living), 9 (social security), 11 (standard of living), 12 (physical and mental health) • UNSCR 1325, para. 8, 9 • OSCE Vienna 1989 • OSCE Bonn 1990 • OSCE Paris 1990 • OSCE Istanbul 1999; Par. 5
<p>Loss of freedom in social/sexual life (not being allowed to choose one's partner, forced marriage)</p> <p>Damage to reproductive health</p> <p>Limitation or loss of right to privacy and family</p> <p>Forced prostitution</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR Art. 12, 16 • ICESCR Art. 10 • ICCPR Art.15 • OSCE Madrid 1983 • OSCE Brussels Document 2006 Decision14/06
<p>Limitation or loss of right to property</p> <p>Forced evictions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR Art. 17 • ECHR Protocol 1, Art. 1 • CRSR Art. 21 • OSCE Bonn 1990 • OSCE Copenhagen 1990, para. 9.6 • OSCE Paris 1990
<p>Absence of access to fair trials</p> <p>Impunity for gender-based violence</p> <p>Absence of legal redress, compensation</p> <p>Lack of reparation for women victims</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ICCPR Art. 3, 14 • UDHR Art. 8, 10 • Rome Statute, Art. 21(3) • Rome Statute Art. 7(1)(g) • CRSR Art. 16 • UNSCR 1325, Par. 11 • OSCE Vienna 1989; para. 13.9 • OSCE Copenhagen 1990 • OSCE Ljubljana 2005; Decision 15/05 • OSCE Helsinki 2008; Decision 7/08

Restriction of freedom of movement Forced displacement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UDHR Art. 13 • CRSR Art. 26 • ICCPR Art. 12 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OSCE Helsinki Document 1975 • OSCE Vienna Document 1989, para. 20 • OSCE Helsinki Document 1992, para. 40
Slavery Unwarranted detention Compulsory labour Forced recruitment into armed groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ICCPR Art. 8 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OSCE Vienna Document 1989, para. 23.1 • OSCE Moscow Document 1991, para. 23.1 • OSCE Porto Document 2002 • OSCE Maastricht 2003 • OSCE Brussels Document 2005 Decision14/06
<p>International:</p> <p>UDHR – Universal Declaration of Human Rights CRSR – Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees ICESC – International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights ICCPR – International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights CEDAW – Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 on Women, Peace and Security</p> <p>OSCE:</p> <p>OSCE Helsinki Document 1975: Co-operation in Humanitarian and Other Fields OSCE Madrid Document 1983: Questions relating to Security in Europe OSCE Vienna Document 1989: Questions relating to Security in Europe OSCE Vienna Document 1989: Co-operation in Humanitarian and Other Fields OSCE Copenhagen Document 1990</p>	<p>OSCE Paris Document 1990: A New Era of Democracy, Peace and Unity OSCE Moscow Document 1991 OSCE Helsinki Document 1992 Decisions VI: The Human Dimension OSCE Istanbul 1999: Charter for European Security II: Our common challenges OSCE Porto 2002: Declaration on Trafficking in Human Beings OSCE Maastricht 2003: Decision on Trafficking in Human Beings OSCE MC Decision 14/04 – Sofia Ministerial Decision No. 14/04 2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality OSCE MC Decision 14/05 – Ljubljana Ministerial Decision No. 14/05 on Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-conflict Rehabilitation OSCE MC Decision 15/05 – Ljubljana Ministerial Council Decision No. 15/05 on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women OSCE MC Decision 14/06 – Brussels Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/06: Enhancing Efforts to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings, including for Labour Exploitation, through a Comprehensive and Proactive Approach OSCE MS Decision 7/08 – Helsinki Ministerial Council Decision No. 7/08 Further Strengthening the Rule of Law in the OSCE Area</p>

Steps towards integrating gender in an EWS

Establishing an EWS with a gender perspective requires a well thought out strategy, a properly developed methodology and broad-based participation. ODIHR’s second EWS brief will address in greater detail how to formulate indicators that incorporate gender. Three key concepts — asking, evaluating and explaining — contribute to developing the questions necessary for gathering the data needed for developing an adequate response³⁵.



