

# Preventing and Responding to Sexual and Domestic Violence against Men

A Guidance Note for  
Security Sector Institutions

Callum Watson



**DCAF**  
a centre for security,  
development and  
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The Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF) is an international foundation whose mission is to assist the international community in pursuing good governance and reform of the security sector. The Centre develops and promotes norms and standards, conducts tailored policy research, identifies good practices and recommendations to promote democratic security sector governance, and provides in-country advisory support and practical assistance programmes.

DCAF's gender and security programme works through research, policy and technical advice, and regional projects to support the development of security sectors that meet the security needs of women, men, girls and boys, and the full participation of men and women in security sector institutions and security sector reform processes.

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### **Acknowledgements**

I would like to thank the following people for their valuable comments on drafts in this guidance note: Greg Andresen (One in Three Campaign), Joanne Archambault (EVAW International), Isabelle Geuskens (Women Peacemakers Program), Merle Gosewinkel (Women Peacemakers Program), Kate Ibeanusi (PRAWA), Mark Moser (up! International), Henri Myrntinen (International Alert), Emily Nagisa Keehn (Sonke Gender Justice Network), Nomonde Nyembe (Sonke Gender Justice Network), Catarina Prata (UCLA School of Law), Professor Phil Rumney (University of the West of England), Rita Schäfer, Sandesh Sivakumaran (University of Nottingham), Joseph Vess (Promundo) and Anders Wengen (up! International). I would also like to thank the following DCAF gender and security programme colleagues for their valuable contributions: Megan Bastick, Anja Ebnöther, Noemi Helfenstein, Aiko Holvikivi, Daniel de Torres, Veerle Triquet, Caroline Pradier and Kristin Valasek.

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**ISBN:** 978-92-9222-307-6

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**Cite as:** Watson, Callum. *Preventing and Responding to Sexual and Domestic Violence against Men: A Guidance Note for Security Sector Institutions*. Geneva: DCAF, 2014.

Please note that all photographs are included for illustrative purposes only. They do not necessarily depict victims of sexual or domestic violence. In addition, the security sector personnel shown are not necessarily working on preventing or responding to sexual or domestic violence against men.

**Cover Image:** Northfield Neighbourhood Policing Team officers on patrol in the town centre. © West Midlands Police, 2011.

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# List of Abbreviations

<b>DRC</b>	Democratic Republic of the Congo
<b>ICC</b>	International Criminal Court
<b>ISVA</b>	independent sexual violence adviser
<b>LGBTI</b>	lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans* and intersex
<b>NGO</b>	non-governmental organization
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>RTS</b>	rape trauma syndrome
<b>SARC</b>	sexual assault referral centre
<b>SDV</b>	sexual and domestic violence
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>US</b>	United States
<b>WSU</b>	Women's Safety Unit

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**IS WRONG!**  
Its our right!



**NO TO VIOLENCE**

Wear a white ribb  
Support community acti  
stop family and sexual violen

A life free from violence.



# 1

## INTRODUCTION

Sexual and domestic violence (SDV) presents a serious security threat in all societies. Global statistics – which should be treated with caution – suggest that as much as a quarter of the world’s population may be directly affected by domestic violence, a large proportion of whom suffer from multiple incidents. Furthermore, each year one in 20 people may be subject to some form of sexual violence.<sup>1</sup>

The form and prevalence of SDV vary from context to context. The challenge for security sector institutions is to respond in a way that accounts for the different needs of women, men, girls, boys, trans\* and intersex people (see Box 3, page 13), all of whom can be affected as direct and indirect victims, in order to provide them with an equal level of security. This is known as a gender-sensitive approach, and it is an important component of a democratic and effective security sector.<sup>2</sup>

Security sector institutions such as the police, justice system, armed forces and prisons are increasingly realizing the importance of addressing SDV and devoting greater resources to combating this security threat. For example, since women’s organizations began to campaign on the issue in the 1970s, an increasing number of countries have implemented legislation to criminalize domestic violence and it is now illegal in over 125 countries (see Box 1).<sup>3</sup> However, there are

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Police officers Peter and Malen look after the cases at the Family and Sexual Violence Unit at Waigani Police Station, Port Moresby PNG. Photo: Ness Kerton for DFAT AusAID.

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still many places where legislation on domestic and sexual violence is inadequate or written in a way that makes it difficult to enforce. Furthermore, where services designed to meet the needs of female victims do exist (such as shelters), they are almost always chronically underfunded.

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### **BOX 1: WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS AND SDV<sup>4</sup>**

Despite sexual violence being recognized as a crime in many ancient legal systems, it is thanks to the activism of women's movements, especially since the 1970s, that policy-makers have begun to understand that it is a fundamental threat to security and a product of unequal gender relations. Similarly, domestic violence was largely accepted as a legitimate practice until women's organizations began to challenge this mentality, especially towards the end of the nineteenth century. In 1993 the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action were adopted at the World Conference on Human Rights, which explicitly recognized domestic and sexual violence as violations of human rights. This marked the culmination of many years of hard work and lobbying by women's organizations. A few years later the Women's Caucus for Gender Justice successfully lobbied for the inclusion of sexual violence into the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (ICC). It is worth highlighting that today women's movements have become truly international, encompassing both Western organizations and numerous groups from the global South, many of which have their origins in their respective countries' independence or pro-democracy movements.

It is important not to lose sight of the fact that much of the progress made at the international level aimed at the criminalization and prevention of sexual violence was only possible thanks to decades of public awareness raising and political lobbying by women's organizations at national and community levels in different countries worldwide. Similarly, national movements themselves are largely dependent on the statistics, testimonies and good practices passed on to them by a multitude of grassroots organizations that assist survivors of sexual violence at the individual level.

Since the adoption of the Vienna Declaration and the inclusion of SDV in human rights discussions, SDV against men is slowly beginning to be recognized as a problem worthy of attention. Many women's organizations have played a significant role in this development by stressing that SDV is an issue of public interest and not a private affair, highlighting to policy-makers that male victims also use their services, and overseeing the establishment of services specifically for men. In addition, in many areas the extent of SDV against men was first uncovered within the context of working with men and boys on addressing violence against women, as this opened up rare discussion spaces where men could also talk about the violence they experience. Much credit is therefore due to the women's and feminist organizations for the resources they have invested in researching and publicizing SDV and the advocacy work they have undertaken. Their work has been vital in making male victims of SDV more visible.

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Today, emerging good practices include creating dedicated domestic and sexual violence units within police services, as well as sexual assault referral centres (where victims can access health, security and justice services in the same location), and implementing laws and policies to address the specific nature of SDV. Despite these initiatives, SDV against women and girls remains a serious and widespread problem that is often not adequately addressed.



While many of these responses were developed specifically to assist women and hold the offenders accountable, large numbers of men are also subjected to SDV (see Box 2 on page 10 and Box 8 on page 21). For example, official statistics from Australia estimate that 336,000 men (4 per cent of the male population) have been victims of sexual violence and 448,000 men (5.3 per cent) have been subjected to partner violence since they turned 15 years old.<sup>5</sup> Male victims often share similar security needs with female victims. However, there are also gender-specific barriers to accessing security and justice, and the issue of SDV remains especially shrouded in silence and misconceptions when it comes to male victims. A literature review indicated that while academic research on these topics does exist and several NGOs have recorded relevant good practices, there is currently no single document where this information is synthesized in such a way that it can be readily used by the security sector. This guidance note is therefore designed to serve as a tool to enable security sector institutions to provide a more effective gender-sensitive approach to preventing and responding to SDV against men. It aims to do this by:

- giving an overview of the scope and types of SDV against men
- outlining key assessment criteria for security sector institutions to measure their current response to SDV against men
- providing practical guidance, including good practices, on how security sector institutions can prevent and respond effectively to SDV against men
- outlining key assessment criteria for security sector institutions to measure their current response to SDV against men
- providing a basis for further research in and documentation of SDV against men

This guidance note is designed primarily to assist those working at the operational, strategic or management level in *police* and *penal services*, but it is also useful for the *armed forces*. It addresses the issue of preventing and responding to SDV both against their own personnel and against the civilians they are mandated to protect (e.g. general population, prisoners or civilians in the context of a peacekeeping operation). It is also aimed at staff working in bodies that manage and oversee these security sector institutions, such as government ministries, parliaments, ombuds institutions, human rights institutions and civil society, including victims' associations and the media. In addition, it may be useful to NGOs advocating better services to SDV victims as well as to academics and researchers.

While some sections of this note may be relevant to those working to prevent and respond to SDV against boys or within the context of youth gangs, these topics are not specifically addressed due to the different legal frameworks and security responses that apply to minors. Similarly, there is not space in this guidance note to address aspects related specifically to the justice sector, although some of the information included may be useful.

## Notes

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1. While there are no reliable global statistics on domestic violence committed against women *and* men, World Health Organization statistics suggest that such violence affects 30 per cent of women worldwide. Studies in Australia and the United Kingdom (UK) suggest that men make up around a third of those who have experienced domestic violence. For example, in the UK domestic violence was found to affect 26 per cent of men at some point in their lifetimes, compared to 45 per cent of women. World Health Organization, “WHO report highlights violence against women as a ‘global health problem of epidemic proportions’”, 20 June 2013, [www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2013/violence\\_against\\_women\\_20130620/en/](http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2013/violence_against_women_20130620/en/); One in Three Campaign, “Fact Sheet No. 1: Overview of recent family violence research findings”, 2011, [www.oneinthree.com.au/storage/pdfs/One\\_in\\_Three\\_Fact\\_Sheet\\_1.pdf](http://www.oneinthree.com.au/storage/pdfs/One_in_Three_Fact_Sheet_1.pdf). Regarding sexual violence, a United States (US) survey found that approximately one in 20 women and one in 20 men had experienced some form of sexual violence in the last year. These figures excluded rape, which affected one in five women and one in 71 men. National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, “Sexual Violence Facts at a Glance”, Center for Disease Control, 2012, [www.cdc.gov/ViolencePrevention/pdf/SV-DataSheet-a.pdf](http://www.cdc.gov/ViolencePrevention/pdf/SV-DataSheet-a.pdf).
2. For more information on creating a gender-sensitive security sector see Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek (eds), “Gender and security sector reform toolkit”, DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN-INSTRAW, Geneva, 2008, [www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Security-Sector-Reform-Toolkit](http://www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Security-Sector-Reform-Toolkit).
3. Laura Turquet, Papa Seck, Ginette Azcona, Roshni Menon, Catilin Boyce, Nicole Pierron and Emma Harbour, “Progress of the world’s women: In pursuit of justice”, UN Women, New York, 2009, p. 24, <http://progress.unwomen.org/pdfs/EN-Report-Progress.pdf>. This statistic does not distinguish between countries that outlaw domestic violence against people of any gender and those that specifically outlaw sexual violence against women.
4. Aili Mari Tripp, “The evolution of transnational feminisms”, in Myra Marx Ferree and Aili Mari Tripp (eds), *Global Feminism: Transnational Women’s Activisms* (New York: New York University Press, 2006, pp. 51–75).
5. Australian Bureau of Statistics, “Personal Safety Survey Australia – 2012”, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra, 2013, Tables 1 and 4.





# 2

## OVERVIEW OF SEXUAL AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN

SDV, whether committed against men or against women, is strongly influenced by the gender relations in the country where it takes place. One of the main reasons why men are reluctant to seek help in cases of SDV is that there is a shameful stigma attached to being victim of a crime traditionally associated with female victims. This is an example of how social and cultural gender stereotypes can have negative effects on men, just as they can for women. On top of the physical effects of SDV, this stigma undermines male victims' notions of masculinity, such as their presumed ability to protect themselves, and they therefore feel they have "failed" at being men. While this guidance note focuses on preventing and responding to SDV in the short term, long-term solutions will require more gender-equitable relations between men and women in the society as a whole. As SDV against men is a relatively new topic for many within the security sector, this section provides an introduction to its characteristics, perpetrators, victims and impacts.

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Sergeant therapeutically paints through PTSD healing process.  
Photo: US Marine Corps Air Station Cherry Point

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## 2.1 Sexual violence

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### 2.1.1 What are the characteristics of sexual violence against men?

The ICC defines sexual violence as “an act of a sexual nature against one or more persons”, committed either “by force, or by threat of force or coercion, such as that caused by fear of violence, duress, detention, psychological oppression or abuse of power... or by taking advantage of a coercive environment” characterized by the victim’s “incapacity to give genuine consent”.<sup>6</sup>

Sexual violence can take many forms, including:

- sexual assault
- rape
- sexual torture
- mutilation of the genitals
- sexual humiliation
- sexual enslavement
- forced rape (forcing one person to rape another by threat of force or coercion)
- forced incest (forcing members of the same family to engage in sexual intercourse with each other by threat of force or coercion)
- sexual harassment

The ICC defines rape as an invasion “committed by force, or by threat of force or coercion” of “the body of a person by conduct resulting in penetration, however slight, of any part of the body of the victim or of the perpetrator with a sexual organ, or of the anal or genital opening of the victim with any object or any other part of the body”.<sup>7</sup> This means that it is possible for men to be raped by both men and women. It is also important to understand the nature of coercive behaviour. The ICC states that perpetrators may coerce victims into submitting to sexual violence through:

- fear of violence
- duress
- detention
- psychological oppression
- abuse of power
- taking advantage of a coercive environment

Also included in the ICC definition is an “invasion... committed against a person incapable of giving genuine consent” due to “natural, induced or age-related incapacity” – in other words, sexual violence committed against people who are intoxicated, drugged, asleep, mentally incapacitated or not legally old enough to give consent.<sup>8</sup> Thus the ability to give consent is a key factor in determining if the act constitutes sexual violence or not.

