Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform

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

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The Gender and SSR Toolkit
This Tool on "Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform" is part of a *Gender & SSR Toolkit.* Designed to provide a practical introduction to gender issues for security sector reform practitioners and policy-makers, the Toolkit includes the following 13 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
13. Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform

Annex on International and Regional Laws and Instruments

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.

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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.

UN-INSTRAW
The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (UN-INSTRAW, part of UN Women) is 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

Cover picture: UN Photo, 2009. The Security Council meeting at which the Council unanimously adopted Resolution 1888, reiterating its demand for the immediate and complete cessation of acts of sexual violence in situations of armed conflict.

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ACRONYMS

AU	African Union
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979)
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DCAF	Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
DPKO	UN Department for Peacekeeping Operations
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
ESDP	European Security and Defence Policy
EU	European Union
FSU	Family Support Unit
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
M&E	Monitoring and evaluation
NAP	National Action Plan
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
OSCE/ODIHR	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights
SCR	United Nations Security Council Resolution
SSR	Security Sector Reform
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UN-INSTRAW	United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women

Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform

1 Introduction

"Greater empowerment and more effective protection of women against the specific dangers they face in armed conflicts is of benefit not only to women, but to all of us. It is, to my mind, a crucial component of a comprehensive approach to the security challenges of the 21st century. One decade on from the Security Council's groundbreaking Resolution 1325, I am hopeful and confident that we can take the next steps."

Anders Fogh Rasmussen, NATO Secretary-General [1]

Over the last decade, the United Nations (UN) Security Council has adopted four resolutions on women, peace and security. These resolutions highlight some of the particular impacts of armed conflict on women and girls. They also provide guidance for states, regional organisations, the UN system and other stakeholders to address the needs of women and girls during and after armed conflict, and to promote their empowerment. The resolutions call on states and UN institutions to ensure the full inclusion of women and their needs and perspectives in peace-building, emphasising the prevention of and protection from conflict-related sexual violence.

The four UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security are:

Resolution 1325 of 2000
Resolution 1820 of 2008
Resolution 1888 of 2009
Resolution 1889 of 2009

This tool analyses the implications of the four UN Security Council resolutions (SCRs) on women, peace and security for security sector reform (SSR). It shares experiences and good practices in implementation of the resolutions in national security policy-making, SSR processes and in the military, police and justice sectors. It highlights how international and regional organisations have supported implementation of the resolutions in these areas.

The tool is primarily addressed to:

- Individuals in government agencies and security sector institutions responsible for driving change within the security sector
- Parliamentarians responsible for security sector oversight
- Civil society organisations (CSOs) engaged with the security sector
- Individuals in donor agencies that support SSR
- Those in regional and international organisations and agencies that can lend support to implementation of the women, peace and security resolutions at the national level

This tool is the thirteenth in the *Gender & Security Sector Reform Toolkit*, which was published by DCAF, UN-INSTRAW and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (OSCE/ODIHR) in 2008.

This tool follows closely the actual terms of the women, peace and security resolutions. In engaging with security sector actors, it is useful to be able to point to the exact provisions of the SCRs that require specific actions. As such, the tool does not attempt to encompass all of the supporting actions that are necessary for effective implementation of the SCRs. Other tools in the *Gender & Security Sector Reform Toolkit* contain more broad-ranging discussions of ways in which the 'women, peace and security agenda' are relevant to SSR.

Furthermore, in contrast to the previous twelve, this tool adheres to the text of the SCRs by explicitly referring to women and girls, rather than 'gender'. Thus, it does not address the particular security needs and roles of men, boys or lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender people, nor does it analyse issues of masculinity and violence, although these are important. To understand what is meant by incorporating gender into SSR and how to do it, see the Tool on *Security Sector Reform and Gender* and other parts of the Toolkit.

This tool includes:

- An introduction to SSR
- An overview of the four UN women, peace and security resolutions
- Practical suggestions on how to implement key parts of the four resolutions in or through:
  - SSR policy and national security policies
  - Women's participation in SSR processes
  - Defence reform
  - Police reform
  - Transitional justice and justice sector reform
  - Preparation for deployment to peacekeeping missions
  - Situations of armed conflict
- Key recommendations
- Additional resources

2 What is security sector reform?

2.1 Security sector reform

Security sector reform is a process aimed at ensuring that security and justice providers:

- Deliver effective and efficient security and justice services that meet the people's needs
- Are accountable to the state and its people
- Operate within a framework of democratic governance, without discrimination and with full respect for human rights and the rule of law[2]

There exist different understandings of what the 'security sector' encompasses. The *Gender & SSR Toolkit* adopts a broad view of the security sector as comprising all state institutions and other entities with a role in ensuring the security of the state and its people, including:

- Armed forces
- Law enforcement and intelligence services
- Institutions responsible for border management and customs services
- Justice and penal institutions
- Actors that play a role in managing and overseeing the design and implementation of security, such as ministries, parliaments, ombudspersons, human rights commissions and CSOs

Non-state armed groups, customary or informal authorities and private security services can also be considered part of the security sector.

Although SSR processes occur in developed and developing countries not affected by conflict, they are usually more far-reaching in post-conflict and transitional countries. The SSR approach has proven particularly useful for multidimensional peace and stability operations in addressing a range of security governance challenges within a coherent framework. In this context, SSR is closely linked to activities such as disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR), small arms control and transitional justice.[3]

For further discussion on 'What is SSR?', examples of typical SSR activities and common SSR challenges, see Section 2 of the Tool on *Security Sector Reform and Gender.*

2.2 Why women and girls?

Women, men, girls and boys experience insecurity differently in any given context, and interact with security institutions and processes in different ways. These differences are related to their gender, as a woman, man, girl or boy. As the SSR policy framework has developed, there has been increasing recognition that addressing the gender dimensions of security, including the different needs of women, men, girls and boys, and the full and equal participation of women and men in decision-making, are vital to successful SSR. The UN's ten key principles for SSR state that:

security sector reform must be gender sensitive throughout its planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation phases. It must also include the reform of recruitment processes and improvement in the delivery of security services to address and prevent sexual and gender-based violence.[4]

The comprehensive integration of gender considerations into SSR is necessary to ensure that women, men, boys and girls benefit from the reform. It is critical for ensuring local ownership, effective delivery of security services, and strengthened oversight and accountability. Nevertheless, in many countries SSR policies and programming have failed to involve women and men on an equal basis in decision-making processes and to adequately analyse gender dynamics in understanding security needs, roles and priorities. In such cases, security institutions are all too often rife with discrimination, harassment and human rights violations, and are unable to provide security and justice for all members of the community.

As the four SCRs focus on women and girls rather than gender, so will this tool. It is important to keep in mind that "women and girls" do not form a homogeneous group: the gender dimension is closely intertwined with other social dimensions such as age, ethnicity, religion and sexual orientation, which impact upon an individual's experience of security.

Other Tools in the *Gender & SSR Toolkit* provide a wealth of tips and examples for integrating gender into SSR processes, aimed at specific components of the security sector.

3 What are the women, peace and security resolutions?

3.1 Overview

The first UN SCR on women, peace and security, SCR 1325, was unanimously adopted in October 2000. Subsequent resolutions have sought to reinforce specific aspects of SCR 1325, in particular with regard to the prevention of and protection from gender-based violence (GBV), including sexual violence, in conflict and post-conflict situations. CSO activism has been central to the inclusion of women, peace and security in the Security Council's agenda and to the adoption of the resolutions.

UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (SCR 1325) recognises the particular negative impacts that armed conflict has on women and the important contributions women can make to peace, security and reconciliation. SCR 1325 urges increased representation of women in conflict prevention and management. Special attention is given to the need for a gender perspective in the implementation of peace agreements, including support to local women's peace initiatives and respect for the human rights of women and girls in policing and justice; gender-responsive DDR, and gender training for peacekeepers.

UN Security Council Resolution 1820 (SCR 1820) was adopted in June 2008. It demands that states take special measures to protect women and girls from sexual violence in armed conflict, and ensure access to justice and assistance for victims. SCR 1820 emphasises the role of peacekeepers in protecting civilians and urges greater numbers of female peacekeepers. It requests that the UN develop mechanisms in DDR and SSR processes to protect women from violence, in consultation with women and women's organisations.

UN Security Council Resolution 1888 (SCR 1888) was adopted in September 2009 and also focuses on sexual violence in armed conflict. SCR 1888 urges inclusion of sexual violence issues in peace processes, DDR and SSR arrangements, and for justice reform to address impunity and ensure access to justice for survivors. It establishes new mechanisms within the UN to address sexual violence in conflict, including the appointment of a Special Representative of the Secretary General. Women's representation in mediation and decision-making processes and the inclusion of female personnel in UN missions are again emphasised as a priority.

UN Security Council Resolution 1889 (SCR 1889) was adopted in October 2009. SCR 1889 extends the Council's focus on women's participation in peacebuilding, emphasising women's political and economic decision-making. It urges gender mainstreaming in all post-conflict recovery processes; funding and programming for women's empowerment activities; and concrete strategies in law enforcement and justice to meet women and girls' needs and priorities. It calls for DDR processes to address the needs of women associated with armed groups/forces.

3.2 What do the women, peace and security resolutions mean for UN member states?

None of the four women, peace and security resolutions are legally binding for states.[5] Nonetheless, as a non-binding policy framework, the women, peace and security resolutions provide states with an internationally-supported normative agenda promoting the protection of human rights for women and girls in conflict and post-conflict situations, as well as the active participation of women and the integration of a gender perspective in peace processes. Furthermore, the resolutions recall a diversity of obligations for states which *are* binding, including those under the:

- Geneva Conventions of 1949 and Additional Protocols of 1977
- Refugee Convention of 1951 and Protocol of 1967
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) of 1979 and Optional Protocol of 1999
- Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1989 and Optional Protocols of 2000
- Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court.

In addition, the resolutions recall other international humanitarian law and international human rights law obligations, related to acts of genocide, crimes against humanity, and war crimes, including sexual and other violence against women and girls. Thus, despite the non-binding nature of the resolutions they do remind states of their obligations toward the protection and promotion of the human rights of women in armed conflict. In addition, SCRs 1820 and 1888 recognise that sexual violence used in armed conflict can "significantly exacerbate situations of armed conflict and may impede the restoration of international peace and security."

SCR 1325 and 1820 do not contain mechanisms to monitor states' implementation, beyond reporting from the UN Secretary-General and the monthly consideration of sexual violence by the Security Council Expert Group on Protection of Civilians under SCR 1820. SCR 1889 requests that the UN Secretary-General develop a set of global indicators to track implementation of SCR 1325, which could serve as a common basis for reporting not only within the UN, but also within other international and regional organisations and by states (this is discussed further in Section 4.1).

States regularly include information on implementation of SCR 1325 in their reporting to the CEDAW Committee. The CEDAW Committee's "Concluding Observations" have on a number of occasions urged states to take specific steps to implement SCR 1325 and SCR 1820, including development of a national action plan (NAP) for implementation of SCR 1325.[6] Such practice demonstrates that many of the obligations under the women, peace and security resolutions are understood by states and legal experts alike as commensurate with CEDAW obligations.

4 How can the women, peace and security resolutions be implemented in security sector reform?

The four women, peace and security resolutions stress the need for better security sector responses to protect women from violence. When the security sector is undergoing a process of reform or transformation, its institutions can be more receptive to the changes required to achieve this objective. The principles set forth in the resolutions are well within the traditional understanding of democratic SSR as a holistic, integrated, focused, tailored and locally-owned process aimed at creating legitimate and accountable institutions that provide security for all.

This section will examine some of the general entry points for the implementation of the SCRs in an SSR process through gender sensitive security policies and through enhancing the participation of women. It will then discuss implementation in five different contexts, namely defence reform, police reform, transitional justice and justice reform, peacekeeping operations, and during armed conflicts.

