Tool 1

Gender and Security Toolkit

Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender

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DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women Gender and Security Toolkit

This Tool is part of the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women *Gender and Security Toolkit*, which comprises nine Tools and a series of Policy Briefs.

Tools:

1. Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender
2. Policing and Gender
3. Defence and Gender
4. Justice and Gender
5. Places of Deprivation of Liberty and Gender
6. Border Management and Gender
7. Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
14. Intelligence and Gender
15. Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector

Policy Briefs:

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Security Sector and Gender Equality

A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security

Gender, Preventing Violent Extremism and Countering Terrorism

Gender and Private Security Regulation

Additionally, a Compendium of International and Regional Laws and Instruments Related to Gender Equality and the Security and Justice Sector is available online.

The *Gender and Security Toolkit* builds upon the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit* that was first published in 2008. The following Gender and Security Sector Reform Tools can be used alongside this Toolkit:

8. National Security Policy-Making and Gender
9. Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
11. Security Sector Reform 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

Contents

Image: Mongolian peacekeepers were awarded the UN medal for their commitment and service to the UN and the people of South Sudan, 2017. © UNMISS/Amanda Voisard


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Acronyms

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
GBV	gender-based violence
LGBTI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans and intersex
NAP	national action plan
NGO	non-governmental organization
PSNI	Police Service of Northern Ireland
RUC	Royal Ulster Constabulary
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEA	sexual exploitation and abuse
SSG	security sector governance
SSR	security sector reform
UN	United Nations
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

Image: Women taking part in UN Women's "Empowered Women, Peaceful Communities" programme in Indonesia.

1. Overview

1.1 Background

More than a decade has passed since the publication of the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*. Since then, tens of thousands of security and justice personnel globally have been trained on gender equality to some degree, scores of countries worldwide have adopted Women, Peace and Security national action plans (NAPs), and important new national legislation and international standards to tackle gender inequalities and discrimination have been passed. The global adoption and implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) also highlight the need for good security sector governance (SSG) and the central role justice and security actors play in promoting gender equality.

Awareness of and attention to gender and women in the security and justice sector have increased greatly over the past decade. The gender balance of many justice and security sector institutions globally has improved, notably in non-Northern countries.[1] Women have moved up the ranks, and external oversight and internal mechanisms to challenge gender-based discrimination, harassment, exploitation and abuse have been strengthened. These measures have helped these institutions to become more inclusive and representative, and to live up better to their mandated tasks of advancing gender equality.

Nonetheless, as a series of global stocktaking studies attest,[2] major challenges remain for achieving gender equality and overcoming gender discrimination, both within the security and justice sector and in broader society. Action to increase women's access to and participation in justice and security provision has at times remained tokenistic, failing to achieve real change. Moreover, in many parts of the globe the political space to promote inclusivity, equality and human rights is under pressure due to increased securitization associated with countering violent extremism and active resistance to progressive social change for women's rights and gender equality.

This new DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women *Gender and Security Toolkit* draws together the key lessons of the past decade in promoting gender equality in security and justice. The aim of the Toolkit is to share new and emerging good practices, reflecting on how they have been developed. The Toolkit is designed to help security and justice sector institutions to integrate a gender perspective: the sector needs to move beyond simply increasing the numbers of women, and become more aware of and responsive to different gendered needs of the entire population. In doing so, attention to often neglected security and justice needs of women and girls must always be a key priority.

Image: Ceremony for the Mexican Navy, Army and Air Force, 30 July 2015.

The *Gender and Security Toolkit* will, we hope, be used by many different audiences in many ways. It can be, for example, a resource of good practices and lessons learnt to inform new policies, programmes, strategies and procedures; a source of ideas for monitoring and oversight; and a reference for arguments and evidence to support advocacy and training.

1.2 Audiences for this Tool

This Tool is mainly intended for use by policymakers and practitioners working in or working with security and justice sector institutions to increase gender equality – be it equality within the institutions themselves, or achieved through the work of the institutions within society. Some users might be approaching these issues through implementation of Women, Peace and Security (WPS) commitments (see Box 1), or in relation to a security sector reform (SSR) process. The Tool also aims to be of use more widely to justice and security providers, people involved in oversight and management, civil society organizations, the media and academic researchers.

Box 1: The Women, Peace and Security Agenda

In 2000, the ground-breaking UN Security Council Resolution 1325 was adopted. It recognized that women and men have different experiences in conflict, different needs after conflict, different perspectives on the causes and outcomes of conflict, and different contributions to bring to a peacebuilding process. Subsequently, the UN Security Council has adopted, at the time of writing, a further nine resolutions addressing women and conflict, together comprising the WPS Agenda. The goals of the WPS Agenda are to:

- promote gender equality and strengthen the participation of women in decision-making in all aspects of conflict prevention, peace processes, peace operations and peacebuilding
- improve the protection of women in conflict-affected environments, and end conflict-related sexual violence and impunity for these crimes
- ensure that international engagement in conflict-affected environments addresses the specific needs of women and improves the protection of women's rights.

The WPS Agenda emphasizes women's participation in SSR and women's access to justice. See the Policy Brief on *A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security* for further discussion.

1.3 Outline of this Tool

Section 2 introduces why gender matters in SSG and in SSR processes, and outlines the benefits of integrating a gender perspective. It explains key concepts that are used in the Toolkit: gender, intersectionality, masculinities, femininities, LGBTI, gender equality and gender perspective, and also SSG and SSR. It gives an overview of some of the relevant international, regional and national legal obligations with respect to gender and SSG and SSR processes.

Section 3 presents a vision of what integrating a gender perspective and promoting gender equality mean for security and justice providers, for management and oversight of sector and justice services, and for SSG and SSR processes.

Section 4 presents several different pathways for the security and justice sector to integrate a gender perspective into SSG and SSR processes and advance gender equality. It focuses upon:

- defining security needs in an inclusive, gender-responsive manner
- adopting policy frameworks to integrate gender equality into justice and security governance
- gender training for security and justice providers
- using staff with specialized gender expertise
- changing masculine institutional cultures to increase women's participation and diversity.

Section 5 offers advice on how to overcome resistance to working on gender equality within the security and justice sector.

Section 6 suggests elements of an institutional self-assessment checklist on integrating a gender perspective.

Section 7 lists other useful resources to support work on gender equality with the security and justice sector, and in relation to SSG and SSR.

The other Tools and Policy Briefs in this Toolkit focus on specific security and justice issues and providers, with more focused attention on what gender equality looks like and how to achieve it in particular sectors (see page i). It is intended that the Toolkit should be used as a whole, with readers moving between Tools and Policy Briefs to find more detail on aspects that interest them.

Endnotes

1. For example, The Women in Public Service Project, World's Percentage of Women in Public Service Positions, Positions indicator: count of female police personnel at national level, http://data.50x50movement.org/data/view/591df8e54b89251100145ec3 (accessed 6 September 2019).
2. For example, UN Women (2015), "Preventing conflict, transforming justice, securing the peace – A global study on the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325", New York: UN Women; Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and Peace Research Institute Oslo (2017), "Women, Peace and Security Index 2017/18: Tracking sustainable peace through inclusion, justice, and security for women", Washington, DC: GIWPS and PRIO; Marta Ghittoni, Léa Lehouck and Callum Watson (2018), "Elsie Initiative for Women in Peace Operations: Baseline study", Geneva: DCAF; UN Women (2018), *Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.* New York: UN Women; UN Women, IDLO, World Bank and Task Force on Justice (2019), "Justice for women", UN Women, IDLO, World Bank and Task Force on Justice.

2. Why does gender equality matter in the security and justice sector, to security sector governance and in security sector reform?

Providing security and equal access to justice, including to historically marginalized or disadvantaged populations, is at the core of the security and justice sector's duty to protect people and the state within a framework of good governance. Gender is one of the most important of the factors that define inequality in societies. It places people in different positions of power, risk, security and insecurity, with different possibilities of accessing the services of security and justice providers.

The 2008 *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit* made the case that integrating a gender perspective into SSR increases local ownership, improves the delivery of security and justice, and enhances oversight and accountability of the security sector. These themes are explored further throughout this Tool and the other Tools in this Toolkit. In addition to the benefits, integrating a gender perspective and promoting gender equality are obligations as part of meeting national and international commitments to provide justice and security services in a non-discriminatory manner.

2.1 Why gender matters in SSG and SSR

Good SSG means providing security for all equally, and SSR is about helping the justice and security sector to understand people's diverse needs and meet these as part of security provision, management and oversight. Justice and security providers need to understand the role played by gender in order to fulfil their duties in a non-discriminatory manner. Integrating a gender perspective in management and oversight of security and justice makes the gendered aspects of security provision visible. This is necessary to then ensure that resourcing, budgeting, logistics, human resources, legal and policy frameworks, operational decision-making and other management aspects that support justice and security provision actively strive to promote gender equality. These concepts and terms – gender and gender equality, SSG and SSR – are explained in the following subsections.

Gender is a key determinant of the security risks that women, men and people of different gender identities face, as well as the degree to which they are able to access security and justice services. Integrating a gender perspective into security and justice provision means:

- having a better understanding of what the different justice and security needs of diverse groups are;
- providing better, more nuanced and effective responses to these needs; and
- having more diverse and representative justice and security services, willing and able to understand and meet these needs.

Image: A member of the Jordanian community police talks to a Syrian woman in the Zaatari refugee camp, northern Jordan, after receiving training in community policing techniques.

Taking understandings of gendered security needs into account also serves to improve relations between justice and security providers and the communities they serve. Engaging with previously neglected groups, or those with whom the relationship has been antagonistic, can improve the legitimacy and broader acceptance of an institution and its work. Furthermore, working with a range of different civil society organizations, including women's organizations as well as LGBTI organizations, allows security and justice providers to have a more holistic understanding of any given situation from a security perspective, and to understand better the diverse security needs and how these can be met.

2.2 Key concepts

In thinking about gender and gender equality in relation to security and justice, it is helpful to have a clear understanding of key concepts. While different organizations and institutions adopt varying language, most use some form of the following definitions, which are drawn from UN policies and documents.

Gender – roles and relations

Gender refers to the roles, behaviours, activities, attributes and norms that a given society at a given time considers appropriate for men and women. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are *socially constructed* and *learned* through socialization processes. They are context- and time-specific and changeable. Gender is part of the broader sociocultural context, as are other important criteria for sociocultural analysis such as class, race, disability, poverty level, ethnic group, sexual orientation, age and so on – which may in some cases be more important than gender (see Box 2 on intersectionality).[1] Gender, which is social and cultural, is often explained in contrast to sex, which refers to biological and biochemical characteristics such as chromosomes, hormonal make-up, reproductive organs and other biological differences.

In addition to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male, female or other, gender affects the relations and power dynamics *between* people. In most societies there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, and decision-making opportunities. In patriarchal societies, political, economic and social power lies with men, and attributes associated with manliness are valued over those associated with women. Women and girls are usually in less powerful positions compared with men and boys, and often face numerous forms of structural discrimination economically, politically, socially and in terms of their legal rights. While men and boys can also be victims, women and girls are more often exposed to controlling behaviour by men, sexualized harassment in public spheres, at home and in the workplace, intimate partner violence and domestic violence, and different forms of sexual violence.* Concurrently, strict adherence to a man/woman gender binary and the primacy of heterosexuality place those with diverse sexual orientations and gender identities in situations that are socially ambiguous, at times illegal, and often dangerous. Thus, gender norms create inequalities, which in turn shape and inform *unequal power relations* between people, most often placing at risk women and girls with less power and assumed societal value than they do men and boys, and persons who identify outside the gender binary.

The way women and men live up to – or resist – gender expectations in their everyday lives is sometimes described in terms of *femininities* and *masculinities*: the various ways of being and acting, roles, values and expectations associated with becoming and being women and men, respectively, in a given society at a given time. Femininities and masculinities tend to be defined in relation, and often in opposition, to each other: what is seen as feminine

* On sexual and domestic violence towards men and boys, see DCAF's 2014 *Preventing and Responding to Sexual and Domestic Violence against Men: A Guidance Note for Security Sector Institutions.*

Box 2: Intersectionality

"Intersectionality" is a term that is increasingly entering into gender policy and programming terminology. The concept was coined by Kimberlé Crenshaw as "a way of framing the various interactions of race and gender in the context of violence against women of color". It has since been used more widely as a way to define how expectations connected to gender interact with other societal markers, such as ethno-religious background, age, social class, sexual orientation, marital status, race, ethnicity and disability, placing people in different positions of power and privilege, discrimination and exclusion.

These power differentials are often of central importance in justice and security provision: urban poor and rural poor women face greater barriers in accessing justice; young, socio-economically marginalized and ethno-religious minority men may face greater police scrutiny; persons living with disabilities often face additional barriers on top of gender-, age- or class-based constraints. Intersectional power differentials can also be of concern within justice and security sector institutions if, for example, the views of older men are systematically privileged over those of equally competent but younger women, or if staff of a particular class, caste or ethno-religious background are disadvantaged in addition to facing gender- and age-based obstacles.

Source: Kimblerlé Crenshaw (1991), "Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color", Stanford Law Review, 43, pp. 1241–1299.

is defined in relation to what is considered to be masculine, and vice versa. Women are in many cultures expected to be demure and submissive to men's control, to assume domestic and caring duties and leave public, political and breadwinning roles to men. Men in many cultures experience heavy societal pressure to live up to gender roles that are, among other things, imbued with notions of dominance, emotional control, risk-taking, physical toughness and overt heterosexual desire, as well as notions of being protectors, economic providers and sole decision-takers. Trying to live up to rigid gender expectations may cause suffering to both the persons themselves and others, but transgressing these norms can also lead to censure, be it verbal, emotional or even physical and lethal in form. While femininities are often associated with people who are biologically female, and masculinities with biological males, they are not biologically determined but rather socially constructed. For example, women in a male-dominated space such as the armed forces may be expected to take up behaviour associated with militarized masculinities, and men doing work considered socially as being so-called "women's work" may be seen as effeminate.