The majority of incidents of sexual violence against women are committed in the home by a partner, family member or acquaintance. While it is sometimes the case with male victims that sexual violence occurs in the home, there are proportionally more reports of it happening elsewhere, either at work or in other public spaces. Many men have been raped or sexually harassed in institutions by those who have power over them, for example in prisons or as part of hazing rituals where it is presented as a rite of passage for new recruits entering security sector institutions. (In a recent US study, 10 per cent of former prisoners reported being sexually abused during their most recent period of detention, half by the personnel and the remainder by other prisoners.) Rape as a strategy of war is perhaps one of the most high-profile forms of sexual violence committed against men. Research indicates that it has taken place in many different locations, ranging from former Yugoslavia to the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Chile.<sup>9</sup>

One of the most common misconceptions surrounding sexual violence against men is that forced rape (where a man is forced to rape another man, woman or child) and the rape of a man by a woman are not possible without the victim's consent because they require him to have an erection. However, erections – and also ejaculation – can be a *reflexive* response to genital or anal stimulation, or can be induced by anxiety. For these reasons it is possible for men to be the victims of sexual violence even if they had an erection and ejaculated.<sup>10</sup>

### 2.1.2 How common is sexual violence against men?

Where sexual violence against men is recorded, the number of victims tends to be significant. For example, official statistics for 2011–2012 suggest that 445,000 men in England and Wales had been subjected to sexual violence at some point since their sixteenth birthday, 10 per cent during the last year. By contrast, 3.25 million women had experienced sexual violence since their sixteenth birthday, about 15 per cent of whom did so in the last year. The same statistics indicate that nearly 20 per cent of male victims had experienced rape as per the ICC definition, a figure which rose to over 25 per cent for female victims.<sup>21</sup>

However, there are at least four problems with statistics in this area. Firstly, reporting rates for sexual violence against men are undoubtedly low (a US estimate put the figure at 3–10 per cent where the perpetrator is female; see Section 2.3 on barriers to reporting).<sup>22</sup> When the perpetrator is male, victims may fear being labelled as homosexual – which often carries with it an immense social stigma, and in some countries is considered a crime. Secondly, laws on sexual violence may be written or interpreted in such a way that they only consider male perpetrators and/or female victims. In these situations, sexual violence committed against men might be recorded as torture or assault, depending on the discretion of those recording the incident. Thirdly, when victims are forced to have involuntary sexual contact with a perpetrator through pressure, drugs or alcohol but without physical violence, the crime can be hard to prove and even harder to record in a

standardized way. Fourthly, where it is generally presumed that men cannot be victims of sexual violence, researchers do not think to look for it when conducting surveys and compiling data. A small number of proactive researchers have, however, identified incidents of sexual violence committed against men in a wide diversity of countries, cultures and contexts (see Box 2).<sup>23</sup>

## BOX 2: EXAMPLES OF THE INCIDENCE AND PREVALENCE OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN AROUND THE WORLD *(year of statistic in parentheses)*

**2013**

**Abu Dhabi** establishes a centre for male victims of sex abuse and human trafficking<sup>11</sup>

**20%**

of victims of a sexual crime in **Colombia** is male (2011)<sup>12</sup>

**4-10%**

of those seeking medical treatment for sexual violence in the **DRC** are male (2007-9)<sup>13</sup>

**76%**

of male political prisoners in **El Salvador** reported experiencing sexual torture (1989)<sup>14</sup>

**5%**

of men in **France** stated they had experienced someone trying to force them into having sex (2006)<sup>15</sup>

**33%**

of male combatants surveyed in **Liberia** and 7% of male non-combatants had experienced sexual violence (2012)<sup>16</sup>

**10%**

of men in **South Africa** have experienced sexual violence by another man (2011)<sup>17</sup>

**2006-12**

saw numerous reports of sexual violence and rape of male prisoners of war in **Sri Lanka** (2013)<sup>18</sup>

**9%**

of incidents of sexual violence reported in the **UK** are committed against men and boys (2011-12)<sup>19</sup>

**15%**

of all rape victims in the **USA** are men; 3% of men have experience attempted or completed rape in their lifetime (2001-13)<sup>20</sup>



### 2.1.3 Who are the perpetrators of sexual violence against men?

To prioritize the needs of victims, it is important that security institutions have a good understanding of who perpetrates sexual violence against men and what their motivations are. Misconceptions that sexual violence is only committed by people of a certain gender or sexual orientation are dangerous, as they allow perpetrators who do not fit these stereotypes to commit crimes with impunity. With this in mind, this subsection first outlines how academic research has shown that sexual violence is committed by both women and men and by both homosexual and heterosexual people. It then examines the motives of perpetrators to enable security sector institutions to identify perpetrators by their actions and not by their demographic group.

Research into sexual violence against men has uncovered the following findings.

*> A large proportion of perpetrators of sexual violence against men are women.*

A study from Australia found that women were six times more likely to be victims of sexual violence and abuse by men than the other way around, but the majority of perpetrators of sexual violence and abuse against men are women.<sup>24</sup> Small-scale studies have found that 10–20 per cent of women have committed some form of sexual coercion against men in their lifetimes, and a similar number of men have been victim to sexual coercion by women.<sup>25</sup> (Sexual coercion involves forcing a victim to have sexual contact against his or her will by using pressure, drugs, alcohol or force.) In these studies, female perpetrators were more likely to take advantage of men who were incapacitated in some way, and they tended to seek sexual arousal by forcing their victims to touch them or perform fellatio more than through sexual intercourse.

*> Most male perpetrators are heterosexual.*

Sexual violence and abuse in all-male or majority-male institutions such as prisons and military bases are often committed by perpetrators who are primarily driven by a desire to assert their power and authority over their victims by using sexual violence. This trend has also been observed in urban settings, where gangs use sexual violence as a tool to dominate men living in their zone of influence or belonging to other gangs. There may be no element of sexual attraction for the perpetrator.<sup>26</sup>

Even though the majority of perpetrators are heterosexual, some men do commit sexual violence for the purpose of sexual gratification. Research from Australia suggests that the proportion of homosexual male perpetrators appears to be higher than the proportion of homosexual men in the population. There is a risk that these statistics may be skewed because victims may mislabel their aggressors as gay. However, a preponderance of homosexual male perpetrators may be because men commit more sexual violence than women, thus homosexual men are at a greater risk of sexual violence from male partners or ex-partners than heterosexual men are from their female partners. For the same reason, they also face a higher risk of “date-rape”. Furthermore, all men are less likely to report sexual violence and abuse if the security sector is homophobic, and it

is more difficult for homosexuals to demonstrate non-consent in this instance than for heterosexual men. Therefore, in many cases it is easier for homosexual perpetrators to act with impunity.<sup>27</sup> (See also Box 3 on page 13.)

As most people do not commit sexual violence, it is important to understand what it is that motivates those men and women who do become perpetrators. In no way should this be seen as an attempt to justify perpetrators' actions; rather, it aims to give security sector institutions a more nuanced understanding to help them to develop effective prevention and response strategies.

Perpetrators' motives may not be immediately apparent: they often exhibit “grooming” behaviours in order to develop a rapport with their victims, only to abuse their trust later. When these motives surface, they tend to be based on a desire to exert power and control over another person for the purposes of self-gratification. These overlying motives can be broken down into more nuanced explanations including one or several of the following.<sup>28</sup>

**Entitlement** – Within the context of a relationship, perpetrators think they have the right to sexual gratification from their partner. Perpetrators may believe that their position in a hierarchy, be it formal (such as in a security and religious institution) or informal (for example based on age, social status or a “pecking order” among prisoners or military recruits), entitles them to abuse others sexually.

**Sexual desire** – the desire for sexual gratification can lead perpetrators to identify potential victims over whom they can easily exert power and control.

**Arousal** – the perpetrator may be aroused by pain, fear and terror, shame and humiliation or power, dominance and control. This arousal does not have to be sexual; many heterosexual perpetrators are excited purely by their ability to exert power over another individual.

**Sexism and gender roles** – the role of men is perceived as being dominant to that of women to some extent in nearly all societies. Committing sexual violence against men can play on this in a strategic way by “feminizing” men in the eyes of those around them. There are examples of this kind of sexual violence being committed in armed-conflict contexts against defeated or “conquered” men (see Box 6 on page 18). In addition, men who deviate from the “norm” (e.g. trans\* men and those perceived as homosexual – see Box 3) may be subjected to sexual violence to pressure them to conform to certain gender roles.

*“I’m laughed at... The people in my village say: ‘You’re no longer a man. Those men in the bush made you their wife.’”*

– Tupapo Mukuli, male civilian raped by armed men in the DRC.<sup>29</sup>

**Boosting status** – often linked with masculinity, the perpetrator may wish to assert leadership in a group by using sexual violence as a vehicle to demonstrate power in, for example, a gang or institution. In these cases the focus is less on subjugating the victim and more on elevating the perpetrator.

**Punishment** – in armed-conflict contexts, sexual violence is used to punish and dehumanize victims as well as to destroy community ties.

### BOX 3: LESBIAN, GAY, BISEXUAL, TRANS\* AND INTERSEX (LGBTI) PEOPLE<sup>30</sup>

The acronym LGBTI stands for lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans\* and intersex. Lesbian, gay and bisexual are types of sexual orientation: they describe what gender of person a given individual is sexually and romantically attracted to. Trans\* and its related terms are used to describe gender identity: they refer to how individuals perceive what their gender is and how this relates to their biological sex at birth. Intersex is a term used to describe a person's biological sex.

Fear and dislike of lesbian and gay people is known as *homophobia*. Fear and dislike of trans\* people is termed *transphobia*.

The word *trans\** is used as an inclusive umbrella term for people who do not (always) identify themselves by the gender or sex they were allocated at birth. Within this category, some people may identify as transgender or transsexual, for example, but there are also culturally specific trans\* identities such as *hijras* in South Asia. Some trans\* people identify as men – for example a *trans* man is a person who was identified as female at birth but now identifies as a man. Others, such as *genderqueer* people, identify as neither men nor women.

*Intersex* people are those who are born with a reproductive or sexual anatomy that does not fit the typical definitions of male or female. Most intersex people are allocated a gender at birth and then undergo medical procedures to make their bodies appear more “male” or “female”, but this practice is widely condemned by intersex organisations. Most intersex people identify either as women or as men, some having rejected the gender they were allocated at birth. A few identify as something other than women or men.

The security needs of trans\* and intersex people vary widely from one country to another. Local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) working with trans\* and intersex people are usually best placed to advise security sector institutions on the specific details of these needs.

#### 2.1.4 Who are the male victims of sexual violence?

One of the main reasons that victims (male or female) do not report sexual violence is the fear that security personnel will not believe them or, worse, counter-accuse them of having consented.<sup>32</sup> To reduce the chance of these fears coming true, this subsection highlights the kinds of men who are targeted by perpetrators of sexual violence. The first part looks at different demographic groups of male victims, and the second part details some of the contexts where disproportionately high levels of sexual violence against men have been recorded. A better understanding of victims will help security

sector institutions to improve their prevention and response strategies and reduce the likelihood of perpetrators being able to act with impunity.

Heterosexual and homosexual men from all walks of life can experience sexual violence. Traditional notions of masculinity that discourage men from showing weakness or victimization, as well as the potential stigma of being labelled as homosexual if the perpetrator is male, mean that the vast majority of men face some barriers to reporting acts of sexual violence to the police or other security sector institutions (see Section 2.3).

While there are some cases of the perpetrator being a stranger (especially in conflict situations when armed forces are able to commit crimes in public with impunity), a high proportion of sexual violence against men is reported within the context of prisons, residential military facilities and homes.

The most important predictor of sexual violence in all cases is that the victim is in an environment where the perpetrator can commit violence or abuse with a high degree of impunity. Consequently, perpetrators usually choose victims over whom they have some degree of power. This can be due to formal or informal power structures in an institution, but in the case of partners and ex-partners the perpetrator may be able to exercise power by way of emotional abuse. Finally, it is often easier for a perpetrator to commit sexual violence against a victim who lives or works in close proximity.

Sexual violence can also occur within security sector institutions themselves. Men may be targeted if the chain of command has a history of turning a blind eye to these sorts of crimes (e.g. within the context of hazing). Some may even be targeted by the person to whom they are supposed to report sexual violence (see Box 4).<sup>33</sup> There are also cases of members of the security sector committing sexual violence against men in conflict (see Box 6 on page 18).

#### **BOX 4: SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN WITHIN SECURITY SECTOR INSTITUTIONS<sup>34</sup>**

*“A lot of people say this problem exists because we are allowing women into the military or because of the repeal of ‘don’t ask, don’t tell’ [referring to the ban on openly gay service members]. But that is absurd. The people who perpetrated these crimes on me identify as heterosexual males.”*

– Rick Lawson, survivor of sexual violence in the US Army National Guard, Washington

Lawson experienced incidents of sexual bullying from various sergeants in his unit, including one who would rub his genitals into Lawson’s buttocks and jump into Lawson’s bed, and others who would put Lawson into a headlock and simulate anal sex. Following complaints, the perpetrators were demoted but Lawson had to serve the rest of his tour in Iraq while living near them on the same base. He was later diagnosed with post-traumatic stress disorder and discharged, subsequently struggling to hold down a job due to his depression.

Sexual violence within or by members of security sector institutions falls largely into the following four categories.

1. **Sexual violence committed by security sector personnel against other security personnel**, for example when an instructor rapes a new recruit or a senior officer takes advantage of his or her rank to force someone lower down in the chain of command to perform sexual acts.

In the US military, for example, although only 14.6 per cent of service personnel are women, there are roughly equal numbers of male and female victims of sexual violence. Currently one in five female and one in 100 male healthcare-seeking veterans report having been subject to sexual assault or repeated sexual harassment when screened.

2. **Sexual violence taking place between detainees**, for example when a prisoner rapes his cell-mate (see case study in Box 15 on page 50).

*“Since I came here to prison, things happen; they infect us and leads you to the point where, for a man to be abused, it is like your manhood is taken away from you. At the end of the day, you feel justified by raping the next person, whether it is a male or female. It feels like retaining your manhood.”*

– Anonymous South African prisoner<sup>35</sup>

Few statistics exist on sexual violence in detention outside the USA, where it is thought to affect 20 per cent of male prisoners. A small-scale study in Australia found that around 25 per cent of male prisoners aged 18–25 experienced sexual assault in custody, and around 30 per cent of these did so on a regular basis. Rape in prisons is often linked to gang violence and power structures, and men are particularly at risk if they are not seen as hyper-masculine. In countries like South Africa there is also a high chance of victims contracting sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV (see Box 15 on page 50).

It is usually difficult for victims to remove themselves from the situation, and reporting may run the risk of serious consequences ranging from exclusion to violent retribution. In the worst cases, prison officials do not take reports of sexual violence seriously and even mock the victims. For all these reasons, repeat offences against the same victim are common.

3. **Sexual violence committed by security sector personnel against members of the public**, for example the rape of civilians on or near a military base or in conflict zones, or the abuse of members of the community by police officers or border personnel (see also Box 6 on page 18).

When this kind of sexual violence occurs, two factors are usually present. The first is a sense of entitlement on the part of perpetrators, which they may have had prior to joining the institution (hence adequate vetting mechanisms were not in place) or may have learnt from peers or superiors in the security institution itself. The second factor is a lack of supervision due to a lack of capacity, ability or volition on the part of perpetrators' superiors in enforcing basic standards of good conduct.

4. **Sexual violence committed by security sector personnel against detainees**, including abuse of prisoners by prison guards, and of captured enemy forces by armed forces.

In some security institutions there is a culture of dehumanizing detainees, and hence security personnel feel entitled to abuse them for their own sexual gratification or as a form of punishment. Sexual violence may also form part of an illegal interrogation technique and therefore be considered as torture. Of 607 male torture victims received by the Medical Foundation for the Care of Victims of Torture between January 1997 and June 1998, 153 men from 13 different countries had been subjected to sexual violence by prison guards or interrogators.

***“Never once in all the time I’ve investigated these horrific crimes has it occurred to me that one day I would be a victim; that I would be raped – and that I would refuse to help the police investigate.”***

– British police detective specializing in serious crime and sexual offences who was raped himself.<sup>31</sup>

### **BOX 5: COMMON SYMPTOMS OF MEN WHO HAVE SURVIVED SEXUAL VIOLENCE<sup>36</sup>**

#### **Physical**

- Long- and short-term bodily injuries (e.g. anal lacerations and bleeding, broken bones, burns, knife wounds)
- Sexually transmitted infections, including HIV
- Physical effects of psychological injuries (poor diet, lack of exercise)

#### **Emotional / psychological**

- Shame and guilt (questioning sexuality and masculinity)
- Confusion, fear and hopelessness (“why me?”, fear of retaliation)
- Psychological illnesses (symptoms include sleep problems, depression, anxiety, amnesia, low self-esteem and suicidal tendencies)
- Self-harm, including misuse of substances

#### **Impact of sexual violence against men**

#### **Financial**

- Loss of income due to work absences, reduced career prospects or because the perpetrator limits access to funds
- Cost of medical treatment
- Cost of relocating / coping mechanisms

#### **Social**

- Loss of access to children
- Ostracization due to prejudice from family, friends and community
- Self-imposed isolation from friends and family due to prejudice, difficulties trusting people or psychological trauma
- Trauma-induced antisocial behaviour

Battling PTSD.

Photo: US Marine Corps.

### 2.1.5 What is the impact of sexual violence against men?

The impact of sexual violence on male victims tends to be complex and multifaceted. Box 5 outlines some of the more common physical, emotional and psychological, financial and social effects that have been recorded as part of academic and public policy research.