4.1 In national and regional security policies and action plans

National security, defence and SSR policies

Where comprehensive SSR is initiated, for example as part of post-conflict peacebuilding, it may be guided by a cross-cutting SSR policy. At other times, reform in particular parts of the security sector will be steered by specific policies (e.g., on police or defence reform). Some countries have embarked upon development of a national-level security policy. For effective implementation of the women, peace and security resolutions, it is necessary that the obligations they set out be reflected in all such policies. The texts of the resolutions speak to both the policy-making process and the substance of policy. For a more detailed discussion see the Tool on *National Security Policymaking and Gender.*

The policy-making process: In terms of process, the SCRs call for the equal and full participation of women in policy-making at all levels and for gender mainstreaming.

> *See: SCR 1325 Art. 1 and 8; SCR 1888 Art. 16; SCR 1889 Art.1 and 8*

Including both men and women in security policy-making is key to developing policies that are comprehensive in their assessment of security threats and in their understanding of security providers. Including women's views in national security policy-making can lead to acknowledgment of women's particular approaches to security. Section 4.2 discusses strategies to promote women's participation in SSR processes, of which policy-making is one aspect.

Gender mainstreaming in policy-making requires assessing the differential impact of the policy and related programmes on women, men, girls and boys at every stage of the programme cycle. Gender mainstreaming can be carried out either through a dedicated gender assessment (see the *Security Sector Reform and Gender Tool*, Box 11) or by integrating gender analysis into the general policy assessment process (see Box 1). Such assessment should take place both during the policy design process and when monitoring and evaluating (M&E) policy implementation.

Good practices and lessons learned:
- Gender-specific language in policies helps to avoid overlooking one gender or conflating the needs of men and women. Ireland's White Paper on Defence (2000), for example, refers to armed forces' personnel as 'men and women.' Using 'gender-neutral language'—such as 'people' instead of men/women—can be appropriate in some contexts, but risks obscuring that some issues are specific to women or men.
- By including statements on non-discrimination, policies can have a positive impact upon the structures and personnel of security sector institutions.

Addressing the particular needs and contributions of women and girls in policy: The SCRs highlight that security policies should include strategies to address the security and justice needs, priorities and empowerment of women and girls.

> *See: SCR 1325 Art. 8; SCR 1889 Art. 9 and 10*

The prevalence of violence against women is one of the most obvious reasons for security policies to identify and address the particular security needs of women and girls. Recognising violence against women in security policy shows that authorities understand that it is not an exclusive concern of women, but also a threat to social stability and an indicator of broader conflict. This recognition might

include developing policies around training, standard operating procedures, monitoring, and the prevention of particular forms of violence against women and girls.

Security policies should not limit themselves to questions of violence, but also consider women and girls' access to justice, treatment within the penal system, involvement in security organisations and informal contributions to security. Security policies have the potential to empower men and women as equals in security sector institutions (see Box 2). They can provide for increased recruitment of women in security sector institutions (see sections 4.3 and 4.4) and in peacekeeping missions (see section 4.6).

Sexual violence issues: The women, peace and security resolutions urge that sexual violence issues be included in SSR arrangements, requiring that they be addressed in SSR policy.

> ### See: SCR 1888 Art. 15 and 17

Identification of sexual violence as a security threat at a policy level is a prerequisite for the development of adequate security capabilities and responses. Likewise, data concerning the prevalence and geographic concentration of sexual violence can guide security assessments.[7]

Good practices:

- South Africa's White Paper on Safety and Security recognises the need for giving special attention to sexual offences.

Box 1	Gender-responsive SSR assessments can be carried out using:

Data disaggregated by sex and age

Assessment teams that include men and women, persons with gender expertise and local female translators

Terms of reference that include attention to gender issues in SSR objectives, products, methodology, etc.

Interviews with both male and female staff of security sector institutions and oversight bodies, as well as with personnel responsible for gender issues

Interviews with women's CSOs and gender experts

Interviews on and surveys of local security needs that include questions related to the specific experiences of women and men

Assessment methods and logistics that are gender-responsive, e.g., focus groups for only women or men or boys or girls

Assessment of the gender-responsiveness of existing security and justice policies

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform, Section 9: Integrating Gender Awareness and Equality,* Paris: 2009, 4.

- In its 1325 NAP, Côte d'Ivoire prioritises the protection of women and girls against sexual violence, including genital mutilation. One of the actions set out is the "establishment of a scientific police department mainly in charge of sexual violence issues."

SCR 1888 recognises that in order to ensure the implementation of national-level policies on sexual violence, initiatives must also involve local, traditional and religious leaders. Consultations at community level enhance local ownership and legitimacy of initiatives against sexual violence, and allow one to work through influential male and female leaders. For instance, the GBV legislation passed in Rwanda in 2008 underwent an extensive process of consultation throughout the country, which both enhanced the legitimacy of the law and acquainted communities with the problem of GBV and opportunities for legal redress.[8]

National action plans for implementation of the women, peace and security resolutions

NAPs are a useful tool to integrate the obligations of SCR 1325 at policy and strategic levels. A NAP spells out the steps that a government is currently taking and those initiatives and activities that it will undertake within a given time frame to meet the obligations of the resolution. NAPs can help increase the comprehensiveness, coordination, awareness, ownership, accountability, and M&E of a government's women, peace and security activities. While SCR 1325 does not explicitly encourage states to develop a NAP, the UN Secretary-General has regularly issued calls for states to adopt one.

At the time of writing, twenty-one countries have developed and published a NAP on implementing SCR 1325: Austria (2007), Belgium (2009), Bosnia Herzegovina (2010), Chile (2009), Côte d'Ivoire (2008), Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (2009), Denmark (2005), Finland (2008), Iceland (2008), Liberia (2009), the Netherlands (2007), Norway (2006), the Philippines (2010), Portugal (2009), Sierra Leone (2010), Rwanda (2009), Spain (2008), Sweden (2006), Switzerland (2007), Uganda (2008), and the United Kingdom (2007). Many other states are in the process of developing a NAP.

All existing 1325 NAPs have different approaches and cover different thematic areas. While they generally address the prevention of GBV and the need for an increased representation of women in decision making, they vary as to whether and how they address such issues as DDR and the inclusion of local women in peace processes.[9] At the same time, donor country plans often differ significantly in strategy and focus from post-conflict country plans.

Six countries (Austria, DRC, Liberia, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden) have explicitly addressed SSR activities in their NAP. The Netherlands' NAP, for example, which aims to institutionalise the role of women in reconstruction, identifies the following SSR activities:

Box 2	Including gender issues in national security policies

South Africa has included gender issues including gender representation, discrimination, a code of conduct for sexual offences and prevention strategies in several of its national security documents (the White Paper on Intelligence 1994, the White Paper on National Defence 1996, the White Paper on Safety and Security 1998).

Policies governing the intelligence service and defence force commit them to attempt to reflect society in their gender and racial composition.

- Admission to and training of more women in all state security institutions
- Facilitation of contacts in the SSR field between security institutions and civil society, as a means of giving women a voice in all activities
- Sharing of experiences, expertise and knowledge between women's and peace organisations and SSR practitioners

The NAPs of DRC and Liberia demonstrate how indicators related to SSR can be elaborated. For example, Liberia's NAP prioritises training and capacity building for security sector institutions as a strategy to protect the rights of women and girls and to strengthen their security. In order to track progress, the NAP establishes indicators, such as:

- Number and quality of community and gender-sensitive training sessions
- Number of women participating in training sessions
- Analysis of evaluation forms from participants in training sessions
- Greater understanding among Liberian National Police personnel of their protective role in communities, evidenced by faster response to incidents involving violations of the rights of women and girls.[10]

See: SCR 1820 Art. 14; SCR 1888 Art. 16; SCR 1889 Art. 1

Regional policy initiatives to implement the women, peace and security resolutions

A number of regional organisations have developed policies to facilitate the implementation of SCR 1325 and to offer guidance to their member states on implementation at the national level.

In 2004, African Union (AU) Heads of State and Governments adopted a *Solemn Declaration* on *Gender Equality in Africa*, agreeing to ensure the full and effective participation and representation of women in peace processes, including the prevention, resolution, management of conflicts and post-conflict reconstruction in Africa, in accordance with SCR 1325. The *Implementation Framework* for the Solemn Declaration sets targets and indicators for achieving this goal. The AU's *Gender Policy* of 2009 retained a strong emphasis on SCR 1325. AU institutions, regional economic communities and AU member states made a broad commitment to: "Integrate gender in policies, programmes and activities on conflicts and peace, by using the frameworks of Resolutions 1325 and 1820 of the UN." The *Gender Policy* sets targets for SCR 1325 implementation.

The European Union (EU) has developed a normative framework for the implementation of the resolutions. In December 2008, the EU Council and the EU Commission adopted a joint document entitled *Comprehensive approach to the EU implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 on women, peace and security*. It provides an overview of the policy and practice frameworks on gender and outlines specific measures or activities in various areas, such as training, exchange of information and best practices, integration in sector activity (DDR, SSR, governance, economic security, health, education, humanitarian aid), cooperation with other actors (including the UN) and monitoring and reporting. The document proposes a three-pronged approach to protect, support and empower women in conflict related situations and in long-term development cooperation, with the aim of achieving gender equality.[11] In addition, the EU Council Secretariat issued an operational paper entitled *Implementation of UNSCR 1325 as reinforced by UNSCR 1820 in the context of ESDP*, which seeks to ensure gender mainstreaming and implementation of SCR 1325 and 1820 in European Security and Defence Policy operations, from planning to follow-up. The document explicitly states that EU engagements in support of SSR should take into account the implementation of SCR 1325 and 1820.

The OSCE based its *Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality* (2004) on SCR 1325 and included elements of the resolution in its *Strategy to Address Threats to Security and Stability in the Twenty-First Century.* It also affirmed its commitment to SCR 1325 in the OSCE Ministerial Council Decision on *Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-Conflict Rehabilitation.*

Following a series of recommendations from its Committee on Women in NATO Forces (now renamed the Committee on Gender Perspectives), the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), in September 2009, published a Directive on *Integrating UNSCR 1325 and Gender Perspectives in the NATO Command Structure Including Measures for Protection During Armed Conflict*. Among other measures, the Directive calls for the creation of the post of gender advisor in all NATO missions and for pre-deployment gender training.

In the Pacific region, implementation of SCR 1325 has been included in the 2005 *Pacific Plan for Strengthening Regional Cooperation and Integration and the Pacific Platform for Action on the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality 2005–2015.*

Monitoring and evaluation of implementation of policy on women, peace and security

Comprehensive M&E of SSR programmes is necessary to determine the progress and impact of the reforms on women, men, girls and boys and to identify lessons learned for subsequent policy implementation. See the Tool on *Security Sector Reform Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender.*

M&E of activities implementing the women, peace and security resolutions, whether through a 1325 NAP or broader policy platforms, is likewise essential. Many studies have pointed out that the implementation of both SCR 1325 and 1820 has to date not benefited from M&E, although measuring performance is key to accountability and full implementation.[12] Challenges have included the absence of baseline data, difficulties in identifying indicators and common targets, and lack of funding.

> *See: SCR 1889 Art. 9 and 17*

Much recent progress has been made in developing indicators for implementation of the women, peace and security resolutions. In April 2010, as requested by SCR 1889, the Secretary-General submitted to the Security Council 26 proposed indicators for UN entities, other international and regional organisations, and states to use in M&E of implementation of SCR 1325 These indicators are organised under the four pillars of prevention, participation, protection, and early relief and recovery. A number of the proposed indicators are closely related to SSR. For example:

- Number and percentage of military manuals, national security policy frameworks, codes of conduct and standard operating procedures/protocols of national security forces that include measures to protect women's and girls' human rights
- Level of women's participation in the justice and security sector
- Number and percentage of female ex-combatants, women and girls associated with armed forces or groups who benefit from DDR programmes.

