



National Gender Policy Implementation and Provision of Security Services in Uganda: A Case of Uganda Police Force in Kampala Metropolitan Area

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Abstract: *The article examines the association of National gender policy and provision of services by the Uganda Police Force. The researcher used mixed methods research approach for data collection and analysis. A sample of 225 was used from a population of 528 from the different departments, with a response rate of 91.1%. The paper used survey, interview, focus group discussion, observation, and document review methods of research. Respondents were selected using purposive, simple random and quota sampling techniques and Uganda police force was the unit of analysis. It was found out that there was a positive relationship between gender inclusion and effective provision of services in Uganda Police Force. The paper concluded that gender equality in Uganda police force has not been fully effective due to challenges and reluctance in the implementation of the policy which poses a big gap that needs to be filled in order to have balanced service provision by the Uganda police force.*

Keywords: *Gender equality, Gender inclusion, Uganda Police Force, Service provision*

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1. Introduction

The composition and culture of nation's police force, which is sensitive to gender policy, plays an essential role in its ability to achieve its mandate and goals. Employing a diverse work force, particularly in terms of gender inclusion and female representation in all ranks within the policing command structure is a vital determinant for setting a police force's culture, considering the influence female participation can have on effective service delivery within the police force, like effective management of crimes specifically of sexual nature, domestic violence that disproportionately affect women in the community (Jacqueline, 2019)

The participation of female police officers is critical for full spectrum of Uganda police services such as the promotion of rule of law, intelligence, planning, leadership, investigation, public order management, capacity building, community-oriented policing, gender

awareness and engaging communities (UNSCR 2242, 2015). In addition to that the Uganda gender policy 2007 is very clear on gender equity and participation in all departments both government and private at all levels of administration.

However, notwithstanding the efforts of advancements by the Uganda police force on gender equality and mainstreaming, the force is faced with the shortage of female officers to fit in all sensitive positions from the top management to the grass root police unit at a village level. This affects police management negatively. Out of the current 27 Topmost police managers, that is director and above, there is only one female, 24 deputy directors, one female departmental heads six with one female, twenty-eight (28) regional police commanders only three are females and 156 district police commanders only 18 are females and the list is long but that sample shows how women are poorly represented in critical management levels of the police.

This poor female representation in critical management layers in the police does not only reveal gender discrimination but affect service provision by the Uganda police force. Uganda police is grappling with the ever-increasing cases of human rights violation in which others come as a result of very few or no female officers deployed in some of the police stations and posts across the country. It is a reality that Uganda police force is faced with a challenge of very few female officers in its ranks a cross department, Units and stations all over the country where some police units lack a single female police officer, The female officers are very critical in crime management, public order according to the laws of Uganda and good practices which is internationally accepted like search, interviewing victims of sexual related cases and juveniles in conflict with law or victims of crime. The UPF statistical abstract (2015) indicates that out of the 44897, 7700, 17.1% are female and 37,197 (82.9%) males, which is still below in respect of crime management in the country.

Increasing crime cases involving women as victims or perpetrators in the country, which require a good proportion of female officers to handle them a long side male officer. In the same vein, the rapid increasing population where female account for over 51% (NHPC 2015- 2021), and they all need police services at one point puts pressure on the current number of police officers and Uganda police force in general when it comes to service delivery.

The current CID strength in the country stands at 1,001 female detectives Due to the short fall in strength, some police units work without detective personnel and it is even worse when it becomes to female officers and it compromises police services. (Strategic policing Plan 2015/16- 2019/20).

There is a steady growing need and demand for female officers' services in many other public and private sectors, which can be provided by Uganda police force, like the growing numbers of women in very important positions in the country, female diplomats and many others who prefers close security personnel (bodyguards) to be female officers. Of female officer's services by other government department locally and internationally to work in missions' world over. And the police cannot escape the demands of the public for effectiveness and quality services from the Uganda police force. Therefore, the paper was motivated by all the fore mentioned gaps to investigate the relationship between gender equality and the provision of security services by the Uganda Police Forces. The study analyzed and discussed the effects of gender policy and provision of security services by the Uganda police force in the contemporary policing. The study used Uganda police as the main unit of analysis, which helped the researcher to get the underpinning silent issue which affect gender inclusion and security service provision in the UPF.