Assumptions about what particular genders "are – or should be – like" can lead to *gender bias*. This refers to prejudiced thoughts and/or actions based on assumptions of inequality or *gendered stereotypes*, leading to the advantaging or disadvantaging of individuals or groups based upon their gender. Gender bias interacts with other forms of prejudice. In terms of security and justice provision, this could mean, for example, assuming that women in general are unsuited for military service or that men of a certain class or ethnicity have a propensity to criminality or extremism, ruling on custody claims based on assumptions of motherhood and fatherhood rather than examining the dynamics in a particular case, or victim-blaming in cases of gender-based violence (GBV).* Gender biases work at various levels and can be difficult to identify, especially if they are implicit, so ingrained that they have become unconscious biases and/or embedded in structures and procedures.

In times of conflict and peacebuilding, because of the gender roles predominantly ascribed to them, women and girls are often thought of as being innately more peaceful than men and innately more vulnerable to violence, in particular conflict-related sexual violence. As

* For the purpose of this Toolkit, the phrase "gender-based violence" (GBV) is used to refer to all harmful acts inflicted upon someone because of normative assumptions about their gender. GBV is an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person's will and is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between females and males. The nature and extent of specific types of GBV vary across cultures, countries and regions. Examples include sexual violence, including sexual exploitation/abuse and trafficking for sexual exploitation; domestic violence; forced/early marriage; harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation; honour killings; widow inheritance; and homophobic and transphobic violence.

See UN Women, *Gender Equality Glossary,* https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36 (accessed 6 September 2019); UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (2011), "Discriminatory laws and practices and acts of violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity", UN Doc. A/HRC/19/41, 17 November, para. 20.

much as it is essential to recognize women's roles as peacebuilders and their vulnerability to violence, it is also essential to recognize the much broader spectrum of women's agency, including as supporters and perpetrators of violence. Women participate directly and indirectly in state security forces, insurgent groups, self-defence militias and the like. Likewise, it is essential to go beyond stereotypes of men and boys as violent perpetrators and recognize male vulnerabilities.

Basing responses on gendered stereotypes rather than *gender analysis* grounded in reality can lead to skewed responses that fail to reach their objectives and may further entrench inequalities. Three short examples serve to illustrate this. Because of stereotypes that fighters are male, reintegration programmes for former combatants largely ignored female ex-combatants in the past. In situations of forced migration, stereotypes concerning men mean that the vulnerabilities of men over the age of 18 are often largely unrecognized and unmet. Finally, much of the focus of the past decade in addressing human trafficking has been on women and girls trafficked for sexual exploitation because women and girls constitute over 90 per cent of the victims.[2] While this angle continues to be extremely important, the focus on only this aspect has obscured the trafficking of women and girls for different types of exploitation, as well as the trafficking of men and boys (e.g. for forced labour), who in some regions pose a larger population of concern.

Gender expectations, sexual orientation, gender identity and gender expression

Expectations about sexual behaviour, sexual orientation, gender identity and gender expression are part of how societies construct gender and gender roles. For example, societies' ideas about men and women include views about how they should look and dress, with whom they should have sexual relationships and whether they should be mothers or fathers. These ideas can vary greatly across time and place, but in many contexts violence, or the threat of violence or exclusion, is used as a means of reinforcing dominant gender expectations. In thinking about how gender, gender roles and gender inequality operate in society and in institutions, it is essential to consider how dominant gender expectations and the resulting gender inequality negatively affect the security of women in particular. It is also necessary to include people across the whole diverse spectrum of sexual orientations, gender identities and gender expressions, including people who identify across or outside of the female/male binary.*

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* The term "diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions" (sometimes referred to as "diverse SOGIE") refers to persons whose *sexual orientation* is not (or not only) primarily heterosexual and whose *gender identity* does not necessarily subscribe to a man/woman gender binary. *Gender expressions* refer to ways of behaving, of appearing, of engaging in particular activities or certain mannerisms that are associated with a particular gender in a particular cultural context. According to the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights:

> Sexual orientation refers to a person's physical, romantic and/or emotional attraction towards other people. Everyone has a sexual orientation, which is integral to a person's identity. Gay men and lesbian women are attracted to individuals of the same sex as themselves. Heterosexual people (sometimes known as "straight") are attracted to individuals of a different sex from themselves. Bisexual people may be attracted to individuals of the same or different sex.
>
> Transgender (sometimes shortened to "trans") is an umbrella term used to describe a wide range of identities – including transsexual people, cross-dressers (sometimes referred to as "transvestites"), people who identify as third gender or other non-binary terms, and others whose appearance and characteristics are perceived as gender atypical. Transwomen identify as women but were classified as male when they were born. Transmen identify as men but were classified female when they were born. Some transgender people seek surgery or take hormones to bring their body into alignment with their gender identity; others do not.
>
> An intersex person is born with sexual anatomy, reproductive organs, hormone and/or chromosome patterns that do not fit the typical definition of male or female. This may be apparent at birth or become so later in life. An intersex person may identify as male, female, both, neither or something else. Intersex people can have any sexual orientation and gender identity.

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans and intersex (LGBTI) persons fall within this description of "diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions". But so do numerous other sexual orientations, gender identities and expressions, such as men who have sex with men or women who have sex with women but who do not consider themselves homosexual. Moreover, globally there is a wider range of non-binary identities at local, national and regional levels than are captured by the LGBTI acronym, such as *bacha posh* (girls brought up as boys) in Afghanistan and Pakistan, *burrnesha* (persons assigned as female at birth but living as men) in Albania and Montenegro, *fa'afafine* (persons assigned as male at birth who explicitly embody both masculine and feminine gender traits) in Samoa and similar identities across Polynesia, *hijra* (eunuchs, intersex and mostly male-to-female trans persons) in South Asia, *travesti* (persons assigned as male at birth who have a (trans)feminine gender expression) in Latin America, two-spirited people among certain Canadian First Nations, and *yan daudu* (persons assigned as male at birth expressing feminine mannerisms, speech and dress and partially living in same-sex relationships) among the Hausa in Nigeria.

Source: UN OHCHR, "LGBTI equality: Frequently asked questions", https://www.unfe.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/FAQs-English.pdf. (accessed 6 September 2019).

LGBTI persons and others of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions often face particular forms of discrimination, exploitation, abuse and violence. This is recognized by the many states and international organizations that address discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity in their laws and declarations.[3]

Discrimination, exploitation, abuse and violence against LGBTI people include (but are not limited to) taunting and bullying for not adhering to gender norms, humiliation, extortion, blackmail, sexual harassment and exploitation, as well as various forms of physical and sexual violence, at times leading to death. As the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights explained, "These attacks constitute a form of gender-based violence, driven by a desire to punish those seen as defying gender norms."[4] LGBTI people often face distinct legal obstacles and challenges to accessing justice and security services, ranging from discriminatory attitudes regarding their intimate relationships or identities to their relationships and identities being outlawed or not recognized.[5] They may place themselves at risk by reporting crimes against them if their sexual orientation or gender identity comes to light. It is important not to view LGBTI persons as a homogeneous group, but rather, as with other gender identities, to consider needs, vulnerabilities and agency through an intersectional lens. While LGBTI persons might on some issues share similar needs and goals, different parts of what we might refer to collectively as the LGBTI community have different needs, experiences and priorities. In any given society, some LGBTI persons will be better able than others to participate in social and political processes and openly express their concerns. Thus, care should be taken that diversity among LGBTI persons is recognized and that extra efforts are made to involve those who have been historically more marginalized, such as trans and intersex persons.

In conflict situations the risks to persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions are often exacerbated. At times local and foreign actors may assume that they do not exist, and thus not seek to engage with them. Their invisibility, however, may be a key survival mechanism to avoid homophobic, biphobic or transphobic violence.*

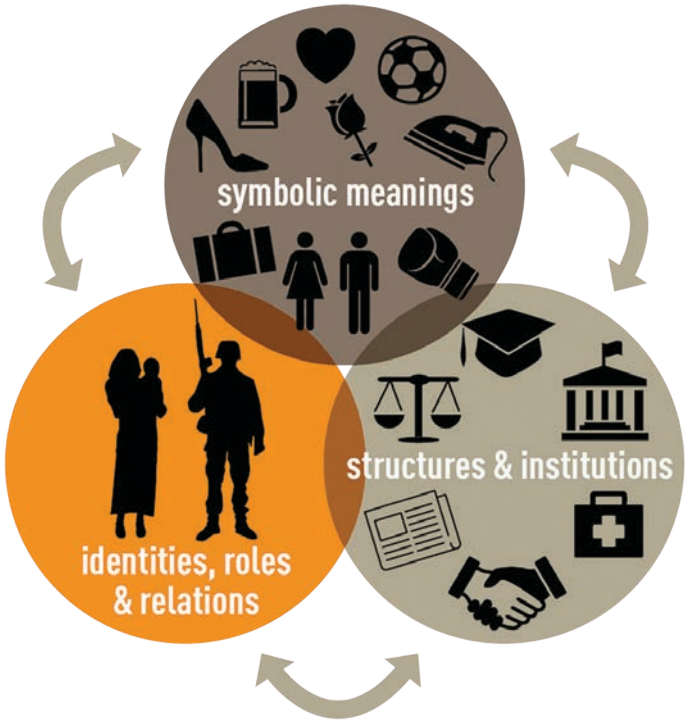
Gender – symbolic meanings, structures and institutions

Masculinities and femininities, and thus gender, also have more abstract and symbolic dimensions beyond role expectations and behaviours. Certain activities, concepts and institutions may be seen as more masculine and others as more feminine in different contexts. This is what is meant when an institution is described as "gendered".

* Homophobia, biphobia and transphobia are the fear or hatred of, discomfort with or mistrust of people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual or trans. It can manifest in social exclusion, hostility, harassment, hate speech, discrimination, social exclusion or violence. These forms of discrimination and violence can also be used against or to control/coerce persons who do not self-identify as trans, bisexual, lesbian or gay.

Figure 1 is an illustration of how symbolic meanings link with identities, roles and relations and with structures and institutions. Security services provide good examples of this: "hard" security and the institutions and activities related to it (e.g. the military, riot policing) are often seen as masculine – things that ("real") men do and "can be done well only by men". In contrast, "soft" security (e.g. peacebuilding, healthcare provision) is associated with femininity. The *symbolic* association of "soft" caring with women places expectations on women in their *identities, roles and relations* and also identifies *institutions* that carry out caring work as feminine. For example, units dealing with GBV and Gender Focal Points and Gender Adviser posts are often staffed by women. As these positions are seen as "feminized", men may be discouraged from applying for them and ridiculed by other staff if they do, and assignments to these posts or units can be seen as detrimental to careers.[6] These dynamics serve to undermine the status and importance of this work within the organization. Ascribing of roles as masculine or feminine can differ between contexts. For example, in many countries traffic policing is seen mostly as a women's task – and, not coincidentally, one that is of low status in the police service. In other countries, however, traffic policing is seen as "too dangerous" for women and as strictly a men's realm.^

Figure 1: Gender as a system of power, encompassing gendered selves, institutions and symbolic meanings



Source: Conciliation Resources (2015), Gender and Conflict Analysis Toolkit. London: Conciliation Resources

In the security and justice sector, key institutions are usually staffed and led mainly by men. Notions of what it means to be a good soldier, police officer and so on are often linked to particular understandings of "what it means to be a man".[7] This is reflected in institutional cultures that can be highly "masculine". What is seen as "appropriately masculine" behaviour can, however, differ in different parts of an institution – in some roles, aggressive, emotion-based behaviour might be valued, while in others calculating rationality may be seen as more "manly".

Given the increase in numbers of women in justice and security sector institutions over the past decades, examining femininities as well as masculinities is important. This includes women's experiences of being in these institutions, the roles to which they have been

^ See Tool 2 for more on gender and policing.

assigned or have fought to gain access, and the impact of increased women's participation on previously male-dominated institutional cultures. The experiences of LGBTI persons within security and justice institutions are also closely tied to the gender dynamics of the institution and institutional cultures and practices, as well as to regulations.

Gender equality

Gender equality is a fundamental human right, and a goal to which governments and international organizations have committed. Promoting gender equality is therefore a part of the mandate of security and justice sector institutions.[8] Commitment to gender equality is enshrined in international law and in national constitutions and legislation around the world (see Box 4 on page 17). Gender equality means that:

> *... the rights, responsibilities and opportunities of individuals will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Equality does not mean "the same as" – promotion of gender equality does not mean that women and men will become the same. Equality between women and men has both a quantitative and a qualitative aspect. The quantitative aspect refers to the desire to achieve equitable representation of women – increasing balance and parity – while the qualitative aspect refers to achieving equitable influence on establishing development priorities and outcomes for women and men. Equality involves ensuring that the perceptions, interests, needs and priorities of women and men (which can be very different because of the differing roles and responsibilities of women and men) will be given equal weight in planning and decision-making ...*[9]

Gender equality can also be understood as "the absence of discrimination on the basis of a person's sex in opportunities, the allocation of resources or benefits, or in access to services".[10] Achieving gender equality involves a positive obligation to transform unequal power relations; address the underlying causes and structures of gender inequality, including discriminatory norms, prejudices and stereotypes; and transform institutions that perpetuate discrimination and inequality. Demanding gender equality does not deny biological or social differences between people, but rather insists that we all have equal value as human beings and as such are entitled to equal rights and opportunities. The UN SDGs, in particular SDG 5, recognize gender equality as "a necessary foundation for a peaceful, prosperous and sustainable world", and gender equality is central to achieving SDG 16, to "provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels".[11] (For more on this, see the Policy Brief on "The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Security Sector and Gender Equality".)