The Security Council expressed its intention to take action on a comprehensive set of indicators on the occasion of the tenth anniversary of SCR 1325 in October 2010.[13]

In July 2010, the Council of the EU adopted indicators for implementation of SCRs 1325 and 1820, also following the four thematic areas of prevention, participation, protection, relief and recovery. One indicator is the number of SSR projects or programmes "implemented in fragile, conflict or post-conflict countries that significantly contribute to gender equality and women's empowerment or have gender equality as their principal purpose; total amount of this funding and its percentage of co-operation programmes in the respective country."[14] This is potentially a strong tool to ensure accountability in addressing gender issues in EU-supported SSR activities.

A number of more recent NAPs already include indicators and other M&E mechanisms. For example:

- Austria's 1325 NAP identifies indicators, responsibilities and timelines for each of its activities. Indicators include the number of women in security forces involved in international peace operations; codes of conduct; number of UN high-level meetings with women's groups; preparation of statistics; and number of gender experts/advisors in ESDP missions. An inter-ministerial working group is tasked with monitoring the implementation and development of the NAP, consulting with civil society and reporting each year on the status of the NAP to the Council of Ministers and ultimately to the Parliament.
- Uganda's 1325 & 1820 NAP sets out mechanisms for data collection and identifies a data source for each of its strategic objectives. For M&E of training programmes for armed forces, it proposes thorough analysis, the observation of leadership styles and the monitoring of performance after the training.
- In Côte d'Ivoire's 1325 NAP, in addition to a periodic evaluation, each project has an M&E committee and a National Coordinating Committee which report to the government on the status of the NAP.

M&E can be conducted internally by government bodies or by external specialists. In either case, the inclusion of civil society, particularly women's groups, not only provides for more and richer data sources, but also enhances the credibility of the evaluation. The Belgian, Dutch and Liberian NAPs provide for evaluation by a civil society working group.[15]

4.2 Through women's participation in SSR processes

Promoting the equal participation of men and women is a key strategy to integrate gender considerations into SSR and security institutions. The four UN women, peace and security resolutions set out a number of recommendations and guidelines for strengthening women's participation in SSR processes by:

- Increasing the representation and full and equal participation of women in SSR discussions and security decision-making
- Enhancing women's capacity to engage in public decision-making
- Adopting measures to involve women in implementing peace agreements and supporting women's peace initiatives

Increasing representation and participation of women

The democratic right to participate in security decision-making processes—including negotiations, policy-making, oversight, and public consultations—is a key aspect of citizenship, reinforced by numerous national and international laws and treaties. Article

Box 3	The Liberian women's movement

Women's CSOs in Liberia, after being engaged in peace efforts during the 1989–2003 civil wars, have continued their work on reconstruction, reconciliation and promotion of women's rights. Collaboration between the women's movement, activists and government officials has resulted in a shared platform of cooperation, providing opportunities for local security and justice issues to be reflected in Liberia's SSR.

Women's organisations have encouraged the development of a broader view of human security that takes into consideration the increase of GBV. The transformation of the security sector has included establishment of a GBV Crimes Unit within the Ministry of Justice, Women and Children Protection Sections within the Liberian National Police and programmes to increase the number of women in the Liberian National Police.

Liberia's NAP foresees the establishment of a Civil Society Monitoring Observatory, which would include women's groups. The Observatory is tasked with monitoring implementation of the NAP and preparing a shadow report to accompany the Liberian Government's report to the UN Security Council.

7 of CEDAW, for example, requires states parties to ensure equal participation rights for women and men.

Increasing the representation and participation of women in security decision-making is a key concern of the women, peace and security resolutions. SCRs 1325, 1820 and 1888 call for both women's *representation* and *full and equal participation* at decision-making levels in discussions and mechanisms for management and resolution of conflict and post-conflict peacebuilding. Similarly, SCR 1889 calls for measures to improve women's participation in post-conflict planning, peacebuilding and political decision-making—which include SSR processes—and emphasises the importance of supporting and consulting with women's CSOs to identify and meet women's and girls' needs.

See: SCR 1325 Art. 1 and 8; SCR 1820 Art. 12; SCR 1888 Art. 16; SCR 1889 Art. 1, 10 and 11

In national and regional SSR institutions, mechanisms and processes, women's representation and participation can be increased by:
- Including representatives of the ministry of gender/women
- Including representatives of national women's CSO networks and other CSOs (see Box 3)
- Organising consultations with women's groups, including community-based and minority groups. Such consultations must be organised so as to facilitate women's access, for example by first asking women which times and places would be convenient for them, and organising appropriate transport and child care. It may be necessary to work with community leaders to gain their support for consultations with women.

- Seeking input from gender experts
- Including "gender expertise" in the criteria used to identify members of relevant committees

Women should also be included in bodies exercising oversight over the security sector, such as government ministries, relevant parliamentary committees, human rights commissions and ombuds institutions. In the work of parliamentary security and defence committees, in particular, women's representation and participation can be increased by:
- Appointing female parliamentarians – applying quotas, if necessary
- Cooperating with parliamentary women's caucuses in drafting legislation and in monitoring issues related to women, peace and security
- Calling on women community leaders to testify in hearings

Lessons learned include:
- As acknowledged in the SCRs, protection, funding and access to education are necessary preconditions to women's participation in security institutions and processes.
- Civil society groups often require specific training to engage effectively in policy-making processes.
- Women's CSOs become more influential and effective when working in networks. Encouraging collaboration and coalition building among women's organisations can strengthen their capacity to participate.
- Collaboration between women's organisations and strategic male allies has helped mainstream topics traditionally viewed as "women's issues." Rwanda's parliamentary women's caucus sought the assistance of male parliamentarians and community leaders in the drafting of the GBV bill, which led to greater involvement of society at large and greater public support for the legislation.[16]

Enhancing women's capacity to engage in public decision-making

The women, peace and security resolutions call for concrete strategies to enhance women's capacity to engage in public decision-making in post-conflict contexts.

See: SCR 1889 Art. 10 and 11

Strategies for enhancing women's capacity to engage in public decision-making may include:
- Mentoring programmes, which allow women to draw from the experience of senior policymakers or security officials.
- Quotas and/or fast-track promotion programmes. These types of affirmative action policies can be controversial. However, fast-tracking has often been the only available strategy to ensure women's representation at senior levels. Enabling women

to reach senior levels also creates role models for young women, encouraging future participation.

- Capacity building to enable women and women's organisations to participate fully in local, national and regional debates on complex issues related to security.

- Ensuring the inclusion of women, women's organisations and their representatives in public consultations on security matters and other decision-making fora (see Box 4).

- Protection to allow women leaders to move freely and participate in discussions on policy without fear for their security and that of their families.

- Workplace reforms to enable men and women to combine work and political engagement with family life.

- Access to education.

Involving women in implementing peace agreements and supporting women's peace initiatives

The women, peace and security resolutions recognise the importance of women in the implementation of peace agreements, and of local women's peace initiatives. The negotiation and implementation of peace agreements should be inclusive, participatory and legitimate, which can only be achieved with the active and equal involvement of women and men.

> *See: SCR 1325 Art. 8; SCR 1889 Art. 1*

Peace agreements often serve as a framework for SSR in post-conflict contexts. The links between peace and SSR processes call for joint strategies, such as:

- Encouraging mediation teams to seek the input of gender experts: This will help ensure that security agreements (including as regards cessation of hostilities, ceasefire and SSR & DDR) address conflict-related sexual violence and its prevention post-agreement.

- Consulting with peace-building groups in SSR processes: In post-conflict contexts women are very active in formal and informal mediation, conflict resolution and peace-building at the community level. Supporting such initiatives provides new leadership role models for affected communities and strengthens the participation of marginalised members. A further step would be to ensure the participation of these women leaders in formal SSR structures.

- Linking community-based peace initiatives, such as reconciliation mechanisms or other traditional mediation practices, with justice and police reform.

- Drawing upon women's groups' expertise and community links in SSR outreach, DDR programmes, and elsewhere.

Box 4	**Coffee with the Mayor**

The "Coffee with the Mayor" initiative has been underway in Bosnia and Herzegovina since 2001. Each week representatives of the municipality are invited to come to a women's centre in order to answer women's questions and listen to their concerns. In planning the project, special efforts were made to ensure that the meetings would be held at times when women of the community had spare time from their duties.

These meetings enable women to speak freely and directly to politicians and government representatives, holding them to account. They have become so important that the platform is used by politicians themselves, recognising that women are important actors in community and public decision-making.

Source: UNIFEM, *Women Building Peace and Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict-Affected Countries*, 2007, 4.

Good practices:

- Specifying that women should be included in negotiating teams: The disputed results of the December 2007 Presidential elections in Kenya sparked a crisis that claimed more than 1,000 lives and left hundreds of thousands displaced. Under the mediation of former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan, negotiations attempted to find ways to address the crisis, reconcile the communities and prevent future conflict. The AU Panel made a specific request for the negotiating parties to include women in their respective delegations. Subsequently, the two four-person negotiating teams each included one woman. The female negotiators and Kenyan women's organisations played a critical role in proposing solutions for long-standing issues such as constitutional, legal and institutional reform; the root causes of post-election violence; increasing transparency and accountability; and addressing impunity.[18]

- Structuring community participation through women's networks: in Burundi, women's CSOs have strongly advocated for a gender perspective in the design and implementation of the strategic peace-building framework and in related projects funded by the UN Peacebuilding Fund. Women's organisations established a CSO coordinating body, the "Cadre de Coordination et Concertation pour la consolidation de la Paix et la mise en oeuvre de la Resolution 1325" (Cadre). The Cadre's representative in the joint Steering Committee of the Peacebuilding Fund advocated and provided technical advice for the inclusion of a gender perspective in the Peacebuilding Fund's work. The Cadre developed gender-sensitive indicators for each project and set up local women's groups across the country to monitor how the Peacebuilding Fund projects are carried out and their impact at local level.[19]

4.3 In defence reform

Defence reform entails the transformation of the defence sector of a state so that the institutions:

- Are under civil control
- Abide by the principles of accountability and good governance
- Maintain a force commensurate with their mission
- Have representative composition
- Are trained and equipped to suit their strategic environment
- Abide by international law and thus contribute to national and international goals of peace and security

The four women, peace and security resolutions set out a number of specific obligations as well as guidance for defence reform processes in relation to:

- Representation of women at decision-making levels within defence institutions
- Gender-responsive DDR programmes
- Vetting of armed and security services to take into account sexual violence and other violations of international humanitarian and human rights law

Obligations specific to countries deploying military personnel to UN peacekeeping missions are discussed in section 4.6.

Obligations of countries currently involved in armed conflict are discussed in section 4.7.

Increased representation of women at decision-making levels within armed forces

Increased representation of women within armed forces is one aspect of a broader obligation set out in the women, peace and security resolutions to increase women's representation in institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management and resolution of conflict:

See: SCR 1325 Art. 1

Other relevant institutions and mechanisms where women's representation should be increased include ministries of defence, parliamentary and executive committees concerned with defence matters, regional and international defence alliances and peacekeeping forces.

Sweden's 1325 NAP notes that the presence of female personnel brings particular benefit to action and strategies supporting SSR in post-conflict countries—such as education, training and judicial reform. The many benefits of increased female participation in armed forces and general strategies for promoting the recruitment, retention and advancement of women are discussed in the Tool on *Defence Reform and Gender.*

SCR 1325's emphasis on "all decision making levels" stresses that women should not only be better represented at lower ranks and in administrative capacities, but also at the highest levels of decision-making. This section will focus on increasing the representation of women at higher decision-making levels.