It also sought to examine the silent gender gaps between

gender inclusion and provision of security services that still exist and affect Uganda police force, like gender equality and equity, women empowerment, decision making and representation, among others with the view of solving them.

The study helped in developing a phenomenological research model "SAPEW" which would help in the bridging of the empirical gaps between gender inclusion and provision of security services by Uganda Police force and help the Uganda police force to attain the government Vision 240 on modern, pro- people police force.

The study aimed at ensuring a police force which is effective in execution of its mandate, professional, and accountable to the members of the public through observing, respecting and promoting of rights of all Ugandans.

More to that to produce the contemporary police force, which is able to work in the contemporary world and be able to encounter contemporary crimes and challenges.

Research Question

The study was guided by the following research question.

How is gender Policy implemented in the provision of security services in Uganda police force?

2. Literature Review

Gender equality reinforces the human capacities of security institutions. This is why it is asserted that security institutions that deny fair access, working conditions and opportunities for professional development to women professionals deprive themselves from tapping into the skills and competencies of half of the population (Ahikire & Madanda 2009). Conversely, institutions that do welcome both women and men into their staff and create fair and healthy working environments that equally promote the leadership of men and women, have access to a wider range of skills and are more representative of the population they serve (Ward & Prenzler, 2016). This increases the operational capacities of institutions that value gender balance, facilitate their relations with different social groups, and allow them to provide more appropriate responses to the security challenges experienced by a variety of people, and such institutions are more effective and accountable (Alanen et al., 2004).

In West Africa, security institutions have long been grounded in male-dominated cultures and conceptions. Despite progress made in some contexts, the overall persistence of sexist and discriminatory structures and practices in the security sector creates considerable challenges for establishing effective and accountable

security institutions (Alberto, 2018). While the African Union (AU) and ECOWAS recommend that the specific security and justice needs of men, women, boys and girls be fully integrated into all security sector reform processes and governance mechanisms, the transition from theory to practice is often challenging (Albrecht et al., 2008).

Gender roles, stereotypes and bias also affect the access of service users to support and protection from security threats (Denham, 2008). For instance, men who have endured sexual and/or domestic violence often experience gender-specific barriers to accessing security and justice services. Due to misconceptions about sexual and domestic violence, as well as stereotypes in relation to men and masculinity, law enforcement agencies and other actors of the penal system sometimes deny men the legal protection offered by anti- sexual abuse and anti-domestic violence laws (Barberet, 2014). This may be the result of discriminatory policies and practices; but it may also be the result of more implicit, sometimes unintentional biases, which manifest in a number of ways, such as in hostile attitudes towards women in leadership positions or a tendency by leadership to favor men over women when training and other professional development opportunities arise (Botting, 2017).

Moreover, women, men, girls and boys have different experiences of security, which is why gender is an important factor in determining the particular forms of insecurity a person is likely to face. More generally, effective strategies to guarantee the security of individuals must take into account the impact of gender roles on victimization in order to accurately address the needs and vulnerabilities of men, women, boys and girls in their social environments (Barnes, 2006).

Achieving a police service that contributes to gender equality will take different trajectories in different contexts. Three approaches have built up a considerable catalogue of experience from which to learn by becoming a more respectful and representative service. A more representative police service draws more effectively on the breadth of available skills and qualities, enhancing overall police quality (Caglar & Prugl, 2013). It also contributes to improved communication, trust and police response to crimes involving marginalized genders. Improving representation requires a gendered analysis of the police workforce, as well as understanding how policing is represented to and experienced by different genders in ways that drive patterns of recruitment, retention and advancement (Buzan, 2007).