The use of affirmative action (also called "positive action") as a temporary special measure is one means of realizing substantive gender equality. This means taking proactive measures to promote equality and diversity. Examples of affirmative action to increase equitable representation of women include recruitment campaigns targeted at women; targets for women's participation; and sex-specific programmes for mentoring, training and advancement. Some institutions go further, adopting quotas for women. For example, OSCE Decision No. 7/09, "Women's participation in political and public life", calls on participating States to consider providing for specific measures to achieve the goal of gender balance in all legislative, judicial and executive bodies, including police services, and take measures to create equal opportunities within the security services, including the armed forces where relevant, to allow for balanced recruitment, retention and promotion of men and women.

UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) affirms the important role of women in conflict prevention and resolution, peacekeeping, peacebuilding, humanitarian response and post-conflict reconstruction, and urges states to increase the participation of women in all UN peace and security efforts, including decision-making related to security. As the resolution draws from key principles of equality and non-discrimination, it reinforces the human rights

standards provided by international instruments, including particularly the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). The synergy between Resolution 1325 and CEDAW is emphasized by General Recommendation 30 on "Women in conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations", in which the CEDAW Committee links the implementation of the resolution to CEDAW reporting mechanisms. In the OSCE region, Ministerial Council Decision 14/05 on women in conflict prevention, crisis management and post-conflict rehabilitation echoes and reinforces Resolution 1325, emphasizing the importance of women's full and equal participation in all phases of conflict prevention, resolution and peacebuilding.

Achieving gender equality requires overcoming hierarchical gender power structures, which for the most part privilege particular men and are the root cause of gender inequality. These same hierarchical gender power structures are the root cause of discrimination against women and girls broadly speaking, but also of discrimination against LGBTI individuals on the basis of their sexual orientation, gender identity or expression. Hence this Toolkit sees achieving gender equality as requiring that people *regardless of their sex, sexual orientation, gender identity or gender expression* are able to enjoy equal rights, share equal responsibilities and access opportunities equally. This is why the Toolkit emphasizes protecting and promoting the human rights of women and ensuring their equal participation in the making and delivery of security on an equal footing to men. This Tool also addresses the need for security providers to work on the basis of principles of equality and non-discrimination with regard to persons of diverse sexual orientations, gender identities and expressions, who are often victimized and excluded. True gender equality cannot be achieved without such measures.

Achieving gender equality requires empowering those who have been disadvantaged due to power imbalances and obstacles based on gender, and also working with those in positions of relative power and privilege to change these imbalances. Thus promoting women's empowerment requires working with men to change their attitudes and practices, and cannot be assumed to be the responsibility of women alone. Involving men and transforming masculinities are essential to achieve gender equality. Similarly, promoting equality for LGBTI persons cannot be assumed to be the responsibility of LGBTI persons alone.

Gender perspective and gender analysis

Key strategies to achieve gender equality in international, national and institutional policies are gender mainstreaming/integrating a gender perspective and gender analysis.

Gender mainstreaming (or "mainstreaming a gender perspective") was defined by the UN in 1972 as:

> ... the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.[12]

Nowadays, the term *gender perspective* is understood more broadly than as a focus only upon men and women. UN Women explains it thus:

> ... 'Gender perspective' is a way of seeing or analyzing which looks at the impact of gender on people's opportunities, social roles and interactions. This way of seeing is what enables one to carry out gender analysis and subsequently to mainstream a gender perspective into any proposed program, policy or organization.[13]

In this Toolkit, "gender perspective" refers to seeing and analysing the impact of gender roles, gender stereotypes and gendered powered structures in society and institutions, including in relation to sexual orientation, gender identity and gender expression. Moreover, the Toolkit uses the term "integrating a gender perspective" rather than the 1972 term "mainstreaming a gender perspective", to emphasize that gender perspective demands more than just "assessing implications" – it also requires taking action accordingly.

In integrating a gender perspective one cannot rely upon commonly held stereotypes about what particular women, men or persons of other gender identities and expressions are "like". For example, young, socioeconomically marginalized men, in particular of ethnic minorities, may be stereotyped as being violent and criminal. On the other hand, stereotypes of young women and girls as being primarily victims can lead to them being sidelined, spoken for by others, and their active roles in society denied. Thorough and evidence-based gender analysis is needed to understand their needs. *Gender analysis* is a critical examination of how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect women, men, girls and boys and persons with other gender identities and different backgrounds in a given policy area, situation or context.*

Good security sector governance

Security has in the past often been narrowly defined in terms of external and internal state security. The concept is nowadays understood in a broader manner, using the security needs of humans as a starting point – an approach enshrined in the concept of "human security" adopted by UN General Assembly Resolution 66/290 in 2012. Similarly, justice provision needs to be founded on a human-rights-based approach. As both of these approaches start with the individual person, understanding how gender affects individuals' justice and security needs is essential.

The term *security sector governance* describes the formal and informal influences of all the structures, institutions and actors involved in provision, management and oversight of security and justice at national and local levels. Figure 2 illustrates the range of actors involved in management and oversight.

Good SSG means applying the principles of good governance to a state's security and justice sector. In short, that accountable security and justice sector institutions (providers) provide security and justice as a public good, via established transparent policies and practices, and within a framework for democratic governance that respects human rights and the rule of law.

Because the security and justice sector must meet the needs of *all* sections of the population *without discrimination, gender equality* is a central element of the principles of good SSG, as set out below.

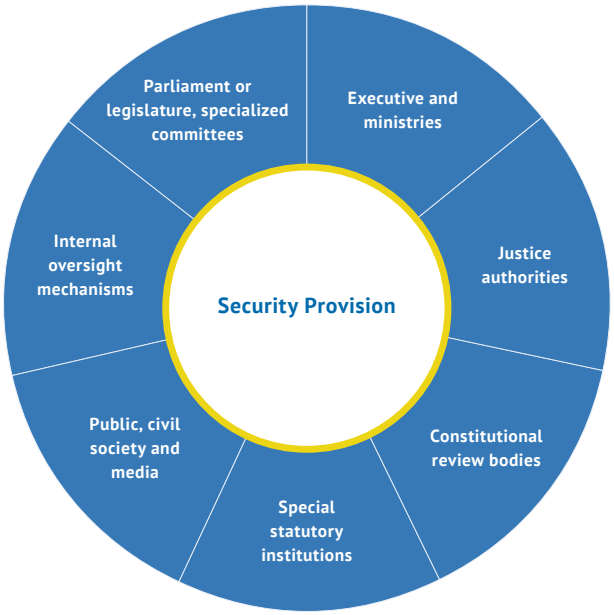
- *Accountability:* there are clear expectations for security provision, and independent authorities oversee whether these expectations are met and impose sanctions if they are not. The security and justice sector must be held accountable for meeting the diverse needs of all sectors of the population.
- *Transparency:* information is freely available and accessible to those who will be affected by decisions and their implementation. Transparency allows for a clear-eyed assessment of whether the security and justice sector is adequately protecting the diverse interests of all sectors of the population.
- *Rule of law:* all persons and institutions, including the state, are subject to laws that are known publicly, enforced impartially and consistent with international and national human rights norms and standards. It requires equality in access to justice for all women, men, boys, girls and those with other gender identities.

* Tool 15 on "Design and Monitoring" presents gender analysis approaches, including gender analysis tools specifically developed for use in conflict-affected contexts.

Tool 14, "Intelligence and Gender", outlines from the perspective of intelligence processes how analysis can take account of gender roles and dynamics.

- *Participation:* all persons of all backgrounds have the opportunity to participate in decision-making and service provision on a free, equitable and inclusive basis, either directly or through legitimate representative institutions.
- *Responsiveness:* institutions are sensitive to the different security needs of all parts of the population, and perform their missions in the spirit of a culture of service and without discrimination.
- *Effectiveness:* institutions fulfil their respective roles, responsibilities and missions to a high professional standard according to the diverse needs of all parts of the population.
- *Efficiency:* institutions make the best possible use of public resources in fulfilling their respective roles, responsibilities and missions.

Figure 2: A range of actors are involved in security sector oversight and management



Satisfying each of these principles is part of the state's overarching obligation to achieve gender equality: the equal rights of women, men and those with other gender identities to opportunities and resources. In particular, achieving *responsiveness, effectiveness, participation* and the impartiality and compliance with human rights standards implied by *rule of law* requires that the security and justice sector actively applies a gender perspective to promote gender equality. For example, that security and justice providers take steps to meet the different security needs of all individuals, and to ensure that participation in the security and justice sector is not limited by virtue of a person's gender, sexual orientation or gender identity.

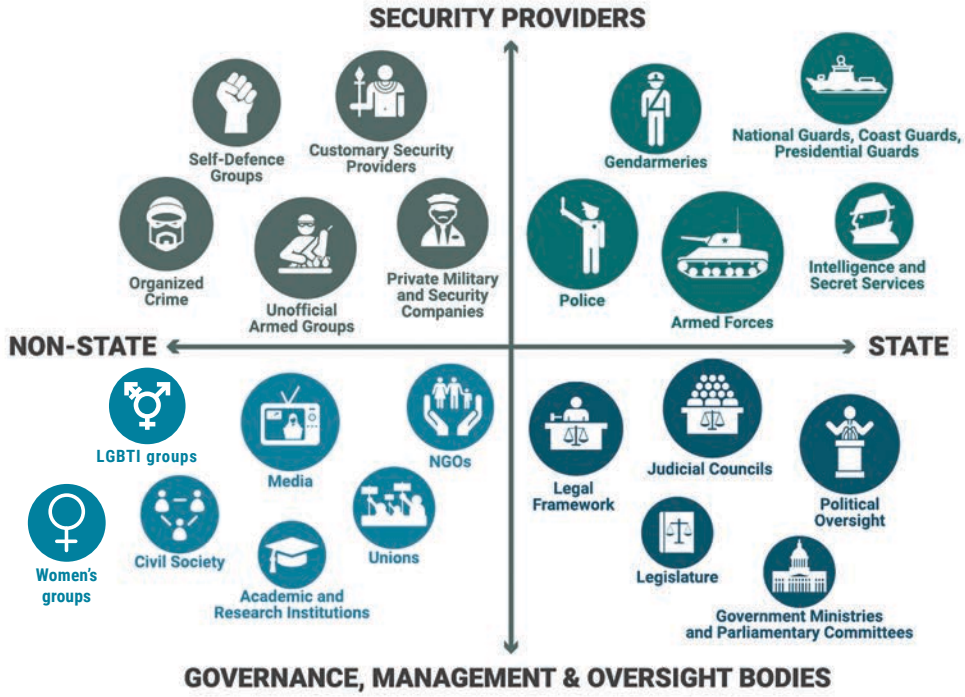
Security sector reform

Where good SSG is the goal, SSR, or security sector transformation, is a way of getting there. Reforms are often targeted at specific parts of the justice and security sector, e.g. police reform, justice reform or penal reform, and these processes open windows of opportunity to increase gender equality in these particular sectors – but also to increase gender equality more broadly.

SSR is the political and technical process of improving state and human security by making security provision, management and oversight more effective and more accountable, within a framework of democratic civilian control, rule of law and respect for human rights. The

goal of SSR is to apply the principles of good governance to the security and justice sector. SSR concerns all state and non-state actors involved in providing, managing and overseeing security (see Figure 3), and emphasizes the links between their roles, responsibilities and actions in improving accountability and governance. SSR also involves aspects of the provision, management and oversight of the justice system. As such, when thinking about SSG and SSR, a broad understanding of the "security and justice sector" should be kept in mind.

Figure 3: The security and justice sector



As illustrated in Figure 3, management and oversight of security and justice are performed by state bodies, including:

- civilian administrative bodies, such as ministries of defence, the interior, foreign affairs and finance; office of the executive; national security advisory councils
- state oversight agencies (e.g. parliamentary bodies, ombudspersons, national human rights commissions and anti-torture committees, financial oversight bodies)
- the judiciary (in their role of security and justice sector oversight).

Oversight functions are also performed by non-state bodies, such as:

- civil society organizations, including those representing groups whose security needs are often underprioritized, such as women, refugees, migrants, people living with disabilities and members of minority groups
- academia and think-tanks
- the media.

Various non-state security providers should be considered – and possibly included – in SSR. These include:

- private security companies*
- customary/traditional justice mechanisms
- non-profit community- or interest-based security providers.

* See the Policy Brief on "Gender and the Regulation of Private Security".

SSR can include a wide range of different reform activities covering all political and technical aspects of security, including legislative initiatives; policy-making; awareness-raising and public information campaigns; and management and administrative capacity building. Although SSR processes may involve a variety of national and international actors, they are above all national processes and need to be nationally owned for them to be successful and sustainable. Box 3 discusses some of the challenges of international support to gender-responsive SSR.

Integrating a gender perspective in SSR has not always been an easy process. Often the focus has been merely on increasing the number of women in the armed forces, police or other uniformed services. Increasing women's participation is important,^ but not in itself enough. All the approaches to promoting gender equality in the security and justice sector discussed in Section 4 of this Tool should be considered in an SSR process.