In many armed forces, there are relatively few women at senior levels. A study conducted on NATO forces in 2000 found that 70% of women remain concentrated in support services.[20] A defence reform process can implement a range of measures to increase the number of women at senior levels within armed forces. These include:

- Ensuring there are no formal barriers to women attaining the highest ranks, such as requirements of types of service from which women are excluded.[21]
- Establishing a Gender or Women's Unit within ministries of defence (see Box 5).
- Establishing institutional mechanisms within the armed forces to support and encourage women's advancement, such as female staff associations, mentoring programmes and women's focal points. For example, the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute convenes an annual symposium on *Women Leading in Defence* demonstrating institutional support for women's advancement.[22]
- Supporting women on active deployment through family-friendly measures and appropriate logistical arrangements, so that they can gain the experience necessary for promotion.
- Ensuring that women are afforded the necessary educational and training opportunities that can qualify them for advancement. The Ugandan 1325 & 1820 NAP requires that training programmes for members of the armed forces provide specific training in leadership and other skills for women.
- Having promotion criteria that take into account the individual skills that women bring to the armed forces.
- Setting targets for women to accede to more senior ranks. Norway's 1325 NAP, for example, sets a goal that: "At least 25 per cent of the students attending military officer training schools will be women."
- Continuously monitoring the proportion of women in senior ranks.

Gender-responsive DDR

DDR is best understood as a tool for short-term stabilization that is *linked to* or *related* to SSR, rather than part of SSR. However, DDR is also considered by many as the first step in the SSR process for countries emerging from conflict.

The women, peace and security resolutions call upon states to ensure that DDR processes address the particular needs of both women and men in a variety of roles:

See: SCR 1325 Art. 13; SCR 1888 Art. 17; SCR 1889 Art. 13

Over the last decade, progress has been made toward this goal. The UN's *Integrated Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration Standards* and the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) Checklist on *Gender-aware Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration* are important reference tools for planning DDR programmes in a gender-sensitive manner.

Lessons learned regarding the planning, disarmament and demobilisation phases include:[23]

- Peace agreements must recognise the different ways that women and girls are associated with armed groups and consider such persons as equal beneficiaries of DDR programmes along with female and male ex-combatants.

- The needs of female dependents must also be addressed.

- There is a need to include women at all levels and phases of DDR processes, requiring the adoption of a participatory model for needs assessment.

- Sex-disaggregated data must be collected and used to develop a clear picture of all ex-combatants, dependents and others associated with armed groups.

- While gender experts should be involved in all phases of DDR programming, all DDR staff should receive training on gender issues so that they are also able to plan, implement and evaluate such programmes in a gender-responsive manner.

- Having female staff to screen women at demobilisation sites makes the process more accessible and acceptable to women.

- If DDR camps are not designed to be gender responsive—for example by having separate living quarters for men and women—and adequately policed by gender-trained personnel, they can become sites of sexual violence.

- Even when women and girls are included in DDR on paper, experience from the DDR programmes in Liberia and Sierra Leone suggests that they may fail to enrol for various gender-related reasons. These include fear for their safety owing to the presence of large numbers of male ex-combatants at encampment sites, or for the social stigma attached to women associated with armed groups. DDR programmes need to address women's concerns and communicate with female combatants and supporters directly. Women's organisations can be important partners in encouraging women to participate.

- Supporting the formation of women's groups and networks promotes women's empowerment and organisation, and creates space for women undergoing DDR to share their experiences.

- DDR programmes should include vetting mechanisms (discussed below) to prevent impunity for serious human rights violations.

- Qualitative and quantitative indicators should be used to measure the impact of DDR programmes and assessments should be carried out in the long-term.

Lessons learned concerning reintegration include:[24]

- Female combatants often need support in socio-economic reintegration, as they are often stigmatized for their "counter-cultural" behaviour. Similarly, the provision of services that address emotional trauma and reproductive health are vital. Unfortunately, reintegration components of DDR programmes often lack resources to provide adequate support, other

| Box 5 | **Spain's Observatory of Women in the Armed Forces** |

The Spanish Armed Forces first allowed the limited participation of women in the military in 1988. Since then, its personnel policy has evolved to the point that there are no longer any restrictions on the rank, work or unit that women can qualify for.

In 2005, the Ministry of Defence created the Observatory of Women in the Armed Forces, a Ministry office tasked with facilitating the integration of women in the armed forces. The Observatory provides technical support to the Ministry and military personnel through:

- Review of draft regulations and legislation to assess and report on the gender impact of the measures
- Proactive information campaigns among the military and the general public to change perceptions of the roles of women in the armed forces
- Responding to information requests from women in the armed forces and their commanding officers on matters related to human resources policies (e.g., female soldiers' rights in case of pregnancy)

The Observatory is outside the chain of command and does not replace regular grievance and reporting procedures; however, it ensures that women in the military are aware of those procedures.

The success of the Observatory can be attributed to the following:

- It is not, nor is it perceived to be, an advocate or representative of women in the military (an ombudsoffice now exists for male and female soldiers). In its service provider function, the Observatory gives impartial counselling, advice and referral to anyone in the military who may need clarification of the legislation governing the integration of women in the armed forces.
- Its work providing gender impact analysis to the Ministry gives the Observatory credibility within the Ministry.
- Through its consultations with women in the military, it offers a detailed understanding of women in the military and their concerns.

Source: Ministry of Defence, Gender Equality Observatory. http://www.mde.es/en/areasTematicas/observatorio/index.html?__locale=en

than generic livelihood packages. Reintegration and rehabilitation strategies often recognise the special needs of women and girls associated with armed forces and groups but give no indication of ways to respond to these needs.

- In the transition from DDR to SSR programmes, women are rarely offered opportunities to join the new security forces.

- Women's organisations can be effective partners. In a 2004 study of reintegrated former combatants in Sierra Leone, 55% of the respondents indicated that women in the community played a significant role in helping them reintegrate, compared to 20% who were helped by traditional leaders and 32% by international aid workers.

The return of ex-combatants to civilian communities has often resulted in increased levels of violence, including sexual violence. Reintegration programmes need to incorporate psychological debriefings, rehabilitation and follow-up to facilitate community acceptance and reduce the risk of GBV. Providing economic alternatives for ex-combatants is important in contexts where fighters are considered an elite. Otherwise, there is a high propensity for them to take up arms again to secure a living, and conduct such as looting is often accompanied by sexual violence. Measures to reduce the proliferation of small arms and light weapons in communities also help to curb sexual violence. DDR programmes and transitional security arrangements should be coordinated with community security initiatives that protect civilians within host communities from the threat of sexual violence.[25]

Vetting of armed and security services

Vetting is generally defined as assessing the background and integrity of individuals to determine their suitability for public employment. It entails a formal process for the identification and removal of individuals suspected of human rights violations or war crimes, especially from security sector and other governmental institutions.

The women, peace and security resolutions address vetting both by parties to armed conflict and after peace processes:

> *See: SCR 1820 Art. 3; SCR 1888 Art. 3 and 17*

Vetting for crimes of sexual violence and other violations of international humanitarian and human rights law is important for a number of reasons: to protect civilians as well as members of the security services from those who might use their authority to commit abuses; to ensure that security services gain the trust of the population; and to address impunity for sexual violence and other abuses. In a post-conflict or post-authoritarian context where not all who have committed serious crimes will be prosecuted, ensuring that they are excluded from public service provides some sanction.[26]

In DRC, Congolese women's non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and international observers alike have decried the lack of an effective and fair vetting process. The integration of irregular and regular forces into the Congolese army, FARDC, was conducted without proper vetting. Individuals alleged to have been involved in sexual violence and other serious crimes (including rape, gang rape, sexual enslavement and forced recruitment of girls and women) remained in positions of authority, and in some cases were promoted. The resulting "institutionalisation of impunity" may have contributed to the high levels of sexual violence attendant to the conflict in DRC.[27]

In contrast, in Liberia the UN designed a vetting programme to assess the qualifications and performance of the Liberian National Police and other security sector forces. In its first two years, this "de-activation" programme resulted in the dismissal of 2,150 police personnel. Although not perfect, the vetting programme has been praised as purging the police of its most corrupt and brutal elements.[28]

When designing a vetting programme for sexual violence and other violations of international humanitarian and human rights law:

- International standards require that vetting processes be based on individual conduct rather than membership of a group or institution. The vetting should be fair and respectful of due process, including the right to appeal. The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights' *Rule-of-Law Tools for Post-Conflict States, Vetting: an Operational Framework* is a useful tool in this regard.

- The process should be transparent, providing information openly to the public and allowing the public to provide information and feedback. Since women often have higher rates of illiteracy and less access to mass media, information campaigns should use alternative methods—including at the community level—to ensure that women are informed.

- Women's community organisations can be useful sources of information as they may have intimate knowledge of individual community members.

- The programme should ensure the confidentiality and protection of anyone who comes forward with allegations of abuse. Protection of the identity of informants, particularly with regard to sexual violence, is critical to the success of vetting processes. In several cases, perpetrators were not 'vetted' due to fears of retaliation and weak witness protection mechanisms.[29] An important component of confidentiality is the secure storage and handling of information. Programmes and institutions that deal with victims of sexual violence can facilitate access to and the exchange of information regarding perpetrators of GBV.

- Provide referrals to support and medical services for victims of sexual violence and other abuses.

- Independent observers should monitor the vetting process.

- Link the vetting process to transitional justice processes, if they exist, such as truth-seeking and reparations programmes.
- Vetting is only one aspect of institutional reform and an effective and legitimate reform strategy will place vetting in its broader context. Other aspects include the development of internal accountability mechanisms, external oversight, and training on gender and human rights issues.

Donors could play an important role in ensuring that foreign security forces implement effective vetting for sexual violence and other transgressions. Such measures could be included in donor country 1325/1820 NAPs. The US Congress, for example, prohibits funding of training or equipment for foreign security forces if the Department of State has credible information that those forces have committed gross violations of human rights. This prohibition requires Department of State and Department of Defence officials to vet the proposed recipient units against a database of credible reports of human rights violations.[30] Security forces in countries experiencing or emerging from armed conflict that fail to vet their members for sexual violence and other violations of international humanitarian and human rights laws should not receive international support.

4.4 In police reform

Police reform is the transformation or change of a police organisation into a professional and accountable police service, practicing a style of policing that is responsive to the needs of local communities and consistent with democratic norms and sound principles of good governance.[31]   Examples of police reform include:

- Redefining mandates and operational procedures for police
- De-militarisation of police forces
- Providing training and skills development for rank and file officers
- Establishment of accountability mechanisms

The four women, peace and security resolutions set out a number of specific obligations as well as guidelines for police reform processes in relation to:

- Gender-responsive law enforcement, including protection of and respect for the human rights of women and girls
- Providing assistance for victims of sexual violence
- Prosecution of those responsible for violence committed against women and girls in armed conflicts, genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes
- Increased representation of women at decision-making levels within police institutions
- Vetting, as discussed in section 4.3

Further obligations of countries deploying police personnel to UN peacekeeping are discussed in section 4.6.

Gender-responsive law enforcement

The UN's group of independent experts on the impact of armed conflict on women observed that during armed conflict "violence against women comes to be an accepted norm."[32] Sexual and domestic violence continue and increase in the post-conflict period, fuelled by the availability of weapons, trauma among male family members and the lack of jobs, shelter and basic services.[33] Lack of livelihood opportunities and the post-conflict influx of mostly male international personnel make women and girls particularly vulnerable to sexual exploitation and to human trafficking. In some post-conflict contexts, honour killings are a significant problem.

Recognising the challenges to women's security in post-conflict contexts, the women, peace and security resolutions emphasise that policing must be gender-responsive and must include measures to promote the human rights of women and girls.

See: SCR 1325 Art. 8; SCR 1889 Art. 10

Gender-responsive policing is discussed in the Tool on *Police Reform and Gender.* Steps to meet the obligations set out in the resolutions will usually involve change in four areas:[34]

Mandate
- GBV should be effectively criminalized and women's human rights protected by law.
- Police should be specifically mandated and equipped to protect vulnerable communities, such as internally displaced persons and refugees and ethnic or sexual minorities from GBV.

