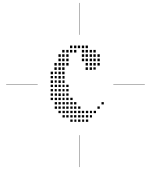# Towards a Whole-of-Government Approach to Security System Reform

Conference background paper,
The Hague 9-10 April 2008

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1. Introduction

1. This paper is written as a background paper to the 9-10 April 2008 conference on Whole-of-Government Approaches (WGA) to Security System Reform (SSR).[1] The theory of realising a WGA to SSR is no rocket science. In practice however, it has proven to be a difficult and politically challenging endeavour, on which a body of experience is building.[2] The paper aims to capture that body, and to identify apparent gaps in the accumulated knowledge and practice thus far. In this way, it seeks to stimulate discussion on current issues and challenges.

2. The paper focuses on WGA to SSR issues encountered at the level of donor capitals and headquarters of intergovernmental organisations (IGOs), discussing field level issues where they relate to headquarters level. As far as possible the perspectives of both bilateral donors and IGOs are reflected, although for the sake of brevity with a slight bias to bilateral donors. The paper builds on the idea that bilateral donors and IGOs struggle with similar WGA issues, hence the lessons for bilateral donors will, with some adjustment, also be useful for IGOs.

2. The need for WGA to SSR

3. SSR aims to promote sustained improvements in the quality and level of justice and security provided to citizens, based on the needs and objectives articulated by partner countries. In this process, donors support partner countries to increase their ability to meet the security and justice needs in their societies in a manner consistent with democratic norms and sound principles of governance and the rule of law.[3]

4. The need for a WGA to SSR support is explained by the complexity of the processes, and the number and diversity of the required actors. SSR processes are complex by nature, and there is no such thing as a universal SSR process. Depending on the needs in a certain country, a SSR programme can for instance entail activities as diverse as conducting a defence review, setting-up a community-policing programme, and at the same time improving pre-trial detention conditions. These different kinds of activities clearly involve different actors with different mandates and objectives, whose level of involvement differs as the process evolves. For instance, defence actors would have neither much interest, nor much to add to a pre-trial detention programme, whereas police actors would not normally be involved in a defence reform programme.

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[1] This paper has been prepared by the Conflict Research Unit of the Netherlands Institute of International Relations 'Clingendael' on behalf of the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The joint authors are Louise Anten, Mariska van Beijnum, Marloes Claassens and Evert Kets. The authors would like to thank Nicole Ball, Luc van de Goor, Eric Scheye and Erwin van Veen for their input and feedback, and the stimulating discussions. The responsibility for the contents of the paper rests with the authors.
[2] Annex 1 provides a concise overview of existing tools and instruments for WGA to SSR and an overview of recent developments in the field of SSR in a selection of international organisations.
[3] OECD (2005), p.11.

5.   It is highly unlikely that a single government department or intergovernmental agency will possess the full range of skills needed for any of the abovementioned SSR support activities, and the same will hold true for almost any other SSR assistance endeavour. The required expertise is scattered among many governmental (and non-governmental) actors, necessitating a coordinated and integrated approach. In other words: a whole-of-government approach.

3. Getting organised for a WGA to SSR

The need for a policy or clear guidance notes

6.   SSR is at heart a highly political, complex change process with many technical aspects. For donors to effectively support such a change process in an integrated manner, clear (political) guidelines or frameworks for those formulating and those deciding on the process are needed. Such guidance should be provided by the combination of two policy documents: a document detailing the overall donor/IGO SSR policy, and a document detailing the integrated donor/IGO policy towards a partner country.

7.   In practice, there are hardly any donors/IGOs that have drawn up both. Whereas it is suggested here that an overall SSR policy document, to which all ministries/agencies concerned have committed themselves and which is publicly available, would enhance effectiveness and efficiency of SSR support, it is important to note that even the UK – often considered to be the 'market leader' on SSR – does not have one. It has however, built up quite some experience with SSR and has developed country-specific SSR approaches. Still the need for an overall SSR policy document is felt in order to adapt more effectively to WGA requirements. Other donors seem to be running into similar issues. The Netherlands for example, has an internal working document on SSR, prepared and accepted by the ministries of Foreign Affairs[4] and Defence. It has found that the preparation of the paper has greatly enhanced the shared understanding of programmatic SSR, and the agreed document has guided concrete project formulation in the field. However, acknowledging the roles of other actors in the SSR process, e.g. the Interior and Justice Departments, it is now felt that there is a need for a broader, public document. The IGOs are also working on overall guidance documents. The UN for example, has recently published the Secretary-General's report on SSR. The UNSG's report however, is not a policy document as such, although it can be seen as a first step towards a broader UN-framework on SSR.

8.   An overall SSR document would clarify what SSR entails, the respective roles of the ministries/agencies ideally involved, and the range of activities to be undertaken. The OECD DAC Handbook on SSR provides useful guidelines, and also points to important implications of SSR engagement that will pose challenges to the different actors involved. Key is the programmatic approach; the need for long-term commitment; and the need for flexible funding.

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[4] In the case of the Netherlands, Development Cooperation is integral part of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

9.   The prevailing context in a partner country will largely define how the overall SSR concepts and guidelines can best be translated into a country-specific programme, in such a way that the aim of SSR is brought closer in an effective and efficient way. Because of the comprehensive nature of SSR support, it can never be approached as a stand-alone activity. Rather, a country-specific SSR strategy should always be part of the broader country-specific strategy of the donor/IGO. This underlines the need to align the two. Although most donors work with some form of country-specific policy papers, these are rarely adapted to the requirements of WGAs. The challenge is to prepare a country-specific policy paper, based on joint assessments and planning, that specifies integrated strategies of which SSR strategies are an integral part.

10. The UK has developed WGA pilot strategies for several countries. One of the most notable is an ongoing initiative in Yemen, undertaken by the FCO, DFID, MoD and the UK intelligence services. This effort, coordinated by the Cabinet Office and funded by DFID, has included a common assessment of the problems facing Yemen, the UK's interests there, the resources and tools at the UK's disposal, and the desirable strategy for deploying and sequencing these. Several factors facilitated WGA adoption of an integrated approach to Yemen. First and foremost the initiative enjoyed high-level buy-in both in the UK and from the government in Sana'a. Second, the country was relevant for each department, since it had implications for regional stability, poverty alleviation and counter-terrorism. Third, Yemen was a small country of modest importance to the UK (suggesting the paradoxical lesson that where the stakes are lower, the prospects for collaboration are higher). Fourth, the process was drawn out over nine months, permitting the building up of common understanding. However, the resulting country-specific policy paper is better at diagnosing than at prescribing specific actions. Interestingly there is one important exception to this, being the Integrated Justice Sector Initiative. This (SSR) programme is led and financed by DFID, while FCO, MoD and the Post-Conflict Reconstruction Unit (PCRU – now renamed the Stabilisation Unit) are all involved in the implementation. One of the main lessons of the Yemen experience is that the UK needs more foreign assistance for non-ODA eligible activities, such as reform of the armed forces and intelligence services, since DFID is constrained from addressing such issues. The FCO and MoD, which are interested in supporting these issues, lack the funds to do so.[5]

Main players and coordination

11. In partner countries, main players relating to SSR are government and non-government actors in the domains of foreign policy, development, planning, finance, defence, police, intelligence and justice. Coordination of the activities of these stakeholders towards an integrated SSR programme is not easy, and often none of the actors can be seen as a natural candidate for the role of coordinator. The partner country will in most cases have to create a country-specific whole-of-government dedicated structure for SSR, and allocate a lead role. Modalities will depend on the complexity of the programme, and can range from fairly light consultation arrangements to co-located permanent dedicated units. Whatever structure chosen, it will have to engage sufficiently high political levels for

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[5] Patrick, S. et al. (2007), pp.25-27.

it to be effective, most likely at least at the level of the concerned Ministers. Donors and IGOs have an interest to be involved in the process of establishing such structures.

12. For a bilateral donor, main domestic players involved are likewise government and non-government actors in the domains of foreign policy, development cooperation, finance, defence, police, intelligence, and justice. Coordination of a donor's SSR support to a partner country should ensure that the SSR strategy not only addresses the needs of the partner country, but also balances the priorities, objectives and mandates of the different donor ministries involved. The political character and the need for coordination imply that for bilateral donors, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs would be a natural candidate to take on the lead role. But several donors working with integrated approaches for security and development have felt that dedicated whole-of-government structures would better ensure commitment and balance across all actors. Where they exist these structures would have the lead in coordinating SSR support (see below).