Box 3: Supporting gender-responsive SSR as outsiders – peacekeeping and other missions abroad

Peacekeeping and other types of missions implemented under the umbrella of international, regional or multilateral organizations, such as the UN, the OSCE, the African Union and the European Union, at times offer support to SSR processes. This support is often co-ordinated by a dedicated structure, such as an SSR unit or rule of law unit, and/or with specific posts, such as SSR advisers. As gender equality is a principle of SSR, these units and advisers should ensure that a gender perspective is integrated throughout the SSR support provided to the host country. Working closely with local partners and co-ordination with other structures within the mission – its civilian, police and military gender units and/or Gender Advisers and Focal Points – are important.

SSR processes supported by multilateral organizations tend, for the most part, to have explicit gender targets, which have often proven difficult to achieve. The challenges and obstacles are manifold: high staff turnover of mission personnel; lack of contextual knowledge and institutional memory; institutional, cultural and language barriers between the mission and local institutions as well as within the mission; low priority of gender mainstreaming and lack of authority given to those tasked with implementing it; and active and/or passive resistance to gender equality.

Additionally, peacekeeping missions struggle to reach targets set to increase the proportion of female military and police peacekeepers. Many of the challenges women peacekeepers face begin at home, with policies and practices that are barriers to their selection (Ghittoni et al., 2018). A 2018 review of UN peacekeeping operations showed that only 10.8 per cent of UN police and 4 per cent of UN military personnel are women (Candela, 2018). Peacekeeping/stabilization missions have also been the source of numerous cases of sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) of the local population. Despite policies such as zero tolerance and structures like the Office for Internal Oversight Services, cases of SEA still occur. This undermines support to these missions from the host society and countries supporting the missions, and can also have severe detrimental impacts on morale within the mission.

Sources: M. Ghittoni, L. Lehouck and C. Watson (2018), "Elsie Initiative for Women in Peace Operations: Baseline study", Geneva: DCAF; K. Candela (2018), "Women's roles as UN peacekeepers: A status report", Pass Blue, 7 August.

^ Good practice in increasing the participation of women in police, armed forces, the justice sector, prison services, border services and intelligence services, as well as in parliamentary oversight processes, is discussed in more detail in the corresponding Tools in this Toolkit.

2.3 National, regional and international legal frameworks for gender equality, SSG and SSR

In most countries, women's rights to equality and/or non-discrimination clauses are written into the constitution.[14] Furthermore, numerous global conventions, commitments and norms address equality and non-discrimination (see Box 4). Broadly speaking, these legal frameworks oblige justice and security providers to:

- be equal, fair and non-discriminatory employers
- be equal, fair and non-discriminatory in carrying out their duties
- respond to GBV and gender-based discrimination
- ensure that legislation on gender equality and non-discrimination is implemented.

In many countries, initiatives to increase gender equality within security and justice institutions and to improve service delivery from a gender perspective have been created and are monitored with reference to a WPS NAP (discussed further in Section 4).

Box 4: International and regional instruments relevant to gender equality, SSG and SSR

A range of national, regional and global legal obligations are relevant to and/or oblige states to integrate a gender perspective in SSG and SSR processes, and in the work of the security and justice sector. A compendium of international and regional legal instruments is published online as part of this Toolkit. Key instruments include the following.

- *UN Security Council resolutions on WPS*, being Resolutions 1325 (2000), 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009), 1889 (2009), 1960 (2010), 2106 (2013), 2122 (2013), 2242 (2015), 2467 (2019) and 2493 (2019), and related regional action plans and NAPs, which often have specific guidance for the security and justice sector.
- The *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women* and the CEDAW Committee's General Recommendations.
- The *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995)*, which was agreed by representatives of 189 governments and made comprehensive commitments under 12 critical areas of concern relevant to women's empowerment.
- The *UN SDGs*: SDG 5 (achieving gender equality) and SDG 16 (promoting peaceful and inclusive societies) are of particular importance for the security and justice sector, but SDGs 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11 and 13 are also relevant.
- *Regional treaties,* such as the African Union's Maputo Protocol and the Council of Europe's Istanbul Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence, and *regional institutional frameworks*.*
- The *Yogyakarta Principles* and *Yogyakarta Plus 10 Principles* pertaining to rights of persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions.

These frameworks provide both obligations and guidance for the security and justice sector on incorporating measures to promote gender equality within their institutions and, more broadly, in society. They range from global and general goals (e.g. the SDGs) to detailed guidance on particular issues, such as prevention of and response to GBV.

Of particular significance, the CEDAW Committee has issued a number of General Recommendations on violence against women (No. 19 and No. 35); on women migrant workers (No. 26); on women in conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations (No. 30) and on women's access to justice (No. 33). General Recommendation No. 30 underscores the importance of "advancing substantive gender equality before, during and after conflict and ensuring that women's diverse experiences are fully integrated into all peacebuilding, peacemaking, and reconstruction processes" (para. 2). General

* The OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality (2004), Ministerial Council Decision No. 14/05, "Women in Conflict Prevention, Crisis Management and Post-Conflict Rehabilitation", and Ministerial Council Decision No. 7/09, "Women's Participation in Political and Public Life", set out the commitments of OSCE participating States with regard to women's participation in the provision of security. The OSCE also has three decisions on violence against women, two of which make reference to the role of security sector personnel: Ministerial Decision No. 15 and Decision No. 7/14, both on preventing and combating violence against women, and Decision No. 4/18, "Preventing and Combating Violence against Women".

Recommendation No. 30 recommends that states:

(b) Undertake gender-sensitive and gender-responsive security sector reform that results in representative security sector institutions that address women's different security experiences and priorities; and liaise with women and women's organizations

(c) Ensure that security sector reform is subject to inclusive oversight and accountability mechanisms with sanctions, including the vetting of ex-combatants; establish specialized protocols and units to investigate gender-based violations; and strengthen gender expertise and the role of women in oversight of the security sector (para. 69).

The 2007 Yogyakarta Principles, drafted by a distinguished group of human rights experts, are based on norms of international human rights law from the perspective of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities. The principles are anchored in the universality of human rights, and specifically in non-discrimination and recognition before the law; rights to human and personal security; economic, social and cultural rights; rights to expression, opinion and association; freedom of movement and asylum; rights to participation in cultural and family life; rights of human rights defenders; and rights of redress and accountability. The 2017 Yogyakarta Plus 10 Principles strengthen the recognition of intersectionality, and better integrate the needs of intersex persons and those with diverse gender expressions and sex characteristics. While the Yogyakarta Principles do not constitute binding law, they are distilled from the text and legal interpretation of a number of international human rights treaties, which are binding on state parties.

Promoting gender equality and inclusivity through good SSG and in SSR processes is thus not a "nice to have" but a national and international legal obligation, rooted in human rights. Beyond meeting legal obligations, furthering gender equality and integrating a gender perspective into their work also brings tangible benefits to justice and security actors, such as more nuanced and comprehensive understandings of the security needs of the population, better community relations, more effective service provision, a larger and more diverse pool of staff members and a better work environment within the institution.

Endnotes

1. Adapted from UN Women, *Gender Equality Glossary*, https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36 (accessed 6 September 2019).
2. See, for example, European Institute for Gender Equality (2018), "Gender specific measures in anti-trafficking actions", Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 14. In the European Union it is reported as the most prevalent form of trafficking in human beings and 95 per cent of registered victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation are women or girls.
3. For example, resolutions of the UN Human Rights Council and General Assembly (listed at https://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Discrimination/Pages/LGBTUNResolutions.aspx, accessed 6 September 2019); Council of the European Union (2013), "Guidelines to promote and protect the enjoyment of all human rights by lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) persons", Luxembourg, Council of the European Union. The OSCE Parliamentary Assembly's 1995 Ottawa Declaration called upon participating States "to ensure that all persons belonging to different segments of their populations be accorded equal respect and consideration in their constitutions, legislation and administration and that there be no subordination, explicit or implied, on the basis of … sexual orientation …", Ottawa: OSCE.
4. UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (2011), "Discriminatory laws and practices and acts of violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity", report, UN Doc. A/HRC/19/41, 17 November, para. 20.
5. Henri Myrttinen and Megan Daigle (2017), *When Merely Existing Is a Risk – Sexual and Gender Minorities in Conflict, Peacebuilding and Displacement*. London: International Alert.
6. Matthew Hurley (2018), "The genderman: (Re)negotiating militarized masculinities when 'doing gender' at NATO", Critical Military Studies, 4(1), pp. 72–91; Henri Myrttinen (2014), "Do as we say, not as we do? Gender and police reform in Timor-Leste", in F. Heiduk (ed.) *Security Sector Reform in Southeast Asia*. Berlin: Springer Verlag, pp. 181–200.
7. Hannah Wright (2014), *Masculinities, Conflict and Peacebuilding: Perspectives on Men Through a Gender Lens*. London: Saferworld.
8. UN, "Gender equality and women's empowerment", UN Sustainable Development, available at https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/gender-equality/ (accessed 6 September 2019); UN OSAGI (2002), "Gender mainstreaming: An overview", New York: UN, p. 1.
9. UN OSAGI (2001), *Important Concepts Underlying Gender Mainstreaming*. New York: UN.
10. WHO (2002), "WHO gender policy – Integrating gender perspectives in the work of WHO" Geneva: WHO.
11. UN, note 8 above.
12. UN Economic and Social Council, *UN Economic and Social Council Resolution 1997/2: Agreed Conclusions*, 18 July 1997, 1997/2.
13. UN Women, note 1 above.
14. As of 2013, 179 countries had either equality or non-discrimination provisions in their constitutions and 83 countries had both. Based on ERA Coalition, "Gender Equality Provisions in Constitutions Worldwide" (undated) available at www.eracoalition.org/files/GenderEqualityProvisionsConstitutionsWorldwide.pdf (accessed 6 September 2019).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3. What would security and justice institutions that advance gender equality and integrate a gender perspective look like?

Gender is a key determinant of the security risks that women, men and people of different gender identities face, as well as the degree to which they are able to access security and justice services. As such, integrating a gender perspective and explicit actions to promote gender equality are necessary for the security and justice sector to fulfil its core task of providing security for all. Such actions and initiatives are strengthened when SSG is considered holistically, and when they are integrated into SSR. This section sets out the key components of a vision of what security and justice institutions that advance gender equality look like. It highlights the importance of looking at gender equality both *within institutions* and in *how they engage with and serve communities*. Section 4 goes into more detail on ways in which this vision can be achieved.

In reading this section, and indeed the entire Tool, keep in mind that a gender perspective needs to be integrated at each stage of the *full cycle* of justice and security provision – analysis, policy-making, design and planning, training, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, management and oversight – rather than being regarded as an "add-on" (see Figure 4). A comprehensive approach includes (but is not limited to) the following.

- Gender analysis of the security and justice issues the institution is tasked to address, and how they differently affect women, men and people of different gender identities. This involves an analysis of the existing state of affairs and how this could be improved to increase inclusivity, equality and diversity.
- Assessing how well the make-up of the institution reflects and is able to advance gender equality in terms of its personnel (including specialist personnel able to lead and support gender work), ways of working, institutional culture and priorities.
- Ensuring that staff are trained, equipped, motivated and empowered to promote gender equality.
- Ensuring this is supported by management and oversight to ensure the necessary resources, legal frameworks and strategies are in place for the institution to advance gender equality actively. This includes the internal management structures of the justice or security sector institution in question as well as other SSG structures, such as parliamentary committees, national human rights institutions and forums for engaging with civil society.

Image: Colombian National Military and Police March, 2019. © Policía Nacional de los Colombianos

Figure 4: Integrating a gender perspective across the full cycle of justice and security provision

3.1 Gender equality is promoted *within* security and justice institutions

Successfully integrating a gender perspective and pursuing gender equality goals means that gender is mainstreamed within the sector and justice sector both *internally* (as regards its own personnel) and *externally* (as regards its services). These two aspects are intimately linked, as what is occurring internally in an institution impacts the work it is doing externally, while what is being done externally has a bearing on internal ways of working. Security and justice sector institutions that embrace diversity, inclusivity and gender equality are better equipped to respond to diverse societal needs.

A gender-equal, diverse and inclusive justice and security sector achieves success in the recruitment, retention and meaningful participation of women. In addition, gender equality goes hand in hand with more holistically achieving a diverse and inclusive institutional culture. Security and justice sector institutions that are diverse and inclusive attract, retain and promote *a diversity of* women, men and persons of other gender identities, including (but not limited to) LGBTI persons and people from minority or disadvantaged groups. This happens where institutional culture and work practices are inclusive, non-discriminatory and open to diversity, and can for example include the following measures.

- Work–life balance is managed with a gender perspective, considering the different ways that men, women and others might struggle to combine work with other responsibilities, such as caring for parents or children.
- Institutional assessments and audits of recruiting and promotion processes, pay scales, human resources policies, and access to training and mentoring have identified implicit and explicit gender and other biases, which have been addressed through new policies, procedures and training.
- The roles, skills and units considered to be stereotypically "feminine" (for example, family protection units or Gender Focal Points) are valued equally with those considered "masculine".
- Halting and preventing sexual or gender-based discrimination, bullying, harassment, exploitation and abuse against staff are serious priorities.

- Initiatives to promote gender equality and improve organizational culture are led effectively and accompanied by internal management and external oversight mechanisms to ensure that they are followed through.

These kinds of initiatives help to change perceptions of appropriate and acceptable forms of masculinities and femininities within the security and justice sector, and improve both the work atmosphere and the external image and effectiveness of the institution.