Operating practices, incentive systems and performance measures
- Police must understand the nature, extent and seriousness of crimes perpetrated against women and must take seriously their role in prevention, protection and investigation. Gender considerations should be included in basic training, alongside measures to promote a human-rights culture within the police force.
- There should be in-depth, skill-building training on policing crimes such as human trafficking, domestic violence and sexual assault (see Box 6).
- Protocols should guide responses to gender-based crimes. For example, a good practice in responding to GBV includes: mandatory arrest of perpetrators upon reasonable suspicion (instead of giving police discretion to persuade a woman to return to a violent partner), mandatory reporting to a higher officer, and referral to medical and support services for victims.[35]

Box 6	Training tips

- Women's groups have been involved in training the police on gender issues in a number of conflict-affected countries. This serves both to bring specific expertise to police training and to help build trust between the community and the police.
- Training can target female police officers. In 2008, a two-week training course took place for 32 female police officers from the Herat and Badghis districts in Afghanistan. The training focused on legal issues, such as code of conduct, use of force, and human rights, as well as tactical and technical issues, such as house searches, use of handcuffs, first aid and self-defence. (*EUROPOL-Serving Afghanistan, Online Bi-weekly Newsletter*, 22 December 2008, 2–3. http://www.eupol-afg.eu/pdf/4.pdf)
- When training is provided by outside agencies, it is essential that trainees are permitted and supported to use their new skills. The UN Stabilization Force in Haiti trained qualified female Haitian police officers on issues specific to GBV. Following their training, however, these women were given administrative tasks instead of investigating crimes of sexual violence and putting in practice the skills they had learned. They had no contact with the victims. (Pearson Peacekeeping Centre, *Roundtable Report: UNSCR 1820: A Roundtable Discussion with Female UN Police Officers Deployed in Peacekeeping Operations*, 2009, 4)

- Specialised units such as Women's Police Stations and Family Support Units can improve responses to violence against women and children, as in Afghanistan, DRC, Liberia, Nicaragua, Sierra Leone (see Box 7), Rwanda and Timor Leste. These units are often staffed exclusively by female police personnel or women and men specially trained to deal with victims of sexual crimes and to build effective investigations. There is overwhelming evidence—including from DRC, India and Sierra Leone—that female victims of sexual violence are more likely to report to a female police officer or to a women's police station than to a male officer at a regular police station.[36]

- Incentives should reward gender-responsive policing and sanction systems should penalise non-compliance with gender equality mandates. Incentives must be provided to encourage police personnel to work in dedicated gender units, including promotions, visibility, public approval and psychosocial support. In Liberia, the Women and Child Protection Unit has acquired prestige as an elite task force within the police, in part because donor support has ensured that these police units are better equipped than some other units.[37]

- Performance measures should record and reward staff commitment to gender equality principles.

Staff composition

- Increasing female recruitment in the police force is an essential step toward the provision of services for both women and men in the community.

Accountability systems

- Women's civil society groups should be engaged in mechanisms for civilian oversight of security services (e.g., police review boards, national human rights commissions, community-police liaison committees).
- Strong disciplinary mechanisms should exist for GBV or discrimination committed by police toward community members or fellow officers.

Assistance to and protection of victims of sexual violence

In many countries, victims of sexual violence find police unwilling to investigate and prosecute. Police may not regard sexual violence as a priority concern compared to other forms of violence, or may consider sexual violence in a family or community context as a domestic matter to be privately "resolved" between the parties. Often, there are no female police officers to attend to a female victim, which can effectively prevent women from filing a complaint. At times, victims of sexual violence are at risk of mistreatment,

Box 7	Sierra Leone's Family Support Units

The Sierra Leone Police established Family Support Units (FSU) in 2001. Located in the main police stations across the country, the FSUs are staffed by specially trained male and female officers dedicated to working with victims of rape, sexual abuse, domestic violence and trafficking. The FSUs have established referral services for free medical care and legal assistance and also engage in extensive public awareness-raising efforts, especially on the topics of sexual violence, domestic violence, HIV/AIDS, trafficking and female genital mutilation.

In the past, women rarely reported such crimes to the police. The FSUs, however, have been effective in enabling women to report cases of GBV. In 2003, FSUs received and investigated 3,121 reports of sexual and physical violence, a significant increase over reporting in previous years. This rise in the number of reported cases is seen as a result of increased public awareness and public confidence in the FSUs. Furthermore, a UNICEF assessment of the FSUs found that the stigma associated with sexual exploitation and abuse has diminished, and people are more aware of the support services available.

Source: UNIFEM, Women Building Peace and Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict-Affected Contexts, October 2007, 11.

discrimination or even further sexual abuse at the hands of the police. Where an investigation does occur, victims often experience various invasions of privacy and attacks upon their dignity, including the requirement to "prove" that they resisted the attack or to describe their clothing or demeanour, which shifts the blame to the victim.[38]

SCRs 1820 and 1888 emphasise the importance of responses to sexual violence in armed conflict and post-conflict situations. This includes a number of dimensions pertinent to policing: the provision of assistance to victims of sexual violence, their access to justice, and their protection and treatment with dignity throughout the justice process.

See: SCR 1820 Art. 4 and 13; SCR 1888 Art. 6 and 13

Measures to meet these obligations include those outlined as "gender-responsive law enforcement," such as implementing specialised training, setting up specialised response units and developing referral systems. Dedicated resources should be allocated to sexual violence protection and response. Specifically:

- Dedicated police units specialised in sexual violence (see Box 8).

- Strategic plans for the investigation of crimes of sexual violence and the provision of equipment and vehicles for that specific purpose.

- Guidelines detailing responses to complaints of sexual violence. Responses should ensure victim assistance through referral to psychosocial and medical services, safe housing, free legal assistance and other relevant measures.

- Protection of victims' safety and confidentiality, so they can file a complaint without fear of retaliation. The physical infrastructure of police stations is important in ensuring this, as well as in protecting victims' dignity. For example: toll-free telephone hotlines for rape crisis; dedicated vehicles servicing the gender units; ambulances; separate medical examination rooms and private spaces for interviews.[39]

- Investigative techniques and reporting forms and questionnaires must not degrade women (such as by "virginity testing") or intrude unduly into their lives. Sexual assault kits should always be available.[40]

Prosecution of those responsible for crimes against women and girls in armed conflicts

Addressing impunity for crimes committed against women and girls in armed conflict is a key concern of the women, peace and security resolutions.

See: SCR 1325 Art. 11; SCR 1820 Art. 4; SCR 1889 Art.3

Police capacity to undertake investigations into violence against women and girls in armed conflicts is often neglected. In the former Yugoslavia, for example, where prosecutions for genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes are being undertaken, police forces are ill-equipped to support these complex investigations. According to lawyers, prosecutors and judges, police investigators have little or no understanding of the relevant law and its requirements, and at times are lacking even basic investigative skills.[41]

Police responsible for investigating violence committed against women and girls in armed conflicts, genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes need training in:

- Basic understanding of international criminal and humanitarian law as applied to their context

- Techniques for appropriately questioning traumatised witnesses and victims (see Box 9)

- Investigative techniques and technology (DNA, forensics, crime-scene analysis, interviewing and exhumations)

- Techniques for investigating cold cases

- Witness protection, including pre-emptive strategies at the investigation stage that reduce the likelihood of witness intimidation[42]

Box 8 | Services to victims of sexual violence in Timor Leste

In 2001, a Vulnerable Person Unit (VPU) was created within Timor-Leste's national police force to handle and investigate cases of rape, sexual assault, domestic violence and child abuse. The VPU provides an identifiable access point and designated police officers for both victims of GBV and service providers. This, in turn, has fostered positive collaboration and coordination between NGOs and the police, for example, through participation in local workshops and consultation on cases.

A functional network of services for victims of domestic violence, sexual assault and child abuse has now been established. The network includes a Safe Room in the national hospital, facilitation of medical and forensic examination, psychosocial counselling, a shelter and legal assistance. National NGOs are involved in providing many of these services, as well as public education and awareness-building.

Sources: UNFPA, Terms of Reference: International Referral Network Project Coordinator: GBV Sub-Project, 2010, http://ocha-gwapps1.unog.ch/rw/res.nsf/db900SID/OCHA-83Z4LC?OpenDocument; UNFPA, *Gender-Based Violence in Timor-Leste: A Case Study*, 2005. http://www.unfpa.org/women/docs/gbv_timorleste.pdf.

Increased representation of women at decision-making levels within police institutions

Increased representation of women within police institutions is one aspect of a broader obligation set out in the women, peace and security resolutions to increase women's representation in institutions and mechanisms for the prevention, management and resolution of conflict:

See: SCR 1325 Art. 1

The many benefits of increased female participation in police forces and strategies for recruitment and retention of women are discussed in the Tool on *Police Reform and Gender.*

SCR 1325's emphasis on "all decision making levels" highlights that women should not only be better represented at lower ranks and in administrative capacities, but at the highest levels as well. This section will focus on increasing the representation of women at higher decision-making levels.

In most police services, women are disproportionately represented in the lower ranks. A police reform process can implement a range of measures to

Box 9	**Training for practitioners dealing with witnesses and victims of war-related crimes**

The OSCE / ODIHR has formulated a training module on International Criminal and Humanitarian Law for prosecutors, investigators/police, judges and defence counsel dealing with witnesses and victims of war-related crimes.

Participants are taught techniques for appropriately questioning traumatized witnesses and victims, which they then practice in a controlled environment. Specific training topics include:

1. General interviewing approaches and best practices

2. Protection of witnesses:

    a. Assessment of needs for protection

    b. Legal framework

    c. Accessing protective measures (e.g., voice distortion, pseudonyms)

3. Scope of direct examination, cross-examination and redirect, where applicable

4. Types of questions and when to employ them (open, closed, leading)

5. Techniques for questioning eyewitnesses, experts and hostile witnesses

6. Appropriately and effectively questioning traumatized witnesses

7. Witness support and how to access it

8. Recognizing and dealing with secondary trauma

Source: OSCE / ODIHR, *"Supporting the Transition Process: Lessons Learned and Best Practices in Knowledge Transfer"*, September 2009, 57. http://www.osce.org/documents/odihr/2009/09/39685_en.pdf

increase the number of women at senior levels within police services. These include:

- Establishing institutional mechanisms to support women, such as female police associations, mentoring programmes and women's focal points, and encouraging them to lead. The UN Mission in Liberia developed a Gender Policy for the Liberia National Police that includes efforts not just to recruit and train more women officers, but to ensure they are not isolated in the lower ranks. Women are placed in leadership roles in the police hierarchy, and an Association of Women Police Officers has the potential to build a culture of mutual support.[43]

- Ensuring that women are afforded educational and training opportunities that qualify them for advancement. In places where women have unequal access to education—owing to entrenched societal gender biases—additional investment in their training may be required to ensure that their education and experience is equal to that of their male colleagues, and to enable them to meet prerequisites for promotion.[44]

- Enacting family-friendly policies to allow male and female officers to combine career and family duties.

- Addressing discriminatory attitudes within the police service that may be preventing women's advancement. Within the South African Police Service, where women make up 30% of the personnel, women nonetheless report that they struggle for full acceptance as equals by some male managers. The Service has created a programme called "Men for Change" to lead appropriate cultural change throughout the institution.[45]

- Adopting objective promotion criteria that take into account a broader range of skills and qualifications. For example, rewarding problem solving, working with the community and referrals to social services. Military experience is often a criterion for police promotion, but its relevance is arguable and often puts women at a disadvantage.

- Comparing how supervisors rate female officers in relation to male officers, and investigating where women are consistently rated lower to uncover any potential bias or training needs.

- Ensuring promotion panels include a substantial number of women.

- Setting targets for women's participation at higher ranks.

- Continuously monitoring the proportion of women at senior ranks.