13. For IGOs similarly, the main players are their agencies and departments competent in the domains of foreign policy, development cooperation, intra-IGO coordination, defence, police, intelligence and justice. An IGO with a broad mandate covering political, security and developmental competencies (like the UN, or the EU), will have agencies/departments in all these domains. Coordination would probably fall to the political section. Other IGOs with a more limited mandate, like NATO with a largely defence oriented mandate, will only have agencies/departments within that mandate. As a result, their internal coordination of SSR approaches is usually less complex. However, it puts a premium on better coordination with other actors.

14. Ideally a coordinating structure at the level of the international community would coordinate the WGA efforts of partner countries, bilateral donors and IGOs. As a contribution to such an international architecture the Peace Building Commission (PBC) was created by the UN, as follow-up to the 2005 Summit. Its aim is to achieve better international WGAs to integrated post-conflict reconstruction (not specifically SSR related). The PBC is still in an exploratory phase, focusing on three pilot post-conflict countries. The first year of operation was fairly laborious, but the PBC pilots in Burundi, Sierra Leone and Guinea-Bissau steadily gain more support. It would seem e.g. that the PBC indeed contributes to keeping post-conflict countries on the international agenda that might otherwise have been more neglected. A risk it has to guard against is that it ends up as just another parallel UN channel for funds.

The politics of SSR: Challenges to coordination

15. Before turning to the practical experiences with dedicated units and WGA structures, it is useful to highlight some elements of the political context of SSR that any coordination structure will have to cope with.

16. In the partner countries, the political context of SSR includes at least 4 perspectives: 1) national political stakeholders 2) local justice networks and non-state service providers[6] 3) local citizens, residents and communities, and 4) regional and international actors.

17. Part of the coordination task of donors in relation to their SSR programme is to encourage the local stakeholders to buy into the aims of the programme. This will mean that donors have to engage in continuous negotiation and sometimes hard bargaining with the various local stakeholders, and it requires a thorough awareness of local realities and politics, plus the power, ability and willingness to play hard when needed. A donor will have to preserve the unity of effort between its ministries involved, in order to prevent them being played against each other by local stakeholders. The same would apply for IGOs and their agencies and the international community at large.

18. Donor unity of effort is especially at risk when there are tensions between the donor's national political and/or security interests and development interests, or when there are tensions between short and long-term needs. Donor defence ministries may prioritise concrete challenges of crisis response and counter-terrorism or counter-insurgency, whereas justice and interior ministries may prioritise the need for counter-narcotics, tackling human trafficking and other serious domestic and transborder crimes. Analogies can be found at the IGO level, both within and across IGOs.

19. Afghanistan presents a poignant example of almost all these varying interests, and the challenge of aligning them in one integrated and united effort. Improvements of governance and (human) security are intricately linked to counter-terrorism, counter-insurgency and counter-narcotics. All of these efforts depend heavily on development of the security sector. The challenge then is how to make the different approaches and their objectives compatible. A big issue in this regard is the need to show results in the short term, whereas SSR is a long-term process. This necessitates sequencing activities in such a way that short-term results help retain popular and political support (locally as well as in the donor countries), whilst at the same time long-term activities help develop the security system in a sustainable way. Afghanistan's problems force donor countries to learn lessons quickly. Yet, it still remains a challenge how to apply the lessons from this very steep learning curve in a more effective WGA in the donor countries concerned (i.e. the UK, the Netherlands, Canada, and the USA).[7]

Dedicated units and whole of government structures
20. Donors who have engaged in WGA policies have in recent years created, at the level of their capitals, a range of interministerial or interagency bodies to operationalise their whole-of-government approaches. Examples are the UK's Stabilisation Unit (formerly the Post-Conflict Reconstruction Unit), Canada's Stabilization and Reconstruction Task Force (START), and the USA State Department's Office of the Coordinator of Reconstruction and Stabilization (S/CRS). Other donors

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[6] It is now commonplace knowledge that the modernizing and centralizing ambitions of fragile states create tensions and imbalances with non-state/local justice networks, which are not only the main providers of justice, safety, and security, but are often considered the most legitimate, fair, accountable, and effective providers.
[7] Examples in relation to policy frameworks and WGA structures are provided in the following sections.

(e.g. the Netherlands, Sweden, France, Australia, and Germany) have strengthened existing coordination mechanisms across ministries.

21. In addition, some donors have created pooled funds to support integrated approaches in the area of security and development, including SSR activities. Examples are the UK's Africa Conflict Prevention Pool and Global Conflict Prevention Pool, which will be merged into the Conflict Prevention Pool in April 2008, and its new Stabilization Aid Fund; Canada's Global Peace and Security Fund and the Dutch Stability Fund (see paragraphs 43-45).

22. Although these donor WGA structures have wider competencies than SSR, they often are the ones responsible for SSR as an integral part of integrated approaches. A general evaluation of bilateral donor standing interagency units found that a strong, authoritative, interagency, coordinating entity at the heart of government can advance policy coherence. Standing interagency units have certain advantages, such as increasing the prospect for rapid response and institutional learning, clarifying leadership, reconciling objectives and preserving the unity of effort. But such units are also vulnerable to debilitating weaknesses, often lacking the bureaucratic and political clout to lead implementation. This is especially a risk when a unit is set apart from the decision-making lines in the 'parent' ministries or agencies.[8]

23. Another lesson learned is that there are no perfect structures for WGAs. What works best for a specific donor or IGO will depend on its constitutional set-up and the prevalent rules of the game.[9] A golden rule is that structure must follow function. But there will always remain trade-offs to be made. E.g. an alternative to donor standing interagency units could be a more incremental approach of intensifying interdepartmental cooperation in all phases of the programming cycle and reinforcing established mechanisms of interagency coordination. Such intensified interdepartmental cooperation may have a stronger bureaucratic clout than standing interagency units, since the cooperating departments/agencies have established decision-making mandates. But on the reverse side, they may be weaker in responding rapidly and flexibly, and in providing clear and strong leadership.

24. One condition for whole-of-government structures to be effective, is that participants share a sense of urgency. This sense of urgency will most effectively be enhanced if the political level presses for results. A second condition is that a relative balance of power between the departments is maintained. This balance of power, e.g. between 'hard' and 'soft' security, is partially dependent on the budgets that departments have available. E.g. the US Department of Defence controls large budgets for assistance programmes as compared to the S/CRS, which seriously distorts the balance.[10] In the Netherlands, the Ministry of Defence does not contribute financially to the pooled Stability Fund, limiting its say in the decision-making. These experiences point to a challenge: Partners in a WGA have to accept budgetary consequences of their participation. Finally, a third condition is that basic

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[8] Cf. Patrick, S. et al. (2007), pp.132-133.
[9] Cf. OECD (2007), pp.19-20.
[10] Cf. Patrick, S. et al. (2007), pp.52 onwards.

SSR knowledge is instilled into the structure, either by training the members or by adding staff members who have general SSR knowledge.

4. Implementing SSR as a WGA

The need for country-specific SSR strategies and how to get there

25. Paragraph 9 above referred to the challenge of attuning overall country-specific policies to country-specific SSR strategies. In most cases, overall country-specific policies have not yet been integrated in programmatic SSR approaches. The challenge of bringing the two into line regards both content and process. Attuning the content would involve a two-way exchange, in which the outlines of a WGA to SSR feed into the overall country-specific policies while at the same time the overall country-specific policies define the margins of the country-specific SSR strategies. Process-wise this may take some time, as overall country-specific policies often cannot be changed at any moment, but are subject to specific cycles.

26. To arrive at a country-specific SSR strategy one needs to take the country-specific context as a starting point. A joint assessment of this broader context and the need for SSR is a first important step towards a broader, joined-up strategic approach. It will provide insight into the requirements and involvement of the stakeholders cooperating in a WGA. In addition, it will provide insight into the major partner country stakeholders to be involved in sub-sectors of SSR (state and non-state), plus the in-country donor/IGO staff dealing with SSR. It also provides a good starting point to assess the expertise needed for engaging in SSR in a given country, and where to look for it.