Some victims may go on to develop rape trauma syndrome (RTS), a condition that is closely related to post-traumatic stress disorder. When untreated, RTS is often but not always characterized by four stages. Firstly, victims are visibly upset, ashamed and afraid, and withdraw from social interactions. Secondly, they develop feelings of self-worthlessness, self-blame and self-contempt. In the third stage, suppressed rage manifests itself in the form of violent behaviour. In the final stage there is some level of resolution and the effect of the sexual assault begins to recede. RTS is often accompanied by other psychological effects, such as internalized notions that the victims are no longer “true men”. RTS and other psychological conditions often go untreated, as victims are



unwilling to access the health system for various reasons or because treatment is simply unavailable or unaffordable to them. While NGOs or the state sometimes offer free or discounted treatment for basic physical injuries, this is much less common when it comes to psychological treatment.<sup>37</sup> (Box 16 on page 53 outlines some of the tell-tale signs of RTS among men.)

Many male victims move away from their families, either to escape the perpetrator or as a response to the stigma they and/or their families may be experiencing, thus isolating them from their support networks. Some follow a pattern of never staying for long in one place. This may have a serious financial impact on the victim as well as his family, as he may no longer be able to work. Victims may also find it difficult to make new friends or maintain intimate relationships because they often do not trust themselves or others to become healthy life partners and providers of emotional support. When sexual violence takes place in armed conflict, there may be even more challenges to overcome (see Box 6).

### BOX 6: SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN DURING ARMED CONFLICT<sup>39</sup>

*“I heard someone shouting orders, ‘Bite, bite,’ and I recognized [Bosnian Serb paramilitary leader] Dusko Tadić’s voice. I couldn’t see what was going on, but others who were watching the scene told me Tadić was ordering one Muslim prisoner to bite off [Bosniak prisoner Emir] Karabasić’s testicles.”<sup>40</sup>*

– Testimony of one of 7,000 former prisoners of the Omarska detention camp in Bosnia Herzegovina at the International Criminal Tribunal for Yugoslavia. At least 2,000 male detainees were killed.

Sexual violence during armed conflict can take the form of soldiers raping or mutilating male civilians or opposition soldiers, forcing men to abuse each other sexually, or forcing men to abuse women sexually or witness sexual violence against others, such as family members. Male combatants – including forced recruits – also experience sexual violence from their own colleagues.

The UN Population Fund reported that 80 per cent of male concentration camp victims in Sarajevo canton in the former Yugoslavia had been raped. A 2010 study in eastern DRC found that 29.5 per cent of women and 14.6 per cent of men had experienced conflict-related sexual violence in their lifetimes. These are not isolated incidents. Sexual violence against men has been reported over the last century during armed conflicts in Afghanistan, Algeria, Burundi, Chechnya, China, Congo-Brazzaville, DRC, East Timor, Egypt, El Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Guinea-Bissau, Iraq, Israel/Palestine, Kenya, Kuwait, Liberia, Malaysia, Northern Ireland, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Syria, Turkey, Uganda, US facilities abroad, Uzbekistan, Yemen, the former Yugoslavia and Zimbabwe.

While men who suffer physical violence may be seen as heroes by their communities, male victims of sexual violence are often outcast and mocked as “women” or “homosexuals”. Fearing reprisals from their own side, many such victims go into exile after the conflict. Difficulties in accessing health and development-related services are not uncommon. In some cases international actors in the field are unable to provide assistance, as their mandate is limited to women who have experienced sexual violence.



In prisons, a specific characteristic of sexual violence is the psychological effect of being permanently “on alert”, as it may not be possible to avoid situations similar to that of the initial assault. This, along with the inability to access psychological treatment without reporting to the prison authorities, severely inhibits a victim’s ability to recover. Secondary psychological conditions may develop which sometimes result in self-harm or suicide. (See Box 15 on page 50.) In military settings, male victims of sexual violence exhibit an increased tendency to abuse alcohol and other substances, and exhibit mental illnesses including post-traumatic stress disorder at a higher rate than the military average. Aside from affecting morale and performance, when sexual violence occurs within a security sector institution there can be heavy direct and indirect financial costs relating to legal and medical fees as well as lost investment if the victim is discharged. Estimates from the US military put the cost to the institution at over \$30,000 per victim.<sup>38</sup>

## 2.2 Domestic violence

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### 2.2.1 What are the characteristics of domestic violence against men?

Definitions of domestic violence vary, and it may also be referred to as domestic abuse, intimate partner violence or family violence. UN guidelines advocate definitions in national legislation that include physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence and apply to any individuals in an intimate relationship (including marital, non-marital, same sex and non-cohabiting) or in the same family or household.<sup>41</sup>

Michael Flood, a sociologist specialized in gender, sexuality and interpersonal violence, provides a more specific definition: “a systematic pattern of power and control exerted by one person against another, involving a variety of physical and non-physical tactics of abuse and coercion... in the context of a current or former intimate relationship”.<sup>42</sup> The nature of domestic violence as a pattern makes it difficult to categorize in a legal sense, hence in most countries it is much easier to prosecute individual violent incidents if and when they occur. This can be problematic, because many of the acts committed within the context of domestic violence leave no visible physical injuries and it can therefore be hard to prove that they took place. However, if security personnel have the requisite training as well as the foresight and resources necessary to document these seemingly minor disturbances and subsequently identify a pattern, it is possible to bring successful prosecutions.

Domestic violence takes many forms, including:<sup>43</sup>

- **physical violence** – pushing, biting, hitting, burning, strangling, using a weapon, homicide
- **sexual violence** – see Section 2.1
- **psychological violence** – bullying, jealous behaviour, humiliation, verbal abuse such as ridiculing and blaming

- **isolation** – forbidding social contact, confinement, undermining
- **threats, intimidation and stalking** – threatening with death or suicide, surveillance, controlling
- **economic violence** – withholding money, forbidding work or forcing the victim to work
- **legal and administrative abuse** – use of institutions to inflict further abuse on a victim, for example taking out false restraining orders to deny the victim access to his children
- **pressuring through children, the abuse of pets or property damage**

It is important to highlight that some abuse which may ordinarily be considered too minor to warrant prosecution should be considered as an act of domestic violence when it occurs as part of a pattern of coercion and control. From the perspective of the security sector, this means that the severity of an individual act should not be used as the only measure of the severity of the crime. For example, a one-off incident where a heated argument between a couple results in a physical injury may be less serious than a case where one partner routinely reads the other's text messages in order to control his or her movements and social interactions. A useful tool for understanding this distinction is Johnson's control typology of intimate partner violence (Box 7), developed by an academic specializing in domestic violence.

### BOX 7: JOHNSON'S CONTROL TYPOLOGY OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE<sup>44</sup>

	Intimate terrorism	Violent resistance	Situational couple violence
<b>Aim</b>	To control a relationship	To escape an "intimate terrorist"	To "win", get attention or get even
<b>Defining characteristics</b>	Repeated violence, or a single violent act can be used as a lasting control mechanism (coercive threat of repetition)	Victim reacts in defence or retaliation to their partner's intimate terrorism	Violence occurs when conflict situations escalate, usually ends if conflict is resolved
<b>Perpetrator</b>	Only one; dominant role in relationship	Only one; victim of intimate terrorism	Potentially both parties
<b>Frequency of violence</b>	Often frequent	Very infrequent, often a one-off	Tends to be infrequent or happens in short phases
<b>Severity</b>	Often victims fear for their lives, but violence itself may be largely emotional	May be very violent	Life-threatening behaviour is rare but not unheard of

Johnson's typology has several important uses for security sector institutions. First, it can help when distinguishing between the perpetrator and the victim, and also when judging the severity of the crime. For example, when intimate terrorism has taken place, the perpetrator of domestic violence may have committed a relatively minor act while the victim may have committed a very violent act of resistance to escape the controlling behaviour of the perpetrator. In this case there would be one perpetrator of intimate terrorism – a serious form of domestic violence – and another perpetrator of violent resistance – a comparatively less serious form of domestic violence due to the extenuating circumstances. In cases of violent resistance, it may be the perpetrator of the most recent violent incident who is more at risk. It is therefore important that the security sector recognizes how the dynamics of domestic violence are not always clear-cut. In cases where both parties are perpetrators, they may both pose a risk to those around them, such as children.

### BOX 8: EXAMPLES OF INCIDENCE AND PREVALENCE OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN AROUND THE WORLD *(year of statistic in parentheses)*

49%

of those injured due to domestic violence in **Chile** and 19% of those with serious injuries are men (2009)<sup>45</sup>

18%

of men in **England and Wales** have experienced domestic violence since they were 16; 800,000 of them in 2011 alone<sup>46</sup>

26%

of recorded domestic violence cases in **France** involve a male victim (2011)<sup>47</sup>

6%

of recorded domestic violence victims in **Ghana** are men (2008)<sup>48</sup>

17%

of domestic violence cases in **Hong Kong** involved female perpetrators and male victims (2010-2)<sup>49</sup>

1,700

calls from men injured due to domestic violence were made to a **Moroccan** NGO in 2012<sup>50</sup>

16

cases of men murdered by their wives were recorded by police in **Rwanda** between January and August 2011<sup>51</sup>

37%

of recorded victims of domestic violence in **Spain** are men (2011)<sup>52</sup>

24%

of people injured due to domestic violence in **Switzerland** are men. It has two men's shelters. (2011)<sup>53</sup>

28.5%

of men in the **USA** have experienced rape, physical violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner at some point in their lifetime (2010)<sup>54</sup>

### 2.2.2 How common is domestic violence against men?

Where figures are available, it is clear that domestic violence is a significant threat to the security of men (see Box 8). In addition, anecdotal evidence from men's support services such as victim assistance centres indicates that when specific services for men who have experienced domestic violence are made available, accessible and widely publicized, they are in significant demand.

Most statistics on domestic violence are problematic for several reasons. Firstly, the security sector can usually only record individual violent incidents; minor acts that collectively constitute intimate terrorism – the most severe form of domestic violence – are very difficult to record and often go uncounted. Secondly, domestic violence data usually do not distinguish between intimate terrorism, violent resistance and situational couple violence. This makes it difficult for security sector institutions to use the data to identify areas where greater capacity is needed, as the response to each type of violence is quite different. Thirdly, as Johnson's typology indicates, in many cases the perpetrator is also a victim and vice versa. This means that some individuals may be counted twice, once as perpetrators of intimate terrorism and once as victims of violent resistance. Moreover, research has identified many different barriers to reporting (see end of Section 2.3) and data collection. As some of these are gender specific, estimated reporting rates are likely to vary between genders, yet this is rarely taken into consideration.

### 2.2.3 Who are the perpetrators of domestic violence against men?

There is evidence that domestic violence is committed against men by both women and men and by both homosexual and heterosexual aggressors. Figures examining what proportions of perpetrators are women or men vary widely, probably due to different living arrangements and intimate relationship patterns within different communities. In cases of intimate terrorism, there appear to be similar motivations for male and female perpetrators, which include jealousy, a desire to control (perhaps in reaction to feelings of powerlessness in other situations) and the need to vent high levels of frustration or anger. Substance abuse can also play a part.<sup>55</sup>

In cases of situational couple violence, partners may commit violence without necessarily intending to cause serious injury but rather to draw the other's attention to needs that are not being met when verbal communication breaks down.<sup>56</sup> When this happens in heterosexual couples, security sector personnel sometimes automatically assume that the man is the perpetrator when in fact the apparent victim has also been violent.

In cases of violent resistance, perpetrators are motivated to resort to domestic violence in order to defend themselves and their dependants against a perpetrator of intimate terrorism (see Box 7 on page 20).

It is worth underlining that while there clearly is a link between male perpetrators of domestic violence against women and the dominant position men have in most societies,

this generalization can hide the fact that in individual households men do not always hold the position of power. While gender has a large influence on the power relations between two people, other factors can also play a role, such as wealth, nationality, social status and age. These relations will also vary between different cultures and societies, as well as over time. As Box 9 shows, male identities are diverse and can lead to many different kinds of power dynamics within a relationship. For example, a 25-year-old man living in urban Switzerland who is financially dependent on his 45-year-old female partner may have a very different kind of relationship to that of a couple living in rural India in which a higher-caste man is married to a lower-caste woman.

### BOX 9: MEN AND DIVERSITY

Security sector institutions have a duty to provide an equal level of service to all the population, but this involves taking into account the different needs of women, men, girls and boys as well as all those who identify as intersex or trans\* (see Box 3 on page 13). This guidance note highlights that these needs differ greatly by gender, but it is important to remember that an individual's identity is formed at the crossroads of many intersecting factors, and these need to be taken into account. For example, a male victim of domestic violence fearing for the children he left with his wife will require a very different response than a mentally disabled man abused by one of his caregivers. The diagram below demonstrates examples of the many dimensions of a man's identity in addition to his gender. To a greater or lesser extent, each of these dimensions will influence his security needs, including his potential vulnerability to SDV as well as the barriers he may face in reporting such violence (see Section 2.3).<sup>57</sup>



***“As a man, it’s very difficult to say you’ve been beaten up. It seems like you’re the big brute and she’s the daffodil, but sometimes it’s not like that.”<sup>58</sup>***

– Dave, British domestic violence victim. He was given a place in a men’s refuge after two years of abuse from his girlfriend, including an incident where she smashed a bottle of whisky across his head.

#### 2.2.4 Who are the male victims of domestic violence?

Domestic violence appears to be present in all sections of society irrespective of the victim’s social identity or level of income. While it can occur at any age, adults appear most likely to experience such violence between their mid-20s and late 40s. It is important to recognize that perpetrators of intimate terrorism primarily control, coerce and manipulate their victims at the psychological level, although they may also cause physical harm. In cases of situational couple violence, physical abuse is often used to draw attention by causing momentary pain and not as an instrument of physical domination. For these reasons, whether the victim appears physically stronger than the perpetrator is of little consequence.<sup>59</sup>



### 2.2.5 What is the impact of domestic violence against men?

Men who have experienced domestic violence often have difficulties recounting their stories, partly for fear of not being believed and partly due to the social stigma of being a male victim, especially of a crime usually associated with women.

#### BOX 10: COMMON SYMPTOMS OF MEN WHO HAVE SURVIVED DOMESTIC VIOLENCE<sup>60</sup>

##### Physical

- Long- and short-term bodily injuries (e.g. broken bones and teeth, stab and gunshot wounds, burns, head and eye injuries)
- Physical effects of psychological injuries and stress (poor diet, lack of exercise)

##### Emotional / psychological

- Fear, anxiety and panic attacks
- Depression and low self-esteem
- Stress, difficulty sleeping and nightmares
- Self-harm, including misuse of substances

#### Impact of domestic violence against men

##### Financial

- Loss of income due to work absences caused by injuries themselves or attempts to hide them
- Perpetrator limits access to funds
- Cost of medical treatment
- Cost of relocating/coping mechanisms

##### Social

- Forced or self-imposed isolation from friends
- Difficulties trusting people (including new partners)
- Isolation from family, alienation from children

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Sonke Gender Justice Network's One Man Can campaign tackles HIV and gender-based violence in South Africa. Surveys before and after One Man Can workshops showed that before taking part 63% of men believed it was acceptable for men to beat their partners, afterwards 83% disagreed with the statement. Photo: Lindsay Mgbor/UK Department for International Development

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Domestic violence impacts on men in a multitude of different ways. Box 10 outlines some of the more prevalent physical, emotional/psychological, financial and social consequences that have been recorded by academics as well as those working directly with male victims of domestic violence. In addition to the impact on victims themselves, there is also a significant effect on others, such as children who witness the violence and suffer secondary trauma as a result. Some of these children may later commit domestic violence and other forms of abuse because they see it as “normal behaviour”. As this cycle of violence is repeated, it has a negative socio-economic impact on the community as a whole. Domestic violence results in lost productivity at work and in household tasks, higher levels of absenteeism in the workplace, lost investments in human capital, higher insurance costs and significant expenditures on medical, legal and social services. These are often borne by the state and employers as well as the victims themselves. Indeed, Australian researchers estimate that domestic violence against women, men, girls and boys costs that country’s economy over US\$12 billion per year, or about US\$550 per citizen.<sup>61</sup>

## 2.3 Barriers to reporting for male victims of sexual and domestic violence

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The many barriers to reporting the crime make it difficult for men who have experienced SDV to access assistance by police and other security sector institutions. Reporting rates in cases of sexual violence against men, for example, are estimated to lie between just 3 per cent and 10 per cent.<sup>62</sup>

Some barriers to reporting are *social*; in other words, beliefs in society about how men ought to behave seem incompatible with them reporting SDV. For example, police forces are sometimes perceived as “macho-type” organizations and men fear that officers will be unsympathetic and challenge their masculinity if they report. This may be coupled with social consequences. In Igbo-speaking parts of Nigeria, for example, many men attempt to settle injustices themselves because reporting to the police will be looked down upon by their parents and other senior members of the community. *Legal* barriers also exist where, for example, the law does not recognize rape as a crime that can affect men or there are no clear reporting mechanisms that men can access. A third category is *practical* barriers: it may not make sense for men to report SDV because either they physically cannot (e.g. cannot figure out how to), they have nothing to gain by reporting or they risk making their situation worse.<sup>63</sup>

Security sector institutions play an absolutely crucial role in removing many of these barriers, and small steps can dramatically improve the level of access to justice for male SDV victims. As a first step, security sector institutions need to gain a deeper understanding of the many different barriers to reporting that may exist in their context.