4.5 In transitional justice and justice reform

Justice and security are intricately linked. Some institutions conceptualise justice issues separately from SSR.[46] However, criminal justice reform (at a minimum) is commonly considered an aspect of SSR,

and transitional justice understood as an SSR-related activity. The important linkages between justice institutions and other parts of the security sector in post-conflict contexts merit attention to the justice sector in this Tool.

Justice reform includes not only reform of laws but also the development of policies, procedures and mechanisms that allow for the practical implementation of laws and equal access to the justice system. The goals of justice reform include developing:

- Fair and equitable laws to promote and protect human rights and to overcome barriers confronting marginalised and vulnerable groups
- Effective, impartial and accountable judiciaries and prosecution services
- Linkages and cooperation between state and non-state institutions
- Mechanisms for oversight of the justice system
- Adequate judicial administration/infrastructure

The four women, peace and security resolutions set out a number of specific obligations as well as guidelines for justice reform processes in relation to:

- Measures that ensure the protection of and respect for the human rights of women and girls
- Strategies to address women's and girls' needs and priorities, including gender-responsive access to justice
- Prosecution of those responsible for violence committed against women and girls in armed conflicts, genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes
- Measures to address the needs of victims of sexual violence in armed conflict and in post-conflict situations

Measures to protect and respect the human rights of women and girls and to address their needs and priorities

The women, peace and security resolutions call for the implementation of peace agreements to focus on the human rights of women and girls, and encourage the development of concrete strategies to meet women's and girls' needs and priorities, in particular regarding access to justice.

> See: SCR 1325 Art. 8; SCR 1889 Art. 10

Measures to do so include:

- Incorporation of women's groups as key partners in justice reform processes.
- Ratification of international and regional human rights instruments, including CEDAW.
- Constitutional reform to enshrine respect for the human rights of all citizens at the highest levels of the legal system.

- Law reform, to implement international and regional human rights standards, in particular with regards to land ownership, inheritance, GBV and sexual orientation.
- Reform of judicial procedures and practices to ensure that they do not directly or indirectly discriminate against women and girls.
- Conducting a gender-sensitive assessment of the justice sector to identify women's and girls' needs and priorities (see section 4.1 of the Tool on *Justice Reform and Gender* for a checklist). Liberia, for example, undertook a series of assessments from which it developed a National GBV Plan of Action that contains a number of judicial reform measures (see Box 10 of the Tool on *Justice Reform and Gender)*.
- Special measures to deal with GBV cases, including with regards to witness and victim protection.
- Addressing discrimination by judges, prosecutors, other lawyers and court personnel, including through training and other capacity building on subjects such as women's rights and procedures for handling GBV cases. Local and international women's organisations and UN and other international agencies can often offer assistance in training.
- Engagement with traditional leaders and informal and traditional justice mechanisms to ensure that they uphold human rights standards, including women's rights. The engagement should foster communication between traditional leaders and women's organisations.
- Measures to increase women's participation in the justice sector, striving for an equal balance of men and women in all roles at all levels.
- Ongoing monitoring and oversight of how the justice system addresses women's and girls' human rights. In many countries, national human rights institutions such as a Commission for Women/Gender Equality or an Equal Opportunities Ombudsperson perform important watchdog roles.
- Measures to increase public awareness of human rights and of the laws and mechanisms to protect them. In many post-conflict countries, CSOs conduct public information and training campaigns on issues such as domestic violence and forced marriage, some engaging effectively with men as well as women.
- Using paralegals to build women's legal literacy.
- Outreach by courts and judges to women and men in rural areas.
- Legal aid for matters of importance to women, such as land ownership, inheritance and GBV.
- Supporting civil society initiatives for access to justice.

Other measures to ensure the protection of and respect for human rights of women and girls in justice reform are discussed in section 4 of the Tool on *Justice Reform and Gender.*

Box 10	Gender training for prosecutors and judges in Colombia

In 2007 and 2008, Colombia's National Commission for Reparations and Reconciliation sponsored a series of training sessions on gender for prosecutors and judges in charge of the special transitional tribunals dealing with the crimes of demobilized paramilitaries and guerrillas under the 2005 Justice and Peace Law.

Workshops examined the requirements of the law regarding GBV, and brought women's CSOs together with prosecutors and judges to devise strategies to address the challenges of adjudicating sexual abuses that occurred years in the past. Issues addressed included standards of proof, witness protection, psychosocial and other support for survivors. It was the first time that court officers and women's advocates had ever met to discuss these issues.

Prosecution of those responsible for crimes against women and girls in armed conflicts

The women, peace and security resolutions strongly emphasise the responsibility of states to prosecute not only international crimes against women committed during armed conflict (genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes), but all forms of violence committed against women and girls in armed conflicts. This responsibility extends not only to the state wherein the crimes were committed but to other states with jurisdiction.

> *See: SCR 1325 Art. 11; SCR 1820 Art.4;*
> *SCR 1888 Art. 6; SCR 1889 Art. 3*

Prosecution of crimes of violence against women committed during armed conflicts requires political will on the part of the governments concerned. Local CSOs can be important actors in demanding accountability. The international community also has a crucial role to play in pressuring governments to prosecute and to exclude crimes of violence against women from amnesty provisions. The international community should furthermore be proactive in prosecuting individuals for acts of genocide, crimes against humanity or war crimes committed against women where it has jurisdiction. In October 2009, a Canadian court convicted a Rwandan man living in Canada for acts of rape committed during the 1994 genocide.[47]

Effective prosecution of violence against women committed during armed conflicts also requires state capacity in the form of appropriate court, police and prison infrastructure; judicial personnel; investigation skills and resources; record-keeping systems; victim and witness protection; and interpretation and translation services. The international community can support this capacity in many ways (see Box 10).

In many countries emerging from conflict, justice reform will include the establishment of transitional justice mechanisms to address legacies of widespread or systematic human rights abuses during the conflict. Transitional justice is discussed in section 5.1 of the Tool on *Justice Reform and Gender.* Where a transitional mechanism is established, its mandate should explicitly refer to addressing violence against women.

Measures to ensure that crimes of violence against women committed during conflict are effectively prosecuted, whether through transitional or permanent justice mechanisms, include:

- Defining violence against women in line with international standards in human rights and international criminal law. For example, the Special Court for Sierra Leone included "sexual slavery," "enforced prostitution" and "forced pregnancy" within its definition of sexual violence.

- Designing a specific prosecution strategy for crimes of violence against women committed during the conflict.

- Training for all staff in investigations, interviewing and jurisprudence regarding violence against women.

- Ensuring dedicated investigators and prosecutors for crimes of violence against women, including female investigators.

- Instituting measures to guarantee security, privacy and confidentiality for victims before, during and after trials, such as witness protection and resettlement packages.

Measures to address the needs of victims of sexual violence in conflict

The women, peace and security resolutions list a range of state obligations to victims of sexual violence in conflict: to ensure survivors of sexual violence in conflict have equal protection under the law; have equal access to justice; are treated with dignity throughout the justice process; are protected; receive assistance and receive redress for their suffering. In any justice reform process, space must be created to seek, listen to and respect the views of victims of sexual violence on what, for them, constitutes justice.

> *See: SCR 1820 Art. 4 and 13;*
> *SCR 1888 Art. 6, 13 and 17*

The strategies outlined in the above section on prosecution of those responsible for violence committed against women and girls are a part of meeting these requirements. Other strategies specific to dealing with sexual violence cases include:

- Public campaigns to promote women's human rights and to challenge tolerance of sexual violence (see Box 11).

- Providing care for the well-being, safety and dignity of victims of violence, including through the provision of information and support, and witness preparation.

- Establishing an enabling courtroom environment, wherein victims are treated with sensitivity, respect and care.

- Reaching out to victims of sexual violence, including in rural areas, to offer information on the prosecution process, legal assistance, as well as heath care, counselling, shelter and other support systems, with concern for victims' privacy.

- Establishing specialised courts that offer a more streamlined process, supported by specially trained staff.

- Co-locating court facilities with assistance and support services and legal advice (see section 4.3 of the Tool on *Justice Reform and Gender*).

- Ensuring that rules of evidence and procedure are appropriate in accordance with international standards—for example in relation to inferences of consent to a sexual act and admissibility of evidence of prior or subsequent sexual conduct.

- Ensuring that rules of evidence and procedure, and court facilities and processes take into account a victim's dignity and safety. This might include allowing the victim to testify behind a screen or to have access to private waiting areas.

Prosecution is only one of the justice reform responses called for in the resolutions. Justice for victims of sexual violence may also demand some form of truth-telling process and/or other symbolic measures to acknowledge the wrongs done to them. Truth and reconciliation processes and reparations programmes should include a special focus on sexual violence in their mandate, procedures and reports. Truth and reconciliation commissions should give attention to the support and protection needs of victims of sexual violence when they give testimony. In Sierra Leone, for example, victims of sexual violence were only interviewed by female commissioners and could decide whether they wanted to testify in closed or in public hearings, and whether their statements should be regarded as confidential. Witnesses who appeared during the closed hearings were provided with food, drink and medical assistance, with transport to and from the hearing venues and, where necessary, overnight accommodation. Likewise, reparations programmes should have an explicit focus on victims of sexual violence as a category of beneficiaries. Psychosocial and medical services can be included as a type of reparation. Symbolic reparations may help to address the social stigma to which survivors of sexual violence are subjected, such as their exclusion from the community or abandonment by their spouse.[48]

4.6 In preparation for the deployment of personnel to peacekeeping missions

The women, peace and security resolutions devote particular attention to how states prepare their personnel for deployment to peacekeeping missions. They call upon states to:

- Include gender issues in national pre-deployment training programmes for military and civilian police personnel

- Take steps to prevent sexual exploitation and abuse and ensure accountability for any such conduct that does occur

- Institute measures to deploy more women as peacekeepers

Training of military and civilian police personnel

The resolutions make some specific suggestions regarding issues that should be included in the pre-deployment and in-theatre training of military and civilian police personnel, including:

- The importance of involving women in all peacekeeping and peace-building measures at all levels

- The protection, rights and the particular needs of women

- The protection of civilians, including women and girls

- The UN's zero tolerance of sexual exploitation and abuse

- The prevention of sexual violence against women and girls in conflict and post-conflict situations

- HIV/AIDS awareness

Box 11	Breaking taboos

NGO *Medica Kosova* tries to break the taboo of sexualised violence perpetrated during the war in Kosovo, using campaigns, media reports, radio and TV programmes to inform the public about the situation of women raped during the war.

Medica Kosova also works with other organisations in the Kosova Women's Network to advocate for a compensation fund for victims of war rapes in Kosovo.

Source: *Medica Mondiale*, Kosova, http://www.medicamondiale.org/en/projekte/kosova/

See: SCR 1325 Art. 6; SCR 1820 Art. 7 and 8; SCR 1888 Art. 19 and 21

While the primary responsibility for training peacekeepers lies with the states concerned, the UN Department for Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) has developed training materials for use by states, including generic training packages for the pre-deployment training of military and civilian police personnel (see Box 12). These are widely used by peacekeeping training institutions. DPKO also offers advice and supplementary training events, such as training of trainers, to national and regional training centres.[49]

A 2008 training needs assessment conducted by DPKO found that where pre-deployment training is delivered, the topics of sexual exploitation and abuse and HIV/AIDS are generally included.[50]   It is important that sufficient time is given to training on sexual exploitation and abuse. Training provides an opportunity to discuss in depth the rules set out in UN codes, including the meaning of "non-fraternisation," the circumstances in which a sexual relationship with a person in a host country is "exploitative," and the responsibilities of personnel who either impregnate or become pregnant whilst deployed. Training should also include procedures for reporting allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse and (as appropriate to the level of command) for investigation and response, as well as encompass periodic and systematic follow-up and monitoring. More uniform training between states might help to bridge the differences in the way that peacekeeping forces from different states consider their relationship with host communities, including how they interact with women and girls.