Joint assessments/analytical tools

27. Joint assessments need tools that allow for the necessary comprehensive analysis. These tools should for instance counter the tendency for analyses to focus on governmental and official structures and capacities. In most post-conflict countries up to 80% of most service delivery on justice and security is provided by non-state actors. Assessments should include these non-state service providers, as well as a drivers-of-change analysis. Such an analysis will look behind the façade of official power structures, and trace the underlying power structures and forces that actually move state and society. This assessment is essential for SSR, as ownership has to be won from local stakeholders with often opposing agendas.

28. Analytical tools should be broad enough to consider key issues that will impact on the success of an SSR programme. As stated in the OECD DAC Handbook on SSR, it is important that an SSR programme, even if it is focusing on work in one sector (e.g. defence reform), is informed by a broader assessment that looks at the governance and capacity of the security sector system as a whole, the country context, the needs of local people, the potential drivers of change and the possible spoilers or those actors who consider the transformation process as detrimental to their personal circumstances.[11]

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[11] OECD (2007-1), p.42.

Studies furthermore show that it is also extremely important that the fiscal impact of reform across the entire justice and security sector is assessed, as the case of Afghanistan demonstrates.

29. Examples of analytical tools that provide such a broad assessment are the UK's interdepartmental Drivers of Change Analyses and Strategic Conflict Assessments, and the Netherlands' Stability Assessment Frameworks. It is important that such assessments are updated regularly, as SSR programmes take place in dynamic settings. The biggest challenge however, is for these assessments to provide solid operational recommendations. Also, as SSR is partly a change management process that will lead to new power relations, there may not only be a need for regular updating, but also for more forward looking analysis in terms of scenario approaches.

Joint planning

30. Following joint assessments, there is a need for a joint planning process in a country-specific WGA to SSR. Basically the same stakeholders would participate, with one exception: the joint assessment might give guidance as to which sub-sectors of SSR should be represented. The scope of an SSR process defines the actors involved.

31. To come to a manageable joint planning process, priorities need to be identified. The question is how to prioritise in settings where everything is important.[12] This implies that in practice, not every SSR problem can be addressed from the start. Phasing and an incremental approach are most likely the only viable options. In practice, three phases can be distinguished in an SSR process: a pre-inception phase, an inception phase and a long-term programme.[13] These three phases are part of an incremental approach in which goals and priorities are set in an iterative process of small SSR cooperation projects that progressively introduce additional capacities and skills. An iterative process may also be needed for political reasons, in particular in settings where key local actors initially do not agree on overall political objectives or the rules of the game.[14] In these circumstances donors may be obliged to make difficult strategic choices and play hard with local stakeholders based on their own assessments. They should subsequently constantly check their assumptions against developments and results achieved.

32. The experience of the Netherlands in Burundi is a case in point. In 2004 the Netherlands made the analysis that security was crucial to furthering the peace process in Burundi and that integrating at least some of the ex-rebel groups into the army was urgent. Although at the time the situation did not allow for a full programmatic SSR approach, the Netherlands ministries of Foreign Affairs and Defence agreed to offer small confidence building projects (i.e. building of camps to integrate army and ex-rebels). The approach took risks and was not undisputed among donors. But in the end these projects helped pave the way for further SSR cooperation activities with the Burundian ministries of Defence and Interior, as well as for broader development cooperation. Recently, Burundi was selected

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[12] Cf. OECD DAC Principles for Good International Engagement in Fragile States & Situations (2007).
[13] Ball, N. et al. (2007), pp.15 and onwards.
[14] Ball, N. et al. (2007), pp.7-8.

as one of five pilot countries for joint analysis and programming, to implement the EU Council Conclusions on Fragile States.

33. As to the process of joint planning, practice has shown a paradox. It appears that establishing a WGA may complicate efforts to align donor assistance with the priorities of local stakeholders. With so much emphasis placed on creating coherence within donor governments, policy formulation may reflect top-down strategic direction from capitals, with limited space for local input.[15] This might also apply to WGAs to SSR. The main remedy would be to start the country-specific planning process in the partner country, keeping the analysis comprehensive, ensuring that local context and the views of local stakeholders are leading and giving the donor/IGO country team a great say in the drafting of the plan.

The role of field offices in joined-up working

34. Field offices should have a lead role in the development and implementation of WGA to SSR. The creation of an in-country SSR team is helpful where a WGA to SSR is pursued, composed of all in-country staff dealing with SSR. The Ambassador, as the representative of the donor, or the Country Representative in the case of an IGO, would be politically responsible for such a team, while the management could be delegated to a desk officer (in the case of a donor logically a Foreign Affairs officer). The in-country SSR team would cooperate closely with its counterparts at capital level, in order to achieve and retain commitment at both levels. Depending on the institutional set-up of a donor or an IGO, the in-country SSR team would have narrower or wider competencies. For a WGA to SSR the in-country SSR team would preferably have a great say in defining the Terms of Reference and the composition of the donor/IGO contribution to joint assessment and planning, have the lead of the implementation of assessment and planning, and have a strong advisory role on the decision-making on the country-specific SSR strategy including its budgetary and personnel implications. After the country-specific SSR strategy has been approved, the team would be tasked with implementation and monitoring, under the political guidance of the Ambassador.

35. The importance of joint monitoring and evaluation is stressed here. Now that SSR programmes come into being, the need to develop tools and procedures for monitoring and evaluation is getting urgent. The task for the coming years is to test and develop these instruments in the field and in capitals, and feed the findings systematically back into the programme and the policy cycles.

Financing a WGA to SSR

36. Financing a WGA to SSR has considerable financial resource implications. Access to sufficient funds is often hampered by a worldwide financial resource mobilisation gap for interventions on the nexus of peace, security and development, like SSR, as they cut across organisational and budgetary boundaries and often fall between stools.[16] The challenge is not only to have access to sufficient funds,

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[15] Patrick, S. et al. (2007), p. 136.
[16] OECD (2007), p. 25.

but also to have access to sufficiently flexible funds and to use these funds for a programmatic WGA to SSR.

37. Insufficient flexibility of funding for WGAs to SSR has to do with two issues. One is that an incremental approach, which is often the best way to support SSR, creates a need for quickly disbursable funds, as soon as an opportunity arises in the field. The other issue relates to the fact that part of the activities within a WGA to SSR do not qualify as Official Development Assistance (ODA). Hence a WGA to SSR requires access to both ODA and non-ODA funds, which are usually managed by different departments and have different criteria. In addition, the amount of non-ODA funds available for SSR is very restricted within many donor countries and IGOs.

38. A solution to the demand for more, and more flexible funds has been sought in the creation of pooled funds. Several donors engaging in WGAs to SSR have created such funds, pooling funds from multiple actors involved, combining ODA and non-ODA funds and establishing flexible decision-making procedures. Although these funds provide funding for SSR, they do not always provide extra funding in addition to what the pooling departments had available beforehand. Furthermore, funding from pooled funds tends to be dispersed to ad hoc projects, often of short duration, rather than broader and longer-term SSR programmes. Sometimes this tendency is reinforced by fund regulations allowing only short-term funding. This lesson was learned by the UK and has now resulted in 3 year funding in the Conflict Prevention Pool, compared to 1 year funding in the previous Global and Africa Conflict Prevention Pools. Also, as pooled funds are not necessarily perceived as resources for new and integrated activities, they can generate competition among departments for scarce resources and as such, even discourage joined-up approaches.[17]

39. Arrangements regarding the allocation of ODA versus non-ODA funds are less clear in their effect on joined-up approaches. On the one hand, if the criteria for funding stipulate that the ratio of ODA and non-ODA costs of a specific SSR programme have to be defined beforehand, flexibility is impaired. The same applies if the fund requires that a substantial part of the activities to be funded has to qualify as ODA. And if such criteria are applied to a fund with limited non-ODA funds, the restrictive effect is even stronger. On the other hand, restrictions on the ratio of non-ODA funding from pooled funds may also create incentives for a more development oriented programming, especially among departments mostly interested in 'hard security'.