It may involve measures to recruit, retain and promote more women and putting in place gender-responsive infrastructure. The use of police associations may provide networks, mentoring and peer support to marginalized genders within the police. More broadly, the institutional culture of the police service needs to

align with welcoming a more diverse gender composition, including ensuring inclusive participation in organizational decision-making (Bryden, Allan 2007). *Hence there are a number of ways in which gender equality has positively impacted on the work of security institutions, including among others:*

Efforts to promote gender perspective and gender equality in the security, as elsewhere, have often been met with skepticism, apathy, passive, active resistance and attempt to subvert the process. Addressing issues of gender and gendered power dynamics can challenge some people's beliefs or personal identities, as well as privilege and positions of power which can be uncomfortable (Baylis, 2013). Resistance occurs during processes of change and can have various drivers, such as unwillingness to change the status quo, distrust of those who are driving the change, political or ideological resistance, lack of interest or personal discomfort with the issue. Although the ways in which resistance is manifested vary (Poulain, 2013)

Mandates: Security institutions operate according to mandates determined by legal and policy frameworks. Integrating the aims and principles of gender equality into these frameworks helps establish more robust mandates that empower security institutions to more effectively respond to the security needs of all members of society (Caparini & Marenin, 2004). In the context of national policy development, using gender to analyze threats such as violent extremism can help national authorities better understand the recruitment, grooming and victimization processes used by extremist groups.

It can also help them develop more comprehensive security policies that address the needs of all members of the population men and women, boys and girls and not just certain parts of this population (Carlton-Ford & Ender, 2011). Conversely, a lack of attention to gender specific dimensions of security can lead to unbalanced assessments or an inappropriate prioritization of the security threats affecting the country and its population.

Equal power distribution: it is important to ensure that men and women are equally represented in the police accountability structures, both within the police, as well as within State institutions and independent oversight bodies. To date, men have tended to be overrepresented in these structures (Carreiras, 2007). Increasing the participation of women in oversight helps to ensure that they are and are perceived to be representative, which can increase public confidence and responsiveness of oversight to the concerns of all citizens.

Involving civil society with gender expertise, including women's organizations, men's organizations and gender experts, can strengthen both formal and informal security sector oversight mechanisms (Carreiras, 2006). Equality between women and men should not be merely formal (i.e., the fact that women and men are treated the same);

it requires giving men and women equal chances and opportunities to fulfill their potential, and providing them with a conducive environment and the necessary support to do so (Carter, 2015). Concretely, this means that it is not enough to guarantee women treatment that is equal to that of men. The biological differences between male and female, as well as the socially and culturally constructed differences between men and women, must be taken into account; and addressing those differences may require non-identical treatment (Chenoweth, E. and A. Lawrence, Eds. 2010).

Figures from the Uganda Police Department show that the police force is comprised of 38,001 officers of whom 5,252 (14%) are women. The highest career rank in the Uganda Police Department is that of the Assistant Inspector General of Police. Above that rank are two positions of Inspector General and Deputy Inspector General of Police which are political appointments. Currently, these two positions are occupied by men. There are twelve officers at the level of Assistant Inspector General of Police, two (16%) of whom are female.

Equitable decisions making powers for both men and women; The UNDP-Uganda Country Gender Assessment October, (2015) indicated that by early 2000, Uganda had reputable Practices and legislation to press forward gender equivalence.) The 1995 Constitution of Uganda, Article 33(6), prohibits laws, customs or traditions which are against the dignity, welfare or interest of women. It further states that men and women are equal before law and where gender bias exists, the Constitution provides for the execution of affirmative measures to address these imbalances. In the last few years, sector-specific legal reforms, especially in the context of access to justice and protection of women's and girls' rights have been put in place, namely: the 2010 law on Domestic Violence and the 2011 Native Violence regulations; the anti-Female Genital Defacement Act of 2010; the Anti-trafficking in Persons Act of 2009; and the Identical Opportunities Commission Act in 2007.