Many Western countries have made substantial progress in developing and delivering training for peacekeepers that addresses the broad range of issues highlighted in the women, peace and security resolutions. NATO too has committed to including women's perspectives and gender mainstreaming in education and training programmes at all levels.[51]   While these developments are welcome, these countries provide relatively small numbers of peacekeeping personnel.

The bulk of UN peacekeeping personnel come from developing countries (in particular Bangladesh, India and Pakistan), which generally have less systematic gender training, if any. However there are some promising examples of gender being integrated in peacekeepers' training:

- The Bangladesh Institute of Peace Support Operations' training courses reportedly cover the (now updated) UN Standardized Generic Training Module on gender issues in peacekeeping.[52]
- South Africa's Peace Mission Training Centre each year offers a two-week course to train members of the Department of Defence and other senior military personnel to be Gender Advisors to military and civilian decision makers in peace support missions.[53]

Box 12	Examples of training materials for peacekeepers related to women, peace and security

DPKO Core Pre-deployment training modules, 2009. http://pbpu. unlb.org/PBPS/Pages/Public/library.aspx?ot=2&scat=393&menu key=_4_5_2
(Unit 3 addresses women, peace and security and protection of children; Unit 4 addresses SEA and HIV/AIDS)

DFID/DFAIT "Gender and peacekeeping training course", 2002. http://www.genderandpeacekeeping.org

- The independent Peace Operations Training Institute offers free e-learning, including a course on *Gender Perspectives in United Nations Peacekeeping Operations*, for peacekeepers from Africa, the Caribbean and Latin America. More than 15,000 peacekeepers and potential peacekeepers have taken the course, mostly from African countries, Bangladesh and Pakistan. In March 2010, the Peace Operations Training Institute released a new course, *Preventing Violence Against Women and Gender Inequality in Peacekeeping*.[54]
- The Pearson Peacekeeping Centre has designed a two-week training course on GBV for international police officers participating in the AU/UN Mission in Darfur, which it plans to adapt for other peacekeeping missions.[55]

Lessons learned by countries with respect to pre-deployment training for their military and police personnel include:

- Long-term preparation of troops and police for peacekeeping is necessary to ensure the development of competence in the aptitudes and skills required. Lead time for deployment is often short, precluding the possibility for meaningful preparation. Gender awareness should be integrated throughout the curricula of police and military education.
- Training should start with a focus on practical issues, such as *how* to implement SCR 1325, rather than with normative or theoretical content about gender.
- There should be mission-specific training and community orientation, including on local gender dynamics, which should explicitly address ways to prevent and respond to sexual violence.
- Responding to sexualised attacks should be part of Mission Rehearsal Exercises and scenario-based training.
- Nationally available expertise, provided by bodies such as ministries of women/gender affairs and women's CSOs, can support pre-deployment training.
- There should be systematic assessment of the impact of training during and after deployment, potentially involving women's organisations in host countries.[56]

See Tool on *Gender Training for Security Sector Personnel.*

Prevention of and accountability for sexual exploitation and abuse

In recent years the UN has been criticised over allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse of local populations by UN peacekeeping personnel. The UN has a clear policy of *zero tolerance*, but the Security Council Resolutions on women, peace and security demand that member states also take preventative action and put in place measures to ensure accountability for sexual exploitation and abuse.

Codes of conduct: Alongside training, preventing sexual exploitation and abuse requires clear guidelines on prohibited behaviour and clear complaint, investigation and disciplinary procedures. As a first step, states contributing troops and/or police to peacekeeping missions should ensure that the UN standards to prevent sexual exploitation and abuse are binding on their personnel, whether by issuing them as a command, or incorporating them into their criminal law.[57] They should also translate the standards into the languages of their personnel deployed as peacekeepers.

Developing, implementing and enforcing such codes of conduct at the national level can help to ensure that peacekeepers are held accountable for sexual violence. A strong and clear reference to the impermissibility of sexual exploitation and abuse in a national code of conduct can serve as a tool to educate and train military and police personnel and to assist their commanders in putting a stop to such abuses.

Accountability for sexual exploitation and abuse: Prevention of and accountability for sexual exploitation and abuse requires an organisational culture wherein armed forces commanders and police commissioners prevent, identify, halt and punish such behaviour. Steps are needed to address any *culture of impunity* for sexual violence within armed forces and within police contingents.

States must be diligent in ensuring that any of their peacekeeping personnel who engage in sexual exploitation and abuse are held accountable under their respective national military and/or criminal justice systems. A number of countries have acted accordingly, punishing the perpetrators by dismissing them from the military, imposing custodial sentences and/or stripping them of their rank. France, for example, has reportedly imprisoned one of its peacekeepers for filming himself having sex with children, while countries including Morocco, Nepal, Pakistan, South Africa and Tunisia have announced disciplinary action against some of their peacekeepers.[58]

Countries contributing troop and/or police contingents should always give and fulfil assurances to the UN that their peacekeeping forces will ensure respect for local law, and that they will prosecute their peacekeepers if a UN investigation concludes that there are well-founded allegations of sexual exploitation or abuse against them. However, practical difficulties of gathering evidence and summoning witnesses confront national authorities in such prosecutions. To address these problems, it has been recommended that troop-contributing countries hold on-site courts martial in the country where the alleged offences were committed.[59]

Demonstrating peacekeepers' accountability for sexual violence is important for the credibility of the mission, which is essential to the mission's effectiveness. Repatriation of peacekeeping staff is the most commonly used disciplinary measure in the case of misconduct. When the implications of repatriation are not properly explained, it is often perceived as a simple "removal" of the perpetrator without any repercussions. Whilst protecting the confidentiality of victims and witnesses, missions should provide information to the host community on how allegations of sexual exploitation and abuse are being handled, and explain the outcomes of investigations to the victim and other involved persons. It may be appropriate for a senior mission official to publicly announce that the party/parties concerned has/have been removed from the mission and are being punished, so that the community can see that appropriate action is being taken.

Measures to deploy more women

The women, peace and security resolutions recognise that female peacekeepers are an essential resource in protecting civilians, including preventing sexual violence against women and children. A peacekeeping contingent composed of both men and women:

- Will be more trusted by the local community
- Is better equipped to undertake many key tasks, such as: house searches, body searches, working in prisons, providing escorts for victims/witnesses and screening combatants at DDR sites
- Can better make meaningful contact with vulnerable groups and CSOs in the local community
- Can more easily support conflict-affected women who would have difficulty speaking to male personnel
- Is less likely to have problems with sexual exploitation and abuse
- Promotes and encourages the participation of local women and their organisations in post-conflict political processes[60]

Specifically trained female peacekeepers can be of particular value in preventing sexual violence.

The women, peace and security resolutions encourage states to deploy greater numbers of female military and police personnel to UN peacekeeping operations:

DPKO has for some years advocated that a minimum of 10% of peacekeeping police and military personnel should be women. However, as of June 2010, women made up only 2.35% of UN peacekeeping personnel in military functions. In 2009, DPKO launched a campaign to increase the number of female police officers in peacekeeping missions from 8 to 20% by 2014.[61]

States can increase the recruitment and deployment of women for peacekeeping operations by:

- Including increased recruitment of women as a goal in their respective 1325 NAPs.

- Creating all-female military and police units to be deployed in the field, following the example of the Indian Formed Police Unit deployed in Liberia in 2007.

- Developing a national policy on the recruitment and deployment of women that includes numerical targets (such as a minimum percentage of women in all formed units deployed to peacekeeping). The Zambian Police Service, for example, has a 30% target for selecting female police officers for UN missions and, as of October 2009, had achieved 12%.

- Establishing specialised units within military and police personnel offices to oversee the recruitment and deployment of women.

- Nominating women for senior civilian peacekeeping positions, for example as Special Representatives of the UN Secretary-General, the EU and other regional bodies, as well as through secondment to DPKO headquarters.

- Developing national public information strategies that promote women's recruitment into police and military forces, and deployment to peacekeeping operations.

- Reviewing qualification requirements to remove those that discriminate against women.

- Addressing gender discrimination within armed forces and police services, for example through gender policies, women's empowerment programmes and sensitisation. See the Tool on *Police Reform and Gender.*

- Providing women with extra training to help them meet qualification requirements. For example, female police officers from Namibia, Tanzania and Zambia have identified women's lack of driving skills (the UN requires the ability to drive a manual shift 4x4 vehicle) as one of the main obstacles to their deployment to peacekeeping missions. This obstacle is coupled with the fact that women and men often do not have the same opportunities due to cultural, social and economic factors. The Tanzania Police Service is planning a pre-deployment course for women only to increase their language, shooting and driving skills in order to help them pass the selection tests, and is considering reimbursement for women who take extra driving lessons at their own cost.

- Initiating specific research on those factors that enhance the recruitment, retention and deployment of women, and ensuring that they inform national policy.[62]

4.7 By countries involved in armed conflicts

As one would expect, the four women, peace and security resolutions pay particular attention to situations of armed conflict. The Security Council issues strongly worded directions to parties to armed conflict in relation to:

- Ensuring full respect for international law applicable to the rights and protection of women and girls, including immediate and complete cessation of all acts of sexual violence against civilians

- Taking special measures to protect civilians, particularly women and girls, from sexual violence, as well as other forms of violence

Ensuring full respect for international law applicable to the rights and protection of women and girls

"It is more dangerous to be a woman than to be a soldier right now in Eastern DRC."
Major General Patrick Cammaert, former Deputy Force Commander[63]

> *See: SCR 1325 Art. 9; SCR 1820 Art. 2; SCR 1888 Art. 2; SCR 1889 Art. 2 and 3*

The challenges of ensuring respect for international humanitarian, human rights and refugee law in armed conflicts are not new or limited to the protection of women and girls. The overwhelming numbers of civilian deaths and injuries in armed conflict zones testify to this. The International Committee of the Red Cross has long worked on these issues, including through the promotion of and training in international humanitarian law for armed forces and armed groups. The UN plays a key role in exerting political pressure on countries to comply with their legal obligations in conflict.

In many contexts sexual violence and other human rights abuses are committed by members of national police and armed services.[64] Disciplinary problems and corruption can be factors: sexual violence against refugee women in Burundi, Kenya and Rwanda, for example, was committed by government soldiers/ security forces that were not well supervised and did not receive clear directives from superiors regarding their duties. Alcohol abuse and personal gain from robbery were often involved.[65]

A further key challenge is enforcing compliance with international law by non-state actors and armed groups. On one hand, they may not see themselves bound by international law and, on the other hand, they may lack the command and control structure necessary to maintain discipline. In any case, non-state actors are rarely subject to any external oversight. Moreover, while sometimes sexual violence is systematically deployed as a method of warfare by armed groups, it may also be "opportunistic"— armed groups and ordinary civilians exploiting chaos to attack women. A license to loot and rape at gunpoint often serves as an incentive for irregularly paid rebels to perpetuate the conflict.[66]

The international community has only just begun to develop experience in engaging with non-state armed groups on sexual violence issues. Some progress has been made in achieving commitments to end sexual violence, but implementation remains challenging: [67]

- In DRC, statements of commitment (*actes d'engagement*) were signed by 22 armed groups in the Kivus during the Goma Peace Conference on 23 January 2008. Signatories committed themselves to, inter alia, end all acts of violence against the civilian population, especially women and children. The Nairobi communiqué, which focused on foreign armed groups in DRC, also contained a reference to preventing acts of sexual violence. However, significant progress has yet to be observed in the parties either honouring their commitments or protecting civilians, in particular from sexual violence.

- In Côte d'Ivoire, the *Forces Nouvelles* adopted an action plan in January 2009, in which they committed to combating sexual violence in areas under their control, and established a working group to monitor its implementation. The effectiveness of these initiatives will need to be monitored.