Once this has been achieved, they will be able to implement some of the concrete steps to improve the situation outlined in Section 4.

### **Social barriers to reporting**

The stigma associated with being a victim, especially for men, is one of the largest barriers to reporting. Men are taught from an early age that they are supposed to be strong and independent. They may not report SDV to avoid being labelled as victims or viewed as “soft and weak and incompetent”.<sup>64</sup> Others simply cannot or will not conceive of themselves as victims. In extreme cases, men may even blame themselves for provoking their attackers, or may isolate themselves due to the fear that they are now at risk of becoming a perpetrator. Often, men who do report having been victimized highlight having been drunk or high on drugs in order to “justify” their inability to defend themselves, which may make it less likely a conviction against their assailant would be achieved.<sup>65</sup>

When men are sexually assaulted by other men, they may fear a “double stigma” of being looked down upon as both a victim and a “homosexual”, even if the latter is not the case. Religious men may feel they have sinned by engaging in forbidden sexual acts, even if the acts were not consensual, or they may see the crime as a kind of divine punishment. This explains why some male Muslim victims of sexual abuse by men refuse to report to Muslim security personnel. They worry that the security personnel will feel duty-bound to denounce this “homosexual activity” to the mosque regardless of how it came about.<sup>66</sup>

In addition to the social barriers affecting men because of their gender, there are also barriers that affect particular groups of men. Certain men struggle to get security sector personnel to believe them when they report SDV because they are members of social groups that lack credibility due to social prejudice. These include those who are young adults, disabled, homeless, economically disadvantaged, substance dependent, convicted criminals or have a history of abuse. Men who are incarcerated or institutionalized in psychiatric or other residential facilities also experience problems.<sup>67</sup> Other groups have less of a problem convincing security sector personnel that SDV took place, but due to social stereotyping they struggle to demonstrate that it was non-consensual. This has been known to affect men who are homosexual, bisexual, trans\*, sex workers, partners of the perpetrator or victims of sexual violence committed by women.

Social barriers also occur due to the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator. Reporting SDV may involve implicating a family member, colleague or other key person within their community. Fear of exclusion, a desire not to destabilize the group and emotional or economic dependence on the perpetrator are common social barriers to reporting. It is for this reason that some boys who were sexually abused do not report the crime until over 20 years have passed since the event took place. The security sector should thus be prepared to receive adult victims of violence in childhood.

### **Legal barriers to reporting**

In many instances the law does not specifically criminalize SDV against men. While it might be possible to prosecute SDV under assault or battery laws, for example, the prospect of enduring a long, intrusive and complicated legal process that is of little perceived benefit to the victim means they may simply not report the crime. This has the knock-on effect of maintaining perceptions that SDV against men does not exist, meaning there is little impetus to change legislation. In countries where sodomy, homosexuality or sexual relations outside marriage are criminalized, male victims of sexual violence may avoid reporting for fear of being prosecuted for violating these laws if their original case collapses.<sup>68</sup>

A further barrier to reporting that affects both men and women relates to the collection of evidence. Evidence of domestic violence can be difficult to provide, and several reports of individual incidents to the police may be necessary to prosecute a perpetrator. Sexual violence often does not leave long-lasting physical marks on the body, and even when it does, it is hard to attribute them conclusively to the perpetrator. Victims may be anxious about undergoing forensic medical examinations. In particular, if sexual violence has taken place against a man, an intimate examination of the penis, scrotum and rectum may be required, which can be humiliating.

It can also be the case that men are not aware that what has happened to them is a crime. In some cases, for example, they may see it as a cultural practice or a rite of passage. In others, such as those involving immigrant populations, it could be a consequence of not speaking the local language or being unfamiliar with the local justice system. In the case of undocumented migrants or refugees, the problem is compounded by the fact that if they report SDV they risk being charged for having entered the country illegally.<sup>69</sup>

### **Practical barriers to reporting**

In many cases practical barriers are those that the security sector is best placed to help overcome. Victims often do not know *how* to report SDV. If they have to search through a maze-like building for the right place to report, they may well give up before finding it. If the perpetrator is a member of the security sector, the victim may fear being discovered by them while attempting to report, or may believe that security sector personnel are immune from prosecution, either officially or unofficially.

Another common barrier occurs when reporting SDV will require the victim and his dependants (e.g. children, elderly or disabled relatives) to leave the home to avoid violent retribution. Aside from having no alternative accommodation, some victims worry about losing custody of their children if they leave, are counter-accused or are wrongly assumed to be the perpetrator and arrested. Safe houses that are open to men remain few and far between and, as is the case with women's shelters, they tend to face chronic funding shortages.

Many victims only feel confident enough to report to the police after having received significant amounts of support from dedicated service providers. Services provided to female victims of SDV may be funded by ministries for women's affairs or other gender-specific sources, which may not have the mandate to provide services to men even if they wanted to. In the UK, for example, the Home Office has not historically provided funding for male domestic violence victims and the Ministry of Justice Rape Support Fund only finances organizations that have a dedicated women's service, effectively excluding organizations specializing in support to male victims.<sup>70</sup>

Victims from within security sector institutions face specific challenges, such as the fear that their experience may be dismissed as "hazing". Moreover, if the perpetrator is more senior or in the victim's chain of command, reporting may involve going outside the institutional hierarchy. They then risk social exclusion or potentially violent retaliation by the perpetrator or other members of their unit.

## Notes

6. International Criminal Court, “Elements of crimes”, 2011, Article 7(1)(g)-6: Crime against humanity of sexual violence, s. 1. Wynne Russell, “Sexual violence against men and boys”, *Forced Migration Review* 27, January 2007, pp. 22–23.
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# 3

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## THE IMPORTANCE OF SECURITY SECTOR ENGAGEMENT IN PREVENTING AND RESPONDING TO SEXUAL AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN

In the past, the prevalent view in many societies was that SDV was a private affair that should be resolved within the families and communities in which it occurred. It was not until the late twentieth century that governments began to recognize SDV as a public concern which had to be addressed in creating a secure and healthy society. They began to see how security sector institutions that did not address SDV were failing in serving and protecting the population.

The misconception that SDV exclusively affects women makes male victims invisible. Men do, however, constitute a significant number of SDV victims. For instance, almost 10 per cent of South African men have been victims of sexual violence, while 49 per cent of those injured by domestic violence in Chile are men (see Box 2 on page 10 and Box 8 on page 21). Nevertheless, the existence of male victims has only recently been recognized – due, in part, to the awareness-raising initiatives of women’s organizations working with female victims. Consequently, as security sector institutions work continuously to improve their response to SDV, it is imperative that they consider the needs of both male and female victims in order to achieve the following objectives.

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“Major Butch,” a therapy dog with the 219th Medical Detachment (Combat Operational Stress Control) concludes her tour in Afghanistan at Bagram Air Field, Feb. 1. The 85th Med. Det. (COSC) from Fort Hood, Texas, assumes the various 219th missions at the transfer of authority ceremony held here today. Photo: US DoD photo by Maj. Charles Patterson, Task Force MED-A Public Affairs/Released

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### **To ensure effective service delivery**

For security sector institutions to meet their mandate of delivering security and justice services effectively, they need to identify and respond to the security needs of all people in their communities: women, men, girls and boys, as well those who identify as intersex or trans\* (see Box 3 on page 13). This means all victims of SDV, including male victims, and irrespective of their sexual orientation. For example, according to the OECD's *Handbook on Security System Reform*, police should play an important role in overcoming cultural taboos related to SDV, and create an environment where victims feel comfortable enough to come forward. Prisons should provide a safe and healthy environment for those in vulnerable situations – such as those at risk from sexual violence. Armed forces should have mechanisms in place to prevent human rights violations being committed by its personnel, including SDV, whether the victim is civilian or military.<sup>71</sup>

### **To maintain a safe, secure and prosperous society**

While only a small number of those who have experienced sexual or domestic violence go on to perpetrate it, a large proportion of perpetrators of SDV have experienced or witnessed violence at some point in their lives. Providing an effective remedy to survivors can therefore also be considered as a form of prevention, as this helps to break this cycle of violence. Moreover, an effective response can help prevent victims from taking justice into their own hands. An efficient, coordinated response can provide significant financial savings, both to the security sector itself by, for example, reducing policing costs, and also to the state as a whole by reducing the financial burden of SDV on the health and legal systems as well as boosting economic productivity.<sup>72</sup>

### **To provide equal access to security and justice**

The security sector is responsible for the effective provision of security and access to justice for men, women, girls, boys and all those who identify as intersex or trans\*. Ensuring an *equal* level of security involves recognizing the *different* security needs of individuals, based on both their gender and other factors such as race, age or religion (see Box 9 on page 23). Where preventing SDV is concerned, the security sector needs to consider how some security needs are different for men and therefore a gender-specific prevention strategy may be necessary. For example, prison officers in all-male facilities need training in how to prevent particular kinds of sexual violence that can occur in this context. The same is true when ensuring that men have equal access to justice in SDV cases. As mentioned in Section 2, men face many specific barriers to reporting, such as the lack of dedicated support groups to help them through the judicial process. Specific initiatives to overcome these barriers should complement those targeted towards helping women in order to provide an equal level of access to justice.

## To create a healthy and productive work environment

Security sector institutions are not just service providers, but are often among the largest employers in a country. Preventing and responding to sexual violence – and domestic violence where residential facilities are present – against their personnel is important not just from the victims' perspective but for the institution as a whole. A working climate where sexual violence is tolerated has a negative effect on all employees, even those with no history of victimization. These effects include reduced mental health and psychological well-being due to fear of being victimized and the hostile work environment, high staff turnover and lower recruitment rates leading to staff shortages, lower levels of commitment to the institution and reduced levels of professionalism. By contrast, environments where there are effective prevention and response measures to SDV tend to be more efficient and productive, and also exhibit higher levels of morale. They also tend to have greater levels of diversity among staff, and it is easier for the institution to recruit personnel with diverse sets of skills.<sup>74</sup>

It is imperative that security institutions consider both male and female victims in their efforts to prevent and respond to SDV within the institution. Research with police in Australia, for example, found that 63 per cent of female officers and 14 per cent of male officers had been exposed to sexual harassment. However, when the study was conducted there were roughly seven times more men than women in the police service, so the actual numbers of male and female victims were relatively similar.<sup>75</sup> (See Box 11 for more information on sexual harassment.)

***“Back in 1969, you didn’t dare say a word. They wouldn’t have believed me. Homophobia was big back then.”<sup>73</sup>***

– Gregory Helle, an author who wrote about being raped in his barracks by another soldier in Vietnam.

### **BOX 11: SEXUAL HARASSMENT WITHIN SECURITY SECTOR INSTITUTIONS<sup>76</sup>**

Sexual harassment is defined as an “unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favour, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behaviour of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation to another, when such conduct interferes with work, is made a condition of employment or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment”.<sup>77</sup> In the USA it is around 20 per cent more prevalent in the security sector than in the average workplace. The effects can be very serious for the victim but also for the institution, as it can decrease performance, productivity, morale and motivation and increase the chances of personnel leaving.

While the majority of sexual harassment within security sector institutions appears to be committed against women and girls, some evidence suggests that around 15 per cent of men are also targeted, often by other men. Men who are not perceived as adhering to masculine norms are often bullied for being homosexual, whether they are or not. Typical tactics involve placing pornographic or sexually suggestive items in the target’s personal space, such as in lockers and restrooms. More extreme forms include “testing” the victim’s strength through physical acts or forcing him to perform or undergo humiliating acts of a sexual nature in order to “prove” his heterosexuality.

By reporting incidents of sexual harassment, the victim risks reinforcing the perpetrators’ “accusations” that he is weak, effeminate or homosexual. It is therefore important to ensure that there are proactive measures to encourage complaints and publicize the protective mechanisms available, all complaints are taken seriously and fully investigated, and measures are taken to prevent retaliation. A policy against sexual harassment that recognizes the possibility of female or male perpetrators and victims is an important first step. See the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit, which includes a checklist for sexual harassment policies and outlines key steps for implementation, and the DCAF/OSCE/ODIHR Guidance Notes on Integrating Gender into Internal Police Oversight and Integrating a Gender Perspective into Internal Oversight within Armed Forces.

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Commander, Navy Region Hawaii Rear Adm. Frank Ponds talks about sexual assault awareness, prevention and consequences at Sharkey Theater on Joint Base Pearl Harbor-Hickam. The Military and Family Support Center in Hawaii and the regional sexual assault response coordinators provided sexual assault awareness training throughout the month of April, 2012. Photo: U.S. Navy photo by Mass Communication Specialist 2nd Class (SW) Mark Logico

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## Notes

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71. Development Assistant Committee, *OECD-DAC Handbook on Security System Reform* (Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2007, pp. 126–127, 174, 199, 202).
72. Rachel Jewkes, Purna Sen and Claudia Garcia-Moreno, “Sexual violence”, in Etienne G. Krug, Linda L. Dahlberg, James A. Mercy, Anthony B. Zwi and Rafael Lozano (eds), *World Report on Violence and Health* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2002, pp. 160–161).
73. Dao, note 34 above.
74. Penny Harrington and Kimberly Ann Lonsway, *Investigating Sexual Harassment in Law Enforcement and Nontraditional Fields for Women* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2006, pp. 61–62); Katherine Cowen, *Bullying: Preventing the Bullying and Harassment of Gay Employees* (London: Stonewall, 2011, pp. 4–7).
75. Tim Prenzler, “Equal employment opportunity and policewomen in Australia”, *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology* 28(3), December 1995, pp. 258–277; Vicki Wilkinson and Irene D. Froyland, “Women in policing”, *Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice* 58, July 1996, p. 1.
76. Harrington and Lonsway, note 74 above, pp. 11, 15–17, 198–199; Human Rights Watch, “The wrongs of passage: Inhuman and degrading treatment of new recruits in the Russian armed forces”, 20 October 2004, pp. 50–52, [www.hrw.org/reports/2004/10/19/wrongs-passage](http://www.hrw.org/reports/2004/10/19/wrongs-passage); Prenzler, note 75 above; Wilkinson and Froyland, note 75 above, p. 1; Jana L. Pershing, “Men and women’s experiences with hazing in a male-dominated elite military institution”, *Men and Masculinities* 8(4), March 2006, p. 485.
77. UN Secretary-General, “Bulletin on prohibition of discrimination, harassment, including sexual harassment, and abuse of authority”, UN Doc. ST/SGB/2008/5, 2008, p. 1.