40. Joint decision-making on proposals to be funded from pooled funds can facilitate joined-up working. But it is no guarantee. For one, there may be a tendency to share out the pooled funds among the contributors for 'traditional' activities of each department or ad hoc activities. For another, joint decision-making will normally only be done among departments who have contributed financially to the fund. If not all relevant actors have contributed, joint decision-making will exclude some of the relevant stakeholders.

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[17] OECD (2007), pp.26-28.

41. Lessons learned thus far on pooled funding would be fivefold. First, pooled funds will be most effective in facilitating a WGA to SSR, if funding from the pools is linked to an agreed overall SSR policy and/or country-specific SSR policy paper. The greater part of the fund would be reserved for activities that are part of either the overall SSR policy, or an SSR country-specific programme, which is in turn part of an overall country-specific framework. This would counter the tendency to fund 'traditional' activities of each department or ad hoc activities. To retain sufficient flexibility to respond to short-term windows of opportunity, a lesser part of the fund would be open to short-term activities, although preferably in the framework of an (emerging) SSR programme. Second, the funds should allow for more long-term funding, in parallel with the timelines required for SSR. Third, the volume of pooled funds would have to be brought up to the policy aspirations for SSR, as exemplified in the overall and country-specific SSR policy papers. This would in the current situation imply that especially more funds for non-ODA activities are needed. Fourth, if and when the first three lessons are applied, joint decision-making by all relevant stakeholders is likely to enhance joined-up working. Finally, for joint decision-making to work, a relative balance of power between the cooperating departments/agencies is needed. Limited earmarking of funds, including the reservation of funds for developmental (ODA qualifying) activities, or excluding non-contributing stakeholders from decision-making can be effective mechanisms to retain balance, and should be assessed in this light.

42. These lessons are for instance exemplified in the UK Global Conflict Prevention Pool (GCPP) and the Africa Conflict Prevention Pool (ACPP). All participating departments contribute financially to these pools and joint steering committees are made up of officials from each department. Nonetheless, funds are not necessarily spent on the highest priorities from an SSR perspective, but rather on 'traditional' department activities, and decision-making is still rather stove-piped. One of the main reasons for these problems is that the funds allow those contributing to earmark their contributions. As of April 2008, the UK will replace the GCPP and the ACPP with the Stabilisation Aid Fund (SAF) and the Conflict Prevention Pool (CPP). An improvement is that these new funding mechanisms will enable longer-term (3-year) funding than the GCPP and the ACPP. However, 70-80% of activities to be funded from CPP and SAF will have to be ODA eligible, and the eligibility has to be established before decision-making. This will most likely reduce flexibility. It would seem that unless funding is clearly linked to SSR policies, the problems encountered in the GCPP and the ACPP are likely to continue as departments are heavily budget-constrained and have few other resources outside the pooled funding arrangements to pursue these objectives.

43. In the case of the Dutch Stability Fund, fast and flexible decision-making is enhanced by allowing the establishment of the eligibility of funded activities for ODA or non-ODA to be made after decision-making. Funding decisions are increasingly linked to the general SSR policy working paper and to country-specific integrated policy documents. However, it has proven difficult to elicit proposals for programmatic SSR approaches from field offices, underlining the need for capacity building at this level.

44. In Canada, the Global Peace and Security Fund (administered by the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, DFAIT) is aimed at funding initiatives coordinated by the interdepartmental Stabilisation and Reconstruction Task Force (START). Other departments or agencies are not taking part in the decision-making process. The Fund provides DFAIT with a modest but highly flexible funding window, which operates besides the lion's share of Canada's bilateral assistance funds controlled by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).[18]

Human resource requirements for a WGA

45. Joined-up working has considerable resource implications, not only in financial, but also in staffing terms. Lack of qualified staff, both at headquarters and field level, is one of the main constraints encountered in the implementation phase. As stated in the OECD DAC Handbook on SSR, international actors often invest heavily in SSR programmes without investing sufficiently in their capacity to manage and oversee them – a capacity that is key to effective assistance.[19] For instance, supporting SSR processes requires a long-term commitment that is focused on building local ownership and partnerships with other actors to coordinate support. Yet, many of the actors involved in SSR processes are faced with resource constraints and high rates of staff turnover. Specifically in cases where a staff position lasts for only 6 to 12 months, it will be difficult to build relationships with counterparts or to fully understand the local context and political dynamics, an important factor for effective WGA to SSR.

46. In order to cope with the human resource constraints, donors and IGOs now start to focus on creating rosters of SSR practitioners. Such rosters ideally would have to comprise in-house experts who can easily be deployed and/or assigned to country offices and headquarters teams. Given the scope of SSR, such rosters would also have to include experienced external SSR experts, as it is not likely that donors and IGOs have sufficient in-house capacity. In fact, significant components of SSR programming may be largely contracted out to external consultants, whether hired individually or under contractual arrangements with private companies.

47. Several expert rosters are already in existence. The Canadian government-funded NGO CANADEM for example, started its activities in 1997 and is currently managing a database of up to 9,000 experts in various development fields. This database is used to find experts for both Canadian and multilateral missions and even for NGOs. CANADEM can respond to requests for screened experts within 48-72 hours, compiling a short-list by matching position requirements to the roster. The UK's interdepartmental Stabilisation Unit (SU) maintains a database of Deployable Civilian Experts (DCEs), which is merged with the FCO's database. To supplement these, the SU also makes use of external providers of consultants, such as PriceWaterhouseCoopers and Coffey International Development. Other interesting examples of expert rosters are the two Norwegian pools, the Crisis Response Pool for Affairs of Democracy and the Rule of Law and NORDEM (See annex 1). Also, the International Security Sector Advisory Team (ISSAT), a multi-donor initiative established within the

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[18] Patrick, S. et al. (2007), p. 71.
[19] OECD (2007-1), p.236.

Geneva Centre for Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF), is currently developing a roster of SSR experts. ISSAT's role can be somewhat compared with that of a non-profit consultant company, which can be used by governments and international organisations.

48. As illustrated above, the creation and administration of these rosters could either be managed by the donor/IGO or partially out-sourced to a private company. Ideally, such rosters would be linked-up with other national/multilateral pools. However, even if the management of the roster is partially out-sourced, a donor or IGO will have to expend significant and continuous effort in contributing to its management for a number of reasons. First, SSR is a politically sensitive activity. Donors/IGOs would want to have some say in the selection of experts proposed by rosters in response to a query. Second, donor/IGO staff could be included in the pool. Personnel and line management of these civil servants would have to be shared between the roster, the personnel departments and line managers of the 'parent' ministries/IGO.

49. Furthermore, donors should not out-source essential steps in the SSR programme cycle. There remains a need for desk officers within governments and IGOs to be able to hold contractors accountable. It is important that donors remain engaged and do not consider SSR a purely technical issue; the politics of SSR cannot be contracted out. At headquarters level a donor or IGO would need to keep policymaking, the responsibility for country-specific frameworks, and country-specific policy support in-house. At country level a donor or IGO would want to keep policymaking, political support and programme management in-house. Supervision and monitoring is needed at both levels. Effective supervision and monitoring of SSR implementation requires dedicated staff, who possess four distinct skill sets at one and the same time: 1) knowledge of the partner country's politics; 2) understanding of the dynamics of SSR writ large;[20] 3) political skills for negotiation; and 4) management skills. Crucial in the supervision of implementation is the provision of political guidance, at headquarters and at field level.

50. Institutional involvement of donor/IGO staff in SSR processes is also important in order to guarantee that lessons are learned and that capacity is built within the institutions. In the end, these institutions will be the ones that write the Terms of Reference for contractors, and hold them accountable.

51. For all of these donor/IGO competencies, at present sufficient qualified staff is lacking with most donors/IGOs. Institutional capacity building is needed to make up for the shortage.