The report further states that, both the Beijing evaluation and the Progress of World's Women Report (2015-2016), recognized that gender-sensitive authorized transformation has not adequately made privileges and fiscal revolution real for females. De Guzman and Frank (2004) in their study on policewomen and their career problems found out those women police officers faced the greatest challenges involving perceptions of their stereotypical roles. Since the early 1990s management scholars have increasingly noted that it become a tactical idea to hire women as the continuing problem of getting and maintaining talented staff would grow to be necessary in the days to come (Acker, 2006). This argument is in support of the position of the UN that advocates for the requisite to boost the quantities of female staff in problem solving sites, in order to present women's securities and exploit growing proof that

women's participation improves the way in which management and decision-making is proficient (UN report 1992).

There is equal resource distribution among departments including gender; Women must have full access to assets, including financial services, land ownership, or inheritance rights for daughters. 67% of the population in Uganda thinks that land parcels should be the responsibility of men, and almost one in three Ugandans believe that women should not have the same access to land as men. Although no laws prohibit it, traditionally women in Uganda do not own family land. They do, however, perform most of the agricultural work. Women's economic dependency may contribute to violence and discrimination against them (Demmers, 2012).

The resources are equitably allocated; historically, women in Uganda have not enjoyed the same rights and opportunities as men due to marginalization and the negative biases that place women at an inferior position to that of men. They have long been denied access to major economic resources, particularly land and credit. Men acquire land, the most valuable resource, through a protected social system that guarantees passage from father to son. Women own just 16 per cent of the registered land. Apart from a few who are economically advantaged, the majority of women only have user rights determined by the relationship they have with the male landowner father, husband or brother. Patriarchy continues its control of how people think; their actions; who gets what, where and when a fact that retards development (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

Equal availability of promotion to both gender; whereas women have been in law enforcement for more than a decade, they are still encountered with discernment and harassment. Women police officers often face discrimination from their male colleagues and most of the female officers meet the "brass ceiling explaining their not being capable to travel up in flourishing and can only go so far, as far as the commanding ceiling will allow them. The process that the Uganda Police Force follows when promoting its officers varies and it therefore requires a critical analysis whenever a critique in this matter is arises. According to Laurie (1996), morale has been recognized to be of great significance to the forces and that one of the tenets of morale is promotion at the workplace. The increased representation of women in the police is seen mostly at the lower cadre; according to the UPF staff list only two women are at the level of director out of all the 21 directorates of the police, (UPF Staff List, 2015).

Roles are availed on merit not based on gender: Operational policing (OP) refers to 'police in the field, visible out there, working with the people in order to deal with problems of crime and disorder in society. OP is commonly contrasted with support services, for instance

community policing, logistics and engineering, human resources, intelligence, medical assistance, etc., that enable those in operations to do their work (Deslauriers, 2019). OP is perceived to be the heart of the institution and provides the UPF with visibility. OP officers are visible in the community, working with people in order to deal with crime and disorder. OP is paramount and the UPF cannot afford anything to go wrong. All resources are used to scrutinize the OP team and to ensure that the UPF has the best team conducting OP. Operations are of a high-risk nature and officers are expected to be on duty whenever the need arises (Duncanson & Woodward, 2016).

Although the UPF Human Resource and Gender Policies stipulate that deployment is to be based on merit, institutional norms and practices inform decisions regarding deployment in OP. The UPF modus operandi prioritizes operations over everything else and tacitly drives the deployment and participation of men in OP (Ebnoether & Gustenau, 2004). This is because, owing to gender division of labour and related factors, men are more likely to always be available for deployment, are believed to perform to the best of their ability, and are seen as performing more effectively and efficiently in combating crime and commanding fellow police officers to carry out their duties. In some instances, respondents reported that officers responsible for deploying personnel view women as a burden and limit their inclusion in highly visible and 'risky' operations (Eltahir, 2007)

According to Olabisi, (2015) the consequences of gender inequalities transcend all aspects of human welfare including poverty, disease, education and environmental health. Gender equality is thus intrinsically linked to sustainable development and is vital to the realization of human rights for all. The overall objective of gender equality is a society in which women and men enjoy the same opportunities, rights and obligations in all spheres of life.