# 4

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## IMPROVING THE CAPACITY OF SECURITY SECTOR INSTITUTIONS TO PREVENT AND RESPOND TO SEXUAL AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN

This section provides practical guidance on how security sector institutions can enhance their ability to prevent and respond to SDV against men. It is important to highlight that the good practices listed here are of a general nature and will need to be adapted to the specific country and institutional context.

### 4.1 National laws

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This subsection is designed to supplement the extensive existing body of literature on the legal definition and criminalization of rape, sexual violence and domestic violence. While many of these resources were created largely with women in mind, they contain many tried-and-tested provisions that also apply to male victims. Section 7 lists resources with further information on this topic, such as DCAF, OSCE/ODHIR and UN-INSTRAW's *Gender and SRR Toolkit* (see Tool 4: *Justice Reform and Gender*), the UN Handbook on Legislation on Violence against Women and the UN Framework on Model Legislation for Domestic Violence. Boxes 12 and 13 contain examples of inclusive, well-written rape and domestic violence laws.

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UNMISS Monitors and Advises South Sudan National Police. UN Police Officer Dora Conteh (centre right), a member of the Sierra Leonean police contingent serving with the UN Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS), on a monitoring visit of detainees and detention cells at a police station in Bor, Jonglei State. Photo: UN Photo/Martine Perret.

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All states have obligations under the various treaties listed in Box 14 to criminalize and prevent all forms of SDV. Even if there is no specific legislation on SDV applicable to men, relevant provisions may be found in laws relating to (gender) equality, non-discrimination and equal treatment, assault or torture.

### **BOX 12: NAMIBIA'S GENDER-NEUTRAL COMBATING OF RAPE ACT (2000)<sup>78</sup>**

Namibia's legal definition of rape is specific enough to enable the prosecution of coercive sexual acts, and its definitions of victims and perpetrators are applicable to both women and men.

#### **1. Definitions**

(1) In this Act, unless the context otherwise indicates... "sexual act" means –

- (a) the insertion (to even the slightest degree) of the penis of a person into the vagina or anus or mouth of another person; or
- (b) the insertion of any other part of the body of a person or of any part of the body of an animal or of any object into the vagina or anus of another person, except where such insertion of any part of the body (other than the penis) of a person or of any object into the vagina or anus of another person is, consistent with sound medical practices; carried out for proper medical purposes; or
- (c) cunnilingus or any other form of genital stimulation.

#### **2. Rape**

- (1) Any person (in this Act referred to as a perpetrator) who intentionally under coercive circumstances –
  - (a) commits or continues to commit a sexual act with another person; or
  - (b) causes another person to commit a sexual act with the perpetrator or with a third person, shall be guilty of the offence of rape...

### **BOX 13: NEW ZEALAND'S DOMESTIC VIOLENCE ACT (1995; AMENDED 2013)<sup>79</sup>**

New Zealand's Domestic Violence Act criminalizes physical, sexual and psychological violence "against that person by any other person with whom that person is, or has been, in a domestic relationship". It criminalizes individual acts of violence, but also notes that "a number of acts that form part of a pattern of behaviour may amount to abuse for that purpose, even though some or all of those acts, when viewed in isolation, may appear to be minor or trivial". Furthermore, its wide definition of domestic relationships means that victims who are cohabiting but unmarried to the perpetrator and victims in same-sex relationships do not face legal barriers to prosecution.

#### **4. Meaning of domestic relationship**

(1) For the purposes of this Act, a person is in a domestic relationship with another person if the person –

- (a) is a spouse or partner of the other person; or
- (b) is a family member of the other person; or
- (c) ordinarily shares a household with the other person; or
- (d) has a close personal relationship with the other person...

(4) Without limiting the matters to which a court may have regard in determining, for the purposes of subsection (1)(d), whether a person has a close personal relationship with another person, the court must have regard to—

- (a) the nature and intensity of the relationship, and in particular –
  - (i) the amount of time the persons spend together;
  - (ii) the place or places where that time is ordinarily spent;
  - (iii) the manner in which that time is ordinarily spent; – but it is not necessary for there to be a sexual relationship between the persons
- (b) the duration of the relationship.

### BOX 14: INTERNATIONAL HUMAN RIGHTS AND HUMANITARIAN LEGISLATION THAT APPLIES TO SEXUAL AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE COMMITTED AGAINST MEN<sup>80</sup>

While there is no specific convention on sexual or domestic violence against men, many international treaties contain provisions that oblige security sector institutions to provide adequate protection and response to these crimes. The following table highlights relevant articles in these treaties and documents.

	Commitment to gender equality	Right to security	Right to freedom from torture/inhuman treatment	Right to equal protection	Prohibition of sexual violence/harassment	Requirement to consider gendered aspects	Prohibition of gender discrimination
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)	Art. 2	Art. 3	Art. 5	Art. 7			
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)			Art. 7	Art. 26			
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1966)		Art. 5					Art. 5
Geneva Conventions Additional Protocol II (1977)					Art. 4.2		
Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment... (1984)			Arts. 1, 2(1)				
Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (1998)			Art. 7(1)		Arts. 7(1), 54(1)	Art. 54(1)	
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006)					Art. 16(1)	Art. 16(1)	

## Good practices for drafting legislation on sexual and domestic violence that applies to men and women<sup>81</sup>

- ✓ Legislation explicitly refers to women, men, girls and boys as both potential perpetrators and victims.
- ✓ Legislation covers situations where the perpetrator(s) and/or the victim(s) are:
  - members of the public
  - security personnel
  - detainees
- ✓ Definitions of sexual violence are not limited to cases where a particular sexual organ penetrates a particular orifice (see discussion of sexual violence in Section 2.1).
- ✓ Men who report sexual violence do not risk prosecution for adultery, sodomy or homosexuality.
- ✓ Domestic violence is broadly defined as a controlling behaviour that may include physical, sexual, psychological and economic abuse.
- ✓ Inclusive language is used when referring to relationships in which SDV takes place, i.e. it does not assume that one man is married and cohabiting with one woman, that violence only occurs between heterosexuals or that violence only occurs between people with a history of romantic involvement (see Box 13, Article 4.1 for example).
- ✓ When sentencing cases of assault, being subjected to domestic violence is considered as a mitigating circumstance. This ensures that those who use violent resistance to escape a violent perpetrator are punished proportionately.
- ✓ Internationally agreed good practices for legislation on violence against women and girls are implemented nationally, and applied to male victims. Examples include:
  - treating a male sexual or domestic violence complainant's credibility equally to that of a complainant of any other crime (i.e. abolition of the "cautionary warning"/"corroboration rule" where juries are warned against convicting a defendant based on the victim's testimony unless it can be supported by a second witness or piece of evidence)
  - removing provisions specifically criminalizing false accusation in SDV cases
  - requiring "active consent" for lawful sexual acts (i.e. consent cannot be given when victims are drunk or otherwise incapacitated to the point that they are incapable of unequivocally and voluntarily agreeing to the sexual act).

## 4.2 Institutional policies and procedures

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Policies and procedures within security sector institutions on SDV determine the level and quality of service provided to the victims of these crimes. Key principles in good policy-making include clarity, coordination, transparency and providing choices to men who have experienced sexual or domestic violence. While laws should be gender *neutral* to ensure that everyone is treated equally irrespective of their gender, institutional policies and procedures are designed to respond to needs, which differ between women, men, girls and boys. For this reason, policies and procedures, for instance on how police should receive victims of domestic violence or how to report sexual harassment by prison or armed forces personnel, should be gender specific and also take into account other *specific* needs of victims based on their different social identities.

One concrete example of how the needs of men and women differ significantly involves shelters for victims of domestic violence. While certain lobby groups see the equal provision of men's and women's shelters as a sign of gender equality, in the UK two of the seven men's shelters closed due to lack of demand. Many female victims use shelters to escape from a violent household with their children. Fewer male victims are primary caregivers and men often have greater financial resources to enable them to access alternative forms of accommodation. Support organizations found that men tended to prefer individual support in single-occupancy accommodation, whereas many female victims benefited from the group dynamics found in shelters. Male support organizations responded to this by channelling funds towards improving the security of men's existing accommodation. There were a few isolated areas where shelters were retained due to high demand, notably by men fleeing "honour-based violence" such as forced marriage. The remaining shelters therefore offered specialist services for this category of victim. This approach demonstrates how tailoring policies and procedures for men can be more effective than simply mirroring the services provided to women.<sup>82</sup>

### **Good practices for effective policies and procedures to respond to sexual and domestic violence against men<sup>83</sup>**

- ✓ Male victims of SDV are explicitly recognized in policies and procedures.
- ✓ Information on professional standards clearly outlines how to behave towards both male and female perpetrators and victims. This information is provided to both new and experienced personnel.
- ✓ If SDV legislation only covers female victims and/or male perpetrators, clear guidelines state how alternative legislation can be used to prosecute cases where the victim is male.
- ✓ Provisions are made to address the needs of men who may face specific challenges related to their ethnic, racial, national, sexual, gender, religious or class identity; men who are physically or mentally disabled; and those who are incarcerated

or institutionalized (i.e. kept in a psychiatric or other residential facility). This includes men with dependants such as children and elderly or disabled relatives.

- ✓ Roles and responsibilities are clearly demarcated between the different security sector actors and are reflected in each institution's standard operating procedures, resulting in a coordinated response to SDV. For example, the police have the responsibility to conduct a complete investigation; prosecutors have the responsibility to inform victims of opportunities to gain restitution and compensation through courts, and of civil actions such as restraining orders available to them; the health sector has a responsibility to support or provide forensic assessment with the consent of the victim.
- ✓ A “no wrong door” policy ensures that services for victims are widely accessible. In other words, victims can choose their first point of contact (e.g. police, health service, NGO, website), any of which can inform them about how to access the full range of services available.
- ✓ Services specifically for male victims (e.g. shelters) have been identified and there are clear referral pathways between security sector institutions, NGOs and healthcare providers.
- ✓ The security sector collaborates with NGOs that represent the interests of different groups of men (e.g. ethnic and national groups, trade unions, LGBTI organizations) as well as the healthcare sector when conducting needs assessments prior to the creation or modification of policies, and also when assessing, monitoring and evaluating implementation.
- ✓ Policies do not reinforce negative or unhelpful stereotypes about men, e.g. the idea that men are naturally aggressive or should be capable of protecting themselves.
- ✓ Provisions, including victim support services, are made for situations where the victim does not want to be involved in the investigation or prosecution of the perpetrator.
- ✓ Gender-neutral one-stop centres for addressing issues on SDV are established (see Box 17 on page 55).

Some police and prosecution agencies have implemented a mandatory or pro-arrest/prosecution policy for all cases of domestic violence regardless of whether or not the victim wants to participate in an investigation or prosecution. Some studies suggest this is an effective deterrent, whereas others indicate that it makes victims more reluctant to contact the police and may result in an increased rate of homicide. These studies also indicate that men are disproportionately arrested even when they are not the perpetrator. This can be a major barrier to reporting, especially if there is a perceived risk of the victim's children being left alone with the perpetrator. For this reason, few if any organizations that support male SDV victims have spoken in favour of such policies. Instead, they suggest that well-trained police officers be allowed to exercise their

judgement, especially given the frequency of situational couple violence in which both parties are perpetrator-victims.<sup>84</sup>

It is important that policies exist to prevent security sector personnel from committing sexual violence against colleagues or members of the public, particularly as they usually work with people in vulnerable situations and may be well placed to act with impunity. The same goes for the penal sector, where effective policies can help prevent sexual violence from taking place between and against inmates (see Box 15). In the same vein, it is important that risk assessments for male as well as female security sector personnel working in sensitive roles (e.g. undercover police officers) assess whether there is a danger of them becoming victims of sexual violence.<sup>85</sup>

### **BOX 15: ADDRESSING SEXUAL VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN IN SOUTH AFRICA'S CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES<sup>86</sup>**

Sexual violence against incarcerated men in South Africa is widespread. It is cited as one of the reasons that prisoner HIV prevalence (surveyed at 19.8 per cent in 2007 but estimated to be 40–60 per cent) is far above the national average (16.3 per cent). The situation is exacerbated by a general social acceptance of rape as “part of the punishment” for people sent to prison.<sup>87</sup> Research at Boksburg Youth Centre indicated that the prison experience has unfortunately played a formative role in the development of inmates' notions of sex, sexuality and masculinity, resulting in perpetrators continuing their violent behaviour upon release. The research also suggested that once a prisoner had been sexually assaulted, he would become a target for repeat assaults as the violence usually takes place within the context of a power hierarchy dominated by gangs.

Four NGOs, namely Sonke Gender Justice Network, the Civil Society Prison Reform Initiative, the Centre for the Study of Violence Reconciliation and Just Detention International, have collaborated to educate inmates in safe sexual practices and their constitutional right to be free from sexual violence. These organizations have helped to create and distribute materials on HIV and sexual violence in prison. They have also worked directly to build the capacity of prison staff to respond and intervene effectively in this area through training courses. Another aspect of Sonke and Just Detention International's collaboration has been conducting research to identify gaps in existing laws and policies relating to sexual violence, HIV prevention and access to healthcare. This has led them to advocate the adoption of a draft policy framework to address the sexual abuse of inmates, and to develop a tool that screens inmates for vulnerability to sexual abuse (e.g. based on age, sexual orientation, physical stature, history of incarceration, criminal history and history of sexual victimization).

## **4.3 Reporting mechanisms**

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As mentioned in Section 2.3, men face many barriers to reporting, and the security sector can play an instrumental role in overcoming these. This role will vary from country to country, and between and within communities, and hence should be adapted accordingly. In addition, to build trust with victims it is important that those working



in the security sector are well informed regarding the confidentiality legislation in their particular jurisdiction, and that this is communicated to the victim. For example, in some jurisdictions counsellors may be forced by a court to disclose information given to them by a victim. In addition, police records may be a matter of public record. For this reason police officers should be trained not to collect information that is irrelevant to the case, such as a victim's past sexual history, as this may enter the public domain.

### **Good practices for providing multiple reporting mechanisms accessible to male victims of sexual and domestic violence<sup>88</sup>**

- ✓ All staff demonstrate an understanding of the barriers to reporting for men.
- ✓ Information on reporting procedures directed to male victims is provided through websites, social media, the health sector, NGOs and public awareness campaigns. Campaigns could target sporting and music events, festivals, educational institutions, trade unions, print media (men's magazines, gay press, community newsletters, etc.) and radio. Provisions are made in areas with low levels of literacy and Internet access.
- ✓ The kind of follow-up men can expect once they have reported is presented clearly. This includes any actions they may be expected to take if the perpetrator is to be prosecuted.
- ✓ Anonymous "stepping stones" to reporting are provided, such as national helplines, email and live chat services and face-to-face individual or group counselling and support.
- ✓ Survivors have a choice of who they can report to, e.g. a man or woman, or someone of a particular religious or ethnic background (based on the diversity of available security sector personnel). Men often prefer to report to someone whose identity differs from that of the perpetrator and/or themselves.
- ✓ Initial reports and interviews are conducted in a private setting.
- ✓ Victims are not asked to provide information that is not relevant to the criminal investigation (e.g. past sexual history).
- ✓ All service providers reliably inform the victim regarding whether the information provided to them will be legally privileged (cannot be disclosed under any circumstances), protected (kept within the security sector but must be disclosed if mandated by a court) or in the public domain.
- ✓ Victims are given advice on who they can talk to confidentially and how to avoid inadvertently waiving their right to confidentiality (i.e. by disclosing information to someone who may be forced to testify in court or by accidentally releasing information in the public domain).
- ✓ Security sector institutions do not release more information than legally required when mandated by a court, unless the victim requests otherwise.