52. Training in SSR is one option. A joint training programme within a donor or IGO would not only enhance interministerial and interagency learning, it is also a must to disseminate the overall SSR policy and country-specific information. As such, it should not only involve those who will be

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[20] Supervising an SSR programme does not necessarily require in-depth SSR knowledge. Rather what is needed is a broad understanding of SSR, its dynamics and contours in order to be able to manage the technical experts, who may not be conversant in how their narrow specialties fit into the broader programme agenda.

implementing the SSR interventions, but also the policy-makers. This will improve the understanding and communication between the two levels. The training courses on SSR and Governance that have been developed within the OECD DAC provide a common framework for donors and IGOs, while at the same time providing donors and IGOs with an opportunity to exchange experiences amongst each other. This is exemplified in the Association of Security Sector Education and Training institutions (ASSET), that was founded early 2008 to improve and promote SSR training in accordance to internationally accepted guidelines, like the OECD DAC Handbook.

53. Having staff gain field experience is a second option for building in-house capacity. Where possible, staff should do longer-term postings within SSR programmes. Where this is not possible because of security and hardship conditions, other mechanisms could be applied, like working from more secure parts of the country, engaging more staff and having their rotations partially overlap time wise, using rotational schemes between field and headquarters level, documenting institutional memory, etc. Overall, there is a need for broader experience in the SSR sub-sectors. Career perspectives could and should be used as incentives to build capacity on these issues. Temporary secondments with other ministries/agencies or donors/IGOs could serve the same purpose. Such schemes would also contribute to interministerial and interagency learning, and WGAs to SSR.

5. The need for international cooperation

The roles of various IGOs in WGAs to SSR

54. The UN has multiple roles to play with regard to WGAs to SSR. It is the organisation best positioned and mandated to coordinate at the level of the international community, and is building on this role e.g. through the Peace Building Commission. Also, in the context of peacekeeping mandates, the UN is often assigned a leadership position in many justice and security areas. In this international coordinating role however, the UN is only as strong as the consensus amongst its members. At the same time UN agencies and departments can also be implementing actors in WGA to SSR, as is for instance often the case for UNDP. As an implementing actor the UN has its own WGA challenges, having to align departments and agencies with various mandates and interests such as the DPA, DPKO and UNDP behind a common strategy. The fact that the partner country government is member of the UN also defines the scope of operation of the UN.

55. The UN Framework for Coordination was created for intra-UN coordination in early prevention of conflicts, and 'One UN' pilots were set up in various countries to better coordinate across in-country UN agencies. UNDP's Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery (BCPR) plays an important role in these intra-UN WGA structures, as far as the domains of crisis prevention, security and development are concerned. However, in practice it has proven difficult for the UN family to undertake SSR support activities beyond those that 'secure and stabilise' the post-conflict environment, which, according to UN classifications, are part of the first phase of a peacekeeping operation. Although ideally positioned to do so, the UN still has to show for its comparative advantage in undertaking the developmental components of SSR support.

56. Other IGOs have hardly done a better job, however. The international financial institutions, such as the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) are strong in the analysis of the economic aspects, but they are limited by their mandates to go beyond this scope and deal with the more political aspects of SSR, like e.g. public finance management in relation to SSR. Furthermore, the WB cannot financially support countries that have arrears in paying off loans, which holds for many a post-conflict country. Like the UN and many bilateral donors, they struggle with a shortage of experienced field staff.

57. The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) on the other hand has theoretically a large capacity to engage in a WGA of SSR. In Afghanistan, NATO has ventured into the field of an integrated approach, engaging in defence and police reform and seeking cooperation with civilian actors. However, the international community has not been able yet to provide a similar effort for the civilian components of SSR, resulting in an imbalanced approach. It is still a point of discussion how far the NATO can or wants to go with its integrated approach.

58. The European Union (EU) with its division of work between the Commission and the Council has its own WGA challenges to overcome. While the Commission has considerable budgets to allocate on justice and police reform, the Council has already engaged in defence and police reform within the framework of the European Defence and Security Policy (ESDP) operations. Not only does the EU have to cope with challenges to integrate Commission and Council interventions, it also has to align them with the EU member states' policies. In order to address this problem, several pilots for joint SSR/Security and Development/Fragile State programming involving the Commission, the Council Secretariat and member states have been set up (e.g. the Burundi pilot mentioned below).

Cooperation with and between other donors and IGOs

59. Implementing SSR as a WGA, as has been described above, should in fact be done as far as possible in a harmonised way with other donors and IGOs, both to relieve transaction costs for the partner country, and to prevent overlap or conflicting SSR programmes. But to conduct joint assessment, planning and implementation in a harmonised way, in which all donors and IGOs interested in SSR participate, is very difficult and risks becoming unmanageable. The number of participants on the donor/IGO side in these various exercises will at all times have to be kept at manageable levels. There is no alternative to donors and IGOs but to divide tasks amongst each other, while creating structures of (silent) partnerships, information sharing and confidence building. The UN Peace Building Commission pilots are interesting endeavours in this respect. The EU is trying to link up to the pilot in Burundi with an intra-EU pilot, in which the Commission, the Council Secretariat and EU member states aspire to conduct joint assessment and planning, piloting the implementation of the EU Council Conclusions on Fragile States. The pilot is not limited to SSR, but SSR will figure prominently in it.

60. Practice with donor harmonisation of WGAs has demonstrated two paradoxes. The first is that the quest for internal coherence of donors/IGOs can complicate efforts to harmonise across the international community. Integrating internal strategies, instruments and resources may reduce flexibility in engaging with other donor governments or IGOs.[21] This could be remedied by working together on assessments, planning and implementation, but this will require some flexibility in applying internal guidelines and adjusting them to a context which includes other international stakeholders.

61. The second paradox is that where integration across thematic departments of different donors/IGOs is strong, e.g. across ministries of Defence partaking in an international peacekeeping operation, the space for integration with other agencies at home and with local stakeholders tends to be reduced. The NATO-ISAF mission in Afghanistan is an example of close harmonisation between the participating ministries of Defence. The development of the Afghan army and police was initially kept closely within the military realm. Only more recently, because expectations were not met, has the pressure increased to cooperate with civilian agencies in police and security governance development. Here again, working jointly on assessments, planning and implementation and broadening the integration to include other domains and sectors seems the way to go.

6. Conclusion

62. In conclusion, the main issues to take into consideration when discussing WGA to SSR, are:

- Supporting SSR is at heart a highly political, complex change process. As there is no such thing as a universal SSR process, every SSR programme needs a different sequencing and a different set of actors, coming from different departments/agencies, both from within and outside a government or IGO structure. This necessitates a coordinated and integrated approach, i.e. a WGA.
- A WGA to SSR needs a clearly defined common policy, to which the key departments/agencies involved have committed themselves and can be held accountable. The necessary means should be attributed to put this policy into practice, including sufficient flexible financial resources, both ODA and non-ODA.
- A dedicated WGA structure should be established, both in the donor and partner countries. There are no perfect structures for WGA; what works best for a specific donor or IGO will depend on its constitutional set-up and the prevalent rules of the game. The political character of SSR processes, and the need for coordination imply that political actors would to take the lead role. For bilateral donors, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs would be a natural candidate for this, and for IGOs coordination would fall to the political section.
- SSR is a long-term process, demanding a thorough awareness of the political realities in the partner countries. Nevertheless, short-term interventions could be needed to gain momentum for a longer-term programme.

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[21] Patrick, S. et al. (2007), p. 135.

- SSR programmes should be aligned with and integrated into overall country-specific policies and programmes.
- Ideally, SSR programmes should be based on a joint assessment and planning process, taking into account the broader local context. Also, there is a need to develop tools and procedures for joint monitoring and evaluation that can feed findings systematically back into the programme and policy cycles.
- Pooled funds for SSR should be linked to an agreed overall SSR policy and/or country-specific SSR policy, allow long-term and flexible funding, and maintain a relative balance of power between the departments involved in order for joint decision-making on the spending of the funds to work.
- SSR programmes need sufficient and well-trained human resources. The core of this group of people should come from the government or IGO itself, while external SSR experts should be added wherever needed.
- The challenge of implementing an effective WGA on the level of the donor government or IGO is repeated at the level of the international community. The UN seems the best placed IGO to fulfil the coordination role, but has its limits considering the highly political nature of SSR. Wherever possible, donor countries and IGOs should strive to coordinate and to cooperate.