According to Ellen (2017), women's career equality is a multilevel, multidisciplinary dynamic phenomenon that reflects the degree to which women, compared to men, have equal access to and participation in career opportunities, experience equal work and non-work outcomes, intrinsic job, life, family satisfaction and extrinsic promotions. It can be measured at the individual and collective or societal, occupational, organizational, levels.

3.Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The researcher adopted a multi-method research design known as triangulation. A simultaneous triangulation as opposed to sequential was used where qualitative and quantitative questions are answered at the same time but the results of qualitative questions are reported and analyzed separately from quantitative question and the outcome does not necessarily confirm or relate each other. "Qual: Quan and Quan: Qual" (Clerke, R, 2005).

3.2 Sample size determination

A target population of 225 was used in this research determined using Morgan's table for research activities. Study collected responses from accessible population of 205 respondents giving a response rate of 91.1%. Stratified random sampling, which involves defining the population, sample size, identifying the sub- groups, classifying the members, and then randomly selecting the respondents using an appropriate number of individuals from each sub- group (Krejcie & Morgan 1970).

3.3 Sampling techniques

Purposive sampling was used because the focus of the researcher was to get in-depth information and not simply making generalizations, (Neuman, 2003). However, purposive was interlinked with snow balling as explained below.

3.4 Simple random sampling

Simple random sampling technique was informed by cluster and quota sampling techniques as explained below. 7 groups of participants between 5- 15 female and male officers selected from the barracks of Nsambya Police barracks, Katwe police barracks and Mpigi police barracks and interest women groups then men groups volunteers. Ideally, the sample size of more than a few hundred is required in order to be able to apply simple random sampling in an appropriate manner. It can be argued that simple random sampling is easy to understand in theory (Kitzinger, 1995 & 1994).

Table 1: Sample size determination

S/N	Respondents category	Population.	Sample size.	Method
1	Top managers	03	2	Purposive
2	Managers (all directors)	27	13	purposive
3	Middle managers (departmental heads)	61	25	Quota sampling
4	RPCs/R/CID/CFPU	81	40	Simple random.
5	Tactical (DPCs, D/CID)	316	100	Simple random.
6	Barracks administration	40	25	Simple random.
7	Releted Government departments and NGOs.	60	20	Simple random
Total		588	225	

Source: *Original work (2020).*

The researcher targeted the following policies and laws for analysis, the Uganda National Gender policy, and the enacted Parliamentary laws which are intended to operationalize the National Gender Policy, line Ministries Gender policy which are ministry of Gender labour and culture affairs, Ministry of Internal affairs, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development and Ministry of Defense.

In the same vein, the researcher perused and analyzed the domestication of the National and Ministerial Gender Policies in their departments of core security sectors as follows the Uganda People's (UPF) Gender Policy. The researcher continued to analyze the recruitment policy in all those departments, deployment and placement policy, standard operating procedures of those departments, work place policy, leave policy and Mission deployment policy in Uganda police force (Ralph & Birks, 2014).

3.5 Data collection methods

Data collection is a process of collecting information from all the relevant sources to find answers to the research problem, test the hypothesis and evaluate the outcomes. Data collection methods can be divided into two categories: secondary methods of data collection and primary methods of data collection, (Li, 2016). The researcher used triangulation data collection approach to find out regularities as recommended by (Holliday, 2002) and supported by Walcott (2001), who adds that the practice of checking multiple sources is often touted as one of the strengths of field work. Different methods are used in qualitative research, but the researcher used interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis among others, (Choo, E. et.al. 2015).