- ✓ All security sector institutions and organizations in the referral network take reasonable steps to keep the information they hold on service users secure in accordance with applicable legislation on protecting data and personal information.
- ✓ All staff who could potentially receive reports of SDV (from either the victim or a third party) clearly publicize any mandated reporting responsibilities. For example, regardless of the victim's wishes, medical practitioners in some jurisdictions have a legal duty to report suspected domestic violence to the police; some staff in military and educational institutions have an obligation to report sexual violence to higher authorities; and child protection legislation may make it compulsory for everyone to report cases of sexual or domestic violence where a child may be at risk.
- ✓ Appointments are held at easy-to-find locations, time slots are flexible and waiting times are short.
- ✓ Reporting environments are “man-friendly” (e.g. discrete waiting rooms containing newspapers, magazines and posters that acknowledge male as well as female service users).
- ✓ Security sector institutions liaise with NGOs to work towards removing barriers to reporting for specific groups, e.g. by providing interpreters, translators and referrals to support networks.
- ✓ Reporting mechanisms are regularly monitored and periodically evaluated with regard to how men are using them.

## 4.4 Response and investigation

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The primary objective of any response by the security sector should be to guarantee the safety and well-being of the victim. This involves internal considerations, such as guaranteeing confidentiality to the greatest extent possible, as well as referral to relevant external services such as medical treatment, counselling and housing. Many male victims are not initially forthcoming about having been victims of SDV and for this reason, the UN High Commissioner for Refugees drew up a list of indicators to help identify potential victims in order that they receive an appropriate response (see Box 16).

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Course prepares medical personnel in evidence collection. Capt. Mylinh Bruhn, the brigade nurse assigned to Company C, 302nd Brigade Support Battalion, 1st Armored Brigade Combat Team, 2nd Infantry Division, collects forensic materials during a recent Sexual Assault Medical Forensics Examiners course held at Camp Humphreys.  
Photo: Maj. Brian Bolton, US Army.

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### BOX 16: THE UN HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES INDICATORS FOR IDENTIFICATION OF MALE SURVIVORS OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE<sup>89</sup>

Male survivors of sexual violence very frequently display at least one of the following behaviours:

- problems sitting comfortably on a chair and preference to stand during interviews or meetings
- lower-back complaints signalling rectal problems
- avoidance of eye contact
- high levels of anger, irritability and homophobia
- a strong gender preference regarding who interviews them
- repeatedly mentioning unrelated protection concerns even after they have been addressed.

The survivor himself or other family members or friends may mention:

- a loss of sexual interest and an aversion to intimacy
- difficulties relating to others, even his own children
- withdrawal from social or community activities and meeting spaces.



Many of the negative experiences facing men when reporting sexual or domestic violence centre on “secondary victimization”. This often takes the form of aggressive and inappropriate questioning that challenges or ridicules the victim. For example, investigators may question the victim’s inability to defend himself or ask probing questions about his sexual identity, implicitly questioning the victim’s “claim” that the sexual violence was non-consensual.<sup>90</sup>

A further problem is that men who report sexual or domestic violence are sometimes told the likelihood of a successful conviction is very low, especially if they are gay or trans\* and were assaulted by a man. This does not, however, alter the responsibility of security personnel to investigate these crimes thoroughly. Furthermore, a good “no wrong door” policy (see Section 4.2) should mean the security institution in question helps victims access services that enhance their safety and well-being; a police investigation and a successful conviction are often not the victim’s primary concern. Some victims are, however, more likely to be willing and able to participate in an investigation and possible prosecution once they have received support from friends, counsellors and doctors.<sup>91</sup>

When collecting information and evidence which may form the grounds for a legal case, it is important that security providers consider the following factors, particularly if there appear to be contradictions in the victim’s report:<sup>92</sup>

- the trauma of the incident can cause confusion when the victim is recounting his experience
- perpetrators often target victims who are less likely to be believed if they report
- the fear of secondary victimization, e.g. not being believed or being judged, often results in severe delays in reporting or victims never reporting
- the presence of an erection cannot be used alone as an indicator of consent
- SDV (especially when it involves trauma to genitals) may not leave long-lasting physical marks on the body
- victims may repeatedly discuss a minor concern or another type of crime until they find the courage to mention their experience of SDV

Sexual assault referral centres have been put forward as a good model for facilitating police investigations into SDV while also providing for the needs of victims by optimising cooperation between security sector institutions, the health sector and NGOs that provide support to victims (see Box 17).

### BOX 17: CASE STUDY – THE UK’S SEXUAL ASSAULT REFERRAL CENTRES<sup>93</sup>

Men and women who have experienced sexual violence often need to access a large number of services in a limited period of time. It is also important that forensic evidence is gathered as quickly as possible to increase the likelihood of a thorough investigation and successful prosecution. In recognition of these needs, the St Mary’s Centre in Manchester was established as the UK’s first sexual assault referral centre (SARC) in 1986. Based on American and Australian models, it aimed to provide forensic medical services by a specially trained doctor in a dedicated building where counselling services and medical treatment could also be offered. Prior to this, victims had to seek out each of these services separately, and many of the service providers had not been given training on survivors of sexual violence. The British government now aims to have at least one SARC for each county police force. All services are free, and their funding comes from local police forces, health authorities and, in some cases, the charitable sector.

Since 2005 independent sexual violence advisers (ISVAs) employed through government-supported charities have been placed in SARCs. ISVAs are independent from the police and provide support and information to guide victims through the criminal justice process. All SARCs are available to men, women and children above the age of 13. Men accounted for 8 per cent of St Mary’s client base in 2012.

There are numerous benefits to the service. SARCs allow clients to access all the services they need in the short term without having to set foot in a police station or, in many cases, a hospital. They increase the likelihood of successful prosecutions by facilitating the swift collection of forensic evidence and reduce the likelihood of drop-outs. They improve well-being as the victim only needs to report the story once and is only seen by specially trained staff who – unlike the police – do not have other priorities to attend to. There is no obligation to report to the police, but those who wish to can be put in touch with a specially trained police officer (at first, for an anonymous informal discussion if desired). All evidence is stored for seven years in case they decide to report at a later date. Police officers can conduct interviews at the SARC (where the ISVA can be present) or by video link. Reports can also be made by written statement or video recording.

### Good practices for responding to men reporting sexual or domestic violence, and investigation<sup>94</sup>

- ✓ All reports of sexual and domestic violence are thoroughly investigated and evidence is collected in a timely and respectful manner.
- ✓ Victims are advised on what steps to take to facilitate the forensic team’s ability to collect the perpetrator’s DNA (e.g. not showering or changing clothes before the forensic examination if possible).
- ✓ Victims are provided with a victim advocate. This is a professional from outside the reporting structure (e.g. from an NGO) with the necessary expertise to guide the victim through the investigation and criminal justice procedures. They are able to provide full details on the victim’s rights and legal options available to him.
- ✓ All referrals are presented as a choice and there is no obligation for victims to cooperate in parts of the investigation or prosecution of the perpetrator if they do not want to.

- ✓ Victims are offered free transportation to seek medical treatment after reporting.
- ✓ Police do not pursue unrelated lesser offences such as underage drinking and drug possession that are uncovered while investigating sexual or domestic violence.
- ✓ Policies and procedures protect the confidentiality, safety and well-being of the victim (and any dependants). This involves working closely with other professionals in the referral network.
- ✓ Forensic medical examinations take place in male-friendly spaces. Complainants can choose to have a male or a female forensic medical examiner. Examiners are sympathetic to the victim's possible sensitivity regarding his sexuality and gender identity, especially during what can sometimes be perceived as an intrusive physical examination.
- ✓ Staff stay engaged with the victim and other service providers during the investigation and possible prosecution.
- ✓ Forensic medical examiners are able to store evidence for a given time period if a victim does not want to report to the police immediately or there is not yet enough evidence to prosecute.
- ✓ Specially trained investigators sensitively address any apparent contradictions between the evidence and the victim's testimony before legal proceedings begin.
- ✓ Services are provided for men with dependants, including provisions for children, elderly or disabled people in their care.
- ✓ Services and staff training are adapted based on the diversity of the population, e.g. staff providing services understand how the different cultural and religious groups in their target population perceive SDV and adapt their response accordingly.

## 4.5 Referral networks and committees

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Working with a wide variety of service providers and NGOs increases the knowledge base and variety of expertise that can be pooled into effective, evidence-based services to assist men who have experienced sexual or domestic violence.

Health service providers are particularly important. Many men who do not report sexual or domestic violence to the police (or other relevant security sector institution) still seek medical treatment, or report SDV while seeking help for other issues such as depression or substance abuse. Medical providers (especially those who have experience working in sexual health) may therefore be able to offer advice on how best to serve the needs of men and overcome barriers to reporting. Conversely, there have been incidents where prejudice on the part of healthcare providers meant that men who reported SDV to the security services did not seek medical treatment. In these cases, the security services may be able to assist in training for healthcare providers.<sup>95</sup>

Feminist and women’s organizations have accumulated a large body of expertise on SDV. (For this reason, reallocating funding from women’s organizations to those providing services to men can be counterproductive, as some of the most experienced staff on SDV will be lost.) Some organizations initially offering support to female victims of sexual and/or domestic violence have begun offering services to men.<sup>96</sup> However, male victims of SDV committed by female perpetrators may have problems accessing majority-female services.<sup>97</sup> The Dyn Project overcame this challenge by creating a separate men’s support organization as an offshoot of the Cardiff Women’s Safety Unit (see Box 18).

### **BOX 18: CASE STUDY – THE DYN PROJECT, CARDIFF, WALES, UNITED KINGDOM<sup>98</sup>**

In 2005 the Cardiff Women’s Safety Unit (WSU) identified the need to provide services for men who had experienced domestic abuse, and founded the Dyn Project (dyn meaning “man” in Welsh) as an offshoot. The project is run under WSU management, which itself operates under the umbrella of Safer Wales, a charity working to address different forms of abuse. The project therefore provides a dedicated service to men while drawing on the experience, resources and network of the WSU.

The Dyn Project is “a ‘one-stop-shop’ where men in Cardiff can access advice, information and support via email, letter, telephone or face-to-face appointments”. It advocates for the needs of individual clients by utilizing an extensive referral network of service providers in areas such as criminal justice, housing, finance, health and legal assistance while also offering training sessions, courses and advice for the service providers themselves. Most of the project’s referrals come through the Domestic Abuse Unit within the local police, who are one of the project’s major funders.

The Dyn Project is highly regarded by the vast majority of its clients, some of whom had been contemplating suicide, for its role in improving their emotional and physical well-being. Furthermore, it delivers significant cost savings to the security sector by providing a coordinated approach and support for victims, which allows police to focus solely on criminal investigations.

There have been some successful all-men-run services; however, in many cases a large proportion of help-seeking male victims have been abused by male perpetrators and hence may want to report to women rather than being in an exclusively male space. In addition, many such organizations focus on perpetrator-oriented anger management and violence reduction programmes.<sup>99</sup>

When targeting men, a referral network should encompass a wide variety of service providers, including those that specifically work with men from minority groups. However, heterosexual men who do not identify with a subculture are often the most difficult group to reach out to. Security institutions therefore need to take time to identify appropriate organizations which can support this large demographic group. With these factors in mind, a good approach for security sector institutions is to establish or take part in committees on addressing SDV committed against men. Members of such committees might include:

- police
- prosecutors
- prisons and probation services
- healthcare workers
- health charities (e.g. mental and sexual health, addiction services)
- child protection officers
- local authorities
- victims' groups
- feminist and women's organizations
- LGBTI organizations
- men's support organizations, e.g. helplines and shelters for male SDV victims
- community organizations representing e.g. youth, LGBTI people and minority ethnic groups
- students' unions
- trade unions (e.g. those addressing sexual harassment in the workplace and advocating for victims' working rights)
- housing/homelessness charities.

### **Good practices for creating, using and managing referral networks addressing sexual and domestic violence committed against men<sup>100</sup>**

- ✓ All responses are centred on the safety of the victim as the primary concern.
- ✓ All members of the network work together in consistently holding the perpetrators accountable for their use of sexual or domestic violence.
- ✓ Demographic statistics and academic research are used to identify groups of men that may have different needs (see Box 9 on page 23).
- ✓ Mapping studies of services available to male victims of SDV are conducted. These may be coordinated by women's organizations, community-specific organizations and other sectors such as healthcare. They consider that men may have dependants, such as children or elderly parents.
- ✓ Coordinated responses to SDV against men are developed by multi-agency committees convened by the senior public or security sector official responsible for preventing and responding to SDV in the target population.
- ✓ All members of the referral network are prepared to change and adapt their working practices to allow coordinated responses to function.
- ✓ A list of available services is compiled and "referral pathways" are developed based on procedures agreed and then uniformly implemented by the whole network. Agreed referral pathways and procedures are documented in policies or memoranda of understanding.
- ✓ Staff can explain the process that will follow each legal option, including what this may mean for the victim, e.g. having to appear in court. This requires all members of the referral network to have a common understanding of the relevant laws and legal framework.
- ✓ Personnel in all organizations that are part of the referral network receive regular training in the services and processes used by the other organizations, so they



refer appropriately and give service users accurate information. It can be useful to have designated units or individual security sector personnel who specialize in these kinds of crimes.

- ✓ The use and effectiveness of the referral pathways and coordinated responses are monitored and regularly reviewed, and changes made to ensure continual improvements in service.

A committee on SDV can assist in creating and coordinating referral networks, pooling resources, identifying experts to support policy-making and training, sharing information and best practices, and monitoring and evaluating impact of police and services. Providing the capacity is available, having a subcommittee on SDV against men may be the most effective strategy in ensuring that issues relating to male victims are sufficiently addressed. Taskforces are similar to committees, but they usually work towards a time-specific goal and are disbanded once this goal has been achieved.

### **Good practices for committees addressing sexual and domestic violence committed against men<sup>101</sup>**

- ✓ The committee is either chaired by, or the chair is directly accountable to, a senior official who is personally responsible for levels of sexual violence within a given jurisdiction (e.g. a high-ranking police officer or a public official responsible for law enforcement such as an attorney general).
- ✓ Members of the committee represent all relevant areas of the security sector and the referral network. Diversity is encouraged, e.g. in terms of gender and background.
- ✓ The effectiveness of the committee itself is monitored and regularly reviewed, and individuals in all the participating organizations held accountable for its effectiveness.

## **4.6 Training and education**

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Educational gender courses and gender-sensitive training can provide security personnel with the skills to identify the different security needs of women, men, girls and boys in their daily work. It is thus important that gender is included as a component of compulsory education for personnel at all levels. Advanced courses can be targeted at personnel in management or more senior positions. Performance evaluations and oversight mechanisms can measure how gender sensitive a security sector is in its activities – including in its response to SDV against men. The nature and length of the gender training can then be adjusted accordingly.

Gender in education and training often focuses largely on women. By including discussions about men and masculinity, all personnel can begin to understand how their

gender affects their daily lives. This should help facilitate discussions on topics such as SDV against men, gradually destigmatizing victims and making personnel more likely to respond positively to reports. In addition, including gender as part of standard training on investigation and response procedures can help security sector personnel understand many of the barriers to reporting faced by male and female SDV victims.

Internal awareness campaigns can be an effective tool to help prevent sexual violence within security sector institutions. Particularly when they have senior-level endorsement, they demonstrate that an institution takes SDV seriously, thereby deterring future perpetrators while at the same time encouraging victims to come forward. This should be combined with explicit top-level endorsement.