ANNEX 1 – A selection of Financial Instruments, Dedicated Units & Expert Pools

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1. Financial Instruments

	Stability Fund (the Netherlands)
Since…	Established in 2003, in operation as of 2004
Activities Funded	The instrument aims to provide rapid and flexible financing for activities on the nexus of peace, security and development. It supports operational conflict prevention and peacebuilding, programs and activities, amongst which SSR.
Who may apply for funding	Netherlands embassies, divisions in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and the Ministry of Defence (MinDef) may submit proposals. These proposals must entail working with recipient governments or with international organisations. NGOs cannot apply for funding, except for projects on small arms and light weapons.
Type of funding	The Fund combines ODA and non-ODA funding. ODA-eligibility does not play a role during the decision-making process, but will be determined as appropriate after a decision on a project has been made.
Responsibility	The Ministries of Foreign Affairs and Development Cooperation. Coordination and management body is the Stability Fund Committee, consisting of MFA and Development Cooperation representatives, with Defence having an advisory role, and veto right when Defence is involved as implementer. Directors of regional units will sit in on the meetings when the proposals pertain to their region. The Steering Group Security and Reconstruction (SVW), which includes representatives from MFA, Development Cooperation and MinDef decides on the thematic and country specific policies/strategies to which requests for funding must relate. Daily management is performed by MFA and Development Cooperation's Human Rights and Peacebuilding and the Security Policy Division.
Decision-making Procedure	Proposals are screened by desk officers at the MFA, who function as a Secretariat. If the proposal is formally submitted a project information form is used. The Stability Fund Committee meets monthly to decide on these proposals from a policy angle. After a proposal has been declared eligible for funding, the proposal has to go through an administrative process to be translated into concrete contracts on the basis of which funds can be released.
Single/Multiple Year Projects	Both are possible.
Budget instrument	Circa 106.2 million Euros for 2006.

	Conflict Prevention Pools (United Kingdom)
Since…	2001 – the pools consisted of the Africa Conflict Prevention Pool (ACPP) and the Global Conflict Prevention Pool (GCPP)
Activities Funded	The main aim of the pools was to stimulate joined-up working and develop joined departmental analysis and strategies. The ACPP focused on Africa, and the GCPP on the rest of the world. The ACPP focused on Africa, conflict prevention and post-conflict reconstruction, and strengthening the African Peace and Security Architecture. The GCPP had twelve country, and three thematic themes, of which SSR was one. The GCPP funded the Security Sector Development Advisory Team (SSDAT) and the Global Facilitation Network for Security Sector Reform (GFN-SSR.)
Who may apply for funding	Proposals originate from the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), Ministry of Defence (MoD), Department for International Development (DFID) and missions.

Type of funding	Initially, the pool was made up of parts of the ministerial budgets. Later, the Pools bid for money from Treasury alongside their parent departments. The pools aimed to fund activities that may not be ODA-eligible.
Responsibility	The FCO, MoD & DFID. FCO chaired the GCPP, DFID chaired the ACPP. Joint steering committees consisted of officials from the three departments, plus representatives from Cabinet and Treasury. DFID assessed activities for ODA-eligibility. The pools were governed by shared Public Service Agreements (PSA) and overseen by the Cabinet Office.
	The pools were supervised by Defence and Overseas Policy (DOP) Cabinet Committee's Sub-Committee on Conflict Prevention and Post-conflict Reconstruction, which approved gross spending amounts, held expenditures against the objectives set out in the Public Service Agreements and provided broad priorities.
Decision-making Procedure	Proposals first went through the department's own approval structure for public expenditure, after which the Steering committee formally approved the proposal. Allocations were agreed at Minister level.
Single/Multiple Year Projects	Single year.
Budget instrument	ACPP: about 80 million Euro (2006). GCPP: about 94 million Euro (2006/2007).

The Conflict Prevention Pool: Changes since April 2008

In April 2008, the Africa Conflict Prevention Pool and the Global Conflict Prevention Pool were merged into the Conflict Prevention Pool. This merger has been made in order to cut bureaucracy, to focus efforts, and ensure effectiveness for long-term conflict prevention. Attempts have been made to address the criticisms on the ACPP and GCPP, in particular in terms of the bidding process, and the opportunity to allow for three-year funding and programming as part of the new CPP. Moreover, there will be fewer, but larger regional strategies to enhance coherence. As opposed to the GCPP's previous twelve country strategies, the CPP has six. The CPP's budget for 2008-2009 is circa 140 million Euros.

The CPP's management continues to be tri-departmental: FCO, MoD and DFID. Ministers determine strategic direction and financial allocation for the programs in the pool. Financial management is taken care of by a Central Steering team. A senior director in one of the parent departments will be responsible for each program, with the programme management team made up from FCO, MoD and DFID policy officials. These teams are responsible for 'formulating and agreeing a conflict prevention strategy, identifying and managing programme activity in support of the strategy and monitoring and evaluating that activity.'[22]

The establishment of the Stabilisation Aid Fund (SAF, see below) is also an important change compared to the GCPP. The SAF focuses on 'hot' stabilisation areas, for instance Afghanistan and Iraq. As some stabilisation activities in these countries were formerly funded by the GCPP, the migration of these countries to the SAF creates more spending space for the CPP.

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[22] 'Conflict Prevention Pools', United Kingdom Foreign and Commonwealth office, at http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/about-the-fco/what-we-do/funding-programmes/conflict-prevention-pools/.

	Stabilisation Aid Fund (the United Kingdom)
Since…	2008
Activities Funded	It funds 'civil conflict stabilisation activities in volatile or hostile areas where the security situation does not yet permit the roll-out of programmes that the Pools have traditionally funded.'[23] It will focus on a limited number of countries with high foreign policy objectives.
Who may apply for funding	Departments/Missions.
Type of budget	It is formally part of the MoD's budget, but consists of cross-governmental funding.
Responsibility	Spending decisions are tri-departmental: FCO, MoD, DFID. The exact composition of the management team is yet to be determined. Allocations according to country and team will be decided upon at Minister level.
Single/Multiple Year Projects	To be determined.
Budget instrument	About 93/93/157 million Euro for 2008-2010.

	Global Peace and Security Fund (Canada)
Since…	2005
Activities Funded	The fund is to support rapid response to international crises, and especially may fund activities that lie outside of the ODA-range. It funds three broad programmes (SSR falls under the Global Peace and Security Program (GPSP)).
Who may apply for funding	The GPSF is meant to fund START's activities. Projects under the Global Peace and Security and Global Peace Operations Program tend to be identified by START itself and by posts. Proposals by NGOs would also be taken into consideration when filed. For the Glyn Berry program, applications must come from legal entities, such as NGOs, IGOs and governments.
Type of budget	The money for the GPSF comes from the Canadian government's Peace and Security Pool of the International Assistance Envelope (IAE). The latter represents the Canadian government's foreign aid resources.
Responsibility	The Executive Office of the Stabilisation and Reconstruction Task Force (START) manages the Fund.
Responsibility for decision-making in the instrument	• Each of START's subgroups is responsible for the identification, monitoring, management and evaluation of individual GPSF projects, according to its specific mandate. • A project that is under the value of 317.000 Euro first needs to be endorsed by the DFAIT Project Development Management Working Group (DPDM). • A project over 317.000 Euro needs to be endorsed both by the DPDM and the DFAIT Program Planning Committee. After these committees have endorsed the proposal, it needs to be signed off by the Senior Director, the Director-General of START, the Assistant DFAIT Deputy Minister, or the DFAIT Minister himself, depending on the value of the proposal.
Single/Multiple Year Projects	Since recently, multiple year projects are possible.
Budget instrument	149 million Euros for 2007-2008.

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[23] United Kingdom's HM Government's 'PSA Delivery Agreement 30: Reduce the impact of conflict through enhanced UK and international efforts', (2007), p.16.