UN peacekeeping experience indicates that specific strategies of persuasion and dissuasion—explained in relation to the culture and belief systems of the group—need to be adapted to armed opposition groups or non-state actors.[68]

Special measures to protect civilians from sexual violence

> *See: SCR 1325 Art. 10; SCR 1820 Art. 3;*
> *SCR 1888 Art. 3; SCR 1889 Art. 12*

Protection of civilians from sexual violence requires specific strategies and responses because:

- Victims tend not to report sexual violence for fear of social stigma and re-victimisation, resulting in a paucity of information on attack patterns and the profile of perpetrators.

- Sexual violence tends to occur in places and at time periods that lack a regular security presence, such as in homes, at water points during pre-dawn hours, in forests where women forage for fuel and in fields where they cultivate crops.[69]

The need for targeted responses to sexual violence may be finding its way into military doctrine in certain cases. For example, NATO doctrine now dictates that in operational planning, execution and evaluation, forces need to analyse whether procedures should be implemented to protect women and girls from sexual violence. However, national armies do not generally have adequate doctrine or scenario-based training to deal with sexual violence and may be ill-prepared to address it in theatre.[70]

While there has been little analysis of how armed forces and groups directly participating in armed conflict can protect civilians from sexual violence, lessons learned by those providing humanitarian assistance and in peacekeeping missions are relevant. Good practice in protecting civilians includes:[71]

- Assessing how risks differ for women and men, girls and boys, and how they are changing over the course of the conflict; areas where people are likely to be exposed to sexual violence (e.g., aid distribution points, detention centres, border points, bars); and other agencies/organisations that can provide complementary health, psychosocial, legal and other basic services.

- Full, periodic consultations with communities and groups at risk, and ongoing liaison with local women's groups to identify protection gaps and as a source of operational intelligence.

- Continuous M&E and compilation and analysis of data.

- Linking protection with the empowerment of women. Women need to be involved in public decision-making to be able to articulate their needs in regard to, amongst other things, protection from sexual violence. At the same time, the threat of sexual violence in many contexts precludes women's participation in public life.

- Recognising that effective measures are highly contingent on context—for instance, strategies employed in Darfur (Sudan), where conflict is focused around IDP camps, will not necessarily work in a setting like DRC. Differences in levels of organisation and brutality, intent and scale require tailored response strategies.

Many practical measures to protect civilians from sexual violence have been developed in refugee camp settings.[72] These could be applied and adapted in non-camp settings, including villages and suburbs where people are at risk of sexual violence outside of their home. Such measures include:

- Installation of lights in dangerous areas

- Separate hygienic facilities for women and men

- Strategic location of hygiene, water, garbage and other facilities used by groups at risk

- Cutting the grass on routes via which women frequently travel, providing women with torches and educating and encouraging women to walk in groups

- Information campaigns to inform women on ways that they can protect themselves

- Community assistance on how to set up neighbourhood watches or village vigilance/defence committees

A number of peacekeeping missions have used armed patrols and escorts to physically protect women and girls from sexual violence. These have protected women engaged in specific activities, such as firewood and water collection, travelling to market and farming, and/or focused on high-risk

periods such as nighttimes or the pre-dawn hours (see Box 13). Likewise, military forces can help to deter sexual violence simply by demonstrating their presence at high-risk times and places—such as by using flares/illumination mortars at night.[73] Patrols and other protective actions by military personnel can be coordinated with community-run security committees, and should be planned and implemented in consultation with both women and men in the community.

In times of acute risk of violence, the military can also conduct evacuations and create corridors of safe passage for the movement of civilians.

The SCRs further suggest the following special measures to protect civilians from violence:

- Vetting candidates for national armies and security forces to ensure the exclusion of those associated with serious violations of international humanitarian and human rights law, including sexual violence. Vetting is discussed in section 4.3.
- Training of military personnel on the prohibition of all forms of sexual violence and to expose the myths that fuel sexual violence in armed conflict. Training of police and armed forces on women, peace and security issues was discussed in section 4.6.
- Enforcing military or other investigative and disciplinary measures.

Enforcing military or other investigative and disciplinary measures

"A core aspect of prevention is the need for civilian and military leaders to demonstrate commitment and political willingness to address sexual violence. Inaction essentially sends a message that sexual violence is tolerated. In this regard, I emphasize that clear and forceful instructions and regular messages on the categorical prohibition of sexual violence, and unequivocal demonstrations by word and deed that any breach will be punished, would contribute to a decrease in sexual violence. Additionally, State organs, including ministries of defence, interior and justice, and military and police command structures must institute concrete, timebound measures, including training of military and police forces to make them aware of their obligations under international humanitarian, human rights and criminal law."

Report of the Secretary-General pursuant to Security Council Resolution 1820[74]

Where there is impunity for sexual violence, arms bearers view rape *not only as a tool of war, but a toy of war.*[75] The women, peace and security resolutions place particular emphasis upon addressing impunity (see section 4.5), including with regards to sexual violence committed by military personnel.

See: SCR 1820 Art. 3; SCR 1888 Art. 3 and 7

In accordance with human rights standards, the jurisdiction of military tribunals should be restricted solely to specifically military offences committed by military personnel, and should exclude human rights violations, including sexual crimes, which should come under the jurisdiction of ordinary

Box 13	Firewood patrols in Darfur

For displaced women and girls in some conflict-affected contexts, collecting firewood puts them at particular risk of rape, abduction and murder. To protect women collecting firewood in Darfur, AU protection force soldiers began firewood patrols. These were continued by the joint AU/UN force deployed from 2007.

Generally, AU patrols consisted of two or three large pickup trucks that followed approximately 100–200 metres behind a group of women along a predetermined route to a firewood collection location. Each truck carried a patrol force comprising three to five civilian police personnel up front and six to eight heavily-armed soldiers in the open-air rear of the vehicle.

The AU firewood patrols proved highly effective in some contexts. The Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children highlighted the following issues, amongst others, as important to their success:

- "Firewood patrol committees" consisting of leaders from the participant groups (such as IDP women leaders), representatives from the patrolling forces (female wherever possible) and an intermediary, such as a UN agency or NGO, were crucial in building trust between participants and patrollers. Together committees should develop guidelines on timing, frequency, route selection, distance, and the details of how the patrols will be carried out; they should also meet regularly to address any concerns that arise during the patrols.
- The protection mandate of the patrolling force, whether soldiers, civilian police or local authorities, must be clear among all parties before the patrols begin.
- The role of the host government's security forces (in refugee settings) and the local government's security forces (in IDP settings) must be clarified before the patrols begin.
- Where necessary, a translator—female wherever possible—should accompany all patrols in order to communicate between participants and patrollers.
- The commander of the patrolling force must be supportive of the engagement of the patrollers in firewood patrols, committed to following the guidelines and willing to conduct patrols on a regular and predictable basis.
- Patrollers must not engage in sexual exploitation of participants in the patrols and must be held accountable to internationally recognised guidelines and codes of conduct for peacekeeping forces.

Humanitarian actors have however highlighted the analysis that must attend such protection initiatives, noting that in some cases firewood patrols allowed IDPs from one tribal group to collect wood of a neighbouring group, potentially exacerbating tensions.

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criminal courts.[76] In countries where sexual crimes committed by military personnel fall under military jurisdiction, military tribunals have largely failed to investigate and prosecute offenders.

NATO has set out guidelines regarding investigations of alleged acts of sexual violence (and other code of conduct violations) by NATO personnel, which include:

- A timeframe for appointment of an investigation officer to conduct a fact-finding/ preliminary inquiry
- A chain for reporting the results of the preliminary inquiry
- Responsibility for referring the results of the preliminary inquiry to the relevant national authority for appropriate disciplinary action
- A framework for the reporting of the final disposition[77]

Like the UN, NATO relies upon its member states to take disciplinary action against their own personnel. All armed forces should have clear procedures for responding to allegations of violence against civilians by their personnel, including rigorous investigation and, where warranted, prosecution.

5 Key recommendations

Policies

1. In developing and implementing SSR-related policies, assess how different policy options will impact upon women, men, girls and boys, and ensure that gender experts and women participate fully in the policy-making process.

2. In all SSR-related policies, explicitly address women and girls' security and justice needs, sexual violence issues, and the promotion of women as equal participants in security sector institutions.

3. Develop National Action Plans for implementation of the women, peace and security resolutions through an inclusive, consultative process, which includes legislators, security institutions, women's CSOs, and other relevant stakeholders. Such National Action Plans should encompass SSR activities.

Accountability

4. Monitor and evaluate i) how women, peace and security issues are addressed in SSR programmes, and ii) execution of National Action Plans for implementation of the women, peace and security resolutions. Use concrete indicators and involve women's CSOs.

5. Establish systems to ensure accountability of individuals within government agencies, security services and peacekeeping missions for implementation of obligations under the women, peace and security resolutions, as included in national security, defence or SSR policies.

Participation of women

6. Include women at all levels in security sector governance and oversight institutions, and provide space for input from women's CSOs.

7. Empower women and women's organisations to participate in SSR processes through the provision of security and logistical support, capacity building, mentoring and support to coalition-building, as necessary.

8. Develop and implement strategies to promote leadership of women within armed forces, police services, defence institutions and the judiciary.

Defence reform

9. Involve women's groups in the planning and implementation of DDR programmes, especially when engaging with female beneficiaries and in the reintegration of ex-combatants.

10. Take action to mitigate the likelihood that the return of ex-combatants to civilian communities leads to increased sexual violence.

11. Ensure that members of new or re-forming armed and police services are vetted for crimes of sexual violence and other violations of international humanitarian and human rights law, giving particular attention to confidentiality and protection of victims of sexual violence.

Police reform

12. Reform police mandates, operating practices, training, incentive systems, performance measures, staffing and accountability systems to prioritise GBV issues. Consider creating specialised police units—staffed by men and women, linked to social and legal support services.

13. Dedicate resources to sexual violence prevention, investigation and prosecution, as well as to victim assistance and protection.

Justice reform

14. Reform laws and judicial procedures, practices and training to address GBV, in line with international standards, making special provision for prosecution of perpetrators and support to victims of sexual violence.

15. Increase women's and girls' access to justice by supporting legal aid, paralegals, CSOs and legal outreach.

16. Work with conflict-affected countries to support capacity to investigate and prosecute crimes of violence against women committed during armed conflict, and maintain local and international pressure to prosecute perpetrators.

In preparation for peacekeeping

17. Integrate practical training on women, peace and security issues, including the prevention of sexual violence, into police and military training, supplemented by mission-specific training for peacekeepers.

18. Develop codes of conduct and accountability mechanisms to address sexual exploitation and abuse, and ensure that any perpetrators are held accountable—and seen in the host country to be held accountable.

19. Establish specialised units to lead and monitor implementation of policies, strategies and training to increase the recruitment and deployment of women in peacekeeping operations.

During armed conflict

20. Document and share strategies for the protection of civilians from sexual violence during armed conflict, including through engagement with non-state actors and enforcement of military disciplinary measures.

6 Additional resources

Useful websites

DCAF Gender and Security Programme – http://www.dcaf.ch/gssrtoolkit

EPLO *European National Action Plans for UNSCR 1325* – http://www.eplo.org/index. php?id=249

EU webpage on Women Peace and Security – http://www.consilium.europa.eu/showPage. aspx?id=1886&lang=en

PeaceWomen – http://www.peacewomen.org/WPS/ Index.html

UN Action Against Sexual Violence in Conflict – www.stoprapenow.org

UNIFEM – http://www.womenwarpeace.org/

UN-INSTRAW Gender, Peace and Security Programme – http://www.un-instraw.org/peace-and-security/programme-page/

Practical guides and handbooks

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform, Section 9: Integrating Gender Awareness and Equality*, 2009. http://www.oecd.org/ dataoecd/4/52/42168607.pdf

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Books and other non-online publications

Donadio, M., & Mazzotta, C., *Women in the armed and police forces: Resolution 1325 and Peace Operations in Latin America*, RESDAL, 2010.

The Institute for Inclusive Security, *Inclusive Security: A Curriculum for Women Waging Peace*, Hunt Alternatives Fund, 2009.

ENDNOTES

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