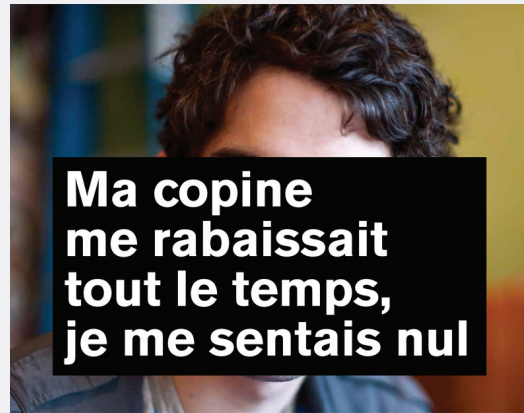
### **Good practices for providing training and education on sexual and domestic violence against men<sup>102</sup>**

- ✓ Gender is routinely included in all basic as well as advanced professional training and education.
- ✓ Gender training outlines how both men and women are affected by their respective gender roles in society.
- ✓ Gender training does not assume that because men may possess greater economic and political power in a given society, they possess greater power within intimate, family and domestic relationships.
- ✓ Gender and/or diversity training specifically addresses men and masculinity, homophobia and transphobia (see Box 3 on page 13).
- ✓ Security sector personnel are given space to express their opinions honestly in small group settings during training and education. In certain settings, having some gender-segregated sessions can encourage openness. The use of lecture-style education is limited.
- ✓ Personnel receive specific training if they work with men whose health, disability, age or past experience of crime (see Box 9 on page 23) puts them in situations with a high risk of sexual violence, e.g. detainees.
- ✓ Specialist staff or units receive extended training on how to respond effectively to male victims of SDV.
- ✓ Regular training is in place to support the implementation of all policies and procedures relating to SDV.
- ✓ Service providers and organizations in the referral network present their work at relevant training sessions.
- ✓ Staff are routinely assessed on their knowledge and implementation of legal and institutional frameworks, procedures and policies on SDV.
- ✓ Any gaps identified are filled by further education and/or training.

## 4.7 Increasing public awareness

Awareness campaigns about the illegality and negative effects of SDV can change what is seen as acceptable and unacceptable in a society and thus help to prevent it. Promoting positive social norms, policies and laws and ensuring that senior personnel and respected figures in society publicly endorse them are also critical to changing attitudes among security sector personnel and their partners in other sectors. An example of an inclusive domestic violence campaign is shown in Box 19.

### BOX 19: CASE STUDY – POSTER CAMPAIGNS IN GENEVA<sup>103</sup>



Poster on the left from top to bottom: raped (feminine form), threatened (f), humiliated (masculine), harassed (f), trapped (f), insulted (m), hit (f) and controlled (m). The screen shot from this video campaign on the right reads: “My girlfriend was putting me down all the time and I felt worthless.” Poster design: Agence Etienne & Etienne.

The Canton of Geneva’s awareness campaign on violence in the home explicitly addresses male and female victims by using both masculine and feminine forms of verbs (ending é and ée respectively) related to domestic violence. The accompanying video campaign, which was shown on public transport vehicles and before films at cinemas, portrayed pictures of both male and female victims. It also acknowledged that parents can be victimized by their own children.

By creating discussions about SDV against men, the public are given an opportunity to acknowledge the problem openly and voice opposition to abusive behaviour. This can go a long way towards moving the stigma from victims to perpetrators.

## Good practices for running awareness campaigns on sexual and domestic violence that recognize male victims<sup>104</sup>

- ✓ Knowledge, attitude and practice surveys are used to determine public attitudes towards SDV against men prior to developing campaign materials.
- ✓ “Social marketing” techniques are used. This involves working with different groups of men in the community, identifying their preferred sources of information and devising methods of making it more socially acceptable to discuss SDV among men. This may involve using music, video clips, video games, social media, theatre, round-table discussions or dramas on television and radio. Celebrity endorsement can also be used.
- ✓ Security sector institutions use existing referral networks for consultation and distribution of public awareness materials. The health sector, for example, often has expertise in reaching out to men in campaigns on sexual health and prostate cancer.
- ✓ Targeted language or images of empowered survivors of SDV are used to encourage men and other historically stigmatized groups to report (e.g. male victims of female violence, homosexual victims, immigrants, sex workers and prisoners). This will also send a signal to potential perpetrators that their victims will be believed and there will be an investigation and potential prosecution.
- ✓ Campaign materials are written using simple language and translated or transcribed where necessary so that immigrants, trafficked victims, blind and deaf people as well as those from linguistic minorities can understand it.
- ✓ Awareness campaigns are used as an opportunity to showcase the diversity of security personnel currently working within the security institution (i.e. in terms of gender, race, religion, etc.)
- ✓ Senior-level personnel or well-known celebrities publicly endorse policies and campaigns, e.g. through speeches, interviews and press releases.
- ✓ Awareness campaigns are timed around local holidays and festivals that celebrate men, such as Father’s Day. This increases their chances of attracting media attention.
- ✓ Awareness campaigns are held in spaces where they will reach targeted groups (e.g. holding semi-structured discussions in bars and putting posters in men’s bathrooms have been used successfully in the past).
- ✓ Different reporting methods, support services and laws relating to SDV against men (whether it occurs within or outside the institution) are well publicized and easy to access (i.e. on posters within the institution, in manuals and/or online).
- ✓ The “bystander approach” to prevention is considered: encouraging individuals to speak up if they witness sexual or domestic abuse, or sexist, homophobic or transphobic language.
- ✓ Indicators are used to monitor the effectiveness of the campaign by measuring changes in the number and diversity of men reporting SDV.<sup>105</sup>

## 4.8 Monitoring and evaluation

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Monitoring and evaluation are vital to security sector institutions to demonstrate their accountability and effectiveness, both to the general public and to the institutions that allocate their resources. They also form a critical component of management cycles, as they allow continuous modifications and adjustments to be made to policies and practices.

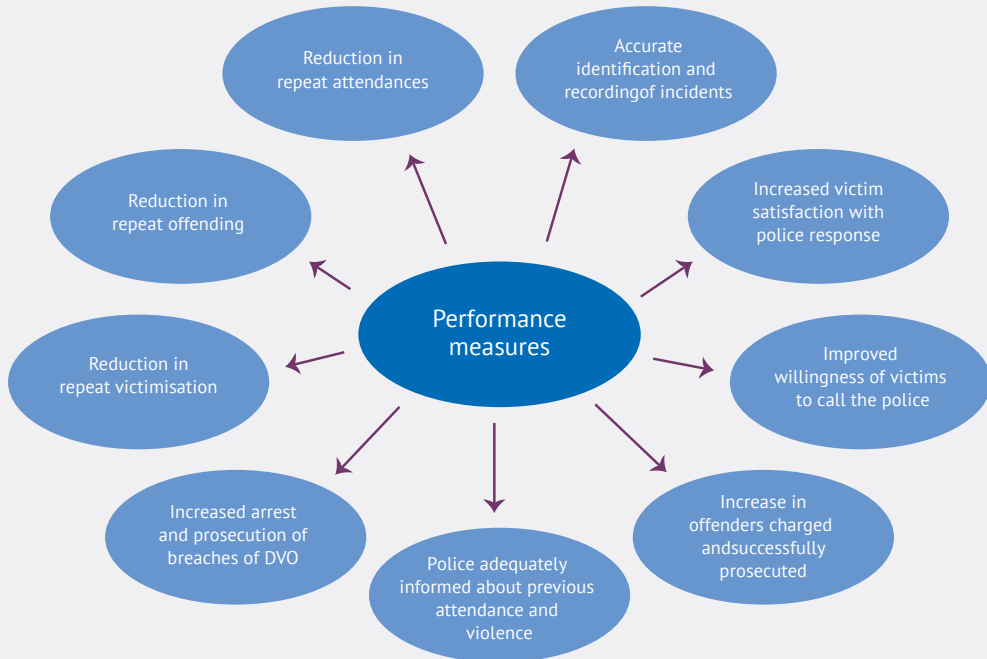
Having comprehensive data on the extent of SDV against men, what services are used and what outcomes are achieved is critical to monitoring and evaluation. Unfortunately, data collection by security sector institutions is often inadequate. For example, domestic violence against a man is recorded merely as assault (if at all); differing definitions of domestic violence and forms of sexual violence make it difficult to compare data at a national or regional level; and statistics on intimate partner terrorism become hidden when the data are combined with situational couple violence. Likewise, while many women's organizations are actively engaged in overseeing and monitoring levels of violence against women and girls, and overseeing the response of security sector institutions, SDV against men tends to be overlooked. This means that alternative sources of data against which to validate crime statistics, for example, are missing.

A number of police services have established mechanisms for measuring their effectiveness in preventing and handling cases of domestic or sexual violence. Box 20 shows an example of performance measures for how police handle domestic violence. Measurement systems should look at two types of measures.

- Impact measures: e.g. number of incidents; number of calls involving repeat victims; number of repeat offenders.
- Process measures: e.g. adherence to procedures/protocols concerning recording of incidents, investigation, evidence collection and case management; percentage of victims using referral services; percentage of arrests resulting in a conviction; coordination with other actors/referral mechanisms; how satisfied the victim was with the police response.<sup>106</sup>

Members of the referral network for male SDV victims can assist police and other security sector institutions to monitor their performance and improve practice.<sup>107</sup>

## BOX 20: PERFORMANCE MEASURES IN POLICING DOMESTIC VIOLENCE<sup>108</sup>



Data can be collected through:

- analysis of calls for police services and the type of report taken
- analysis of case clear-up or case resolution records
- auditing of police investigation files
- auditing of police stations and/or special units tasked to deal with domestic or sexual violence
- victim satisfaction surveys – although any contact with victims must be sensitively handled; in some countries specially trained researchers carry out such surveys

Where this monitoring identifies shortcomings in performance, there should be a review of operational procedures and training, and implementation of new measures. Monitoring and evaluation should be repeated periodically, so that the impact of new measures can be evaluated.

Data on domestic violence and sexual crimes should be clearly identifiable in police operational statistics, while protecting the victims' identities (see Box 21).

### BOX 21: KEY DATA TO COLLECT IN MONITORING AND EVALUATING SEXUAL AND DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST MEN

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender of the victim</li> <li>• Gender of the perpetrator</li> <li>• Relationship between perpetrator and victim</li> <li>• Type of crime</li> <li>• Percentage of victims who report the crime (when collected by NGOs/health sector)</li> <li>• Type of response by security sector (case clear-up or case resolution)</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Percentage of cases going to trial</li> <li>• Percentage resulting in conviction</li> <li>• Percentage of suspects cleared of wrongdoing</li> <li>• Victim's level of satisfaction with security sector response</li> <li>• Demographic and diversity information (see Box 9 on page 23), including heterosexual men who do not identify with any subculture</li> </ul> |
|--|--|

*Note that it is important to sex-disaggregate all data to show not just the total number of male victims and male perpetrators, but also the total number of male victims to male perpetrators and male victims to female perpetrators. The same goes for female victims.*

### Good practices for monitoring and evaluation of responses to sexual and domestic violence against men<sup>109</sup>

- ✓ Definitions of SDV are harmonized between all members of the referral network and any other service providers.
- ✓ Standard data collection forms for victims of SDV are used by all members of the referral network (see Box 21):
  - sex-disaggregated data on both victims and perpetrators collected in a way that can be linked to show how often each type of abuse is committed by one gender against another
  - diversity data on the identity of the victims and perpetrators; this includes recording numbers of heterosexual men who do not identify with a subculture
- ✓ All data are collected in such a way that they can be used to assess the effectiveness of the goals and objectives listed in relevant national and institutional policies and legislation. This includes measuring adherence by security sector institutions and whether laws, procedures and policies are implemented in the way that they were originally intended to be.
- ✓ Holistic monitoring and evaluation programmes are designed and implemented with input of all members of the referral network, in particular those representing victims and members of minority groups. Academics are consulted to support the development of robust research methods and sound data analysis.

- ✓ Monitoring and evaluation compare data from multiple sources, e.g. from the police, health, prison and NGO sectors, as well as from victimization surveys where possible.
- ✓ All monitoring, evaluation and oversight take place within a code of conduct that prioritizes the safety and confidentiality of both those collecting the data and those being monitored.
- ✓ Teams collecting qualitative data (e.g. by conducting interviews) for the purposes of monitoring and evaluation are gender balanced and diverse.
- ✓ Reports regularly publicize findings and are made available to parliamentarians, NGOs and the public.

## 4.9 Oversight

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Oversight mechanisms aim to ensure that a security sector institution uses its powers in a fair and just manner, and to hold it accountable for how effectively it uses its powers and resources. Oversight has an important part to play in supporting improved responses to male victims of SDV.

Internal oversight mechanisms within a security sector institution include the monitoring and evaluation processes described above, as part of a range of different structures and systems used to control, assess, supervise and monitor staff and operational practices and processes. Structures can include inspectorates and internal audit units. Systems can involve performance indicators, quality management systems and early warning systems. For a more detailed examination of gender-sensitive internal oversight see the DCAF/OSCE/ODIHR Guidance Note on Integrating Gender into Internal Police Oversight.

External oversight of a security sector institution, by external civilian authorities, includes its supervision by the relevant government ministry, the judiciary and the parliament (which drafts laws and usually approves budgets). External oversight bodies that are independent from the government include national human rights institutions, ombuds institutions, complaints bodies and local/civilian oversight boards. Informal civilian oversight is also exercised by advocacy organizations, women's groups, research organizations and the media, which might highlight shortcomings and drive change. Their engagement can be an important public awareness mechanism. The roles of these external oversight actors are explored in detail in the DCAF/OSCE/ODIHR Guidance Note for Ombuds Institutions and National Human Rights Institutions on Integrating Gender into Security Sector Oversight, and the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit.

It is important that both internal and external oversight bodies have the mandate, capacity and systems to oversee responses to SDV against men.



### **Good practices for internal oversight of responses to sexual and domestic violence against men<sup>110</sup>**

- ✓ All individuals and bodies that play a role in oversight receive training on SDV against men.
- ✓ Vetting for new and transferred staff involves checking for a history of domestic and sexual violence, including against men.
- ✓ Sensitive posts involving at-risk men are identified and require enhanced vetting.
- ✓ Supervisors are alert to signs that staff may be misusing their position to abuse men, e.g. always volunteering to work on cases involving men in high-risk categories for sexual violence, such as homosexuals, sex workers or abuse victims.
- ✓ Performance evaluations hold staff accountable for their implementation of the legal and institutional frameworks, procedures and policies on SDV against men.
- ✓ Management are held accountable to specific performance targets in relation to preventing and responding to SDV against men.

### **Good practices for external oversight of responses to sexual and domestic violence against men**

- ✓ All individuals and bodies that play a formal role in oversight receive training on SDV against men.
- ✓ Oversight is conducted by gender-balanced and diverse teams.
- ✓ SDV against men is explicitly recognized as an area for attention in policy and strategic documents, and highlighted in any annual reports of the oversight body.
- ✓ Where complaints from the public can be received by the oversight body, examine the complaints and outreach procedures to ensure they encourage male SDV victims to come forward, and that the investigation and complaints handling procedures are sensitive to their needs.
- ✓ Undertake a systematic examination of the handling of SDV against men by one or more security sector institutions, making use of one's own complaints data, data from the security sector institution itself, public inquiries, anonymous surveys, research done by government agencies, parliament, academics and NGOs, etc. Even a small study can provide the evidence base to place an issue on the agenda of government or a security sector institution.
- ✓ Undertake education and awareness raising on SDV against men.