Interviewing, the researcher interviewed a total of 35 participants selected from each category, but saturation point determined the number of participants in each category during field study, (Ranney, 2015). Different grades of structured, semi- structured, open ended, in-depth interviews were used depending on the researcher's choice and the interviewee category. (Guest

et at, 2006)

The study used the questionnaire method to collect data from a total of 82 respondents in avenues where it was needed. The use of a questionnaire in this study was important because its application in avenues where the sample size is quite big and widely spread. This method allows for the collection of information from this wide coverage of respondents as suggested by (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Data on these variables was therefore obtained by using a closed ended questionnaire which allowed for easier correlation of the attitudinal disposition of the respondents on the independent and dependent variables.

Data collection process involved collecting information from all the relevant sources to find answers to the research problem, test the objectives and evaluate the outcomes. Data collection methods were divided into two categories: secondary and primary methods of data collection, (Romney, et al. 2015). The researcher analyzed the Uganda police force gender policy documents, line ministries gender policy documents, print media, electronic information, articles, reports, minutes, SOPs, deployment plans circulars and many others document relevant for this research, (Prior,2003).

The researcher used observation in checking the office space, accommodation status of the officers, sanitation, water and cooking space. Controlled observations were used by the researcher in a psychology laboratory whereby the researcher decided where the observation took place, at what time, with which participants, in what circumstances used by help of a standardized procedure. The researcher used both overt and covert to obtain information where necessary, (Choo, 2015).

The researcher formed 8 groups of 7-15 participants in each group and engaged until saturation point. (Richie et al, 2003). The researcher stimulated discussion to examine how knowledge and ideas develop and operate in a given group. A group of between 7 and 15 participants were selected from each category based on

random sampling by the researcher, (Green & Thorogood, 2010). This covered a total number of 85 participants.

3.6 Data collection instruments

The researcher exploited the computer questionnaire to reach the 82 respondents to answer the questionnaires. The advantages of the computer questionnaires include their inexpensive price, time-efficiency, and respondents do not feel pressured, therefore can answer when they have time, giving more accurate answers. However, the main shortcoming of the mail questionnaires is that sometimes respondents do not bother answering them and they can just ignore the questionnaire (Sharp & Rogers 2015).

Telephone interviews were also used to reach 8 potential respondents on phone interview with the aim of getting them to answer the questions where he failed other methods, but it was pre-arranged before the actual interview.

Fourteen (14) respondents were also reached through mailing questionnaires. These were respondents who were at Mbarara, Gulu, Masaka Luwero, Soroti and in Kampala for those who preferred that option where respondents answered the questionnaires at their spare time. 60 questionnaires were filled in face to face and collected by the researcher.

The researcher used structured interview, semi-structured interview, in-depth interview. (Bauer, 2017) and collected information from 35 respondents. In structured interviews the questions as well as their order is already scheduled while in-depth interviews are less formal and the least structured, in which the wording and questions are not predetermined. This type of interview is more appropriate to collect complex information with a higher proportion of opinion-based information, (De Vaus & de Vaus, 2001 (Ranney et al, 2015).

The researcher used 7 – 15 participants in each focus group to generate information from a total of 85 members from different stations. During the discussion the facilitator was the researcher and he charged with Preparation of the group, set the purpose of the meeting, identified the participants and developed the questions to guide group. At the beginning of the meeting the researcher opened the discussion, manages the discussion and closed the focus group then he made a follow-up, (Sparkes, 2015; Bajpai, 2011).

The researcher made use of the available and relevant documents to the research topic like policies, to enable him to obtain the necessary information from the documents of even people who may not be reached or are no longer alive during the research, (Pemecky, 2016).

The researcher was also a participant in the activity, this is one of the most widely used methods for social research. The researcher made use of observation guides that helped him to focus on what they needed to know. This is highly recommended when more than one researcher is involved in gathering data as it ensures that everyone follows the same procedure, (Denicolo, Long & Bradley-Cole, 2016).