Gender equality, inclusion and diversity are achieved through carefully designed and resourced human resources strategies and practices based on the principles of equality and non-discrimination to which states have committed in international human rights treaties. Starting with top-level leadership, managing the institution in a way that reflects principles of equality and non-discrimination, including the promotion of diversity, and ensuring that these are taken seriously sets the tone and indicates what is and what is not permissible. Leadership on gender equality not only moves downwards in the hierarchy, but ideally includes openness among senior management to inputs, suggestions and concerns of more junior staff. Accountability, disciplinary, complaint and oversight mechanisms concerning the security and justice sector also play critical roles in supporting inclusivity, non-discrimination and gender equality. Practical strategies are discussed further in Section 4, Pathway 5.

3.2 Gender equality in society is promoted *by* security and justice institutions

Externally as much as internally, security and justice institutions that advance gender equality provide their services to every part of the community. Actions are taken in every aspect of their work to identify and overcome the barriers to security and justice associated with gender roles and biases and gendered insecurities. Justice and security providers are properly trained, equipped and motivated to act upon gender-related security and justice concerns, be it responding to domestic violence, hate crime, economic discrimination, custody issues, unequal access to resources or other issues. They do not engage in sexual or gender-based forms of discrimination, bullying, harassment, exploitation or abuse against those whom they are supposed to serve; and they challenge it when they see it. Robust internal and external oversight and accountability mechanisms help to ensure this.

The professionalism, efficiency and effectiveness with which justice and security institutions integrate a gender perspective create positive feedback loops. For example, a police service that deals with domestic violence in a professional and gender-responsive manner will enjoy greater respect and co-operation from the community and higher rates of reporting. A service provider that takes inclusion and diversity seriously as an employer will be able to hire a greater diversity of personnel, and thus be in a better position to address the needs of its diverse population – which, in turn, makes it a more trusted service provider and attractive employer.

3.3 Security and justice are understood and addressed with a gender perspective

Identifying and overcoming the barriers to security and justice related to gendered inequalities require integrating a gender perspective of the justice and security needs of different types of individuals, communities and populations, and of community perceptions of security and justice services. A gender perspective is relevant whether one is looking at how police understand security needs in communities, how armed forces assess insecurity

in an operational environment, how the justice sector understands barriers to access to justice, how prisons map the vulnerabilities within a prison population and so on. Gender analysis, which underlies a gender perspective, goes beyond examining men and women as homogeneous groups; it is intersectional, also incorporating factors such as age, sexual orientation, location, class, ethnicity and disability. A gender perspective helps one to assess the needs and vulnerabilities of potential victims, but also the motivations of perpetrators and how both suspects and victims are treated in the security and justice system.

Gender analysis processes can involve a wide range of SSG actors such as ministries, parliament, national human rights institutions and think-tanks, but also draw upon academia and civil society organizations. The latter include organizations working on women's equality, on defending the rights of LGBTI persons, or representing other groups whose security needs tend to be underprioritized.*

Box 5 is an example of a gender-responsive survey of how people view security and security provision. Practical strategies for gender analysis are discussed further in Section 4, Pathway 1.

Box 5: How gender affects views of security and security provision – an example from Lebanon

International Alert, an international NGO, commissioned a national survey of how the Lebanese population viewed security overall, how they rated different security providers and who people would go to for security and justice provision. In addition to examining the role of gender, the survey examined location, which in the Lebanese case is often closely tied to one's class and religious identity. This intersectional lens of analysis brought to light some unexpected findings that went against more general trends. These included, for example:

- men in areas with a high perceived political tension felt less safe in public spaces than did women due to a fear of being targeted
- women in rural areas were more concerned about GBV than were women in urban areas
- men were less likely than women to access any formal or informal security providers when they were the victim of a crime, perhaps out of expectations to show independence and strength
- there was support among both men and women for less "hard" policing.

Other findings were more in line with expectations, such as:

- a tendency to view domestic and intimate partner violence as a "private" matter and not report this to the police, in part due to poor responses from service providers
- a high degree of distrust of security services among persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions
- higher trust among women and men in female police officers and support for a more gender-equal police force.

Source: L. Khattab and H. Myrttinen (2014), Gender, Security and SSR in Lebanon. Beirut: International Alert.

Intersectional gender analysis, which takes into consideration different factors, including, among others, how ethnicity, race, religion, social or other status can add to gender-based discrimination, provides a solid basis on which to formulate gender-responsive policies and procedures. It informs design of measures to prevent crime, address insecurity and overcome barriers to justice. Gender analyses are integrated in security and justice provision from the

* For more guidance on integrating gender in parliamentary oversight of the security sector, see Tool 7, "Parliamentary Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender". The involvement of civil society in security sector oversight and governance is explored in Tool 9 of the 2008 DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit,* "Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender".

strategic policy level down to operational planning processes, with mechanisms built in to ensure accountability, transparency, monitoring and evaluation.

A gender perspective identifies responding to and preventing all forms of GBV as being among the key priorities of the security and justice sector, including misogynist, homophobic, biphobic and transphobic hate crime (see Box 6). Understanding of and responses to GBV are developed through engagement and co-operation with those most at risk, where this is possible.

Box 6: Responding to sexual harassment, SEA and GBV internally and externally

Security and justice providers are among the most important responders to different forms of GBV, including conflict-related sexual violence. While the vast majority of victims/survivors* of sexual harassment, GBV and SEA are women and girls, anyone can become a target, regardless of gender identity. Justice and security providers need to prevent and respond to all forms of GBV, both internally and externally. This requires a focus on sexually harassing, abusive, exploitative or violent behaviour between personnel or by personnel against others. Externally there must be a focus on prevention of and response as regards third parties committing these acts against others, including against justice and security sector personnel.

While reporting GBV and SEA is extremely difficult in all cases, social norms, power dynamics and social, political, economic or emotional dependencies on the perpetrator(s) often add additional barriers. These difficulties can differ depending on gender: women and girls may face accusations of adultery or "morally loose" behaviour when reporting, men may be accused of homosexuality, and persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions may face legal consequences or additional violence for merely disclosing their non-heterosexuality or non-binary identity. Sexual harassment, SEA and GBV tend to be the only crimes for which the victim, rather than the perpetrator, is blamed or for which the victim often becomes the focus of the investigation.

Perpetration of GBV by security and justice sector personnel is a serious human rights violation, in addition to being unlawful and in contravention of their mandate. Misconduct by security sector institutions also undermines broader trust in the capacity of the security and justice sector to deliver security and can bring about revictimization, including secondary victimization. Failure to respond to internal cases of sexual and gender-based harassment, GBV and SEA is usually in breach of the institution's regulations but also affects morale, loyalty of staff and the effectiveness of the institution. In certain countries and for certain groups, e.g. persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions or people in prostitution, police officers and border guards can be among the main sources of insecurity, harassment, sexual extortion, sexual abuse, exploitation and violence.

** There is debate among victims/survivors of GBV and organizations working with them as to which is the more appropriate term. In this Tool both are used, as victims/survivors need to be given the possibility of defining their status themselves.*

While preventing and responding to GBV is a key way in which security and justice providers contribute to increasing gender equality, the security and justice sector should recognize that its mandate in terms of advancing gender equality is far broader. Justice and security providers also ensure that legal guarantees to all citizens in terms of their full legal access to and enjoyment of equal rights *without discrimination* are implemented – and that the diverse needs of all parts of the population are accounted for.


ПОНЯТТЯ ТА ВИДИ НАСИЛЬСТВА В СІМ'Ї
ВИДИ НАСИЛЬСТВА В СІМ'Ї

4. How to advance gender equality and integrate a gender perspective in SSG and in SSR processes

Over the past decade, a number of good practices have evolved and innovative approaches have been developed to facilitate better incorporation of a gender perspective into SSG, SSR processes and security and justice sector institutions, to ensure that these contribute to broader gender equality goals. In this section, several pathways of how a gender perspective can be integrated into SSG and SSR are presented in more detail. These cover the following areas:

- defining security needs in an inclusive, gender-sensitive manner
- policy-led approaches to integrating gender equality into security and justice governance
- gender training for security and justice providers
- using staff with specialized gender expertise
- changing institutional cultures to increase participation of women and overall diversity.

In all these pathways, gender-responsive design and monitoring of programmes and projects using gender analysis are crucial.

These pathways are not a roadmap or an action plan, but rather examples of how a gender perspective can be – and has been – integrated into the security and justice sector and how these processes can be used to promote gender equality. Which pathways are chosen and where change needs to happen depends on the context, the issue and the actors in question. At times the change needs to happen "upstream" in terms of legal frameworks and policies, say, for example, the legal recognition of marital rape or of sexual violence against men and boys, before justice and service providers can act upon these. At other times the entry points will be more "downstream" and operational, such as enhancing gender mentoring programmes or improving gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation systems.

Pathway 1: Defining security needs in an inclusive, gender-responsive manner

An important first step for improving justice and security services to all people – men, women and people of different gender identities – is understanding what their particular needs are, how current responses are working and what the contextual dynamics are. Listening to communities and individuals and inviting them to participate in articulating their own needs can increase the local acceptance of justice and security actors, as well as giving them important insights as to how to improve in fulfilling their tasks. Box 7 contains

Image: Officers of mobile police teams responsible for domestic violence response improve their skills in providing premedical assistance to victims, Dnipro, 26 May 2017.
© OSCE/Andrii Kravchenko

Box 7: Using locally based, community-owned gender and conflict analysis – examples from Colombia and Myanmar

Following the signing of the Colombian Peace Agreement in 2016, a special police unit was established for the areas in which the former FARC guerrillas were reincorporated into civilian life. This Unidad Policial para la Edificación de la Paz (Police Unit for Peacebuilding) entered a process, funded by the government of Norway, and facilitated and organized by DCAF and the Colombian NGO Corporación de Investigacón y Acción Social y Económica, to solicit women's perceptions of security and security and justice providers, in particular of the police, in five rural municipalities.

The project deliberately focused on listening to and conveying the voices of those whose views on security are seldom heard, both inside and especially outside of their communities: rural, socio-economically marginalized women of different ages, including indigenous women. This was done mainly through extended focus group discussions which were designed to be welcoming and informal, as well as through individual interviews. The result was a very different kind of security and threat mapping compared to more generic processes, which often tend to focus on macro-level threats (e.g. political violence, narcotics trade, geopolitics). Instead, the women raised many local-level effects of these national- and international-level dynamics, and what these meant at the personal, family and community levels, often with quite unexpected and practical insights. For example, military posts had been in charge of stockpiling snakebite serum in remote areas, but civilians who went to request serum feared being suspected of being insurgents if they did so. While younger men might fall under greater suspicion, women often were reluctant to approach security services in the first place.

The organizations running the project also sought to understand the views and attitudes of the police, and opened up spaces for officers to discuss their own fears of serving in an area which had seen high levels of insurgent activity, the lack of communication channels with the communities, and their own struggles with understanding mandates, decision-making processes and divisions of labour, especially when on-the-ground practice deviated from official regulations. Officers also often did not know the history and dynamics of the region, and did not always understand where particular demands were coming from. Some of these concerns were shared by community members and security providers, such as mutual distrust and struggling with the "legalese" of official orders, regulations and laws.

The women's insights gave the Police Unit new possibilities of better understanding and responding to community security concerns, but also pointed out ways in which *not* to provide security – for example in a heavily militarized and intimidating manner, or carrying out tasks of other service providers. The analysis and discussions also highlighted that the police need not, indeed should not, become the sole or main service provider of various forms of human security, but that it should, in the words of the communities, be the door that allows the communities to access other state service providers.

The process allowed a better understanding of the community's and security actors' needs and roles, and a better delineation between different security providers' roles. The collaboration of local and external actors in this process was crucial: a local NGO, which understood the local context, had the trust of both the community and security and justice sector and could mediate between both; an international think-tank, which brought in technical SSG/SSR experience; an international donor, to add political gravitas; and, importantly, a police service, which was open to seriously engaging with and listening to local – and at times seemingly unorthodox and unexpected – views on security. The process also allowed staff from the Police Unit to express their own security concerns, and the challenges and needs they face in security provision. In addition to being a comprehensive mapping and learning exercise for all parties involved, the consultations acted as a trust-building process between the Police Unit and the community to which it was providing security. In the longer term, the outcomes of the consultations will inform the Unidad Policial para la Edificación de la Paz's future approach to policing.

A second example of an NGO working with local communities to help define their security needs and analyse these from a gender perspective comes from the UK-based NGO Saferworld. Saferworld has developed a toolkit for carrying out a gender analysis of conflict, initially piloted with the Uganda Land Alliance. The approach is highly participatory, and involves focus group discussions, interviews and other consultative processes with affected communities to allow them to define their own security needs from a gendered perspective. It also explicitly seeks to capture the social expectations placed on different men and different women in the community, and the gendered impacts of conflict and fragility.

Saferworld used this approach in southeastern Myanmar as part of a process to bring together conflict-affected Karen communities, state and non-state security actors, women's rights and human rights organizations and informal power brokers. Local NGOs and communities developed community-level security plans and security committees, in which women's leadership was encouraged. Depending on whether the communities are under Myanmar state control or in territories controlled by the Karen National Union, the local committees interact with state and non-state security and justice providers. To help the local committees gain experience and confidence, to iron out practical and organizational issues and to build trust, the committees tend to start engaging first on less contentious issues and then work their way towards more intractable or sensitive security concerns.

Sources: CIASE/DCAF (2018), Transcending the Long Path – Recommendations for the Security of Rural Women in Colombia. Bogota/Geneva: CIASE/DCAF; Saferworld (2016), Gender Analysis of Conflict Toolkit. London: Saferworld.

examples of how community-owned gender and conflict analysis has been used to reframe security needs radically based on actual community concerns in Colombia and Myanmar.