	Instrument for Stability - IfS (EU)
Since…	Approved in 2006, in force since January 2007.
Activities Funded	There are two components to the instrument: • Short-term: in a situation of crisis or emerging crisis, activities funded by the IfS are meant to provide 'an effective response to help preserve, establish or re-establish the conditions essential to the proper implementation of the community's development and cooperation policies.'[24] • Long-term: in stable conditions activities are to address transnational threats and capacity building of state and non-state actors in conflict prevention or response. IfS cannot finance humanitarian assistance, projects longer than 18 months for short-term activities, or fund those activities that already have funds available to them.
Who may apply for funding	This depends on the measures involved and may range from partner countries and regions, joint bodies (partner regions and the Community), international organisations, European agencies, bodies of any Member State and non-state actors such as non-governmental organisations and private firms.
Type of budget	Community funding. It replaces a number of other regulations, such as the rapid reaction mechanism.
Responsibility	The Directorate General for External Relations of the European Commission (DG RELEX) manages the Instrument.
Responsibility for decision-making in the instrument	The European Commission (EC). It is assisted by a Committee which has a consultative role, consisting of representatives of Member States and chaired by a representative of the EC. There is close coordination with both Parliament and Council.
Single/Multiple Year Projects	Both.
Budget instrument	2007-2013: 2,062 million Euro, of which 1,487 million is determined for short-term and 484 million for long-term activities.

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[24] Regulation (EC) No 1717/2006 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 15 November 2006 establishing an Instrument for Stability.

2. Dedicated Units

	Stabilisation Unit (the United Kingdom)
Since…	The Stabilisation Unit (SU) was previously known as the Post-Conflict Reconstruction Unit (2004) It was renamed in 2007 to better reflect its core activities.
Main tasks and Activities	The SU provides specialist, targeted and rapid assistance to the UK's efforts to stabilize countries or areas. Key tasks: - Assessment and planning - Civilian deployments and maintaining an expert roster for this purpose, filling capacity gaps in both UK and international missions - Support coordination of stabilisation activities across parent departments - Distilling lessons learned, and integrating these in future activities.
Make-up	The SU's parent departments are DFID, FCO and MoD. It will respond to both requests of its parent departments and the Cabinet Office. It has about 34 staff from different government departments, including the parent departments and Treasury.
Senior Management	Senior Management comes from different departments.
Funding	The Stabilisation Unit is funded by its parent departments. As there is no dedicated funding within any department, the amount of funding made available is rather discretionary. DFID, for example, contributes more to the SU than MoD and FCO.
How does it aid WGA?	Staffing with FCO, DFID and MoD personnel facilitates cross-governmental assessment and planning.

	Stabilisation and Reconstruction Task Force – START (Canada)
Since…	2005
Main tasks and activities	START's main task is, as an inter-agency unit, to deal with coordination challenges between different departments in fragile states and crisis situations. START consists of four different groups working on different themes. - Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding Group (including SSR) - Humanitarian Affairs and Disaster Response Group - Peacekeeping and Peace Operations Group - Mine Action and Small Arms Group
Make-up	START's Advisory board consists of 8 representatives total of DFAIT, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the Department of National Defence (DND), Public Safety, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the Privy Council's Office, Justice Canada and other organisations. The Board is chaired by START's Director-General. The Advisory Board endorses START's activities, and may refer issues to the ministerial level for decision. START itself is located within and accountable to DFAIT. It currently consists mainly of DFAIT personnel, but is to include increasingly staff from CIDA, DND and other organisations, up to about 75 staff. Senior Management is provided by the Director-General of START.
Funding	Activities by START are mostly funded through the GPSF.
How does it aid WGA?	• START has aided in ensuring more coordination between agencies. • START specifically mentioned in its review of 2006-2007 that in 2008 it will focus on its role as the centre of whole of government policy leadership in security sector reform.

	International Security System Reform Team (ISSAT) – located in Geneva
Since…	2008
Main tasks and Activities	ISSAT is a multidonor-initiative. It seeks to support donors, development partners and multilateral organisations to address the challenges of SSR capacity building; increase coordination through encouraging joint action and facilitating a whole-of-government approach; and enhance the effectiveness of SSR programming through the implementation of international norms and standards. It provides 5 main services: - Undertaking and coordinating SSR Assessments - Provision of guidance on programme design - Monitoring and evaluation of SSR programmes - Training and Capacity Development - Other support services; such as developing a roster of experts, country monitoring, sharing lessons learned.
Make-up	ISSAT will consist of a head, 1 Office and Trust Fund manager, 4 ISSAT SSR Advisors and 2 Project Assistants. In addition, ISSAT will seek to use national expert pools where possible and appropriate and create an international roster of SSR experts.
Senior Management	ISSAT is managed by its head and governed by a board composed of the contributing countries.
Funding	1. Core funding has so far been provided by Switzerland, Ireland, Norway and the Netherlands. 2. Programme funding has so far been provided by Canada and the UK.
How does it aid WGA?	It aims to facilitate joint donor action in the field of SSR, to support the SSR endeavours of international organisations, to provide train the trainer type capacity building and to create an international roster that facilitates joint-up approaches

	Security Sector Development Advisory Team (the United Kingdom)
Since…	2001
Main tasks and Activities	SSDAT provides in-country advice and assistance on SSR at the request of partner countries.
Make-up	The SSDAT consists of circa 13 staff and includes personnel from the MoD and DFID. Expertise ranges from Defence Reform, Governance, Justice, Intelligence and Police reform.
Senior Management	SSDAT is led by a team leader. Deployments are subject to prior agreement of the three parents departments of the CPP, the MoD, FCO and DFID, which funds the SSDAT. Although SSDAT may get funding from other sources, the CPP may call on the team first.
Funding	SSDAT was funded by the former GCPP, now CPP.
How does it aid WGA?	The SSDAT is made up from staff of several departments and provides integrated expert advice on SSR.

3. Expert Pools

	NORDEM (Norway)
Since…	NORDEM was established in 1993.
Sort of Experts	Experts in election observation, technical election support, election experts, political analysis, local governance, free media, good governance, legal reform, human rights monitors and investigators of gross violations of human rights. Every expert will receive training from NORDEM upon entering the roster.
Government/Non Government Employees	Many of its experts are not government employees.
Management	NORDEM is a project at the Norwegian Centre for Human Rights (NCHR). It is funded by Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Responsibility lies with the Norwegian Institute of Human Rights, whereas administrative and operational duties rest with the Norwegian Refugee Council. NORDEM works in close cooperation with the MFA.
Users of the Pool	NORDEM recruits and trains personnel for secondment to IGOs. Requests for this may come from an IGO, MFA or NORDEM may take the initiative. It also promotes candidates for positions directly contracted by IGOs and initiates projects on its own.
Number of Experts	There are 120 persons in the Resource Bank. These experts are not required to be available on short notice, but they may be contacted for special assignments. There are 260 persons in the Standby Force. The experts in the Standby Force are available for assignments for international organisations on a short notice.
Speed of Deployment Possible	1-3 weeks.

	Norwegian Pool of Rule of Law Advisers (Crisis Response Pool Norway)
Since…	2004
Sort of Experts	Judges, (military) prosecutors, police lawyers, prison administrators, private attorneys. Whilst NORDEM also has experts in the area of law, this pool was set up for more specialized personnel, particularly in the area of corrections. Experts receive training for crisis management operations.
Government/Non Government Employees	Both.
Management	The Pool is administered by the Ministry of Justice and Police. Deployments are decided together with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Users of the Pool	The Norwegian government. These experts are also often seconded to, for instance, UN operations.
Number of Experts	85
Speed of Deployment Possible	Within 30 days.

	CANADEM (Canada)
Since…	1996
Sort of Experts	Experts in: human rights, peacebuilding, rule of law, governance, democratization, elections, policing, security, administration-logistics and reconstruction.
Government/Non Government Employees	Some of the experts are drawn from civil servants, but the majority of the experts in CANADEM's database are not government employees.
Management	CANADEM is an NGO. It is funded by the GSCF. CANADEM is responsible for the recruitment, screening and promotion of the individuals on the roster. Next to the roster, CANADEM can also aid in dispatching the expert. CANADEM offers CANDEP, which may be contracted to carry out deployment administration and logistics. It lists as its services contracting, banking arrangements, travel arrangements, medical clearances, visas, medical

	and other insurance, equipment briefings and debriefings. Further more, it can serve as a liaison with all the development stakeholders, coordinate mission reports and provide an ongoing strategic report. Next to this, CANPOL focuses on deployment of police security sector experts. Here it also has several services to make deployment quicker and smoother, such as their capacity to contract, equip and deploy experts.
Users of the Pool	Canadian government, IGOs, NGOs.
Number of Experts	Over 9,000.
Speed of Deployment possible?	CANADEM offers quick action: in emergency situations CANADEM can forward candidates within 48-72 hours, of which many can deploy within 7-10 days.