5. Summary

- All people — men and women — should be considered as rights-holders and, thereby, equal and active participants in developing and implementing an EWS to ensure that their rights are protected throughout the conflict cycle;
- Gender reflects different needs, as well as different perceptions of needs and interests (men and women perceive security differently), and can therefore be useful in EWS to generate a more detailed picture and a more complete response;
- EWS should take into consideration the vast variety of different roles women play in the context of a conflict, including in the political, economical and social spheres;
- Including a gender perspective in EWS means both relying equally on men and women as observers of others' behaviour and ensuring that threats/violations against women figure in reporting;
- A more complete picture of conflict-related risks or perceived risks that a community might face provides a basis for better training for all to recognize such situations and respond in a timely manner;³⁶
- Including a gender perspective in EWS will be more effective for engaging all in preparing for conflict and planning follow-up activities that will reach/impact men and women equally;
- Gender analysis can also help to examine the relationships between men and women to avoid the perpetuation of pre-conflict norms and discriminatory policies based on a misunderstanding of gender roles;
- A systemic integration of a gender perspective in information collection and analysis ensures the inclusion of information about both women's and men's situations, including their respective levels of enjoyment of human rights, access to protection and control over resources;
- EWS ought to continue to consider not only event data (i.e. reporting on single events) but also underlying, structural factors as well; and
- Gender-sensitive EWS can provide valuable, gender-based data/analysis to a broad range of actors engaged in conflict prevention and peace-building to help ensure a broader and more equal impact on the entire population.

Endnotes

1 This brief was drafted by OSCE/ODIHR, with the textual contributions of Dr. Susanne Schmeidl (Australian National University and The Liaison Office, Afghanistan). We would like to express our appreciation to those who reviewed the brief and provided input: Dr. AnnJanette Rosga (Women's International League for Peace and Freedom), Patrick Meier (Tufts University), Kristel Maasen (Independent consultant), Dr. Christine Müller (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit), Alice Ackermann, Erik Falkehed, and Monique Ischi (OSCE Centre for Conflict Prevention).

2 Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/05 on "Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-conflict Rehabilitation", OSCE website, <http://www.osce.org/documents/mcs/2005/12/17432_en.pdf>.

3 Ministerial Council Decision No. 15/05 on "Preventing and Combating Violence against Women", OSCE website, <http://www.osce.si/mc-docs/mc_15_05.pdf>.

4 The combination of two factors seems to be of utmost importance in mitigating conflict. The first factor is the establishment of politically inclusive government that incorporates representatives from all the majority identity groups at the political level. The second factor is the realization of a social system that widely spreads the benefit of progress, providing socioeconomic growth among all the significant regional, religious and ethnic groups in society. In other words, what seems to be required in order to ensure peace... is the combination of politically and economically inclusive government. [Gudrun Østby, "Horizontal Inequalities, Political Environment, and Civil Conflict: Evidence from 55 Developing Countries, 1986-2003" (April 1, 2007). World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 4193. Quoted in: Derek Evans. "Human Rights and State Fragility: Conceptual Foundations and Strategic Directions of State Building", *Journal of Human Rights Practice*, Vol. 1, No. 2, 2009, pp. 181-207. <<http://jhrp.oxfordjournals.org/cgi/content/full/1/2/181>>].

5 Mari Mikkola, "Feminist Perspectives on Sex and Gender", *Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy* website, May 12, 2008. <<http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/feminism-gender/>>.

6 *Ibid.*

7 The latter term was widely used during the political turmoil in Kyrgyzstan in spring 2005, when groups of women were put in the front lines of the protestors. Anara Musabaeva and Anara Moldosheva, "The Ferghana Valley: Current Challenges", 2005, p. 64, UNIFEM website <http://unifem.org/materials/item_detail.php?ProductID=102>.

8 See also Sanam Naraghi Anderlini. "Mainstreaming Gender in Conflict Analysis: Issues and Recommendations", Social Development Papers, Paper No.33, February 2006, World Bank website. <http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/main?menuPK=64187510&pagePK=64193027&piPK=64187937&sitePK=523679&entityID=000090341_20060213143713>.

9 Moser, Annalise. "Monitoring Peace and Conflict in the Solomon Islands: Gendered Early Warning Report No. 1." UNIFEM, August 2005, p. 10., WomenWarpeace website, <http://www.womenwarpeace.org/webfm_send/373>.

10 Moser, Annalise. "Peace and Conflict Gender Analysis: Community-Level Data from the Solomon Islands". UNIFEM: May 2005. WomenWarPeace website, <http://www.womenwarpeace.org/webfm_send/696>. Annex 1 of this report provides a detailed overview of the roles men and women undertook during the conflict and in peacetime, as well as their impact

11 Available at United Nations website, <<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/>>.

12 "Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 1995", United Nations website, <<http://www.un.org/esa/gopher-data/conf/fwcw/off/a--20.en>>.

13 UNSCR 1325 on "Women, peace and security", Women's International League for Peace and Freedom website, <<http://www.peacewomen.org/un/sc/1325.html>>.

14 UNSCR 1820 on "Women, peace and security", U.S. Department of State website, <<http://daccess-ods.un.org/TMP/6293813.html>>.