These examples highlight how bringing in a more diverse set of actors and openness to a more inclusive view of security and justice needs can lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the situation at hand, and also work to increase trust and mutual understanding of what is – and what is not – possible in terms of security and justice provision. Dialogue and community engagement are relevant in all contexts, not only those, as in the examples, affected by conflict. For example, dialogue between police and LGBTI organizations in both Serbia and Northern Ireland has helped police to understand issues faced by LGBTI persons, leading to better service provision.[1]

Key elements of this approach are listed below.

- Directly engaging with communities in a participatory manner.
- Creating processes that allow diverse voices to be heard, rather than only those – usually more powerful men – who tend to dominate discussions.
- Ensuring that these insights are taken up in a meaningful way, to the extent possible, by the relevant security and justice providers.
- Ensuring transparency and feedback to the community in question as to the changes that have occurred as a result. It is important that the communities involved are able to track and be informed about what happens with their input and what changes this has/has not resulted in and why. This may often require investing additional effort into clarifying how SSG works in their context and what the roles of different actors are, as well as managing expectations.

Pathway 2: Policy frameworks for integrating gender equality into justice and security governance

Effectively addressing the different gendered justice and security needs of a population requires governance and policy frameworks that, on the one hand, recognize these gendered needs and, on the other hand, create an enabling environment for justice and service providers to act to address them.

Successes can be found in the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and its subsequent "sister" resolutions on a national level. The passing of Resolution 1325 in 2000 was enabled by a broad coalition of civil society actors, including prominent women rights' organizations and academia, and key state actors, who came together and formulated a policy framework based on a range of gendered justice and security needs they had identified. The overall framework of the WPS resolutions has been translated by over 75 countries into more detailed and actionable NAPs, as well as by multinational organizations into regional action plans, spelling out ways in which different justice and security providers are to promote and implement the aims of the resolutions.

There are marked differences between countries and organizations that have developed NAPs in terms of their inclusivity and scope. Some countries' NAP development processes have been very broadly inclusive, while in others the process has been centralized within one key ministry or ministries. In some countries, a range of ministries, parliament, other oversight bodies, civil society organizations, academia and people within security and justice institutions tasked with NAP implementation have jointly defined the NAP's objectives, and ways of reaching these and of holding the sector accountable. While some NAPs have focused only on internal actors and activities within their country, others have been outward focused on activities the country may support externally, for example through peacekeeping missions or development assistance. Some, in turn, have been a combination of internal- and external-facing elements.

Over the decades, several important lessons have been learned as to what can make NAPs effective policy instruments in identifying and addressing gendered security and justice needs. These include:

- clear ownership of and commitment to the NAP with an actor (e.g. ministry) that has convening power and the necessary leverage to ensure the plan is implemented
- buy-in from the implementing agencies at all levels
- earmarked budgeting of activities, including co-ordination, monitoring, evaluation and reporting
- ensuring policy coherence and harmonization of reporting processes so that NAP activities are not separate from other activities and do not become an additional reporting burden
- clarity on what is expected from different implementers, with clear indicators to monitor progress
- ensuring that various parties to the process, be they implementing, managing the process or playing an oversight role, have the capacity, necessary information and resources to fulfil their respective roles.

While NAPs/regional action plans have been a key entry point to integrate a gender perspective into SSG, SSR and provision of security and justice, doing so can and should be pursued through more regular SSG mechanisms. Box 8 shares a good example from Uruguay.

Box 8: Using SSG and SSR to promote gender equality and diversity – an example from Uruguay

Uruguay has been successfully implementing policies oriented towards gender equality, inclusivity and diversity in its security and justice sector governance. Changes came through targeted actions aimed at shifting the understanding of security and justice provision away from state security and maintaining order to an approach more oriented to protecting human rights. This has, for example, included concentrating efforts on preventive measures to reduce security risks which have strongly gendered elements – such as suicides and traffic deaths among men, and domestic and intimate partner violence. These shifts were enabled by changing societal attitudes, reflected in policy changes that, in turn, were relayed to the security and justice sector through SSG/SSR processes.

Prevalence of domestic violence against women remains high in Uruguay. New policy frameworks to address it have included the passing of a bill in 2016 "to guarantee women a life free of gender-based violence", which was developed by the government with support from UN Women, the World Health Organization and the National Women's Institute.

Uruguay also has some of the most progressive legislation regarding sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions in Latin America. Persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions are allowed to serve openly in the country's armed forces, which seek to actively recruit and retain more women.

While the appointment of Senator Daisy Tourné, a feminist woman, as Minister of the Interior in 2007–2009 was a catalyst for many of the changes, they have been backed up by supporting measures at various levels. The cross-party Women's Parliamentary Group has supported integrating a gender perspective into justice and security work, and actively monitors this. The Women's Parliamentary Group publishes an evaluation of all ministries and policies regarding gender mainstreaming, including the work of the ministries of the Interior and Defence. Resistance to gender mainstreaming among justice and security providers was reduced by Minister Tourné and her allies entering masculinized policy arenas, and trust-building through dialogue. To ensure that gender mainstreaming does not sit only with the Gender Affairs Ministry and is implemented only at the top level, the post of Commissioner for Women in the Ministry of the Interior was created, ensuring implementation of gender mainstreaming also at the "mid-level" of management.

Source: UN Women (2016), Gender Violence Bill, presented in Uruguay, 15 April.

Pathway 3: Gender training for security and justice providers

One of the key ways in which gender mainstreaming efforts are undertaken in the security and justice sector is gender training, with a wide variety in terms of depth, length and content. Methodologies and formats also vary greatly. While some training is carried out internally or in specialized international training centres, there are also numerous non-profit and for-profit providers of gender training from outside the security and justice sector. Training can be online, face to face, or a combination of both. Some training focuses more on legal frameworks and operational procedures (e.g. focusing chiefly on national and international norms or internal rules and regulations), while other courses seek to be more transformative of participating individuals and the institutions they represent, and yet others combine both approaches.*

Core education and training for security and justice sector personnel should include tools for gender analysis, addressing gendered security needs, gender mainstreaming and addressing gender bias. This helps to ensure that "gender" becomes integral to security provision rather than being seen as optional or an add-on. Additional training and other types of

* Training of security and justice sector personnel to integrate a gender perspective into their work is also addressed in Tools 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 14, as well as in Tool 12 of the 2008 DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*, "Gender Training for Security Sector Personnel".

learning and capacity-building opportunities then build upon this. Different approaches are often necessary for ground-level personnel versus mid- and upper-level management. While arguments around how to strengthen the institution and its external image can be effective at managerial levels, these often have little currency for lower ranks. Here, taking the personal experiences, fears, frustrations and concerns of training participants seriously can be key – but it is vital that these are addressed in a safe and ethical manner. Box 9 describes a project in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) that included training of border guards to help address gendered security needs.*

Box 9: Meeting gendered security needs at multiple levels – an example from the Democratic Republic of the Congo

The Tushiriki Wote (Let's All Participate) project focused on improving the lives of women cross-border traders in the eastern DRC. It was a five-year collaboration between the international NGO International Alert and a consortium of 14 local partners.

Small-scale traders cross the borders between the DRC, Burundi and Rwanda daily. They had faced various forms of harassment, extortion and abusive behaviour during their border crossings and at markets. The often under-resourced and stressed border guards complained of poor working conditions and poor compliance by the traders with regulations. Daily interactions between border guards and traders at the border crossings were marked by acrimony and lack of trust. In addition, women traders struggled with unequal and occasionally violent relationships at home, and lived in a patriarchal and heavily militarized society where women's voices counted for little.

The project was designed around the experiences and needs of the women involved. It sought to tackle their concerns at multiple levels by:

- improving relations with border officials through training and sensitization efforts, helping both traders and border officials better understand their rights and obligations
- building trust between traders of different nationalities
- tackling extortionary behaviour by official and unofficial authorities
- improving women traders' family relations, which – at the request of the small-scale trader women – explicitly included working with their husbands on transforming masculinities.

The project involved a combination of community dialogue, involving some 1,400 people, and work with small-scale cross-border women traders, border officials, traders' associations/co-operatives, political and administrative institutions, businesses and grassroots associations. For example, support was given to the women market traders' associations to improve their capacity to address the needs of their constituents. Community-level efforts were supported at a macro level by measures to increase women's overall access to positions of social and political decision-making at all levels, from market associations to the national parliament.

The Tushiriki Wote project thus started from a narrow focus on cross-border trade and its frictions, but aimed to address gendered security needs comprehensively. This meant not only improving the women's skills and empowering them, but closely involving customs and immigration officials in the public space and their male partners in the private space to increase dialogue, build mutual understanding and reduce the risks of violent escalation of tensions.

* Integrating a gender perspective in border management is addressed in more detail in Tool 6, "Border Management and Gender".

Gender training, particularly if it is mandatory, often has to contend with audience apathy, passive and active resistance, and subversion (see also Section 5 on dealing with resistance). Designers and implementers of training may choose to focus only on certain "easier" topics and bracket out issues seen as potentially too sensitive, contentious and "difficult", due to a sense that broaching these issues would close doors. Two issues that are often seen as being too difficult or time-consuming, and therefore left out of training, are questioning dominant forms of masculinity in the security and justice sector, and including discussions of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities and expressions in relation to gender.[2] However, questions around these issues may well arise spontaneously from the audience, so trainers must always be prepared to facilitate conversations appropriately.

Trainers, women's rights organizations, advocates for the rights of LGBTI persons and organizations working on transforming masculinities have used various approaches to raise these issues effectively in gender training with the security and justice sector. While by no means exhaustive, the following consolidate some of their lessons learnt, drawing on practical experiences from Latin America, Europe, the Middle East, sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. These approaches all carry risks and require experienced and confident trainers. Successfully employed, however, they can be transformative in terms of pushing people to think beyond stereotypical, and often very gendered, frameworks.

- *Start with the "taboos" straight away and then deconstruct them.* For example, allow training participants to express openly their opposition to an aspect of gender policy, such as the inclusion of women and LGBTI persons in uniformed services, and then discuss counter arguments. Acknowledge that while accepting something that is new or unknown can be uncomfortable, justice and security sector minimum standards require that everyone be treated equally.[3]
- *Focus on participants' own gendered experiences of frustrations, needs and vulnerabilities.* For example, in many countries male former military service members face particular difficulties in civilian reintegration. They may "deal with" trauma in ways considered acceptable to "hard masculinity", such as violence, risk-taking behaviour, substance abuse or suicide. Use experiences to which trainees can closely relate as entry points to discussing gender norms and expectations. Direct the conversation to ensure that it does not reaffirm dominant or harmful gendered behaviour, but rather underscores how restrictive gender roles are problematic for everyone.
- *To open up discussions and reflect on implicit bias, use the stated mission goals and daily work of security and justice providers to open broader discussions on gender.* For example, use the fact that security providers are mandated to protect all individuals but are often not responsive in addressing forms of GBV that disproportionately affect women, from intimate partner and domestic violence to online harassment and abuse, or in addressing GBV against persons of diverse sexual orientations and gender identities.
- *Take a technical approach.* Discuss potentially difficult topics in a "technical" way. Focus on skills training, development of best practices, integrating a gender perspective into assessment and analysis frameworks or standard operating procedures in, for example, dealing with hate crimes, preventing male-to-male sexual assault in prisons or responding to GBV within uniformed services.*
- *Use reality-based scenarios.* Scenario-based problem solving, using complex real-life situations, creates space to bring in complexities where there are no clear answers, open discussion on moral and legal dilemmas, and open possibilities to address attitudes which are discriminatory and/or go against inclusive and gender-equitable security provision.

* A gender perspective in prisons and other places of deprivation of liberty is considered in Tool 5, "Places of Deprivation of Liberty and Gender".

- *Tackle GBV by staff of security and justice providers head-on as an entry point.* For example, use sexual harassment and abuse of women and LGBTI persons as an uncomfortable discussion opener; or, less confrontationally, use the lack of proper response to femicide, domestic and intimate partner violence, and biphobic, homophobic or transphobic violence.

Ideally, training leads to a transformational process that does not end with the end of the course. Participants should go back to their institutions and work with a new sensitivity in recognizing gender inequality around them, or seeing how they are constrained or privileged by their gender roles.

Pathway 4: Using staff with specialized gender expertise

Over the past two decades many justice and security providers have instituted roles for specialized gender-focused staff. These roles vary greatly, and include part-time or full-time Gender Focal Points or Gender Advisers; gender units; observatories on equality; all-female units; units specialized in responding to GBV; roles focused on engaging with women, particular groups of women or men or LGBTI people within communities; and associations for women or LGBTI staff within the institution. This section focuses on Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points.*

The role of Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points is to advise different parts of the organization or mission on integrating a gender perspective across all its policies, plans, activities and operations, as well as acting as go-to experts on questions and specialized tasks related to gender. The use of Gender Focal Points and Gender Advisers in UN peacekeeping missions, in missions by regional bodies such as the OSCE, the African Union and the European Union, and by national security providers has over the past decade emerged as a key strategy to build expertise for and co-ordination of gender mainstreaming within missions and organizations. The OSCE, for example, has Gender Focal Points in each field operation and institution, and in all departments of the Secretariat. The UN is mandated by Security Council Resolution 2242 (2015) to deploy gender expertise in strategic assessment teams as well as all stages of a mission, from planning to implementation. At least 28 national armed forces now have Gender Advisers, as do numerous police services and other justice and security providers.[4]

Generally, the task of a Gender Adviser is solely focused on gender, while Gender Focal Points support gender mainstreaming as an additional part-time responsibility. Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points are sometimes appointed from within the service, sometimes recruited from outside. Each approach has strengths and weaknesses: outsiders may be able to address concerns and raise problems more freely than persons from within institutions, while persons recruited from within the institution will better understand institutional procedures, hierarchies and cultures.