3.7 Validity and Reliability of instruments

According to Aron & Aron (1999) “the validity of a measure refers to whether it actually measures, what it claims to measure” therefore the researcher ensured that the instruments are tested to prove the reliability and accuracy and levels of adoptability on all respondents who are included in this study. Reliability of an instrument means the ability of that very instrument to give uniform responses each time it is used on the same phenomenon.

The formula for getting validity of research instrument is $CVR = \frac{n - N/2}{N}$ where CVR = Content Validity Ratio or index, n = number of respondents indicating “essential” N = total number of respondents. The researcher used the content validity index (CVI) of 0.8833 which is 83.3% as basis of ironing out the randomness within the factors considered in the instruments.

To calculate this kind of reliability the researcher reported the percentage of argument on the same subject between his raters and that of the assistant, however half of the test, instruments or survey was used to analyze the half as if were whole. Then comparison of these results was taken with the overall analysis. The space saver method was used in establishing the reliability of the questionnaires to be used (Aron & Aron, 1999).

Once more to ensure validity and reliability of the outcome of the research, the whole research process was carried out under the close supervision and guidance of competent, qualified and professional supervisors’ right away from the onset of the research process. In addition to that, the thesis was subjected to external examination for purposes of quality control, validity and reliability.

3.8 Data analysis

Descriptive statistics was used in this analysis and data presented in percentages, mean and frequencies. Analysis was done at three different levels: univariate to assess one variable descriptively; bivariate to establish significant relationships between two variables. The Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS), version 23+ was used to analyze the quantitative data.

The researcher incorporated the three qualitative data analysis steps described by (Omery 1983 & Giorgi 1985)

and blanketing whereby the researcher suspended his own meaning and interpretations during data analysis but sticks to what the interviewee said rather than what he was expected to say.

The researcher attempted to determine whether any of the units of relevant meaning naturally cluster together as common themes. Once the emergent patterns of general meaning were noted, they were then reduced to units of meaning relevant to the research question. (Miles, 1994).

The researcher organized the constituents identified into a thematic structural description in order to grasp the relation of the essential meanings through their coherence and then make a composite summary of all the interviews to accurately capture the essence of the phenomenon being investigated. The researcher perused the data and identified the information that is relevant to the research questions and objectives, developed coding system, highlight key questions or insights, and placed them under themes. Once again, the researcher developed a summary report indicating the major themes and association between themes to present the findings. Quantitative data from semi-structured questionnaires, interviews from informants were entered in the computer and analyzed using statistical package for social scientists (SPSS).

For content analysis the researcher used inductive where themes and patterns are developed. The researcher systematically described the form of content of written or spoken materials, he examined the intensity with which certain words have been used and then described the form in which content analysis classification systems

was developed to record the information. The researcher used systematic, designation, attribution, assertions and pragmatic content analysis during data analysis, (Miles, 1994).

While much of the data generated by qualitative research was analyzed using the researcher's eyes and brain, computer software was also used to analyze the collected data.

The data was presented in a narrative form using thematic, figures, tables, charts, visual representations, and plates in a chronological order based on themes, sub themes and categories that were developed from the analysis of the data. The themes and sub-themes have a leakage with the overall research topic, (Nulting, 2001).

4. Results and Discussion

The analysis, therefore, opens with the descriptive statistics (frequency and percentage) for the level of agreement on a six-point Likert scale of the GENDER IDENTITY (Table 1). Where; 1=strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4= Slightly Agree, 5= Agree and 6= Strongly Agree.