15 UNSCR 1888 on "Women, peace and security", Cordaid website, <<http://daccess-ods.un.org/TMP/1930876.html>>.

16 OSCE Ministerial Council, Decision No. 14/05, *op. cit.*, note 2.

17 OSCE Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/04, "OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality", OSCE website, <http://www.osce.org/documents/mcs/2004/12/3917_en.pdf>.

18 See Ted Robert Gurr, *Early Warning Systems: From Surveillance to Assessment to Action* (New York: Harper Collins, 1996); "World Disaster Report 2009: Focus on Early Warning, Early Action", International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies website, <<http://earlywarning.wordpress.com/>>

19 See "List of references to the OSCE's mandate in Early Warning in Official OSCE Documents", OSCE website, <http://www.osce.org/documents/sg/2004/11/4055_en.pdf>.

20 This summary is derived from "Fourth-Generation Early Warning Systems" (Updated) Early Warning Wordpress website, <<http://earlywarning.wordpress.com/2009/03/06/fourth-generation-early->



warning-systems>; David Nyheim, *Preventing Violence, War and State Collapse: The Future of Conflict Early Warning and Response* (Paris: OECD, 2009); and "Third Generation Early Warning", *Asian Tribune*, 2 July 2009.

21 Conference report "Early Warning – From concept to action: The Conclusions of the Third International Conference on Early Warning," Secretariat for the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, German Committee for Disaster Reduction, 2006, p. 19, available at <www.ewc3.org/upload/downloads/Early_warning_complete2.pdf>.

22 See U.S. Aid website, <http://www.usaid.gov/locations/latin_america_caribbean/country/program_profiles/colombiaprofile.html>.

23 "Porque el Conflicto Golpea... pero Golpea Distinto" (*Because the Conflict Strikes... but It Strikes Differently*), The Public Defender of Colombia (with the support of UNIFEM Colombia), October 2007, available in Spanish at <<http://terranova.uniandes.edu.co/centrodoc/docs/prevencion/PoliticasyCartilla%20Monitoreo%20Conflicto%20Indicadores%20de%20Genero.pdf>>.

24 See UNDP website, <<http://europeandcis.undp.org/cpr/>>.

25 "Early Warning Report Kosovo: Report No. 17, April-June 2007", USAID, UNDP, Available at <<http://europeandcis.undp.org/cpr/show/FFC3DBF1-F203-1EE9-B1333FECBD195FC1>>.

26 The OSCE is status neutral and thus does not take a stance on the issue of Kosovo independence.

27 Musabaeva and Moldosheva, "The Ferghana Valley: Current Challenges", op. cit., note 5.

28 The protocol is available at <<http://www.cewarn.org/documents/protocol.pdf>>.

29 CEWARN's indicators are available at the CEWARN website, <http://www.cewarn.org/index_files/Page544.htm>.

30 A resource guide and training manual on integrating gender in CEWARN (including generating gender sensitive indicators, gender analysis and conducting gender sensitive responses) is in the process of being drafted by Dr. Susanne Schmeidl and Dekha Ibrahim Abdi.

31 Ushahidi website, <<http://www.usahidi.com/>>.

32 Vulnerable persons can include: victims of gross violations of human rights; ethnic, religious and racial minorities; groups subject to discrimination; indigenous persons; internally displaced persons; refugees; former combatants, including women combatants; children and young persons; non-nationals, including those who have lost nationality through the conflict; persons living in rural areas; elderly persons; sick or wounded persons or persons with disabilities; persons lacking legal documentation, for example property deeds, proof of nationality or legal status; migrants; trafficked persons; and human rights defenders and civil society activists seeking human rights. From Christine Chinkin. "The Protection of Economic, Cultural and Social Rights Post-Conflict." OHCHR, 2008. <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/women/docs/Paper_Protection_ESCR.pdf>.

33 There is empirical evidence that the degree to which women are able to exercise and enjoy their human rights is an indicator for the stability of a society: A high degree corresponds to non-violent conflict resolution, while a low degree goes hand in hand with the strengthened imagery of masculinities and of military forces within a society. Mary Caprioli, "Gendered Conflict." *Journal of Peace Research*, Vol. 37, No. 1, 51-68 (2000).

34 "Women's Rights and Early Warning – Development of Indicators", report from the "Consultative Meeting of Practitioners" organized in Vienna by ODIHR in Vienna, 8 December 2005.

35 This flow-chart was developed on the basis of "Porque el Conflicto Golpea... pero Golpea Distinto", op. cit., note 21, p. 88.

36 "People are more likely to pay attention to warnings if they have been educated about risks in advance and know what actions to take," from "World Disaster Report 2009: Early Warning/Action", op. cit., note 16.

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