Gender Advisers and Gender Focal Points have been shown to be an effective mechanism for an organization to build its internal expertise and capacity for integrating a gender perspective. They can act as catalysts for wider change, introducing, explaining and championing a gender perspective and the relevance of gender equality to an organization's mandate and goals.

Nonetheless, Gender Advisers and Focal Points have at times struggled with the potential breadth of their task and limited resources. Gender Focal Points especially face this challenge, as their "gender work" usually comes on top of a full complement of other responsibilities. Experience shows that Gender Focal Points or Gender Advisers cannot be expected to

* Specialized gender expertise in security and justice institutions is also addressed in Tool 2 on "Policing and Gender", which includes a detailed focus on women's police stations, Tool 3 on "Defence and Gender", Tool 4 on "Justice and Gender" and Tool 5 on "Places of Deprivation of Liberty and Gender".

achieve integration of a gender perspective when the institution remains dominated by dynamics and working practices that are not gender responsive. Deeper institutional change requires the management of justice and security institutions to engage meaningfully with promoting gender equality, rather than seeing this as a "women's issue" or merely a task for the Gender Focal Point or Adviser. Crucially, this may mean changing male behaviours and attitudes, and masculine-dominated institutional cultures.

Based on emerging best practice, persons in these positions can best fulfil their tasks when the following conditions are in place.

- Leadership needs to ensure that promoting gender equality is seen as being central to the institution's mission and success. There must be public senior-level recognition that responsibility for gender mainstreaming and promotion of gender equality sits at the most senior levels. Accordingly, the work of Gender Focal Points and Advisers must be taken seriously and supported, for example, by involving them in key planning and decision-making processes, and giving them access to senior leadership.
- Gender Focal Points and Advisers need training on gender issues relevant to their tasks, potentially on the institution or the mission, and in case of international deployments on the sociocultural and political environment in which they will be deployed. They also need skills and expertise for gender analysis and for developing and monitoring gender-related policies and training.
- Gender Focal Points and Advisers need a clear job description: what their responsibilities are, where they have the authority to intervene and where they do not, and to whom they are accountable. Gender Advisers and especially Gender Focal Points need to be given clarity about what does and does not fall within their remit. Too often they are expected to do their "gender work" in addition to other regular tasks, and/or are tasked simultaneously with attending to other "cross-cutting issues", such as child protection or disabilities. Gender Focal Points and Advisers risk becoming unofficial go-to points for colleagues on problems that should instead be addressed to human resources or disciplinary mechanisms, such as discrimination, or sexual harassment, abuse or exploitation.
- In addition to authority and clarity about their roles, Gender Advisers and Focal Points need adequate resources, including time and personnel, to fulfil their tasks. It is not uncommon for gender mainstreaming positions to have extremely limited or no funds at their disposal for implementing activities. They may also need access to, for example, transport, communications resources and interpreters.
- Mutual networking between Gender Advisers and Focal Points has been shown not only to provide a professional support network, but also to facilitate sharing of key information and best practices.

Pathway 5: Challenging masculine institutional cultures to increase women's participation and overall diversity

The security and justice sector and its institutional cultures do change along with the rest of society. However, this change often comes slower to uniformed services, given their often considerable investment in tradition, strong gendered senses of what being a member of the institution means, and norms and hierarchies that are more regulated than in most areas of civilian life. As discussed in Section 2, many institutions that provide justice and security are overwhelmingly male in staffing and symbolically associated with and cultivate particular forms of manhood. Changing institutional cultures requires fully integrating women into the institution, which demands transforming its masculine institutional culture. This is all the more important in cases where masculinities linked with the justice and security sector

draw on or reproduce misogyny, racism, transphobia, homophobia, biphobia or other forms of discrimination; and/or include harmful practices such as hazing, bullying or violence against others; and/or are conducive to unacceptable or criminal behaviour such as sexual harassment, exploitation and abuse, and other forms of GBV.

Many security and justice sector institutions have found it most effective to frame integrating women within wider attempts to build diversity and inclusion. It is important not only to have balance between male and female staff, but also to ensure that men and women are *diverse* in terms of ethnicity, religion or belief, sexual orientation and other factors in a manner that reflects broader society.

Achieving change in institutional culture requires both top-down and bottom-up approaches. Strong leadership on gender equality has been demonstrated in many countries over the past decade, including through appointing gender champions in the security sector and taking other measures for political and institutional leaders to endorse gender equality and inclusivity both internally and publicly.

Horizontal, peer-to-peer dynamics within organizations also need to be taken into account. In many security and justice institutions it is the organizational subgroup (e.g. squad-level unit, specialized branch or subsection) that plays a central role in defining how soldiering, policing, treatment of prisoners or other justice- and security-related activities are performed in practice. These internal subcultures, and attached identities, can be actively or passively resistant to change seen as being imposed from above or from the civilian sphere, and can be conducive to abusive or criminal behaviour if oversight fails. However, subgroup and peer-to-peer dynamics can also be drivers of positive change and mutual learning and support among colleagues.*

Both internally and externally, seemingly small things can be important in defining institutional culture and the external image of security and justice providers. These include the types of uniform worn, if any; approved hairstyles; being armed or unarmed; wearing body armour or not; whether or not sunglasses are worn when speaking with civilians; the tone of voice and type of language used; smiling or not smiling; and body posture. Some of these are codified in standard operating procedures, codes of conduct and regulations. These "micro-dynamics" of performing the job of a border guard, prison guard, soldier, police officer, or member of staff of any other security and justice provider determine whether the institution and its representatives are perceived as approachable or intimidating, an institution to be engaged with positively or a potential menace best avoided. They likewise strongly shape internal institutional dynamics: who feels welcome and included, and who feels marginalized.

External societal and political forces may be instrumental in pushing for change within the security and justice sector in terms of gender equality, inclusion and diversity. At times, changes in the gendered and other dynamics within the security and justice sector are linked to major political ruptures, such as the restructuring of the post-apartheid South African security sector and of Northern Ireland's police (see Box 10), or ongoing changes in the armed forces in Ukraine (see Box 11).

Some key factors for achieving security and justice sector institutions staffed by *diverse* women and men with an inclusive institutional culture are outlined below.

- Ensuring that the fundamentals are in place for more diverse staff to be recruited, such as providing separate washing and sanitary facilities for women and men, and having uniforms and equipment that fit both women and men.

* For detailed guidance and checklists on integrating gender into oversight for police, armed forces and ombuds institutions and national human rights commissions, see the 2014 DCAF, OSCE, OSCE/ODIHR "Guidance notes on integrating gender into security sector oversight".

- Recruitment processes and requirements that are non-discriminatory and designed to attract a more diverse pool of applicants.
- Having proper and functioning reporting and disciplinary mechanisms for internal and external cases of abuse, bullying, harassment or discrimination based on gender, sexual orientation, gender identity or gender expression. These must be designed in ways that protect whistleblowers and complainants from retaliation by those accused of wrongdoing or by senior staff.[5]
- Taking firm action against sexual, gender-based and other forms of discrimination, harassment, abuse, exploitation and violence within the institution and when perpetrated against persons outside of the institution
- Having human resources and management policies and processes that actively support gender equality and diversity within the institution, including for issues such as childcare and parental leave, and more broadly implementing family-friendly work policies and encouraging all staff to make full use of them, irrespective of their gender.

Box 10: Increasing diversity and representativeness and community acceptance in Northern Ireland

During the period known as "the Troubles" in Northern Ireland, the police force, the Royal Ulster Constabulary (RUC), was seen by significant parts of the Catholic community as having a pro-Unionist and pro-Protestant bias. It was heavily male dominated, militarized and known to engage in harassment of the LGBTI community (Duggan, 2012). Following the Good Friday Agreement in 1998, a process of restructuring and reforming the RUC into a less militarized, more community-policing-oriented, more diverse and more gender-equal force was initiated. In addition to seeking to recruit a force that is more representative of the community in terms of its members' religious and ethnic backgrounds, the new Police Service of Northern Ireland (PSNI) has been seeking to improve its gender balance through affirmative recruitment policies, proactive measures to widen the pool of recruits and ensuring the promotion of women police officers into more senior positions (Galligan, 2013). The PSNI has also proactively sought to improve its relationship with the LGBTI community. This has required changes in the institutional culture of the service, away from a militarized, "hard masculinity" identity to a more open, diverse, community-oriented one.

Accountability and governance structures have played an important role in this police reform process, in particular the Northern Ireland Policing Board. Formerly, the RUC was overseen by a body appointed by the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, a member of the UK government. The new oversight body is composed of members of the main political parties in Northern Ireland and independent citizens. The Policing Board explicitly highlights addressing the gender imbalance in the PSNI as a key goal of its "People Strategy", sets out human rights targets and highlights protecting the most vulnerable. The work of the Policing Board and PSNI is supported through community engagement strategies and processes, for which the Board solicits contributions from members of the public who have traditionally not been setting the security agenda: "minority ethnic, women, older persons, people with a disability, young people, lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans".

Sources: Marian Duggan (2012), Queering Conflict: Examining Lesbian and Gay Experiences of Homophobia in Northern Ireland. Farnham: Ashgate; Yvonne Galligan (2013), "Gender and politics in Northern Ireland: The representation gap revisited", Irish Political Studies, 28(3), pp. 413–433; website of the Northern Ireland Policing Board, https://www.nipolicingboard.org.uk/community-engagement.

Box 11: Tackling gender biases and preventing domestic violence – an example from Ukraine

Changing institutional cultures in the Ukrainian Armed Forces has been a long process closely linked to, and influenced by, broader political, societal and institutional changes. In spite of rhetorical commitments to gender equality, Ukrainian institutions were highly patriarchal, and societal values were defined by a clear gender divide. Labour regulations kept women away from jobs deemed as being potentially "too dangerous for women" in a wide range of professions, including the police and military.

Ukrainian women have frequently found it difficult to join the security and justice sector. Laws formally barring women have recently been changed, and since 2014, women have played front-line combat as well as supporting roles in the Joint Forces Operation, and in peacekeeping and stabilization missions abroad. Nonetheless, many women who participated in conflict have struggled to gain official recognition and access services for veterans. Some of the ex-combatants, male and female, had issues with anger management, violent behaviour trauma and substance abuse. Service providers, however, were at times dismissive of these issues and displayed problematic gender biases. To address some of these challenges, in 2018, ODIHR started working with the Ukrainian General Staff of the Armed Forces to raise awareness of the issue of domestic violence in the families of armed forces personnel and their role in its prevention, and developed and promoted a set of recommendations.

Since commanding officers are in charge of training and maintaining order and discipline among organization/unit personnel and additionally are responsible for reporting disciplinary and criminal infringements, they can play a significant role in the prevention of domestic violence. Each set of recommendations, disaggregated by levels, emphasizes competences needed for military commanders to incorporate preventive measures on domestic violence effectively, and what higher authorities need to consider to support their subordinate officers' efforts. The Ukrainian Armed Forces' recommendations emphasize that prevention of domestic violence starts during mobilization and recruitment phases and continues throughout service. This continuity is needed to address root causes of the problem. With these recommendations, the Ukrainian General Staff hopes to encourage military commanders to be proactive and serve as role models in the armed forces, setting an example for their subordinates and contributing to changing the institutional culture of the army.

Sources: Flavie Bertouille (2019), "What's next for veterans in Ukraine?", London: International Alert; Jesus Gil Ruiz and Goran Topalovic (2019), "Recommendations for military commanders on the prevention of domestic violence among the families of armed forces personnel", Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR.

Endnotes

1. Jelena Radoman, Marija Radoman, Svetlana Đurđević-Lukić and Branka Anđelković (2011), *LGBT People and Security Sector Reform in the Republic of Serbia*. Belgrade: OSCE and Public Policy Research Centre.
2. See, for example, Dean Laplonge (2015), "The absence of masculinity in gender training for UN peacekeepers", *Peace Review*, 27(1).
3. Examples of training exercises designed to give trainees space to discuss their scepticism about integrating gender are DCAF (2009), "Training Resources on SSR Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender", Exercise 2 and "Training Resources on Justice Reform and Gender", Exercise 3, Geneva: DCAF.
4. NATO IMS Office of the Gender Advisor (2019), "Summary of the national reports of NATO member and partner nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives 2017", Brussels: NATO.
5. For guidance on gender and internal complaints mechanisms, see Megan Bastick (2015), *Gender and Complaints Mechanisms: A Handbook for Armed Forces and Ombuds Institutions*. Geneva: DCAF.