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The paper used descriptive statistics, (frequency and percentage) for the level of agreement on a six-point Likert scale. Where; 1=strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4= Slightly Agree, 5= Agree and 6= Strongly Agree

Table 2: Gender Equality and provision of security services

GENDER IDENTITY	N	SD	D	SWD	SWA	A	SA	Mean	STD
Increasing the number of women police officers improves responses to domestic and sexual violence	79	0%	1%(1)	0%	0%	6%(5)	93%(73)	5.89	0.506
The Uganda Police Force has the constitutional duty to protect life and property	79	1%(1)	0%	0%	0%	10%(8)	89%(70)	5.84	0.629
Both men and women are represented in all programs that integrate human rights	79	13%	1%(1)	0%	2.5%(2)	1%(1)	82%(65)	5.25	1.721
Uganda police builds socio-cultural and political support for women's participation	79	1%(1)	0%	0%	0%	90%(71)	9%(7)	5.04	0.542
Gender identity describes the individual's own psychological perception of being male, female	79	4%(3)	0%	0%	0%	81%(64)	15%(12)	5.00	0.877
Some cultures limit women's interaction with men outside of their families	79	0%	1%(1)	0%	0%	95%(75)	4%(3)	5.00	0.392

SD meant Strongly Disagree, D meant Disagree, SWD meant Some What Disagree, SWA meant Some What Agree A meant Agree, SA meant Strongly Agree and M meant Mean, STD meant Standard Deviation

Source: Field Data, 2021

The study established that increasing the number of women police officers improves responses to domestic and sexual violence.

Findings on whether increasing the number of women police officers improves responses to domestic and sexual violence indicates that 0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 1% disagreed, 0% somewhat disagree, 0% somewhat agree, 6% agreed and 93% strongly agreed with the statement. The mean of 5.89 (Standard Deviation=0.506) implying that the majority of respondents that increasing the number of women police officers also improves responses to crimes involving domestic and sexual violence, which are among the most prevalent crimes in both post-conflict and non-conflict affected societies. The findings above are in line with Woodrow and Oatly (2013) who found out that Afghanistan, Kosovo, Liberia, and Sierra Leone have established specialized police forces to address family violence. In many instances, especially where women have been part of liberation struggles, such as in Rwanda and Uganda, women have skills and understanding of issues that can benefit security institutions, especially regarding forces' relations with the community. It would therefore be valuable to recruit and support them in various areas of the sector.

Interview responses revealed that women police have the power and authority to enter a home and speak to women they believe may be victims of violence, even if male occupants object. The police may further have the authority to seize weapons, force a batterer to leave the home or arrest him even without the support of the victim. In some jurisdictions, the police automatically charge any person suspected of having assaulted or abused a woman. Such measures have been enacted to further safeguard women who fear reprisal and further victimization in Uganda police force.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

In Uganda Police Force, the question of gender inclusion is not new in its administration. The gender policy of the Uganda Police Force was developed to establish an inclusive and gender responsive Uganda police force that respects and upholds the rights and dignity of women, men, girls and boys. The policy offers practical guidelines on a range of human resource issues in order to make processes more gender sensitive in every department to achieve the 30% women participation, empowerment, representation and gender equality at large. However, the Uganda Police Force experience with gender inclusion still shows that it has not benefitted much due to reluctance in policy implementation and the female officers not really fully positioned for the challenges of high ranks bending to

biological roles.

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations come from this study:

1. The female police officers should position themselves for deployment in higher positions by enhancing their academic and professional qualification, gaining courage and required skills for higher position and more so work on the attitude change that women are always led by men.
2. The female police officers should also show interest and ability to take over bigger responsibilities by balancing their biological roles and duty demands in order to shoulder bigger responsibilities and the challenges that it comes with.
3. The Uganda Police Force should ensure that affirmative action is fully implemented during recruitment, training and deployment in accordance with the government policy of at least 30% female representation in all government departments.
4. The government should provide conducive work place environment which is accommodative to gender issues such as accommodation, medical facilities, electricity and water, education facilities like kids' recreation centers within the police barracks so that the gender is given a priority to attain education for example, day care, nursery, primary and secondary schools.
5. Increase budget allocation towards gender related issues and create a gender department which will look at all gender related issues other than women affairs.

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