	Stabilisation Unit Roster (the United Kingdom)
Since…	2004 (as part of the PCRU's roster)
Sort of Experts	The pool aims to have experts in: Security, Justice and Policing; Political/Country and Conflict Analysis; Prosecutions & Prisons; Peace Processes; Public Administration; Election Planning; Infrastructure; Defence and National Security; Project/Operational Management; Human Rights and Transitional Justice; Public Financial Management; Livelihoods & employment generation; Education and health service delivery; Media and Strategic Communications.
Government/Non Government Employees	The roster does not hold current serving civil servants. It is a database of Deployable Civilian Experts. It also has three framework agreements with providers of consultants in the areas Governance, Justice and Peace-building, Social Development, and Public Administration Reform.
Management	Crown Agents are contracted by Stabilisation Unit and DFID manage the roster of Deployable Civilian Experts.
Users of the Pool	British Government Departments.
Number of Experts	Over 2,000.

4. Recent Developments in the Field of SSR in a Selection of International Organisations

The United Nations (UN)

The United Nations' involvement in SSR is in full development. The UN has been involved in SSR-activities for years, but has only recently begun to label those as such. In the past few years, calls have grown for more guidance on SSR, culminating in the recent report of the Secretary-General on an integrated role of the United Nations in supporting SSR.

The *Inventory: United Nations Capacity in Peacebuilding* found in 2006 that several different entities within the UN played a significant role in one or more areas of SSR, such as DPA, DPKO, UNDP and OHCHR. These different entities have their own mandates and working methods. The report by the executive office of the United Nations Secretary General (UNSG) concluded that 'the overall UN capacity in SSR understood as support both to governance and to the development of national capacity in core security operational tasks remains limited, when not practically non-existent, as in the case of specialized defence reform capacity. What capacity exists is dispersed and poorly coordinated.'[25]

As understanding of SSR and its importance for the stabilisation process in post-conflict countries has grown, this has also had its effect on UN missions. This can be seen in the United Nations Security Council's (UNSC) inclusion of SSR in peacekeeping or peace mission mandates since 2003, such as in the Democratic Republic of Congo and Burundi.[26]

As part of Slovakia's chairmanship of the UNSC, it organised a series of workshops to prepare for a discussion on SSR in the UNSC. This debate, in February 2007, led to a Presidential Statement, which acknowledged the UN's important role in SSR, and suggested the need for a report of the UNSG on the topic.[27] The General Assembly requested the UNSG to write such a report in July 2007.[28] The report, dated 23 January 2007, points out that despite its extensive experience in SSR, the UN lacks a system-wide approach to SSR, and does not have sufficient capacities and resources. [29] The UNSG's report outlines the following priorities for the UN:

1. Develop UN policies and guidelines;
2. Strengthen strategic advisory and specialist capacities;
3. Strengthen field capacity for SSR;

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[25] Executive Office of the Secretary-General (2006) *Inventory: United Nations Capacity in Peacebuilding,* p.22, at <www.undp.org/bcpr/iasc/content/docs/Oct_Links/doc_4.pdf>.
[26] Scherrer, V. (2007), 'Challenges of Integration: Cooperation on SSR within the UN System and Beyond', pp. 181-196 in Law, D. (ed.) (2007); and Hänggi, H. and V. Scherrer (2007) *Recent Experience of UN Integrated Missions in Security Sector Reform (SSR): Review and Recommendations*, Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of the Armed Forces DCAF, Geneva.
[27] Presidential Statement S/PRST/2007/3, 21 February 2007 at
< http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/unsc_pres_statements07.htm>.
[28] General Assembly Resolution 61/291, 24 July 2007 at <http://www.un.org/Depts/dpko/dpko/ctte/GAres.htm>.
[29] Report of the Secretary-General, (2008) 'Securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in supporting security sector reform', at <http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/sgrep08.htm>.

4. Assess the United Nations gaps and resource requirements;

5. Designate lead entities;

6. Enhance the coordination and delivery of SSR support;

7. Build partnerships to provide effective support, expertise and adequate resources to national SSR processes;

8. Establish a United Nations interagency SSR Support Unit to deliver on these priorities.

As regards the latter, this unit is intended to provide technical and specialist support, facilitate coordination between the different UN actors, linking the different and interrelated components of security, and could 'provide a strategic policy development and backstopping capacity for the UN system on SSR.'[30] It is also suggested it could facilitate the development of rosters of experts, training modules and expert advice on early assessment, planning and implementation of SSR processes.

European Union

The European Union displays two tracks in its SSR-activities, which are shaped and reflected by the European institutions that deal with them most extensively: development – the European Commission, and security – the European Council. As will be discussed below, the European Union aims to bring these tracks together in a coherent approach.

Although it was not until 2005 that an SSR-concept was created by the European Council, the EU had already been working with the concept for much longer, mostly as a part of its strategies on conflict prevention, crisis management, good governance and as a part of the enlargement agenda.[31] The 2003 European Security Strategy, '*A Secure Europe in a Better World*' specifically mentioned security sector reform, both as applicable to ESDP missions, as well as needing to be part of broader institution building.[32] SSR has also been an important part if not the main goal of several ESDP missions, such as EUPOL RD Congo, EUPOL Afghanistan, and EUSEC Congo.[33]

The European Council (2005, 'Concept for European Security and Defence Policy Support to SSR') and the European Commission (2006, 'Concept for European Community Support for Security Sector Reform') established their own, separate SSR-concepts. These two were in 2006 joined in an

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[30] Report of the Secretary-General, (2008) 'Securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in supporting security sector reform', para. 60, at <http://www.un.org/Docs/sc/sgrep08.htm>.
[31] Sheriff, A. (2007), 'Security Sector Reform and EU Norm Implementation', pp. 85-102 in Law, D. (ed.) (2007).
[32] 'A Secure Europe in a Better World – The European Security Strategy', 12 December 2003 at < http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cmsUpload/78367.pdf >.
[33] See EU operations at <http://consilium.europa.eu/>.

overarching policy framework for EU engagement in Security Sector Reform[34], which outlines 'the respective responsibilities of the two pillars as well as the modalities for joint action.'[35]

The latest EU mission, EU SSR Guinea-Bissau, seems a step in the right direction and represents a further opportunity to extract lessons and to take further steps towards a more comprehensive EU approach to SSR.

NATO

NATO has played an important role in defence reform, particularly through its enlargement and Partnership for Peace programmes. Its 1994 Partnership for Peace framework and its 1995 Enlargement Study, which set out the conditions that an aspiring member state's defence sector should meet, laid the ground rules for NATO's SSR activities.

In its enlargement programs, democratic governance of the security sector has been crucial. Moreover, to be able to contribute to NATO, aspiring member states needed their defence forces to be interoperable with NATO's member states. The dialogue that came forth from this need also provided room to discuss improved civil-military relations. Next to its enlargement programs, NATO has for instance also been involved in the reform of non-military forces, such as intelligence forces.[36]

As the world's understanding of the importance of SSR for security and development grows, NATO is also exploring ways to address SSR more holistically and cooperate with relevant organisations that address security sector beyond defence reform.

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[34] Council Conclusions on a Policy Framework for Security Sector Reform, Meeting of the General Affairs Council, Luxembourg, 12 June 2006 at
<http://www.eu2006.at/de/News/Council_Conclusions/1206SecuritySectorReform.pdf>.
[35] Law, D. (2007), 'Intergovernmental Organisations and their Role in Security Sector Reform', pp.10-11 in Law, D. (ed.) (2007).
[36] Law, D. (2007), 'Intergovernmental Organisations and their Role in Security Sector Reform', pp.14-15 and Haglund, D. G. (2007) 'From USSR to SSR: the Rise and (Partial) Demise of NATO in Security Sector Reform', pp. 103-122, both in Law, D. (ed.) (2007).

ANNEX 2 – General References

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