## Notes

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104. World Health Organization and Stop TB Partnership, "Advocacy, communication and social mobilization for TB control: A guide to developing knowledge, attitude and practice surveys", WHO, Geneva, 2008, [http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241596176\\_eng.pdf?ua=1](http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241596176_eng.pdf?ua=1); Jackson Katz, "Mentors in violence prevention (MVP)", 10 August 2003, [www.jacksonkatz.com/aboutmvp.html](http://www.jacksonkatz.com/aboutmvp.html).
105. "Indicators" are quantitative or qualitative statements used to assist monitoring and evaluation to measure how much, or whether, progress is being made toward a certain objective, and to translate change, achievements and impact into measurable and comparable qualitative or quantitative figures.
106. See US Department of Justice, Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, "Problem-oriented guides for police: Domestic violence", Guide No. 45, January 2007, pp. 21–22, <http://www.cops.usdoj.gov/Publications/e12061550.pdf>.
107. See Metropolitan Police Authority, "Domestic and Sexual Violence Board final report 2006–2011", [www.policeauthority.org/Metropolitan/downloads/work/dsvb/MPA%20DSVB%20Final%20Report%202011.pdf](http://www.policeauthority.org/Metropolitan/downloads/work/dsvb/MPA%20DSVB%20Final%20Report%202011.pdf).
108. Kiah Rollings and Natalie Taylor, "Measuring police performance in domestic and family violence", *Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice* 367, 2008, p. 3.
109. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, "Building data systems for monitoring and responding to violence against women: Recommendations from a Workshop", *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 49 (RR-11), October 27 2000. For more information see World Health Organization, "WHO ethical and safety recommendations for researching, documenting and monitoring sexual violence in emergencies", WHO, Geneva, 2007, [http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2007/9789241595681\\_eng.pdf](http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2007/9789241595681_eng.pdf).
110. Independent Police Complaints Commission, note 34 above.



# 5

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## SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS FOR SECURITY SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

The following questions are designed to assist security sector institutions understand how they currently address SDV against men. They may be used as part of a wider gender self-assessment.<sup>111</sup>

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A police officer talks to a staff member from local NGO Ba Futuru as part of a survey on male attitudes to sexual and gender based violence, Timor-Leste.  
Photo: Henri Myrntinen/International Alert.

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### a. Laws, policies and procedures

*These questions refer to any kind of written guidance used by the security sector institution.*

1. What laws, policies and procedures address domestic and sexual violence?
2. How are domestic violence and sexual violence defined in these laws, policies and procedures? E.g.:
  - a. who can be a perpetrator and who can be a victim?
  - b. for domestic violence, is physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence included?
3. What specific provisions are made for male victims of sexual or domestic violence?
4. How are men who report sexual or domestic violence protected from:
  - a. being prosecuted for other crimes such as a sodomy, fraternization, adultery or underage sex?
  - b. retaliation by perpetrators and their colleagues?

### b. Response and investigation

*These questions refer to the way in which cases of SDV are dealt with. They apply to victims who are members of the public as well as those who are security sector personnel.*

1. How, where and to whom can a report of SDV by a male victim be made?
2. What measures are in place to encourage reports by male victims (such as materials directed towards male victims)?
3. How are standard responses and/or standard operating procedures adapted to the different needs of male and female victims of sexual or domestic violence?
4. What measures does the security sector institution have in place to protect and support a male victim and his dependants (such as children and elderly or disabled relatives) once sexual or domestic violence has been reported?
5. To what extent can a male victim who does not wish to cooperate in an investigation and/or prosecution access protection and support?
6. What safeguards are in place to increase the chances of a successful investigation and conviction of the perpetrator? For example:
  - a. are victims advised on what steps they can take to maximize the chance of forensic teams being able to collect the perpetrator's DNA?
  - b. is evidence stored securely if an immediate prosecution is not possible?
  - c. are staff trained in taking the testimonies of victims who may be experiencing post- traumatic stress disorder or rape trauma syndrome?

### c. Referral networks and response coordination

*These questions refer to the ways security sector institutions can participate in a coordinated response to SDV against men.*

1. What services are available to support the diverse needs of male SDV victims and their dependants?
2. What procedures are followed to refer male victims to services offered by public agencies (e.g. health, housing) and NGOs? Is there a “no wrong door” policy, for example? (See Section 4.2.)
3. What procedures do other members of the referral network use to refer male victims to police or other relevant security services?
4. How are statistical data, specialized knowledge and best practices concerning male victims shared within the referral network?
5. How are members of the referral network trained to respond to SDV cases concerning male victims?

### d. Training, education and awareness-raising

*These questions refer to education and training within security sector institutions as well as to public awareness campaigns.*

1. In what way do the training and education of security sector personnel address topics such as:
  - a. concepts of gender and gender equality?
  - b. men, masculinities and how social stereotypes of “being a man” affect men’s lives?
  - c. homophobia, transphobia and LGBTI discrimination?
  - d. religious, racial and ethnic diversity/discrimination?
  - e. dynamics of domestic violence, including crimes committed against men?
  - f. dynamics of sexual violence, including crimes committed against men?
  - g. institutional policies on sexual harassment and fraternization?
2. What relevant training and education do staff responsible for receiving, responding to and/or handling cases of SDV against men receive?
3. How does this training:
  - a. reinforce the understanding that men can be victims and women and (heterosexual and homosexual) men can be perpetrators?
  - b. cover the specific barriers to reporting that male victims might experience?
4. How do staff demonstrate their understanding of the legal framework and evidentiary requirements related to SDV when committed against men?

5. Is information easily available for personnel regarding responding to and/or handling male victims of SDV?
6. Is the security institution actively engaged in initiatives to raise awareness about SDV among the public, inmates and in areas of operations, as appropriate?
7. How do awareness campaigns and materials show that both victims and perpetrators may be male or female, and represent the diversity within the target population (e.g. by including an image of an adult male victim)?

### e. Monitoring, evaluation and oversight

*These questions apply to the oversight, monitoring and evaluation of SDV against men at the national level and within security sector institutions. They apply to both internal and external/independent processes.*

1. How do security sector institutions monitor and evaluate their own ability to prevent and respond to SDV against men?
2. Against what objectives and benchmarks (e.g. gender action plan) is the security sector response to SDV against men measured? In other words, are rules and guidance on SDV against men being interpreted in the way that was intended, and are they having the desired results?
3. How do security sector institutions use the information collected on SDV against men during monitoring and evaluation exercises to adjust and improve the quality of services they provide?
4. How are statistics and reports on the security sector's response to SDV against men made public?
5. What mechanisms are available for male victims of SDV to complain about how their cases were handled by one or more security sector institutions?
6. Which local, national, regional and international bodies oversee the security sector's response to SDV against men? (Examples might include local security committees, parliamentary committees, national human rights institutions, independent complaints bodies, NGOs and international human rights bodies.)
7. How do these external bodies oversee the measures taken by security sector institutions to prevent and respond to SDV against men?



## Notes

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



PRATE

# HARAPA VIOLENSIA

Se uza, violensia o sei laka  
uza, votus mak o sei m  
Mane duni, la presiza uza

# 6

## CONCLUSION

Sexual and domestic violence against men may be an age-old problem, but it does not need to be an age-old taboo. Although recognizing and responding to male victims of SDV are the primary focus of this guidance note, this should be seen within the wider context of creating an increasingly gender-sensitive security sector. Addressing male SDV victims comes as the latest development in a movement that began by recognizing that the security needs of individual women are distinct from those of “households”. By doing this, the security sector began to understand the importance of addressing security threats in the private sphere as well as those in public spaces. Integrating female personnel into the security sector was the next step, and this demonstrated that women could be providers of security as well as victims of insecurity. Responding to the notion that a man’s gender can also make him vulnerable in certain circumstances brings us full circle, as it demonstrates that, aside from being providers of security, men can also be victims of insecurity.

Recognizing male vulnerability to SDV is undoubtedly challenging for security sector providers. It forces individuals within these organizations to reconsider some of their deep-held assumptions about the roles that men and women play in society. It also poses some serious practical challenges, such as overcoming longstanding barriers to reporting, which require the security sector to develop a new kind of relationship with its male population.

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Young Timorese men join a campaign to stop violence.  
Photo: Henri Myrntinen/International Alert.

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The first step to successfully confronting any challenge, whether it be security related or not, is to become enlightened on the topic at hand. While this guidance note attempts to provide an introduction to SDV against men and an overview of some of the good practices that currently exist to address it, it does not aim to provide a comprehensive set of answers. However, the more security sector institutions work on this issue, the more they will undoubtedly develop innovative practices and ideas. In this way this guidance note aspires to empower security sector actors to deliver a level of service that will earn them respect and honour, enabling them to better fulfil their mandate to protect and serve their target population.

# 7

## ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

### Organizations working with male victims of sexual and/or domestic violence

Broken Rainbow, UK, [www.brokenrainbow.org.uk/](http://www.brokenrainbow.org.uk/).

Dyn Project, UK, [www.dynwales.org/](http://www.dynwales.org/).

MenEngage Alliance, international, [www.menengage.org/](http://www.menengage.org/).

One in Three Campaign, Australia, [www.oneinthree.com.au/](http://www.oneinthree.com.au/).

One in Six Campaign, USA, <https://1in6.org/>.

Promundo, Brazil, Rwanda and USA, [www.promundo.org.br](http://www.promundo.org.br).

Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network (RAINN), USA, [www.rainn.org/](http://www.rainn.org/).

Refugee Law Project, Uganda, [www.refugeelawproject.org/](http://www.refugeelawproject.org/).

Sonke Gender Justice Network, South Africa, [www.genderjustice.org.za](http://www.genderjustice.org.za).

Survivors UK, UK, [www.survivorsuk.org/](http://www.survivorsuk.org/).

Up! International, Switzerland, [www.up-international.org](http://www.up-international.org).

### Resources for working with male survivors of sexual and domestic violence

Amanda L. Robinson and James Rowlands, “The Dyn Project: Supporting men experiencing domestic abuse”, December 2006, [www.cardiff.ac.uk/socsi/resources/Dyn\\_Final\\_Evaluation\\_Report.pdf](http://www.cardiff.ac.uk/socsi/resources/Dyn_Final_Evaluation_Report.pdf).

Australian Centre for Study of Sexual Assault, “Improving policy and practice responses for men sexually abused in childhood”, ACSSA Wrap No. 12, 2012, [www.aifs.gov.au/acssa/pubs/wrap/wrap12/index.html](http://www.aifs.gov.au/acssa/pubs/wrap/wrap12/index.html).

Kathleen C. Basile, Marci F. Hertz and Sudie E. Back, “Intimate partner violence and sexual violence victimization assessment instruments for use in healthcare settings”, version 1, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Atlanta, GA, 2007, [www.cdc.gov/ncipc/pub-res/images/ipvandsvscreening.pdf](http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/pub-res/images/ipvandsvscreening.pdf).

Respect, “Toolkit for work with male victims of domestic violence”, 2nd edn, February 2013, [www.mensadvice.org.uk/pages/toolkit-for-work-with-male-victims-of-domestic-violence.html](http://www.mensadvice.org.uk/pages/toolkit-for-work-with-male-victims-of-domestic-violence.html).

UNHCR, “Working with men and boy survivors of sexual and gender-based violence in forced displacement”, Need to Know Guidance 4, 2012, [www.refworld.org/pdfid/5006aa262.pdf](http://www.refworld.org/pdfid/5006aa262.pdf).

UN Office on Drugs and Crime, “Handbook on effective police responses to violence against women”, 2010, [www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/hb\\_eff\\_police\\_responses.pdf](http://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/hb_eff_police_responses.pdf). *(NB: Even though this book primarily covers female victims, it contains many good practices that also apply to male SDV victims.)*

### Resources for working with the security sector to address sexual and domestic violence against men

Megan Bastick and Kristin Valasek (eds), “Gender and security sector reform toolkit”, DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN-INSTRAW, Geneva, 2008, [www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Security-Sector-Reform-Toolkit](http://www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Gender-Security-Sector-Reform-Toolkit).

DCAF/OSCE/ODIHR Guidance Notes on Integrating Gender into Internal Police Oversight and Integrating a Gender Perspective into Internal Oversight within Armed Forces, DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, Geneva, 2014, [www.dcaf.ch/Publications](http://www.dcaf.ch/Publications).

Sonke Gender Justice Network and Just Detention International, “Addressing HIV and sexual violence in Department of Correctional Services facilities: A guide for working with members of the Department of Correctional Services”, 2012, [www.genderjustice.org.za/resources/doc\\_download/101327-guide-addressing-hiv-and-sexual-violence-in-department-of-correctional-services-facilities.html](http://www.genderjustice.org.za/resources/doc_download/101327-guide-addressing-hiv-and-sexual-violence-in-department-of-correctional-services-facilities.html).

## Resources for creating legislation to address sexual and domestic violence against men

UN Commission on Human Rights, “A framework for model legislation on domestic violence”, UN Doc. E/CN.4/1996/53/Add.2, 2, UN Economic and Social Council, February 1996, [www.endvawnow.org/en/articles/398-definition-of-domestic-violence.html](http://www.endvawnow.org/en/articles/398-definition-of-domestic-violence.html).

UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Division for Advancement of Women, “Handbook for legislation on violence against women”, United Nations, New York, 2010, [www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/handbook/Handbook%20for%20legislation%20on%20violence%20against%20women.pdf](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/handbook/Handbook%20for%20legislation%20on%20violence%20against%20women.pdf)

## Resources for engaging men in society on issues of sexual and domestic violence

Promundo, “Program H manual”, Promundo, PAHO, WHO and International Planned Parenthood Association, Rio de Janeiro, 2002, [www.promundo.org.br/en/activities/activities-posts/program-h-manuals-download/](http://www.promundo.org.br/en/activities/activities-posts/program-h-manuals-download/).

Sonke Gender Justice Network, “One man can toolkit”, Johannesburg, 2006, [http://genderjustice.org.za/resources/cat\\_view/218-tools/223-omc-toolkit.html](http://genderjustice.org.za/resources/cat_view/218-tools/223-omc-toolkit.html).

## Resources on creating baselines and for monitoring and evaluation

World Health Organization, “WHO ethical and safety recommendations for researching, documenting and monitoring sexual violence in emergencies”, WHO, Geneva, 2007, [http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2007/9789241595681\\_eng.pdf](http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2007/9789241595681_eng.pdf).

World Health Organization and Stop TB Partnership, “Advocacy, communication and social mobilization for TB control: A guide to developing knowledge, attitude and practice surveys”, WHO, Geneva, 2008, [http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241596176\\_eng.pdf?ua=1](http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241596176_eng.pdf?ua=1).

## Video documentaries on sexual violence against men

Al-Jazeera, “The silent male victims of rape”, 28 July 2001, [www.aljazeera.com/programmes/insidestory/2011/07/2011728101626315380.html](http://www.aljazeera.com/programmes/insidestory/2011/07/2011728101626315380.html).

Refugee Law Project, “Gender against men”, 21 May 2012, [www.youtube.com/watch?v=mJSI99HQYXc](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mJSI99HQYXc).

## Annex 1: Evaluation of this guidance note

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DCAF would value your feedback on this publication – how you used it, whether you found it useful and what you would suggest changing.

We would be interested in your responses to some or all of the following questions.

1. With what type of audience or in what type of institution did you use this publication?
  - Armed forces
  - Police
  - Justice
  - Prisons
  - Civil society groups / NGOs
  - Parliamentarians
  - Other (please specify)
2. How did you use it? For example, in:
  - a. Needs assessment
  - b. Research
  - c. Developing new policies
  - d. Organising a workshop or seminar
  - e. Training
  - f. Monitoring and evaluation
3. Did you find any parts of the publications unclear?
4. Were there any issues not included in this publication that you found to be important?
5. Were there any issues included in this publication that in your opinion should not be included?
6. What has the impact of using this publication been for your work/organisation?
7. What revisions would you suggest we make to this publication?
8. What additional resources would you suggest we develop in connection with this topic, if any?

**Please send comments by e-mail to [gender@dcaf.ch](mailto:gender@dcaf.ch) or post them to:**

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