POLICE
TRAFFIC

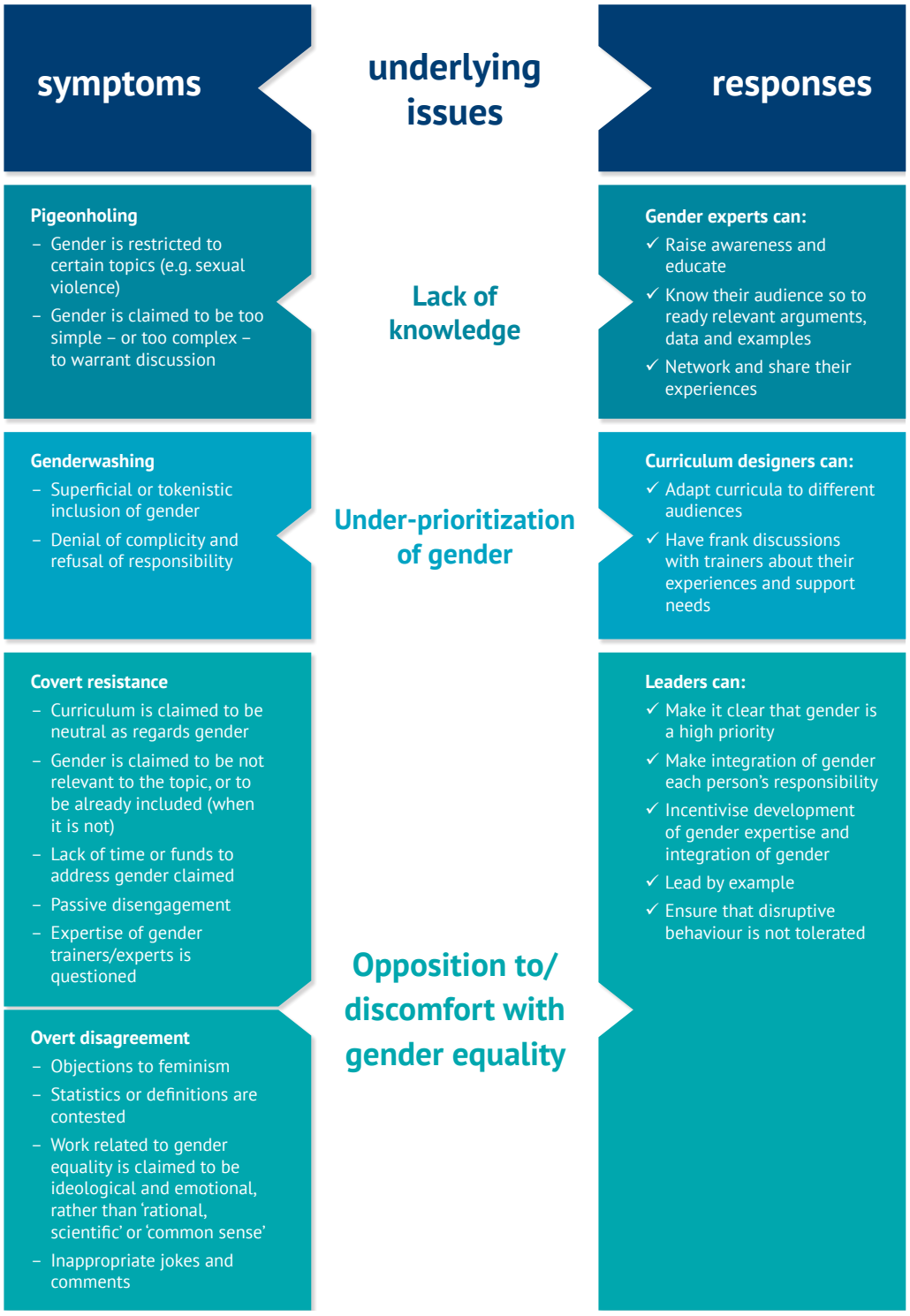
5. Handling resistance to gender equality

Efforts to promote gender perspective and gender equality in the security and justice sector, as elsewhere, have often been met with scepticism, apathy, passive and active resistance and attempts to subvert the process. Addressing issues of gender and gendered power dynamics can challenge some people's beliefs or personal identities, as well as privilege and positions of power – which can be uncomfortable. Resistance occurs during processes of change and can have various drivers, such as unwillingness to change the status quo, distrust of those who are driving the change, political or ideological resistance, lack of interest or personal discomfort with the issue. Although the ways in which resistance is manifested vary, Figure 5 illustrates some commonly observed forms of resistance and some possible constructive responses. These are developed further in the following subsections.

Resistance can also be born out of feelings of being overstretched, under-resourced and overwhelmed, which may not be based in resistance to the aims of the change process per se. For example, a disconnect between the organizational/managerial/HQ and the operational/field levels may lead to resistance to anything "coming from above".

Image: Police Community Support Officers help to ensure that children keep their belongings safe on their return to school.

Figure 5: Expressions of, reasons for and responses to resistance to gender equality



Source: Adapted from Aiko Holvikivi with Kristin Valasek, "How to integrate gender into military curricula", in PfPC SSRWG and EDWG (2016), Handbook on Teaching Gender in the Military. Geneva: DCAF and PfPC, p. 92.

5.1 Common arguments and possible responses

Common arguments against activities to promote gender equality and integrate a gender perspective in security and justice sector institutions, and possible counter-arguments, are listed below.

Argument	Counter-argument
Gender is a luxury we do not have time for; gender is irrelevant to our work/the situation in a given country or society.	Gender is a key factor defining our lives, including dynamics that directly affect our security and insecurity. There is no possibility of "opting out" of gender dynamics, as they are inherent to human society.
Gender is too politically correct/a foreign import.	Gender roles, norms and dynamics are neither a new invention nor a foreign import, but rather are intrinsic to all human societies.
Diversity and/or increased gender inclusivity hurt cohesion and undermine *esprit de corps*.	Studies tend to show the opposite, but in any case the social dynamics of the group will likely change. If wilful discrimination and exclusion are at the heart of *esprit de corps* and institutional culture, it is in the interests of accountability and democratic control that this is changed.
Affirmative action means unfair advantaging of women or minority groups and undermines meritocracy. (This argument may also be embraced by those who would stand to gain from such measures, as they do not want to be seen as having been accepted based on quotas rather than due to their capabilities.)	Gender, ethnic background, class and other factors have actively ensured that the "playing field" is not equal, but skewed to favour particular groups. Affirmative action is not about giving women or minority groups unfair advantages; it is about lessening unfair disadvantages.

5.2 Broader strategies

Other practical approaches that have proven successful in promoting gender equality in the face of resistance are suggested below.

- Work with local partners who understand the local context. Do not "preach" from above.
- Come well prepared with knowledge of the organization, statistics and easy-to-relate-to examples that will resonate with the audience's background and help explain broader themes or make abstract concepts more tangible.
- Take seriously concerns, resistance, ignorance and fear about promoting gender equality and diversity. Work through the factors that lead to resistance, rather than dismissing them. Some opposition might be due to people's fear of their ignorance on gender issues becoming publicly visible, therefore leading them to oppose any discussion of it.
- Find the right language and right entry points for any particular audience. Make sure you know your audience and adapt your approach accordingly: what is a convincing argument when talking to senior officers may fall on deaf ears with enlisted personnel; what works in discussions with ministerial planning staff may not work with civil society organizations. Make gender issues personal rather than abstract. Start, for example, with the audience's own gendered experiences, including of vulnerabilities, and personalize the discussion.
- Use the legal and technical requirements for particular tasks (e.g. interviewing witnesses, collecting evidence) to open up discussions on broader gender-related issues.


TCHAD

6. Guiding questions for institutional self-assessment

These guiding questions for institutional self-assessment are intended as a starting point for assessing how a security and justice sector institution promotes gender equality and integrates a gender perspective, both internally and in its services. They outline what kinds of data would need to be gathered and processed, and what some steps for improvement could be. They are not an exhaustive set of questions, and should be developed and adapted for any context.

Checklists developed for specific security and justice sector institutions can be found in the respective Tools for police, justice, defence, border management, intelligence services and places of deprivation of liberty. Other resources to support institutional gender assessments are listed in Section 7.

Questions to be addressed	Examples of data to be collected and analysed	Examples of steps for improvement
How is the SSR /SSG process based on inclusive and gender-responsive definitions and analyses of security?	How were security needs defined in the process? Who (disaggregated by age, gender, and other relevant categories) was able to feed into these definitions of needs? Through which processes? Who (disaggregated by age, gender and other relevant categories) was excluded? Which issues that were raised were taken on board as being legitimate security concerns? Which ones were excluded? What was the follow-up on these recommendations?	Inclusive processes to map security needs Outreach efforts to those whose input is usually not heard Design the practicalities of data collection (times, locations, mobility barriers) to allow for maximum inclusion Data are collected by a diverse team and in an ethical manner Questions are posed in a format that is understandable to all

Image: Participant in a women's leadership forum during International Women's Day in N'Djamena, Chad, 2017.

Questions to be addressed	Examples of data to be collected and analysed	Examples of steps for improvement
How does mapping of security needs lead to more inclusive policies?	Which policies were enacted? What were the aims and who would benefit? Are any groups excluded? Do the policies reflect national and international obligations on gender equality?	Outreach and inclusivity measures Evaluation of potential impacts of policies on diverse men, women and persons of other gender identities Measures to ensure national and international obligations on gender equality are met
Does the security and justice sector institution have the capacity and personnel to implement the policies?	What internal architecture does the institution have for gender equality? What training, resources and mandates are there for personnel tasked with promoting gender equality and diversity, internally and externally? How diverse are personnel? What human resources processes are in place to increase diversity and inclusivity? What safeguarding, complaints and response mechanisms are in place regarding discriminatory or abusive behaviour? What leadership is there on promoting gender equality and diversity, and countering gender bias and discriminatory behaviour? How do the control and allocation of resources in the institution promote or hinder gender equality and increased diversity?	Gender specialist functions in strategic locations in the organization All personnel receive necessary training on gender equality and diversity More inclusive recruitment processes, and other human resources policies that support non-discrimination, gender equality and diversity Strengthen safeguarding, complaints and response mechanisms Using gender markers for tracking expenditures Regular gender/diversity audits examining recruitment and promotion patterns, wage gaps, retention rates, human resources policies, etc. Publishing data on the gendered breakdown of the workforce, gender pay gaps, retention rates, etc.
What gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation mechanisms in place?	What gender-responsive indicators are used for tracking the implementation and impact of gender equality policy? How are diverse women, men and persons with other gender identities being consulted about the implementation and impact of gender equality policy?	Drawing on national and international best practice for monitoring and evaluation, including outreach to civil society and academia Feeding the views of diverse men and women and persons with other gender identities into monitoring and evaluation

Questions to be addressed	Examples of data to be collected and analysed	Examples of steps for improvement
How are SSG structures and processes (e.g. ministries, oversight committees, human rights institutions) gender responsive?	How do the SSG structures and policies reflect principles of promoting gender equality, diversity and inclusivity? How do persons in SSG structures represent and embrace diversity and gender equality?	Conducting a gender/inclusivity audit of SSG structures and policies Diversity and gender equality measures in recruitment of SSG structures Training on gender equality, diversity and inclusivity for individuals involved in security sector monitoring and oversight
How can citizens (including human rights organizations, women's rights organizations and organizations representing LGBTI persons) monitor and evaluate the implementation of security and justice policies?	Which individuals (disaggregated by age, gender and other relevant categories) and organizations are able to feed into monitoring and evaluation?	Outreach and support to ensure diversity and inclusivity in monitoring and implementation of policies
What gender-sensitive and inclusive communication strategy is in place for the implementation phase?	What messages will be communicated? How will messages be relayed to different women, men and persons of other gender identities? Is there a risk that someone will be excluded? If so, who will be affected (disaggregated by age, gender and other relevant categories)? Are the language and imagery gender sensitive, inclusive and enhancing equality and diversity?	Assess the impact, understanding and reach of messaging, and ensure these are increasing inclusivity and promoting gender equality.

7. Additional resources

Websites

DCAF, "Gender and security", https://www.dcaf.ch/gender-and-security

DCAF, SSR Backgrounder Series, http://ssrbackgrounders.org

OSCE/ODIHR, "Human rights, gender and the security sector", https://www.osce.org/odihr/human-rights-gender-and-the-security-sector

UN, "Free & equal: United Nations for LGBT equality", https://www.unfe.org/

UN Women, "Peace and security", https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/peace-and-security

UN Women, "Virtual knowledge centre to end violence against women and girls – security", www.endvawnow.org

Guides and handbooks

Bastick, Megan (2011), *Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector*. Geneva: DCAF.

Bastick, Megan and Tobie Whitman (2013), *A Women's Guide to Security Sector Reform*. Washington, DC: Inclusive Security and DCAF.

Conciliation Resources (2015), *Gender and Conflict Analysis Toolkit*. London: Conciliation Resources.

Crompvoets, Samantha (2019), *Gender-responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*. Geneva: DCAF.

DCAF (2009), "Gender and security sector reform training resource package", Geneva: DCAF.

DCAF, OSCE and OSCE/ODIHR (2014), "Guidance notes on integrating gender into security sector oversight", Geneva: DCAF, OSCE and OSCE/ODIHR.

Elroy, Gabriella (2016), *A Gender Perspective in CSDP: Training Manual*. Sandö: Folke Bernadotte Academy.

Inclusive Security and DCAF (2017), *A Women's Guide to Security Sector Reform: Training Curriculum*. Washington, DC: Inclusive Security and DCAF.

Image: Law Enforcement Recognition Day, 2014. © Gendarmerie royale du Canada/Royal Canadian Mounted Police

OSCE/ODIHR (2008), *Handbook on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms of Armed Forces Personnel*.Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR.

Saferworld (2016), *Gender Analysis of Conflict Toolkit*. London: Saferworld.

UN SSR Task Force (2012), "Security sector reform integrated technical guidance notes", New York: United Nations.

Articles and reports

Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and Peace Research Institute Oslo (2017), "Women, Peace and Security Index 2017/18: Tracking sustainable peace through inclusion, justice, and security for women", Washington, DC: GIWPS and PRIO.

UN Women (2015), "Preventing conflict, transforming justice, securing the peace – A global study on the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325", New York: UN Women.

UN Women (2018), "Turning promises into action: Gender equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", New York: UN Women.

DCAF Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance

OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights ODIHR

UN WOMEN